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Ramsay, S., Spencer, N. J., & Zagorodnyuk, V. (2023).  
Endocannabinoids, anandamide and 2-AG, regulate  
mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents in the Guinea  
pig bladder. In *European Journal of Pharmacology* (Vol.  
945, 175624). Elsevier B.V.

Which has been published in final form at:

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejphar.2023.175624>

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1 **Title:** Endocannabinoids, anandamide and 2-AG, regulate mechanosensitivity of mucosal  
2 afferents in the guinea pig bladder.

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11 **Running title:** Endocannabinoids and mechanosensitivity of bladder afferents.

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18

## 19 **Abstract**

20 Bladder afferents play a crucial role in urine storage and voiding, and conscious sensations  
21 from the bladder. Endocannabinoids, anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonolylglycerol (2-AG),  
22 are endogenous ligands of G-protein coupled cannabinoid receptors 1 and 2 (CB1 and CB2)  
23 found in the CNS and peripheral organs. They also have off-target effects on some ligand- and  
24 voltage-gated channels. The aim of this study is to determine the role of AEA and 2-AG in  
25 regulation of mechanosensitivity of probable nociceptive neurons innervating the bladder -  
26 capsaicin-sensitive mucosal afferents. The activity of these afferents was determined by *ex vivo*  
27 single unit extracellular recordings in the guinea pig bladder. A stable analogue of anandamide,  
28 methanandamide (mAEA) evoked initial excitatory response of mucosal afferents followed by  
29 potentiation of their responses to mechanical stimulation. In the presence of TRPV1 antagonist  
30 (AMG9810), mAEA's effect on mechanosensitivity switched from excitatory to inhibitory.  
31 The inhibitory effect of mAEA is due to activation of both CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors  
32 since it was abolished by combined application of selective CB1 (NESS0327) and CB2  
33 (SR144528) antagonists. 2-AG application evoked a brief excitation of mucosal afferents,  
34 without potentiation of their mechanosensitivity, followed by the inhibition of their responses  
35 to mechanical stimulation. CB2 receptor antagonist, SR144528 abolished the inhibitory effect  
36 of 2-AG. Our data indicated that anandamide and 2-AG have opposite effects on  
37 mechanosensitivity of mucosal capsaicin-sensitive afferents in the guinea pig bladder; mAEA  
38 potentiated while 2-AG inhibited responses of mucosal afferents to mechanical stimulation.  
39 These findings are important for understanding of the role of endocannabinoids in regulating  
40 bladder sensation and function.

41

## 42 **Key words**

43 Endocannabinoids, anandamide, 2-AG, CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors, bladder afferents.

## 44 **Abbreviations**

45 2-AG: 2-arachidonolylglycerol; 4Q3C: 4-quinolone 3-carboxamide; AEA: anandamide; CB:  
46 cannabinoid; DRG: dorsal root ganglia; LUT: lower urinary tract; CGRP: calcitonin gene-  
47 related peptide; SP: substance P; mAEA: methanandamide; TRPV1: transient receptor  
48 potential vanilloid 1

## 49 **Introduction**

50 Endocannabinoids such as anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonolylglycerol (2-AG) affect  
51 bladder function acting via their G-protein coupled receptors, the cannabinoid 1 (CB1) and  
52 CB2 receptors (Cristino et al., 2020; Hedlund and Gratzke, 2016). Given that AEA and 2-AG  
53 have been detected in the bladder itself, it is likely that there is a local production. The likely  
54 cell type involved in the synthesis and release of AEA and 2-AG is urothelial cells given that  
55 the enzymes involved in their synthesis and breakdown have been demonstrated in the  
56 urothelium (Sultana et al., 2022). Endocannabinoids and CB1 and CB2 agonists can ameliorate  
57 bladder function in pathophysiological conditions as it was shown using animal models of  
58 overactive bladder and painful bladder syndromes (Bjorling and Wang, 2018; Hedlund and  
59 Gratzke, 2016). However, the exact mechanism by which endocannabinoids regulate bladder  
60 function is not known. Essential parts of endocannabinoid action on the lower urinary tract  
61 (LUT) organs could be mediated via their effects on spinal sensory nerves innervating the  
62 bladder (Christie et al., 2021). Bladder afferents are involved in reflexes controlling urine  
63 storage and voiding. They are also responsible for all conscious sensations from the bladder,  
64 ranging from physiological sensation of filling and fullness through to LUT symptoms such as  
65 excessive urgency and pain (de Groat and Yoshimura, 2009). 5 major types of bladder afferents  
66 have been discovered including stretch-insensitive mucosal (=urothelial) afferents, stretch-  
67 sensitive muscular-mucosal (=muscular-urothelial) and muscular afferents, high threshold  
68 vascular (=serosal) and silent afferents (Christie et al., 2021; Grundy et al., 2019; Xu and  
69 Gebhart, 2008; Zagorodnyuk et al., 2007).

70 In the bladder, CB1 and CB2 receptors are expressed on the urothelial cells, detrusor muscle  
71 and nerve fibres in the suburothelium and detrusor (Bakali et al., 2013; Gratzke et al., 2009;  
72 Hayn et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2017; Walczak et al., 2009). It has been previously demonstrated  
73 that a non-selective CB1/CB2 agonist reduced firing of high-threshold distension-sensitive  
74 bladder afferents via CB1 receptors (Walczak and Cervero, 2011; Walczak et al., 2009).  
75 Selective inhibition of fatty acid amide hydrolase (resulting in an increase in concentration of  
76 endocannabinoids in the tissue) decreased distension-induced activity of A $\delta$  and C fibre bladder  
77 afferents via both CB1 and the CB2 receptors (Aizawa et al., 2014). CB2 receptors could be  
78 attractive therapeutic targets since CB2 agonists reduced bladder inflammation and pain  
79 (Bjorling and Wang, 2018; Liu et al., 2020). We recently reported that the selective synthetic  
80 CB2 agonist, 4-quinolone-3-carboxamide (4Q3C) inhibited the mechanosensitivity of mucosal,  
81 but not muscular-mucosal, bladder afferents via CB2 receptors (Christie and Zagorodnyuk,

82 2021). However, in addition to acting on CB1 and CB2 receptors, cannabinoids have off-target  
83 effects on some ligand- and voltage-gated channels. Endocannabinoids can directly act on  
84 transient receptor potential (TRP) channels, in particularly TRP vanilloid 1 (TRPV1) (Pertwee  
85 et al., 2010). TRPV1 is likely involved in nociception since their antagonists or desensitisation  
86 with resiniferatoxin can ameliorate painful sensation from the bladder (Charrua et al., 2007;  
87 Charrua et al., 2009; Dinis et al., 2004a; Guo et al., 2013). Among 5 types of bladder afferents,  
88 mucosal afferents are probable polymodal capsaicin-sensitive peptidergic (containing both  
89 CGRP and SP) nociceptors (Christie et al., 2021; Spencer et al., 2018; Zagorodnyuk et al.,  
90 2010). Bearing in mind the importance of cannabinoids as potential analgesics (Vuckovic et  
91 al., 2018), in this study we aim to determine the effects of endocannabinoids, AEA and 2-AG,  
92 on the excitability and mechanosensitivity of capsaicin-sensitive mucosal bladder afferents.

93

## 94 2. Materials and methods

### 95 2.1 Ethical Approval

96 This study was approved by the Animal Welfare Committee of Flinders University (AEM1574-  
97 5) and performed in accordance with the Australian code for the care and use of animals for  
98 scientific purposes, 8th edition 2013 and the ARRIVE guidelines (Lilley et al., 2020).

### 99 2.2 *Ex vivo* bladder afferent preparation

100 Adult female guinea pigs (N=30, weight 300-400g) were housed in a 12hr:12hr light dark cycle  
101 with ad libitum access to a standard diet and water. The guinea pigs were euthanised by  
102 isoflurane inhalation overdose and severing of the spinal cord at the cervical level. This was  
103 performed between 0700-0730hrs to minimise any possible circadian rhythm influence on the  
104 bladder afferents mechanosensitivity.

105 This *ex vivo* bladder afferent preparation has been described in detail previously (Christie and  
106 Zagorodnyuk, 2021; Ramsay and Zagorodnyuk, 2022). Briefly, the bladder and associated  
107 connective tissue containing the nerves was removed and opened into a flat sheet along the  
108 anterior bladder wall and placed in a modified Krebs solution consisting of (in mM): NaCl 118;  
109 KCl 4.74; NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 1.0 NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 25; MgCl<sub>2</sub> 1.2; CaCl<sub>2</sub> 2.5; glucose 11 and nicardipine (3µM)  
110 bubbled with 95% oxygen in 5% carbon dioxide. A rectangular full thickness sheet  
111 (approximately 12mm by 15mm) was formed and pinned mucosa up along the edge containing  
112 the nerves in a 22ml organ bath containing warmed Krebs. The opposite side of the bladder  
113 was attached to a 12mm custom-made stainless steel “rake”, also attached to a cantilever  
114 system with isotonic transducer (Harvard Bioscience 52-9511, S Natick, MA. U.S.A).  
115 Counterweights (1-40g) could be applied to the cantilever to distend the bladder while  
116 measuring the resulting changes in length. Fine nerve trunks entering the trigone were freed  
117 from the associated connective tissue, pinned, and placed in a paraffin oil bubble, sealed by  
118 paraffin wax, thus electrically isolating the nerves. Each nerve was then individually placed on  
119 a platinum electrode for recording. Electrical nerve signals were amplified using a DAM80  
120 (World Precision Instruments, USA) filtered using a Band-Pass filter (10Hz-10kHz; BPF-932;  
121 CWE, USA) and recorded at 20kHz using a data acquisition system (Micro 1401-4; CED, UK).  
122 Single-unit analysis of bladder afferents was performed offline with Spike2 software (version  
123 10, CED, Cambridge, UK).

### 124 2.3 Identification of mucosal bladder afferents

125 High-responding mucosal bladder afferents which respond to mucosal stroking with light von  
126 Frey hairs (10-100mg), but do not respond to stretch of the bladder wall (1-40g), were  
127 investigated in this study. They have a low threshold to stroking of their receptive fields, longer  
128 action potential duration, and majority are capsaicin-sensitive (Christie and Zagorodnyuk,  
129 2021; Zagorodnyuk et al., 2009; Zagorodnyuk et al., 2007).

130 To facilitate agonists and antagonists' penetration to nerve endings, a small hole (~2x2mm) in  
131 the urothelium was made adjacent to their receptive field. Spontaneous activity and  
132 mechanosensitivity were measured before and after the creation of a small hole in the  
133 urothelium; no significant differences were found. After this, the mechanosensitivity of bladder  
134 afferents to mucosal stroking was determined using a calibrated von Frey hair (100mg) stroked  
135 across a hot spot area at a rate of 5mms-1 5 times with 10 second intervals. To identify  
136 whether recorded bladder afferents are stretch-sensitive or stretch-insensitive a weight (20g)  
137 was added to the cantilever for a period of ten seconds.

#### 138 *2.4 Effects of endocannabinoids and CB1 and CB2 receptor antagonists on bladder afferent* 139 *mechanosensitivity*

140 The metabolically stable analogue of anandamide, methanandamide (mAEA) (Abadji et al.,  
141 1994) was used instead of anandamide in this study since anandamide is quite an unstable  
142 molecule. In contrast to methanandamide, it is light-sensitive and could be enzymatically  
143 catalysed by FAAH (Deutsch and Chin, 1993) and oxidised by COX-2 (Yu et al., 1997). This  
144 also makes the present results compatible with our previous study (Christie and Zagorodnyuk,  
145 2021). After determination of baseline mechanosensitivity, drugs were added to the organ bath  
146 over the receptive field area. Endocannabinoids, mAEA and 2-arachidonolylglycerol (2-AG),  
147 were allowed to equilibrate for 10 minutes and bladder afferent mechanosensitivity were re-  
148 determined. Antagonists of TRPV1 (AMG9810), and CB1 and CB2 receptors (NESS0327 and  
149 SR144528, respectively) were added to the organ bath and to the Krebs solution flow through  
150 for 20-minutes before bladder afferent spontaneous activity and mechanosensitivity were re-  
151 measured. To allow the rapid washout of drugs from the organ bath, the bath was half emptied,  
152 and the perfusion system was restored to normal Krebs. Initial excitatory response of mucosal  
153 afferents evoked by mAEA and 2-AG was calculated as mean firing rate averaged for a 10  
154 second period after drug application minus the 10 second period immediately before drug  
155 application. Time controls were previously performed equal to the maximum time of  
156 experiments; no significant changes over time were observed. Concentrations used of mAEA,

157 2-AG, NESS0327 and SR114528 were based on available literature sources or our previous  
158 findings (Christie and Zagorodnyuk, 2021).

## 159 *2.5 Drugs*

160 Stock solutions of 2-AG, AMG9180, NESS0327 and SR144528 were kept at 10mM in DMSO.  
161 Stock solutions of mAEA were kept at 10mM in ethanol. All drugs were stored at -20°C and  
162 diluted prior to experiments in Krebs. DMSO and ethanol at highest concentrations used (0.1%)  
163 had no significant effects on excitability or mechanosensitivity of mucosal bladder afferents.  
164 mAEA, 2-AG, AMG9180 and NESS0327 were obtained from Sapphire Bioscience Australia,  
165 and SR144528 (SML1899) was obtained from Sigma Australia.

## 166 *2.6 Data Analysis*

167 All data is presented as the mean  $\pm$  SEM, with n referring to the number of afferents and N to  
168 number of animals. Analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9 software. All data was  
169 analysed using a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. P-values were less than 0.05  
170 were considered significant.

171

## 172 **3. Results**

### 173 *3.1 Potentiating effect of methanandamide on mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents switches* 174 *to inhibitory by TRPV1 antagonist, AMG9810*

175 The effects of mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) on bladder mucosal afferents alone or in combination with the  
176 selective TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) are illustrated in Fig.1.

177 Application of mAEA alone produced an immediate excitatory response of mucosal afferents  
178 which was abolished in the presence of AMG9810 (Fig. 1A and 1D; mAEA alone  $6.1 \pm 0.7$ Hz,  
179 mAEA + AMG9810  $0.6 \pm 0.04$ Hz;  $P < 0.0001$ ).

180 mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) alone significantly increased the response of mucosal afferents to stroking  
181 (100mg) compared to controls (Fig. 1B and 1E;  $+80.7 \pm 5.6\%$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M)  
182 alone significantly decreased the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) compared  
183 to controls (Fig. 1B;  $-60.9 \pm 2.6\%$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). In the presence of AMG9810, mAEA  
184 significantly decreased the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) compared to  
185 AMG9810 alone (Fig. 1B, 1C and 1F;  $-64.2 \pm 5.4\%$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). AMG9810 alone had no



186 significant effects on the basal spontaneous activity of mucosal afferents (0 $\mu$ M 0.6  $\pm$  0.1 Hz,  
187 3 $\mu$ M 0.4  $\pm$  0.3Hz; NS).

### 188 *3.2 The inhibitory effect of methanandamide is mediated via both CB1 and CB2 receptors*

189 The effects of mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) in the presence of the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) and  
190 the CB1 receptor antagonist NESS0327 (1 $\mu$ M), or the CB2 receptor antagonist SR144528  
191 (10 $\mu$ M), or both are illustrated in Fig. 2.

192 AMG9810 alone significantly decreased the response of mucosal afferents to stroking  
193 compared to controls (Fig. 2Ai; -61.8  $\pm$  3.8%, P<0.001). In the presence of AMG9810, mAEA  
194 (3 $\mu$ M) significantly reduced the response of mucosal afferents to stroking further compared to  
195 AMG9810 alone (Fig. 2Ai and 2Aii; -63.2  $\pm$  6.1%, P<0.05). The CB1 receptor antagonist  
196 NESS0327 (1 $\mu$ M), in the presence of AMG9810, significantly increased the response of  
197 mucosal afferents to stroking compared to AMG9810 alone (Fig. 2Ai; +54.4  $\pm$  6.3%, P<0.001).  
198 In the presence of both AMG9810 and NESS0327, mAEA still significantly reduced the  
199 response of mucosal afferents to stroking (Fig. 2Ai; -25.1  $\pm$  1.4%, P<0.05), however to a  
200 significantly lesser extent than in the presence of AMG9180 only (Figure 2Aii, P<0.01).

201 In a separate set of experiments, AMG9810 significantly reduced mucosal afferent responses  
202 to stroking (100mg) compared to controls (Fig. 2Bi; -62.8  $\pm$  1.8%; P<0.01). In the presence of  
203 AMG9810 and mAEA, the response of mucosal afferents to stroking were significantly  
204 reduced further (Fig. 2Bi; -65.1  $\pm$  3.7%; P<0.05). The CB2 receptor antagonist SR144528  
205 (10 $\mu$ M), in the presence of AMG9810, did not significantly affect the response of mucosal  
206 afferents to stroking compared to AMG9810 alone (Fig. 2Bi; +30.3  $\pm$  9.5%, NS). In the  
207 presence of both AMG9810 and SR144528, mAEA still significantly reduced the response of  
208 mucosal afferents to stroking (Fig. 2Bi; -51.9  $\pm$  4.3%; P<0.05), however to a significantly lesser  
209 extent than in the presence of AMG9180 only (Fig 2Bii; P<0.05).

210 In a final set of separate experiments, the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg)  
211 was significantly reduced in the presence of AMG9810 (Fig. 2Ci; -58.1  $\pm$  4.0%; P<0.001). In  
212 the presence of AMG9810, mAEA significantly reduced the response of mucosal afferents to  
213 stroking (100mg) further (Figure 2Ci; -60.2  $\pm$  5.7%; P<0.05). The CB1 and CB2 receptor  
214 antagonists (NESS-0327 and SR144528), in the presence of AMG9810, significantly increased  
215 the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg; Fig. 2Ci; +65.4  $\pm$  10.5%; P<0.01). In the  
216 presence of AMG9810, NESS-0327, and SR144528, the inhibitory effect of mAEA was lost  
217 (Fig. 2Ci and Cii; -6.3  $\pm$  2.6%, NS).

218 *3.3 2-AG inhibits mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents via CB2 receptors*

219 The effect of 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M) on the mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents alone or in  
220 combination with the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) is illustrated in Fig. 3. Application  
221 of 2-AG alone produced a short excitatory response of mucosal afferent activity which was  
222 significantly reduced, but not lost, in the presence of the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (Fig.  
223 3A and 3AD; 2-AG alone  $2.8 \pm 0.58$ Hz, 2-AG + AMG9810  $0.7 \pm 0.36$ Hz,  $P < 0.001$ ).

224 2-AG alone significantly reduced the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg)  
225 compared to controls (Fig. 3B;  $-53.7 \pm 4.4\%$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). AMG9810 alone also significantly  
226 decreased the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) compared to control ( $-56.6 \pm$   
227  $4.2\%$ ;  $P < 0.01$ ). In the presence of AMG9810, 2-AG significantly reduced the response of  
228 mucosal afferents to stroking further (Fig. 3B;  $-70.8 \pm 7.7\%$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ), which was significantly  
229 greater than the reduction caused by 2-AG alone (Fig. 3C;  $P < 0.05$ ).

230 The effect of 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M) in the presence of the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) and the  
231 CB2 antagonist SR144528 (10 $\mu$ M) is illustrated in Fig. 4. AMG9810 alone significantly  
232 reduced the response of mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) compared to controls (Fig. 4A;  
233  $-57.4 \pm 5.8\%$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). In the presence of AMG9810, 2-AG further reduced the response of  
234 mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) compared to AMG9810 alone (Fig. 4A;  $-67.4 \pm 2.1\%$ ;  
235  $P < 0.05$ ). The CB2 receptor antagonist SR144528, in the presence of AMG9810, did not  
236 significantly affect the response of mucosal afferents to stroking. In the presence of AMG9810  
237 and SR144528, the inhibitory effect of 2-AG was lost (Fig. 4A and 4B;  $-3.7 \pm 3.4\%$ , NS).

238

239 **4. Discussion**

240 The study reveals opposite effects of endocannabinoids on mechanosensitivity of mucosal  
241 capsaicin-sensitive afferents in the guinea pig bladder; mAEA potentiated while 2-AG  
242 inhibited responses of mucosal afferents to mechanical stimulation. Potentiation of  
243 mechanosensitivity by mAEA was due to activation of TRPV1 channels since selective  
244 antagonist, AMG9810 abolished potentiation revealing an inhibition. The inhibitory effect of  
245 mAEA on mechanosensitivity was due to activation of both CB1 and CB2 receptors. 2-AG  
246 inhibited mechanosensitivity of bladder mucosal afferents predominantly via activation of CB2  
247 receptors.

248 Endocannabinoids such as anandamide and 2-AG are involved in the regulation of nociception  
249 (Bjorling and Wang, 2018; Clapper et al., 2010; Pacher et al., 2006), although their analgesic  
250 mechanisms are yet to be fully elucidated. Recently, cannabinoid research has moved, in some  
251 health clinics, into the frontline of treatment for many health conditions including chronic pain  
252 (Donvito et al., 2018; Vuckovic et al., 2018). It is well established that AEA is a high-affinity,  
253 partial agonist of CB1 receptors, while almost inactive at CB2 receptors (Di Marzo and De  
254 Petrocellis, 2012; Pertwee et al., 2010; Ruggieri, 2011). Cannabinoids mediate analgesia in the  
255 skin predominantly via peripheral CB1 receptors since mice with conditional knockout of CB1  
256 receptors in the Nav1.8 expressing dorsal root ganglia (DRG) neurons exhibit allodynia and  
257 hyperalgesia (Agarwal et al., 2007). However, in addition to acting on their G-protein coupled  
258 CB1 and CB2 receptors, cannabinoids are capable of directly activating some ligand- and  
259 voltage-gated ion channels, including TRPV1 channels (Pertwee et al., 2010; Ruggieri, 2011).  
260 Both CB1 and CB2 receptors are colocalised with TRPV1 in DRG neurons (Ahluwalia et al.,  
261 2000; Anand et al., 2008) and all three are up-regulated in DRG neurons in inflammation  
262 (Amaya et al., 2006; Anand et al., 2008). In the bladder, CB1 and CB2 are co-localised with  
263 TRPV1 and CGRP in the axons of sensory nerves in the detrusor and sub-urothelium (Gratzke  
264 et al., 2009; Walczak et al., 2009).

265 TRPV1 is a well-established sensor for noxious stimuli such as noxious heat and low pH and  
266 can be also activated by endogenous vanilloids and cannabinoids and exogenous compounds  
267 such as capsaicin and resiniferatoxin (Caterina et al., 1997; Nilius and Szallasi, 2014). TRPV1  
268 channels are not mechano-gated channels, however, they contribute to the modulation of the  
269 general level of excitability of bladder afferents, thus contributing to mechanosensitivity  
270 indirectly (Daly et al., 2007). They powerfully modulate the excitability of sensory fibres in  
271 the normal tissue and in cystitis (Charrua et al., 2007; Daly et al., 2007; Yoshimura et al., 2014).  
272 This explains the reduction in the mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents by the TRPV1  
273 antagonist, AMG9810 in the guinea pig bladder. Activation and up-regulation of TRPV1  
274 channels results in pain and hypersensitivity in many visceral organs including the bladder  
275 (Charrua et al., 2009; Nagy et al., 2004). Conceivably, it has been previously shown that AEA,  
276 via activation of TRPV1, contributed to the development of hyperreflexia and hyperalgesia  
277 revealed in cyclophosphamide-induced cystitis in rats (Dinis et al., 2004b). In the guinea pig  
278 bladder, high-responding capsaicin-sensitive mucosal afferents are not stretch-sensitive,  
279 peptidergic afferents (containing both SP and CGRP) that can be activated by light von Frey  
280 hair stimulation of their receptive field in the mucosa (Spencer et al., 2018; Zagorodnyuk et

281 al., 2007, 2008, 2010). Although the role of capsaicin-sensitive mucosal bladder afferents in  
282 bladder function is not fully determined, they are likely involved in transmission of nociceptive  
283 stimuli to CNS (Christie et al., 2021; Dinis et al., 2004b; Zagorodnyuk et al., 2007, 2010).  
284 Therefore, to use AEA as a potential analgesic, it may be necessary to consider the potential  
285 excitatory effects and use in combination with a TRPV1 antagonist. It is worth mentioning that  
286 dual inhibitors of FAAH and TRPV1 or FAAH and COX have been synthesised and are  
287 currently undergoing preclinical studies for their efficacy in providing analgesia (Bjorling and  
288 Wang, 2018).

289 We have recently reported that the potentiating effect of mAEA on mucosal bladder afferents  
290 was convert to inhibitory when TRPV1 channels were blocked with capsazepine (Christie and  
291 Zagorodnyuk, 2021), which was confirmed in the present study by using a more selective and  
292 potent TRPV1 antagonist, AMG9810 (Gavva et al., 2005). The question that remained,  
293 however, was which cannabinoid receptors are responsible for the revealed inhibitory effect of  
294 AEA. The present data indicate that inhibition of mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents, in  
295 the presence TRPV1 antagonist, is due to activation of both CB1 and CB2 receptors since  
296 selective CB1 antagonist, NESS0327 and selective CB2 antagonist, SR144528 were capable  
297 to reduce this effect of AEA. Simultaneous application of both CB1 and CB2 antagonist was  
298 necessary to abolish the inhibitory effect of AEA on mucosal afferent mechanosensitivity.

299 It is well known that TRPV1 can be desensitised by capsaicin and other vanilloids. This process  
300 contributes to the analgesic effects of these compounds and used in clinical trials to ameliorate  
301 pain in patients suffering from painful bladder syndrome (Guo et al., 2013; Payne et al., 2005;  
302 Touska et al., 2011). TRPV1 desensitisation could be also responsible for reducing  
303 hyperalgesia during acute inflammation and mechanical allodynia developed in the rat model  
304 of neuropathic pain by the phytocannabinoid, cannabidiol (Costa et al., 2004; De Gregorio et  
305 al., 2019). It is important to note, however, that AEA, in contrast to capsaicin, does not evoke  
306 desensitisation of TRPV1 (Nagy et al., 2004), so it is unlikely that this mechanism operates in  
307 analgesic effects of AEA in the bladder.

308 Significantly less studies were done to investigate possible role of 2-AG in the bladder function.  
309 2-AG is a full agonist at both CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors, however, it has moderate  
310 to low affinity (Di Marzo and De Petrocellis, 2012; Ruggieri, 2011). In addition to different  
311 efficacy at CB1 and CB2, tissue biosynthesis and breakdown of AEA and 2-AG are regulated  
312 independent of each other, thus allowing them to exert different function within the same organ

313 (Di Marzo and De Petrocellis, 2012). Recently, it has been suggested that CB2 receptors in the  
314 bladder could be an attractive therapeutic target for the treatment of bladder pain since they  
315 capable of reducing bladder inflammation and their activation devoid of the central  
316 psychotropic effects of CB1 ligands (Bjorling and Wang, 2018). Administration of selective  
317 CB2 receptor agonists (JWH015, GP1a, JWH-133) reduces bladder inflammation and pain in  
318 animal models of interstitial cystitis (Liu et al., 2020; Tambaro et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014).  
319 However, it is likely that ameliorating effect of CB2 receptors agonists on cystitis-induced pain  
320 is due not only to a reduction in bladder inflammation but also by their direct activation of CB2  
321 receptors on nociceptive fibres. This is supported by our recent findings indicating that  
322 activation of CB2 receptors by selective synthetic ligand, 4Q3C inhibited mechanosensitive  
323 responses of mucosal capsaicin-sensitive bladder afferents; the effect was abolished by  
324 SR144528 (Christie and Zagorodnyuk, 2021). The CB2 antagonist, SR144528 (which is  
325 inverse agonist of the CB2 receptors) has a 700-fold higher affinity for the CB2 receptors  
326 compared to the CB1 receptors (Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1998). It has been previously shown  
327 that non-selective CB1/CB2 agonist reduced firing of high threshold distension-sensitive  
328 bladder afferents via CB1 receptors in mice (Walczak and Cervero, 2011; Walczak et al.,  
329 2009). In the rat bladder, an increase in endogenous cannabinoids, produced by periphery-  
330 restricted fatty acid amide hydrolase inhibitor, URB937 moderately decreased distension-  
331 induced activity of A $\delta$  and C fibers via both CB1 and CB2 receptors (Aizawa et al., 2014).  
332 Further studies are warranted to investigate the effect of endocannabinoids and their selective  
333 CB1 and CB2 agonists on different classes of bladder afferents.

334 Both mAEA and 2-AG evoked initial transient activation of mucosal afferents. This effect of  
335 mAEA was abolished by TRPV1 antagonist and significantly reduced in the case of 2-AG.  
336 AMG9810 also significantly potentiated the inhibitory effect of 2-AG on bladder afferents in  
337 normal Krebs solution, indicating that 2-AG has ability to act on TRPV1 channels expressed  
338 on mucosal afferents. In contrast to anandamide, 2-AG has very low potency and efficacy at  
339 TRPV1 channels (Di Marzo and De Petrocellis, 2012). This likely explains its lack in  
340 potentiation of mechanosensitivity of bladder afferents. In contrast to mAEA, the inhibitory  
341 effect of 2-AG was abolished by SR1144528, indicating that this action of 2-AG on bladder  
342 afferents is predominantly via CB2 receptors. We have previously shown that in 0Ca<sup>2+</sup> Krebs  
343 solution (which prevents Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent release of the endogenous mediators) there was no  
344 change in responses of mucosal afferents to mucosal stroking (Zagorodnyuk et al., 2009). This  
345 suggests that mucosal stroking directly activates some type of mechano-gated channels

346 expressed by the nerve endings. In addition to the presence of CB1 and CB2 receptors on nerve  
347 fibres in the suburothelium and detrusor, they are also expressed on the urothelial cells (Bakali  
348 et al., 2013; Christie et al., 2021). We cannot completely exclude possible contribution of the  
349 urothelial CB1 and CB2 receptors to the effects of cannabinoid agonists and antagonists on the  
350 mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents. This requires further investigation.

351 Fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL) are major enzymes  
352 that primarily degrade AEA or 2-AG, respectively (Bjorling and Wang, 2018; Ruggieri, 2011).  
353 However, simply increasing levels of endogenous cannabinoids causes off-target effects on  
354 ligand- and voltage-gated ion channels (Pertwee et al., 2010; Watkins, 2019) and has low  
355 efficacy in reducing chronic pain (Vuckovic et al., 2018). Instead, the use of peripherally  
356 restricted synthetic CB1 and CB2 receptor ligands are more promising to eliminate LUT  
357 symptoms in animal models of bladder overactivity and interstitial cystitis (Christie et al.,  
358 2021).

359 One of the noteworthy properties of endogenous cannabinoid system in the bladder is tonic  
360 regulation of mechanosensitivity of bladder afferents by constitutively downregulating bladder  
361 sensory neurons' function (Hedlund and Gratzke, 2016). It has been previously demonstrated  
362 that CB1 antagonists (AM251 and rimonabant) and CB2 antagonist (SR144528) on their own  
363 significantly increased distension-induced firing of bladder afferents in both *ex vivo* and *in vivo*  
364 conditions in rats and mice (Aizawa et al., 2014; Walczak and Cervero, 2011). Present data  
365 indicated that in the guinea pig bladder, CB1 antagonist (NESS0327), but not CB2 antagonist  
366 (SR144528), significantly potentiated mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents. Interestingly,  
367 in rats, SR144528 potentiated the distension-induced firing of A $\delta$  fibres but not C fibre  
368 afferents (Aizawa et al., 2014). Capsaicin-sensitive mucosal afferents innervating the guinea  
369 pig bladder belong to C fibre sensory fibres (Zagorodnyuk et al., 2007). All of this suggests  
370 tonic downregulation of nociceptive C fibres mechanosensitivity by endogenous  
371 endocannabinoids, most likely anandamide, predominantly via CB1 receptors. Previous data  
372 (Christie and Zagorodnyuk, 2021) and present findings demonstrated that CB2 receptors are  
373 present on the same mucosal afferent fibres. However, there are significantly less, if any,  
374 contribution of endogenous cannabinoids which have ability to activate CB2 receptors, most  
375 likely 2-AG, to tonic control of bladder afferent mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents. The  
376 mechanism of this differential control deserves further investigation.

377 In summary, our data indicated that that both endocannabinoids, anandamide and 2-AG,  
378 participate in controlling activity of probable nociceptors in the bladder, mucosal capsaicin-  
379 sensitive afferents, resulting in opposite regulation of their mechanosensitivity. Our data  
380 indicates that TRPV1 mediates the excitatory effects of mAEA and 2-AG on mucosal afferents,  
381 while CB1 and CB2 receptors mediate their inhibitory effects.

382

### 383 **Funding**

384 This study has been supported by the National Health and Medical Research Council  
385 of Australia grant #1184546 to V.Z. and the Flinders Foundation Health Seed grant to V.Z. and  
386 N.S.

387

### 388 **Informed consent statement**

389 Not applicable.

390

### 391 **Credit authorship contribution statement**

392 **Stewart Ramsay:** Data collection, formal analysis, performed experiments and  
393 analysed the data with. **Nick J. Spencer:** wrote the manuscript and approved its final version.  
394 **Vladimir Zagorodnyuk:** Writhing original draft, designed the experiments, wrote the  
395 manuscript and have approved its final version.

396

### 397 **Declaration of competing interest**

398 The authors of “Endocannabinoids, anandamide and 2-AG, regulate  
399 mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents in guinea pig bladder”, declare no conflicts of interest.

### 400 **Data availability**

401 Data will be made available on request.

402

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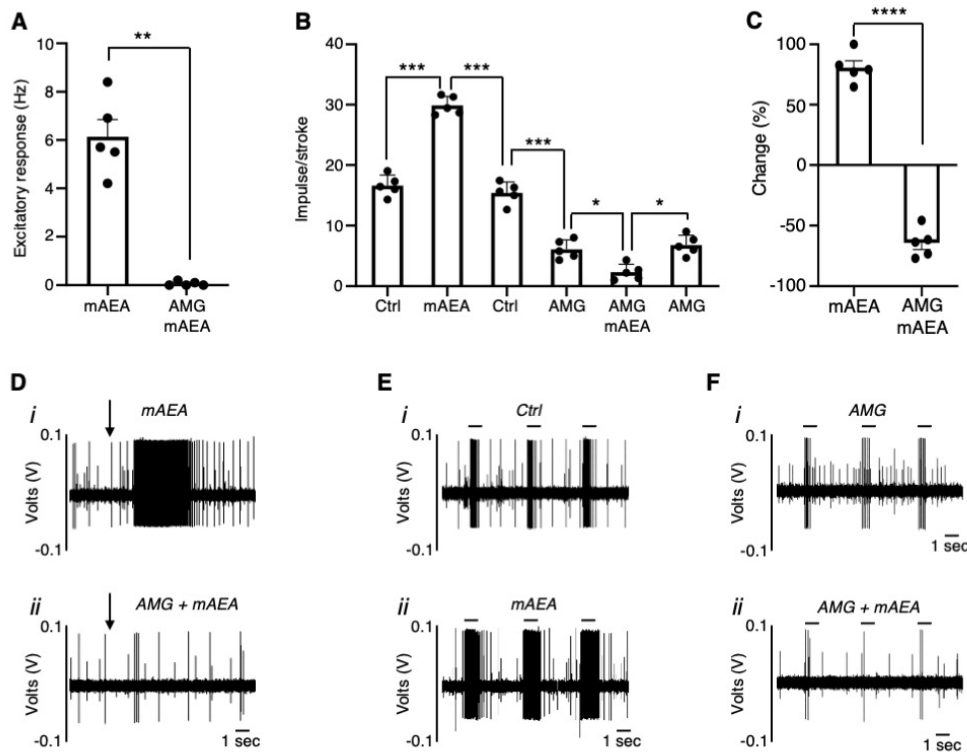
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551 **Figures**

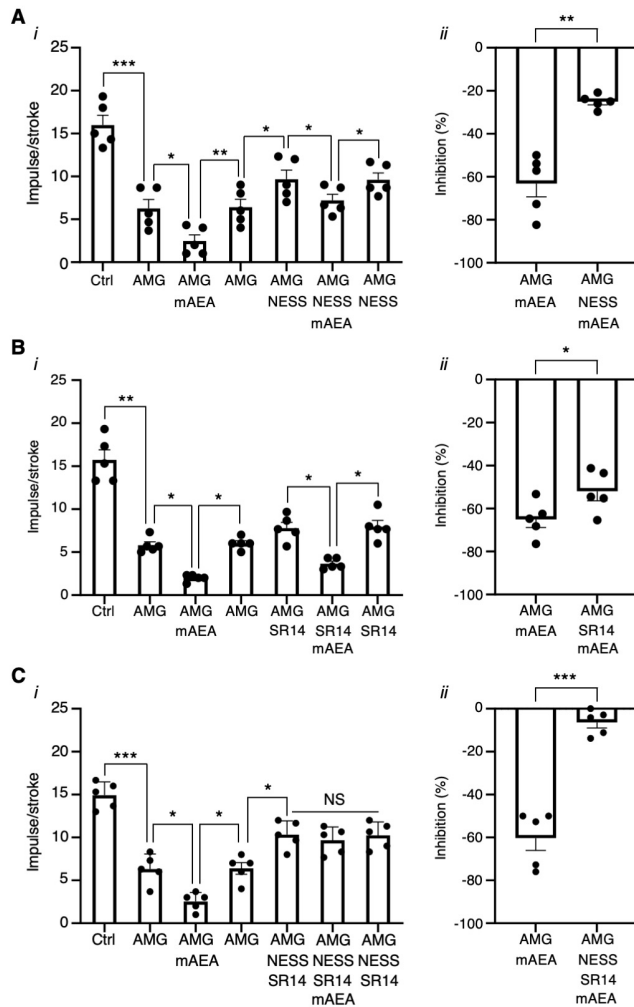


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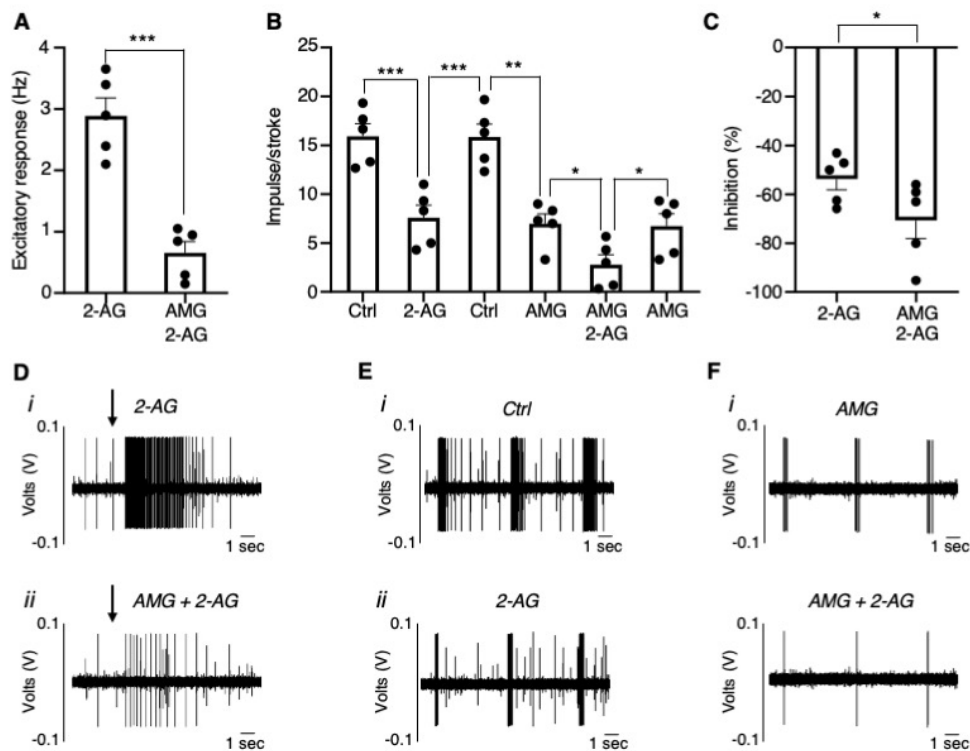
554 **Fig. 1:** The effect of methanandamide is dependent on TRPV1 status. (A) The transient  
 555 excitatory effect of methanandamide (mAEA; 3 $\mu$ M) on mucosal afferents in the absence and  
 556 presence of the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M). (B) The effect of mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) on the  
 557 mechanosensitivity of bladder mucosal afferents in the absence and presence AMG9810  
 558 (3 $\mu$ M). (C) AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) converts potentiating effect of mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) on mucosal afferent  
 559 mechanosensitivity into inhibitory. (D) Representative trace of application of mAEA (3 $\mu$ M) in  
 560 the (i) absence or (ii) presence of AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M). (E) Representative trace of the response  
 561 of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) in the (i) absence and (ii) presence of mAEA  
 562 (3 $\mu$ M) alone. (F) Representative trace of the response of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking  
 563 (100mg) in the presence of (i) AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) or (ii) AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) plus mAEA (3 $\mu$ M).  
 564 Data is presented as the mean  $\pm$  the SEM. N=5, n=5 per group. \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01,  
 565 \*\*\*P<0.001.

566



567

568 **Fig. 2:** The inhibitory effect of methanandamide is mediated via both CB1 and CB2 receptors.  
 569 (Ai) The effect of methanandamide (mAEA) on response of bladder mucosal afferents to  
 570 stroking (100mg) in the presence of the TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3µM) alone and in  
 571 combination with the CB1 receptor antagonist NESS-0327 (1µM). (Aii) The magnitude of  
 572 inhibition (%) of mAEA in the presence of AMG9810 alone and in combination with NESS-  
 573 0327. (Bi) The effect of mAEA (3µM) on response of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking  
 574 (100mg) in the presence of AMG9810 (3µM) alone and in combination with the CB2 receptor  
 575 inverse agonist SR144528 (10µM). (Bii) The magnitude of inhibition (%) of mAEA in the  
 576 presence of AMG9810 alone and in combination with SR144528. (Ci) The effect of mAEA  
 577 (3µM) on response of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) in the presence of  
 578 AMG9810 (3µM) alone and in combination with NESS-0327 (1µM) and SR144528 (10µM).  
 579 (Cii) The magnitude of inhibition (%) of mAEA in the presence of AMG9810 alone and in  
 580 combination with NESS-0327 and SR144528. Data is presented as the mean ± the SEM. N=5,  
 581 n=5 per group. \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01, \*\*\*P<0.001.



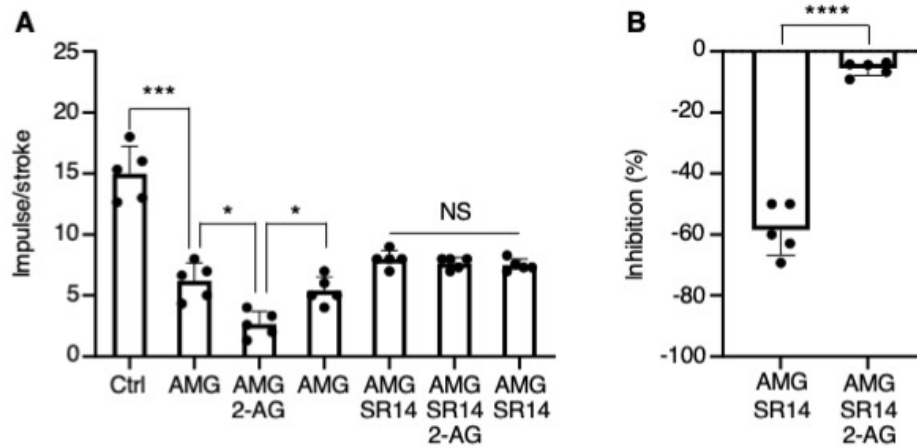
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583

584 **Fig. 3:** The inhibitory effect of 2-AG on mechanosensitivity of mucosal afferents. (A) The  
 585 effect of application of 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M) on mucosal afferents in the absence and presence of the  
 586 TRPV1 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M). (B) The effect of 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M) on the mechanosensitivity  
 587 of bladder mucosal afferents in the absence and presence AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M). (C) The magnitude  
 588 of effect of 2-AG on the mechanosensitivity of bladder mucosal afferents in the absence and  
 589 presence of AMG9810. (D) Representative trace of application of 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M) in the (i)  
 590 absence or (ii) presence of AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M). (E) Representative trace of the response of  
 591 bladder mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) in the (i) absence and (ii) presence of 2-AG  
 592 (3 $\mu$ M) alone. (F) Representative trace of the response of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking  
 593 (100mg) in the presence of (i) AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) or (ii) AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) plus 2-AG (3 $\mu$ M).  
 594 Data is presented as the mean  $\pm$  the SEM. N=5, n=5 per group. \*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01,  
 595 \*\*\*P<0.001.

596

597



598

599 **Fig. 4:** The inhibitory effect of 2-AG is mediated via the CB2 receptor. (A) The effect of 2-AG  
 600 on response of bladder mucosal afferents to stroking (100mg) in the presence of the TRPV1  
 601 antagonist AMG9810 (3 $\mu$ M) alone and in combination with the CB2 receptor inverse agonist  
 602 SR144528 (10 $\mu$ M). (B) The magnitude of inhibition (%) of 2-AG in the presence of AMG9810  
 603 alone and in combination with SR144528. Data is presented as the mean  $\pm$  the SEM. N=5, n=5  
 604 per group. \*P<0.05, \*\*\*P<0.001, \*\*\*\*P<0.0001.

605