

## Blocking effects of otilonium on $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ channels and secretion in rat chromaffin cells

Luis Gandía<sup>b</sup>, Manuela G. López<sup>b</sup>, Mercedes Villarroja<sup>b</sup>, Juan A. Gilabert<sup>b</sup>,  
Ana Cárdenas<sup>b,1</sup>, Antonio G. García<sup>b</sup>, Ricardo Borges<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Departamento de Farmacología y Medicina Física, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de la Laguna, La Laguna, Tenerife, Spain

<sup>b</sup> Departamento de Farmacología, Facultad de Medicina, Instituto de Gerontología and Servicio de Farmacología Clínica, Hospital de la Princesa, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain

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### Abstract

We describe here the effects of otilonium bromide (an anticholinergic agent widely used as an intestinal spasmolytic) on whole-cell currents through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels ( $I_{\text{Ba}}$ ) and catecholamine secretion in rat adrenal glands and isolated rat chromaffin cells. Otilonium blocked the peak  $I_{\text{Ba}}$  current in voltage-clamped chromaffin cells in a concentration-dependent manner; the  $\text{IC}_{50}$  to block  $I_{\text{Ba}}$  was 4.7  $\mu\text{M}$ . Blockade was not accompanied by a significant shift in the  $I$ - $V$  relationship for  $I_{\text{Ba}}$ , suggesting that such blockade was not affecting a specific subtype of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel. When given intracellularly through the patch pipette, otilonium (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) did not block  $I_{\text{Ba}}$ . However, its external application to the same cell (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) reversibly reduced  $I_{\text{Ba}}$  by 70%. Otilonium caused a concentration-dependent blockade of catecholamine release from perfused rat adrenal glands intermittently stimulated with methacholine, high  $\text{K}^+$  or histamine. The  $\text{IC}_{50}$  to block secretion after a 5 min incubation with otilonium was 0.02, 0.7 and 3  $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively, for methacholine,  $\text{K}^+$  and histamine. The blocking effects of otilonium were fully reversible at concentrations below 10  $\mu\text{M}$ . The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel agonist Bay K 8644 (methyl-1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-3-nitro-4-(2-trifluoromethylphenyl)-pyridine-5-carboxylate) partially antagonized the effects of otilonium on  $\text{K}^+$ -evoked secretion and accelerated the time course of recovery from inhibition. The results are compatible with the idea that otilonium blocks  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry into chromaffin cells by blocking voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels. This would lead to a limitation in the rise in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  at secretory sites and to inhibition of catecholamine release in response to stimulation of chromaffin cells.

**Keywords:** Otilonium; Chromaffin cell;  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel; Adrenal gland; Catecholamine release

### 1. Introduction

Otilonium is a quaternary ammonium derivative with a long aliphatic chain (Fig. 1). For years, otilonium bromide has been widely used as a spasmolytic agent for intestinal disorders (Baldi et al., 1991). It has been shown that otilonium blocks muscarinic receptors and reduces the contractions of rat colon induced by  $\text{K}^+$  depolarization (Maggi et al., 1983a). In addition, it has been proposed that otilonium can interfere with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  mobilization, block-

ing both the cation entry and the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from intracellular stores; however, no direct evidence is available to support this assumption (Maggi et al., 1983b).

With this pharmacological profile, we thought that otilonium could interfere with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis and secretion in chromaffin cells. We selected the rat adrenal gland as a model to test this hypothesis because it possesses different subtypes of voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels in the plasmalemma (Gandía et al., 1995) and the release of catecholamines from its medullary cells is controlled by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry through L and non-L subtypes of voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (López et al., 1992). Therefore, this is a suitable model to explore whether otilonium affects both  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry and secretion. For this purpose, the effects of the drug on whole-cell currents through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels and cate-

\* Corresponding author.

<sup>1</sup> Present Address: Facultad de Medicina, Cátedra de Farmacología, Universidad de Valparaíso, Hontaneda 2653, Casilla 92-V, Valparaíso, Chile.

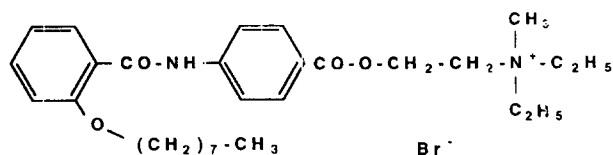


Fig. 1. Chemical structure of otilonium bromide.

choline release were studied in such cells. The results of this study are presented here.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Isolation and culture of rat chromaffin cells

Rats of both sexes were killed by cervical dislocation. The abdomen was opened and both adrenals were exposed. Adrenal medullae were extruded through a small cut made on the cortex. Medullae from five rats were placed into a sterile  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ - and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ -free Locke solution containing (in mM): NaCl 144, KCl 5.6, glucose 11, Hepes 10. The pH was adjusted to 7.4 with NaOH.

Tissues were trimmed and placed in 2 ml Locke solution containing collagenase (0.15%) and bovine serum albumin (0.3%) for 30 min at 37°C. Every 5 min the pieces of adrenal tissue were disrupted by passing them several times through a plastic Pasteur pipette tip. The material was filtered through a 200  $\mu\text{m}$  nylon mesh, centrifuged at  $120 \times g$  and washed twice with fresh Locke solution. The pellet was resuspended in 10 ml of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 5% fetal calf serum and containing 50 IU  $\text{ml}^{-1}$  penicillin and 50  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$  streptomycin, and plated on circular glass coverslips. Cells were used within 1–3 days of culture.

### 2.2. Measurements of $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ currents

Membrane currents were recorded using the whole-cell configuration of the patch-clamp technique (Hamill et al., 1981). Coverslips with the cells were placed on an experimental chamber mounted on the stage of a Nikon Diaphot inverted microscope. The chamber was continuously perfused with a control Tyrode solution containing (in mM): NaCl 137,  $\text{MgCl}_2$  1,  $\text{CaCl}_2$  2, Hepes 10, glucose 10, pH 7.4 titrated with NaOH. For current recording, 10 mM  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  was used as the charge carrier and 5  $\mu\text{M}$  tetrodotoxin was added to the perfusion solution. Cells were dialysed with a standard intracellular solution containing (in mM): NaCl 10, CsCl 110, tetraethylammonium  $\cdot$  Cl 20, EGTA 14, Hepes 20, Mg  $\cdot$  ATP 5, GTP 0.3, pH 7.2 titrated with CsOH.

Whole-cell recordings were made with fire-polished borosilicate glass (Kimax 51) electrodes (resistance 2–5 M $\Omega$ ) mounted on the headstage of a DAGAN 8900 (Dagan Corporation, Minneapolis, MN, USA) patch-clamp

amplifier, allowing cancellation of capacitive transients and compensation of series resistance. A Labmaster data acquisition and analysis board and a 386-based microcomputer with pClamp software (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA, USA) were used to acquire and analyze the data. Control and test solutions were changed using a multi-barreled concentration-clamp device (Gandía et al., 1995), the common outlet of which was placed within 100  $\mu\text{m}$  of the cell to be clamped. The flow rate (0.2–0.5  $\text{ml min}^{-1}$ ) was regulated by gravity to achieve a complete replacement of the cell surroundings within less than 1 s. All experiments were performed at room temperature (22–24°C).

Cells were clamped at  $-80$  mV holding potential. Step depolarization to various test potentials from this holding potential lasted 50 ms and were applied at 10 s intervals to minimize the rundown of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  currents (Fenwick et al., 1982). Cells with pronounced rundown were discarded.

### 2.3. Catecholamine release from rat adrenal glands

Female Sprague-Dawley rats weighing 250–300 g from our local animal quarters were used. The animal experiments were approved by the Ethical Committees of La Laguna University and Universidad Autónoma de Madrid.

Catecholamine secretion experiments were conducted according to the technique described by Borges et al. (1986) adapted for the rat (Borges, 1993). Briefly, animals were anaesthetized with sodium pentobarbitone (50 mg/kg i.p.). Both adrenal glands were exposed and perfused in vitro through a cannula placed in the adrenal vein. Tissues were perfused with a Krebs-bicarbonate solution containing (in mM): NaCl 119, KCl 4.7,  $\text{MgSO}_4$  1.2,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  1.2,  $\text{CaCl}_2$  2.5,  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  25 and glucose 11; the pH was kept at 7.4 by bubbling with 95%  $\text{O}_2$  and 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ . Glands were placed in plastic chambers and the perfusate passed through an electrochemical detector as described elsewhere (Borges et al., 1986). All the experiments were carried out at room temperature (22–24°C).

Pulses of secretagogue (histamine 30  $\mu\text{M}$ , methacholine 30  $\mu\text{M}$  or high  $\text{K}^+$  23.6 mM with isosmotic reduction of  $\text{Na}^+$ ) were applied for 15 s every 8 min. When the secretory responses became stable, increasing concentrations of otilonium bromide were added to the perfusion buffer. Data were normalized as a percentage of initial control responses.

### 2.4. Materials

Otilonium bromide was a kind gift of Dr Carganico (Menarini, Barcelona, Spain). Collagenase A was from Boehringer Mannheim (Madrid, Spain). DMEM, fetal calf serum, penicillin and streptomycin were purchased from GIBCO (Madrid, Spain). Tetrodotoxin, methacholine, atropine, EGTA and histamine were purchased from Sigma Chemicals (UK) and Bay K 8644 (methyl-1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-3-nitro-4-(2-trifluoromethylphenyl)-pyridine-

5-carboxylate) from RBI (Natick, MA, USA). Salts used in the preparation of buffers were reagent grade from Merck (Madrid, Spain).

### 2.5. Statistical analysis

Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. The statistical differences between means of two experimental results were assessed by Student's *t*-test. A value of *P* equal or smaller than 0.05 was taken as the limit of significance.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Effects of otilonium on whole-cell $I_{Ba}$

After a voltage-clamped cell (holding potential  $-80$  mV) was entered, test potentials to  $0$  mV and  $50$  ms duration were continuously applied at  $10$ – $15$  s intervals. As the cytosol dialysis progressed,  $I_{Ba}$  ( $10$  mM external  $Ba^{2+}$ ) increased from an initial value of about  $200$  pA to a stable plateau value of  $441 \pm 30$  pA ( $n = 39$  cells). After stabilization of  $I_{Ba}$  (usually  $3$ – $5$  min),  $10 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium was externally applied and removed, as shown by the horizontal bar in Fig. 2A. It is seen that  $I_{Ba}$  was depressed  $67\%$  upon drug application. The current remained depressed as long as otilonium was being superfused. Removal of the drug led to an almost complete recovery of  $I_{Ba}$ . Note that current recovery had an initial rapid phase followed by a slower phase. It seemed, therefore, as if otilonium partly remained attached to its inhibitory site on  $Ca^{2+}$  channels. Otilonium inhibited the peak  $I_{Ba}$  in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 2B). The whole-cell current was blocked more than  $90\%$  by  $30 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium. The  $IC_{50}$  for inhibition was  $4.7 \mu\text{M}$ .

At  $1 \mu\text{M}$ , otilonium did not change the kinetics of activation, inactivation or deactivation of  $I_{Ba}$ . This is seen in Fig. 3, where full peak current-voltage (*I-V*) curves in the absence (control) and the presence of  $1 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium are shown. No shifts of this curve were observed (see dashed *I-V* curve of current blocked by otilonium). Otilonium blocked  $I_{Ba}$  at all potentials tested, without significantly altering the time course of the current (see original traces in the insets to Fig. 3).

### 3.2. Effects of otilonium on $I_{Ba}$ when given intra- or extracellularly

Since otilonium has a quaternary ammonium group, its intramembrane diffusion to its binding site on the  $Ca^{2+}$  channel might considerably differ if it is given extra- or intracellularly. Fig. 4 shows an experiment aimed at testing this hypothesis.

A rat chromaffin cell was sealed with a patch pipette; the intracellular solution contained  $10 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium. After the seal was ruptured,  $I_{Ba}$  grew to reach a stable

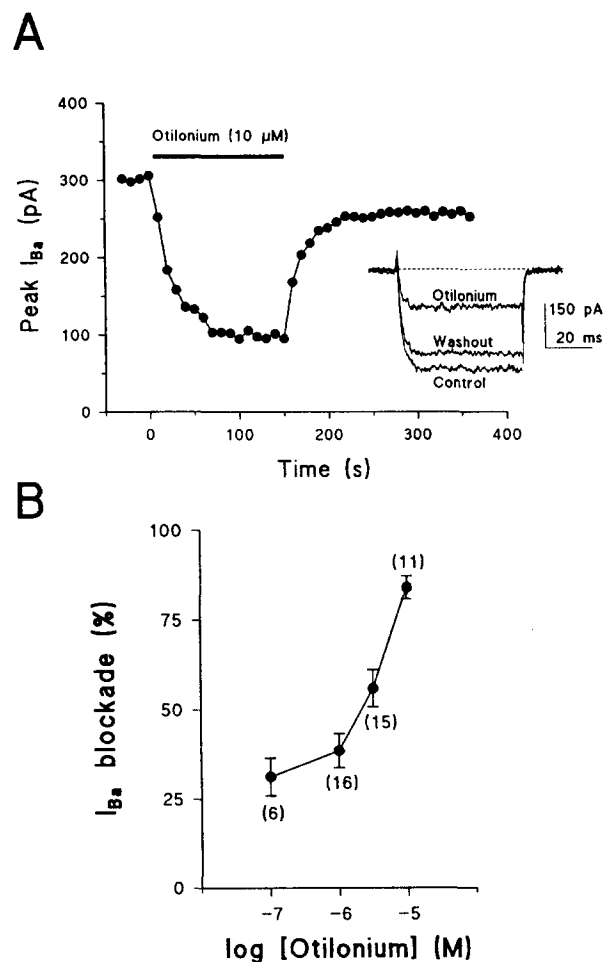


Fig. 2. (A). Time course of  $I_{Ba}$  induced by application of  $50$  ms test pulses to  $0$  mV every  $15$  s, to a voltage-clamped rat chromaffin cell whose membrane potential was held at  $-80$  mV. Recording was started after a stabilization period of  $2$ – $3$  min and otilonium was superfused at time  $0$  for the time indicated by the horizontal bar. (B) Concentration dependence of the blockade of  $I_{Ba}$  peak induced by otilonium. Data were obtained by pooling the results obtained in various cells. Cells were held at  $-80$  mV and a  $50$  ms depolarizing pulse to  $0$  mV was applied either before or after the superfusion of the cells with a solution containing otilonium at different concentrations. Data were normalized with respect to control values recorded in the absence of otilonium; they are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. of the number of cells indicated in parentheses.

plateau. After  $5$  min dialysis with otilonium, no changes in the plateau current were observed. Application of external otilonium ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) produced a quick blockade of the current (Fig. 4A). After wash out of the drug,  $I_{Ba}$  partially recovered. Fig. 4B shows the time course of  $I_{Ba}$  in a control cell dialysed with an otilonium-free intracellular solution. The dialysis of the cell after seal rupture produced changes of  $I_{Ba}$  similar to those seen in cells dialysed with  $10 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium. The external application of otilonium ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) produced a similar blockade and recovery of the current. Thus, the maximum peak  $I_{Ba}$  in control cells was  $364 \pm 41$  pA ( $n = 14$  cells) and in cells dialysed with otilonium  $435 \pm 57$  pA ( $n = 20$  cells). Blockade of  $I_{Ba}$  by external otilonium was  $67 \pm 4\%$  for control cells

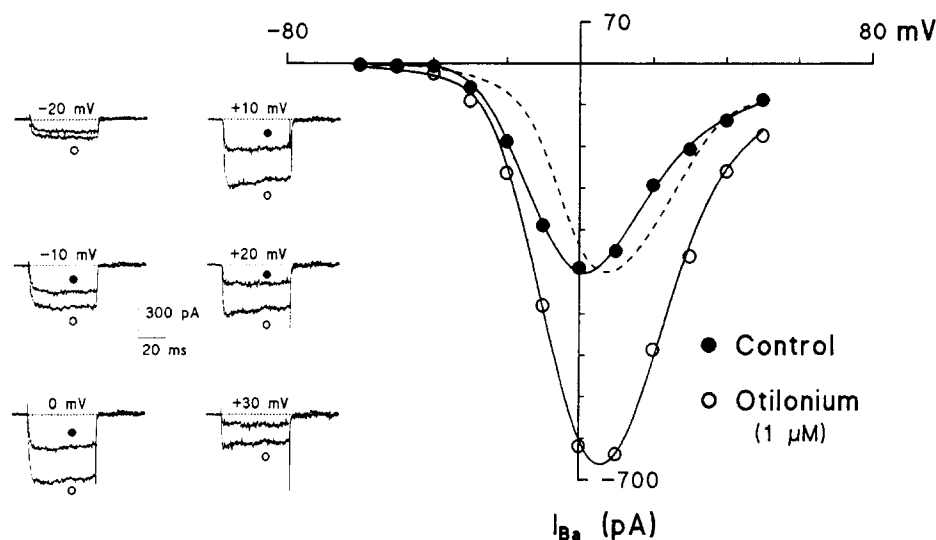


Fig. 3. Peak current-voltage ( $I/V$ ) relationship for  $I_{Ba}$  recorded in a rat chromaffin cell before (control) and after superfusion of the cell with a solution containing otilonium ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ). Dashed line represents the current blocked by otilonium. Insets show capacitative and leak subtracted current traces obtained at the different test voltages indicated. Note that otilonium blockade was similar at all voltages tested, without significant changes in the activation and inactivation kinetics during the 50 ms depolarizing pulses.

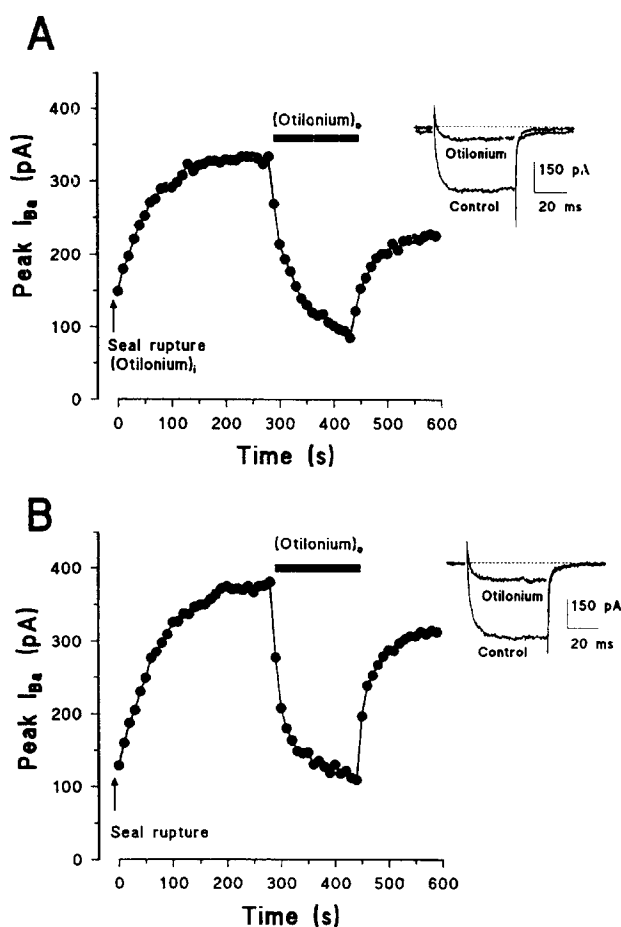


Fig. 4. Effects of otilonium on  $I_{Ba}$  when given intra- or extracellularly. In (A), the intracellular patch pipette solution contained  $10 \mu\text{M}$  otilonium which entered the cell when the seal was broken (arrow). In (B), the cell was dialysed with the control intracellular solution. External otilonium ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) was applied as shown by the horizontal bar. Insets show original traces immediately before addition and wash out of the extracellular otilonium, ( $\text{Otilonium}_o$ ).

and  $72 \pm 3\%$  for cells dialysed with otilonium. After washing out the external otilonium, recovery of  $I_{Ba}$  reached  $66 \pm 5\%$  of the initial current in control cells and  $64 \pm 4\%$  in cells dialysed with otilonium.

### 3.3. Effects of otilonium on catecholamine release from intact perfused rat adrenal glands

To assess the antimuscarinic potency of otilonium, a concentration-response study was carried out on catecholamine release evoked by stimulation of adrenal glands with the pure muscarinic receptor agonist methacholine. These results were compared with those obtained with

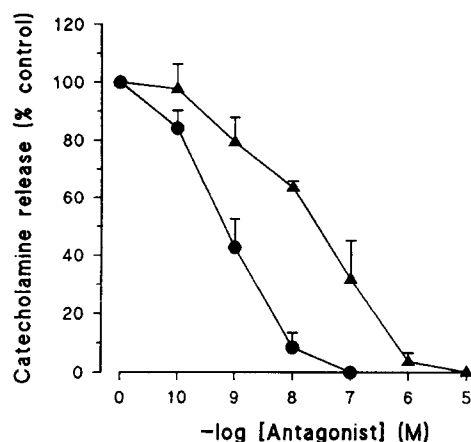


Fig. 5. Antimuscarinic effects of otilonium compared with atropine. Pulses of methacholine ( $30 \mu\text{M}$ ) were applied for 15 s every 8 min. When secretory responses became stable, increasing concentrations of otilonium (triangles) or atropine (circles) were perfused to the gland. Data were normalized to the first four to five secretory peaks prior to muscarinic receptor antagonist application. Data show the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. for four to five different glands.

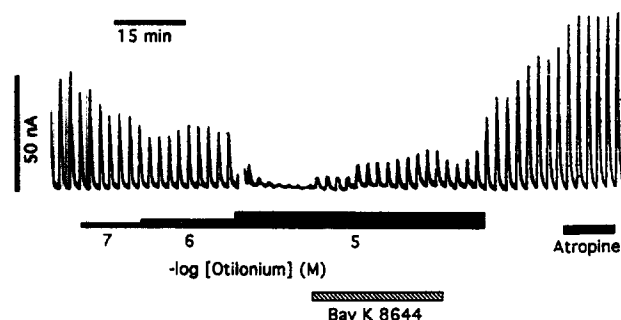


Fig. 6. Effects of otilonium bromide on  $K^+$ -evoked catecholamine release in the isolated rat adrenal. Secretion was continuously recorded as described in Methods. Pulses of high  $K^+$  (23.6 mM) solution were applied for 10 s every 2 min. When secretory responses became stable, increasing cumulative concentrations of otilonium ( $10^{-7}$ – $10^{-5}$  M) were perfused through the gland (shaded bar). Bay K 8644 was then added to the solution as indicated by the hatched bar (final concentration  $10^{-7}$  M). After recovery of the response, atropine ( $10^{-5}$  M) was perfused (solid bar). The calibration bar on the left indicates the oxidation current in nA (approximately 450 ng/ml of catecholamines). Upper solid bar indicates the time scale. Traces show a typical experiment. Similar results were obtained in four rats.

muscarinic receptor antagonist atropine. Fig. 5 shows the inhibitory effects caused by cumulative concentrations of otilonium and atropine on the secretion evoked by short pulses of 30  $\mu$ M methacholine. Atropine abolished the response at  $10^{-7}$  M and otilonium at  $10^{-5}$  M. The inhibition caused by these agents had an apparent  $IC_{50}$  of 0.5 and 20 nM, for atropine and otilonium, respectively. The methacholine secretion responses were restored upon 30 min superfusion with drug-free medium (not shown).

To test whether otilonium had actions other than the anticholinergic action, the effects of otilonium and atropine

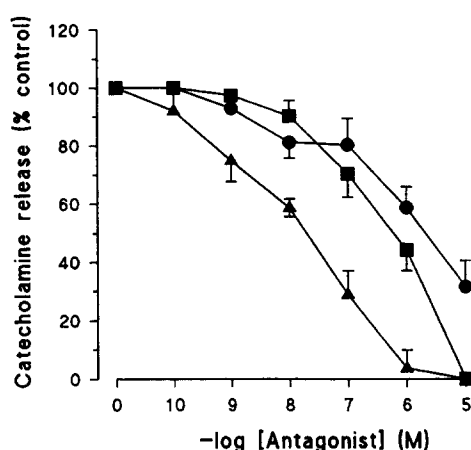


Fig. 7. Effects of otilonium on catecholamine secretion evoked by three different agents. Pulses of secretagogue were applied for 15 s every 8 min. When secretory responses became stable, increasing concentrations of otilonium were perfused through the glands. Secretagogues tested were methacholine, 30  $\mu$ M (triangles); histamine, 30  $\mu$ M (circles); and high  $K^+$ , 23.6 mM (squares). Data were normalized to the first four to five secretory peaks prior to otilonium application. Data show the means  $\pm$  S.E.M. for five to eight different glands.

on secretion evoked by brief pulses of high  $K^+$  (23.6 mM)-containing solutions were explored. Fig. 6 shows typical traces from an experiment with secretory responses evoked by 10 s pulses of high  $K^+$  applied every 2 min. Cumulative concentrations of otilonium caused a progressive inhibition of secretion, which was abolished at  $10^{-5}$  M. The L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channel agonist Bay K 8644 ( $10^{-7}$  M) partially reversed the blocking effect of otilonium. At a concentration as high as 10  $\mu$ M, atropine did not modify the catecholamine release evoked by  $K^+$  (right part of Fig. 6).

Fig. 7 summarizes the effects of cumulative concentrations of otilonium on  $K^+$ -, methacholine- and histamine-evoked responses. The methacholine data are those of Fig. 5. The apparent  $IC_{50}$  for high  $K^+$  and histamine were 0.7 and 3  $\mu$ M, respectively. In spite of these close values, both curves exhibited different slopes. Also, it is worth noting that a concentration of otilonium (10  $\mu$ M) which abolished the secretion evoked by  $K^+$  or methacholine did not completely block the release evoked by histamine.

#### 4. Discussion

We have shown in this study that otilonium blocks whole-cell currents through  $Ca^{2+}$  channels in isolated rat adrenal chromaffin cells, and that the release of catecholamine triggered by methacholine, histamine or  $K^+$  in perfused rat adrenal glands.

As in neurones (Olivera et al., 1994), cat (Albillos et al., 1994) and bovine chromaffin cells (Albillos et al., 1993), multiple types of voltage-dependent  $Ca^{2+}$  channels have been recently discovered in rat adrenal medulla chromaffin cells (Gandía et al., 1995). Half of the whole-cell  $Ba^{2+}$  current is accounted for L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels, N-type channels account for 30% of the current and P-type channels provide another 15%. Because otilonium inhibited almost completely the whole-cell  $I_{Ba}$  in rat chromaffin cells at the higher concentration used (10  $\mu$ M), it seems clear that otilonium does not distinguish between  $Ca^{2+}$  channel subtypes. Thus, otilonium shares with compounds such as R56865 (*N*-[1-(4-(4-fluorophenoxy)butyl)]-4-piperidiny]-*N*-methyl-2-benzothiazolamine) (Gárces-Do-Carmo et al., 1993), dotarizine and flunarizine (Villarroya et al., 1995) their wide-spectrum profile as blockers of various neuronal  $Ca^{2+}$  channel subtypes.

In contrast to the highly lipophilic compounds R56865, dotarizine and flunarizine, otilonium is a hydrophilic compound containing a permanently charged quaternary ammonium in its molecule. This is an important difference between the lipophilic  $Ca^{2+}$  channel blockers that is reflected in the rate of blockade and deblockade of the current. Thus, R56865, dotarizine and flunarizine induced a slowly developing blockade of  $I_{Ba}$  in bovine chromaffin cells. In addition, such blockade was readily reversible in the case of R56865 (Gárces-Do-Carmo et al., 1993), more

slowly reversible in the case of dotarizine and hardly reversible with flunarizine (Villarroya et al., 1995). In contrast, blockade of  $I_{Ba}$  by otilonium was fully established after 10–20 s, especially at the 10  $\mu$ M concentration, and was quickly reversible after wash out of the drug. It is worth noticing that in many cases the reversibility was only partial and some current remained blocked several minutes after wash out of otilonium. Another interesting feature related to the polarity of otilonium rests in its lack of blockade when given intracellularly through the patch pipette, suggesting that the compound has access to the  $Ca^{2+}$  channel-blocking sites only from the outside mouth.

The effects of otilonium on catecholamine release were investigated using three secretagogues: methacholine, histamine and  $K^+$ . Methacholine, a pure muscarinic receptor agonist in chromaffin cells (Borges et al., 1987) was used to test the antimuscarinic action of otilonium in these cells. It was clear that as in the gastrointestinal system, where otilonium blocks muscarinic receptors, the compound also inhibited the muscarinic-evoked secretion of catecholamines with a much higher potency than histamine and  $K^+$ , suggesting a direct action on muscarinic receptors and a higher affinity of otilonium for such receptors.

Histamine promotes the release of adrenal catecholamines in the rat adrenal through the activation of a histamine  $H_1$  receptor subtype (Borges, 1994). We have used histamine as a secretagogue agent because when applied as a short stimulus (i.e. less than 20–30 s), the intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  rise is partially caused by external  $Ca^{2+}$  entering through voltage-dependent  $Ca^{2+}$  channels; at least 50% of the  $Ca^{2+}$  rise, however, seems to come from intracellular stores (Borges, 1993). This could explain why otilonium is a less effective antagonist of the histamine responses and also why a component of secretion remains unaffected after perfusion of high concentrations of otilonium.

$K^+$ -evoked secretory responses are independent of muscarinic or histamine receptors and are fully dependent on extracellular  $Ca^{2+}$ . This can explain why atropine did not affect the  $K^+$ -evoked release, suggesting that atropine lacks any  $Ca^{2+}$  channel-blocking effect, even at concentrations as high as  $10^{-4}$  M. All the effects of otilonium on  $K^+$ -evoked secretion should be caused by blockade of  $Ca^{2+}$  entry. It is also possible that otilonium can have another target like intracellular proteins of the secretory machinery, but it is unlikely that a quaternary amine could penetrate into the cell. Also, the rapid reversible blockade caused by otilonium on  $K^+$ -evoked responses does not support the existence of an intracellular site of action for this drug. This idea is consistent with the fact that otilonium has a quaternary ammonium group and is therefore charged at all pH values, making difficult its diffusion through the cell plasma membrane, as discussed above.

Different types of  $Ca^{2+}$  channel antagonists are being developed to use clinically as spasmolytic agents for gastrointestinal diseases (Feron et al., 1992; Bobo et al.,

1994). In the light of the present results, it seems that otilonium could be one of these  $Ca^{2+}$  channel blockers, and might exert its effects locally on the intestinal wall because of its poor systemic absorption, due to its high polarity. So, otilonium can produce these clinically useful effects at least through three mechanisms: (1st) a well established antimuscarinic action directly on intestinal smooth muscle; (2nd) blockade of postsynaptic L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels in such muscle; and (3rd) inhibition of presynaptic  $Ca^{2+}$  channels and the release of spasmogenic transmitters at the intestinal wall, i.e. acetylcholine, opiates, ATP. Experiments are being planned to test this hypothesis.

In conclusion, otilonium can be classified as a novel, wide-spectrum  $Ca^{2+}$  channel antagonist. Therefore, it can serve as a useful molecular model to develop more selective and powerful  $Ca^{2+}$  channel blockers, both at presynaptic neuronal terminals and at postsynaptic effector cells.

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