Special Section on 50 Years of Opioid Research

Unique Pharmacological Properties of the Kappa Opioid Receptor Signaling Through $G\alpha z$ as Shown with Bioluminescence Resonance Energy Transfer

Miriam E. Barnett, Brian I. Knapp, and Dean M. Bidlack

Department of Pharmacology and Physiology, University of Rochester, School of Medicine and Dentistry, Rochester, New York Received January 6, 2020; accepted July 16, 2020

ABSTRACT

Opioid receptors (ORs) convert extracellular messages to signaling events by coupling to the heterotrimeric G proteins, $G\alpha \bullet \beta \gamma$. Classic pharmacological methods, such as [35 S]GTP γ S binding and inhibition of cyclic AMP production, allow for general opioid characterization, but they are subject to the varying endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins in a given cell type. Bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) technology offers new insight by allowing the direct observation of $G\alpha$ subunit–specific effects on opioid pharmacology. Using a Venus-tagged $G\beta\gamma$ and nanoluciferase-tagged truncated G protein receptor kinase 3, an increase in BRET signal correlated with OR activation mediated by a specific $G\alpha$ protein. The magnitude of the BRET signal was normalized to the maximum response obtained with 10 μM 2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-N-methyl-N-[(1R,2R)-2-pyrrolidin-1-ylcyclohexyl]acetamide (U50,488) for the kappa OR (KOR). Opioids reached equilibrium with the KOR, and concentrationresponse curves were generated. Although the full agonists U50,488, salvinorin A, nalfurafine, and dynorphin peptides were equally efficacious regardless of the $G\alpha$ subunit present, the concentration-response curves were leftward shifted when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with other $G\alpha i/o$

subunits. In contrast, the $G\alpha$ subunit distinctly affected both the efficacy and potency of partial kappa agonists, such as the benzomorphans, and the classic mu opioid antagonists, naloxone, naltrexone, and nalmefene. For example, (-)pentazocine had EC_{50} values of 7.3 and 110 nM and maximal stimulation values of 79% and 35% when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ and $G\alpha i1$, respectively. Together, these observations suggest KOR pharmacology varies based on the specific $G\alpha$ subunit coupled to the KOR.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Opioid receptors couple to various heterotrimeric $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ proteins to convert extracellular cues to precise intracellular events. This paper focuses on how the various inhibitory $G\alpha$ subunits influence the pharmacology of full and partial agonists at the kappa opioid receptor. Using a bioluminescent assay, the efficacy and potency of kappa opioids was determined. Opioid signaling was more potent through $G\alpha z$ compared with other $G\alpha$ proteins. These observations suggest that $G\alpha z$ may impact opioid pharmacology and cellular physiology more than previously thought.

Introduction

Kappa opioid receptors (KORs), members of the classic seven-transmembrane G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) family, transduce extracellular cues into intracellular signaling events through receptor-coupled heterotrimeric G proteins,

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health National Institute of General Medical Sciences [Grant GM068411] (M.E.B.) and the National Institute on Drug Abuse [Grant DA046817] (J.M.B.). The J.R. Murlin Memorial Fund (M.E.B.) and the Margo Cleveland Fund (J.M.B.) also supported this research.

https://doi.org/10.1124/mol.120.119404.

 $G_{\alpha} \bullet \beta \gamma$. When stimulated by an opioid, activated opioid receptors (ORs) initiate a conformational change in the G_{α} subunit (Rasmussen et al., 2011). This change allows for the binding of GTP to the G_{α} subunit, which in turn allows the activated G_{α} to dissociate from $G_{\beta} \gamma$ and the OR (Kenakin, 2011). G_{α} and $G_{\beta} \gamma$ can then independently associate with their downstream effectors. For example, G_{α} proteins interact with adenylyl cyclase (AC) to regulate intracellular cAMP concentrations. The signal is terminated when the GTP bound to the G_{α} subunit is hydrolyzed to GDP and G_{α} again associates with $G_{\beta} \gamma$ and the OR.

ABBREVIATIONS: AC, adenylyl cyclase; BRET, bioluminescence resonance energy transfer; E_{max} , maximal stimulation; fwd, forward; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; GPCR, G protein–coupled receptor; GRK3, G protein–coupled receptor kinase 3; GRK3ct, G protein–coupled receptor kinase 3 C terminus; HEK, human embryonic kidney; KOR, kappa opioid receptor; mas, myristic acid attachment peptide (MGSSKSKSTSNS); MOR, mu opioid receptor; Mr 2033, ((\pm)- α -5,9-dimethyl-2-(\perp -tetra-hydrofurfuryl)-2'-hydroxy-6,7-benzomorphan) hydrochloride; nLuc, nanoluciferase; nor-BNI, norbinaltorphimine; OR, opioid receptor; rev, reverse; RGS, regulator of G protein signaling; U50,488, 2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-*N*-methyl-*N*-[(1*R*,2*R*)-2-pyrrolidin-1-ylcyclohexyl]acetamide.

There are four families of $G\alpha$ proteins ($G\alpha$ i, $G\alpha$ s, $G\alpha$ g, $G\alpha$ 13) that share features including a guanine nucleotide binding site, intrinsic GTPase activity, and lipid modifiers to facilitate localization to the plasma membrane (Wedegaertner et al., 1995; Syrovatkina et al., 2016; Hilger et al., 2018). Differences between the families are based on sequence homology, distinct downstream effectors, and toxin sensitivity (Glick et al., 1998; Milligan and Kostenis, 2006). KORs predominately couple to the G α i class, comprising G α i1, G α i2, G α i3, G α oA, G α oB, and $G\alpha z$. Since all members of this class inhibit AC activity and thus decrease cAMP levels, it is common to downplay the differences that exist within this $G\alpha$ class. However, when individual $G\alpha$ subunits within the inhibitory $G\alpha$ class were knocked down by intracerebroventricular administration of $G\alpha$ siRNA into the right ventricle of mice, differences in the activation profiles of various OR agonists were observed (Sánchez-Blázquez et al., 1999, 2001). Thus, the growing evidence that the unique GPCR \bullet G α interaction could influence signaling creates a much more complex picture than previously thought.

Current in vitro pharmacological methods, however, lack the specificity needed to distinguish contributions from unique $G\alpha$ mediated signaling. For example, it is common to correlate changes in cAMP levels to OR activation. This assay has several limitations. First, changes in cAMP are subject to amplification from many converging pathways including signaling from competing $G\alpha$ s proteins (Yung et al., 1995). Additionally, cell lines may express up to nine isoforms of AC, to which the $G\alpha$ proteins couple to varying degrees (Sadana and Dessauer, 2009). Thus, by simply measuring changes in cAMP levels in a given cell line, we are looking downstream of the OR and not accounting for the specific $G\alpha$ protein. In contrast, the [35S]GTP γ S binding assay measures the binding of nonhydrolyzable GTP γ S to the G α subunit, the initial step in GPCR signaling, and thus is not subject to influences from concurrent signaling pathways. However, this assay still fails to account for the specific $G\alpha$ subunit coupled to the receptor or the pool of available $G\alpha$ subunits in a given cell line (Traynor and Nahorski, 1995; Bidlack and Parkhill, 2004). Although these aforementioned assays have offered insight into the OR signaling mechanisms and opioid pharmacology, determining how the cellular environment of G proteins influences OR signaling will be useful in obtaining a more thorough understanding of opioid receptor signaling.

To address the limitations of prior methods, researchers have adapted a novel bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET)–based assay. BRET monitors protein-protein interactions in live cells with the necessary sensitivity to view G protein signaling (Stoddart et al., 2015). Previous data from our laboratory using BRET to obtain the G\$\alpha\$-specific pharmacological profiles of buprenorphine and samidorphan showed that the KOR signaling was very sensitive to the G\$\alpha\$ subunit (Bidlack et al., 2018). For instance, at the KOR, the 1:3 molar combination of buprenorphine:samidorphan generated maximal stimulation (E_{max}) values ranging from 22% signaling through G\$\alpha\$i2 to 85% when signaling through G\$\alpha\$z. In this study, we expanded upon this concept and determined how the different G\$\alpha\$ subunits from the G\$\alpha\$i/o family influenced the pharmacology of full and partial agonists at the KOR.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture, Plasmids, and Transfection. Human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were cultured on

poly-L-lysine (Millipore Sigma, Darmstadt, Germany)-coated 100-mm dishes in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (GIBCO, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 1% nonessential amino acids, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, and 100 U/ml penicillin and streptomycin. Cells were maintained at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere. Prior to transfection, 4×10^6 cells were seeded onto a Matrigel-coated (Corning, Inc., Corning, NY) 60-mm dish in antibiotic-free medium and incubated for 4 hours at 37°C and 5% CO2, as previously described (Masuho et al., 2015a). The human KOR (cDNA Resource Center, Bloomsburg, PA), human $G\alpha$ subunit of interest (cDNA Resource Center), Venus 156–239-G β 1, Venus 1–155-G γ 2, or Venus 1–155-G γ 7, and myristic acid attachment peptide (mas) with the C terminus of G protein-coupled receptor kinase (GRK3ct) fused with nanoluciferase (nLuc) plasmids (masGRK3ct-nLuc; gifts from Dr. Kirill A. Martemyanov, The Scripps Research Institute Florida, Jupiter, FL) were transfected at a 1:2:1:1:1 ratio (ratio 1 = 0.42 µg of plasmid DNA) as previously described (Masuho et al., 2015a) using Lipofectamine LTX with PLUS reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) (Masuho et al., 2015a) in antibiotic-free Opti-MEM I Reduced Serum Media (GIBCO).

Measuring KOR Signaling Through Different $G\alpha$ Subunits **Using BRET.** BRET measurements between Venus-G β 1 γ 2 or Venus-Gβ1γ7 and masGRK3ct-nLuc were performed to determine agonistdependent activation of the $G\alpha$ protein of interest in live HEK 293T cells. For each experiment performed, a separate transfection with $G\alpha$, Venus- $G\beta 1\gamma 2$, and masGRK3ct-nLuc was also performed to ensure the opioid of interest was not having an effect without the KOR expressed. Additionally, another transfection with the KOR, Venus- $G\beta1\gamma2$, and masGRK3ct-nLuc was performed to confirm that endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins were not contributing to the BRET signal. Cells were prepared 16-20 hours posttransfection as previously described (Masuho et al., 2015a). BRET assays were performed at 25°C in 96well flat bottom white plates (Greiner Bio-One North America, Inc., Monroe, NC) in a final volume of 100 μl/well. Approximately 75,000 transfected cells per well (25 µl) were incubated for 50 minutes or for varying times with or without opioids in BRET buffer [PBS (GIBCO) with 0.5 mM MgCl₂ and 0.1% glucose]. Plates were read after addition of 25 µl 2× Nano-GloTM Luciferase Assay Substrate (Promega, Madison, WI) on a Flexstation 3 (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA) at 535 and 475 nm. The BRET signal was calculated as emission of Venus at 535 nm divided by the emission of nLuc at 475 nm. Each assay was performed in duplicate and repeated with separate transfections at least three times. A baseline, with no opioid stimulation, was set as the minimum BRET value, and 10 μM 2-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-N-methyl-N-[(1R,2R)-2-pyrrolidin-1-ylcyclohexyl]acetamide (U50,488), a full KOR agonist, was set as the maximal BRET signal. The mean baseline BRET ratio was subtracted from each experimental BRET ratio to obtain a ΔBRET ratio. All ΔBRET ratios were normalized to the 10 μM U50,488 ΔBRET ratio, which was set at 100%.

Data Analysis and Statistics. Concentration-response curves were generated in SigmaPlot (version 11; Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA), and E_{max} and EC_{50} values were calculated from a logistic-3 parameter curve fit of a log-probit plot. Data are expressed as the mean EC_{50} and E_{max} values \pm S.D. from three or more independent experiments, performed in duplicate. The averages of the duplicates for each experiment were used to calculate the mean and S.D. values. The S.D. was computed from the $n \geq 3$ independent experiments. Statistical significance between all $G\alpha$ subunits was determined using one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak post hoc testing. Statistical significance between $G\alpha$ 11 and $G\alpha$ 2 EC_{50} and E_{max} values were determined using a two-tailed Student's t test. All statistical analysis was performed in PRISM software (version 6.0; GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA).

Western Blotting. Approximately 5×10^6 HEK 293T cells transfected with KOR, $G\alpha$ subunit of interest, Venus- $G\beta 1\gamma 2$, and masGRK3ct-nLuc were scraped with PBS, containing Roche cOmplete, EDTA-free protease inhibitors (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Cells were then lysed using a Dounce homogenizer (Dounce et al., 1955;

DeCaprio and Kohl, 2019). Lysates were centrifuged at 18,000g for 20 minutes at 4°C. The soluble fraction was removed. Membrane proteins were extracted by resuspending the pellet in PBS containing EDTA-free protease inhibitors and 0.1% Triton-X 100, with gentle rocking at 4°C for 20 minutes. Samples were centrifuged again at 18,000g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was collected, and protein content was determined using Pierce BCA assay kit according to manufacturer's guidelines (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rochester, NY). Total protein, 50 μg, in 2× Laemmli sample buffer (0.005% bromophenol blue, 4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 120 mM Tris-Cl, pH 6.8) with 5% β-mercaptoethanol (Karlsson et al., 1994) was heated at 100°C for 10 minutes. Samples were separated on a 4%-20% gradient polyacrylamide gel and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. Blots were blocked with 5% nonfat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween 20, pH 7.4, for 60 minutes at room temperature and incubated overnight at 4°C with 1:1000 dilution of polyclonal rabbit anti-human $G\alpha$ antibody against each $G\alpha$ subunit (Cell Signaling Technologies, Dansvers, MA). Blots were washed for 5 minutes three times with Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween 20, pH 7.4, and incubated for 60 minutes with a 1: 1000 dilution of goat anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase secondary antibody (Cell Signaling Technologies). A BioRad ChemiDoc chemiluminescent imager (Hercules, CA) was used to image the protein.

Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction Analysis. Total RNA was extracted from either HEK 293A or CHO cells using E.N.Z.A. Total RNA kit following the manufacturer's protocol (Omega bio-tek, Norcross, GA). cDNA was produced using Thermo-Script RT-PCR Systems (Invitrogen). iTaq Universal SYBR Green (Bio-Rad) was used as a double strand DNA-specific dye. Speciesspecific primers were designed for each $G\alpha$ subunit in both cell lines. The CHO cell line primers were as follows: Gαi1 [forward (fwd): GGA GGTTGAAGATAGACTTTGGAG, reverse (rev): TGCAGAATCATTGA GCTGGTACTC], G α i2 (fwd: CTGAGGAACAAGGGATGCTGC, rev: GTTTTCACACGGGTCCGCA), Gαi3 (fwd: AGGCGTGATTAAACG GCTCT, rev: AGTGTGTCTCCACAATGCCT), GαO (fwd: GCCAAA GACGTGAAATTACTCC, rev: AGTATCCATGGCCCGGACGATGGC), and Gαz (fwd: AAGCTCTATGAGGATAACCAGACG, rev: TACGTG TTCTGACCCTTGTACTCT). The HEK 293 cell line primers were as follows: Gαi1 (fwd: GGAGGTTGAAGATAGACTTTGGTG, rev: TGC AGAATCATTAAGCTGGTACTC), Gαi2 (fwd: ACAACATCCTCAAGG GCTCAAG, rev: ATGCCAGAATCCCTCCAGAGT), Gαi3 (fwd: ATG GGACGGCTAAAGATTGACTT, rev: ATTGAGCTGATATTCCCTGGA TCT), GαO (fwd: GGCATCGAATATGGTGATAAGG, rev: GTAGTA TTTGGCAGAGTCGTTGAG), and Gαz (fwd: ACGACCTGAAACTCT ACGAGGATA, rev: CTTGTACTCGGGAAAGCAGATG). Relative $G\alpha$ transcript levels were normalized to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH).

Opioid Alkaloids and Peptides. The κ -selective agonist U50,488 methanesulfonate (Von Voigtlander and Lewis, 1982) and the κ-selective antagonist norbinaltorphimine (nor-BNI) (Portoghese et al., 1987) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Nalfurafine was obtained from the National Institute on Drug Abuse Division of Drug Supply and Analytical Services. Enadoline was obtained from Parke-Davis Pharmaceuticals (Cambridge, UK). Salvinorin A was purchased from ChromaDex Inc. (Irving, CA). The κ partial agonists (-)pentazocine hydrochloride (Archer et al., 1964), (-) cyclazocine hydrochloride (Archer et al., 1996), and nalmefene hydrochloride (Bart et al., 2005) were obtained from Dr. Mark Wentland (Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, NY) (Wentland et al., 2009). $((\pm)-\alpha-5,9-Dimethyl-2-(L-tetra-hydrofurfuryl)-2'-hydroxy-6,7-ben$ zomorphan) hydrochloride (Mr 2033) was obtained from Boehringer Ingelheim (Germany). Naloxone and naltrexone were obtained from Dr. Mark Wentland (Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, NY). Samidorphan was synthesized as previously described (Wentland et al., 2005). Dynorphin A (1-17) was purchased from AnaSpec, Inc. (Freemont, CA). Dynorphin A (1–13) and α -neoendorphin were purchased from Bachem (Torrance, CA). Dynorphin B (1–13) was purchased from GenScript (Picataway, NJ).

Results

Using BRET Sensors to Study KOR Signaling. Since the focus of this study was to measure $G\alpha$ subunit–specific activation of the KOR, we did not want to impede the KOR \bullet G α interaction by modifying either protein. Instead, correlating KOR activation to the release of free $G\beta\gamma$ was favored, similar to previous strategies (Donthamsetti et al., 2015; Masuho et al., 2015a,b). Since $G\beta\gamma$ functions as an obligate dimer, the BRET acceptor, Venus, was split with Venus 1-155 fused to $G\gamma 2$ or $G\gamma 7$ and Venus 156–239 fused to $G\beta 1$ (Fig. 1). This ensured only a functional Venus (1–239) formed after $G\beta\gamma$ dimerization. $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ -Venus was used for all experiments unless otherwise specified. The BRET donor, nLuc, was fused to the C-terminal end of a truncated form of the $G\beta\gamma$'s downstream effector, G protein-coupled receptor kinase 3 (GRK3). The C-terminal domain of this protein only contains the pleckstrin homology domain, which is responsible for $G\beta\gamma$ binding (Lodowski et al., 2003); the central protein kinase domain has been removed. Consequently, increased receptor phosphorylation and subsequent desensitization did not influence KOR activation. Lastly, a mas sequence (MGSSKSKTSNS) precedes the GRK3ct construct, ensuring its localization to the plasma membrane. When activation of the KOR occurred, $G\alpha$ was released from $G\beta\gamma$. The free $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus coupled with its downstream effector, masGRK3ct-nLuc, allowing for nonradiative energy transfer between nLuc and Venus and for a BRET signal to be calculated (Fig. 1).

Although BRET sensors have been used to monitor proteinprotein interactions, proper controls are essential for $G\alpha$ specific data interpretation. The maximum possible BRET signal was obtained when no exogenous $G\alpha$ subunit was expressed, allowing the expressed $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ -Venus to couple to masGRK3ct-nLuc (Fig. 2A). Upon addition of 10 μM U50,488, there was no increase in the BRET ratio above baseline, signifying that endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins did not affect KORmediated BRET signaling through an exogenously expressed $G\alpha$ subunit. When $G\alpha$ was expressed in excess, it served as a sink for the $G\beta\gamma$ and thus pulled free $G\beta\gamma$ away from GRK3 (Hollins et al., 2009; Donthamsetti et al., 2015). This allowed for a minimum BRET signal to be obtained (Fig. 2B). Thus, by capitalizing on the relative affinities of $G\beta\gamma$ to masGRK3ctnLuc and $G\alpha$, the dynamic range of the system was determined. When the KOR, $G\alpha$ subunit of interest, $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ -Venus, and masGRK3ct-nLuc were all expressed, efficient coupling was observed as indicated by the low baseline BRET ratio (Fig. 2, C and E). Application of the κ -selective agonist, U50,488, increased the BRET ratio signifying activation; however, the stimulated ratio was well within the dynamic range of the system. Moreover, application of a κ -selective antagonist, nor-BNI, did not result in a significant increase in the BRET ratio (Fig. 2C). Lastly, to ensure the BRET ratio was a result of KOR \bullet G α of interest coupling, a G α subunit from another class, $G\alpha s$, was overexpressed into the system. Again, a low baseline BRET ratio was obtained, signifying the $G\beta\gamma$ coupled to $G\alpha$ s. Upon KOR activation with agonist U50,488, the BRET ratio remained unchanged, implying that KOR•Gαs coupling was not capable of signaling (Fig. 2D). The baseline BRET ratios across all experiments performed among the six different $G\alpha$ subunits were not statistically different from each other ($P \ge 0.2$, Fig. 2E). Similarly, the maximum U50,488-stimulated ratios were

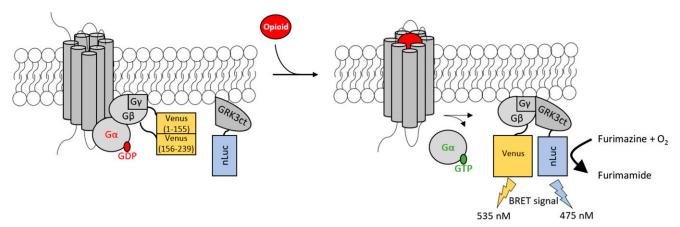


Fig. 1. Overview of the BRET assay to measure KOR signaling through different $G\alpha$ subunits. The KOR in its resting state is coupled with $G\alpha$ •GDP and $G\beta\gamma$. Venus is split between $G\beta$ and $G\gamma$; thus, a fully functional Venus forms only when $G\beta\gamma$ comes together as an obligate dimer. masGRK3ct-nLuc is tethered to the membrane in the resting state. When an opioid binds to the KOR, GDP is released from the expressed $G\alpha$ subunit, and GTP binds. This binding causes dissociation of the $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ heterotrimer. $G\beta\gamma$ will then interact with its downstream target, masGRK3ct-nLuc, thus bringing nLuc and Venus in close proximity to each other. When furimazine, the substrate for nLuc, is added, nonradiative energy transfer occurs between nLuc and Venus. The BRET signal is calculated as emission of Venus at 535 nm divided by the emission of nLuc at 475 nm, which correlates to activation of the KOR through the specific $G\alpha$ subunit of interest.

not statistically different among $G\alpha$ subunits ($P \ge 0.2$, Fig. 2E).

In the experimental system, the $G\alpha$ subunit of interest was expressed in excess to minimize baseline $G\beta\gamma$ interacting with masGRK3ct-nLuc and ensure that the generated BRET signal was the result of desired $G\alpha$ subunit coupling rather than endogenous $G\alpha$. To confirm expression of the $G\alpha$ subunit in excess, Western blot analysis was performed against the individual $G\alpha$ subunits, $G\alpha$ i, $G\alpha$ o, and $G\alpha$ z (Fig. 3A). Although expression levels using different antibodies cannot be directly compared, the $G\alpha$ subunits were expressed in excess compared with endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins (Fig. 3A). Representative curves of raw BRET ratios for U50,488 when the KOR was signaling through either $G\alpha i1$ or $G\alpha z$ are shown in Figure 3B. To control for subtle variation in expression level, a natural byproduct of transient transfections, all subsequent BRET data were normalized to the maximal BRET signal obtained with 10 μM of the full agonist, U50,488. To ensure 10 μM U50,488 produced a maximal BRET signal independent of the $G\alpha$ subunit, concentration-response curves were generated illustrating the KOR signaling through each $G\alpha$ subunit (Fig. 3C). Regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR coupled to, the efficacy of U50,488 did not significantly vary (Fig. 3C). The EC₅₀ values ranged from 1.5 ± 0.85 nM through $G\alpha z$ to 7.9 \pm 3.3 nM through G α i2 (Fig. 3C). In contrast to previous studies (Masuho et al., 2015b), nonsaturating concentrations of opioids were tested. A time course was generated for KOR activation to ensure adequate time for ligand-receptor interaction to reach equilibrium (Fig. 3, D and E). The BRET signal remained constant for a given U50,488 concentration when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha i1$ regardless of time (Fig. 3D). In contrast, when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$, a maximum BRET signal was obtained after 5 minutes and remained constant until the signal diminished at 120 minutes (Fig. 3E). Thus, we observed that 50 minutes allowed adequate time to obtain a maximal BRET signal at nonsaturating concentrations (Fig. 3, D and E). Subsequent data were normalized to values obtained with 10 µM U50,488 with a 50-minute incubation performed for each individual experiment.

Dynorphin Peptide Signaling. Dynorphin and its derivatives, dynorphin A (1–17), dynorphin A (1–13), dynorphin B (1–13), and α -neo-endorphin, are endogenous KOR peptides. Concentration-response curves were generated for each peptide, and the average E_{max} and EC_{50} values were determined (Table 1). The maximal efficacy was similar for each peptide regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit was coupled to the KOR. Interestingly, each dynorphin derivative tested was most potent when the KOR was signaling through Gαz compared with the other $G\alpha$ subunits. For example, the EC_{50} values of dynorphin A (1–17) were 9.6 \pm 2.7 and 52 \pm 11 nM when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ and $G\alpha i2$, respectively. A similar pattern was observed with the most potent signaling through $G\alpha z$ for the truncated dynorphin A (1–13), producing an EC₅₀ value of 0.85 \pm 0.20 nM. Again, EC₅₀ values of dynorphin B (1–13) ranged from 3.7 \pm 2.3 nM when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with 28 ± 14 nM when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha i1$. Continuing with that trend, α -neo-endorphin was most potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$, followed by $G\alpha i3$, $G\alpha oA$, $G\alpha i1$, and $G\alpha \circ B$, and finally least potent through $G\alpha i2$ (Table 1). Thus, although all of the dynorphin derivatives were efficacious regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was signaling through, the potencies significantly varied depending on the $G\alpha$ subunit.

Full KOR Agonist Signaling Through Different $G\alpha$ Subunits. A distinct pattern emerged with dynorphin peptide signaling; however, it was unclear if opioid alkaloids would show a $G\alpha$ subunit preference as well. To obtain initial opioid profiles, classically defined KOR full agonists, U50,488, enadoline, salvinorin A, and nalfurafine, at a saturating concentration of 10 μ M were screened for KOR signaling through different $G\alpha$ subunits (Fig. 4A). Data were normalized to separate samples containing 10 μ M U50,488. Although these data are not E_{max} values as they were not obtained from a concentration-response curve, distinct signaling patterns were observed. For example, when a full agonist bound to the KOR, a maximum response was observed regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was signaling through as seen with U50,488, enadoline, salvinorin A, and nalfurafine (Fig. 4A).

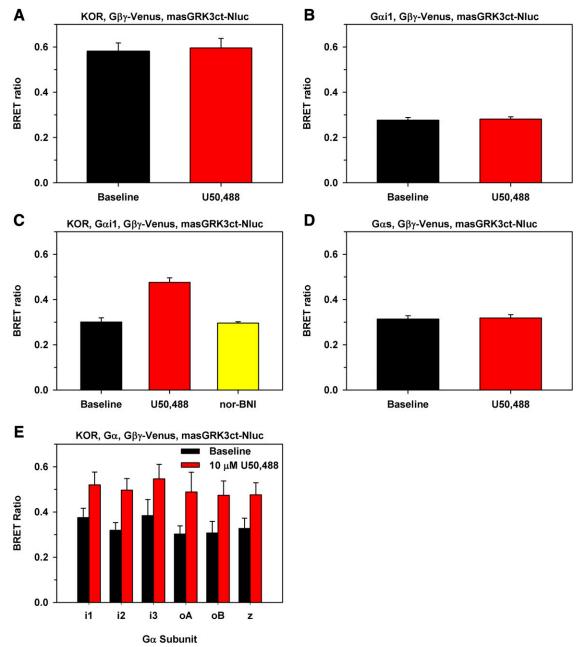


Fig. 2. BRET experimental controls. (A) The maximum BRET signal was obtained when HEK 293T cells were transfected with KOR, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, and masGRK3ct-nLuc. Since there were no exogenous $G\alpha$ subunits expressed, the $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus couples to masGRK3ct-nLuc, and a BRET ratio of 0.58 \pm 0.037 was obtained. When 10 μM U50,488 was applied, there was no change in the BRET signal, signifying that the endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins did not affect the signal. (B) The minimum BRET signal was obtained when $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, masGRK3ct-nLuc, and a $G\alpha$ subunit of interest were expressed. In this scenario, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus coupled to the $G\alpha$ subunit. Since HEK 293T cells did not endogenously express the KOR, when U50,488 was applied, there was no change from the baseline BRET signal. (C) Optimal assay conditions were obtained when KOR, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, masGRK3ct-nLuc, and $G\alpha$ were expressed. In the baseline condition, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus coupled to $G\alpha$, and thus there was a minimal BRET signal. When the agonist U50,488 was applied, the BRET ratio significantly increased (P = 0.003). Lastly, when the KOR antagonist nor-BNI was applied, the BRET ratio did not change from the baseline condition (P = 0.8). (D) Since KOR couples to the $G\alpha$ -i/o class of proteins, when $G\alpha$ s was expressed with KOR, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, and masGRK3ct-nLuc, no signal was transmitted when 10 μM U50,488 was applied. Data are the mean BRET ratio from three independent experiments performed in duplicate \pm S.D. (E) Baseline and U50,488-stimulated ratios for all experiments performed across the various $G\alpha$ subunits. No statistically significant differences were observed between baseline and 10 μM U50,488-stimulated ratios between the $G\alpha$ subunits. Data are mean BRET ratios \pm S.D.

This finding agreed with the results obtained for the dynorphin peptides (Table 1). Additionally, concentration-response curves were generated for the full KOR agonists, U50,488, salvinorin A, and nalfurafine for each $G\alpha$ subunit (Table 2). Similar to the opioid peptides, salvinorin A had a similar efficacy regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was signaling through

(Table 2). However, salvinorin A was significantly more potent when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with any other $G\alpha$ subunit. For clarity, concentration-response curves are shown for $G\alpha i1$ and $G\alpha z$ resulting in EC_{50} values of 3.2 ± 0.83 nM and 0.36 ± 0.048 , respectively (Fig. 4B, P=0.0040). Representative concentration-response curves are shown for

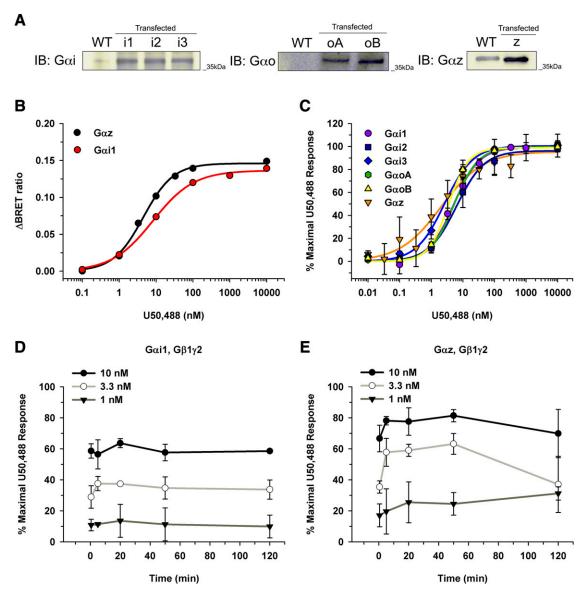


Fig. 3. $G\alpha$ subunit expression level and U50,488 concentration-response and time-course experiments in HEK 293T cells. (A) To confirm overexpression of $G\alpha$ subunits, Western blot analysis was performed on the individual $G\alpha$ subunit transfections. Overexpression levels of $G\alpha$ i1 (i1), $G\alpha$ i2 (i2), $G\alpha$ i3 (i3), $G\alpha$ oA (oA), $G\alpha$ oB (oB), and $G\alpha$ z (z) were compared with the endogenous $G\alpha$ levels in HEK 293T cells. Notably, HEK 293T cells did not express $G\alpha$ o. (B) Representative concentration-response curves for U50,488 are shown illustrating raw BRET ratios for KOR• $G\alpha$ z and KOR• $G\alpha$ i1 after a 50-minute incubation. Ratios were calculated by subtracting opioid-induced BRET ratio from the baseline (no opioid) condition. (C) To control for variations in expression level, the BRET ratio from each experiment was normalized to 10 μ M U50,488. Regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was signaling through, U50,488 had similar E_{max} and EC_{50} values. (D and E) Time-course experiments with varying concentrations of U50,488 were performed for the KOR signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 (D) and $G\alpha$ z (E). Data are from three to six independent experiments performed in duplicate with mean values \pm S.D. reported. IB, immunoblot; WT, wild type.

nalfurafine signaling through $G\alpha i1$ and $G\alpha z$ (Fig. 4C). Nalfurafine was maximally efficacious regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was signaling through $(E_{max}$ values ranging from 95% \pm 2.9% through $G\alpha oB$ to 110% \pm 8.2% through $G\alpha z$). Again, nalfurafine was significantly more potent when KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with all other $G\alpha$ subunits. Nevertheless, nalfurafine had EC_{50} values of less than 1 nM regardless of which $G\alpha$ subunits were coupled to the KOR.

Partial KOR Agonist Signaling Through Different $G\alpha$ Subunits. The benzomorphan partial agonists, (-)pentazocine, (-)cyclazocine, and Mr 2033, were also profiled at 10 μ M (Fig. 5A). In contrast to full agonists, when a classically defined partial agonist bound to the KOR, the greatest activation was observed when the KOR signaled through

 $G\alpha z$ compared with other $G\alpha$ subunits (Fig. 5A). To ensure that the 50-minute time point allowed for equilibrium to be reached without confounding any results, a time course was performed for (-)pentazocine when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha i1$ and $G\alpha z$ (Fig. 5, B and C). Of note, the response obtained was not dependent on the incubation time. Concentration-response curves were then generated for (-) pentazocine signaling through $G\alpha z$ and $G\alpha i1$ (Fig. 5D). The E_{max} value was greater when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ than $G\alpha i1$ (79% \pm 6.4% vs. 35% \pm 9.2%, respectively). Again, a leftward shift in the curve was observed when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i1$ (Fig. 5D) with corresponding EC_{50} values of 7.3 \pm 2.8 and 110 \pm 17 nM, respectively, for (-)pentazocine. To investigate whether the

TABLE 1 Potency and efficacy of dynorphin peptides signaling through the KOR and different $G\alpha$ subunits

Concentration-response curves were generated for the dynorphin peptides signaling through the KOR and various $G\alpha$ subunits after 50-minute incubation. Although the E_{max} values for dynorphin A (1–17) were not significantly different regardless of the $G\alpha$ subunit (P>0.5), dynorphin A (1–17) had a statistically significant lower EC_{50} value when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with the other $G\alpha$ subunits $(P\leq0.05)$. Dynorphin A (1–13) was significantly more potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i$ (P=0.011). In addition, dynorphin A (1–13) was more efficacious through $G\alpha z$ compared with either $G\alpha o$ A (P<0.001) or $G\alpha o$ B (P<0.05). Similarly, dynorphin B (1–13) was more potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i$ 1 (P<0.01). Dynorphin B (1–13) was more efficacious through $G\alpha z$ compared than $G\alpha o$ A (P=0.01). Although α -neo-endorphin had a similar efficacy regardless of $G\alpha$ subunit (P>0.26), it was significantly more potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ compared with all other $G\alpha$ subunits (P<0.05). All values are means \pm S.D.; measurements were performed in duplicate in three independent experiments.

$G\alpha$	Dynorphin A (1–17)		Dynorphin A (1–13)		Dynorphin B (1–13)		lpha-Neo-Endorphin	
	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{max}}$	EC_{50}	\mathbf{E}_{\max}	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{max}}$	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{max}}$
	nM	%	nM	%	nM	%	nM	%
$G\alpha i1$	23 ± 4.4	97 ± 5.0	5.8 ± 1.7	95 ± 7.0	28 ± 14	97 ± 3.1	54 ± 9.8	100 ± 5.2
$G\alpha i2$	52 ± 11	98 ± 3.1	6.1 ± 0.45	97 ± 1.4	6.2 ± 0.50	94 ± 4.2	110 ± 40	98 ± 13
$G\alpha i3$	45 ± 0.93	99 ± 0.97	12 ± 7.1	96 ± 6.6	13 ± 5.5	100 ± 7.5	26 ± 9.4	100 ± 6.0
$G\alpha oA$	30 ± 8.5	91 ± 5.5	5.8 ± 0.17	70 ± 6.6	5.7 ± 1.8	88 ± 2.7	45 ± 2.3	88 ± 5.5
$G\alpha oB$	43 ± 7.7	97 ± 11	5.9 ± 2.7	84 ± 6.5	11 ± 2.3	92 ± 1.4	78 ± 9.5	91 ± 8.8
$G\alpha z$	9.6 ± 2.7	97 ± 6.8	0.85 ± 0.20	96 ± 3.3	3.7 ± 2.3	96 ± 6.1	6.0 ± 1.5	96 ± 4.5

Gγ subunit also affected the signaling, concentration-response curves were generated using Gβ1γ7. EC₅₀ values of 85 \pm 16 and 5.9 \pm 3.5 nM were obtained when (-)pentazocine signaling through the KOR activated Gαi1 and Gαz, respectively (Fig. 5D). Of note, the EC₅₀ values when (-)pentazocine was signaling through Gαi1•Gβ1γ7 or Gαi1•Gβ1γ2 were not significantly different (85 \pm 16 nM vs. 110 \pm 17 nM, respectively; P = 0.14). Similarly, EC₅₀ values of (-)pentazocine were not significantly

different when the KOR coupled with $G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 7$ or $G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 2$ (5.9 \pm 3.5 nM vs. 7.3 \pm 2.8 nM, respectively; P = 0.56).

Concentration-response curves were generated for Mr 2033 signaling through the various $G\alpha$ subunits. EC_{50} and E_{max} values were calculated (Fig. 5E; Table 3). Mr 2033 behaved as an efficacious partial agonist with a mean E_{max} value of 81% \pm 3.2% when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ i1. In contrast, when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ oB or $G\alpha$ z, Mr 2033

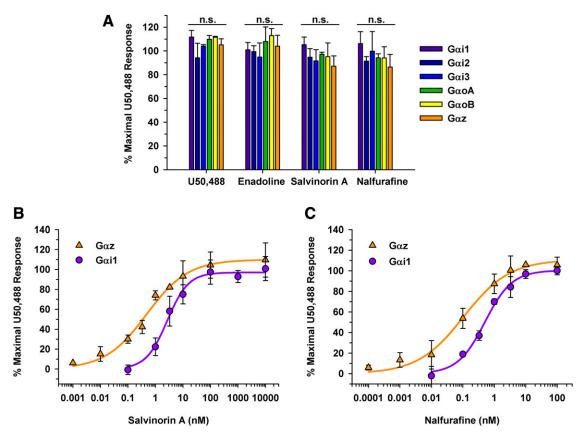


Fig. 4. KOR full agonists signaling through the KOR and different $G\alpha$ subunits. (A) Opioids were tested at a 10 μ M final concentration with a 50-minute incubation in HEK 293T cells transiently expressing the KOR, $G\alpha$ subunit of interest, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, and masGRK3ct-nLuc. No statistically significant (n.s.) differences were observed between the various $G\alpha$ subunits for U50,488, enadoline, salvinorin A, or nalfurafine. Data are mean percentages of maximal stimulation \pm S.D.; measurements were performed in duplicate in three independent experiments. (B) Concentration-response curves were generated for salvinorin A when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 and $G\alpha$ z. Salvinorin A was equally efficacious whether the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 (E_{max} values of 99% \pm 13%) or $G\alpha$ z (E_{max} value of 100% \pm 11%) (P>0.05). In contrast, salvinorin A was more potent when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ z with an EC_{50} value of 0.36 \pm 0.048 nM vs. 3.2 \pm 0.83 nM through $G\alpha$ 1 (P<0.01). (C) Nalfurafine had similar E_{max} values of 99% \pm 1.1% and 110% \pm 8.2% through $G\alpha$ 11 and $G\alpha$ z, respectively. Nalfurafine was more potent when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ 1 (EC_{50} value of EC_{50} value of

TABLE 2 Full opioid agonists signaling through the KOR and different $G\alpha$ subunits

Concentration-response curves were generated for U50,488, salvinorin A and nalfurafine, signaling through various $G\alpha$ subunits after 50-minute incubation. E_{max} values for U50,488 were not significantly different between $G\alpha$ subunits (P=0.53). Although EC_{50} values varied slightly, the EC_{50} value for U50,488 signaling through $G\alpha z$ was significantly different from $G\alpha 1$, $G\alpha 1$, and $G\alpha 0A$ (P<0.05). E_{max} values for salvinorin A did not vary between $G\alpha$ subunits (P>0.98); however, salvinorin A was significantly more potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ compared with all other $G\alpha$ subunits (P<0.05). Nalfurafine was similarly efficacious regardless of the $G\alpha$ subunit (P>0.05). Data are means \pm S.D.; measurements were performed in duplicate in three independent experiments.

Gα	U50,488		Salvino	rin A	Nalfurafine	
	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{max}}$	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{ ext{max}}$	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{max}}$
	nM	%	nM	%	nM	%
$G\alpha i1$	5.6 ± 1.3	99 ± 1.4	3.2 ± 0.83	99 ± 13	0.46 ± 0.0040	99 ± 1.1
$G\alpha i2$	7.9 ± 3.3	99 ± 1.1	3.1 ± 0.67	98 ± 2.1	0.38 ± 0.10	99 ± 2.1
$G\alpha i3$	2.6 ± 0.54	99 ± 1.0	2.2 ± 0.61	95 ± 5.6	0.27 ± 0.050	100 ± 7.9
$G\alpha oA$	5.4 ± 0.96	99 ± 0.63	1.7 ± 0.36	100 ± 8.0	0.25 ± 0.038	99 ± 2.6
$G\alpha oB$	3.5 ± 0.49	99 ± 0.31	1.6 ± 0.22	97 ± 2.8	0.37 ± 0.029	95 ± 2.9
$G\alpha z$	1.5 ± 0.85	96 ± 5.6	0.36 ± 0.048	100 ± 11	0.10 ± 0.050	110 ± 8.2

behaved as a full agonist with E_{max} values of 94% \pm 3.6% and $94\% \pm 6.8\%$, respectively (Table 3). Again, Mr 2033 was most potent when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with any other $G\alpha$ subunit (Fig. 5E; Table 3). A comparison of Mr 2033 signaling through the KOR showed a leftward shift in the concentration-response curve when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i1$. The EC_{50} value for Mr 2033 was approximately 17-fold higher when signaling through Gail than Gaz (5.4 \pm 2.8 nM vs. 0.31 \pm 0.15 nM, respectively). Moreover, to illustrate that the variation observed was not affected by the Gγ subunit, concentrationresponse curves were generated using $G\beta 1\gamma 7$. When the KOR coupled with $G\alpha i1 \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 2$ or $G\alpha i1 \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 7$, neither the EC_{50} values (5.4 \pm 2.8 nM vs. 5.2 \pm 0.79 nM, respectively) nor the E_{max} values (81% \pm 3.2% vs. 89% \pm 8.5%, respectively) were significantly different. Likewise, when the KOR coupled with $G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 7$, Mr 2033 was similarly potent with an EC_{50} value of 0.19 \pm 0.11 nM compared with 0.31 \pm 0.15 nM when the KOR coupled with $G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 2$ (Fig. 5E). Again, E_{max} values were similar regardless of the $G\beta\gamma$ subunit $(90\% \pm 8.2\% \text{ through } G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 7 \text{ vs. } 94\% \pm 6.8\% \text{ through }$ $G\alpha z \bullet G\beta 1\gamma 2$). Overall, Mr 2033 was more potent when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ than $G\alpha i1$ regardless of the $G\beta \gamma$ subunit.

Mu Opioid Receptor Antagonists Signaling Through the KOR. Since mu opioid receptor (MOR) antagonists, naloxone, naltrexone, nalmefene, and samidorphan, have partial activity at the KOR (Bart et al., 2005; Bidlack et al., 2018), a 10 µM compound screen was performed (Fig. 6A). Interestingly, as seen with partial agonists, maximal KOR signaling was attained when the KOR was coupled to the $G\alpha z$ subunit, resulting in stimulation greater than 26% for each MOR antagonist. In contrast, naloxone produced less than 10% stimulation when the KOR signaled through other $G\alpha$ subunits within the inhibitory class besides $G\alpha z$. A previous publication using this BRET assay reported that naloxone signaled through $G\alpha i$ and $G\alpha o$ (Masuho et al., 2015b). However, this previous report did not normalize the data to a full agonist to account for variability in transient transfections. Figure 6A shows that 10 µM of nalmefene and samidorphan stimulated KOR activation by $17\% \pm 3.7\%$ and $16\% \pm 5.6\%$ when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha i1$, respectively. Similarly, when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha i3$, 10 μM nalmefene stimulated the KOR to $11\% \pm 4.5\%$. In contrast, neither opioid activated the KOR by more than 10% when

signaling through $G\alpha i2$, $G\alpha oA$, or $G\alpha oB$. Concentrationresponse curves were generated for naltrexone with the KOR coupled to $G\alpha z$ and $G\alpha i1$ (Fig. 6B). Again, a leftward and upward shift in the curve was observed when KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i1$ (Fig. 6B). When the KOR coupled to $G\alpha z$, naltrexone had an EC_{50} value of 0.32 \pm 0.090 nM and an E_{max} value of 61% \pm 8.8%. E_{max} and EC_{50} values could not be calculated for naltrexone signaling through KOR•G α i1 due to the low stimulation. G β 1 γ 7 had no effect on the potency or efficacy of naltrexone compared with $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ (Fig. 6B). The E_{max} and EC_{50} values were not statistically different when $G\gamma7$ was present (64% \pm 13% and 0.63 ± 0.30 nM, respectively) compared with Gy2 (61% \pm 8.8% and 0.32 ± 0.090 nM, respectively). Similarly, E_{max} and EC50 values could not be calculated for naltrexone signaling through KOR \bullet G α i1; however, the results appear consistent between the different $G\gamma$ subunits (Fig. 6B).

To demonstrate how this assay can be used to measure antagonism and partial agonism, we sought to determine how 330 nM naloxone would shift the potency of U50,488 in the presence of the different $G\alpha$ subunits. When the KOR was signaling through Gαi1, the U50,488 EC₅₀ values had an approximate 23-fold shift from 5.1 ± 1.1 to 120 ± 15 nM in the presence of naloxone (Fig. 6C). This shift was expected, as naloxone had minimal activity and behaved as an antagonist when the KOR is signaling through $G\alpha i1$ (Fig. 6A). Similarly, the U50,488 concentration-response curve had a 100-fold rightward shift when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ in the presence of naloxone, with an EC₅₀ value of 170 \pm 45 nM compared with 1.7 ± 0.81 nM without naloxone present (Fig. 6D). In contrast, naloxone behaved as a partial agonist and not strictly as a pure antagonist when signaling through $G\alpha z$. Subsequently, the U50,488 concentration-response curve never returned to baseline, as the 330 nM naloxone activated the KOR to approximately 34% stimulation. Thus, depending on which $G\alpha$ subunit the KOR was coupled to, naloxone behaved as an antagonist ($G\alpha i1$) or partial agonist ($G\alpha z$) and shifted the U50,488 curve accordingly.

Endogenous $G\alpha$ mRNA Expression Levels and Cell Line Translatability. As previously discussed, many pharmacological assays are limited by the endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins expressed in a given cell line. To determine if the potential expression of endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins in two commonly used cell lines might influence an assay system, mRNA levels of $G\alpha i/o/z$ were determined for HEK 293 and CHO cells using

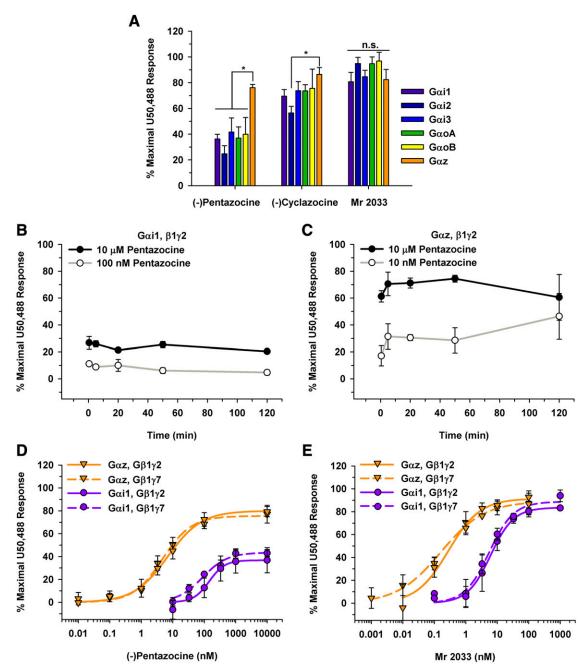


TABLE 3 Potency and efficacy of the benzomorphan Mr 2033 signaling through the KOR and different $G\alpha$ subunits after a 50-minute incubation

Concentration-response curves were generated for Mr 2033, signaling through various G\$\alpha\$ subunits. Mr 2033 has similar E_{max} values, except when the KOR signaled through G\$\alpha\$0 sompared with G\$\alpha\$1 (\$P = 0.049\$). Mr 2033 was significantly more potent when the KOR signaled through G\$\alpha\$z compared with G\$\alpha\$1, G\$\alpha\$12, G\$\alpha\$13, or G\$\alpha\$0B (\$P < 0.020\$). Data are means \$\pm\$ S.D.; measurements were performed in duplicate in three to six independent experiments.

$G\alpha$	EC_{50}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathrm{max}}$	
	${f nM}$	%	
Gαi1	5.4 ± 2.8	81 ± 3.2	
$G\alpha i2$	13 ± 1.8	92 ± 5.7	
$G\alpha i3$	8.0 ± 3.9	87 ± 5.0	
$G\alpha oA$	3.7 ± 2.1	93 ± 3.4	
$G\alpha oB$	6.0 ± 0.49	94 ± 3.6	
$G\alpha z$	0.31 ± 0.15	94 ± 6.8	

species-specific primers. Both cell lines expressed $G\alpha i1$, $G\alpha i2$, and $G\alpha i3$ (Fig. 7A); however, neither cell line expressed $G\alpha o$. Interestingly, HEK 293 cells expressed detectable levels of $G\alpha z$ mRNA, which correlated with the expression of $G\alpha z$ protein observed in the Western blot (Fig. 3A). In contrast, the

CHO cells did not express $G\alpha z$ mRNA endogenously (Fig. 7A). Clearly, these two cell lines expressed different $G\alpha$ subunits. Thus, it is feasible that performing experiments in these cell lines, which do not express $G\alpha o$, does not accurately recapitulate KOR signaling in the brain where $G\alpha o$ and $G\alpha z$ are expressed (Jeong and Ikeda, 1998; Jiang and Bajpayee, 2009).

Furthermore, to demonstrate the translatability of this BRET assay, key experiments were repeated in the CHO cell line. By expressing an individual $G\alpha$ subunit, this assay offers the advantage of not being dependent on the endogenous $G\alpha$ proteins present within a cell line. As shown in Figure 7B, U50,488 had a similar potency in CHO cells as in HEK 293T cells when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 (EC $_{50}$ values of 7.3 \pm 0.95 nM vs. 5.6 \pm 1.3 nM, respectively) and through $G\alpha$ z (EC $_{50}$ values of 5.0 \pm 1.9 nM vs. 1.5 \pm 0.85 nM vs., respectively). The partial KOR agonist (-)pentazocine had similar efficacies in CHO and HEK 293T cells when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 (E $_{\rm max}$ = 31% \pm 7.0% and 35% \pm 9.2%, respectively), or $G\alpha$ z (E $_{\rm max}$ = 79% \pm 6.4% and 68% \pm 6.6%, respectively). Although (-)pentazocine was slightly more potent when signaling through $G\alpha$ i1 expressed in CHO cells

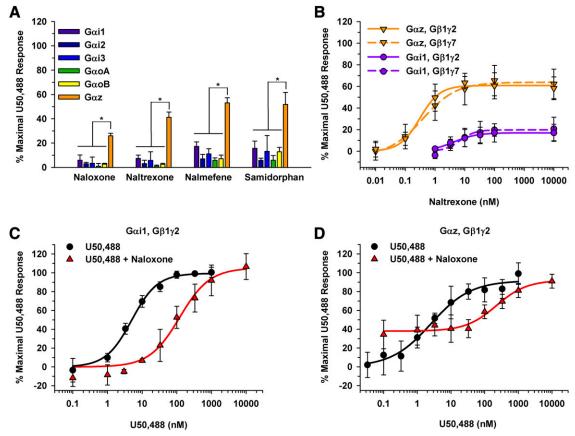


Fig. 6. MOR antagonists signaling through the KOR and different $G\alpha$ subunits. (A) Opioids were tested at a 10 μM final concentration with a 50-minute incubation in HEK 293T cells transiently expressing the KOR, $G\alpha$ subunit of interest, $G\beta\gamma$ -Venus, and masGRK3ct-nLuc. For each of the four opioids, the BRET response was greatest when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ (*P ≤ 0.001 for $G\alpha z$ compared with all other subunits). (B) Concentration-response curves were generated for naltrexone binding to the KOR and signaling through $G\alpha i$ 1 and $G\alpha z$ with $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ or $G\beta 1\gamma 7$. Although E_{max} and EC_{50} values were not calculated for $G\alpha i$ 1 due to low stimulation, $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ or $G\beta 1\gamma 7$ did not significantly influence the E_{max} (61% ± 8.8% vs. 64% ± 13%, respectively; P = 0.7) or EC_{50} values (0.32 ± 0.090 nM vs. 0.63 ± 0.30 nM, respectively; P = 0.1) when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$. (C and D) To demonstrate the pharmacological differences of naloxone when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha i$ 1 (C) vs. $G\alpha z$ (D), shifts in U50,488 concentration-response curves were observed. When the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha i$ 1 (C), the EC_{50} value for U50,488 shifted from 5.1 ± 1.1 to 120 ± 15 nM in the presence of 330 nM naloxone (P < 0.001). Similarly, 330 nM naloxone shifted the EC_{50} value from 1.7 ± 0.81 to 170 ± 45 nM when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ (D) (P < 0.001). The U50,488 concentration-response curve did not return to baseline and remained at approximately 34% due to naloxone acting as a partial agonist at KOR when the receptor signaled through $G\alpha z$ (A). Data are mean percentages of maximal stimulation ± S.D.; measurements were performed in duplicate in three independent experiments.

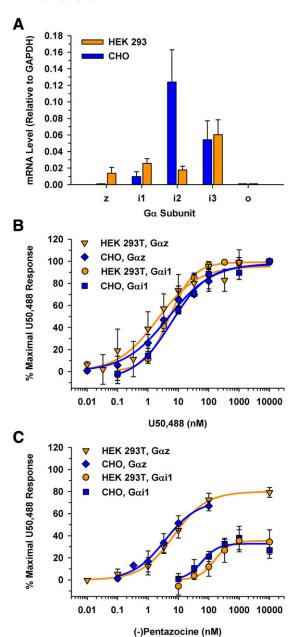


Fig. 7. Comparing mRNA levels of endogenous $G\alpha$ subunits and KOR signaling through Gαz and Gαi1 in both HEK 293T and CHO cells as measured with BRET. (A) $G\alpha$ subunit mRNA profile in CHO and HEK 293 cells. Total mRNA was isolated from CHO and HEK 293 cell lines. Speciesspecific primers were used to determine relative mRNA levels to a GAPDH internal control. HEK 293 cells expressed the $G\alpha z$ subunit transcript; CHO cells did not express detectable levels of $G\alpha z$. $G\alpha o$ mRNA was not detected in either cell line. Data are the mean mRNA levels relative to GAPDH from three independent experiments performed in triplicate ± S.D. (B) U50,488 concentration-response curves were generated in HEK 293T and CHO cells after a 50-minute incubation. EC_{50} values were 7.3 \pm 0.95 nM through G α i1 and 5.0 \pm 1.9 nM through G α z in CHO cells compared with 5.6 \pm 1.3 nM through G α i1 and 1.5 \pm 0.85 nM through G α z in HEK 293T cells. (C) Concentration-response curves were generated for (-) pentazocine in HEK 293T and CHO cells after a 50-minute incubation. When the KOR was signaling through G α i1, an E_{max} value of 31% \pm 7.0% in CHO cells and of 35% \pm 9.2% in HEK 293T cells (P = 0.57). KOR \bullet G α i1 signaling resulted in an EC $_{50}$ value of 63 \pm 24 nM in CHO cells and 110 \pm 17 nM in HEK 293T cells (P = 0.023). (-)Pentazocine had similar E_{max} values when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ in both the CHO and HEK 293T cells (E $_{max}$ values of 68% \pm 6.6% and 79% \pm 6.4%, respectively; P = 0.056). (-)Pentazocine had similar EC₅₀ values when the KOR signaled through $G\alpha z$ in CHO cells (EC₅₀ value of 3.3 \pm 1.1 nM) and HEK 293T cells (EC₅₀ value of 7.3 \pm 2.8 nM) (P = 0.051 between cell lines).

 $(EC_{50}=63\pm24~\text{nM})$ than in HEK 293T cells $(EC_{50}=110\pm17~\text{nM})$, it was equipotent when signaling through $G\alpha z$ in these cell lines $(EC_{50}=7.3\pm2.8~\text{nM}$ for HEK 293T cells and $3.3\pm1.1~\text{nM}$ for CHO cells). Overall, the functional activity profiles of U50,488 and (-)pentazocine signaling through $G\alpha i1$ or $G\alpha z$ were largely unaffected by cell type.

Discussion

A BRET sensor technique was adapted to better understand $G\alpha$ -specific KOR pharmacology. By fusing the BRET donor and acceptor proteins to the $G\beta\gamma$ subunit and a truncated form of its downstream effector, GRK3, respectively, the effects of individual $G\alpha$ subunits could be observed unrestricted. In contrast to previous work (Masuho et al., 2015b), this BRET technology was used at nonsaturating opioid concentrations. By allowing the opioid and KOR to reach equilibrium, concentration-response curves were generated to calculate E_{max} and EC_{50} values. Thus, the first $G\alpha$ -specific KOR pharmacology was observed. Although no significant differences were detected between $G\alpha$ subunits when saturating concentrations of full agonists were bound to the KOR, a distinct pattern emerged when partial agonists were bound. For instance, when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$, (-) pentazocine and naltrexone had higher Emax values compared with KOR signaling through $G\alpha i1$. Additionally, both concentration-response curves had a leftward shift when signaling through $G\alpha z$ compared with $G\alpha i1$. Since $G\beta 1\gamma 2$ is ubiquitously expressed, we sought to determine if a more striatum-specific dimer, $G\beta1\gamma7$ (Betty et al., 1998), would also influence KOR pharmacology. Gγ2 and Gγ7 share 66% sequence similarity (Khan et al., 2013). In contrast to the $G\alpha$ subunit, no differences in efficacy or potency were observed between $G\gamma 2$ and $G\gamma 7$ for (-)pentazocine, Mr 2033, and naltrexone. To demonstrate the utility of this assay, it was performed in both HEK 293T and CHO cell lines and resulted in similar findings. Most notably, all opioids tested were more potent when the KOR was signaling through $G\alpha z$ regardless of

Traditional assays used to study OR signaling, such as $[^{35}S]GTP\gamma S$ binding and cAMP levels after AC inhibition, often do not account for simultaneous signaling through various $G\alpha$ subunits (Strange, 2010). Although these assays offer some insight into OR pharmacology, it is difficult to recapitulate the complexity of signaling due to cell line limitations, namely, the differential expression of specific $G\alpha$ subunits and regulator of G protein signaling (RGS) proteins in a given cell line (Strange, 2010). For example, we determined that the relative expression of $G\alpha$ subunits was different in two commonly used cell lines, HEK 293 and CHO. Notably, neither cell line expressed $G\alpha$ o, the most abundant $G\alpha$ subunit present in the brain (Gierschik et al., 1986). Additionally, only HEK 293 cells expressed $G\alpha z$. The mRNA distribution of $G\alpha$ proteins within HEK 293 cells agree with previous findings (Atwood et al., 2011). Though it has been established that $G\alpha z$ is widely expressed in the brain, particularly in regions that also express ORs, its signaling properties have been less studied than the other $G\alpha i/o$ -class subunits (Fields, 1998; Glick et al., 1998). Thus, a more sensitive technique was necessary to parse out the unique signaling effects of each $G\alpha$ subunit.

This novel approach to study $G\alpha$ subunit–specific pharmacology may help corroborate in vitro assays with in vivo observations, thus allowing differences in agonist activation profiles to be studied. For example, intracerebroventricular administration of Gaz siRNA in mice resulted in reduced supraspinal antinociception after MOR-specific opioid administration. In contrast to other $G\alpha i/o$ knockdown mice, the $G\alpha z$ knockdown mice showed an impaired response to all tested opioid agonists in the 52°C warm-water tail withdrawal test (Sánchez-Blázquez et al., 1999). Furthermore, these researchers observed that the MOR agonists morphine and DAMGO ([D-Ala², N-MePhe⁴, Gly-ol]-enkephalin) had a greater potency at the MOR in mouse periaqueductal gray slices when signaling through $G\alpha z$ than $G\alpha i2$ in a [^{35}S]GTP γS assay (Garzón et al., 1997). These studies suggest a prominent role for $G\alpha z$ in vivo OR signaling, particularly in the context of analgesia. Although in vitro studies typically rely on $G\alpha i$ / o-mediated OR signaling to predict in vivo observations, our findings further indicate the importance of understanding OR coupling to various $G\alpha$ subunits and how the $G\alpha$ subunits influence opioid pharmacology.

Taken together, these data indicate the importance for further study of $G\alpha z$ signaling in regard to the OR. As mentioned earlier, $G\alpha z$ is a member of the $G\alpha i/o$ class; however, it shares the least sequence identity with the other members (Casey et al., 1990). Although Gαi/o-class subunits have a broader expression profile, $G\alpha z$ has a more limited expression and is restricted primarily to the brain (Casey et al., 1990). Thus, cells that express $G\alpha z$ may have a highly specialized function. Additionally, $G\alpha z$ is pertussis toxin-insensitive, as it lacks the cysteine residue at the C terminus responsible for ADP-ribosylation (Ho and Wong, 1998). Although the BRET overexpression system used in this current study allowed the effects of individual $G\alpha$ subunits to be observed, further study will be important to understand these signaling effects in a more physiologic context. By capitalizing on the differences in pertussis toxin sensitivity of $G\alpha i/o$ and $G\alpha z$, endogenous $G\alpha z$ signaling might be viewed in a physiologic environment, such as isolated primary neurons. Moreover, $G\alpha z$ has a much slower intrinsic hydrolysis rate than other $G\alpha i/o$ class members (Fields, 1998), which may account for some of the observed differences. Once $G\alpha z$ signaling is initiated, the signaling may persist much longer than through other $G\alpha$ subunits (Garzón et al., 2005). Since no exogenous RGS proteins (Hollinger and Hepler, 2002) were expressed in the current system, $G\alpha z$'s slower hydrolysis rate may be contributing to the increased signal of partial agonists. Using the same BRET technique described and additionally expressing exogenous RGS proteins, future experiments can better parse out the kinetics of $G\alpha$ subunit–specific pharmacology in a more physiologic environment.

In summary, this paper demonstrated the unique pharmacological profile obtained when the KOR signals through $G\alpha z$ compared with other inhibitory $G\alpha$ proteins. Although we acknowledge the limitations of this overexpression system, it offers insight into the intricacies of KOR•G α signaling.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Kirill A. Martemyanov for the generous gift of the BRET sensors, Dr. David I. Yule for the use of his Felxstation 3 plate reader, Dr. Angela Glading and Harsha Swamy for their assistance with the Western blots, and Dr. Cesare Orlandi for useful discussions.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: Barnett, Knapp, Bidlack.

Conducted experiments: Barnett, Knapp.

Performed data analysis: Barnett, Knapp.

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Barnett, Knapp, Bidlack.

References

Archer S, Albertson NF, Harris LS, Pierson AK, and Bird JG (1964) Pentazocine. Strong analgesics and analgesic antagonists in the benzomorphan series. J Med Chem 7:123–127.

Archer S, Glick SD, and Bidlack JM (1996) Cyclazocine revisited. *Neurochem Res* 21: 1369–1373.

Atwood BK, Lopez J, Wager-Miller J, Mackie K, and Straiker A (2011) Expression of G protein-coupled receptors and related proteins in HEK293, AtT20, BV2, and N18 cell lines as revealed by microarray analysis. *BMC Genomics* **12**:14.

Bart G, Schluger JH, Borg L, Ho A, Bidlack JM, and Kreek MJ (2005) Nalmefene induced elevation in serum prolactin in normal human volunteers: partial kappa opioid agonist activity? Neuropsychopharmacology 30:2254–2262.

Betty M, Harnish SW, Rhodes KJ, and Cockett MI (1998) Distribution of heterotrimeric G-protein beta and gamma subunits in the rat brain. *Neuroscience* 85: 475–486.

Bidlack JM, Knapp BI, Deaver DR, Plotnikava M, Arnelle D, Wonsey AM, Fern Toh M, Pin SS, and Namchuk MN (2018) In vitro pharmacological characterization of buprenorphine, samidorphan, and combinations being developed as an adjunctive treatment of major depressive disorder. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 367:267–281.

Bidlack JM and Parkhill AL (2004) Assay of G protein-coupled receptor activation of G proteins in native cell membranes using [35S]GTP gamma S binding. *Methods Mol Biol* 237:135–143.

Casey PJ, Fong HK, Simon MI, and Gilman AG (1990) Gz, a guanine nucleotide-binding protein with unique biochemical properties. J Biol Chem 265:2383–2390.

DeCaprio J and Kohl TO (2019) Using Dounce homogenization to lyse cells for immunoprecipitation. Cold Spring Harb Protoc 2019 (7) Available from: 10.1101/pdb. prot098574.

Donthamsetti P, Quejada JR, Javitch JA, Gurevich VV, and Lambert NA (2015) Using Bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) to characterize agonistinduced arrestin recruitment to modified and unmodified G protein-coupled receptors. Curr Protoc Pharmacol 70:2.14.1-2.14.14.

Dounce AL, Witter RF, Monty KJ, Pate S, and Cottone MA (1955) A method for isolating intact mitochondria and nuclei from the same homogenate, and the influence of mitochondrial destruction on the properties of cell nuclei. *J Biophys Biochem Cytol* 1:139–153.

Fields TA (1998) Identification of a GTPase activating protein specific for the heterotrimeric G protein, Gz. Cell Signal 10:43–48.

Garzón J, García-España A, and Sánchez-Blázquez P (1997) Opioids binding mu and delta receptors exhibit diverse efficacy in the activation of Gi2 and G(x/z) transducer proteins in mouse periaqueductal gray matter. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 281: 540 557

Garzón J, Rodríguez-Muñoz M, López-Fando A, and Sánchez-Blázquez P (2005) The RGSZ2 protein exists in a complex with mu-opioid receptors and regulates the desensitizing capacity of Gz proteins. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **30**:1632–1648.

Gierschik P, Milligan G, Pines M, Goldsmith P, Codina J, Klee W, and Spiegel A (1986) Use of specific antibodies to quantitate the guanine nucleotide-binding protein Go in brain. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 83:2258–2262.

Glick JL, Meigs TE, Miron A, and Casey PJ (1998) RGSZ1, a Gz-selective regulator of G protein signaling whose action is sensitive to the phosphorylation state of Gzalpha. J Biol Chem 273:26008–26013.

Hilger D, Masureel M, and Kobilka BK (2018) Structure and dynamics of GPCR signaling complexes. Nat Struct Mol Biol 25:4–12.

Ho MK and Wong YH (1998) Structure and function of the pertussis-toxin-insensitive Gz protein. Biol Signals Recept 7:80–89.

Hollinger S and Hepler JR (2002) Cellular regulation of RGS proteins: modulators and integrators of G protein signaling. *Pharmacol Rev* 54:527–559.

Hollins B, Kuravi S, Digby GJ, and Lambert NA (2009) The C-terminus of GRK3 indicates rapid dissociation of G protein heterotrimers. *Cell Signal* 21:1015–1021. Jeong SW and Ikeda SR (1998) G protein alpha subunit G alpha z couples neurotransmitter receptors to ion channels in sympathetic neurons. *Neuron* 21: 1201–1212.

Jiang M and Bajpayee NS (2009) Molecular mechanisms of go signaling. Neurosignals 17:23–41.

Karlsson JO, Ostwald K, Kåbjörn C, and Andersson M (1994) A method for protein assay in Laemmli buffer. Anal Biochem 219:144–146.

Kenakin T (2011) Functional selectivity and biased receptor signaling. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 336:296–302.

Khan SM, Sleno R, Gora S, Zylbergold P, Laverdure JP, Labbé JC, Miller GJ, and Hébert TE (2013) The expanding roles of Gβγ subunits in G protein-coupled receptor signaling and drug action. *Pharmacol Rev* 65:545–577.

Lodowski DT, Pitcher JA, Capel WD, Lefkowitz RJ, and Tesmer JJ (2003) Keeping G proteins at bay: a complex between G protein-coupled receptor kinase 2 and Gbetagamma. Science 300:1256–1262.

Masuho I, Martemyanov KA, and Lambert NA (2015a) Monitoring G protein activation in cells with BRET. Methods Mol Biol 1335:107–113.

Masuho I, Ostrovskaya O, Kramer GM, Jones CD, Xie K, and Martemyanov KA (2015b) Distinct profiles of functional discrimination among G proteins determine the actions of G protein-coupled receptors. *Sci Signal* 8:ra123.

Milligan G and Kostenis E (2006) Heterotrimeric G-proteins: a short history. Br J Pharmacol 147 (Suppl 1):S46–S55.

- Portoghese PS, Lipkowski AW, and Takemori AE (1987) Binaltorphimine and norbinaltorphimine, potent and selective kappa-opioid receptor antagonists. *Life Sci* 40:1287–1292.
- Rasmussen SG, DeVree BT, Zou Y, Kruse AC, Chung KY, Kobilka TS, Thian FS, Chae PS, Pardon E, Calinski D, et al. (2011) Crystal structure of the $\beta 2$ adrenergic receptor-Gs protein complex. *Nature* 477:549–555.
- Sadana R and Dessauer CW (2009) Physiological roles for G protein-regulated adenylyl cyclase isoforms: insights from knockout and overexpression studies. Neurosignals 17:5–22.
- Sánchez-Blázquez P, Gómez-Serranillos P, and Garzón J (2001) Agonists determine the pattern of G-protein activation in mu-opioid receptor-mediated supraspinal analgesia. Brain Res Bull 54:229–235.
- Sánchez-Blázquez P, Rodríguez-Díaz M, DeAntonio I, and Garzón J (1999) Endomorphin-1 and endomorphin-2 show differences in their activation of mu opioid receptor-regulated G proteins in supraspinal antinociception in mice. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 291:12–18.
- Stoddart LA, Johnstone EKM, Wheal AJ, Goulding J, Robers MB, Machleidt T, Wood KV, Hill SJ, and Pfleger KDG (2015) Application of BRET to monitor ligand binding to GPCRs. *Nat Methods* 12:661–663.
- Strange PG (2010) Use of the GTP γ S ([35S]GTP γ S and Eu-GTP γ S) binding assay for analysis of ligand potency and efficacy at G protein-coupled receptors. Br J Pharmacol 161:1238–1249.
- Syrovatkina V, Alegre KO, Dey R, and Huang XY (2016) Regulation, signaling, and physiological functions of G-proteins. *J Mol Biol* **428**:3850–3868.

- Traynor JR and Nahorski SR (1995) Modulation by mu-opioid agonists of guanosine-5′-O-(3-[³⁵S]thio)triphosphate binding to membranes from human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells. *Mol Pharmacol* 47:848–854.
- Von Voigtlander PF and Lewis RA (1982) U-50,488, a selective kappa opioid agonist: comparison to other reputed kappa agonists. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry 6:467–470.
- Wedegaertner PB, Wilson PT, and Bourne HR (1995) Lipid modifications of trimeric G proteins. J Biol Chem 270:503–506.
- Wentland MP, Lou R, Lu Q, Bu Y, Van Alstine MA, Cohen DJ, and Bidlack JM (2009) Syntheses and opioid receptor binding properties of carboxamido-substituted opioids. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 19:203–208.
- Wentland MP, Lu Q, Lou R, Bu Y, Knapp BI, and Bidlack JM (2005) Synthesis and opioid receptor binding properties of a highly potent 4-hydroxy analogue of naltrexone. Bioorg Med Chem Lett 15:2107–2110.
- Yung LY, Tsim ST, and Wong YH (1995) Stimulation of cAMP accumulation by the cloned Xenopus melatonin receptor through Gi and Gz proteins. FEBS Lett 372: 99–102.

Address correspondence to: Dr. Jean M. Bidlack, Department of Pharmacology and Physiology, University of Rochester, School of Medicine and Dentistry, P.O. Box 711, 601 Elmwood Avenue, Rochester, NY 14642-8711. E-mail: Jean_Bidlack@urmc.rochester.edu