

Antinociceptive Effects of Central Administration of the Endogenous Cannabinoid Receptor Type 1 Agonist VDPVNFKLLSH-OH [(m)VD-hemopressin(α)], an N-Terminally Extended Hemopressin Peptide

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ABSTRACT

The cannabinoid system has been demonstrated to modulate the acute and chronic pain of multiple origins. Mouse VD-hemopressin (α) [(m)VD-Hp α], an 11-residue α -hemoglobin-derived peptide, was recently reported to function as a selective agonist of the cannabinoid receptor type 1 (CB₁) in vitro. To characterize its behavioral and physiological properties, we investigated the in vivo effects of (m)VD-Hp α in mice. In the mouse tail-flick test, (m)VD-Hp α dose-dependently induced antinociception after supraspinal (EC₅₀ = 6.69 nmol) and spinal (EC₅₀ = 2.88 nmol) administration. The antinociceptive effects of (m)VD-Hp α (intracerebroventricularly and intrathecally) were completely blocked by *N*-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide (AM251; CB₁ antagonist), but not by 6-iodo-2-methyl-1-[2-(4-morpholinyl)ethyl]-1*H*-indol-3-yl(4-methoxyphenyl)-methanone (AM630; CB₂ antagonist) or naloxone

(opioid antagonist), showing its selectivity to the CB₁ receptor. Furthermore, the central nervous system (CNS) effects of (m)VD-Hp α were evaluated in body temperature, locomotor activity, tolerance development, reward, and food intake assays. At the highly antinociceptive dose (3 × EC₅₀), (m)VD-Hp α markedly exerted hypothermia and hypoactivity after supraspinal administration. Repeated intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hp α resulted in both development of tolerance to antinociception and conditioned place aversion. In addition, central injection of (m)VD-Hp α dose-dependently stimulated food consumption. These findings demonstrate that this novel cannabinoid peptide agonist induces CB₁-mediated central antinociception with some CNS effects, which further supports a CB₁ agonist character of (m)VD-Hp α . Moreover, the current study will be helpful to understand the in vivo properties of the endogenous peptide agonist of the cannabinoid CB₁ receptor.

Introduction

Pain is one of the most widespread and difficult syndromes of humans. Cannabinoid receptors are the attractive therapeutic targets for pain management (Richardson, 2000; Pacher et al., 2006). To date, two types of cannabinoid receptors, cannabinoid receptor type 1 (CB₁) and type 2 (CB₂), have been identified (Pertwee, 1997; Pacher et al., 2006). The CB₁ receptor is

expressed in neurons throughout the central and peripheral nervous system, especially in the areas that are involved in pain modulation, including the periaqueductal gray and the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (Richardson, 2000; Agarwal et al., 2007; Guindon and Beaulieu, 2009). In contrast, the CB₂ receptor is predominantly present in immune cells. However, recent studies demonstrated that activation of the CB₂ receptor also produced acute antinociception (Richardson, 2000; Ibrahim et al., 2006; Pacher et al., 2006; Guindon and Beaulieu, 2009).

It is well known that the cannabinoid receptors are activated by synthetic agonists [e.g., Δ^8 -tetrahydrocannabinol dimethyl heptyl (Hu-210)], phytocannabinoids (e.g., Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol), and lipid endocannabinoids (e.g., 2-arachidonoylglycerol) derived from membrane phospholipids (Pacher et al., 2006; Blankman and Cravatt, 2013). The endocannabinoid system is traditionally

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ABBREVIATIONS: AM251, *N*-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide; AM630, 6-iodo-2-methyl-1-[2-(4-morpholinyl)ethyl]-1*H*-indol-3-yl(4-methoxyphenyl)-methanone; ANOVA, analysis of variance; AUC, area under the curve; CB₁, cannabinoid receptor type 1; CB₂, cannabinoid receptor type 2; CNS, central nervous system; CP55,940, (-)-*cis*-3-[2-hydroxy-4-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)phenyl]-*trans*-4-(3-hydroxypropyl)cyclohexanol; CPP, conditioned place preference; Fmoc, *N*-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl; Hu-210, Δ^8 -tetrahydrocannabinol dimethyl heptyl; MPE, percent maximum possible effect; (m)VD-Hp α , mouse VD-hemopressin(α); (m)RVD-Hp α , mouse RVD-hemopressin(α); SAB378, naphthalen-1-yl-(4-pentylloxynaphthalen-1-yl)methanone; SR141716A, *N*-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide; WIN55,212-2, (*R*)-(+)-[2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-3-(4-morpholinylmethyl)pyrrolo[1,2,3-de]-1,4-benzoxazin-6-yl]-1-naphthalenylmethanone.

thought to be modulated by the lipophilic endocannabinoids. However, recent findings indicated that endocannabinoid receptors were also regulated by hemopressin peptides (Heimann et al., 2007; Gomes et al., 2009; Bomar and Galande, 2013). Hemopressin is a nonapeptide derived from the α_1 -chain of rat hemoglobin. This nonapeptide was reported to function as an endogenous inverse agonist or antagonist of the CB₁ receptor (Heimann et al., 2007; Dodd et al., 2010). Subsequent findings revealed that three related peptides of hemopressin, mouse RVD-hemopressin(α) [(m)RVD-Hp α], mouse VD-hemopressin(α) [(m)VD-Hp α], and mouse VD-hemopressin(β), which were identified in mouse brain extracts, behaved as agonists of cannabinoid receptors with different selectivities toward CB₁ and CB₂ receptors *in vitro* (Gomes et al., 2009). In the G_{ai16}-facilitated Ca²⁺ release assay, both (m)RVD-Hp α and (m)VD-Hp α acted as the CB₁ agonists, whereas mouse VD-hemopressin(β) functioned as a cannabinoid agonist at both CB₁ and CB₂ receptors on human embryonic kidney 293 cells coexpressing a chimeric G₁₆/G₁₃ with either the CB₁ or CB₂ cannabinoid receptor (Gomes et al., 2009). However, compared with (m)RVD-Hp α , (m)VD-Hp α caused a lesser increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ level in cells coexpressing a chimeric G₁₆/G₁₃ with the CB₂ receptor, implying that (m)VD-Hp α is a highly selective CB₁ agonist (Gomes et al., 2009). Furthermore, the data obtained from studies of the phosphorylation level of extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 or release of intracellular Ca²⁺ demonstrated that the signal transduction pathway activated by these peptides was distinct from that of 2-arachidonoylglycerol and Hu-210 (Gomes et al., 2009).

A number of biological studies suggested that cannabinoids were involved in pain modulation, suppression of locomotor activity, hypothermia, catalepsy, food intake, and cardiovascular actions (Pacher et al., 2006; Bushlin et al., 2010; Blankman and Cravatt, 2013). The pharmacological and behavioral profiles of several nonpeptidic agonists of cannabinoid receptors have been well investigated (Pacher et al., 2006). Although the CB₁ inverse agonist or antagonist hemopressin was reported to elicit inhibition of food intake, hypotensive and antinociceptive effects (Rioli et al., 2003; Blais et al., 2005; Dale et al., 2005; Heimann et al., 2007; Dodd et al., 2010), the behavioral and physiological effects of the endogenous peptide agonists of the cannabinoid system, have not been characterized. Thus, further study of hemopressin and related peptides could be helpful to characterize the physiological role of the endocannabinoid system.

The CB₁ receptor is predominantly located in the mammalian brain (Mechoulam and Parker, 2013). A number of studies reported that the cannabinoid system plays important roles in the modulation of acute nociceptive stimulation and in chronic pain processes (Richardson, 2000; Pertwee, 2001; Guindon and Beaulieu, 2009; Bushlin et al., 2010). In addition, administration of hemopressin caused significant nonopioid antinociception (Dale et al., 2005; Heimann et al., 2007). Therefore, in the present study, acute antinociceptive profiles and related central nervous system (CNS) effects of the endogenous agonist (m)VD-Hp α , an N-terminally extended hemopressin with high selectivity toward the CB₁ receptor, were investigated in mice.

Materials and Methods

Animals. The experiments were performed on male Kunming strain mice from the Experimental Animal Center of Lanzhou University (Lanzhou, China). The mice were housed in a temperature-controlled

room (22 ± 1°C). Food and water were freely available until the onset of the behavioral test. All animals were cared for and experiments were carried out in accordance with the European Community guidelines for the use of experimental animals (86/609/EEC). All of the protocols in this study were approved by the Ethics Committee of Lanzhou University.

Chemicals. In the present study, (m)VD-Hp α (VDPVNFKLLSH-OH) was prepared by manual solid-phase synthesis using standard *N*-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl (Fmoc) chemistry. Fmoc-protected amino acids [GL Biochem (Shanghai) Ltd., Shanghai, China] were coupled to a Fmoc-His(Trt)-Wang resin (Tianjin Nankai Hecheng Science & Technology Co., Ltd., Tianjin, China). Gel filtration (Sephadex G-25; Amersham Pharmacia Biotech (China) Ltd., Shanghai, China) was performed to desalt the crude peptides. The desalted peptide was purified by preparative reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography using a Waters Delta 600 system (Milford, MA) coupled to a UV detector. Fractions containing the purified peptides were pooled and lyophilized. The purity of the peptide was established by analytical high-performance liquid chromatography. The molecular weight of the peptide was confirmed by an electrospray ionization mass spectrometer (ESI-Q-TOF maXis-4G; Bruker Daltonics, Germany).

In addition, the cannabinoid agonist (*R*)-(+)-[2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-3-(4-morpholinylmethyl)pyrrolo[1,2,3-de]-1,4-benzoxazin-6-yl]-1-naphthalenylmethanone (WIN55,212-2) and naloxone were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The selective cannabinoid receptor antagonists *N*-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-iodophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide (AM251) and 6-iodo-2-methyl-1-[2-(4-morpholinyl)ethyl]-1*H*-indol-3-yl(4-methoxyphenyl)-methanone (AM630) were purchased from Tocris (Bristol, UK). WIN55,212-2, AM251, AM630, and naloxone were dissolved in the vehicle (a 1:1:18 ratio of cremophor: dimethylsulfoxide:saline solution) before injection. All other drugs were dissolved in sterilized distilled saline and stored at -20°C.

Implantation of Cannula into Lateral Ventricle. Surgical implantation of the cannula was conducted in an aseptic environment, as described earlier (Fang et al., 2012). Mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (80 mg/kg *i.p.*) and placed in a stereotaxic apparatus. The incision area of the scalp was shaved, and a sagittal incision was made in the midline, exposing the surface of the skull. A single hole was drilled through the targeted skull. The coordinates for the placement of the cannula were as follows: 3 mm posterior from the bregma, 1 mm lateral, and 3 mm ventral from the skull surface for the lateral ventricle (intracerebroventricular injection). To prevent occlusion, a dummy cannula was inserted into the guide cannula. The dummy cannula protruded 0.5 mm from the guide cannula. Dental cement was used to fix the guide cannula to the skull. After surgery, the animals were allowed to recover for at least 4 days; during this time, mice were gently handled daily to minimize the stress associated with manipulation of the animals throughout the experiments.

At the end of the experiments, mice were injected with methylene blue dye (3 μ l), which was allowed to diffuse for 10 minutes. Mice then were decapitated, and their brains were removed and frozen. Gross dissection of the brains was used to verify the placement of the cannula. Only the data from those animals with dispersion of the dye throughout the ventricles were used in the study. The cannulation success rate was more than 95% in the present studies.

Drug Administration. Drugs were administered into the lateral ventricle at a fixed volume of 4 μ l (at a constant rate of 10 μ l/min), which was followed by 1 μ l of saline to flush in the drug using a 25- μ l microsyringe.

The intrathecal injection procedure was adopted as described by Hylden and Wilcox (1980). In brief, a 28-gauge needle connected to a 25- μ l microsyringe was directly inserted between the L₅ and L₆ segment in mice. Puncture of the dura was indicated by a reflexive lateral flick of the tail or formation of an "S" shape by the tail (Fairbanks, 2003). Drugs were injected into subarachnoid space in a volume of 5 μ l, and the catheter was also flushed with 1 μ l of saline (at a constant rate of 3 μ l/s).

Nociceptive Tests. The nociceptive response was assessed by the radiant heat tail-flick test. In brief, male Kunming mice weighing

22–25 g were used. The animals were gently restrained by hand, and a light beam was focused onto the tail. At the beginning of the study, the lamp intensity was adjusted to elicit a response in control animals within 3–5 seconds. A cutoff time was set at 10 seconds to minimize tissue damage. Tail-flick time was determined before injection and then at 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 45, and 60 minutes postinjection. Each male mouse was used only once. Data were expressed as the percent maximum possible effect (MPE) calculated as follows: $MPE (\%) = 100 \times [(postdrug\ response - baseline\ response)/(cutoff\ response - baseline\ response)]$. The raw data from nociceptive assays were converted to area under the curve (AUC). The area under the curve depicting total %MPE versus time was computed by trapezoidal approximation over a period of 0–60 minutes. Data were statistically compared by means of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test or Bonferroni's post-hoc test performed on AUC data.

Body Temperature Measurement. The male mice were placed in the specially designed restraining device as described by Rosow et al. (1980), with their tails taped lightly to horizontal posts. Each animal was used only once. The ambient temperature was regulated to $21 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$. The experiments were performed between 10:00 AM and 2:00 PM. Rectal temperature was measured with a thermistor probe (Machine Equipment Corporation of GaoBeiDian, Hebei, China) inserted to a depth of 2.5 cm into the rectum, which was linked to a recorder system (model BL-420E⁺; Taimeng Technology Corporation of Chengdu, Chengdu, China). Body temperature was recorded before injection and then at 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 minutes after intracerebroventricular injection. Rectal temperature values ($\Delta^\circ\text{C}$) were expressed as the difference between control temperature (before injection) and temperatures after drug administration. The raw data from hypothermic assays were converted to AUC. The area under the curves depicting total $\Delta^\circ\text{C}$ versus time were computed by trapezoidal approximation over a period of 0–60 minutes. Data were statistically compared by means of one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test performed on AUC data.

Locomotor Activity Test. Locomotor activity of mice was measured using the Morris Water Maze Tracking System (Taimeng Technology Corporation of Chengdu). The animals were placed individually in a Plexiglas box ($50 \times 50 \times 30$ cm) after injection of saline or drugs. Horizontal activity (distance traveled) was recorded for 15 minutes. Data obtained from the locomotor activity test were statistically compared by means of one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test.

Tolerance Development to Antinociception. Mice received intracerebroventricular injections of either vehicle or (m)VD-Hp α (13.4 and 20.1 nmol) once daily for 8 days. Animals were tested for tail-flick latencies before injections using the equipment and methods described earlier and then received an injection of their assigned dose of drug and were tested at 5, 10, 15, 20, and 30 minutes every testing day. The period 0–30 minutes was chosen because the maximal effects of (m)VD-Hp α were seen at the 15-minute testing time points. %MPE was calculated as the analgesia assessment described earlier. To evaluate tolerance development, Newman-Keuls post-hoc tests (paired *t* tests) were used to compare the maximal %MPE (WIN55,212-2 at 10 minutes, and (m)VD-Hp α at 15 minutes after drug administration) obtained on days 2–8 with data from day 1.

Place Conditioning Experiment. The conditioned place preference (CPP) apparatus was divided into three compartments. Two identical-sized compartments ($20 \times 20 \times 20$ cm) were connected by a narrower one ($5 \times 20 \times 20$ cm). The large compartments are visually and tactually distinct (black-and-white striped walls with rough floor versus black-dotted white walls with smooth floor). These boxes could be isolated by guillotine doors.

On the preconditioning day (day 1), mice were given free access to the entire apparatus for 15 minutes, and the time spent in each compartment was measured. Mice that spent more than 60% of the time in the same compartment were excluded from the tests. On the conditioning days, mice were intracerebroventricularly injected with saline and confined to one of the compartments for 15 minutes. Approximately 6 hours later,

animals were administered intracerebroventricularly saline or (m)VD-Hp α and confined to the opposite compartment. This conditioning procedure was carried out for a total of three identical conditioning sessions (days 2–4). On the test day (postconditioning day; day 5), mice were also given free access to the entire apparatus for 15 minutes, and the time spent in each compartment was measured. CPP score was expressed as time spent in the drug-associated compartment on the postconditioning day minus time spent in the drug-associated compartment on the preconditioning day. Data obtained from the CPP test were statistically compared by means of one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test.

Food Intake. Mice were isolated in individual cages ($24 \times 15 \times 9$ cm). To make them accustomed to the experimental conditions, mice were given free access to water and the pellets of food for 3 days before testing days. The day of testing, at 8:00 AM, unconsumed food was removed and mice were fasted for 1 hour. After intracerebroventricular administration (10 minutes before testing), mice had access to a weighed food pellet (~4 g) laid down on the floor of the cage. At 1, 2, and 4 hours after refeeding, the pellet was briefly (<1 minute) removed and weighed. Food intake was expressed as the consumption of food pellet during the first (0–1 hour), second (1–2 hours), and third (2–4 hours) period of testing. Data obtained from the food intake test were statistically compared by means of one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test.

Statistical Analysis. Data were given as means \pm S.E.M. Probabilities of less than 5% ($P < 0.05$) were considered statistically significant. The dose that elicits 50% efficacy (EC₅₀) and the corresponding 95% confidence interval were determined using GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA).

Results

Antinociceptive Effects of (m)VD-Hp α . To evaluate the antinociceptive properties of the peptide agonist (m)VD-Hp α , the antinociceptive effects of the agonist injected in supraspinal and spinal routes were investigated using the mouse tail-flick test. When administered intracerebroventricularly, (m)VD-Hp α produced a time- and dose-dependent antinociception with an EC₅₀ value (and 95% confidence limits) of 6.69 (5.76–7.78) nmol and a time to peak effect of 15 minutes (Fig. 1A; $F_{4, 38} = 685.9$, $P < 0.0001$). In addition, when given intrathecally, (m)VD-Hp α was potent in producing antinociception with an EC₅₀ value of 2.88 (2.60–3.18) nmol and a time to peak effect of 10 minutes (Fig. 1B; $F_{4, 39} = 470.3$, $P < 0.0001$).

Furthermore, to characterize the central antinociception of (m)VD-Hp α , antagonists of cannabinoid and opioid receptors were further used in the present study. The centrally active agonist WIN55,212-2 was used as a reference compound to show established effects of CB₁ receptor activation on antinociception. As shown in Fig. 2, coinjection of the CB₁ receptor antagonist AM251 (20 nmol i.c.v.) completely blocked the supraspinal antinociception induced by the cannabinoid agonist WIN55,212-2 ($F_{3, 29} = 117.9$, $P < 0.0001$). In contrast, neither the CB₂ receptor antagonist AM630 (20 nmol i.c.v.) nor the opioid receptor antagonist naloxone (5 nmol i.c.v.) altered supraspinal antinociception of WIN55,212-2 (22.5 nmol i.c.v.). In addition, at the same doses, these three antagonists did not modify the tail-flick latency in mice when administered intracerebroventricularly alone (data not shown). In mice treated with AM630 and naloxone before (m)VD-Hp α , the antinociceptive effect was still observed; however, AM251 significantly reduced the supraspinal antinociception of (m)VD-Hp α ($F_{4, 34} = 1198.2$, $P < 0.0001$).

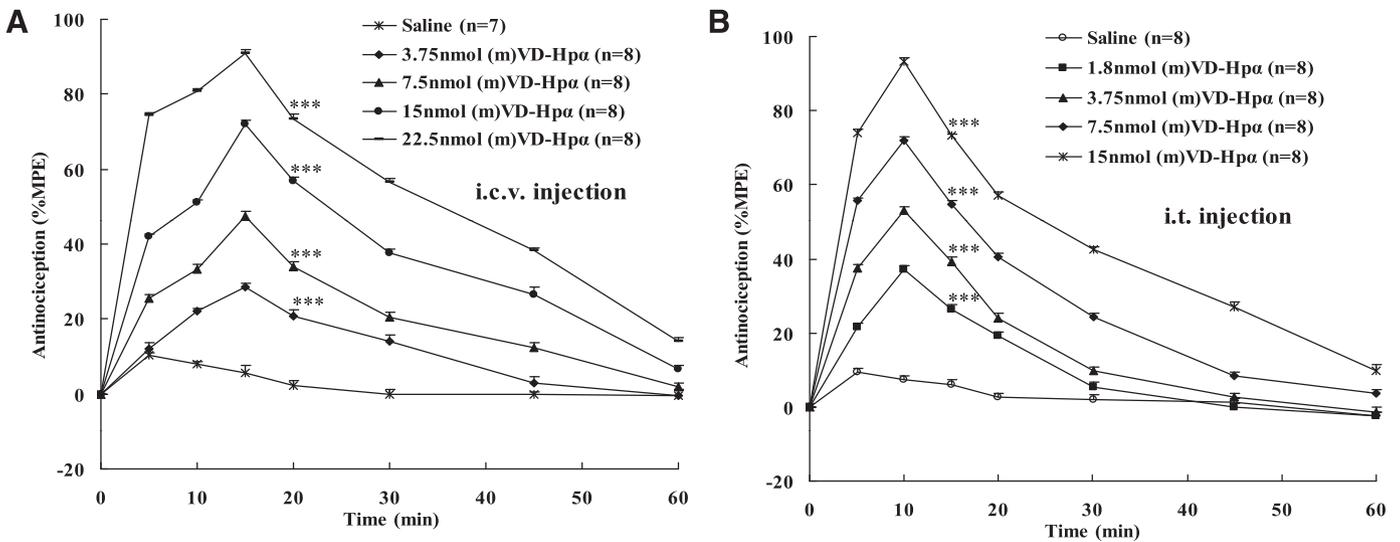


Fig. 1. Dose- and time-related analgesic effects of intracerebroventricularly (A) or intrathecally (B) administered (m)VD-Hp α in the mouse tail-flick assay. Data points represent means \pm S.E.M. AUCs calculated 0–60 minutes from these data are statistically analyzed and are presented in the text. *** $P < 0.001$ versus saline according to one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test performed on AUC data.

At the spinal level, the antinociceptive effects induced by both WIN55,212-2 and (m)VD-Hp α were completely blocked by intrathecally coadministered AM251 ($F_{3, 29} = 118.2$, $F_{4, 34} = 548.6$, $P < 0.0001$) but not AM630 or naloxone (Fig. 3). In addition, at the same doses, intrathecal administration of these antagonists alone did not modify the tail-flick latency in mice (data not shown).

Effects of Intracerebroventricularly Administered (m)VD-Hp α on Body Temperature and Locomotor Activity. Furthermore, the CNS side effects of (m)VD-Hp α at its analgesic doses were investigated in a series of in vivo assays. In Fig. 4, at the antinociceptive doses ($1 \times EC_{50}$, $2 \times EC_{50}$, and $3 \times EC_{50}$), the cannabinoid agonist-like profiles of (m)VD-Hp α were investigated. As shown in Fig. 4A, after intracerebroventricular administration, (m)VD-Hp α evoked a dose-related hypothermia compared with the saline group ($F_{3, 35} = 10.8$, $P < 0.0001$). The decrease in body temperature

induced by (m)VD-Hp α was maximal at 10 minutes and returned to baseline value at 40 minutes after injection. At the doses of $2 \times EC_{50}$ and $3 \times EC_{50}$, (m)VD-Hp α produced marked hypothermia with a maximal effect of -1.07 ± 0.12 and $-1.64 \pm 0.22^\circ\text{C}$, respectively.

Locomotor activity in mice was evaluated by automatically recording distance traveled in an open field. In Fig. 4B, at the lower doses ($1 \times EC_{50}$ and $2 \times EC_{50}$ intracerebroventricularly), (m)VD-Hp α did not induce a significant hypoactivity compared with saline-treated mice. However, it caused a significant decrease in locomotor activity at the $3 \times EC_{50}$ dose ($F_{3, 35} = 14.7$, $P < 0.0001$).

Effects of Repeated Administration of (m)VD-Hp α on Tolerance Development to Thermal Antinociception. The effects of (m)VD-Hp α ($2 \times EC_{50}$ and $3 \times EC_{50}$ intracerebroventricularly) on central antinociception across repeated test days are shown in Fig. 5. On test days 1–8, (m)VD-Hp α

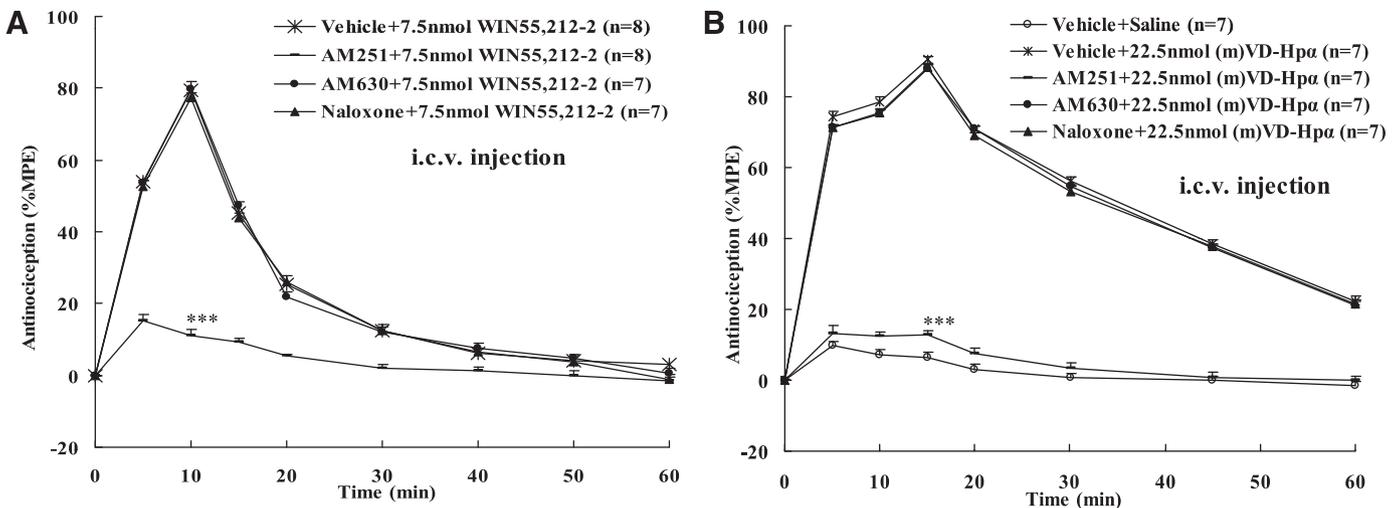


Fig. 2. Time course of the effects of intracerebroventricular injection of AM251 (20 nmol), AM630 (20 nmol), and naloxone (5 nmol) on the central antinociception produced by WIN55,212-2 (A) or (m)VD-Hp α (B) in the mouse tail-flick assay. Data points represent means \pm S.E.M. AUCs calculated 0–60 minutes from these data are used for statistical analysis. *** $P < 0.001$ versus vehicle + agonists-injected group, according to one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test performed on AUC data.

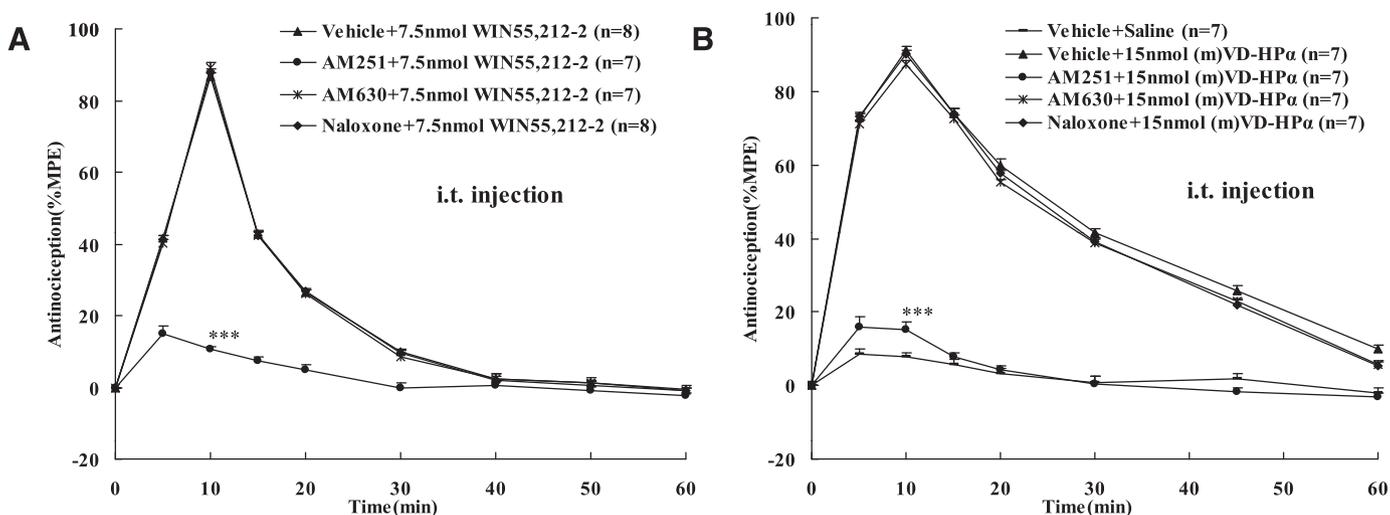


Fig. 3. Time course of the effects of intrathecal injection of AM251 (20 nmol), AM630 (20 nmol), and naloxone (5 nmol) on the central antinociception produced by WIN55,212-2 (A) or (m)VD-Hpα (B) in the mouse tail-flick assay. Data points represent means \pm S.E.M. AUCs calculated 0–60 minutes from these data are used for statistical analysis. *** $P < 0.001$ versus vehicle + agonists-injected group, according to one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post-hoc test performed on AUC data.

caused an increase in tail-flick latency that was significantly greater than that observed in the saline group. Compared with day 1 (91.15 ± 1.49 %MPE), 9 nmol WIN55,212-2 produced a marked decrease in %MPE on day 5 ($F_{7, 63} = 141.4$; $P < 0.0001$), indicating that tolerance develops to central antinociception of WIN55,212-2. Similar to WIN55,212-2, compared with day 1 (73.48 ± 0.94 and 88.38 ± 1.06 %MPE), (m)VD-Hpα also produced a significant decrease in %MPE on day 5 ($F_{7, 63} = 188.4$ and 158.6 , respectively; $P < 0.0001$), indicating that tolerance develops to (m)VD-Hpα-induced antinociception at the supraspinal level. However, it is notable that WIN55,212-2, $2 \times EC_{50}$, and $3 \times EC_{50}$ (m)VD-Hpα still induced 38.75 ± 1.09 , 32.26 ± 1.33 , and 45.63 ± 1.88 %MPE antinociception on day 8, respectively.

Effects of Intracerebroventricularly Administered (m)VD-Hpα on Place Conditioning.

The effect of (m)VD-Hpα on place conditioning is shown in Fig. 6. Saline given intracerebroventricularly did not significantly induce the place preference change, indicating that central injections were not aversive or rewarding in the unbiased balanced paradigm of conditioned place preference in mice. Compared with saline vehicle-treated animals, intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hpα ($1 \times EC_{50}$, $2 \times EC_{50}$, and $3 \times EC_{50}$) exerted dose-dependent conditioned place aversion in mice ($F_{3, 34} = 17.6$, $P < 0.0001$).

Effects of Intracerebroventricularly Administered (m)VD-Hpα on Food Consumption.

Previous reports indicated that cannabinoid agonists could also induce behavioral

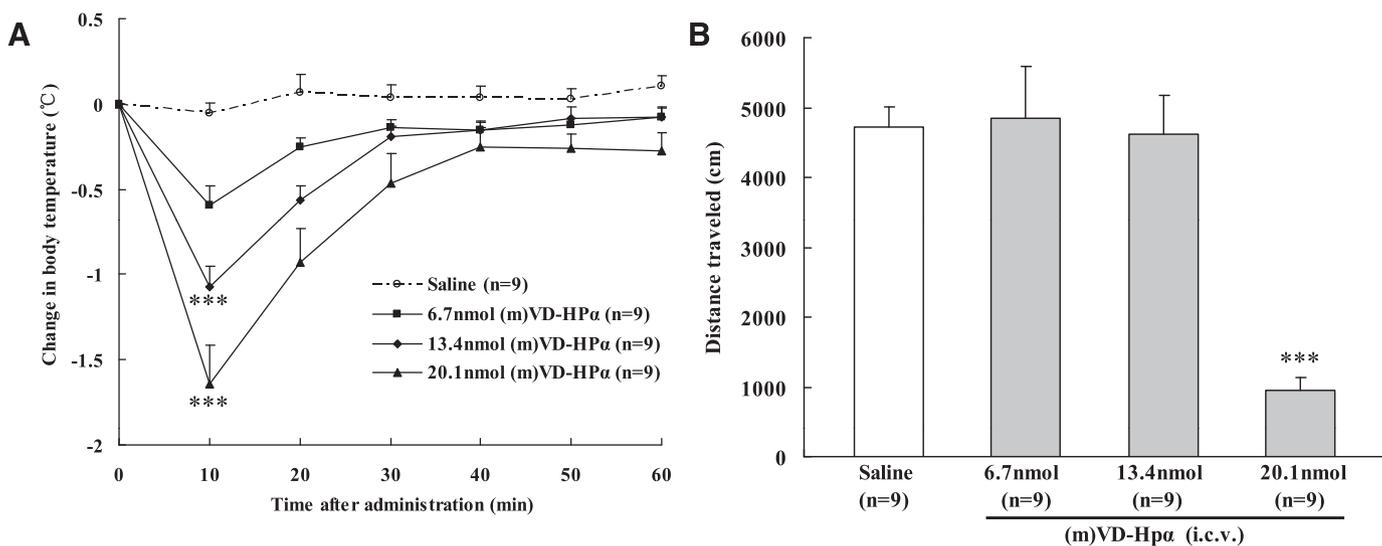


Fig. 4. CNS cannabinoid effects of intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hpα in mice. (A) Dose- and time-related hypothermic effects of intracerebroventricular administration of (m)VD-Hpα (6.7, 13.4, and 20.1 nmol). The value of baseline temperature before injection was $38.44 \pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$ ($n = 36$). AUCs calculated 0–60 minutes from these data are statistically analyzed with one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test performed on AUC data. (B) Locomotor activities of intracerebroventricular administration of (m)VD-Hpα (6.7, 13.4, and 20.1 nmol). Data points represent means \pm S.E.M. from experiments conducted on 9 mice. *** $P < 0.001$ versus saline according to one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test.

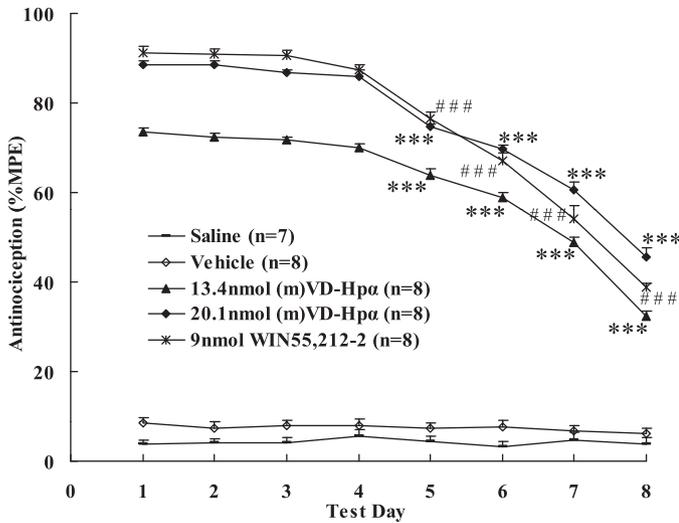


Fig. 5. Antinociceptive tolerance studies of intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hp α (13.4 and 20.1 nmol) and WIN55,212-2 (9 nmol). Animals received intracerebroventricular injections of saline, vehicle, (m)VD-Hp α , or WIN55,212-2 once daily for 8 days. Analgesia was measured each day for 30 minutes after drug injection using the tail-flick assay. Ordinal values represent the daily analgesic response, as expressed by the maximal %MPE [WIN55,212-2 at 10 minutes and (m)VD-Hp α at 15 minutes] after injection. Data points represent the mean \pm S.E.M. Tolerance to the analgesic effects of (m)VD-Hp α and WIN55,212-2 begins to develop on day 5 [*** P < 0.001 versus effect of (m)VD-Hp α on day 1, and # # # P < 0.001 versus effect of WIN55,212-2 on day 1, according to Newman-Keuls post-hoc tests].

effects on appetite. The effect of (m)VD-Hp α on food intake is shown in Fig. 7. Compared with the saline group, intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hp α ($1 \times EC_{50}$, $2 \times EC_{50}$, and $3 \times EC_{50}$) caused a dose-dependent increase in food intake during the second (1–2 hours) and third (2–4 hours) period of testing ($F_{3, 49} = 6.3$ and 4.4, respectively; P < 0.01). However,

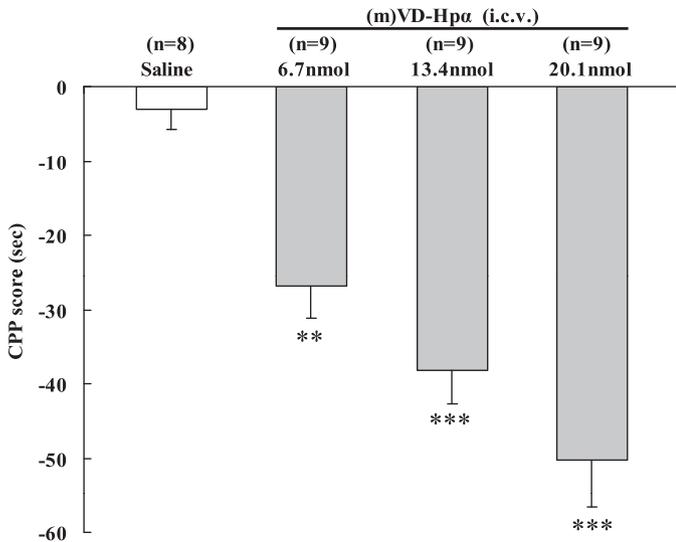


Fig. 6. Place conditioning induced by (m)VD-Hp α given intracerebroventricularly in mice. CPP score was expressed as time spent in the drug-associated compartment on the postconditioning day minus time spent in the drug-associated compartment on the preconditioning day during a period of 15 minutes. Results are presented as the mean \pm S.E.M. from experiments conducted on 8–9 mice. ** P < 0.01 and *** P < 0.001 versus saline according to one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test.

(m)VD-Hp α induced a slight, but not statistically significant, increase in food intake during the first (0–1 hour) period ($F_{3, 49} = 0.87$; $P = 0.46$).

Discussion

The endocannabinoid system is considered an attractive target for pharmaceutical development (Hutcheson et al., 1998; Richardson, 2000; Bushlin et al., 2010). The endocannabinoid receptors have been traditionally thought to act through the effects of the lipid endocannabinoids (Hutcheson et al., 1998; Richardson, 2000; Bushlin et al., 2010). Interestingly, the recent studies indicated that cannabinoid receptors were recognized by hemopressin-related peptides with affinities in the nanomolar range (Heimann et al., 2007; Gomes et al., 2009). (m)RVD-Hp α and (m)VD-Hp α were reported to function as a novel endogenous peptide agonist of the CB $_1$ receptor in vitro (Gomes et al., 2009). However, the data obtained from studies in the phosphorylation level of extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 or the release of G α_{i16} -facilitated Ca $^{2+}$ demonstrated that the signal transduction pathway of (m)RVD-Hp α was distinct from that activated by 2-arachidonoylglycerol and Hu-210 (Gomes et al., 2009). Thus, this is the first study to demonstrate that (m)VD-Hp α exerted central antinociception via the CB $_1$ receptor and exhibited various CNS effects at the supraspinal level in a manner similar to the cannabinoid agonists.

Cannabinoids were reported to exert their antinociceptive effects via complex mechanisms at peripheral, spinal, and supraspinal levels (Lichtman and Martin, 1991; Richardson, 2000; Pertwee, 2001; Guindon and Beaulieu, 2009). In the present study, the antinociceptive properties of (m)VD-Hp α were investigated in the mouse tail-flick test. As expected, intracerebroventricular injection of (m)VD-Hp α dose-dependently caused acute antinociception. Moreover, (m)VD-Hp α -induced supraspinal antinociception was significantly attenuated by the

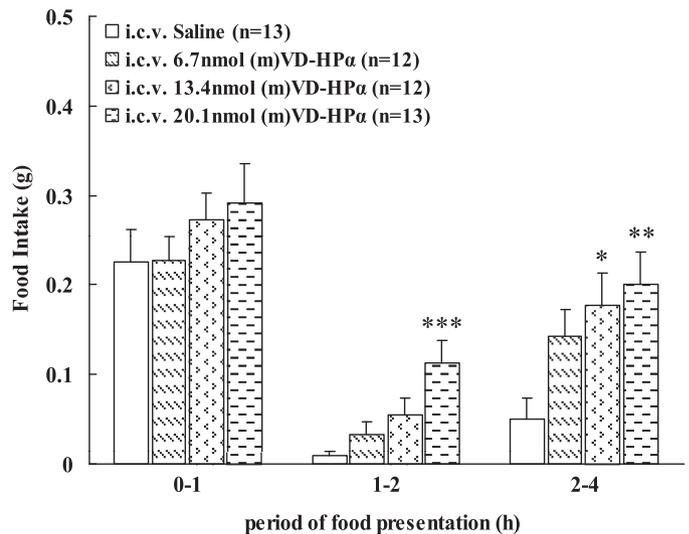


Fig. 7. Effects of (m)VD-Hp α on food intake in mice. Mice were administered intracerebroventricularly with saline or (m)VD-Hp α (6.7, 13.4, and 20.1 nmol). Ten minutes after injection, the animals were refeed, and food consumption was measured during the periods indicated. Results are presented as the mean \pm S.E.M. from experiments conducted on 12–13 mice. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, and *** P < 0.001 versus saline according to one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test.

CB₁ receptor antagonist AM251 but not by the CB₂ receptor antagonist AM630. Likewise, our present results suggested that (m)VD-Hpα also produced marked antinociception at the spinal level, which was mediated by activation of the CB₁ receptor but not the CB₂ receptor. Taken together, the novel endogenous CB₁ receptor agonist (m)VD-Hpα can act at both the supraspinal and spinal sites to decrease nociceptive responses via the CB₁ receptor pathway, which is consistent with previous reports that the antinociceptive effects of centrally administered cannabinoid agonists Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol, CP55,940 [(−)-*cis*-3-[2-hydroxy-4-(1,1-dimethylheptyl)phenyl]-*trans*-4-(3-hydroxypropyl)cyclohexanol] and WIN55,212-2 were sensitive to the selective CB₁ receptor antagonists (Welch et al., 1998; Richardson, 2000; Fang et al., 2012).

Recently, the data obtained from the interaction of the cannabinoid and opioid system have suggested that endogenous opioids might be involved in the pain regulation of cannabinoids (Bushlin et al., 2010; Parolaro et al., 2010). Reports have also revealed that the antinociception of Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol was prevented by the general opioid antagonist naloxone (Reche et al., 1996; Bushlin et al., 2010). However, our data indicated that the central antinociception of the novel agonist (m)VD-Hpα was independent of the opioid system. In agreement with these observations, our previous results also demonstrated that the opioid system was not involved in the central antinociception of the cannabinoid agonist WIN55,212-2 (Fang et al., 2012).

The CB₁ receptor is predominantly located in the CNS (Pacher et al., 2006; Guindon and Beaulieu, 2009). In theory, central administration of cannabinoid CB₁ agonists not only produced analgesic effects, but also caused a number of undesirable side effects. However, a high dose of hemopressin did not impair motor activity or alter pentobarbital-induced sleeping time, indicating the absence of unwanted motor or sedative side effects (Heimann et al., 2007). To further characterize the profiles of the endogenous CB₁ agonist (m)VD-Hpα, the present work was designed to evaluate its CNS side effects on hypothermia, hypoactivity, reward, and antinociception tolerance development.

Previous studies have shown that treatment with the classic agonists of cannabinoid receptors can induce a series of behavioral responses, such as antinociception, hypothermia, suppression of activity, and immobility (Richardson, 2000; Pacher et al., 2006). Our data also indicated that intracerebroventricular administration of (m)VD-Hpα significantly decreased rectal temperature, and the highly antinociceptive dose (3 × EC₅₀) of (m)VD-Hpα markedly suppressed locomotor activity. These results demonstrated that (m)VD-Hpα also exerted an agonist-like profile of effects on hypothermia and hypoactivity, which further supported a cannabinoid agonist character of (m)VD-Hpα.

In addition, cannabinoid agonists also have a well known propensity to induce tolerance development and reward (Hutcheson et al., 1998; De Vry et al., 2004; Pacher et al., 2006; Bushlin et al., 2010; Blankman and Cravatt, 2013; Mechoulam and Parker, 2013). Thus, we focused our further studies on these undesirable side effects of (m)VD-Hpα after supraspinal administration. In tolerance development assay, (m)VD-Hpα produced a significant, albeit not dramatic, decrease of antinociception in a manner similar to the classic agonist WIN55,212-2.

It is well known that drugs that activated reward system must be evaluated for abuse potential. However, cannabinoids

exerted complex modulating effects in the place-conditioning paradigm (Pacher et al., 2006; Mechoulam and Parker, 2013). Cannabinoids generally produce aversive-like responses. In contrast, some research groups have independently reported that cannabinoids induce robust CPP. The crucial differences might be related to cannabinoid doses, timings, and potencies (Maldonado, 2002; Gardner, 2005; Pacher et al., 2006; Bushlin et al., 2010; Panlilio et al., 2010; Mechoulam and Parker, 2013). In addition, the lipid-based endocannabinoid anandamide does not induce any behavioral response on the place-conditioning paradigm (Maldonado, 2002; Gardner, 2005; Pacher et al., 2006; Bushlin et al., 2010; Panlilio et al., 2010; Mechoulam and Parker, 2013). Our rewarding data showed that central administration of (m)VD-Hpα produced a dose-related conditioned place aversion, suggesting that activation of the CB₁ receptor in the brain may result in conditioned place aversion. Moreover, conditioned place aversion induced by other cannabinoid agonists was reported to be abolished by pretreatment with the CB₁ receptor antagonist SR141716A [*N*-(piperidiny-1-yl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1*H*-pyrazole-3-carboxamide] (Maldonado, 2002; Gardner, 2005). Therefore, the data on the conditioned place aversion of (m)VD-Hpα implied that the CB₁ receptor could be an attractive therapeutic target for analgesics without drug-seeking behavior.

Collectively, (m)VD-Hpα significantly produced CB₁-mediated antinociceptive activities at the supraspinal and spinal level, and the EC₅₀ values were 6.69 and 2.88 nmol, respectively. Furthermore, the present work also indicated that, at potentially analgesic doses, (m)VD-Hpα induced hypothermia, hypoactivity, tolerance development, and conditioned place aversion at the supraspinal level. However, it is notable that the cannabinoid agonist-like profiles of (m)VD-Hpα at lower antinociceptive doses (1 × EC₅₀ and 2 × EC₅₀ intracerebroventricularly) were absent or weak in mice, which implied that the use of a suitable dosage of the drug might provide an effective approach to minimize the CNS side effects of (m)VD-Hpα or separate its antinociception from its side effects.

In addition, the cannabinoids system also plays an important role in appetite regulation. Both Δ⁹-tetrahydrocannabinol and anandamide increased food intake via the CB₁ receptor (Pacher et al., 2006). Hemopressin, a selective inverse agonist of the CB₁ receptor, was recently reported to inhibit food intake in both normal and obese rodent models, and block CB₁ agonist-induced hyperphagia in vivo (Dodd et al., 2010; Bomar and Galande, 2013). The recent studies also demonstrated that the peptide hemopressin modulated the function of key feeding-related brain nuclei (Dodd et al., 2013). Our data indicated that central injection of (m)VD-Hpα dose-dependently stimulated food consumption in mice, which further suggested that (m)VD-Hpα acted as a selective agonist of the CB₁ receptor.

In conclusion, the present work demonstrates that the novel cannabinoid peptide agonist (m)VD-Hpα induces CB₁-mediated central antinociception with some CNS effects, which further supports a CB₁ agonist character of (m)VD-Hpα. In addition, the current study will be helpful to understand the in vivo properties of the endogenous peptide agonist of the cannabinoid CB₁ receptor. Furthermore, it is notable that the chemical structure of (m)VD-Hpα is different from that of other cannabinoid agonists. It is expected that (m)VD-Hpα may play a broader role in pharmacological characterization of the cannabinoids system, especially for the study of the CB₁ receptor.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: R. Wang, Fang.

Conducted experiments: Han, Z.-L. Wang, X.-H. Li, N. Li, Chang, Pan, Tang.

Performed data analysis: Han, Fang.

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: R. Wang, Fang, Han.

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