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## Physiological and pharmacological implications of beta-arrestin regulation

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### ABSTRACT

G protein-coupled receptor-targeted drug discovery as well as “compound reassessment” requires the utilization of diverse screens to determine agonist efficacies and potencies beyond the scope of ligand binding and G protein coupling. Such efforts have arisen from extensive studies, both in cellular and animal models, demonstrating that these seven transmembrane domain-spanning, G protein-coupled receptors may engage in more diverse functions than their name suggests and particular focus is drawn to their interactions with beta-arrestins ( $\beta$ arrestins). As regulators,  $\beta$ arrestins are involved in dampening G protein-coupling pathways.  $\beta$ Arrestins can also play pro-signaling roles in receptor mediated events and the coupling of receptors to  $\beta$ arrestins may be as important as their potential to couple to G proteins in the physiological setting. In the last decade, the development of  $\beta$ arrestin deficient mouse models has allowed for the assessment of the contribution of individual  $\beta$ arrestins to receptor function in vivo. This review will discuss the current literature that implicates  $\beta$ arrestins in receptor function in respect to physiological and behavioral responses observed in the live animal model.

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### 1. Introduction

$\beta$ Arrestins (non-visual arrestins) are ubiquitously expressed proteins that were first described for their role in desensitizing G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). There are two  $\beta$ arrestins, namely,  $\beta$ arrestin1 and  $\beta$ arrestin2, which are also referred to as arrestin-2 and arrestin-3, respectively. As their names imply,  $\beta$ arrestins were first identified for their ability to “arrest” agonist-stimulated  $\beta$ 2 adrenergic receptor ( $\beta$ 2AR) signaling (Lohse et al., 1990) in a manner similar to arrestin regulation of rhodopsin. The canonical model of GPCR regulation by  $\beta$ arrestins also

involves GPCR kinases (GRKs) which phosphorylate receptors and thereby serve to facilitate receptor- $\beta$ arrestin interactions (Benovic et al., 1987; Sibley et al., 1987; Lohse et al., 1992; Pitcher et al., 1992). Upon complexing with receptors,  $\beta$ arrestins can serve as inhibitors of signal transduction by preventing further receptor coupling to G protein signaling cascades (for reviews see: Premont et al., 1995; Freedman & Lefkowitz 1996; Lefkowitz, 1998).

Specific examples of  $\beta$ arrestins serving as negative regulators of GPCR signaling are plentiful in cellular as well as animal model systems (Table 1) (for reviews see: Gainetdinov et al., 2004; Bohn et al., 2004a;

**Abbreviations:**  $\Delta^9$ -THC,  $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol. DOI, 2,5-dimethoxy-4-iodoamphetamine. CP 55,940, 5-(1,1-Dimethylheptyl)-2-[hydroxyl-2-(3-hydroxypropyl)cyclohexyl] phenol. UK-14,304, 5-Bromo-6-(2-imidazolyl-2-ylamino)quinoxaline. 5-HTP, 5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan.  $\alpha$ 2AR,  $\alpha$ 2 adrenergic receptor.  $\beta$ 2AR,  $\beta$ 2 adrenergic receptor.  $\beta$ arrestins, beta-arrestins.  $\beta$ arr1-KO,  $\beta$ arrestin1 knockout.  $\beta$ arr2-KO,  $\beta$ arrestin2 knockout. BRET, bioluminescence resonance energy transfer. CNS, central nervous system. D2 DAR, D2 dopamine receptor. FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer. GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor. GRK, GPCR kinase. LPS, lipopolysaccharide. MOR, mu opioid receptor. MEF, mouse embryonic fibroblast. OVA, ovalbumin. PKC, protein kinase C. PP2A, protein phosphatase 2A. M100907, R(+)-alpha-(2,3-dimethoxyphenyl)-1-[2(4-fluorophenylethyl)]-4-piperidinemethanol. R-PIA, R(-)-N6-(2-phenylisopropyl) adenosine. S1P, sphingosine-1-phosphate. 5-HT2AR, serotonin 2A receptor. SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor. WT, wildtype

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**Table 1**  
Enhanced drug responsiveness in  $\beta$ arrestin1-KO and  $\beta$ arrestin2-KO mice

| Proposed target               | Drug/challenge          | Model system                  | Phenotype   | Reference                      |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|
| $\beta_2$ Adrenergic receptor | Isoproterenol           | $\beta$ arr1-KO mice          | Stimulated increase in cardiac ejection fraction  | Conner et al., 1997            |
|                               | Albuterol               | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Increased bronchodilation   | Deshpande et al., 2008         |
| CB1 cannabinoid receptor      | $\Delta^9$ -THC         | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Enhanced antinociception and hypothermia  | Breivogel et al., 2008         |
|                               | CXCL1                   | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Increased neutrophil migration into air pouches   | Su et al., 2005                |
| CXCR2                         | Excisional punch wounds | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Increased neutrophil migration into wound bed   |                                |
|                               |                         | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Increased rate of wound re-epithelialization  |                                |
| Mu opioid receptor            | Morphine                | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Enhanced and prolonged antinociception and hypothermia  | Bohn et al., 1999, 2000, 2004b |
|                               |                         | $\beta$ arr2 anti-sense (rat) | Enhanced drug reinforcement   | Bohn et al., 2003              |
| Parathyroid receptor 1        | Heroin                  | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Reduced antinociceptive tolerance   | Bohn et al., 2000, 2002        |
|                               |                         | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Reduced antinociceptive tolerance   | Przewlocka et al., 2002        |
|                               |                         | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Enhanced and prolonged antinociception  | Bohn et al., 2004b             |
| Parathyroid receptor 1        | Parathyroid hormone     | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Disrupted increase in bone mineral content and trabecular bone parameters and increased osteoclast number | Ferrari et al., 2005           |
|                               |                         | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          | Increased susceptibility to endotoxin shock and enhanced expression of proinflammatory cytokines          | Wang et al., 2006              |
| Toll-like receptor 4          | LPS and D-galactosamine | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice          |   |                                |

THC: tetrahydrocannabinol; LPS: Lipopolysaccharides.

Gurevich & Gurevich 2006; Premont & Gainetdinov, 2007). In addition to mediating receptor desensitization,  $\beta$ arrestins can facilitate recruitment and interactions between GPCRs and signaling partners. In this capacity,  $\beta$ arrestins can serve as positive mediators of receptor signaling to downstream targets. Evidence for GPCRs coupling to  $\beta$ arrestins to transduce receptor signaling has also been widely demonstrated in cellular models (for reviews see: Luttrell et al., 1999; Luttrell, 2002; Lefkowitz & Shenoy, 2005; DeWire et al., 2007). Studies in mouse models also support a pro-signaling role for  $\beta$ arrestins (particularly  $\beta$ arrestin2) and these reports are summarized in Table 2.

Arguably, the most studied GPCR is the  $\beta$ 2AR. In vitro studies with this receptor have been instrumental in demonstrating the diverse and pleiotropic roles that  $\beta$ arrestins can play in determining agonist-induced receptor responses. The  $\beta$ 2AR has been shown to interact with both  $\beta$ arrestin1 and  $\beta$ arrestin2 upon agonist stimulation (Attramadal et al., 1992) and such interactions result in decreased responsiveness to agonist over time. The removal of  $\beta$ arrestins by early anti-sense studies (Mundell et al., 1999), later siRNA studies (Ahn et al., 2003), as well as studies utilizing mouse embryonic fibroblasts devoid of both  $\beta$ arrestin1 and  $\beta$ arrestin2 (Kohout et al., 2001), confirm that  $\beta$ arrestins play a critical role in promoting this waning effect on G protein-coupling and adenylyl cyclase stimulation following agonist activation of the  $\beta$ 2AR. Similar studies have been performed for multiple GPCRs of diverse classes and together, these findings support the canonical model wherein the agonist-activated GPCR becomes phosphorylated by GRKs which subsequently increases the binding affinity of the receptor for  $\beta$ arrestins.

**Table 2**  
Decreased drug responsiveness in  $\beta$ arrestin1-KO and  $\beta$ arrestin2-KO mice

| Proposed target                           | Drug/challenge         | Model system         | Phenotype   | Reference                |
|---|------------------------|----------------------|---|--------------------------|
| $\alpha_2$ Adrenergic receptor            | UK 14,304              | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Disrupted increase in sedation  | Wang et al., 2004        |
| Chemokine receptors                       | Airway challenge       | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced T lymphocyte accumulation and asthmatic response                                | Walker et al., 2003      |
| Dopamine receptors (direct)               | Apomorphine            | $\beta$ arr1-KO mice | Reduced climbing behavior   | Gainetdinov et al., 2004 |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced climbing behavior   | Gainetdinov et al., 2004 |
| Dopamine receptors (indirect)             | Amphetamine            | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced hyperlocomotor activity   | Beaulieu et al., 2005    |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced hyperlocomotor activity   | Beaulieu et al., 2005    |
| GABA receptors                            | Lithium                | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Disrupted reduction in locomotor activity and anti-depressant-like behaviors            | Beaulieu et al., 2008    |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Disrupted reduction in locomotor activity and anti-depressant-like behaviors            | Beaulieu et al., 2008    |
| GABA receptors                            | Ethanol                | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced ethanol intake and preference and decreased ethanol-induced locomotion          | Bjork et al., 2008       |
| LPA, Protease-activated and S1P receptors | High fat diet          | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced aortic atherosclerosis and decreased prevalence of atheroma smooth muscle cells | Kim et al., 2008         |
| Mu opioid receptor                        | Morphine               | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced hyperlocomotor activity   | Bohn et al., 2003        |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced constipation and respiratory suppression  | Raehal et al., 2005      |
| Serotonin 2A receptor                     | Loperamide             | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced constipation  | Raehal et al., 2005      |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced head twitch response  | Schmid et al., 2008      |
| Serotonin 2A receptor                     | 5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced head twitch response  | Schmid et al., 2008      |
|   |                        | $\beta$ arr2-KO mice | Reduced head twitch response  | Schmid et al., 2008      |

LPA: Lysophosphotidic Acid; S1P: sphingosine-1-phosphate; UK14,304: 5-Bromo-6-(2-imidazolin-2-ylamino)quinoxaline.

$\beta$ Arrestin interactions with activated GPCRs can be detected by co-immunoprecipitation (Groer et al., 2007), confocal microscopy (Barak et al., 1997), bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET) (Hamdan et al., 2005), and fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) (Drake et al., 2008) assays. Such developments, including enzyme complementation assays (von Degenfeld et al., 2007), have facilitated high throughput screens for assessing drug-induced  $\beta$ arrestin-receptor interactions. Looking forward, the interactions between  $\beta$ arrestins and GPCRs may be realized for ultimately determining relative drug efficacies in vivo (Claing & Laporte, 2005; Violin & Lefkowitz, 2007; DeWire et al., 2007).

## 2. $\beta$ Arrestin regulation of GPCRs in vivo

While cellular model systems have been particularly useful for determining which receptors can possibly interact with  $\beta$ arrestins, in many cases, the question remains as to whether such interactions are pharmacologically and physiologically relevant. Assessing  $\beta$ arrestin function in vivo is challenging as there are no selective inhibitors of  $\beta$ arrestins. Some attempts have been made to develop selective inhibitors to GRKs as a means to prevent subsequent  $\beta$ arrestin recruitment, yet the degree of selectivity for these kinase inhibitors may not exclude inhibition of other serine/threonine kinases involved in alternate signaling cascades.

To overcome these limitations, Drs. Robert J. Lefkowitz and Marc G. Caron of Duke University, undertook the challenge of generating gene knockout mice deficient in  $\beta$ arrestin2. At that same time, the

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