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Neurochemistry International xxx (2015) 1-13



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Neurochemistry International



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/nci

Lack of presynaptic interaction between glucocorticoid and CB₁ cannabinoid receptors in GABA- and glutamatergic terminals in the frontal cortex of laboratory rodents

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 11 October 2014 Received in revised form 13 July 2015 Accepted 17 July 2015 Available online xxx

Keywords: CB₁ cannabinoid receptor Frontal cortex GABA Glucocorticoid receptor Glutamate Presynaptic

ABSTRACT

Corticosteroid and endocannabinoid actions converge on prefrontocortical circuits associated with neuropsychiatric illnesses. Corticosteroids can also modulate forebrain synapses by using endocannabinoid effector systems. Here, we determined whether corticosteroids can modulate transmitter release directly in the frontal cortex and, in doing so, whether they affect presynaptic CB1 cannabinoid receptor-(CB₁R) mediated neuromodulation. By Western blotting of purified subcellular fractions of the rat frontal cortex, we found glucocorticoid receptors (GcRs) and CB₁Rs enriched in isolated frontocortical nerve terminals (synaptosomes). CB1Rs were predominantly presynaptically located while GcRs showed preference for the post-synaptic fraction. Additional confocal microscopy analysis of cortical and hippocampal regions revealed vesicular GABA transporter-positive and vesicular glutamate transporter 1positive nerve terminals endowed with CB₁R immunoreactivity, apposing GcR-positive post-synaptic compartments. In functional transmitter release assay, corticosteroids, corticosterone (0.1-10 microM) and dexamethasone (0.1-10 microM) did not significantly affect the evoked release of $[^{3}H]GABA$ and $[^{14}C]$ glutamate in superfused synaptosomes, isolated from both rats and mice. In contrast, the synthetic cannabinoid, WIN55212-2 (1 microM) diminished the release of both [³H]GABA and [¹⁴C]glutamate, evoked with various depolarization paradigms. This effect of WIN55212-2 was abolished by the CB₁R neutral antagonist, O-2050 (1 microM), and was absent in the CB1R KO mice. CB2R-selective agonists did not affect the release of either neurotransmitter. The lack of robust presynaptic neuromodulation by corticosteroids was unchanged upon either CB1R activation or genetic inactivation. Altogether,

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuint.2015.07.014 0197-0186/© 2015 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

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Abbreviations: 3Rs, Replacement, Refinement and Reduction of Animals in Research; 4-AP, 4-aminopyridine; ARRIVE, Animals in Research: Reporting *In Vivo* Experiments; CB₁R(s), CB₂R(s), cannabinoid CB₁ and CB₂ receptor(s); corti, corticosterone; DAGL α , diacylglycerol lipase α ; dexa, dexamethasone; DMSO, dimethylsulfoxide; DPM, disintegration per minute; FELASA, Federation for Laboratory Animal Science Associations; FR%, fractional release expressed as percentage; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; GcR(s), glucocorticoid receptor(s); HPA, hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal; HEPES, 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid; [³H]GABA, tritiated γ -aminobutyric acid; McR(s), mineralocorticoid receptor(s); mife, mifepristone; PFC, prefrontal cortex; SDS-PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; VGAT, vesicular GABA transporter; VGCC(s), voltage-gated calcium channel(s); VGLUT1, vesicular glutamate transporter 1; WB, Western blotting; WIN, WIN55212-2.

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corticosteroids are unlikely to exert direct non-genomic presynaptic neuromodulation in the frontal cortex, but they may do so indirectly, via the stimulation of trans-synaptic endocannabinoid signaling. © 2015 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Corticosteroids produce diverse responses in various classes of neurons and astrocytes in the brain (Chaouloff and Groc, 2011; Joëls et al., 2012; Maggio and Segal, 2012; Yu et al., 2011). Alternative splicing and post-translation modifications yield pharmacologically and structurally distinct subtypes of corticosteroid-sensing mineralocorticoid and glucocorticoid receptors (McR and GcR). These receptors can either mediate slow genomic responses when located intracellularly or, they can directly control other receptors, membrane conductance, release probability and synaptic plasticity when inserted in the plasmalemma (Chaouloff and Groc, 2011; Chen et al., 2012; Joëls et al., 2012; Maggio and Segal, 2012; Tse et al., 2011). Only a few of these responses were associated with presynaptic loci, probably because non-genomic corticosteroid modulation of ionic currents at the second to minute scale is less typical (Joëls et al., 2012; Zaki and Barrett-Jolley, 2002). The particular mechanism(s) leading to rapid presynaptic neuromodulation by corticosteroids has not been fully elucidated, and the underlying receptor has been ascribed either as McR (Joëls et al., 2012; Karst et al., 2005; Maggio and Segal, 2012) or as GcR (Wang and Wang, 2009).

Corticosteroids alone are often insufficient to increase presynaptic neurotransmitter release: acute stress rapidly raises the readily releasable pool of glutamate in the rat (pre)frontal cortex, and augments its depolarization-induced *ex vivo* release (Popoli et al., 2011). However, corticosterone applied *in vitro* onto isolated nerve terminals (synaptosomes) does not affect glutamate release *per se* (Treccani et al., 2014).

In the prefrontal cortex (PFC), acute stimulation of glutamate release by corticosteroids under stressful stimuli is among the first steps to terminate the stress response via a feed-back loop feeding into the hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis (Herman et al., 1996; Joëls et al., 2012). Chronic stress, however, can impair the delicate context of neuromodulation in the PFC, which can elicit numerous neuropsychiatric illnesses (Opris and Casanova, 2014), including impaired fear extinction (Bitencourt et al., 2013). We recently found that GcRs rather than McRs facilitate prefrontal cortex-dependent conditioned fear extinction by promoting endocannabinoid signaling at CB₁ cannabinoid receptors (CB₁Rs) (Bitencourt et al., 2014). Gi/o protein-coupled metabotropic CB1Rs are expressed at high density in subsets of GABA-ergic interneurons, while their expression at lower density is typical for many pyramidal cells throughout the neocortex, with predominant axonal (presynaptic) localization (Egertová and Elphick, 2000; Hill et al., 2007; Marsicano and Lutz, 1999; Tsou et al., 1998). An additional CB_1R paralogue, the CB_2 cannabinoid receptor (CB_2R) is largely expressed peripherally with circumstantial evidence inferring central roles (Zhang et al., 2015).

CB₁Rs serve as downstream mediators of glucocorticoid action in frontocortical and hippocampal areas. CB₁Rs control the feedback loop along the HPA axis to terminate stress responses (Hill et al., 2011; Hill and Tasker, 2012), as well as to facilitate the extinction and impair the retrieval of aversive memories (Atsak et al., 2012; Bitencourt et al., 2013, 2014; Hill et al., 2011; Marsicano et al., 2002). Due to these important roles, endocannabinoids (endogenous CB₁R agonists) have been implicated in the pathogenesis of chronic stress-related psychiatric illnesses (Bitencourt et al., 2013; Köfalvi and Fritzsche, 2008; Trezza and Campolongo, 2013).

Prompted by the lack of conclusive evidence on a signaling interplay between GcRs and CB₁Rs, we aimed at mapping the acute presynaptic effects of corticosteroids on the resting and depolarization-evoked release of radiolabeled GABA and glutamate in superfused synaptosomes of the frontal cortex of laboratory rodents, which is a model free from polysynaptic and glial influences (Popoli et al., 2011). We also asked whether corticosteroids could modulate the presynaptic CB₁R activity in relation to the evoked release of GABA and glutamate.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Ethics statement and animals

All studies were conducted in accordance with the principles and procedures outlined as "3Rs" in the guidelines of EU (86/609/ EEC), FELASA, and the National Centre for the 3Rs (the ARRIVE; Kilkenny et al., 2010), and were approved by the Animal Care Committee of the Center for Neuroscience and Cell Biology of the University of Coimbra, Portugal. We also applied the ARRIVE guideline for the design and execution of *in vitro* pharmacological experiments (see below), as well as for data management and interpretation (McGrath et al., 2010).

In specific detail, 90 male Wistar rats (180–240 g, 8–10-week old) were purchased from Charles-River (Barcelona, Spain). Six CB₁ receptor null-mutant (knockout, KO) male mice with a CD-1 background (Ledent et al., 1999) and six of their wild-type littermates (35–45 g, 8–12-week old) were also used in pharmacological experiments. Animals were housed with 12 h light on/off cycles under controlled temperature ($23 \pm 2 \, ^{\circ}$ C), and *ad libitum* access to food and water. All efforts were made to minimize the number of animals used and to minimize their stress and discomfort. Animals used *in vitro* studies were deeply anesthetized with halothane before (5%, 1 L/min flow rate) before cervical dislocation.

2.2. Subcellular fractionation and Western blotting

After decapitation, rat brains were rapidly collected in ice-cold Krebs-HEPES assay solution (in mM: NaCl 113, KCl 3, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, MgSO₄ 1.2, CaCl₂ 2.5, NaHCO₃ 25, glucose 5.5, HEPES 10), and frontal cortices were dissected (Paxinos and Watson, 1998). Frontal cortices were used instead of the much smaller prefrontal cortex to obtain sufficient amount of protein. To test the presence of GcR in frontocortical nerve terminals, we prepared a purified synaptosome (nerve terminal) fraction from three rats, following Dunkley et al. (2008). As Fig. 1A and E demonstrate, brain membrane fractions contain high densities of PSD95 - a membrane-bound marker of post-synapses (Ehlers et al., 1996), whereas this marker is largely diluted in crude (total) brain homogenate by the copious amounts of intracellular proteins, and was largely absent in the purified synaptosomes. To support the specificity of the anti-GcR antibody available to us (Abcam), we tested for GcR translocation from cytoplasmic to nuclear fractions upon its stimulation with dexamethasone (Sarabdjitsingh et al., 2010) (Fig. 1A–A₁). In brief, frontal

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