Mechanism of Acetylcholine-induced
Inhibition of Ca Current in Bullfrog Atrial
Myocytes

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ABSTRACT The mechanism of the anti-β-adrenergic action of acetylcholine (ACh)
on Ca current, \( I_{Ca} \), was examined using the tight-seal, whole-cell voltage clamp
technique in single atrial myocytes from the bullfrog. Both isoproterenol (ISO) and
forskolin increased \( I_{Ca} \) dose dependently. After \( I_{Ca} \) had been enhanced maximally
by ISO (10^{-6} M), subsequent application of forskolin (50 μM) did not further
increase \( I_{Ca} \), suggesting that ISO and forskolin increase \( I_{Ca} \) via a common biochemical
pathway, possibly by stimulation of adenylate cyclase. ACh (10^{-5} M) completely
inhibited the effect of low doses of forskolin (2 × 10^{-6} M), as well as ISO, but it
failed to block the effects of high doses of forskolin (>5 × 10^{-5} M). Intracellular
application of cyclic AMP (cAMP) also increased \( I_{Ca} \). ACh (10^{-5} M) failed to inhibit
this cAMP effect, indicating that the inhibitory action of ACh occurs at a site
proximal to the production of cAMP. ACh (10^{-5} M) also activated an inwardly
rectifying K^+ current \( I_{KACD} \). Intracellular application of a nonhydrolyzable GTP
analogue, GTPγS (5 × 10^{-4} M), activated \( I_{KACD} \) within several minutes; subsequent
application of ACh (10^{-5} M) did not increase \( I_{KACD} \) further. These results
demonstrate that a GTP-binding protein coupled to these K^+ channels can be
activated maximally by GTPγS even in the absence of ACh. Intracellular application
of GTPγS also strongly inhibited the effect of ISO on \( I_{Ca} \) in the absence of
ACh. Pertussis toxin (IAP) completely prevented both the inhibitory effect of ACh
on \( I_{Ca} \) and the ACh-induced activation of \( I_{KACD} \). GTPγS (50 μM–1 mM) alone did
not increase \( I_{Ca} \) significantly; however, when ISO was applied first, GTPγS
(5 × 10^{-4} M) gradually inhibited the ISO effect on \( I_{Ca} \). These results indicate that
ACh antagonizes the effect of ISO on \( I_{Ca} \) via a GTP-binding protein (G_i and/or G_o).
This effect may be mediated through a direct inhibition by the α-subunit of G_i
which is coupled to the adenylate cyclase.

INTRODUCTION

In the heart the Ca current (\( I_{Ca} \)), which plays an essential role in generating the
action potential and controlling contractility, is regulated by autonomic transmitters

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(Reuter, 1983; Tsien, 1983; Hartzell, 1988). β-Adrenergic agonists (e.g., ISO) increase \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) in both amphibian and mammalian myocardium. This effect is mediated by stimulation of adenylate cyclase (Fischmeister and Hartzell, 1986; Shibata et al., 1986). The resulting increase in intracellular cAMP activates cAMP-dependent protein kinase and increases \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) by phosphorylation of either the Ca channel itself or a protein near the Ca channel (Bean et al., 1984; Brum et al., 1984; Kameyama et al., 1985; Tsien et al., 1986).

Hormonal stimulation of adenylate cyclase requires molecular interactions between at least three separate entities: (a) β-adrenergic receptors, (b) a guanine nucleotide regulatory protein (G\(_{\beta}\)), and (c) the catalytic subunit of adenylate cyclase (Rodbell, 1980; Gilman, 1984). Activation of β-receptors by a β-agonist increases the rate of GDP release from, and GTP binding to G\(_{\alpha}\), which causes dissociation of G\(_{\alpha}\) into \( \alpha_{\gamma} \) and \( \beta_{\gamma} \)-subunits. The \( \alpha_{\gamma} \)-subunit combined with GTP then activates the catalytic site of adenylate cyclase (Northup et al., 1983a). G\(_{\alpha}\) can also be activated by nonhormonal substances such as cholera toxin and nonhydrolyzable GTP analogues (e.g., Gpp(NH)p, GTP\(_{\gamma}\)S). Like ISO, these substances can also increase \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) (Pappano et al., 1982; Hescheler et al., 1986).

In contrast to the apparently universal ability of β-adrenergic agonists to increase \( I_{\text{Ca}} \), cholinergic agonists reduce \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) and consequently inhibit contractility of cardiac cells in different ways in amphibian and mammalian hearts. In mammalian ventricular cells ACh by itself lacks an inhibitory effect on either \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) or contractility; a significant inhibitory action of ACh occurs only in the presence of β-adrenergic stimulation (Biegon and Pappano, 1980; Hescheler et al., 1986). However, in chick ventricle (shortly after hatching) and frog myocardium ACh inhibits either \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) or contractility directly, i.e., even in the absence of β-adrenergic agonist (Antoni and Rotmann, 1968; Giles and Noble, 1976; Ten Eick et al., 1976; McAfee et al., 1978; Biegon and Pappano, 1980). Interestingly, in mammalian ventricle the inhibitory effect of ACh on \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) can be reversed by increasing concentrations of β-adrenergic agonist (Hescheler et al., 1986), while in frog cells this effect has not been observed (Fischmeister and Shrier, 1988).

A plausible mechanism for the muscarinic inhibition of \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) is that ACh can inhibit adenylate cyclase activity via activation of inhibitory GTP-binding proteins (G\(_{i}\) and/or G\(_{o}\)). In mammalian and chick cardiac cells there is evidence for this scheme (Hazeki and Ui, 1981; Endoh et al., 1985; Sorota et al., 1985; Hescheler et al., 1986). Two different possibilities have been suggested for the ACh-induced inhibition of adenylate cyclase mediated via G\(_{i}\) and/or G\(_{o}\): (a) The \( \beta_{\gamma} \)-subunits of G\(_{i}\) and/or G\(_{o}\), which are released after stimulation of the muscarinic receptors coupled to them, may interact with free \( \alpha_{\gamma} \)-subunits from the stimulatory G\(_{\alpha}\) protein to promote formation of an inactive G\(_{\alpha}\) oligomer. This represents an indirect inhibition (Northup et al., 1983b; Katada et al., 1984a). (b) \( \alpha_{i} \) but not \( \alpha_{o} \) may compete with \( \alpha_{\gamma} \) for the same site on the adenylate cyclase (Katada et al., 1986). This effect has been referred to as direct inhibition. At present it is unclear which of these mechanisms may be involved in mediating the inhibitory effect of ACh on adenylate cyclase in vivo.

Other possible mechanisms for the muscarinic effects on \( I_{\text{Ca}} \) must also be considered. ACh may reduce cAMP levels by, for example, the activation of a cGMP-dependent phosphodiesterase (Fischmeister and Hartzell, 1987). Moreover, it
has been suggested that ACh may stimulate a protein phosphatase or a protein kinase, e.g., protein kinase C (Watanabe et al., 1984; Shibata et al., 1986; Lacerda et al., 1988).

We have attempted to clarify the mechanism(s) of ACh-induced inhibition of \( I_{Ca} \) by applying tight-seal voltage clamp techniques (Hamill et al., 1981; Hume and Giles, 1983) to single atrial myocytes from the bullfrog. Our results show that in frog atrial cells the activation of \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) by a muscarinic agonist (ACh) interferes with the signal transduction process from \( \beta \)-adrenergic receptor to \( Ca \) channel, and suggest that the inhibitory action of ACh on \( I_{Ca} \) is caused by the direct inhibitory effect on adenylate cyclase.

**METHODS**

**Preparation**

Single cells were isolated from bullfrog atrium using methods very similar to the ones described previously by Hume and Giles (1981) and Giles and Shibata (1985). Recent modifications will be described briefly. Adult bullfrogs, *Rana catesbeiana*, were killed and the atrium was removed and cut into 1-mm \( \times \) 1-mm pieces in a Ca-free Ringer's solution (see below). These muscle segments were then treated with two enzyme-containing solutions: First, they were transferred into 5 ml of Ca\(^{2+}\)-free Ringer's solution containing 240 IU/ml of collagenase (Yakult Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) together with 3,600 IU/ml of acetylated bovine pancreatic trypsin (type III; Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) and incubated at room temperature (22-24°C) for 45 min. This enzyme-containing solution was then pipetted off and the atrial tissue segments were washed, first in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free Ringer's solution containing 0.1% bovine albumin (Sigma Chemical Co.) and then in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free Ringer's solution. Next, the pieces of atrium were reincubated in 5 ml of Ca\(^{2+}\)-free Ringer's solution containing 120 IU/ml of the Yakult collagenase for an additional 45-60 min. In the final step, the tissue segments were collected, resuspended in Ca\(^{2+}\)-free Ringer's solution, and then gently triturated (five times) using a large bore (2 mm in diameter) Pasteur pipette. This yielded an acceptable number of viable single cells. An aliquot of this cell suspension was transferred into the recording chamber, which contained HEPES-buffered Ringer's solution.

In experiments involving pretreatment with pertussis toxin (IAP) the isolated atrial cells were divided into two groups and incubated for 6 h at 30°C in normal Ringer's solution either with or without IAP (500 ng/ml) by placing culture dishes of these cell suspensions in an incubator under a humidified atmosphere of 95% air to 5% \( CO_2 \).

**Solutions and Drugs**

The composition of the superfusing solutions (in mM) was as follows. Normal Ringer's: NaCl 90, NaHCO\(_3\) 20, KCl 2.5, MgCl\(_2\) 5.0, CaCl\(_2\) 2.5, glucose 8, saturated with 95% \( O_2 \) and 5% \( CO_2 \) (pH 7.4). HEPES Ringer's: NaCl 110, KCl 2.5, MgCl\(_2\) 5.0, CaCl\(_2\) 2.5, glucose 5, HEPES 5, buffered with NaOH to pH 7.4. Ca-free Ringer's: the same as the HEPES Ringer's solution except that CaCl\(_2\) was added to a final concentration of 8 \( \times \) 10\(^{-6}\) M. Recording microelectrodes were filled with a solution of the following composition (in mM): K-aspartate 90, KCl 20, EGTA-KOH 0.77, Na\(_2\)-ATP 3, MgCl\(_2\) 1, HEPES 5, buffered to pH 7.3 with KOH.

The drugs used in these experiments were ISO, ACh, forskolin, atropine, adenosine-3':5'-cyclic monophosphate (cAMP), propranolol, and IAP (Sigma Chemical Co.), and guanosine-5'-O-3-thiotriphosphate (GTP\(_\gamma\)S; Boehringer Mannheim, Biochemicals, Indianapolis, IN). Forskolin was dissolved in DMSO to make 10 mM stock solution, which was stored at -10°C.
In each experiment, just before use, the stock solution of the drug was diluted in HEPES Ringer's to the desired concentration. All experiments were performed at room temperatures (22-24°C).

**Recording Technique**

The gigaseal patch clamp technique was used in the whole-cell configuration (Hamill et al., 1981; Hume and Giles, 1983). The details of electronic circuits used for suction microelectrode voltage clamp have been described previously (Giles and Shibata, 1985; Clark and Giles, 1987). To prepare the suction microelectrodes, square bore borosilicate tubing (1 mm in diameter; Glass Co. of America, Bargaintown, NJ) was heated and pulled by gravity using a vertical micropipette puller (700D; David Kopf Instruments, New Haven, CT). The tips of the resulting micropipettes were smooth enough to make a gigaohm seal without being fire-polished. Their DC resistances varied between 3 and 6 MΩ when filled with the pipette solution. Under the whole-cell clamp conditions series resistances varied between 3 and 8 MΩ. This was electronically compensated to 1–6 MΩ. A hydraulic micromanipulator (MO-102; Narishige Scientific Instruments, Tokyo, Japan) which was mounted on the fixed stage of an inverted microscope (Nikon Diavert) was used to position the microelectrode near the cell. The seal resistance formed between electrode tip and cell membrane was between 5 and 30 GΩ. Membrane potential (\(V_m\)) was measured with a high input impedance unity gain amplifier (model 1600; A-M Systems Inc., Everett, WA). To measure current in the voltage clamp mode, a custom-designed circuit (Clark and Giles, 1987) was used in a current-to-voltage converter configuration. Transmembrane currents were measured as the voltage drop across a 100-MΩ feedback resistor.

**Data Storage and Analysis**

Membrane potential and current signals were monitored on a storage oscilloscope (model 5516ST, Kikusui, Tokyo, Japan) and stored in a microcomputer (IBM-AT) using an analogue-to-digital conversion board (Data Translation DT 2801-A) controlled by our acquisition and display software (Robinson and Giles, 1986). These records were also stored on video tape using an adaptor circuit for a digital VCR instrumentation recorder (model PCM-1; Medical System Corp., Great Neck, NY). The frequency-response of this device was DC-20 kHz. After the experiment, the stored data were sent to a DEC VAX 11-750 computer for analysis, graphing, and archiving.

**RESULTS**

ACh-induced Inhibition of Isoproterenol Effects on \(I_{Ca}\)

Fig. 1 shows the effect of a \(\beta\)-adrenergic agonist, ISO on \(I_{Ca}\). The cell was held at -40 mV to inactivate the Na current, and voltage clamp pulses were applied at 0.2 Hz. As shown previously (Giles et al., 1989), in control conditions positive to approximately -30 mV, a TTX-resistant transient inward current, \(I_{Ca}\), can be elicited (Fig. 1 A). This is followed by slower activation of an outward current, \(I_K\). Upon repolarization to the holding potential, tail currents due to \(I_K\) deactivation are recorded. An inwardly rectifying background current, \(I_{Kw}\), was elicited by hyperpolarizing pulses.

ISO (10\(^{-6}\) M) increased both \(I_{Ca}\) and \(I_K\). Both of these effects of ISO were blocked by the \(\beta\)-antagonist propranolol (3 × 10\(^{-7}\) M; not shown), indicating that \(\beta\)-adrenergic receptors mediate these current changes (Giles et al., 1989). In the presence of
10^{-6} M ISO, the peak inward $I_{Ca}$ (measured from the zero current level) increased from $-110 \pm 42.0$ to $-1,034 \pm 380\ pA$ ($n = 10$) at 0 mV (Fig. 1B). The effect of ISO on $I_{Ca}$ was maximal at concentrations greater than $10^{-6} M$.

The data in Fig. 2 show (a) the time-course of the ISO-induced stimulation of $I_{Ca}$ and (b) the inhibitory action of ACh ($10^{-5} M$) on $I_{Ca}$. This cell was held at a membrane potential of $-40\ mV$ and depolarizing pulses to 0 mV were applied at 0.2 Hz. Superimposed $I_{Ca}$ records are shown in Fig. 2 A. Fig. 2 B illustrates the time course of the changes in $I_{Ca}$ and the holding current, measured from the zero current level (+ and □, respectively). ISO ($10^{-6} M$) increased $I_{Ca}$ from $-80$ to $-850\ pA$ without a significant change in the holding current. Subsequent application of ACh ($10^{-5} M$) shifted the holding current in the outward direction by $-100\ pA$. This current, $I_{K_{ACCH}}$, has been described previously in atrial myocytes (Momose et al., 1984; Soejima and Noma, 1984; Kurachi et al., 1986b; and Simmons and Hartzell, 1987; Clark et al., 1990). When ACh was applied, $I_{Ca}$ decreased rapidly at first and then more slowly (Fig. 2 B). After several minutes $I_{Ca}$ reached a steady-state level well below the control. Subsequent application of a muscarinic antagonist (atropine, $10^{-6} M$) quickly blocked both $I_{K_{ACCH}}$ and the inhibitory effect of ACh on $I_{Ca}$. However, the inhibitory effect of ACh on $I_{Ca}$ could not be completely reversed by atropine. This

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**Figure 1.** The effect of ISO on calcium currents in single atrial cells. The membrane potential was held at $-40\ mV$ and 1.5-s pulses were applied to various membrane potentials at 0.2 Hz in 10-mV increments. A shows the original current traces before (□) and after (●) the application of ISO ($10^{-6} M$). The zero current level is shown by the triangle. These effects on the peak (□, ●) and the isochronal I-V relationships (at the end of the 1,500-ms pulse (□, ■) are illustrated in B. The I-V relationship after ISO is shown by solid symbols.
FIGURE 2. Inhibitory effect of ACh on ISO-induced increase in $I_{\text{Ca}}$. In this and following figures, the membrane potential was held at $-40$ mV and a 200-ms depolarization pulse to 0 mV was applied at 0.2 Hz. The current traces illustrated in A were recorded in control (a), $10^{-6}$ M ISO (b), $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh (c), and $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh plus $10^{-6}$ atropine (d). The current traces (a-d) were recorded at the times indicated by these letters in B. In this and subsequent figures the protocol (drug sequence) is shown in the upper part of B, and the lower part of B shows the time course of changes in the peak $I_{\text{Ca}}$ (+) and the holding current (D) measured from the zero current level. Note that ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) shifted the holding current (and hence the peak of $I_{\text{Ca}}$) in the outward direction by $\sim 100$ pA, indicating that $I_{\text{KACH}}$ was activated.
may be due to run-down of $I_{\text{Ca}}$ or desensitization of isoproterenol response. When both ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) and atropine ($10^{-6}$ M) were applied simultaneously, the effect of ACh on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ was completely abolished. These results indicate that the inhibitory effects of ACh on $I_{K\text{ACH}}$ and $I_{\text{Ca}}$ are mediated by muscarinic receptors. Additional experiments demonstrated that $10^{-5}$ M ACh completely inhibited the effects of ISO, even when $10^{-5}$ M ISO was applied ($n = 3$). In contrast to this finding, Hescheler et al. (1986) have reported previously that the inhibitory effect of ACh on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ in guinea pig ventricle can be overcome by increasing the concentration of ISO (see Discussion).

**Effect of ACh on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ in the Presence of cAMP**

To determine whether the intracellular biochemical reactions corresponding to this ACh effect occur proximal or distal to the catalytic actions of adenylate cyclase, intracellular cAMP was increased by adding cAMP ($10^{-4}$ M) to the recording pipette (Fig. 3). $I_{\text{Ca}}$ increased progressively as cytosolic cAMP was increased via dialysis. Subsequent application of ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) failed to significantly inhibit this increase in $I_{\text{Ca}}$. The activation of $I_{K\text{ACH}}$ caused an apparent outward shift in the peak of $I_{\text{Ca}}$ of ~80 pA. Atropine ($10^{-6}$ M) completely inhibited the effect of ACh on $I_{K\text{ACH}}$, and the baseline of $I_{\text{Ca}}$ also shifted back to the inward direction. CdCl$_2$ ($5 \times 10^{-4}$ M), a Ca channel blocker, completely blocked cAMP-enhanced $I_{\text{Ca}}$. Similar results were observed in experiments using 10-fold lower ($10^{-5}$ M) cAMP concentrations in the pipette ($n = 2$). These results provide strong evidence that the effect of ACh on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ is not mediated by the mechanism distal to the catalytic actions of adenylate cyclase, in contrast to a preliminary report by Shibata et al. (1986).

**Effect of Forskolin on $I_{\text{Ca}}$**

Forskolin is known to stimulate adenylate cyclase (Seamon and Daly, 1986) and to increase $I_{\text{Ca}}$ (Hescheler et al., 1986; Hartzell and Fischmeister, 1987). To test whether the ISO and forskolin effects on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ are additive, maximal doses of ISO ($2 \times 10^{-6}$ M) and forskolin ($5 \times 10^{-5}$ M) were applied (Fig. 4). ISO dramatically increased $I_{\text{Ca}}$, but the subsequent application of forskolin failed to increase $I_{\text{Ca}}$ any further. Thus, the effects of these two agents on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ are not additive. The observed saturation of the ISO and forskolin actions suggests that the forskolin effect on $I_{\text{Ca}}$ in frog heart is mediated by the adenylate cyclase cascade. This probably occurs through a direct activation of the catalytic subunit of adenylate cyclase, as is the case in other cell types (Hescheler et al., 1986; Hartzell and Fischmeister, 1987).

**ACh-induced Inhibition of Forskolin Effects on $I_{\text{Ca}}$**

Low doses of forskolin ($2 \times 10^{-6}$ M) gradually increased $I_{\text{Ca}}$ (Fig. 5). Addition of ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) after forskolin treatment completely blocked the forskolin effect. Atropine (1 μM) reversed this effect of ACh on $I_{\text{Ca}}$. However, when higher doses of forskolin were applied, the inhibitory action of ACh was overcome. In the experiment shown in Fig. 6, ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) completely inhibited the effect of ISO ($10^{-6}$ M) on $I_{\text{Ca}}$, but subsequent application of forskolin ($5.0 \times 10^{-5}$ M) significantly increased $I_{\text{Ca}}$. Atropine (1 μM) completely blocked the effect of ACh on $I_{K\text{ACH}}$, which caused an apparent shift in the peak of $I_{\text{Ca}}$ in the inward direction (by ~100 pA). However, $I_{\text{Ca}}$
FIGURE 3. Effect of ACh on $I_{Ca}$ after intracellular application of cAMP. cAMP ($10^{-4}$ M) was applied by dialysis through the recording micropipette. The current traces in A labeled a-d were recorded at the times indicated by these letters in B. Control (a) and after the application of ($10^{-5}$ M) ACh (b), $10^{-5}$ M ACh plus $10^{-6}$ M atropine (c), and these drugs plus Cd$_2^+$ (0.5 mM) (d) are shown. Note that ACh did not have an inhibitory effect on $I_{Ca}$ under these conditions.

itself was not increased by atropine. These results indicate that $I_{Ca}$ can be activated maximally by forskolin ($5 \times 10^{-5}$ M) even after the application of ACh. Similar findings were obtained when ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) was applied in the absence of ISO; i.e., ACh ($10^{-5}$ M) had no significant effect on $I_{Ca}$ in the presence of high doses of forskolin ($>5 \times 10^{-5}$ M), showing that maximal (saturating) concentrations of forskolin can overcome the effect of ACh on $I_{Ca}$. CdCl$_2$ ($5 \times 10^{-4}$ M) completely blocked the forskolin-induced enhancement of $I_{Ca}$. These results indicate that in frog
Figure 4. Saturation of the stimulatory effects of ISO and forskolin on $I_{\text{Ca}}$. The current traces shown in A were recorded in control (a), after $2 \times 10^{-6}$ M ISO (b), and after $2 \times 10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M forskolin (c). The current traces in A (a–c) were recorded at the times indicated by these letters in B.
atrial cells inhibitory muscarinic effects of ACh on $I_{Ca}$ can override the stimulatory effects of ISO, and that the site of the action of ACh may be the same as the site for forskolin stimulation of $I_{Ca}$, i.e., the catalytic subunit of adenylate cyclase (see Discussion).

Involvement of GTP-binding Proteins in ACh Effects

To study whether the effect of ACh on $I_{Ca}$ involves activation of the inhibitory GTP-binding proteins ($G_{i}$ and/or $G_{o}$), atrial cells were pretreated with IAP, an
Figure 6. Effects of ACh on ISO- and forskolin-induced increases in $I_{Ca}$. The original current traces shown in A were recorded in control (a), $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh (b), $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh plus $5.0 \times 10^{-5}$ M forskolin (c), $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh plus $5.0 \times 10^{-5}$ M forskolin plus $10^{-6}$ M atropine (d), and after additional application of 0.5 mM Cd$^{2+}$ (e). The current traces in A (a–e) were recorded at the times indicated by the corresponding letters in B.
FIGURE 7. Pretreatment with IAP blocks the effects of ACh on both $I_{KCa}$ and $I_{Ca}$ in bullfrog atrial cells. The current traces shown in A were recorded from IAP-treated cells in control (a), after $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh (b), and after $10^{-6}$ M ISO plus $10^{-5}$ M ACh plus $10^{-6}$ M atropine (c). The current traces in A (a–c) were recorded by times indicated by the corresponding letters on the graph in B.
islet-activating protein from the bacterium *Bordetella pertussis*. In IAP-treated cells 
(n = 3; Fig. 7), application of ISO (10^{-6} M) significantly increased \( I_{Ca} \) (150 ± 20 pA in 
control to 1,350 ± 200 pA, \( n = 3 \)) even in the presence of ACh (10^{-5} M). The 
effect of ACh on \( I_{K(ADP)} \) was also abolished after IAP treatment. Atropine (10^{-6} M) 
failed to further increase \( I_{Ca} \), indicating that IAP completely removed the effect of 
ACh on \( I_{Ca} \). These results indicate that the GTP-binding proteins that are ADP-
ribosylated by IAP mediate the effects of ACh on \( I_{Ca} \) and \( I_{K(ADP)} \). An earlier abstract 
from our laboratory (Shibata et al., 1986) reported that IAP treatment did not block 
the activation of \( I_{K(ADP)} \). These incorrect findings appear to have resulted from the 
exposure time to IAP, which was too short at room temperature.

To obtain further insight into the molecular mechanisms of these ACh effects, a 
nonhydrolyzable GTP analogue, GTP\( \gamma \)S, was dialyzed into the cell from the record-
ning pipette (Fig. 8). GTP\( \gamma \)S (5 × 10^{-4} M) activated \( I_{K(ADP)} \) gradually, as indicated by 
the slow increase in the holding current in the outward direction. In addition, the 
application of GTP\( \gamma \)S almost completely inhibited the effect of ISO (10^{-6} M) on \( I_{Ca} \) 
even in the absence of ACh. However, \( I_{Ca} \) could still be increased by subsequent 
application of forskolin (5 × 10^{-5} M). These results and the data in Fig. 6 show (a) 
that forskolin (50 \( \mu \)M) can overcome the inhibitory effects of either ACh or GTP\( \gamma \)S 
on \( I_{Ca} \), and (b) that GTP\( \gamma \)S can activate the \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) protein directly, i.e., even 
without an agonist being present. After the effects of GTP\( \gamma \)S were fully developed, 
subsequent application of ACh did not activate \( I_{K(ADP)} \) any further, indicating that the 
\( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) proteins were maximally activated by this GTP\( \gamma \)S concentration 
(5 × 10^{-4} M). These results also suggest that in bullfrog atrial cells, maximum 
activation of \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) proteins can overcome the effects of activation of \( G_s \).

GTP\( \gamma \)S was also dialyzed into IAP-treated atrial cells. Application of GTP\( \gamma \)S (500 
\( \mu \)M) activated \( I_{K(ADP)} \) and also inhibited the effect of ISO (10^{-6} M) on \( I_{Ca} \) (not shown, 
\( n = 3 \)), which suggests that IAP blocks the coupling between the muscarinic 
receptors and GTP-binding proteins, but that it does not affect the coupling between 
\( G \) proteins and adenylate cyclase or \( I_{K(ADP)} \). In summary, our results are consistent 
with a molecular pharmacological scheme in which ACh exerts its inhibition effect on 
adenylate cyclase via the activation of \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) proteins. The ACh-induced 
effect, mediated by \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \), can override that of the stimulatory \( G \) protein (\( G_s \)) 
effect. In contrast, activation of the catalytic subunit of adenylate cyclase by forskolin 
can overcome the inhibitory effects of even maximal doses of ACh.

**DISCUSSION**

**Summary of Findings**

These experiments have confirmed that in frog atrium ACh activates an inwardly 
rectifying K\(^+\) current, \( I_{K(ADP)} \), and that this effect is mediated by the inhibitory 
GTP-binding protein(s) (\( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \)), which can be ADP-ribosylated by IAP and 
thus uncoupled from the muscarinic receptor (cf. Clark et al., 1990). ACh can 
antagonize the stimulatory effects of \( \beta \)-adrenergic agonists on \( I_{Ca} \). This effect is also 
mediated via \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \). The effects of \( G_i \) and/or \( G_o \) appear to be able to override 
those of the stimulatory \( G \) protein (\( G_s \)) on adenylate cyclase activity, since ACh can 
among completely inhibit the effect of \( \beta \)-adrenergic agonists on \( I_{Ca} \).
Figure 8. Effect of a nonhydrolyzable GTP analogue (GTPγS) on the ISO- and forskolin-induced increase in $I_{Ca}$. GTPγS (500 μM) was applied by dialysis through the recording electrode. The current trace (a) was recorded immediately after impalement of the cell. After GTPγS had diffused into the cell $I_{Ca}$ (b) gradually increased. Subsequent application of $10^{-6}$ M ISO (b) failed to increase $I_{Ca}$ significantly, but $5 \times 10^{-5}$ M forskolin still augmented $I_{Ca}$ (c). However, the subsequent application of $10^{-5}$ M ACh (d) did not increase $I_{Ca}$ any further and also failed to block the effect of forskolin on $I_{Ca}$. The current traces shown in A were recorded at the times indicated by the corresponding letters in B.
Direct Inhibition of Adenylate Cyclase by ACh

A direct inhibitory action of the dissociated subunit of a G protein (probably the αₗ-subunit) on the catalytic activity of the adenylate cyclase, appears to be involved in the inhibitory effect of ACh on ICₐ. Several possible mechanisms for the Gₐ- or Gₐ₃-mediated inhibitory effects of ACh on adenylate cyclase have been proposed. One possibility is that the βγ-subunit that is released from Gₐ and/or Gₐ₃ after stimulation of muscarinic receptors may interact indirectly with free αₗ-subunit of Gₐ to promote formation of an inactive Gₐ₃ oligomer. Alternatively, αₗ may compete directly with Gₐ for the same locus on the catalytic site of adenylate cyclase (Katada et al., 1984, 1986). It is still not clear whether the effect of ACh on adenylate cyclase is mediated by the direct inhibition of its catalytic subunit (C), whether it is mediated indirectly via changes in the efficacy of Gₐ-C interaction, or whether a combination of both mechanisms is involved (Gilman, 1984; Katada et al., 1986; Birnbaumer, 1987). In frog atrial cells our results favor the direct mechanism. If the indirect action of βγ-subunit was predominant, the activation of Gₐ by GTPγS would be expected to irreversibly stimulate the adenylate cyclase and increase ICₐ even after activation of Gₐ and/or Gₐ₃ by ACh or GTPγS, since the βγ-subunit could not associate with αₗ, which would be bound to GTPγS (Fleming and Watabe, 1988). However, as shown in Fig. 8, in frog atrial cells GTPγS (50 µM–1 mM) by itself activated I_KACh, but ICₐ was not increased significantly. Moreover, when GTPγS (500 µM) was applied after pretreatment with ISO (10⁻⁶ M) to activate Gₐ (Schramm and Rodbell, 1975) (Fig. 9), ICₐ was first increased (by ISO), but as cytosolic GTPγS levels increased ICₐ gradually decreased, and I_KACh also increased. Thus, we conclude that in frog atrial cells ACh inhibits the effect of β-receptor agonists, mainly by a direct action of the α-subunit of Gₐ on adenylate cyclase. This direct action of ACh on adenylate cyclase can also inhibit the effect of forskolin.

Activation of I_KACh by the Nonhydrolyzable GTP Analogue, GTPγS

ACh activates a specific inwardly rectifying K⁺ channel in frog atrial cells (Momose et al., 1984; Breitwieser and Szabo, 1985; Simmons and Hartzell, 1987; Clark et al., 1990) and in mammalian atrial cells (Soejima and Noma, 1984; Kurachi et al., 1986a, b). Recent studies on mammalian atrial cells have shown that the GTP-binding proteins are essential for the activation of these K⁺ channels by muscarinic agonists. The following findings support this hypothesis. When nonhydrolyzable GTP analogues (e.g., GTPγS, Gpp(NH)p) are applied, a persistent activation of I_KACh is observed (Kurachi et al., 1986b; Breitwieser and Szabo, 1985). IAP, which ADP-ribosylates the G proteins (Gₐ and/or Gₐ₃) (Katada and Ui, 1982; Ui, 1984), eliminates this activation of the K⁺ channel by ACh (Pfaffinger et al., 1985; Kurachi et al., 1986b). Recent demonstrations that the bath applications of the βγ-subunit of Gₐ and/or Gₐ₃ can activate I_KACh (Logothetis et al., 1987; Yanati et al., 1987a) may provide further insight into the mechanism(s) of activation of this K⁺ current by ACh.

Pfaffinger et al. (1985) and Breitwieser and Szabo (1985) have shown that G proteins are involved in the activation of I_KACh. Our results confirm these findings. The application of the nonhydrolyzable GTP analogue (GTPγS) consistently activated I_KACh, and IAP abolished the effect of ACh-induced K⁺ current. This result is
somewhat different from those of Breitwieser and Szabo (1985) and Simmons and Hartzell (1987). In both of these studies a different nonhydrolyzable GTP analogue (Gpp(NH)p) failed to activate $I_{KACO}$ in the absence of ACh. It is possible that this difference can be explained by the choice of GTP analogues and/or their concentrations. The failure of Gpp(NH)p to activate $I_{KACO}$ may indicate that the ratio of Gpp(NH)p/GTP in their preparations was too low to allow significant agonist-independent activation, since they used low pipette concentrations of Gpp(NH)p.

![Figure 9](https://jgp.rupress.org/)

**Figure 9.** The effects of GTPγS on ISO-enhanced $I_{G}$. 10^{-6} M ISO was bath applied before the disruption of the membrane as indicated by the open triangle at the top of the figure. GTPγS (500 μM) was applied by dialysis through the recording micropipette. Current traces taken at the times indicated by the letters (a–c) are superimposed in the inset of the lower panel. Note that after application of ISO (10^{-6} M) $I_{G}$ first increased (b), but then gradually decreased (c) as GTPγS diffused into the cell. $I_{KACO}$ also increased (b–c) as GTPγS diffused into the cell.

and did not “clamp” the GTP concentration (Breitwieser and Szabo, 1988). Our results show that GTPγS (500 μM) can consistently activate $I_{KACO}$ even in the absence of ACh, and that this effect reaches a steady-state level within several minutes. Subsequent application of ACh did not further increase $I_{KACO}$, indicating that the GTP-binding protein coupled to $I_{KACO}$ was activated maximally by the (GTPγS). In addition, our results confirm that IAP selectively uncouples the G protein(s) from the muscarinic receptor (Cote et al., 1984; Logothetis et al., 1987),
because even in IAP-treated cells the application of GTPγS could activate $I_{K(ACh)}$ in the absence of ACh.

Muscarinic Inhibition of $I_{Ca}$

In frog atrial and ventricular cells in normal Ringer's only a single type of Ca current can be detected. It is sensitive to dihydropyridines and resembles I. type Ca current in other preparations, including mammalian cardiac cells (Argibay et al., 1988; Campbell et al., 1988).

It is now well known that in frog and mammalian myocardial cells AcH can inhibit $I_{Ca}$ in the presence of β-adrenergic agonists (Breitwieser and Szabo, 1985; Fischmeister and Hartzell, 1986; Shibata et al., 1986). In frog atrium AcH appears to inhibit the action of β-adrenergic agonists in a noncompetitive manner, since AcH (10⁻⁵ M) almost completely inhibited the ISO-induced increase in $I_{Ca}$ even in the presence of saturating concentrations of ISO (>10⁻⁸ M), consistent with the findings of Fischmeister and Shrier (1989) in frog ventricular cells. We attempted to determine whether the mechanism of this inhibition is different in frog cells than in mammalian myocytes. Biochemical studies have shown that in mammalian ventricular cells muscarinic agonists inhibit the effects of β-adrenergic agonists on the adenylate cyclase by an indirect action of the βγ-subunits released from G proteins (G_i and/or G_o) (Fleming and Watanabe, 1988). Consistent with this hypothesis, (a) basal adenylate cyclase activity and (b) activation of this enzyme by the nonhydrolyzable GTP analogues could not be inhibited by muscarinic agonists. Hescheler et al. (1986) have shown that AcH can antagonize the activation of adenylate cyclase by β-agonists via mechanisms involving GTP-binding proteins (probably G_i) and that it can inhibit Ca channel phosphorylation and thus decrease $I_{Ca}$. Complementary biochemical evidence for this hypothesis has also been obtained (Hazeki and Ui, 1981; Endoh et al., 1985; Sorota et al., 1985). In frog atrial cells, Breitwieser and Szabo (1985) found that the anti-β-adrenergic effect of AcH is mediated by a GTP-binding protein, and Shibata et al. (1986) have shown that GTPγS can inhibit the stimulatory effect of ISO on $I_{Ca}$. Our results confirm that AcH inhibits β-adrenergic effects on $I_{Ca}$ and show that this inhibition is mediated by a GTP-binding protein, probably G_i and/or G_o, as it is in mammalian myocytes.

These findings differ from some of the results obtained using mammalian heart cells (Hescheler et al., 1986). In guinea pig ventricular cells the application of a nonhydrolyzable GTP analogue (Gpp(NH)p) increased $I_{Ca}$, an effect that is opposite to our finding. It is unlikely that it is due solely to the difference of nonhydrolyzable GTP analogues, since we have also observed that in rabbit ventricular cells GTPγS (100–300 μM) alone can increase $I_{Ca}$ irreversibly (unpublished results). These different responses to nonhydrolyzable GTP analogues could be due to differences between frog atrial cells and mammalian ventricular myocytes in potency for stimulation and/or inhibition of the adenylate cyclase via the stimulatory G protein or the inhibitory G protein. It is possible that in frog atrial cells maximal activation of G_i by GTPγS can overcome the effects of GTPγS on G_o, while in mammalian ventricular cells this cannot happen. This hypothesis is also compatible with the observation that in mammalian myocytes the inhibitory effect of AcH could be overcome by large concentrations of ISO (Hescheler et al., 1986), while in frog atrial
and/or ventricular cells (Fischmeister and Shrier, 1989) this effect of ISO has not been observed.

The inhibitory effects of ACh on $I_{Ca}$ have been hypothesized to be caused by several different mechanisms: (a) activation of a cyclic GMP-dependent phosphodiesterase (Fischmeister and Hartzell, 1987); (b) stimulation of a protein phosphatase (Watanabe et al., 1984); and/or (c) activation of protein kinase C (Shibata et al., 1986; Lacerda et al., 1988). All of these hypotheses require the inhibitory effects of ACh to be mediated by biochemical events distal to adenylate cyclase. Our results indicate that this is unlikely. Thus, the application of cAMP increased $I_{Ca}$ in a dose-dependent manner; however, simultaneous application of ACh did not affect the time course of this cAMP-induced increase of $I_{Ca}$ even when very low doses of cAMP ($10^{-5}$ M) were used. This result is somewhat similar to the finding of Fischmeister and Hartzell (1986). Furthermore, ACh can block the effect of isoproterenol on $I_{Ca}$ even in the presence of the phosphodiesterase inhibitor IBMX ($5 \times 10^{-4}$ M, results not shown). In combination, these results suggest that the site of ACh action is mainly proximal to cAMP production. The role of changes in cGMP in these muscarinic actions of ACh remains unclear (Keely and Lincoln, 1978; Shibata et al., 1986; Fischmeister and Hartzell, 1987).

Recently it has been reported that in mammalian ventricular cells $G_s$ can directly activate Ca channels, independently of cAMP (Yatani et al., 1987b; Brown and Birnbaumer, 1988; Yatani and Brown, 1989; Pelzer et al., 1990). Our data suggest that this direct coupling may not be present in frog atrium. Thus, in our experiments the time course of the effect of isoproterenol on $I_{Ca}$ is different from that of ACh on $I_{K(AC)}$, which is the best-known example of a direct effect of a G protein. In addition, the application of GTP$\gamma$S did not significantly increase $I_{Ca}$ even though $I_{K(AC)}$ was activated by GTP$\gamma$S. From these results it seems unlikely that Ca channels are directly modulated by activation of $G_s$, as is the case for the activation of $G_i$ and/or $G_o$, which is involved in modulation of the ACh-dependent $K^+$ channel. However, a small direct effect of $G_s$ and $I_{Ca}$ cannot be ruled out by our whole-cell data.

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