

# Direct involvement of $\sigma$ -1 receptors in the dopamine D<sub>1</sub> receptor-mediated effects of cocaine

Gemma Navarro<sup>a</sup>, Estefanía Moreno<sup>a</sup>, Marisol Aymerich<sup>b</sup>, Daniel Marcellino<sup>c</sup>, Peter J. McCormick<sup>a</sup>, Josefa Mallo<sup>a</sup>, Antoni Cortés<sup>a</sup>, Vicent Casadó<sup>a</sup>, Enric I. Canela<sup>a</sup>, Jordi Ortiz<sup>d</sup>, Kjell Fuxe<sup>c</sup>, Carmen Lluís<sup>a</sup>, Sergi Ferré<sup>e,1</sup>, and Rafael Franco<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red sobre Enfermedades Neurodegenerativas, and Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona, 08028 Barcelona, Spain; <sup>b</sup>Centro de Investigación Médica Aplicada, Universidad de Navarra, 31008 Pamplona, Spain; <sup>c</sup>Department of Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutet, 17177 Stockholm, Sweden; <sup>d</sup>Neuroscience Institute and Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, 08193 Bellaterra, Spain; and <sup>e</sup>National Institute on Drug Abuse, Intramural Research Program, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, Baltimore, MD 21224

Edited by Leslie Lars Iversen, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom, and approved September 10, 2010 (received for review June 22, 2010)

It is well known that cocaine blocks the dopamine transporter. This mechanism should lead to a general increase in dopaminergic neurotransmission, and yet dopamine D<sub>1</sub> receptors (D<sub>1</sub>Rs) play a more significant role in the behavioral effects of cocaine than the other dopamine receptor subtypes. Cocaine also binds to  $\sigma$ -1 receptors, the physiological role of which is largely unknown. In the present study, D<sub>1</sub>R and  $\sigma$ -1R were found to heteromerize in transfected cells, where cocaine robustly potentiated D<sub>1</sub>R-mediated adenylyl cyclase activation, induced MAPK activation per se and counteracted MAPK activation induced by D<sub>1</sub>R stimulation in a dopamine transporter-independent and  $\sigma$ -1R-dependent manner. Some of these effects were also demonstrated in murine striatal slices and were absent in  $\sigma$ -1R KO mice, providing evidence for the existence of  $\sigma$ -1R-D<sub>1</sub>R heteromers in the brain. Therefore, these results provide a molecular explanation for which D<sub>1</sub>R plays a more significant role in the behavioral effects of cocaine, through  $\sigma$ -1R-D<sub>1</sub>R heteromerization, and provide a unique perspective toward understanding the molecular basis of cocaine addiction.

receptor heteromer | drug addiction

**A** key molecular mechanism contributing to the development of addiction by drugs of abuse consist of the increase of the extracellular levels of dopamine in the striatum, particularly in its ventral portion, the nucleus accumbens (1, 2). Cocaine causes a rapid and strong increase in striatal extracellular dopamine by its ability to bind with high affinity to the dopamine transporter (DAT) and to inhibit its function (3–5). In the striatum, dopamine signaling is mediated mainly by dopamine D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> receptors (D<sub>1</sub>Rs and D<sub>2</sub>Rs, respectively), which are mostly segregated in two phenotypically different subtypes of GABAergic medium-sized spiny neurons (MSNs) (6). Activation of D<sub>1</sub>Rs is an absolute requirement for the induction of many of the cellular and behavioral responses to cocaine, as deduced from studies performed in D<sub>1</sub>R KO mice and from experiments with transgenic mice in which D<sub>1</sub>R- or D<sub>2</sub>R-expressing MSNs are visualized by the expression of fluorescent proteins (7–11).

The  $\sigma$ -1 receptor, originally proposed as a subtype of opioid receptors, is now considered to be a nonopioid receptor with two transmembrane domains, one extracellular loop and cytosolic N and C termini (12). The  $\sigma$ -1R is highly expressed in the brain, including the striatum, and its association with neurons is well established (12, 13). However, its biological function and even its main endogenous neurotransmitter remain enigmatic (12). Cocaine interacts with  $\sigma$ -1Rs at pharmacologically relevant concentrations (12, 14). In fact, reducing brain  $\sigma$ -1R levels with antisense oligonucleotides attenuates the convulsive and locomotor stimulant actions of cocaine (15, 16), and  $\sigma$ -1R antagonists mitigate the actions of cocaine in animal models (12, 14). A recent study showed that  $\sigma$ -1R agonists not only potentiate the reinforcing effects of cocaine, but they may be self-administered (17). In the current study, we explored the existence of molecular and

functional interactions between  $\sigma$ -1R and D<sub>1</sub>R, which could underlie these pharmacological interactions.

Using bioluminescence resonance energy transfer-based techniques, we report a molecular interaction in living cells between  $\sigma$ -1R and D<sub>1</sub>R. Cocaine was able to bind to a receptor heteromer constituted by at least one  $\sigma$ -1R and two D<sub>1</sub>R units and promoted structural changes in the heteromer that led to significant modifications in D<sub>1</sub>R function. Cocaine effects on D<sub>1</sub>R function did not occur in cells transfected with  $\sigma$ -1R siRNA or in striatal slices of  $\sigma$ -1R KO mice. Altogether, the findings indicate that  $\sigma$ -1R-D<sub>1</sub>R heteromer-mediated alterations of dopaminergic neurotransmission constitutes a previously uncharacterized mechanism of cocaine action.

## Results

**Heteromerization of  $\sigma$ -1R and D<sub>1</sub>R.** We explored the possibility that  $\sigma$ -1R might interact directly with D<sub>1</sub>R. BRET measurements were performed in HEK-293T cells expressing a constant amount of D<sub>1</sub>R fused to *Renilla Luciferase* (Rluc) and increasing amounts of  $\sigma$ -1R fused to yellow fluorescence protein (YFP). A positive and saturable BRET signal was obtained (BRET<sub>max</sub>, 44 ± 4; BRET<sub>50</sub>, 18 ± 3; Fig. 1A). The pair constituted by the adenosine A<sub>1</sub> receptor fused to Rluc, and the  $\sigma$ -1R-YFP was used as a negative control. As shown in Fig. 1A, the negative control gave a linear nonspecific BRET signal, thus confirming the specificity of the interaction between D<sub>1</sub>R-Rluc and  $\sigma$ -1R-YFP. Because one of the limitations of BRET is that it cannot distinguish between two or three interacting proteins, and because homomerization seems to be a requirement for the normal membrane expression of D<sub>1</sub>R (18), we investigated the possible formation of receptor heteromers constituted by  $\sigma$ -1R and D<sub>1</sub>R homomers by combining BRET with bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC, Fig. 1C) (19). Cells were cotransfected with cDNAs for  $\sigma$ -1R-Rluc, D<sub>1</sub>R-nYFP and D<sub>1</sub>R-cYFP, and BRET between  $\sigma$ -1R-Rluc receptor as donor and reconstituted D<sub>1</sub>R-nYFP-D<sub>1</sub>R-cYFP homomer as acceptor was evaluated.  $\sigma$ -1R-D<sub>1</sub>R-D<sub>1</sub>R heterotrimerization could be demonstrated by a positive and saturable BRET signal (BRET<sub>max</sub>, 46 ± 6; BRET<sub>50</sub>, 21 ± 5; Fig. 1B). Cells expressing  $\sigma$ -1R, D<sub>1</sub>R-cYFP and nYFP or  $\sigma$ -1R, D<sub>1</sub>R-nYFP and cYFP did not provide any significant fluorescent signal or positive BRET. An additional negative control was performed using GABA<sub>B2</sub> receptor fused to Rluc, which did not

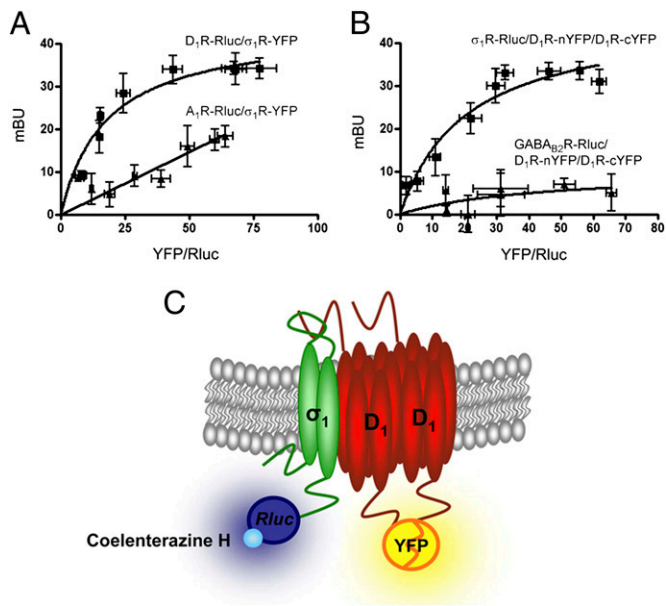
Author contributions: G.N., D.M., P.J.M., J.M., V.C., E.I.C., J.O., K.F., C.L., S.F., and R.F. designed research; G.N., E.M., M.A., A.C., and V.C. performed research; G.N., E.M., C.L., and S.F. analyzed data; and G.N., K.F., C.L., S.F., and R.F. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

<sup>1</sup>To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: sferre@intra.nida.nih.gov.

This article contains supporting information online at [www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1008911107/-DCSupplemental](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1008911107/-DCSupplemental).

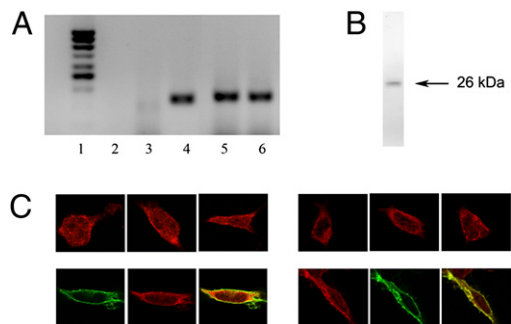


**Fig. 1.** Heteromerization of  $D_1R$  and  $\sigma_1R$  in living cells. (A) BRET saturation experiments performed with HEK-293T cells transfected with  $D_1R$ -Rluc cDNA (0.6  $\mu$ g;  $\blacksquare$ ) or  $A_1R$ -Rluc cDNA as negative control (0.4  $\mu$ g;  $\blacktriangle$ ) and increasing amounts of  $\sigma_1R$ -YFP cDNA (0.2–2  $\mu$ g cDNA). (B) BRET saturation curve was obtained using HEK-293T cells cotransfected with  $\sigma_1R$ -Rluc cDNA (0.4  $\mu$ g,  $\blacksquare$ ) or  $GABA_{B2}R$ -Rluc cDNA as negative control (0.5  $\mu$ g;  $\blacktriangle$ ) and increasing equal amounts of  $D_1R$ -nYFP and  $D_1R$ -cYFP cDNAs (0.5–4  $\mu$ g cDNA). BRET data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SD of five to six different experiments grouped as a function of the amount of BRET acceptor. (C) Schematic representation of BiFC. A receptor-Rluc acts as BRET donor and, as BRET acceptor, one receptor is fused to an YFP N-terminal fragment (nYFP) and another receptor is fused to the remaining YFP C-terminal fragment (cYFP). Upon coexpression, fluorescence indicates reconstitution of YFP from both fragments and therefore a close receptor–receptor interaction.

interact with  $D_1R$  homodimers (Fig. 1B). Collectively, these results indicate that  $\sigma_1R$ - $D_1R$  heteromers occur in cells coexpressing both receptors.

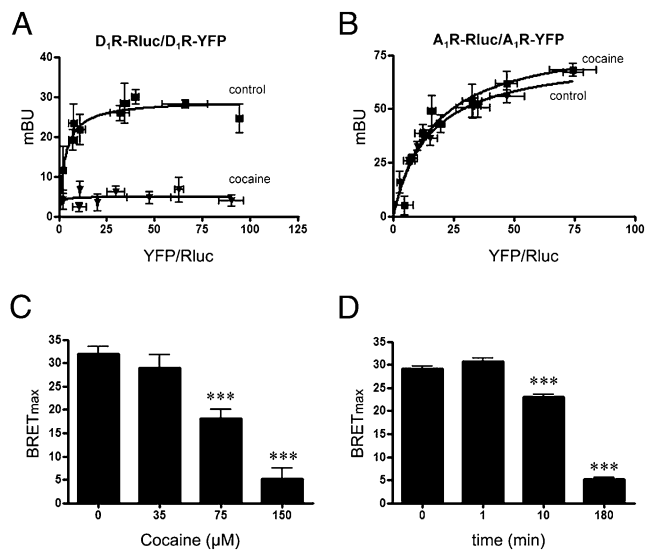
**Cocaine Induces Modifications of Subcellular Distribution of  $\sigma_1R$ .** It is known that the majority of  $\sigma_1R$  are found in the endoplasmic reticulum membrane (12). The possibility that cocaine binding to the  $\sigma_1R$  may alter the cell surface levels of putative  $\sigma_1R$ - $D_1R$  heteromers was therefore explored. HEK-293T cells were used in the assays, because they constitutively express  $\sigma_1R$ , but not DAT (Fig. 2A and B). By means of immunofluorescence a punctate  $\sigma_1R$  staining in naïve HEK cells was detected, which is the expected pattern for an endoplasmic reticulum-associated protein (Fig. 2C, Left, top images). Expression of  $D_1R$  induced in HEK-293T cells an increase in the localization of  $\sigma_1R$  at the plasma membrane (Fig. 2C, Left, bottom images), suggesting that heteromerization with  $D_1R$  facilitates translocation of  $\sigma_1R$  to the plasma membrane. Cocaine (150  $\mu$ M; 30 min) produced an increase of  $\sigma_1R$  expression at the plasma membrane in non-transfected cells (Fig. 2C, Right, top images) and an increase in the colocalization of  $\sigma_1R$ s and  $D_1R$ s in transfected cells (Fig. 2C, Right, bottom images), suggesting that cocaine induces an increase in the amount of  $\sigma_1R$ - $D_1R$  heteromers at the plasma membrane.

**Cocaine Induces Modifications of Quaternary Structure of  $D_1R$  Homomers in  $\sigma_1R$ - $D_1R$  Heteromer.** The observed changes in the plasma membrane expression of  $\sigma_1R$ - $D_1R$  heteromers in the presence of cocaine suggested that cocaine binding might be altering the interaction between  $D_1R$ s and  $\sigma_1R$ s. Such a change



**Fig. 2.** Expression and subcellular distribution of  $\sigma_1R$ . (A) RT-PCR was performed using total RNA from HEK-293T cells (lanes 2, 3, 5, and 6) or RNA from human striatum as DAT positive control (lane 4), and primers specific for the human  $\sigma_1R$  gene (lane 5), for the human DAT gene (lanes 3 and 4), or for human GAPDH (lane 6). RNA from cells without primers (lane 2) was included as negative control. Molecular mass markers are shown in lane 1. (B) HEK cell membranes were analyzed by SDS/PAGE and immunoblotted with the anti- $\sigma_1R$  antibody. (C) Confocal microscopy images of HEK-293T cells transfected (Lower) or not transfected (Upper) with  $D_1R$ -YFP cDNA, treated (right images) or not treated (left images) with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine for 30 min. The  $\sigma_1R$  (red) and  $D_1R$  (green) were identified by immunocytochemistry. Colocalization is shown in yellow.

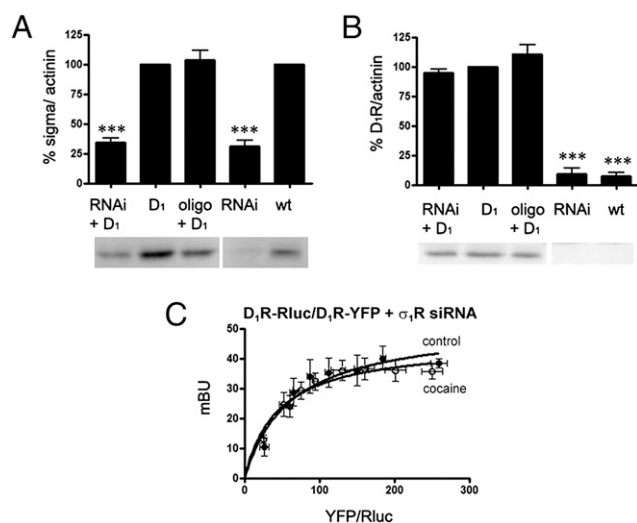
should be detectable using an energy transfer-based approach. In HEK-293T cells expressing  $D_1R$ -Rluc and  $D_1R$ -YFP, the BRET saturation curve corresponding to  $D_1R$ -Rluc- $D_1R$ -YFP pair was drastically reduced in the presence of cocaine (Fig. 3A). This effect was specific for the  $D_1R$ , because it did not occur for the  $A_1R$ -Rluc and  $A_1R$ -YFP pair (Fig. 3B) and was dose dependent (Fig. 3C) and time dependent (Fig. 3D). Although the BRET signal for the  $D_1R$ -Rluc- $D_1R$ -YFP pair was negligible at 180 min



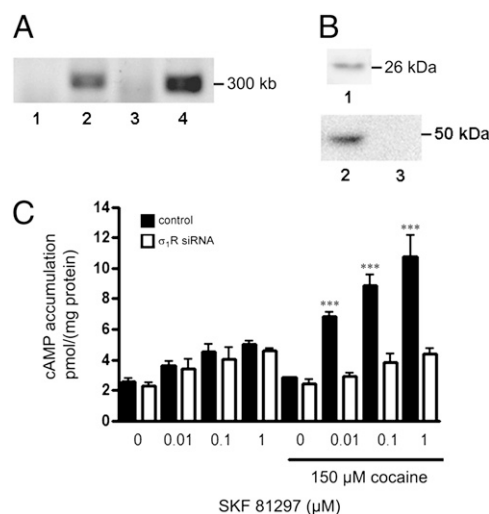
**Fig. 3.** Effects of cocaine on  $D_1R$  homomers. BRET was measured in HEK-293T cells cotransfected with  $D_1R$ -Rluc cDNA (0.6  $\mu$ g) and increasing amounts of  $D_1R$ -YFP cDNA (A) or  $A_1R$ -Rluc cDNA (0.4  $\mu$ g) and increasing amounts of  $A_1R$ -YFP cDNA (B), treated ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) or not treated ( $\blacksquare$ ) with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine for 180 min. BRET data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SD of four to six different experiments grouped as a function of the amount of BRET acceptor. (C) Cells were treated for 180 min with the indicated concentrations of cocaine before the determination of BRET. (D) Cells were treated with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine for the indicated times before the determination of BRET. BRET<sub>max</sub> data are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM of four to six different experiments. \*\*\*Significantly different ( $P < 0.001$ ) compared with cocaine 0  $\mu$ M or 0 min (one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests).

of cocaine treatment, there was no real disruption of D<sub>1</sub>R homomerization, because cocaine did not modify the amount of fluorescence in HEK 293 cells expressing D<sub>1</sub>R-cYFP-D<sub>1</sub>R-nYFP dimers. These results strongly suggest that cocaine binding to σ<sub>1</sub>R alters the quaternary structure of the σ<sub>1</sub>R-D<sub>1</sub>R-D<sub>1</sub>R heteromer, resulting from separation of the C-termini of the D<sub>1</sub>R protomers fused to Rluc and YFP. The participation of σ<sub>1</sub>R on the cocaine-mediated alteration of the quaternary structure of D<sub>1</sub>R was demonstrated in experiments performed in cells the σ<sub>1</sub>R expression of which was knocked down using an RNAi approach. By RNA interference (RNAi), using a specific small interfering RNA (siRNA), a robust silencing of σ<sub>1</sub>R expression was obtained without significantly altering the expression of D<sub>1</sub>R (Figs. 4A and B). The treatment with the specific siRNA completely abolished the effect of cocaine on the BRET saturation curve obtained with D<sub>1</sub>R-Rluc and D<sub>1</sub>R-YFP (Fig. 4C). Finally, the selective σ<sub>1</sub>R agonist PRE084 also modified the BRET saturation curve corresponding to D<sub>1</sub>R-Rluc-D<sub>1</sub>R-YFP pair (200 nM; 10 min) (Fig. S1).

**Cocaine Binding to σ<sub>1</sub>R Modulates D<sub>1</sub>R Function in Living Cells.** To study how cocaine affects D<sub>1</sub>R-mediated signaling, CHO cells were used, as they provided a lower baseline of signaling for which to detect downstream changes. CHO cells were also shown to constitutively express σ<sub>1</sub>Rs but not DAT or D<sub>1</sub>Rs (Fig. 5A and B). As expected, in CHO cells expressing D<sub>1</sub>Rs, the full D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 dose-dependently increased cAMP production (Fig. 5C). Treatment with cocaine (150 μM; 10 min) did not induce a significant increase in cAMP, but robustly enhanced D<sub>1</sub>R agonist-induced cAMP accumulation (Fig. 5C). This was completely counteracted by silencing expression of σ<sub>1</sub>R via RNAi (Fig. 5C), indicating that this effect of cocaine was mediated by σ<sub>1</sub>R. SKF 81297 also produced a dose-dependent MAPK activation (ERK1/2 phosphorylation; Fig. 6A) with a maximum re-

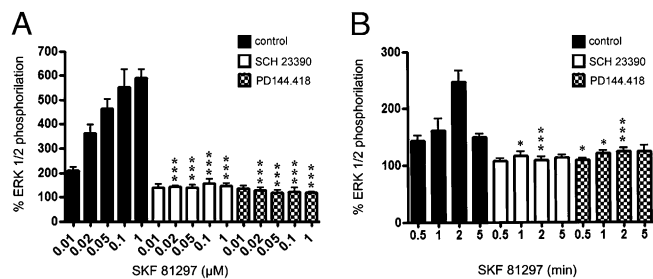


**Fig. 4.** Effect of cocaine on D<sub>1</sub>R homomers was mediated by σ<sub>1</sub>R. (A and B) HEK-293T cells were transfected or not transfected (wt, nontransfected cells) with σ<sub>1</sub>R siRNA, irrelevant oligonucleotides (oligo) and/or D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA (D<sub>1</sub>). Cell membranes were analyzed by SDS/PAGE and immunoblotted with the anti-σ<sub>1</sub>R (A) or D<sub>1</sub>R (B) antibody. Values are mean ± SEM of three experiments, and a representative Western blot for σ<sub>1</sub>R (A) or D<sub>1</sub>R (B) is shown. \*\*\**P* < 0.001 compared with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA transfected cells (one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests). (C) BRET saturation experiments were performed in HEK-293T cells cotransfected with σ<sub>1</sub>R siRNA (50 pmol), D<sub>1</sub>R-Rluc receptor cDNA (0.5 μg), and increasing amounts of D<sub>1</sub>R-YFP cDNA (0.3–3 μg cDNA), treated (open symbols) or not (filled symbols) with 150 μM cocaine for 30 min. BRET data are expressed as mean ± SD of four to six different experiments grouped as a function of the amount of BRET acceptor.



**Fig. 5.** Effect of cocaine on D<sub>1</sub>R-mediated cAMP production. (A) RT-PCR was performed using total RNA from CHO cells (lanes 1–4) and primers for Chinese hamster σ<sub>1</sub>R (lane 2), DAT (lane 3), or GAPDH (lane 4). RNA from cells without primers (lane 1) was included as negative control. (B) CHO cell membranes were analyzed by SDS/PAGE and immunoblotted with the anti-σ<sub>1</sub>R antibody (top blot) or anti-D<sub>1</sub>R antibody (bottom blot, lanes 1 and 2: cells transfected or not transfected with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA, respectively). (C) CHO cells transfected with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA (1.5 μg, filled bars) or cotransfected with D<sub>1</sub>R receptor cDNA and 125 pmol σ<sub>1</sub>R siRNA (open bars) were treated with increasing concentrations of D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 for 10 min in the absence or presence of 150 μM cocaine or with cocaine alone. Results are mean ± SEM of three to six independent experiments performed in triplicate. Bifactorial ANOVA of results of samples without or with siRNA transfection showed significant effect of SKF (*P* < 0.0001 and *P* < 0.001, respectively), but only in samples without siRNA transfection was there a highly significant effect of cocaine (\*\*\*) *P* < 0.0001, compared with samples with the same concentration of SKF 81297 and without RNAi transfection and in the absence of cocaine; Bonferroni post hoc tests).

sponse at 2 min (Fig. 6B). SKF 81297-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was inhibited by the D<sub>1</sub>R antagonist SCH 23390 (10 μM) and also by the σ<sub>1</sub>R antagonist PD144.418 (1 μM; Figs. 6A and B), indicating that σ<sub>1</sub>R modulates a D<sub>1</sub>R-mediated MAP kinase pathway in addition to the cAMP pathway.

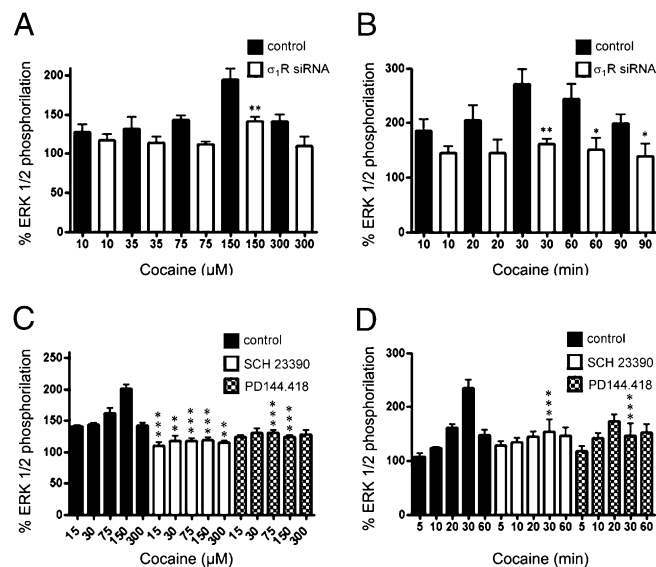


**Fig. 6.** Effect of σ<sub>1</sub>R ligands on D<sub>1</sub>R-mediated ERK1/2 phosphorylation. CHO cells transfected with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA (1.5 μg) were stimulated with increasing concentrations of the D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 for 2 min (A) or with 100 nM SKF 81297 for increasing periods of time (B) in the absence (filled bars) or presence of 10 μM D<sub>1</sub>R antagonist SCH 23390 (open bars) or 1 μM σ<sub>1</sub>R specific ligand PD144.418 (cross-hatched bars). ERK1/2 phosphorylation is represented as percentage over basal levels (100%). Results are a mean ± SEM of four independent experiments performed in duplicate. Bifactorial ANOVA showed a significant effect of SKF 81297 (*P* < 0.0001 in A and *P* < 0.001 in B), and Bonferroni post hoc tests showed a significant SCH 23390-mediated or PD144.418-mediated counteraction of the effect SKF 81297 (\**P* < 0.05 and \*\*\**P* < 0.001, compared with control samples with the same concentration and exposure time of SKF 81297).

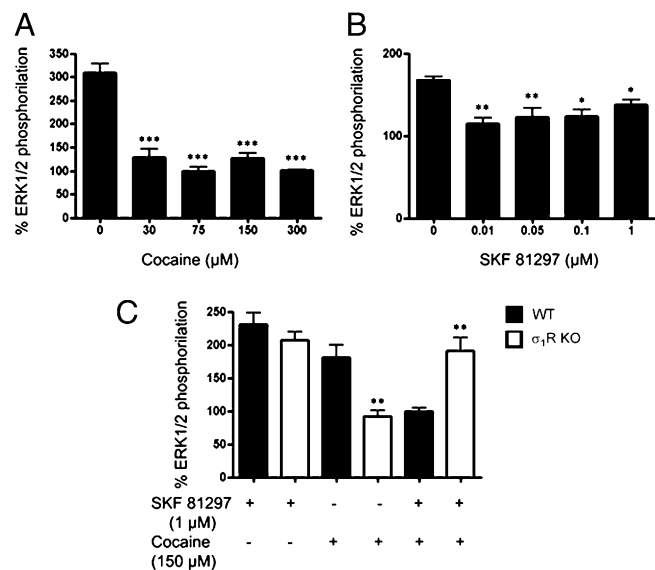


Importantly, cocaine per se dose-dependently (Fig. 7A) and time-dependently (Fig. 7B) activated ERK1/2 phosphorylation. Again, this effect was mediated by  $\sigma_1$ R, as it was strongly diminished in cells transfected with the  $\sigma_1$ R siRNA (Fig. 7A and B). Furthermore, a similar effect could be obtained with the selective  $\sigma_1$ R agonist PRE084 (Fig. S1). Cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation seemed to be dependent on D<sub>1</sub>R expression, because the increase in ERK1/2 phosphorylation was not found in CHO cells lacking D<sub>1</sub>R expression (Fig. S2). Moreover, cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation in cells expressing  $\sigma_1$ R and D<sub>1</sub>R was not only counteracted by PD144.418 (1  $\mu$ M), which therefore acted as a  $\sigma_1$ R antagonist, but also by SCH 23390 (10  $\mu$ M, Fig. 7C and D). All of these results suggest that cocaine binding to  $\sigma_1$ R or SKF 81297 binding to D<sub>1</sub>R in the D<sub>1</sub>R- $\sigma_1$ R heteromer induce ERK1/2 phosphorylation that is equally counteracted by  $\sigma_1$ R or D<sub>1</sub>R antagonists. Finally, we found a strong and reciprocal antagonistic interaction between  $\sigma_1$ R and D<sub>1</sub>R on MAPK signaling. Thus, SKF 81297-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was drastically counteracted by increasing concentrations of cocaine (Fig. 8A), and cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was also counteracted in the presence of increasing concentrations of SKF 81297 (Fig. 8B). Again the same qualitative effects were obtained with the selective  $\sigma_1$ R agonist PRE084 (Fig. S1).

**Cocaine Binding to  $\sigma_1$ R Modulates D<sub>1</sub>R Function in Mouse Brain Striatum.** To explore whether our results above using cultured



**Fig. 7.** Cocaine-induced  $\sigma_1$ R-mediated ERK1/2 phosphorylation. CHO cells transfected with D<sub>1</sub> receptor cDNA (1.5  $\mu$ g, filled bars) or cotransfected (open bars) with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA and  $\sigma_1$ R siRNA (125 pmol) were incubated with increasing concentrations of cocaine for 30 min (A) or with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine for increasing time periods (B). (C and D) CHO cells were transfected only with D<sub>1</sub> receptor cDNA (1.5  $\mu$ g) and were treated (30 min) with increasing concentrations of cocaine (C) or with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine for different periods of time (D), in the absence (filled bars) or presence of 10  $\mu$ M of the D<sub>1</sub>R antagonist SCH 23390 (open bars) or 1  $\mu$ M  $\sigma_1$ R antagonist PD144.418 (cross-hatched bars). ERK1/2 phosphorylation is represented as percentage over basal levels (100%). Results are mean  $\pm$  SEM of four to seven independent experiments performed in duplicate. In all samples, bifactorial ANOVA showed a significant ( $P < 0.0001$  in A–C;  $P < 0.001$  in D) effect of cocaine, and Bonferroni post hoc tests showed a significant counteraction of cocaine effect by siRNA (A and B,  $*P < 0.05$  and  $**P < 0.01$  compared with sample with the same treatment and without siRNA transfection) and a significant SCH 23390-mediated or PD144.418-mediated counteraction of the cocaine effect for some concentrations and exposure times (C and D,  $*P < 0.05$ ,  $**P < 0.01$ , and  $***P < 0.001$  compared with control samples with the same treatment).



**Fig. 8.** Antagonistic interaction between cocaine and the D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 on ERK1/2 phosphorylation. (A and B) CHO cells transfected with D<sub>1</sub>R cDNA (1.5  $\mu$ g) were treated or not treated for 30 min with increasing concentrations of cocaine (A) or with 150  $\mu$ M cocaine (B) and, during the last 2 min, the addition of 100 nM (A) or increasing concentrations (B) of D<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist SKF 81297. ERK1/2 phosphorylation is represented as percentage over basal levels (100%). Results are mean  $\pm$  SEM of four independent experiments performed in duplicate. One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests showed a significant cocaine-mediated counteraction of SKF 81297 and a significant SKF 81297-mediated counteraction of cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation ( $*P < 0.05$ ,  $**P < 0.01$ , and  $***P < 0.001$  compared with control, without cocaine or SKF 81297 exposure). (C) WT (filled bars) and  $\sigma_1$ R KO (open bars) mouse striatal slices were treated with SKF 81297 for 10 min, with cocaine for 30 min or with cocaine for 30 min and, during the last 10 min, the addition of SKF 81297. Immunoreactive bands from six slices obtained from five WT or five KO animals were quantified for each condition. Values represent mean  $\pm$  SEM of percentage of phosphorylation relative to basal levels found in untreated slices. Significant differences respect to corresponding treatment in WT mouse slices were calculated by bifactorial ANOVA followed by post hoc Bonferroni tests ( $**P < 0.01$ ).

cells could be extrapolated to the level of the organism, we took tissue from WT and  $\sigma_1$ R KO mice and examined the effects of cocaine on signaling. Previous *in vivo* studies have shown that pharmacologically significant doses of cocaine produce striatal levels of the drug at a low micromolar range (20). Those measurements reflect free, rather than bound, concentrations of cocaine, and it is well established that higher drug concentrations need to be applied in brain slice preparations, to allow diffusion into the tissue. Because, in cotransfected CHO cells, a strong and significant effect of cocaine was observed at 30  $\mu$ M (Fig. 8A), a fivefold higher concentration, 150  $\mu$ M, was then used to see clear effects in slices of mouse striatum (Fig. 8C). On one hand, both the D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 (1  $\mu$ M) and cocaine (150  $\mu$ M) induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation in striatal slices of WT mice after 10-min activation (Fig. 8C). On the other hand, in striatal slices of WT mice, SKF 81297-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was significantly reduced with pretreatment with cocaine for 30 min (Fig. 8C). The antagonistic interaction between  $\sigma_1$ R and D<sub>1</sub>R on MAPK signaling is therefore detected in cotransfected cells and in striatal samples from WT mice. When similar experiments were performed in striatal slices from mice lacking the  $\sigma_1$ R, cocaine was unable to induce ERK1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 8C) and SKF 81297-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was not modified by pretreatment with cocaine (Fig. 8C). These results strongly support the existence of  $\sigma_1$ R-D<sub>1</sub>R heteromers in

the brain and indicate that all detected cocaine effects are dependent on  $\sigma_1$ R.

## Discussion

The role of  $\sigma_1$ R in cell-signaling is not well understood and its main endogenous ligand has not been identified (12, 15). It has been suggested that  $\sigma_1$ R may possess a constitutive biological activity, and that  $\sigma_1$ R ligands may just be modulators of its innate activity (12). The best-characterized acute effects of  $\sigma_1$ R ligands at the cellular level are their ability to modulate the function of several ion channels ( $K^+$  channels, NMDA receptors, IP3 receptors) (12). In the present study a mechanism by which  $\sigma_1$ R modulates the function of a G-protein-coupled receptor, the  $D_1$ R, is reported. This modulation depends on protein-protein interactions, which were detected by BRET assays. In agreement with the oligomeric nature of  $D_1$ R (18), the existence of heteromers constituted by a minimum of a  $D_1$ R homodimer and a  $\sigma_1$ R was demonstrated by BRET/BiFC.

The  $\sigma_1$ R, which is found mainly at the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum, may modulate the activity of plasma membrane-located ion channels by its ability to translocate to the plasma membrane (12, 21). Coexpression of  $\sigma_1$ R and  $D_1$ R resulted in an alteration of  $\sigma_1$ R subcellular distribution because, in the presence of  $D_1$ R,  $\sigma_1$ R was more abundant at the plasma membrane than in intracellular membranes. Importantly, coexpression of  $\sigma_1$ R and  $D_1$ R also led to heteromerization of the receptors, as measured by energy transfer in the absence of ligands. Acute administration of  $\sigma_1$ R ligands, including cocaine, without coactivation of other receptors or channels may cause  $\sigma_1$ R translocation to the plasma membrane (12). Apart from the increase in plasma membrane  $\sigma_1$ R expression, cocaine led to an increase of  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R colocalization. Taken together, these data suggest that heteromerization occurs between these receptors at steady state in the absence of ligands, but the presence of cocaine might induce an increase of the amount of receptor heteromers constituted by  $\sigma_1$ Rs and  $D_1$ Rs homomers at the level of the plasma membrane, perhaps through some stabilization of a given receptor conformation.

Although further studies will be required to understand how cocaine acts on the receptor monomers, homomers or heteromers and the specific effects at a protein level, we were able to observe that cocaine binding to  $\sigma_1$ R led to a structural modification, detected as a separation between the C termini of the  $D_1$ Rs in the  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R- $D_1$ R heterotrimer. This was evidenced by a pronounced decrease (Fig. 3C) in the BRET signal due to a decrease in the energy transfer between Rluc and YFP (located in the C-terminal domains of  $D_1$ Rs). These structural changes, which did not result from dimer disruption, correlated with changes in  $D_1$ R function, as demonstrated by means of assays performed in both heterologous cells and in slices from mouse striatum. Importantly, cocaine binding to  $\sigma_1$ R robustly enhanced  $D_1$ R agonist-induced cAMP accumulation. This synergy is probably underlying the predominant role of  $D_1$ R versus  $D_2$ R in the behavioral effects of cocaine (discussed earlier here). These results are also strong evidence that cocaine effects are not adequately addressed by assuming that the drug is just increasing the synaptic dopamine concentration by a DAT-dependent mechanism. In fact, the reported effects were not dependent on DAT, because cell lines lacking this protein were used. It is thus expected that cocaine is acting by at least two different but interrelated mechanisms, one dependent on DAT and leading to an increase in dopamine levels and another dependent on  $\sigma_1$ R and leading to an enhancement of  $D_1$ R-mediated neurotransmission.

Unexpectedly, cocaine was able to induce ERK1/2 phosphorylation per se, although this effect depended on the presence of both the  $D_1$ R and  $\sigma_1$ R. As these particular effects were reproduced by the selective  $\sigma_1$ R agonist (17) and counteracted by the putative  $\sigma_1$ R antagonist PD144.418 (22), these results

indicate that cocaine acts as a  $\sigma_1$ R agonist. In living cells, cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was seen at short times of cocaine exposure (10 min); but the maximum effect was reached at 30 min, suggesting an involvement of cocaine-induced translocation of  $\sigma_1$ R to the plasma membrane, with a consequent increase in cell surface  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R heteromers. Both cocaine-induced and  $D_1$ R-mediated ERK1/2 phosphorylation were counteracted by  $D_1$ R or  $\sigma_1$ R antagonists. The ability of an antagonist of one of the receptors in a receptor heteromer to block signals originated by stimulation of the partner receptor is a biochemical characteristic that has been described for other receptor heteromers, such as the  $D_1$ R-histamine  $H_3$  receptor heteromer (23). Importantly, cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation could also be demonstrated in mouse striatal slices, but not in striatal slices from  $\sigma_1$ R KO mice. Because cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation seems to be a biochemical characteristic of  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R heteromers, these results provide evidence for the presence of these heteromers in the brain. Furthermore, we also found reciprocal antagonistic interactions between  $\sigma_1$ R and  $D_1$ R on MAPK activation, both in transfected cells and in mouse striatal slices. The  $D_1$ R agonist-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was counteracted when agonist stimulation was performed in slices pretreated with cocaine and, conversely, cocaine-induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation was counteracted by  $D_1$ R agonist treatment. The cocaine-induced antagonistic modulation of  $D_1$ R-mediated MAPK activation was shown to be dependent on  $\sigma_1$ R, as demonstrated in cells transfected with  $\sigma_1$ R siRNA and in striatal slices of  $\sigma_1$ R KO mice. The qualitative similar results observed in transfected cells and in striatal slices support again the existence of  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R heteromers in the brain.

We have described a previously uncharacterized mechanism by which cocaine binding to  $\sigma_1$ R may significantly influence dopaminergic neurotransmission. Our results show that  $\sigma_1$ R and  $D_1$ R heteromerize in living cells and strongly suggest that  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R heteromers are present in the striatum. Furthermore, our results shed light on the mechanisms behind the behavioral effects of cocaine that are dependent on  $\sigma_1$ R. These data suggest that  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R heteromers may be considered as targets for the treatment of cocaine addiction and that  $\sigma_1$ R antagonists could counteract some of the behavioral and perhaps the addictive properties of cocaine. It will be important to determine the molecular determinants responsible for this heteromerization. This would allow the development of transgenic animals with mutated receptors not able to form  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R receptor heteromers and therefore would allow one to better determine the role of  $\sigma_1$ R- $D_1$ R receptor heteromerization in cocaine addiction.

## Materials and Methods

**Fusion Proteins and Expression Vectors.** The N-terminal truncated (nYFP) and the C-terminal truncated (cYFP) version of YFP were made as previously indicated (24). Human cDNAs for  $D_1$ R,  $A_1$ R,  $GABA_{B2}R$ , or  $\sigma_1$ R cloned in pcDNA3.1 were amplified without their stop codons and subcloned in an Rluc-expressing vector (pRluc-N1; PerkinElmer), or in a variant of GFP (EYFP-N3; enhanced yellow variant of GFP; Clontech), to give the plasmids that express  $D_1$ R,  $A_1$ R,  $GABA_{B2}R$  or  $\sigma_1$ R fused to either Rluc or YFP on the C-terminal end of the receptor ( $D_1$ R-Rluc,  $D_1$ R-YFP,  $\sigma_1$ R-Rluc,  $\sigma_1$ R-YFP,  $A_1$ R-Rluc,  $A_1$ R-YFP or  $GABA_{B2}R$ -Rluc). Human cDNA for  $D_1$ R was subcloned in pcDNA3.1-cYFP or pcDNA3.1-nYFP to give the plasmids that express  $D_1$ R fused to either nYFP or cYFP on the C-terminal end of the receptor ( $D_1$ R-cYFP and  $D_1$ R-nYFP). When analyzed by confocal microscopy, it was observed that all fusion proteins showed similar subcellular distribution than naïve receptors. Fusion of Rluc and YFP to  $D_1$ R did not modify receptor function as previously determined by cAMP assays.

**Cell Culture and Transient Transfection.** HEK-293T and CHO cells, grown as previously described (23, 24), were transiently transfected with the corresponding cDNAs by PEI (PolyEthyleneImine; Sigma) method as previously described (25) or with siRNA by lipofectamine (Invitrogen) method following the instructions of the supplier. Human and Chinese hamster  $\sigma_1$ R siRNA and scrambled siRNA were designed and synthesized by Invitrogen (HSS 145543).

Cells were used 48 h after transfection. To control for cell number, sample protein concentration was determined by a Bradford assay kit (Bio-Rad).

**Immunostaining.** Immunocytochemistry assays were performed as previously described (24) using the primary antibodies mouse monoclonal anti- $\sigma_1$ R (1/200; Chemicon) or rat anti-D<sub>1</sub>R (1/200; Chemicon) and stained with the secondary antibodies Cyn3 donkey anti-mouse (1/100; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) or Cyn2 goat antirat (1/100; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories). D<sub>1</sub>R fused to YFP protein was detected by its fluorescence properties. Samples were observed in a Leica SP2 confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems). Heterodimers of receptors fused to complementary fragments of YFP were detected directly by their fluorescence properties using a Zeiss 510 Meta confocal microscope.

**RT-PCR.** Total cellular RNA was isolated from HEK-293T or CHO cells using QuickPrep Total RNA Extraction Kit (Amersham Biosciences). Total RNA (1  $\mu$ g) was reverse transcribed by random priming using M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase, RNase H Minus, Point Mutant, following the protocol of Two-Step RT-PCR provided by the manufacturer (Promega). The resulting single-stranded cDNA was used to perform PCR amplification for  $\sigma_1$ R, DAT and GAPDH as an internal control of PCR technique using Taq DNA Polymerase (Promega). Common primers to amplify human and Chinese hamster  $\sigma_1$ R gene were used: 5'-CCTGGCTGTCGACGGGTGCTG-3' (forward) and 5'-GGTGCAGAGATGATGGTATCC-3' (reverse). To amplify human and Chinese hamster DAT, the primers used were 5'-TTCATCATCTACCCGGAAGC-3' (forward) and 5'-CACCATAGAACCAGGCCACT-3' (reverse). To amplify human GAPDH, the primers used were 5'-TTCATCATCTACCCGGAAGC-3' (forward) and 5'-CACCATAGAACCAGGCCACT-3' (reverse). To amplify Chinese hamster GAPDH, the primers used were 5'-TTCATCATCTACCCGGAAGC-3' (forward) and 5'-CACCATAGAACCAGGCCACT-3' (reverse). RNA without reverse transcriptions did not yield any amplicons, indicating that there was no genomic DNA contamination.

**BRET Assays.** HEK-293T cells were cotransfected with a constant amount of cDNA encoding for the receptor fused to Rluc and with increasingly amounts of cDNA encoding to the receptor fused to YFP to measure BRET, as previously

described (25). For BRET assays with bimolecular fluorescence-complemented proteins, HEK-293T cells were cotransfected with a constant amount of cDNA encoding for  $\sigma_1$ R-Rluc or GABA<sub>B2</sub>R-Rluc receptors and with increasingly equal amounts of cDNA corresponding to D<sub>1</sub>R-nYFP and D<sub>1</sub>R-cYFP, and fluorescence complementation and BRET were determined as previously indicated (25, 26). Both fluorescence and luminescence for each sample were measured before every experiment to confirm similar donor expressions ( $\approx$ 100,000 bioluminescence units) while monitoring the increase in acceptor expression (1,000–10,000 fluorescence units). In each BRET saturation curve, the relative amount of acceptor is given as the ratio between the fluorescence of the acceptor (YFP) and the luciferase activity of the donor (Rluc).

**cAMP Determination.** CHO cells were treated for 10 min with the indicated concentrations of D<sub>1</sub>R agonist SKF 81297 (Sigma), in the absence or presence of 150  $\mu$ M cocaine (cocaine-HCl, Spanish Agencia del Medicamento no: 2003C00220) or with cocaine alone and cAMP was determined by cAMP (<sup>3</sup>H) assay kit (Amersham Biosciences).

**ERK1/2 Phosphorylation Assays.** Brains from WT littermates and  $\sigma_1$ R KO CD1 male albino Swiss mice (8 wk of age, 25 g) were generously provided by Laboratorios Esteve (Barcelona, Spain) (27). Striatal slices were obtained as previously indicated (28), treated with the indicated concentrations of ligands for the indicated time, frozen on dry ice, and stored at  $-80$  °C. Transfected CHO cells were cultured in serum-free medium for 16 h before the addition of the indicated concentration of ligands for the indicated time. Both cells and slices were lysed in ice-cold lysis buffer (24, 28), and ERK1/2 phosphorylation was determined as indicated elsewhere (24, 28).

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.** We thank Hanna Hoffmann (Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona) for assistance with brain striatal slices and Jasmina Jiménez (University of Barcelona) for technical assistance. Brains from  $\sigma_1$ R KO and wild-type littermates CD1 albino Swiss male mice were generously provided by Laboratorios Esteve (Barcelona, Spain). This study was supported by Grants SAF2008-00146, SAF2008-03229-E, and SAF2009-07276 from Spanish Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología, Grant 060110 from Fundació La Marató de TV3, and by Intramural Funds of the National Institute on Drug Abuse.

- Kalivas PW, Volkow ND (2005) The neural basis of addiction: A pathology of motivation and choice. *Am J Psychiatry* 162:1403–1413.
- Di Chiara G, Bassareo V (2007) Reward system and addiction: What dopamine does and doesn't do. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 7:69–76.
- Giros B, Jaber M, Jones SR, Wightman RM, Caron MG (1996) Hyperlocomotion and indifference to cocaine and amphetamine in mice lacking the dopamine transporter. *Nature* 379:606–612.
- Chen R, et al. (2006) Abolished cocaine reward in mice with a cocaine-insensitive dopamine transporter. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:9333–9338.
- Beuming T, et al. (2008) The binding sites for cocaine and dopamine in the dopamine transporter overlap. *Nat Neurosci* 11:780–789.
- Gerfen CR (2004) Basal Ganglia. *The Rat Nervous System*, ed Paxinos G (Elsevier Academic Press, Amsterdam), pp 445–508.
- Xu M, et al. (1994) Elimination of cocaine-induced hyperactivity and dopamine-mediated neurophysiological effects in dopamine D1 receptor mutant mice. *Cell* 79:945–955.
- Bertran-Gonzalez J, et al. (2008) Opposing patterns of signaling activation in dopamine D1 and D2 receptor-expressing striatal neurons in response to cocaine and haloperidol. *J Neurosci* 28:5671–5685.
- Weiss F, et al. (2001) Compulsive drug-seeking behavior and relapse. Neuroadaptation, stress, and conditioning factors. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 937:1–26.
- Wolf ME, Mangiavacchi S, Sun X (2003) Mechanisms by which dopamine receptors may influence synaptic plasticity. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1003:241–249.
- Anderson SM, Pierce RC (2005) Cocaine-induced alterations in dopamine receptor signaling: Implications for reinforcement and reinstatement. *Pharmacol Ther* 106:389–403.
- Hayashi T, Su TP (2005) The sigma receptor: Evolution of the concept in neuropsychopharmacology. *Curr Neuropharmacol* 3:267–280.
- Alonso G, et al. (2000) Immunocytochemical localization of the sigma(1) receptor in the adult rat central nervous system. *Neuroscience* 97:155–170.
- Matsumoto RR, Liu Y, Lerner M, Howard EW, Brackett DJ (2003) Sigma receptors: Potential medications development target for anti-cocaine agents. *Eur J Pharmacol* 469:1–12.
- Matsumoto RR, et al. (2001) Conformationally restricted analogs of BD1008 and an antisense oligodeoxynucleotide targeting sigma1 receptors produce anti-cocaine effects in mice. *Eur J Pharmacol* 419:163–174.
- Matsumoto RR, McCracken KA, Pouw B, Zhang Y, Bowen WD (2002) Involvement of sigma receptors in the behavioral effects of cocaine: Evidence from novel ligands and antisense oligodeoxynucleotides. *Neuropharmacology* 42:1043–1055.
- Hiranita T, Soto PL, Tanda G, Katz JL (2010) Reinforcing effects of sigma-receptor agonists in rats trained to self-administer cocaine. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 332:515–524.
- Kong MM, Fan T, Varghese G, O'dowd BF, George SR (2006) Agonist-induced cell surface trafficking of an intracellularly sequestered D1 dopamine receptor homooligomer. *Mol Pharmacol* 70:78–89.
- Gandia J, Lluís C, Ferré S, Franco R, Ciruela F (2008) Light resonance energy transfer-based methods in the study of G protein-coupled receptor oligomerization. *Bioessays* 30:82–89.
- Pettit HO, Pan HT, Parsons LH, Justice JB, Jr. (1990) Extracellular concentrations of cocaine and dopamine are enhanced during chronic cocaine administration. *J Neurochem* 55:798–804.
- Su TP, Hayashi T (2001) Cocaine affects the dynamics of cytoskeletal proteins via sigma(1) receptors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 22:456–458.
- Akunne HC, et al. (1997) The pharmacology of the novel and selective sigma ligand, PD 144418. *Neuropharmacology* 36:51–62.
- Ferrada C, et al. (2009) Marked changes in signal transduction upon heteromerization of dopamine D1 and histamine H3 receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* 157:64–75.
- Navarro G, et al. (2009) Interactions between calmodulin, adenosine A2A, and dopamine D2 receptors. *J Biol Chem* 284:28058–28068.
- Carriba P, et al. (2008) Detection of heteromerization of more than two proteins by sequential BRET-FRET. *Nat Methods* 5:727–733.
- Gandia J, et al. (2008) Detection of higher-order G protein-coupled receptor oligomers by a combined BRET-BiFC technique. *FEBS Lett* 582:2979–2984.
- Langa F, et al. (2003) Generation and phenotypic analysis of sigma receptor type I (sigma 1) KO mice. *Eur J Neurosci* 18:2188–2196.
- Navarro G, et al. (2010) Interactions between intracellular domains as key determinants of the quaternary structure and function of receptor heteromers. *J Biol Chem* 285:27346–27359.