# MAGNESIUM REVERSAL OF LITHIUM INHIBITION OF $\beta$ -ADRENERGIC AND MUSCARINIC RECEPTOR COUPLING TO G PROTEINS

SOFIA AVISSAR, DENNIS L. MURPHY\* and GABRIEL SCHREIBER
Laboratory of Clinical Science, National Institute of Mental Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, U.S.A.

(Received 7 September 1989; accepted 3 July 1990)

Abstract—Recently, lithium was found to inhibit the coupling of both muscarinic cholinergic and  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors to pertussis toxin-sensitive and cholera toxin-sensitive G proteins respectively. These findings suggest that G proteins are the common site for both the antimanic and antidepressant therapeutic effects of lithium. Magnesium ions are crucial to the function of G proteins and interact with them at multiple sites. In the present study using rat cerebral cortex, we determined that magnesium can reverse the ability of lithium to inhibit isoprenaline- and carbamylcholine-induced increases in guanosine triphosphate (GTP) binding to G proteins. Lithium concentrations effective in attenuating G protein function were found to be hyperbolically dependent on free Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations, suggesting multiple sites of competition between lithium and magnesium on G proteins. Free intracellular Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations in rat cerebral cortex *in vivo* are known to be less than 1 mM. At such Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations, therapeutically efficacious lithium concentrations (1 to 1.5 mM) were still able to alter G protein function, which supports the physiological and clinical relevance of lithium action on G proteins.

Lithium is used to treat the acute states of bipolar affective disorder and is known to prevent both its manic and depressive episodes. Two principal theories of lithium action have been suggested. The first theory concentrates on the inhibitory action of lithium on adenylate cyclase function [1-4], while the other suggests lithium inhibition of phosphatidylinositol (PI) turnover [5-7]. Recently, we described a direct interaction of lithium with G proteins, a core feature of both these signalling systems. Lithium inhibits the coupling of both muscarinic cholinergic receptors and  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors to pertussis toxin-sensitive and cholera toxin-sensitive G proteins respectively [8, 9].

Magnesium ions are crucial to the function of G proteins as they interact with these proteins at multiple sites (for review, see Ref. 10). The interaction of magnesium with a low-affinity site is required for  $\beta\gamma$ -facilitated guanine nucleotide exchange. Neurotransmitters lower the concentration requirement for magnesium at this site [11–13]. Gilman [10] suggests that neurotransmitters "shift the dependency on magnesium from a concentration range where  $\beta\gamma$  stabilizes the binding of guanosine diphosphate (GDP) to a range where  $\beta\gamma$  facilitates guanine nucleotide exchange".

In the present study, we determined that the degree to which lithium attenuates  $\beta$ -adrenergic- and muscarinic-induced increases in guanine nucleotide binding to G proteins is inversely related to magnesium concentration. Lithium competition with magnesium ions on magnesium low-affinity sites essential for guanine nucleotide exchange on G

proteins is thus suggested as the molecular site for the therapeutic action of lithium.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Membrane preparation. Male Sprague–Dawley rats (200–250 g) were decapitated, and the cerebral cortex was removed rapidly. The tissue was homogenized in buffer A [25 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT)] containing 1 mM ethyleneglycol-bis-(β-aminoethylether)-N, N, N', tetraacetic acid (EGTA). Membranes were obtained by centrifuging the preparations twice for 10 min,  $10,000 \, g$ , at  $4^\circ$ .

[3H]GTP binding to rat cerebral cortex membranes. Two hundred microliters of membranes (0.5 to 1.5 mg protein), suspended in 25 mM Tris (pH 7.4), 0.7 mM adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 2.2 mM Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 1 mM EGTA, and 1 mM DTT, was pipetted into plastic microfuge tubes containing various concentrations of [ ${}^{3}H$ ]GTP (0.5 to 4.0  $\mu$ M), which approximate its dissociation constant ( $\leq 1 \mu M$ ) found in the present study which is in accord with the  $K_m$ for GTP in purified systems [10]. The incubation was performed at room temperature for 5 min (equilibrium conditions), and the reaction was stopped by adding 5 vol. of ice-cold buffer A, followed by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 2 min. The pellets were washed rapidly three times with icecold buffer A by repeating centrifugation and were then resuspended in  $200 \,\mu\text{L}$  of the same buffer. Bound radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation spectrometry by adding a 150-μL aliquot dissolved in scintillation liquid. All assays were performed in triplicate, together with triplicate control samples containing 100 µM unlabeled guanyl-5'-yl imidodiphosphate [Gpp(NH)p], to determine

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author: Dr. Dennis L. Murphy, LCS, NIMH, NIH Clinical Center, 10-3D41, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, MD 20892.

nonspecific binding. Isoprenaline or carbamylcholine was added at a final concentration of  $50 \,\mu\text{M}$  and  $100 \,\mu\text{M}$  respectively. These doses were shown previously to be maximally effective [8].

Adenosine diphosphate (ADP) ribosylation. Membranes were suspended in 1 mL buffer containing 25 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 10 mM nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), 1 mM ATP, 1 mM EGTA, 100  $\mu$ M GTP, 2 mM DTT, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM thymidine, 20 mM creatinine phosphate, and 40  $\mu$ g·mL<sup>-1</sup> creatine phosphokinase. ADP ribosylation was carried out for 15 min at 30° by adding cholera toxin (50  $\mu$ g·mL<sup>-1</sup>) preactivated for 10 min at 37° with 20 mM DTT, or pertussis toxin (25  $\mu$ g·mL<sup>-1</sup>) preactivated for 10 min at 30° with 20 mM Tris. The reaction was stopped by adding 25 mL of ice-cold 25 mM Tris, pH 7.4, and 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> immediately followed by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 10 min. [³H]GTP binding was then carried out as described.

Estimation of "free" Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentration. In the experiments described, Mg<sup>2+</sup> is presumed to exist as the free ion and in complexes with EGTA, ATP, and GTP. An expression for the total Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentration can be written as:

$$[Mg^{2+}]_{\text{total}} = [Mg^{2+}]_{\text{free}} + f_1[EGTA] + f_2[ATP] + f_3[GTP]$$

$$f_i = \frac{K_i[Mg^{2+}]_{\text{free}}}{1 + K_i[Mg^{2+}]_{\text{free}}}$$

where each  $K_i$  is the equilibrium constant for the particular binding reaction. The calculated affinity of EGTA for Mg<sup>2+</sup> at pH 7.4 is 6.3  $\mu$ M [14] and of ATP for Mg<sup>2+</sup> 60  $\mu$ M [11]. The contribution to the sum of  $f_3$  [GTP] is negligible as GTP concentrations used in the binding experiments are in the micromolar range whereas magnesium concentrations are in the millimolar range. Thus, the only unknown in the above equation is the free metal concentration, which can be determined by this computation.

It should be noted that this calculation is a rough estimate for free Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations, as the membrane preparations, although washed and centrifuged, may still contain endogenous metal. The membrane also contains components that may form complexes with magnesium.

# RESULTS

 $\beta$ -Adrenergic and muscarinic receptor coupled G protein function was directly assessed by measuring isoprenaline- and carbamylcholine-induced increases in [ ${}^{3}$ H]GTP binding to membranes prepared from rat cerebral cortex. The  $\beta$ -adrenergic agonist effect was exerted through the stimulatory G protein ( $G_s$ ) as cholera toxin-catalyzed ADP ribosylation totally abolished the isoprenaline effect, whereas ribosylation with pertussis toxin had no effect. Pertussis toxin-catalyzed ADP ribosylation partially abolished carbamylcholine-induced increases in [ ${}^{3}$ H]GTP binding capacity. This muscarinic agonist effect was unchanged by pretreatment with cholera toxin, thus supporting a muscarinic effect through G proteins other than  $G_s$  [i.e. inhibitory G proteins ( $G_i$ ,  $G_0$ )].

These findings are in agreement with our previously reported results [8].

Lithium attenuates both  $\beta$ -adrenergic- and muscarinic agonist-induced increases in [3H]GTP binding (Fig. 1) [8, 9] in a selective manner. Increasing the concentration of sodium ions up to 100 mM did not affect agonist-induced increases in GTP binding to G proteins. The ability of lithium to attenuate G protein function depends on magnesium concentration. Figure 1 shows that elevating the total magnesium concentration from 1 mM to 2.2 mM and to 5 mM reduced the effect of lithium (1 mM) on G protein function from totally inhibiting the effects of both isoprenaline and carbamylcholine to partially inhibiting ( $\sim$ 50%) or nulling the effect respectively.

At each magnesium concentration, it was possible to titrate lithium concentrations that inhibited  $\sim 50\%$  of the agonist effect (Fig. 2) is a representative example of 2.2 mM magnesium concentration). Lithium concentrations that inhibited  $\sim 50\%$  of isoprenaline or carbamylcholine effects were hyperbolically dependent on free Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations (Fig. 3).

#### DISCUSSION

Both  $\beta$ -adrenergic and muscarinic cholinergic agonists induced similar increases in the binding of [3H]GTP to G proteins. The  $\beta$ -adrenergic agonist effect was totally blocked by pretreatment with cholera toxin, whereas the muscarinic agonist effect was partially inhibited by pertussis toxin. In brain, Gi and Go are present in much greater quantities than G<sub>s</sub>, so one might expect carbamylcholine to have a greater effect than isoprenaline. However, in previous studies we showed that carbamylcholineinduced increases in GTP binding capacity are exerted through the M<sub>1</sub> subtype of muscarinic receptors, whereas M<sub>2</sub> muscarinic receptors fail to induce such increases [9]. Moreover, carbamylcholine inhibits  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor-coupled  $G_s$  protein function through M2-coupled, pertussis toxinsensitive, non-G<sub>s</sub> proteins [15]. These differences in carbamylcholine effect may stem from different coupling mechanisms of the various muscarinic receptor subtypes. Specifically, concerning PI turnover there are clearly discrepant observations on the effects of pertussis toxin on receptorstimulated synthesis of inositol triphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) (for review, see Ref. 10). The partial inhibition by pertussis toxin of the stimulation of GTP binding caused by carbamylcholine, found in the present study, may stem from the heterogeneity of G proteins, pertussis toxin sensitive and insensitive, involved in the carbamylcholine effect.

The present study shows that magnesium can reverse the ability of lithium to inhibit the coupling of  $\beta$ -adrenergic and muscarinic cholinergic receptors to cholera toxin-sensitive and pertussis toxin-sensitive G proteins respectively. Lithium concentrations necessary to attenuate both isoprenaline- and carbamylcholine-induced increases in GTP binding to G proteins in rat cerebral cortex were found to be hyperbolically dependent on the free magnesium concentrations. This finding suggests multiple sites of competition between lithium and magnesium on

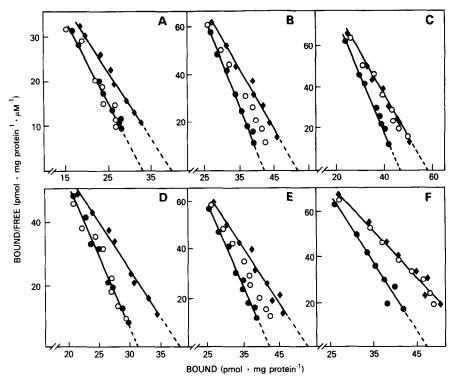


Fig. 1. Magnesium reversal of lithium inhibition of  $\beta$ -adrenergic and muscarinic receptor coupled G protein function (representative curves at 1 mM lithium). Upper panels: Effect of increasing the total magnesium concentration from 1 mM (A) to 2.2 mM (B) and to 5 mM (C) on lithium inhibition of isoprenaline (50  $\mu$ M)-induced increases in [ $^3$ H]GTP binding to G<sub>s</sub>. Lower panels: Effect of increasing total magnesium concentration from 1 mM (D) to 2.2 mM (E) and to 5 mM (F) on lithium inhibition of carbamylcholine (100  $\mu$ M)-induced increases in [ $^3$ H]GTP binding to non-G<sub>s</sub> proteins. Key: basal [ $^3$ H]GTP binding ( $\bullet$ — $\bullet$ ); agonist (isoprenaline or carbamylcholine)-induced [ $^3$ H]GTP binding ( $\bullet$ — $\bullet$ ); and agonist-induced [ $^3$ H]GTP binding in the presence of lithium ( $\circ$ — $\circ$ ).

G proteins. Indeed, multiple magnesium sites, essential to the function of G proteins, have been described (for review, see Ref. 10). An interaction of magnesium with a high-affinity site (in the nanomolar range) is required for the hydrolysis of GTP; an interaction of magnesium with a low-affinity site (in the millimolar range) is necessary for  $\beta\gamma$ facilitated guanine nucleotide exchange [12, 13]. Neurotransmitters lower the concentration requirement for magnesium at this site (to the micromolar range) [11, 12]. The similar competitive behavior of lithium and magnesium ions on magnesium lowaffinity sites on G<sub>s</sub> and on non-G<sub>s</sub> (e.g. G<sub>i</sub>, G<sub>o</sub>) proteins found in the present study may be explained by the similar mechanism of Mg<sup>2+</sup> interaction with the various members of the G protein family [10]. Thus, we suggest that lithium competition with Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions on magnesium low-affinity sites (essential for guanine nucleotide exchange on G proteins) represents the molecular site for the therapeutic action of lithium. Estimation of free intracellular Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentration, measured in vivo in rat cerebral cortex using phosphorus magnetic resonance spectroscopy [16-18], is between 0.3 and 1 mM. Our present findings indicate that such Mg2+ levels can still show a definite lithium effect on G proteins at therapeutically efficacious concentrations (1 to 1.5 mM), thus supporting the physiological and clinical relevance of our findings.

Lithium and magnesium theoretically may also interact on Mg<sup>2+</sup> high-affinity sites needed for GTPase activity. However, lithium ions at concentrations up to 150 mM were found not to inhibit agonist-induced GTPase activity in cardiac sarcolemma membranes [19, 20]. Rather, GTP hydrolysis was enhanced by these lithium concentrations in a non-selective manner similar to effects exerted by other monovalent cations [19, 20]. Also, considering free Mg<sup>2+</sup> concentrations in the brain (~1 mM) [16–18], as well as therapeutically efficacious concentrations of lithium (~1 mM), a theoretically possible interaction between these ions on Mg<sup>2+</sup> high-affinity (~nM) sites seems clinically irrelevant.

Magnesium and lithium share many similar characteristics, despite their difference in valence [21]. Previous studies have shown that lithium inhibition of adenylate cyclase activity, stimulated by hormones [22–25], forskolin [26, 27], or Gpp(NH)p [24], is competitive with magnesium ions. The  $\beta$ -adrenergic agonist and the guanine nucleotides clearly act through G proteins. The high-affinity site for forskolin is thought to be associated with the complex of the adenylate cyclase catalytic unit and

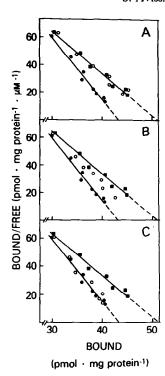


Fig. 2. Titrating lithium concentrations that inhibit  $\sim 50\%$  of isoprenaline-induced [ $^3H$ ]GTP binding (representative curves at 2.2 mM total magnesium concentration). Key: basal [ $^3H$ ]GTP binding ( $^\bullet$ — $^\bullet$ ); agonist [isoprenaline ( $^50\mu$ M)]-induced [ $^3H$ ]GTP binding in the presence of lithium ( $^\circ$ — $^\circ$ ). (A) [ $^1$  = 0.6 mM: (B) [ $^1$  = 1.0 mM; and (C) [ $^1$  = 1.5 mM.

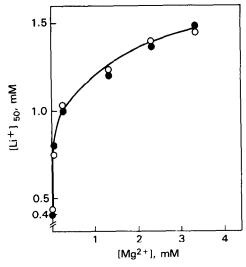


Fig. 3. Hyperbolic dependency of lithium concentrations that inhibit ~50% of G protein function on free  $Mg^{2+}$  concentrations. Lithium concentrations that inhibit ~50% of isoprenaline-induced [50  $\mu$ M ( $\odot$ )] or carbamylcholine-induced [100  $\mu$ M ( $\odot$ )] increases in GTP binding capacity at various magnesium concentrations are plotted as a function of free  $Mg^{2+}$  concentrations (calculated as described in Materials and Methods). Results are the averages of three separate experiments with SE of  $\pm 10\%$ .

activated G proteins [28]. Thus, the ability of lithium to attenuate adenylate cyclase stimulation by these agents is competitive with magnesium and may be mediated through its effects on G proteins, which we also show in the present study to be inversely dependent on magnesium concentration.

Our present findings showing that increased magnesium ion concentrations can reverse lithium action may have important clinical implications. At present, no antidote is available for lithium toxicity. Our findings suggest that elevated magnesium concentrations may be of potential benefit in relieving lithium toxicity. Indeed, Worthley [29] reported that intravenous magnesium sulfate is helpful in the treatment of lithium toxicity. Moreover, one should note that changes in plasma magnesium have been found during lithium treatment [30]. However, a series of acute and chronic experiments in animals [31] failed to find a positive effect of magnesium on lithium-induced death.

Lithium is successful in ameliorating the manicdepressive condition in approximately 60% of the cases. One of the reasons that some patients do not respond to lithium treatment may be increased magnesium intracellular levels, shown here to reverse the effects of lithium on G proteins. Reducing magnesium levels in lithium-resistant patients may prove beneficial for these patients. In this regard, it is interesting to note that a large NIMH collaborative study showed elevated plasma magnesium levels in both depressed and manic patients as compared to controls [32]. However, the technical and theoretical difficulties in measuring free magnesium levels, the intracellular compartmentalization of magnesium, and the complex interrelation between intracellular and extracellular magnesium levels may limit the immediate clinical applications of our present findings.

Acknowledgement—Lee Hoffman is gratefully acknowledged for her excellent assistance in editing this manuscript.

## REFERENCES

- Murphy DL, Donnelly C and Moskowitz J, Inhibition by lithium of prostaglandin E<sub>1</sub> and norepinephrine effects on cyclic adenosine monophosphate production in human platelets. Clin Pharmacol Ther 14: 810-814, 1973
- Ebstein RP, Belmaker RH, Grunhaus L and Rimon R, Lithium inhibition of adrenaline-sensitive adenylate cyclase in humans. *Nature* 159: 411-412, 1976.
- 3. Ebstein RP, Hermoni M and Belmaker RH, The effect of lithium on noradrenaline-induced cyclic AMP accumulation in rat brain: Inhibition after chronic treatment and absence of supersensitivity. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 213: 161–167, 1980.
- 4. Belmaker RH, Receptors, adenylate cyclase, depression, and lithium. *Biol Psychiatry* 16: 333-350, 1981.
- Allison JH, Blisner ME, Holland WH, Hipps PP and Sherman WR, Increased brain myo-inositol-1phosphate in lithium-treated rats. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 71: 664-670, 1976.
- Hallcher LM and Sherman WR, The effects of lithium ion and other agents on the activity of myo-inositol-1phosphatase from bovine brain. J Biol Chem 255: 10896-10901, 1980.
- 7. Berridge MJ, Downes CP and Hanley MR, Lithium

- amplifies the agonist-dependent phosphatidylinositol responses in brain and salivary glands. *Biochem J* **206**: 587–595, 1982.
- Avissar S, Schreiber G, Danon A and Belmaker RH, Lithium inhibits adrenergic and cholinergic increases in GTP binding in rat cortex. *Nature* 331: 440-442, 1988.
- Avissar S and Schreiber G, Muscarinic receptor subclassification and G-proteins: Significance for lithium action in affective disorders and for the treatment of the extrapyramidal side effects of neuroleptics. *Biol Psychiatry* 26: 113-130, 1989.
- Gilman AG, G proteins: Transducers of receptorgenerated signals. Annu Rev Biochem 56: 615-649, 1987
- 11. Iyengar R and Birnbaumer L, Hormone receptor modulates the regulatory component of adenylyl cyclase by reducing its requirement for Mg<sup>2+</sup> and enhancing its extent of activation by guanine nucleotides. *Proc* Natl Acad USA 79: 5179-5183, 1982.
- Brandt DR and Ross EM, Catecholamine-stimulated GTPase cycle: Multiple sites of regulation by βadrenergic receptor and Mg<sup>2+</sup> studied in reconstituted receptor-G<sub>s</sub> vesicles. J Biol Chem 261: 1656–1664, 1986
- 13. Higashijima T, Ferguson KM, Sternweis PC, Smigel MD and Gilman AG, Effects of  $Mg^{2+}$  and the  $\beta\gamma$ -subunit complex on the interactions of guanine nucleotides with G proteins. *J Biol Chem* **262**: 762–766, 1987.
- 14. Chaberek S and Martell AE, Organic Sequestering Agents: A Discussion of the Chemical Behavior and Applications of Metalchelate Compounds in Aqueous Systems, p. 577. John Wiley, New York, 1959.
- Avissar S and Schreiber G, Carbamylcholine inhibits β-adrenergic receptor-coupled G<sub>s</sub> protein function proximal to adenylate cyclase. FEBS Lett 260: 95-97, 1990.
- 16. Vink R, McIntosh TK, Demediuk P and Faden AI, Decrease in total and free magnesium concentration following traumatic brain injury in rats. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 149: 594-599, 1987.
- 17. Vink R, McIntosh TK, Demediuk P, Weiner MW and Faden AI, Decline in intracellular free Mg<sup>2+</sup> is associated with irreversible tissue injury after brain trauma. *J Biol Chem* **263**: 757-761, 1988.
- Brooks KJ and Bachelard HS, Changes in intracellular free magnesium during hypoglycemia and hypoxia in cerebral tissue as calculated from <sup>31</sup>P-nuclear magnetic resonance spectra. J Neurochem 53: 331–334, 1989.

- Fleming JW and Watanabe AM, Muscarinic cholinergicreceptor stimulation of specific GTP hydrolysis related to adenylate cyclase activity in canine cardiac sarcolemma. Circ Res 64: 340-350, 1988.
- Hilf G and Jakobs KH, Activation of cardiac G proteins by muscarinic acetylcholine receptors: Regulation by Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> ions. Eur J Pharmacol 172: 155-163, 1989.
- Bunney WE and Murphy DL, The Neurobiology of Lithium, Vol. 14. Neurosciences Research Program Bulletin, The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1976.
- 22. Wolff J, Berens SC and Jones AB, Inhibition of thyrotropin-stimulated adenyl cyclase activity of beef thyroid membranes by low concentration of lithium ion. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 39: 77-82, 1970.
- Wang YC, Pandey GN, Mandels J and Frazer A, Effect of lithium on prostaglandin F<sub>1</sub>-stimulated adenylate cyclase activity of human platelets. *Biochem Pharmacol* 23: 845-855, 1974.
- 24. Frazer A, Haugaard ES, Mendels J and Haugaard N, Effects of intracellular lithium on epinephrine-induced accumulation of cyclic AMP in skeletal muscle. Biochem Pharmacol 24: 2273-2277, 1975.
- 25. Thams P and Geisler A, On the mechanism of inhibition of rat fat cell adenylate cyclase by lithium. Acta Pharmacol Toxicol 48: 397–403, 1981.
- 26. Ebstein RP, Moscovich D, Zeevi S, Amiri Z and Lerer D, Effect of lithium in vitro and after chronic treatment on human platelet adenylate cyclase activity: Postreceptor modification of second messenger signal amplification. Psychiatry Res 21: 221-228, 1987.
- 27. Newman ME and Belmaker RH, Effects of lithium in vitro and ex vivo on components of the adenylate cyclase system in membranes from the cerebral cortex of the rat. Neuropharmacology 26: 211-217, 1987.
- 28. Seamon KB and Daly JW, Forskolin: Its biological and chemical properties. Adv Cyclic Nucleotide Protein Phosphorylation Res 20: 1-150, 1986.
- 29. Worthley LI, Lithium toxicity and refractory cardiac arrhythmia treated with intravenous magnesium. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 2: 357-360, 1974.
- Christiansen C, Baastrup PC and Transbol I, The effects of lithium on calcium and magnesium metabolism. In: Lithium in Medical Practice (Eds. Johnson FN and Johnson S), pp. 193-237. MTP Press, Lancaster, U.K., 1978.
- 31. Zohar J, Spiro D, Novack A, Ebstein RP and Belmaker RH, Lack of benefit from magnesium in lithium toxicity. *Neuropsychobiology* 8: 10-11, 1982.
- Frazer A, Ramsey TA, Swann A, Bowden C, Brunswick D, Garver D and Secunda S, Plasma and erythrocyte electrolytes in affective disorders. J Affective Disord 5: 103-113, 1983.