

ACTIVATION OF GROUP III METABOTROPIC GLUTAMATE RECEPTORS  
REGULATES STRESS-INDUCED ANALGESIA THROUGH AN ENDOCANNABINOID  
MECHANISM

by

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(Under the direction of Andrea G. Hohmann)

ABSTRACT

The endocannabinoid 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) produces adaptive changes in pain responses following exposure to environmental stressors. This phenomenon, termed stress-induced analgesia (SIA), is dependent upon mobilization and accumulation of 2-AG in the periaqueductal gray (PAG). 2-AG within the PAG may activate CB<sub>1</sub> receptors on GABAergic neurons to reduce inhibition of output neurons that form part of a descending antinociceptive pathway. Alternatively, 2-AG may activate CB<sub>1</sub> receptors on glutamatergic neurons to inhibit pro-nociceptive pathways that facilitate pain. 2-AG acts as a retrograde signal that binds to CB<sub>1</sub> receptors to produce antinociception. However, the mechanisms contributing to the mobilization of 2-AG are only beginning to be discovered. We examined the role of presynaptic group III metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs), which are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase and reduce GABAergic inhibition, on the phenomenon of SIA in the PAG. Microinjection into the dorsolateral PAG (dlPAG) of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 produced a dose-dependent enhancement of SIA through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism. By contrast, off-site injections of L-AP4 failed to enhance SIA. The L-AP4-induced enhancement of SIA was blocked by the group

III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 at a dose that was found to be ineffective in modulating SIA when administered alone. Microinjection of the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 into the dlPAG produced a dose-dependent suppression of SIA and also blocked the enhancement of SIA induced by L-AP4. This effect involved the dorsolateral PAG because off-site injections failed to alter SIA. Our findings suggest a previously unrecognized role for group III mGluRs in controlling endocannabinoid-dependent stress-induced analgesia, presumably by controlling the mobilization of endocannabinoids, likely 2-AG, in the PAG.

**KEYWORDS:** endocannabinoid, antinociception, metabotropic glutamate receptor

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Brian, Oz, Harley and my family.

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### *1.1. Statement of Purpose*

The purpose of this dissertation is to illustrate the role of metabotropic glutamate receptors and endocannabinoids in an animal model of stress antinociception. Exposure to environmental stressors activates neural pathways that suppress pain, a phenomenon known as stress-induced analgesia. Mobilization of endocannabinoids such as 2-arachidonylglycerol (2-AG) and anandamide mediate an opioid-independent form of stress-induced analgesia. Endocannabinoids, the brain's own cannabis-like compounds, bind to cannabinoid receptors and can produce centrally-mediated pharmacological effects, such as antinociception. Uncovering the mechanisms controlling endocannabinoid mobilization in the brain would potentially lead to the development of therapeutic interventions.

An important site of action in stress antinociception is the periaqueductal gray (PAG). A functional link between 2-AG accumulation in the PAG and stress-induced analgesia has been suggested. Metabotropic glutamate receptors have been implicated in mediating 2-AG accumulation in this model, yet the mechanisms for biosynthesis are only beginning to be discovered. The research revealed in this dissertation will further examine the role of metabotropic glutamate receptors in endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia.

## ***1.2. Overview***

Chapter 2 will introduce and discuss the recent literature regarding endocannabinoids and their receptors, metabotropic glutamate receptors, the model of stress-induced analgesia, and the possible connections between all three. This review will look at important sites of action for endocannabinoids and their receptors, metabotropic glutamate receptors and the model of stress-induced analgesia. Chapter 3, following the review, will present a manuscript containing original data obtained for the purpose of identifying the role of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception. Lastly, a discussion will follow to summarize the main points of this dissertation.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### *2.1. Endocannabinoids*

The medical benefits, notably pain relief, of marijuana have been recognized for centuries. The active component of marijuana,  $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol (Gaoni and Mechoulam, 1964) and binds mostly to CB<sub>1</sub> G protein-coupled receptors to exert its psychotropic effects (Howlett et al., 1990; Matsuda et al., 1990; Zimmer et al., 1999). Two types of cannabinoid receptors, CB<sub>1</sub> and CB<sub>2</sub>, have been identified and are implicated in mediating antinociception (Walker and Hohmann, 2005). The brain produces its own cannabis-like compounds, referred to as endocannabinoids that bind to these cannabinoid receptors. The major endocannabinoids that have been most studied to date are 2-arachidonylglycerol (2-AG) (Mechoulam et al., 1995; Stella et al., 1997) and anandamide (AEA) (Devane et al., 1992). Endocannabinoids are synthesized and released on demand and produce centrally-mediated pharmacological effects, such as antinociception, through binding to cannabinoid receptors (Piomelli, 2003). 2-AG biosynthesis occurs through the consecutive activation of phospholipase C (PLC) and diacylglycerol lipase- $\alpha$  (DGL- $\alpha$ ) (Bisogno et al., 2003; Jung et al., 2007; Uchigashima et al., 2007). Some theories concerning what mediates 2-AG mobilization will be discussed later in this review. Deactivation of 2-AG occurs through the hydrolytic enzyme MGL (Hohmann et al., 2005), which metabolizes 2-AG into fatty acid and glycerol (Dinh et al., 2002). It has been suggested that AEA is synthesized in a two-step process –first by cleavage of the phospholipid precursor *N*-arachidonyl-phosphatidylethanolamine by the enzyme phospholipase D (PLD) and then

production of anandamide and phosphatidic acid (Di Marzo et al., 1994). However, the observation that NAPE-PLD<sup>-/-</sup> mice show no changes in AEA accumulation, suggests that this mechanism is unlikely to control 2-AG formation *in vivo* (Liu et al., 2008). The enzyme fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) deactivates AEA, through hydrolysis of AEA into arachidonic acid and ethanolamine (Cravatt et al., 1996). Under some conditions, 2-AG may also be hydrolyzed by FAAH (Maione et al., 2006), although this mechanism is unlikely to be a major mechanism controlling 2-AG degradation *in vivo*.

## **2.2. Cannabinoid Receptors**

Cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors have been found in both the central nervous system and certain peripheral tissues (Pertwee, 1993, 1997). Among other areas, such as the hippocampus, cerebellum and cortex, CB<sub>1</sub> receptors are expressed in brain regions implicated in descending pain modulatory systems including the periaqueductal gray (PAG) (Herkenham et al., 1991). In the periphery, CB<sub>1</sub> receptors have been located in such tissues as the adrenal gland, heart, lung and bone marrow, while CB<sub>2</sub> receptors are located mainly in immune tissues, spleen and tonsils (Galiege et al., 1995; Lynn and Herkenham, 1994). It was thought that CB<sub>2</sub> receptors were only expressed in the periphery, although research is beginning to show CB<sub>2</sub> receptor expression and functionality in the brain (Morgan et al., 2009; Onaivi et al., 2006).

### ***2.3. Endocannabinoid Signaling***

Endocannabinoid release can be triggered in multiple ways. Endocannabinoid release can follow a strong depolarization of postsynaptic neurons that causes an elevation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration (Wilson and Nicoll, 2001). Strong activation of certain metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) at basal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels can also trigger the release of endocannabinoids (Maejima et al., 2001). Simultaneous elevation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration and stimulation of the mGluR will also trigger endocannabinoid release (Varma et al., 2001). Following the trigger, endocannabinoids are synthesized and released on demand (Piomelli, 2003). The endocannabinoid 2-AG acts as a retrograde messenger at central nervous system synapses; that is, 2-AG is produced in the postsynaptic cell and when released into the synapse, binds to a presynaptic receptor (Kano et al., 2009). It has been found that 2-AG acts as a retrograde signal specifically through production by DGL- $\alpha$  (Tanimura et al., 2010). Cannabinoid receptors are G-protein coupled receptors that require coupling through a pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein ( $\text{G}_{i/o}$ ) that then inhibits adenylate cyclase (Howlett et al., 1988; Matsuda et al., 1990). Cortical neurons express  $\text{CB}_1$  receptors that are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase activity through a  $\text{G}_{i/o}$  protein (Jung et al., 1997).  $\text{CB}_1$  receptors are localized to presynaptic sites on GABAergic and glutamatergic neurons (Katona 1999, 2006). Cannabinoid receptors located on GABAergic and glutamatergic nerve terminals, when activated, inhibit GABAergic and glutamatergic transmission through a presynaptic mechanism (Chan et al., 1998; Shen et al., 1996). This cannabinoid-mediated neurotransmitter inhibition has been shown to be  $\text{CB}_1$ -dependent (Vaughan et al., 2000).

## ***2.4. Endocannabinoids and Antinociception***

Antinociceptive effects of cannabinoids have been widely reported for centuries. The stimulation of cannabinoid receptor in the brain has been found to produce analgesia (Lichtman et al., 2006). Systemic administration of exogenous AEA produced antinociception, but this effect could not be blocked with the CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist rimonabant (Adams et al., 1998). An explanation for this could be that AEA is quickly degraded by FAAH. Systemic administration of exogenous 2-AG also produces antinociception (Mechoulam et al., 1995). Local injections of cannabinoid agonists have been used to uncover supraspinal sites of action in cannabinoid-mediated antinociception. Brain regions implicated include the dorsolateral PAG (dlPAG), dorsal raphe nucleus, rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM), amygdala, and thalamus (for review, see Hohmann and Suplita, 2006). Exposure to formalin has been found to modify RVM neuronal activities and this effect is prevented by PAG cannabinoid receptor stimulation (de Novellis et al., 2005). Reynolds (1969) found that analgesia is produced from electrical stimulation of the PAG. Later studies demonstrated that PAG neurons innervate midbrain nuclei that make up a descending antinociceptive pathway (Liebeskind et al., 1973; Duggan and Griermith, 1979). These findings are supported by the fact that microinjection of cannabinoids into the PAG produces analgesia in a variety of pain models (Fields and Basbaum, 1999). Stimulation of the dlPAG, specifically, produces an opioid-independent analgesia (Cannon et al., 1982). Endocannabinoids are also involved in a response to stress that produces an opioid-independent antinociception; a phenomenon termed stress-induced analgesia (SIA; Hohmann et al., 2005). This phenomenon involves brain pathways from the amygdala to the PAG, RVM and dorsal horn of the spinal cord (Hohmann and Suplita, 2006). Although the release of endocannabinoids in the RVM and spinal cord contribute to non-opioid SIA, the PAG plays a major role in mediating



pain through descending pathways (Hohmann and Suplita, 2006). Recent research has shown that 2-AG and anandamide levels are elevated in dorsal midbrain fragments containing the entire PAG (Hohmann et al., 2005). Moreover, 2-AG accumulation at this site correlates with SIA expression: this endocannabinoid accumulation is also CB<sub>1</sub> dependent (Hohmann and Suplita, 2006). Therefore, exposure to an environmental stressor activates endocannabinoid mobilization to induce CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent antinociception through a descending pain pathway that includes the PAG. The changes in glutamate or GABA levels in the PAG may greatly affect nociceptive perception, as this midbrain area is part of the endogenous antinociceptive system (Gebhart et al., 1984). Analgesia is produced by cannabinoids at least in part by activating a descending PAG-RVM antinociceptive pathway that project to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (Vaughan et al., 2000). This analgesia is produced within the PAG by reducing GABAergic inhibition of output neurons that form part of the descending pain pathway.

## ***2.5. Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors***

Glutamate receptors can be found throughout the brain and are mandatory for excitatory neurotransmission, development, and synaptic plasticity. There are two major classes of glutamate receptors: ionotropic receptors and metabotropic receptors. Metabotropic glutamate receptors are a heterogenous family of G-protein coupled receptors that are subdivided into three groups based on biochemical and pharmacological properties and their sequence homology (Pin and Duvoisin, 1995). Group I mGluRs, which include types 1 and 5 mGluRs (referred to here as mGluR1 and mGluR5), activate phospholipase C to generate diacylglycerol and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) through coupling to G<sub>q/11</sub> (Conn and Pin, 1997). Group I mGluRs are

predominately expressed at postsynaptic synapses (Conn and Pin, 1997). Group II mGluRs, which include type 2 and 3 mGluRs (referred to here as mGluR2 and 3), are linked to  $G_{i/o}$  and inhibit cAMP formation (Pin and Archer, 2002). Group II mGluRs are localized to both pre- and postsynaptic sites (Pin and Archer, 2002). Group III mGluRs, which include mGluR4, 6, 7, and 8, are also coupled to  $G_{i/o}$  and inhibit adenylyl cyclase (Schoepp, 2001). However, unlike group II mGluRs, group III mGluRs are believed to be exclusively expressed at presynaptic sites to regulate neurotransmitter release (Schoepp, 2001). Metabotropic glutamate receptors are also found in glial cells where they play an important role in glial-neuronal communication and neuroprotection (Winder and Conn, 1996; Yao et al., 2005). mGluRs mediate a wide range of effects such as the release and postsynaptic response of glutamate and regulation of calcium, potassium, and non-selective cation channels (Anwyl, 1999). Following glutamate spillover, mGluRs also modulate the activity of GABAergic synapses. Activation of mGluRs will trigger G-protein activity and downstream signal transduction pathways. This activation can either increase or decrease various protein kinase activities.

mGluRs are present in many areas of the brain that are involved in the transmission and modulation of nociceptive information, including the midbrain PAG (Ohishi et al., 1995; Shigemoto et al., 1992; Tamaru et al., 2001). Recent studies demonstrate that activation of all groups of mGluRs in the PAG inhibits GABAergic transmission through a presynaptic reduction in the probability of transmitter release from nerve terminals (Drew and Vaughan, 2004). It has also been found that various mGluR agonists, following microinjection into the PAG and RVM, can regulate antinociceptive pathways in different pain models (Kim et al., 2002, Maione et al., 1998, 2000).

## ***2.6. Group I Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors***

Activation of group I metabotropic glutamate receptors can modulate additional signaling pathways including other cascades downstream of  $G_q$ , pathways stemming from  $G_{i/o}$ ,  $G_s$ , and other molecules independent of G proteins (Hermans and Challiss, 2001). Subtype 1 and 5 mGluRs are mainly located on postsynaptic terminals and this seems to be regulated by a small family of “Homer” proteins (Brakeman et al., 1997). The group I mGluRs are positively linked to phospholipase C, therefore their activation results in an increase in phosphoinositide (PI) turnover and activation of protein kinase C (PKC). Most PKC isotypes require diacylglycerol (DAG) for their activation and are  $Ca^{2+}$ -dependent (Nikishizuka, 1988). This way, subtype 1 and 5 mGluRs can stimulate PI turnover, which then releases  $Ca^{2+}$  and generates DAG. Some studies have found that activation of group I mGluRs enhances the release of glutamate and GABA (Cartmell and Schoepp, 2000). Other, more recent studies determined that activation of group I mGluRs in the PAG suppresses GABAergic transmission through a presynaptic mechanism, yet they can also enhance GABAergic synaptic transmission through an action potential dependent mechanism (Drew and Vaughan, 2004). This inhibition of GABA occurs through a presynaptic reduction in the probability of transmitter release from nerve terminals. Inhibition of a postsynaptic glutamate transporter suppresses GABAergic transmission through activation of mGluR5 and presynaptic cannabinoid  $CB_1$  receptors (Drew et al., 2008). Therefore, group I mGluR activation exhibits complex effects on GABAergic transmission, showing opposing inhibitory and excitatory influences within the PAG.

## **2.7. Group I mGluRs and Antinociception**

Group I metabotropic glutamate receptors have been observed in brain regions implicated in mediating pain, such as the PAG (Azkue et al., 1997; Shigemoto et al., 1992). Activation of group I metabotropic glutamate receptors in the PAG has been shown to have antinociceptive effects in rodents in the hot-plate and formalin test (Maione et al., 1998, 2000). Group I mGluR activation also causes the production and release of endocannabinoids that subsequently inhibit neurotransmitter release through presynaptic cannabinoid G-protein-coupled receptors (Jung et al., 2005; Ohno-Shosaku et al., 2002). Research has found a functional link between the antinociceptive effects of activation of group I mGluR and cannabinoid receptors within the PAG and that these effects are mediated specifically by type 5 mGluRs (Palazzo et al., 2001). This coincides with recent work determining that the antinociceptive cannabinoid-mediated effects of stress-induced analgesia occur through activation of group I mGluR5, which then induces the mobilization of 2-AG through the PLC/DGL pathway at spinal and supraspinal levels (Gregg et al., 2007; Nyilas et al., 2009). These observations suggest that activation of group I mGluRs, specifically mGluR5, triggers mobilization of endocannabinoids, likely 2-AG, through hydrolysis of diacylglycerol (DAG) to produce antinociception through a CB<sub>1</sub> – dependent mechanism.

## **2.8. Group III Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors**

Group III metabotropic glutamate receptors are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase, meaning that following activation they inhibit forskolin-stimulated cyclic AMP (cAMP) formation. Group III mGluRs are also predominately localized to presynaptic sites. Subtype 7

mGluRs seem to be localized mostly at glutamatergic terminals, whereas type 4 mGluRs are found presynaptically at both glutamatergic and nonglutamatergic terminals (Bradley et al., 1996). Many biochemical studies indicate that activation of group III mGluRs lead to a suppression of the release of excitatory and inhibitory amino acids (Cartmell and Schoepp, 2000). Activation of group III mGluRs specifically inhibits GABAergic transmission in the PAG through a presynaptic mechanism and these effects are blocked by a group III mGluR antagonist (Drew and Vaughan, 2004). This inhibition occurs through a presynaptic reduction in the probability of transmitter release from nerve terminals. Presynaptic type 8 mGluRs are expressed in the PAG on GABAergic and glutamatergic neurons and stimulation leads to a facilitation of glutamate and an inhibition of GABA release (Marabese et al., 2005). This modulation of neurotransmitter release requires the participation of coupling to adenylate cyclase. This receptor has been implicated in responses to novel stress environments (Linden et al., 2002) and is also implicated in modifying neuronal activation in stress-related brain regions (Linden et al., 2003). Activation of astroglial group III mGluRs exerts neuroprotective effects and the underlying mechanism is thought to be at least partially related to the enhancement of glutamate uptake (Yao et al., 2005).

## ***2.9. Group III mGluRs and Antinociception***

Recent research demonstrates the presence of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in the PAG, a structure that plays a role in mediating antinociception (Ohishi et al., 1995). Microinjection into the PAG of group III mGluR agonists are pro-nociceptive in the hot-plate and formalin tests (Maione et al., 1998, 2000). Other studies conclude that administrations of

group III mGluRs are antinociceptive in animal models of persistent pain (Fisher and Coderre, 1996). Marabese et al. (2007) determined that stimulation of mGluR8 could have an antinociceptive effect in the tailflick test, while stimulation of mGluR7 could worsen nociception. A group III mGluR antagonist blocked both of these effects. These findings are not surprising, considering that presynaptic modulation of the amino acids glutamate and GABA in the PAG may be effective in alleviating pain (Marabese et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2001) and that group III mGluRs modulate both glutamate and GABAergic transmission presynaptically in the PAG (Drew and Vaughan, 2004). Also, GABAergic interneurons inhibit the PAG antinociceptive pathway (Moreau and Fields, 1986), therefore the increase in glutamate and decrease in GABA caused by mGluR8 stimulation may be an important part in analgesia production. Also, the differing localization of mGluR7 on only glutamatergic synapses may explain the opposing effects of mGluR7 and mGluR8 on nociceptive responses. A link has been determined between the antinociceptive effects of activation of cannabinoid receptors within the PAG and group III mGluRs (Palazzo et al., 2001). A group III mGluR antagonist blocked the antinociceptive effect caused by activation of cannabinoid receptors. These findings coincide with findings from our lab concluding that activation of group III mGluRs enhances endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism (Gregg et al., manuscript currently in preparation).

## ***2.10. Summary***

There are many potential therapeutic uses for the endocannabinoids AEA and 2-AG and their cannabinoid receptors, the one most discussed here is for relief of pain. A review of the

literature regarding cannabinoid-like compounds, both exogenous and endogenous, in specific models of pain identifies the importance and value of their use as analgesics. The underlying mechanisms for endocannabinoid mobilization, and specifically 2-AG mobilization, under certain physiological paradigms are only beginning to be uncovered. The mechanism by which 2-AG is synthesized is becoming better understood, but more research is needed to pinpoint the triggers for 2-AG mobilization in the brain. The role of metabotropic glutamate receptors in endocannabinoid-mediated antinociception is a hot debate for this topic. The role of group I mGluRs, specifically type 5, in endocannabinoid mobilization and the effects activation of these receptors have on nociceptive responses has recently been evaluated (Nyilas et al., 2009). Less research has been done to determine the role of group III mGluRs in controlling nociceptive responses and whether these effects are dependent upon cannabinoid receptors activation. The more that is known about the pathways and triggers of endocannabinoid-mediated antinociception, the closer we will be to uncovering novel therapeutic agents with minimal side effects. Thus, the following original research will attempt to uncover the role of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia in the midbrain periaqueductal gray.

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**CHAPTER 3: ACTIVATION OF GROUP III METABOTROPIC GLUTAMATE  
RECEPTORS REGULATES STRESS-INDUCED ANALGESIA THROUGH AN  
ENDOCANNABINOID MECHANISM<sup>1</sup>**

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### **3.1. Abstract**

The endocannabinoid 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) produces adaptive changes in pain responses following exposure to environmental stressors. This phenomenon, termed stress-induced analgesia (SIA), is dependent upon mobilization and accumulation of 2-AG in the periaqueductal gray (PAG). 2-AG within the PAG may activate CB<sub>1</sub> receptors on GABAergic neurons to reduce inhibition of output neurons that form part of a descending antinociceptive pathway. Alternatively, 2-AG may activate CB<sub>1</sub> receptors on glutamatergic neurons to inhibit pro-nociceptive pathways that facilitate pain. 2-AG acts as a retrograde signal that binds to CB<sub>1</sub> receptors to produce antinociception. However, the mechanisms contributing to the mobilization of 2-AG are only beginning to be discovered. Coupling to the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor requires the pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein (G<sub>i/o</sub>) and inhibits adenylyl cyclase. 2-AG acts as a full agonist at cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors, and inhibits adenylyl cyclase through coupling to G<sub>i/o</sub>. We examined the role of presynaptic group III metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs), which are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase and reduce GABAergic inhibition, on the phenomenon of SIA in the PAG. Microinjection into the dorsolateral PAG (dlPAG) of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 produced a dose-dependent enhancement of SIA through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism. By contrast, off-site injections of L-AP4 failed to enhance SIA. The L-AP4-induced enhancement of SIA was blocked by the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 at a dose that was found to be ineffective in modulating SIA when administered alone. Microinjection of the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 into the dlPAG produced a dose-dependent suppression of SIA and also blocked the enhancement of SIA induced by L-AP4. This effect involved the dorsolateral PAG because off-site injections of the active compounds failed to alter SIA. Our findings suggest a previously unrecognized role for group III mGluRs in controlling

endocannabinoid-dependent stress-induced analgesia, presumably by controlling the mobilization of endocannabinoids, likely 2-AG, in the PAG.

**KEYWORDS:** endocannabinoid, antinociception, metabotropic glutamate receptor

### ***3.2. Introduction***

Previous work from our laboratories suggests that endocannabinoid mobilization mediates stress-induced analgesia (SIA) through accumulation of the endocannabinoid 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) in the midbrain periaqueductal gray (PAG) (Gregg et al., 2007; Hohmann et al., 2005; Suplita et al., 2006). Endocannabinoids, the brains own cannabis-like compounds, produce pharmacological effects through binding to cannabinoid receptors (for review, see Piomelli, 2003). Cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors are located in brain regions specifically implicated in descending pain systems, such as the PAG (Herkenham et al., 1991). Here, CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation regulates exogenous (Lichtman et al., 1996; Maione et al., 2006; Martin et al., 1995) and endogenous (Gregg et al., 2007; Hohmann et al., 2005; Maione et al., 2006; Suplita et al., 2005) cannabinoid-mediated antinociception. Endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception is blocked by CB<sub>1</sub> antagonists and is attenuated in rats rendered tolerant to cannabinoids (Hohmann et al., 2005). Accumulation of 2-AG in dorsal midbrain fragments containing the intact PAG is highly correlated with SIA (Hohmann and Suplita, 2006). Both accumulation of 2-AG in the PAG and SIA can be regulated by activation of group I metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs). These studies have specifically identified a role for the mGluR5 subtype in controlling SIA through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism (Gregg et al., 2007; Nyilas et al., 2009). 2-AG accumulation and stress antinociception can also be enhanced

through a CB<sub>1</sub> –dependent mechanism through pharmacological inhibition of 2-AG degrading enzymes (Hohmann et al., 2005; Suplita et al., 2006). These findings suggest a functional link between 2-AG and endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception. However, the mechanisms by which 2-AG is mobilized in the brain under physiological conditions remains incompletely understood.

Following receptor activation and cleavage of membrane phospholipid precursors, endocannabinoids are synthesized and released on demand (for review, see Piomelli, 2003). Endocannabinoids such as 2-AG act as retrograde signals (Chevalleyre and Castillo, 2003; Gerdeman et al., 2002; Riegal and Lupica, 2004; Wilson and Nicoll, 2001), binding to CB<sub>1</sub> receptors localized to presynaptic sites on GABAergic and glutamatergic neurons (Katona et al., 1999, 2006). Specifically, it has been shown that 2-AG functions as a retrograde messenger (Kano, et al., 2009; Tanimura et al., 2010). CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation inhibits GABAergic and glutamatergic synaptic transmission through a presynaptic mechanism in the PAG (Drew et al., 2008; Vaughan et al., 2000). Cannabinoid-mediated analgesia may therefore be produced in the PAG through reduction of GABAergic inhibition of output neurons and/or reduction of glutamatergic excitation of a descending pro-nociceptive pathway. However, the mechanisms controlling 2-AG formation under physiological conditions remain incompletely understood.

Group I mGluRs are positively coupled to phospholipase C (PLC), whereas group III mGluRs are negatively coupled with adenylate cyclase (Pin and Duvoisin, 1995). Following exposure to footshock, activation of the type 5 group I mGluR enhances SIA through activation of diacylglycerol lipase (DGL: Gregg et al., 2007; Nyilas et al., 2009). The consecutive activation of these two enzymes, PLC and DGL, controls 2-AG formation *in vitro* (Bisogno et al., 2003; Jung et al., 2007). Functional coupling of the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor occurs through a pertussis

sensitive G-protein ( $G_{i/o}$ ) (Howlett et al., 1988). Coupling of cannabinoid receptors to  $G_{i/o}$  inhibits adenylyl cyclase in cells expressing CB<sub>1</sub> receptors (Felder et al., 1995; Jung et al., 1997). The release of the endocannabinoid 2-AG also acts as a full agonist at CB<sub>1</sub> receptors to inhibit adenylyl cyclase (Stella et al., 1997). Activation of group III mGluRs are also associated with  $G_{i/o}$  coupling and inhibition of adenylate cyclase (for review, see Schoepp, 2001).

Whereas group I mGluRs are localized to postsynaptic sites, group III mGluRs are believed to reside exclusively on presynaptic sites (for reviews, see Conn and Pin, 1997; Schoepp, 2001). Biochemical studies indicate that activation of group III mGluRs lead to a suppression of the release of excitatory and inhibitory amino acids (Cartmell and Schoepp, 2000). It has been previously suggested that activation of group III mGluRs in the PAG inhibits GABAergic release through a presynaptic mechanism (Drew and Vaughan, 2004) as demonstrated previously for CB<sub>1</sub> receptors (Vaughan et al., 2000). A link has also been demonstrated between the antinociceptive effects of activation of group III mGluRs and cannabinoid receptors within the PAG (Palazzo et al., 2001). Presynaptic group III mGluRs, specifically type 8, are expressed in the PAG on both glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses (Marabese et al., 2005). Activation of these receptors facilitates glutamate and inhibits GABA release (Marabese et al., 2005). Subtype 4 mGluRs are also found presynaptically at both glutamatergic and nonglutamatergic terminals, whereas type 7 mGluRs seem to be localized predominately at glutamatergic terminals (Bradley et al., 1996). Throughout the brain, group III mGluRs may act as autoreceptors on glutamatergic terminals to regulate the release of glutamate (Schoepp, 2001). Considering that presynaptic modulation of the amino acids glutamate and GABA in the PAG may affect nociceptive responses, we asked whether group III mGluRs are implicated in endocannabinoid-mediated SIA.

In the present study, we investigated the role of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors on endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. We hypothesized that activation of group III mGluRs, which are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase (Pin and Duvoisin, 1995), with L-AP4 would enhance stress antinociception through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism in the PAG. The CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist rimonabant was co-administered with the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 to verify that group III mGluR activation regulates endocannabinoid-mediated SIA through a mechanism that requires CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation. We also hypothesized that inhibition of group III mGluRs with UBP1112 would suppress endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception in the PAG. The group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 was co-administered with the agonist to demonstrate pharmacological specificity. The active compounds were microinjected deliberately off-site to verify that the dorsolateral PAG mediated the effects of group III mGluR modulation on cannabinoid receptor activation. The present studies are the first to suggest a role for group III mGluRs in the PAG in controlling endocannabinoid-mediated analgesia *in vivo*.

### ***3.3. Materials and Methods***

#### **3.3.1. Subjects and Surgical Procedures**

Ninety-eight male adult Sprague-Dawley rats weighing approximately 275-325 g (Harlan, Indianapolis, IN) were used in these experiments. All procedures followed the guidelines set forth by the International Association for the Study of Pain (Zimmermann, 1983) on the ethical treatment of animals. The University of Georgia Animal Care and Use Committee also approved all procedures. Rats were individually housed in a temperature-controlled facility

and allowed food and water *ad libitum*. For surgical procedures, rats were anesthetized using isoflurane. The rat brain atlas of Paxinos and Watson (1998) was used to calculate stereotaxic coordinates for cannulae implantation. Stainless steel guide cannulae (24 g; Small Parts, Inc. Miami, FL) were implanted above the dIPAG so that the needle was inserted 2 mm beyond the guide cannulae (-5.35 mm DV, +1.6 mm AP, +0.67 mm LM) or deliberately off-site (miss by 1.5 mm, ventral) using the skull surface, lambda and the midline suture as the zero point. Cannulae were affixed to the skull with dental acrylic and stainless steel screws. Stainless steel insect pins were used to prevent occlusion of the cannulae before and after microinjections. Animals were allowed to recover five to seven days prior to testing.

### **3.3.2. Drugs and Chemicals**

UBP1112 (α-Methyl-3-methyl-4-phosphonophenylglycine) and L-AP4 (L-(+)-2-Amino-4-phosphonobutyric acid) were purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Ellisville, MO). Rimonabant (*N*-(piperidin-1-yl)-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-1-(2,4-dichlorophenyl)-4-methyl-1H-pyrazole-3-carboxamide) was a gift from NIDA. As described in our previous studies (Hohmann et al., 2005) drugs were dissolved in a vehicle containing 100% DMSO and delivered intracranially using a microinfusion pump (UltraMicroPump II, World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL). All animals received a single intracranial injection of 1 µl total volume (for drugs administered either alone or co-administered with the relevant antagonists) administered at a speed of 30 nl/sec. All control animals received a vehicle of 100% DMSO.



### 3.3.3. Behavioral Testing

The tailflick test (D'Amour, 1941) was used to behaviorally quantify stress antinociception. This test measures the latency for a rat to remove its tail from a radiant heat source (IITC Inc., Model 33A, Woodland Hills, CA). Prior to testing, animals were habituated to the testing room and restraining tubes for 15 minutes consecutively. Prior to each intracranial injection of drug or vehicle, stable baseline tailflick withdrawal responses were established 6 times at 2-minute intervals. A cut-off time of 10 seconds was issued to prevent tissue damage. Following each intracranial injection, tailflick latencies were measured to assess changes caused by pharmacological manipulations prior to footshock. These post injection latencies were assessed three times at 2-minute intervals. Intracranial injections were performed 5 minutes prior to exposure to brief continuous footshock for 3 min (3 mA, AC current), the stressor used to induce endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception, similar to our previously described methods (Connell et al., 2006; Hohmann et al., 2005; Suplita et al., 2005, 2006, 2008; Gregg et al., 2007). Following footshock administration, tailflick latencies were measured at 2-minute intervals over 60 minutes. The experimenter was blinded to the experimental condition in all studies.

To assess the role of group III mGluRs in the dlPAG in regulating stress antinociception, rats received intracranial injections of either the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 (1 mM, 100  $\mu$ M, or 100 nM) or vehicle prior to footshock administration. Separate groups received intracranial injections of either the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 (100  $\mu$ M, 100 nM, or 10 nM) or vehicle prior to footshock administration. To determine whether the effects of L-AP4 were dependent on CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation and to assess pharmacological specificity, separate groups received microinjections of L-AP4 (100  $\mu$ M), L-AP4 co-administered with rimonabant

(0.1 µg), L-AP4 co-administered with UBP1112 (10nM), or vehicle. Rimonabant was microinjected at a dose that was previously shown to be inactive in the same behavioral assay (Gregg et al., 2007).

#### **3.3.4. Histology**

Rats were sacrificed using CO<sub>2</sub> asphyxiation. Brains were then removed and fixed in Zamboni's fixative, containing 4% paraformaldehyde, for 48 hours. Using a cryostat, coronal sections (40 µm) through the PAG were cut and mounted onto gelatin-subbed slides. Slides were stained with cresyl violet and cover-slipped using Permount. Injection sites were confirmed under a light microscope by an experimenter blinded to the experimental conditions.

#### **3.3.5. Statistical Analysis**

Data were analyzed by repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). In all studies, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied to the interaction term of all repeated factors. Post hoc comparisons were evaluated using Fisher's Protected Least-Significant Difference (LSD) test to correct for inflated alpha error, with  $P < 0.05$  considered statistically significant. SPSS (version 17.0, SPSS Incorporated, Chicago, IL, USA) statistical software was employed for all analyses. Every two consecutive tail-flick latencies were averaged for each animal before (baseline) and after (post-shock) exposure to the environmental stressor to form two-point blocks. These two-point blocks were subjected to statistical analyses with drug treatment serving as the between subjects factor and time serving as the within subjects factor. Post-injection tail-flick latencies, determined immediately prior to footshock, were averaged into a single block for each animal and averaged across animals for each drug treatment. This measure was calculated

to facilitate statistical comparisons of drug-induced changes in the basal nociceptive threshold observed prior to footshock (post-injection tail-flick latency) with basal tail-flick latencies.

### **3.4. Results**

#### **3.4.1. Stress antinociception assessment**

Baseline tailflick latencies assessed prior to administration of drug or vehicle and prior to exposure to footshock did not differ between groups in any study. Moreover, post-injection tailflick latencies measured immediately following administration of drug or vehicle and prior to exposure to footshock did not differ between groups. Thus, the present pharmacological manipulations only showed effects following exposure to footshock stress, under circumstances in which the endocannabinoid system is known to be activated. In all studies, exposure to footshock stress produced time-dependent changes in tailflick latencies ( $P < 0.0001$ ), confirming the presence of stress antinociception.

#### **3.4.2. Assessment of group III mGluR activation on stress antinociception**

Microinjection of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 into the dlPAG increased the magnitude ( $F_{3,26} = 5.131$ ,  $P < 0.007$ ; Fig. 3.1.) and duration ( $F_{45,390} = 2.070$ ,  $P < 0.03$ ; Fig. 3.1.) of post-shock tailflick latencies compared to vehicle. Post hoc analysis showed that stress antinociception was greater in groups receiving the low (100 nM;  $P < 0.03$ ) or the middle (100  $\mu$ M;  $P < 0.002$ ) dose of L-AP4 relative to vehicle control. Groups receiving the high dose (1 mM) of L-AP4 did not differ from groups receiving either vehicle ( $P < 0.2$ ), the low ( $P < 0.5$ ) or the middle ( $P < 0.07$ ) doses of L-AP4.

### **3.4.3. Assessment of group III mGluR inhibition on stress antinociception**

Microinjection of the group III mGluR inhibitor UBP1112 into the dlPAG decreased the magnitude ( $F_{3,26} = 4.146$ ,  $P < 0.02$ ; Fig. 3.2.) and the time-course ( $F_{45,390} = 2.883$ ,  $P < 0.003$ ; Fig. 3.2.) of stress antinociception induced in the tailflick test. Stress antinociception was greater in groups receiving the middle (100 nM;  $P < 0.03$ ) or high (100  $\mu$ M;  $P < 0.004$ ) doses of UBP1112 relative to groups receiving the vehicle. The low dose of UBP1112 was insufficient to reliably alter stress antinociception (10 nM;  $P < 0.07$ ).

### **3.4.4. Site specificity**

Microinjections of the active doses of L-AP4 (100  $\mu$ M) or UBP1112 (100  $\mu$ M) deliberately off-site of the PAG did not alter SIA ( $F_{2,15} = 0.400$ ;  $P < 0.3$ ; Fig. 3.3.) relative to the vehicle controls.

### **3.4.5. Pharmacological specificity**

The enhancement of SIA produced by the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 was completely blocked by both the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 as well as the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist rimonabant ( $F_{3,26} = 9.556$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ; Fig. 3.4). This blockade was also time-dependent ( $F_{45,390} = 6.068$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ; Fig. 3.4). The dose of UBP1112 used here failed to alter stress antinociception relative to vehicle (10nM;  $P < 0.07$ ; Fig. 3.2.). Similarly, the dose of rimonabant used here has been previously shown to be inactive in altering SIA in this model (Gregg et al., 2007). Stress antinociception was greater in animals receiving L-AP4 compared to

those receiving vehicle ( $P < 0.0001$ ), rimonabant co-administered with L-AP4 ( $P < 0.002$ ), or UBP1112 co-administered with L-AP4 ( $P < 0.0001$ ).

### **3.5. Discussion**

The present study suggests a role for activation of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in controlling the mobilization of endocannabinoids in the dlPAG under physiological conditions. Manipulations of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in the dlPAG bi-directionally altered endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception, possibly by controlling endocannabinoid mobilization. Intracranial dlPAG injections of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 enhanced antinociception following exposure to an environmental stressor. Moreover, this enhancement of antinociception required a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism. By contrast, intracranial dlPAG injections of the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 suppressed endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. The group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112, administered at a dose that was insufficient to reverse SIA, also effectively blocked the L-AP4-induced enhancement of stress antinociception. This activation of group III mGluRs controls stress-induced analgesia through a mechanism that requires group III mGluRs as well as CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation.

Activation of cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors in the PAG produces antinociception (Finn et al. 2003; Lichtman and Martin, 1996; Martin et al. 1995) and inhibits GABAergic synaptic transmission (Vaughan et al., 2000), to control the descending pain pathway. Previous work from our laboratories has documented a role of endocannabinoids in the PAG in SIA (Gregg et al., 2007; Hohmann et al., 2005; Nyilas et al., 2009; Suplita et al., 2005). 2-AG, but not anandamide

levels, in dorsal midbrain fragments are highly correlated with endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception (Hohmann et al., 2005; Hohmann and Suplita, 2006), an effect that is dependent upon activation of both cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors and type 5 mGluRs (Gregg et al., 2007).

Our results suggest that activation of group III mGluRs control the mobilization of endocannabinoids that induce SIA. Activation of presynaptic group III mGluRs which are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase (Pin and Duvoisin, 1995), decreases the probability of neurotransmitter release from GABAergic terminals in the PAG, an effect previously demonstrated for CB<sub>1</sub> receptors (Drew and Vaughan, 2004; Vaughan et al., 2000). Previous studies have also shown that group III mGluRs in the PAG inhibit GABAergic release and facilitate glutamatergic release (Marabese et al., 2005). It is possible that the facilitation of glutamatergic release observed following activation of group III mGluRs is a direct consequence of inhibition of GABA release (Drew and Vaughan, 2004). Our studies suggest that activation of group III mGluRs enhances stress antinociception through an endocannabinoid-mediated mechanism. These observations are consistent with research demonstrating a link between the antinociceptive effects of cannabinoid receptor activation in the PAG and group III mGluRs (Palazzo et al., 2001). Moreover, our findings suggest that mobilization of 2-AG is a likely mechanism responsible for endocannabinoid-mediated analgesia in the PAG. These claims are supported by previous research suggesting that group III mGluRs regulate endocannabinoid mobilization in *in vitro* electrophysiological studies (Reigel and Lupica, 2004). These claims are also supported by the strong correlation observed between 2-AG, but not anandamide, mobilization in the PAG and endocannabinoid-mediated SIA (Gregg et al., 2007; Hohmann et al., 2005; Hohmann and Suplita, 2006).

In our study, activation of group III mGluRs in the dlPAG enhanced endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception through a CB<sub>1</sub>-dependent mechanism. A possible explanation for this finding is that activation of group III mGluRs stimulated the mobilization of an endocannabinoid mediator to produce stress antinociception. It is possible that decreased GABA release and increased glutamate release produced by group III mGluR activation further augments mGluR5-dependent 2-AG formation. Some support for this hypothesis is that lower doses of L-AP4, which may be more selective for autoreceptors, were more effective than higher doses of L-AP4 in enhancing endocannabinoid-mediated SIA. Future biochemical studies will test this hypothesis directly by determining whether this endocannabinoid mediator is indeed 2-AG or requires mGluR5 activation. The L-AP4-induced enhancement of stress antinociception is consistent with the previously described time-course of post-stress 2-AG accumulation in the PAG (Hohmann et al., 2005). Moreover, microinjection of L-AP4 did not alter basal nociceptive thresholds measured prior to footshock, suggesting that L-AP4-induced endocannabinoid mobilization in the dPAG is also likely to occur in an activity-dependent fashion. Our observations concur with previous findings that show that activation of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in the PAG produces antinociception (Marabese et al. 2007).

In our study, microinjection into the dlPAG of a pharmacological inhibitor of group III mGluRs, UBP1112, suppressed stress antinociception immediately following termination of the stressor. It is noteworthy that the same group III mGluR antagonist also blocked the enhancement of stress antinociception produced by the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4. These observations confirm the pharmacological specificity of our manipulations. The most striking observation of our studies was that the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist rimonabant completely blocked the enhancement of endocannabinoid-mediated SIA produced by L-AP4. Importantly,

microinjection of rimonabant blocked the enhancement of stress antinociception induced by activation of group III mGluRs at a dose that was not sufficient to suppress stress antinociception. Considering that rimonabant does not bind to group III mGluRs, this effect must be indirect and dependent upon endocannabinoid mobilization. Our findings indicate that activation of presynaptic group III mGluRs enhances stress antinociception through a mechanism that requires presynaptic CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation.

In conclusion, our findings demonstrate that activation of group III mGluRs in the PAG suppresses nociceptive responding through a mechanism that requires cannabinoid CB<sub>1</sub> receptors. Moreover, inhibition of group III mGluRs locally in the dlPAG selectively suppresses endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. A parsimonious explanation for our findings is that activation of group III mGluRs in the dlPAG promotes endocannabinoid signaling to produce SIA through a CB<sub>1</sub>-receptor dependent pathway. Biochemical and anatomical studies are required to determine whether 2-AG is the endocannabinoid mediator manipulated herein and to identify the subtype of group III mGluRs are responsible for the effects observed herein.



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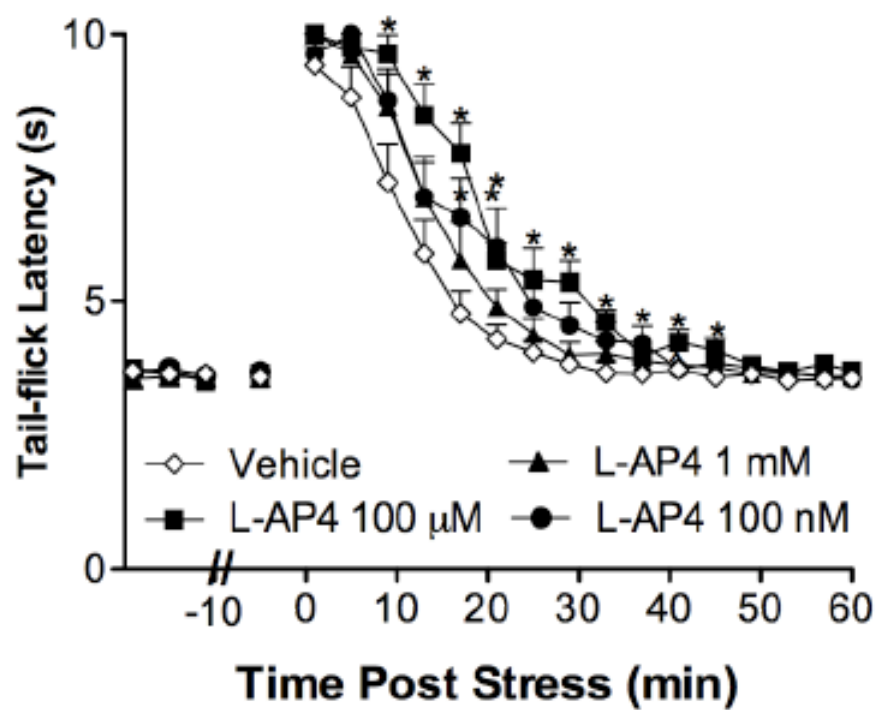
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A



B

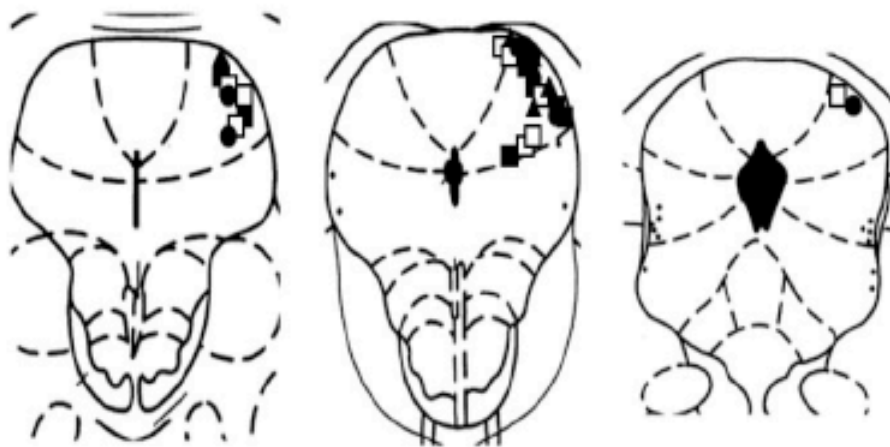
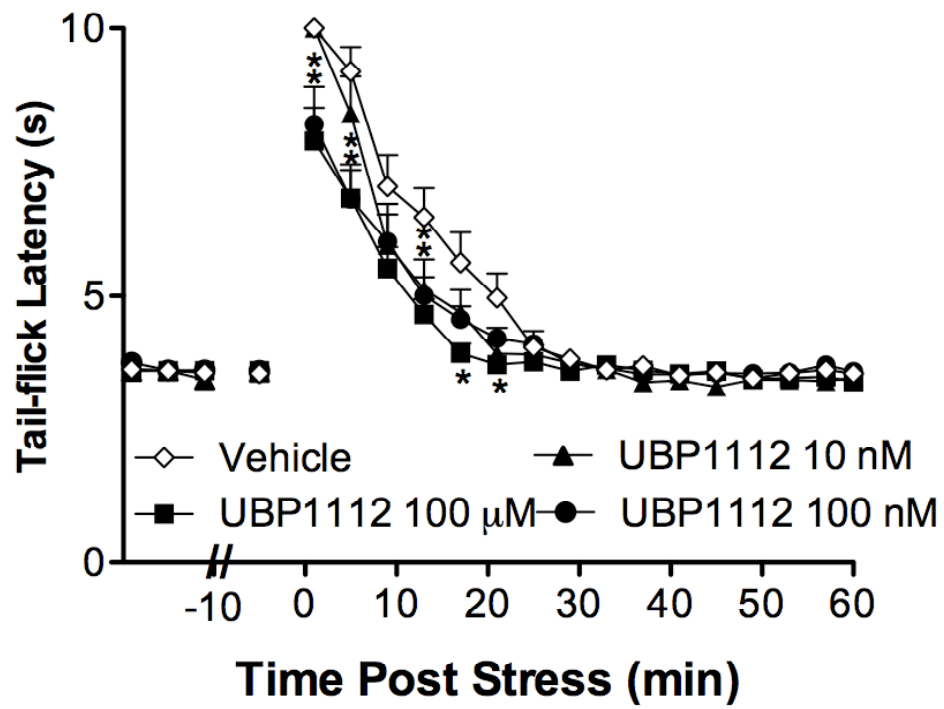


Figure 3.1. (A) Microinjection of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 (100 nM or 100 $\mu$ M) into the dlPAG produces a concentration-dependent enhancement of endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception. (B) Microinjection sites into the dlPAG for groups receiving L-AP4 1 mM ( $\blacktriangle$ ), 100  $\mu$ M ( $\blacksquare$ ), 100 nM ( $\bullet$ ), or DMSO ( $\square$ ). Data are Mean + S.E.M. \* $P < 0.05$  versus control (ANOVA, Fisher's PLSD test; N = 6-10 per group).



A



B

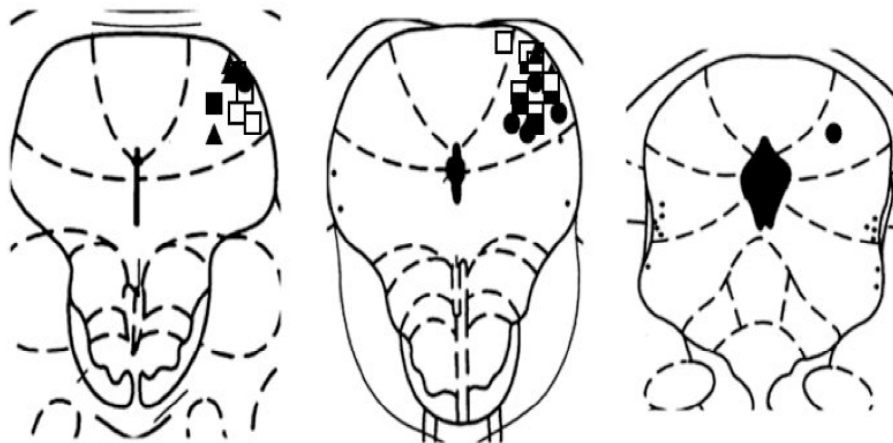
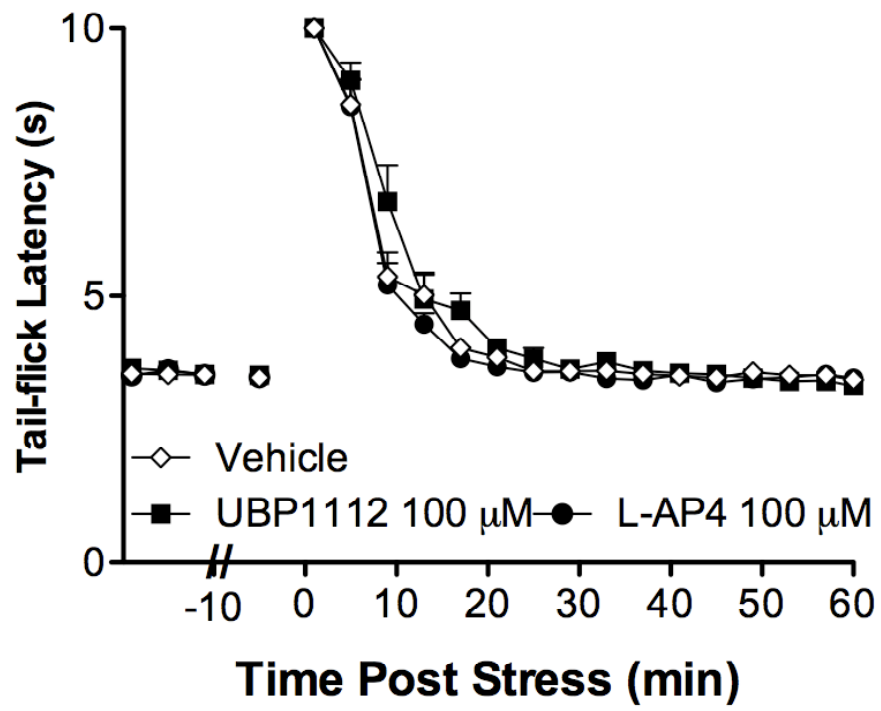


Figure 3.2. (A) Microinjection of the group III mGluR inhibitor UBP1112 (100nM or 100μM) into the dlPAG produces a dose-dependent suppression of endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception. (B) Microinjection sites in the dlPAG for groups receiving UBP1112 100 μM (■), 100 nM (●), 10 nM (▲), or DMSO (□). Data are Mean + S.E.M. \* $P < 0.05$  versus control (ANOVA, Fisher's PLSD test; N = 6-10 per group).

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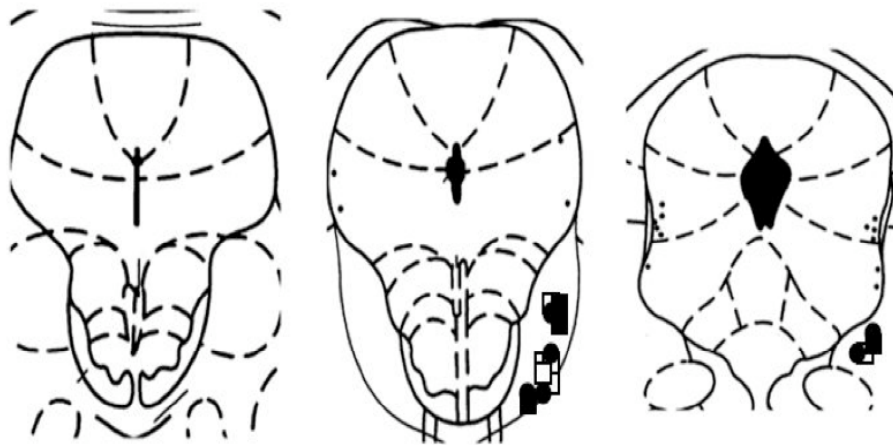
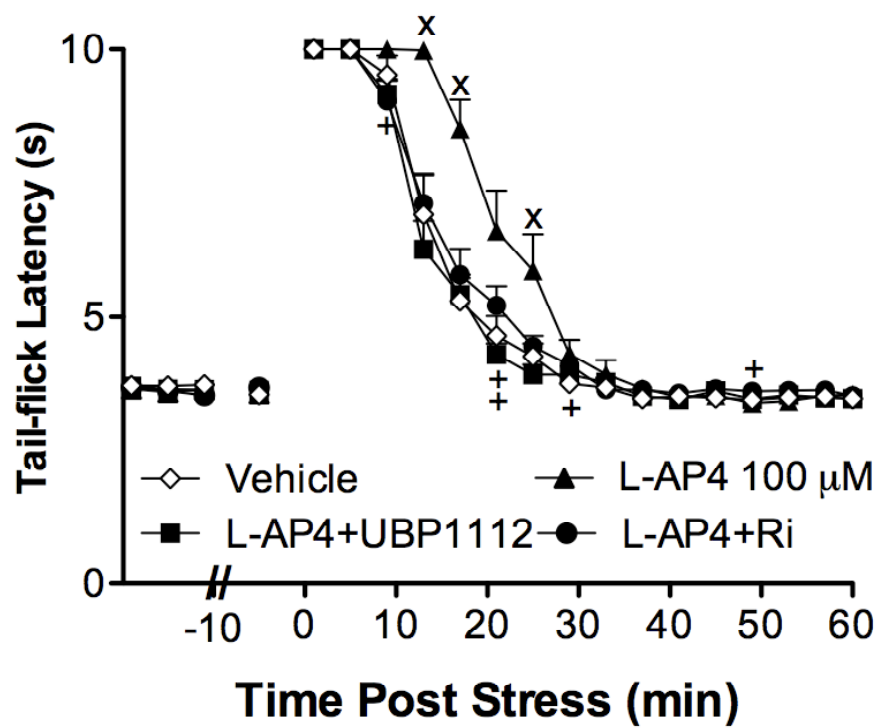


Figure 3.3. (A) Off-site injection of neither L-AP4 (100  $\mu$ M) nor UBP1112 (100  $\mu$ M) altered stress antinociception relative to vehicle controls. (B) Sites of microinjections of 100  $\mu$ M UBP1112 (■), L-AP4 (●), or DMSO (□). Data are Mean + S.E.M. (ANOVA, Fisher's PLSD test; N = 6 per group).

A



B

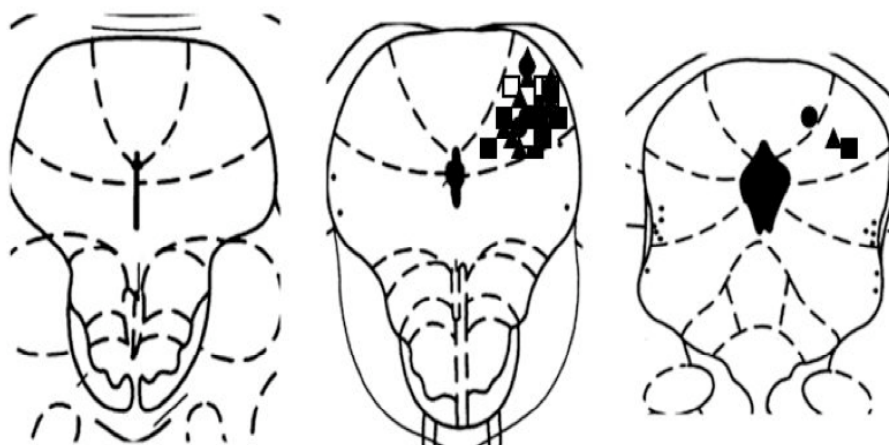


Figure 3.4. (A) Microinjection of the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 (100 $\mu$ M) enhances endocannabinoid-mediated stress antinociception through a mechanism that requires group III mGluR and CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation. The CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist rimonabant (0.1  $\mu$ g) and the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 (10 nM) blocked the L-AP4 induced enhancement of stress antinociception. (B) Microinjection sites in the dlPAG for groups receiving L-AP4 + UBP1112 (■), L-AP4 (▲), L-AP4 + Rimonabant (●), or DMSO (□). Data are Mean + S.E.M. <sup>x</sup>*P* < 0.05 versus all conditions, <sup>+</sup>*P* < 0.05 versus agonist alone (ANOVA, Fisher's PLSD test; N = 7-8 per group).

## **CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION**

Much research has been conducted to evaluate the role of endocannabinoids in pain suppression. Understanding the mechanisms of endocannabinoid mobilization and synthesis are key components in uncovering novel therapeutic agents. Considering that the endocannabinoid 2-AG is mobilized under the phenomenon known as stress-induced analgesia, this model is an important research tool for this investigation. Metabotropic glutamate receptors have also been implicated in endocannabinoid mobilization to produce antinociception under this model. Both group I and group III mGluRs have been found to mediate nociceptive responses in a cannabinoid receptor-dependent manner.

The present studies were conducted to evaluate the role of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors in regulating endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia in the PAG by performing site-specific pharmacological manipulations. Particularly, pharmacological activation of group III mGluRs with L-AP4 in the dlPAG enhanced stress antinociception and this effect was blocked with both a group III mGluR antagonist and a CB<sub>1</sub> receptor antagonist. Pharmacological inhibition of group III mGluRs with UBP1112 also suppressed stress antinociception in the dlPAG in this study. Antinociception was evaluated using the tailflick model following exposure to an environmental stressor.

As illustrated in this document, endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia was enhanced by the group III mGluR agonist L-AP4 and suppressed by the group III mGluR antagonist UBP1112 following microinjection into the dlPAG. CB<sub>1</sub> receptor activation was

necessary for this enhancement of antinociception following exposure to the footshock stressor, suggesting endocannabinoid specificity, possibly attributable to elevated 2-AG levels.

Pharmacological specificity was determined by blocking the agonist-induced enhancement of SIA with the group III mGluR antagonist. Off-site injections of each active compound also failed to alter SIA, showing specificity to the dlPAG.

In summary, pharmacologically activating group III mGluRs in the PAG is efficacious in alleviating nociceptive responses following exposure to a stressor. Given that antinociceptive effects occur coincidentally with the time-course of 2-AG accumulation in the PAG, it is possible that group III mGluR activation may induce antinociception by facilitating mobilization of the endocannabinoid 2-AG. The antinociceptive effects induced by activation of group III mGluRs were blocked by the CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist rimonabant, adding further confirmation to the endocannabinoid mobilization hypothesis. Pharmacologically elevating endocannabinoids in the central nervous system may prove to be useful in uncovering novel therapeutic agents with minimal side effects.