

Rapid Relief of Block by Mecamylamine of Neuronal Nicotinic Acetylcholine Receptors of Rat Chromaffin Cells In Vitro: An Electrophysiological and Modeling Study

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Received February 23, 2000; accepted August 9, 2000

This paper is available online at <http://www.molpharm.org>

ABSTRACT

The mechanism responsible for the blocking action of mecamylamine on neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) was studied on rat isolated chromaffin cells recorded under whole-cell patch clamp. Mecamylamine strongly depressed ($IC_{50} = 0.34 \mu M$) inward currents elicited by short pulses of nicotine, an effect slowly reversible on wash. The mecamylamine block was voltage-dependent and promptly relieved by a protocol combining membrane depolarization with a nicotine pulse. Either depolarization or nicotine pulses were insufficient per se to elicit block relief. Block relief was transient; response depression returned in a use-dependent manner. Exposure to mecamylamine failed to block nAChRs if they were not activated by nicotine or if they were activated at positive membrane potentials. These data suggest that mecamylamine could not interact with receptors either at rest or at depolarized

level. Other nicotinic antagonists like dihydro- β -erythroidine or tubocurarine did not share this action of mecamylamine although proadifen partly mimicked it. Mecamylamine is suggested to penetrate and block open nAChRs that would subsequently close and trap this antagonist. Computer modeling indicated that the mechanism of mecamylamine blocking action could be described by assuming that 1) mecamylamine-blocked receptors possessed a much slower, voltage-dependent isomerization rate, 2) the rate constant for mecamylamine unbinding was large and poorly voltage dependent. Hence, channel reopening plus depolarization allowed mecamylamine escape and block relief. In the presence of mecamylamine, therefore, nAChRs acquire the new property of operating as coincidence detectors for concomitant changes in membrane potential and receptor occupancy.

Mecamylamine is a secondary amine acting as an antagonist on neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) (Ascher et al., 1979; Fieber and Adams, 1991; Nooney et al., 1992). The blocking action of mecamylamine is exerted on all native subtypes of nAChRs despite their different subunit composition (Connolly et al., 1992). In vivo mecamylamine lowers blood pressure and can prevent seizures induced experimentally with the use of nicotine (Gyermek, 1980). In view of this widespread action, which remains, however, highly selective against nAChRs, mecamylamine is commonly used to probe the role of such receptors in central and peripheral synaptic transmission processes.

On the basis of measurements of ACh-evoked currents, mecamylamine has been suggested to be a competitive an-

tagonist on submandibular ganglion cells (Ascher et al., 1979; Gurney and Rang, 1984). Biochemical work on recombinant $\alpha_3\beta_4$ subunit nAChRs (the predominant type expressed in chromaffin cells; Campos-Caro et al., 1997) has shown mecamylamine to block them in a nonsurmountable fashion (Xiao et al., 1998). This type of action might indicate "uncompetitive" antagonism, a term which has been recently used to define the block by memantine and amantadine of N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors (Blanpied et al., 1997; Chen and Lipton, 1997). Uncompetitive antagonism may be caused by two distinct mechanisms: simple open channel block or trapping of the blocker inside the closed channel (for a review, see Dingledine et al., 1999). Lingle (1983) first proposed the trapping mechanism based on experiments on ACh receptors of lobster muscle. On submandibular ganglion neurons, hexamethonium and some closely related derivatives could be trapped by nAChRs and subsequently released by combining depolarization with agonist

This work is supported by grants from Istituto Nazionale di Fisica della Materia (PRA CADY) and from Ministero dell'Università e della Ricerca Scientifica e Tecnologica (cofinanziamento ricerca) to A.N. The financial support by the Russian Foundation for Basic Research is gratefully acknowledged by R.A.G., E.M.S., and M.V.T.

ABBREVIATIONS: nAChR, neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; F3, *N,N,N*-trimethyl-1-(4-*trans*-stilbenoxy)-2-propylammonium iodide; I/V, current/voltage; DHBE, dihydro- β -erythroidine.

application (Gurney and Rang, 1984). Nevertheless, mecamylamine did not share this effect on such ganglion cells. Conversely, Nooney et al. (1992) briefly reported that on bovine chromaffin cells, the antagonism by mecamylamine was voltage dependent. The antagonism by mecamylamine of native nAChRs of autonomic ganglia (Shen and Horn, 1998) and of recombinant $\alpha_3\beta_4$ nAChRs (Nelson and Lindstrom, 1999) was suggested to be caused by simple block of open channels.

The present study provides a quantitative description of the blocking properties of mecamylamine on nAChRs of rat chromaffin cells and its rapid relief when the membrane potential is depolarized in the presence of nicotine. On the basis of these results, we applied a kinetic model to simulate the behavior of nicotine induced currents after exposure to this antagonist to understand the rate limiting steps of this phenomenon. This approach enabled us to propose a scheme to account for the blocking action of mecamylamine.

Experimental Procedures

Patch Clamp Recording. Experiments were carried out on rat adrenal chromaffin cells in vitro as reported previously (Giniatullin et al., 1999). Rats were anesthetized by slowly rising levels of CO_2 and sacrificed by severing the heart vessels. This procedure is in accordance with Italian Animal Welfare Act and with Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals as adapted and promulgated by the National Institutes of Health.

Chromaffin cells, used within 24 to 48 h from plating, were continuously superfused (3–5 ml/min) with physiological solution containing 135 mM NaCl, 3.5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl_2 , 2 mM CaCl_2 , 15 mM glucose, and 10 mM HEPES; pH was adjusted to 7.4 with NaOH. Patch pipettes were pulled from thin glass capillary tubing and had resistance of about 5 M Ω when filled with 120 mM CsCl, 20 mM HEPES, 3 mM Mg_2ATP_3 , and 10 mM BAPTA; pH was adjusted to 7.2 with CsOH. Cells were voltage-clamped at -70 mV (unless otherwise indicated) in the whole-cell configuration after obtaining G Ω seals (usually not less than 2 G Ω). Series resistance was compensated by 60%. Nicotine was diluted in physiological solution and delivered by pressure application (10–20 psi) from glass micropipettes (located about 15 μm from the recorded cell). Mecamylamine or other nicotinic antagonists were applied by rapid superfusion via the Rapid Solution Changer RSC-200 (Bio Logic Science Instruments, Grenoble, France). Because the observed antagonist potency of mecamylamine (see *Results*) was similar to that reported previously with other methods of agonist application (Zhang et al., 1999), it is unlikely that pressure-applied nicotine had significantly diluted the mecamylamine concentration at the level of the cell membrane. All test substances were purchased from Sigma (Milan, Italy) with the exception of N,N,N -trimethyl-1-(4-*trans*-stilbenoxy)-2-propylammonium iodide (F3), which was kindly donated by Dr. C. Gotti (Department of Medical Pharmacology, University of Milan, Italy).

Data Analysis. Data are expressed as mean \pm S.E. Statistical significance was assessed with Student *t*-test for parametric data and Wilcoxon test for nonparametric data. At various holding potentials (-120 to -30 mV range) the IC_{50} values (concentration producing 50% reduction in nicotine current amplitude) for mecamylamine block were calculated with the following equation

$$I_c - I_b = \frac{I_c}{1 + \left[\frac{\text{IC}_{50}}{[B]} \right]^{n_H}} \quad (1)$$

where I_b and I_c are amplitudes of blocked and control currents, $[B]$ is the mecamylamine concentration, and n_H is the Hill coefficient. These values were plotted against membrane potentials to estimate

the IC_{50} value at 0 mV. The latter value was used for the Woodhull's standard equation (Woodhull, 1973).

$$I_b = \frac{I_c}{1 + ([B]/K_d(0 \text{ mV}) \cdot e^{\delta z F V / RT})} \quad (2)$$

assuming that the mecamylamine IC_{50} value could be used instead of its K_d (equilibrium dissociation constant) value. The Woodhull equation enabled us to estimate the portion of membrane electric field sensed by the mecamylamine binding site (expressed as δ) inside the nAChR. For this, we considered that at pH 7.4, this agent is almost fully charged ($\text{pK}_a = 11.2$; Goldstein et al., 1979).

Computer Simulation Method. Simulations were based on the standard theory for receptor activation kinetics in response to agonist binding (Colquhoun and Hawkes, 1977). The same theory was assumed to be applicable to the kinetics of antagonist binding in the presence of the agonist. The nicotinic receptor currents were calculated according to

$$I(t) = V \cdot N \cdot P_{\text{open}}(t) \cdot \sigma, \quad (3)$$

where V is the test voltage (mV), N is number of nicotinic channels, P_{open} is the probability of open channel state, and σ is the channel conductance. We assumed σ to be constant at negative holding potentials and to become zero at positive voltage because of strong membrane rectification. Although during simulations we reproduced the full time course of the nicotine evoked responses, for sake of simplicity these were modeled for -70 mV holding potential only.

The voltage dependence (H_i) of a rate constant k_i governing the transition of receptors between distinct kinetic states was obtained from

$$k_i(V) = k_i(0 \text{ mV}) \cdot e^{\frac{V}{H_i}}, \quad (4)$$

where V is the test voltage (mV). During computer simulations, the values for k_i constants were calculated after setting the potential to 0 mV.

In general, based on the mass action law, we formulated a set of differential equations for each kinetic state in analogy with the approach used by Chretien and Chauvet (1998), whereby:

$$\frac{d\bar{P}(t)}{dt} = \bar{P}(t) \cdot Q, \quad (5)$$

where \bar{P} is a vector composed of probabilities of the receptor occupying each kinetic state at time t , and Q is the matrix of transitions between the states. Our in-house-developed program was written in Pascal and used on an IBM-compatible PC to solve numerically this set of differential equations using the eight-order Runge-Kutta method (Baker et al., 1996). The adequacy of the simulated responses to reproduce experimental records was judged by eye.

Results

Characteristics of the Depression of Nicotinic Currents by Mecamylamine

Records in Fig. 1A, taken from a chromaffin cell held at -70 mV, are submaximal inward currents (-320 pA) induced by brief (30 ms) pressure applications of nicotine (0.1 mM pipette concentration). These responses were very reproducible as long as nicotine was applied at intervals of at least 15 s. In the presence of 1 μM mecamylamine (applied via the fast superfusion system), the first response to nicotine (about 5-s exposure to mecamylamine) was only slightly reduced; the extent of the current block, however, was increased with successive applications until it reached steady state (-78 pA current amplitude) approximately 2 min later. On a random sample of 12 cells, the steady state depression was $80 \pm 6\%$.

Once the block was at steady state, its extent was relatively insensitive to the rate of nicotine application within the 0.3 to 0.016 Hz range. Further tests were mainly carried out with 30-ms pressure application of nicotine (0.1 mM) at 0.066 Hz while mecamlamine was administered by fast superfusion. Figure 1B shows average data ($n = 12$ cells) for the time course of the mecamlamine-induced block of nicotine current amplitude with slow onset ($\tau = 40 \pm 5$ s) and minimal recovery on washout. After 10 min, response recovery was $32 \pm 9\%$ of control amplitude ($n = 4$). The reduction in current peak amplitude by mecamlamine was also accompanied by shortening of the monoexponential nicotine current decay from 89 ± 14 to 68 ± 8 ms ($n = 9$; $P < .05$).

When $1 \mu\text{M}$ mecamlamine was bath-applied ($n = 3$), the depression ($81 \pm 2\%$) of nicotine current amplitude had also slow onset and recovery. Likewise, when mecamlamine was applied for 1 to 3 min via a separate pressure pipette ($1 \mu\text{M}$ pipette concentration; $n = 5$), current depression at steady state level was $76 \pm 5\%$.

Figure 1C shows that, on chromaffin cells held at -70 mV, mecamlamine was a rather potent nAChR blocker because, under steady state conditions, the IC_{50} value was $0.34 \mu\text{M}$. The Hill coefficient (n_H) value was 1.08, indicating that the stoichiometry for nAChR block apparently required only one mecamlamine molecule.

Voltage Sensitivity of Mecamlamine Block

Several nAChR blockers are known to display a variable degree of voltage dependence (Ascher et al., 1979; Gurney and Rang, 1984; Buisson and Bertrand, 1998). The present experiments were performed to examine if the effect of mecamlamine on chromaffin cells was also voltage dependent. Figure 2A shows the extent and time course of mecamlamine block for two holding potentials. If mecamlamine was tested on cells held at -30 mV, the depression of nicotine (30 ms) currents was relatively weak and readily reversible. Conversely, a much stronger (and

longer) block was observed when cells were held at -120 mV (Fig. 2A). Figure 2B shows the plot of percentage depression in nicotine current by various concentrations of mecamlamine (at two different holding potentials). This plot enabled us to calculate H (coefficient for e -fold variation in percentage current depression with membrane potential), which was 50 mV. From the experimentally obtained IC_{50} values of mecamlamine (see Figs. 1C and 2B), it was possible to estimate the IC_{50} value ($1.6 \mu\text{M}$) at 0 mV. This value was used for Woodhull's equation (Woodhull, 1973) to infer the portion of membrane electric field (expressed as δ) that was sensed by the mecamlamine binding site. The calculated δ of 0.72 suggests that mecamlamine reached a relatively deep site inside the nAChR channels.

The voltage dependence of the block was also explored by constructing full current/voltage (I/V) curves after clamping cells at several membrane potentials within the -120 to $+30$ mV range as indicated in Fig. 2C. Mecamlamine reduced membrane currents at all test potentials with no change in the apparent reversal potential or in the strong rectifying properties of nAChRs (which allow minimal current flow at positive potentials; Nooney et al., 1992). The mecamlamine-induced depression was proportionally much larger at negative values as shown in Fig. 2D, in which the nicotine current (expressed as ratio of the response in mecamlamine solution over the control one) was plotted versus membrane potential.

Rapid Rescue of Nicotine Currents from Mecamlamine Block Despite Continuous Antagonist Presence

Could the strong voltage dependence of mecamlamine block confer special blocking properties to this antagonist? This issue was tested in experiments like the one shown in Fig. 3A: in the continuous presence of $1 \mu\text{M}$ mecamlamine, after achieving 89% block of nicotine current amplitude, the

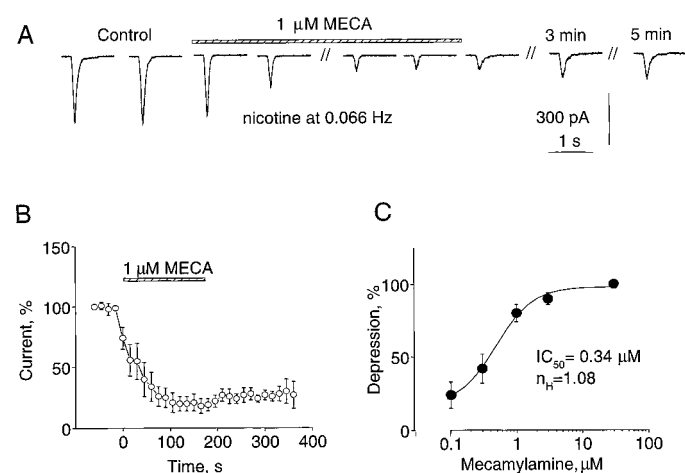


Fig. 1. Effect of mecamlamine on membrane currents evoked by pressure-applied 0.1 mM nicotine. A, control currents elicited by pulsing nicotine at 0.066 Hz are depressed by mecamlamine with steady state block attained at 2 min. Washout is associated with minimal recovery in current amplitude. B, plot of nicotine current amplitude (%) versus elapsed time from start of mecamlamine superfusion. Data are from 12 cells. C, plot of % depression in nicotine current amplitude against log concentration of mecamlamine. The concentration producing 50% reduction was taken as IC_{50} ($0.34 \mu\text{M}$). The curve had a Hill coefficient (n_H) of 1.1. Data points are from 5 to 12 cells.

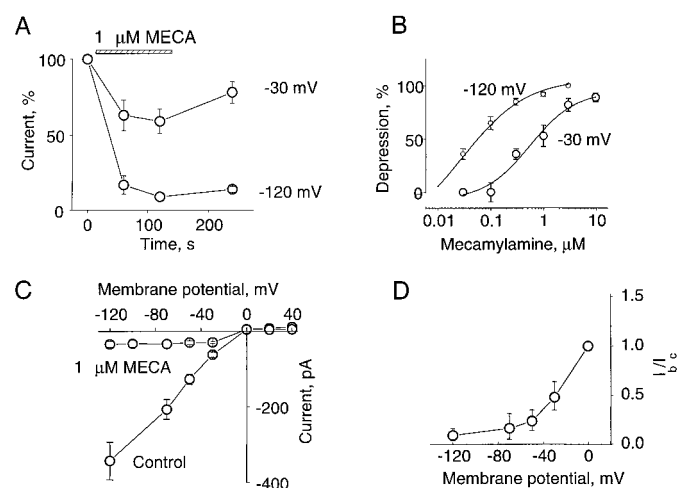


Fig. 2. Voltage dependence of mecamlamine block. A, time course of changes in nicotine current amplitude (%) in the presence of $1 \mu\text{M}$ mecamlamine (applied as indicated by the horizontal bar) at -30 or -120 mV holding potential. Compare stronger block at -120 mV with less recovery after washout. Data are from five to eight cells. B, plot of the depression of nicotine induced currents by increasing log concentrations of mecamlamine at -120 or -30 mV holding potential. Data are from five cells. C, I/V curve obtained by clamping cells ($n = 5$) at various holding potentials in control solution or in $1 \mu\text{M}$ mecamlamine solution. D, plot of nicotine current block (expressed as I_b/I_c ; i.e., the ratio of blocked current over control) versus different membrane potentials ($n = 5$). Note stronger block at more negative membrane potentials ($1 \mu\text{M}$ mecamlamine solution).

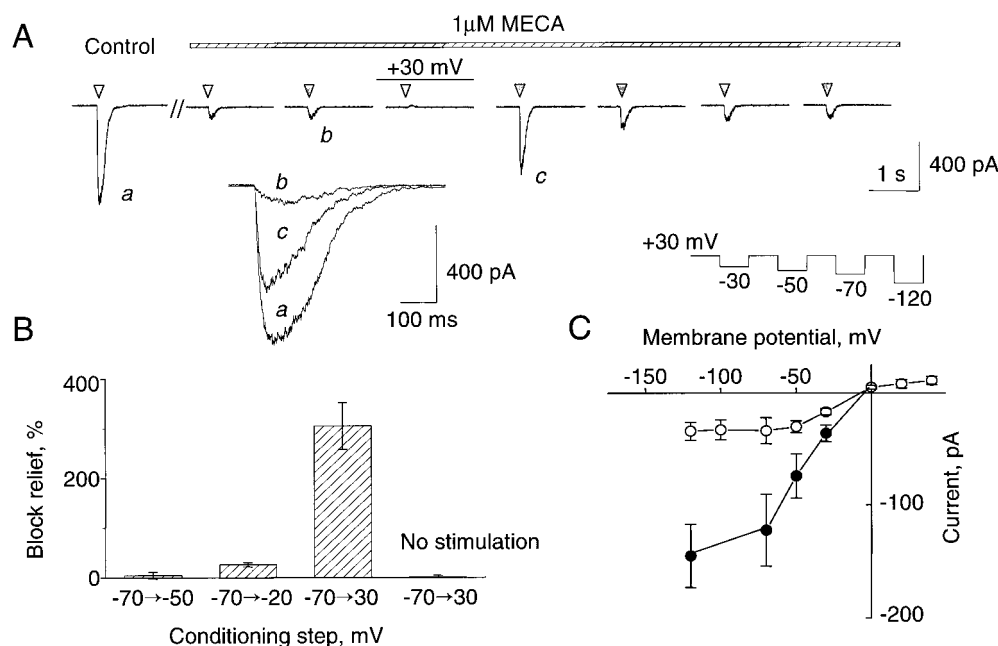


Fig. 3. Rapid relief from 1 μ M mecamylamine block. **A**, control current evoked by nicotine pulses (arrowheads) is reduced at steady state by mecamylamine. After combining depolarization to +30 mV (horizontal line) with nicotine pulse (note slight outward current), the subsequent application of nicotine transiently generated a strong inward current, which was then blocked again. Inset shows samples (a–c) of nicotine currents on fast time base and at higher gain taken from likewise labeled traces. **B**, histograms indicating block relief (as % of the current amplitude before the conditioning protocol) induced by depolarization from –70 mV to –50, –20 or +30 mV in the presence of nicotine or to +30 mV without nicotine (no stimulation). Data are from six cells. **C**, I/V relation for the nicotine current during mecamylamine steady state block (○) and for the response (●) immediately after the depolarization sojourn at +30 mV; $n = 5$.

membrane potential was shifted to +30 mV for 15 s during which a single nicotine pulse was applied to elicit a very small response only (16 pA). Nevertheless, on return to standard holding potential (–70 mV), nicotine evoked a substantial current that was only 38% smaller than initial responses in control solution. The protocol of nicotine pulse application was continued to reveal rapid re-establishment of current block (88%) analogous to the one observed before the transient depolarization test. The inset to Fig. 3A shows (at faster speed and higher gain) superimposed records of nicotine currents in control solution, in the presence of mecamylamine and immediately after membrane depolarization with associated block relief. Block relief expressed as ratio of currents before and after the combined application of a depolarizing step and nicotine was $406 \pm 83\%$ ($n = 9$). Thus, the relieved current corresponds to $64 \pm 7\%$ of the control one.

Using a protocol similar to the one of Fig. 3A with membrane depolarization to variable levels, it was apparent that relief of mecamylamine block was related to the value of membrane depolarization and that depolarization alone (without concomitant application of nicotine) could not temporarily restore current amplitude (Fig. 3B). From data like those of Fig. 3B it was possible to calculate the value of H as 22.5 mV (that is, the coefficient for e -fold change in block relief intensity). Depolarization duration was less critical than amplitude to determine relief of block because essentially the same results were obtained when the pulse (100 mV from –70 to +30 mV) was varied from 0.5 to 15 s.

Figure 3C shows the I/V relation for nicotine currents during mecamylamine steady-state block (Fig. 3C, ○) and for responses (Fig. 3C, ●) immediately after the depolarization sojourn at +30 mV. Thus, at least within the –70 to 0 mV range, the characteristics of the nicotine current during block relief were relatively similar to those observed in control solution.

Voltage-dependent interaction at the level of the mecamylamine-blocked receptors might also have been caused by intracellular Mg^{2+} , which is known to block nAChR currents by deep penetration through the nicotinic

channels (Ifune and Steinbach, 1991). If Mg^{2+} exerted this action on chromaffin cell receptors as well, it might have knocked off mecamylamine from the channel and thus contributed to block relief at positive potential. This possibility was tested in the present experiments by using an intracellular patch solution from which Mg^{2+} was omitted and replaced in an equimolar fashion by Na^+ . Under these conditions, the steady state block of 20-ms nicotine currents produced by mecamylamine (1 μ M) was $87 \pm 2\%$ (5 cells). On the same cells, membrane depolarization to +30 mV in conjunction with a nicotine pulse brought about $362 \pm 42\%$ block relief, which amounted to an average nicotine current amplitude of $61 \pm 4\%$ of the control response before mecamylamine. Thus, these data make it unlikely that intracellular Mg^{2+} indirectly generated block relief.

Prevention of Mecamylamine-Blocking Action

The present experiments were carried out to find out, despite continuous, standard application of mecamylamine, whether it was actually possible to prevent its antagonist effect. For this purpose, tests analogous to those performed by Gurney and Rang (1984) with methonium compounds were employed. Figure 4a shows that, on a cell held at –70 mV, 3-min application of mecamylamine (without applying nicotine) had no effect on the response to nicotine applied 2 min later in control solution. When repeated pulses of nicotine (0.066 Hz) were applied to the same cell held at +30 mV during mecamylamine application, there was no nicotine response in the presence of the antagonist, but a full response appeared after 2 min washout (Fig. 4b). In contrast with this observation, when the same cell was then subjected to the usual protocol of applying mecamylamine at –70 mV during repeated pulses of nicotine, there was strong depression of current amplitude (by 95% at 3 min), which recovered minimally (20% of control) after 2 min washout (Fig. 4c). Similar data were obtained from five cells. In accordance with the use-dependent properties of mecamylamine block, these results indicate that the mere presence of this drug was insuf-

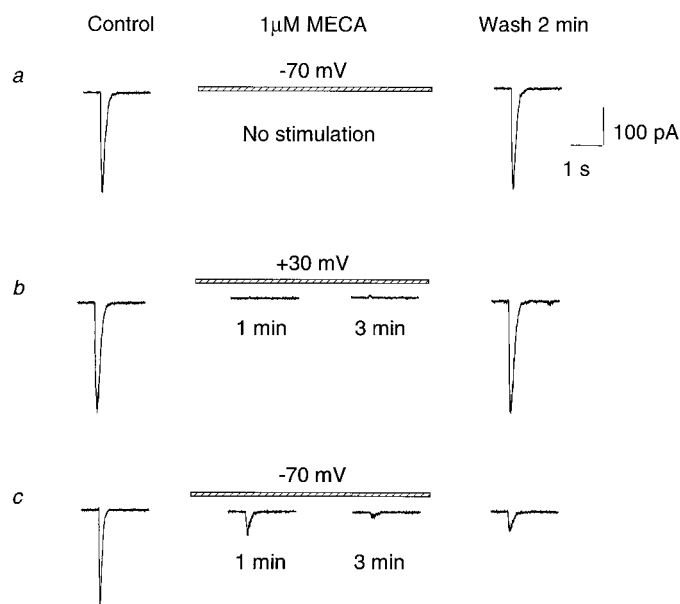


Fig. 4. Prevention of mecamylamine block. *a*, 3-min application of mecamylamine (hatched bar) to a cell held at -70 mV without pulse application of nicotine fails to affect responses to nicotine after mecamylamine wash. *b*, if the cell is depolarized to $+30$ mV and nicotine pulses are applied (0.066 Hz) throughout the 3-min mecamylamine application, subsequent response to nicotine after mecamylamine wash is unaffected. *c*, nicotine response is readily and strongly blocked when applied in the presence of mecamylamine at -70 mV and, despite 2-min wash of mecamylamine, the nicotine current remains largely reduced. All records are from the same cell.

ficient to block nAChRs unless they were also activated to generate inward currents.

Protocols for Rescuing AChRs from Mecamylamine Block Remain Effective over an Extended Period

As the combined depolarization and single agonist application were so effective in producing block relief, one interesting question was for how long after this test the block reversal could still be observed despite the continuous presence of mecamylamine. To explore this aspect nicotine currents were blocked by 1 μ M mecamylamine (87% at steady

state at -70 mV; see Fig. 5A). The relief protocol consisted in the standard depolarization to $+30$ mV associated with a pulse of nicotine, which elicited a small outward current (30 pA). Fifteen seconds later at -70 mV and still in the presence of mecamylamine, the inward current was very large (Fig. 5A, *a*; 330% of the response before depolarization). Interestingly, an equally strong current rescue was observed when the nicotine pulse was applied after 1 min rest (Fig. 5A, *b*; 391%). Even a longer resting period (5 min) in the presence of mecamylamine preserved the block relief (Fig. 5A, *c*) as the current amplitude was 378% of the one before depolarization. On average, for five cells tested at 15 s or 5 min, block relief was essentially the same (Fig. 5B).

As the association of nicotine application plus strong membrane depolarization relieved AChR block, we explored whether this combination could speed up recovery from this block during mecamylamine washout. Figure 6A shows that, after establishing strong block of nicotine currents by mecamylamine, 150-s washout was accompanied by weak recovery in current amplitude (20%) to test pulses; nevertheless, depolarization to $+30$ mV plus a single nicotine pulse were able to elicit a very large recovery (249% with respect to amplitude before depolarization). Fig. 6B shows that on a sample of six cells the restored current amplitude remained relatively stable in control solution after the depolarizing pulse (\bullet , $84 \pm 8\%$ of relieved current at 60 s), unlike the rapid block return observed in the continuous presence of mecamylamine (\circ , see also data reported in Fig. 1B). Note that the nicotine current amplitude 3 min after wash and after conditioning depolarization was $68 \pm 14\%$ of control current, whereas in the absence of depolarization the current was $27 \pm 11\%$ of control (see Fig. 1B).

Comparison between Mecamylamine and Other Nicotinic Receptor Antagonists

The complex properties of nAChR block by (and recovery from) mecamylamine raised the issue of whether other cholinergic blockers also shared similar properties on rat chromaffin cells in vitro. Figure 7A shows that dihydro- β -erythroidine (DH β E; 400 μ M) rapidly, extensively (by $91 \pm 1\%$;

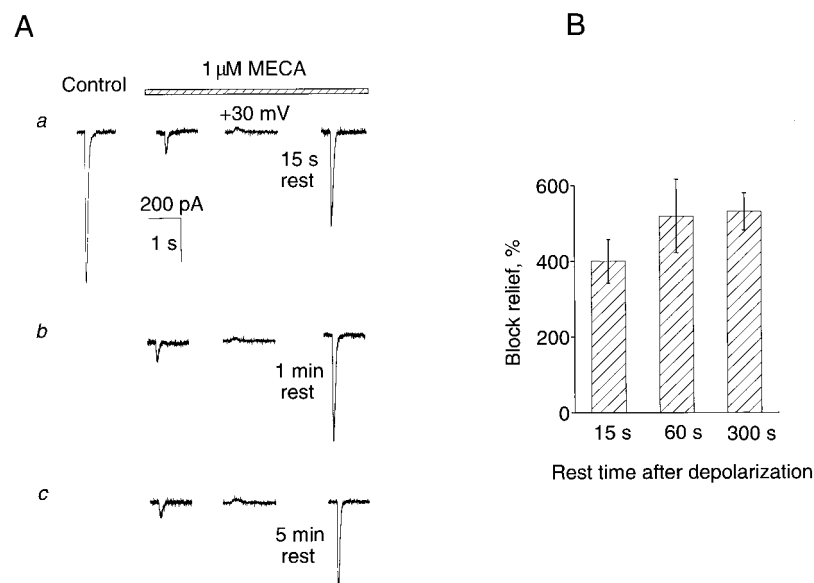


Fig. 5. Relief from mecamylamine block can still be observed after long rest. *A*, after achieving steady state block of nicotine current (8–10% in *a–c*), membrane depolarization to $+30$ mV plus application of nicotine pulse generates substantial block relief (54–77% of control current in *a–c*) observed after 15 s (*a*), 1 min (*b*), or 5 min (*c*) rest. All records are from the same cell held at -70 mV. *B*, bar chart showing equivalent degree of block relief (expressed as % of steady-state blocked current before test protocol) after 15 to 300 s of rest; $n = 5$.

$n = 4$) and reversibly blocked responses to nicotine. The introduction of the protocol of strong depolarization plus nicotine application made no difference to the DH β E-evoked block. Similar data were observed with *d*-tubocurarine (10 μ M; block by $46 \pm 10\%$; $n = 3$), or the oxystilbene derivative F3 (100 nM; block by $44 \pm 3\%$; $n = 30$). Proadifen (10 μ M) blocked nicotine currents by $83 \pm 1\%$ ($n = 5$), a phenomenon partly relieved by membrane depolarization as indicated in Fig. 7B. Data summarizing observations based on depolarization plus nicotine application are shown in Fig. 7B.

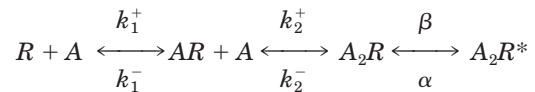
Computational Modeling of Mecamylamine Action on nAChRs

The mechanism of mecamylamine action on nAChRs was further investigated using computer-assisted simulation of whole-cell currents induced by nicotine in the presence of this antagonist and during washout. Data modeling should indicate whether the experimental data could be adequately fitted by assuming either simple open channel block by mecamylamine or a more complex process involving changes in receptor kinetics.

A model obtained by computer simulations was considered useful only if it reproduced the action of mecamylamine in

accordance with four stringent criteria, namely: 1), slow, use-dependent onset of block; 2), attainment of steady state block; 3), very rapid block relief by depolarization plus nicotine application; 4), slow recovery on washout. In Fig. 8A, these four characteristics are clearly demonstrated by typical traces of experimentally recorded inward currents from a chromaffin cell (clamped at -70 mV) exposed to brief (30 ms) pulses of nicotine and are labeled a–d accordingly. The dashed horizontal bar indicates the application of mecamylamine; membrane depolarization to $+30$ mV is represented by a filled bar.

In general, we assumed that nAChR activation and deactivation could be normally described by a simplified scheme (reviewed by Colquhoun, 1998) in which:



where k_1^+ , k_1^- , k_2^+ , k_2^- , β , and α are rate constants for agonist binding/unbinding and isomerization, A is agonist, and R and R^* represent the closed and open states of the channel, respectively. Note that although β has minimal voltage dependence, α has a moderate degree of voltage dependence ($H = 156$ mV; Mathie et al., 1990; Maconochie and Knight, 1992). In view of the short pulse application of nicotine, which elicited closely reproducible responses, we implied that there was no significant receptor desensitization.

Model 1. The simplest case would be that mecamylamine action is explained on the basis of simple open channel block as assumed recently, for instance, by Shen and Horn (1998).

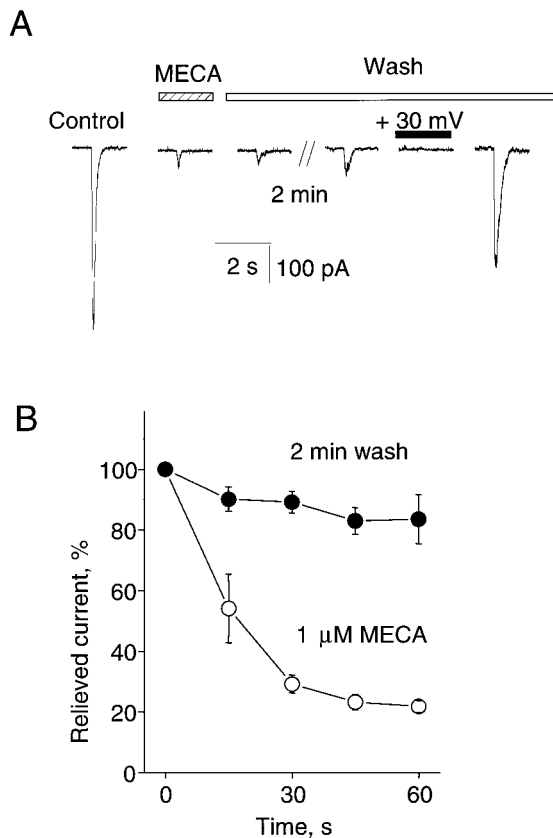


Fig. 6. Accelerated recovery from mecamylamine block by depolarization plus nicotine application. A, after attaining steady state block (20%) by mecamylamine of nicotine current (see horizontal hatched bar), responses to repeated nicotine pulses (0.066 Hz) are monitored in standard Krebs' solution (horizontal open bar). Recovery is slight after 2 min, but it is greatly enhanced after $+30$ mV depolarization (filled bar) plus nicotine pulse (70% of control response). B, time course of nicotine current amplitude (as % of amplitude of relieved current) either in the continuous presence of mecamylamine (\circ ; $n = 6$) or during washout of mecamylamine (\bullet ; $n = 6$). Note that, during washout, the current amplitude remained sustained with only a slight decline ($84 \pm 8\%$ of relieved current at 60 s), perhaps due to rebinding of mecamylamine to nAChRs.

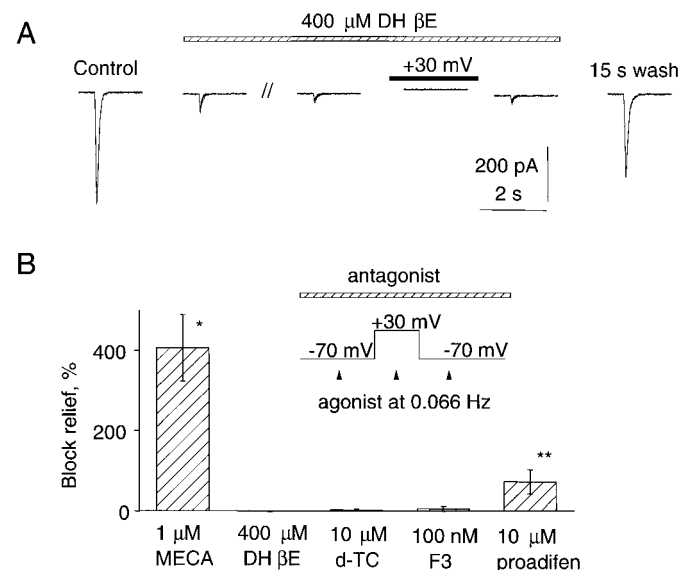


Fig. 7. Lack or minimal relief of nAChR block by various cholinergic antagonists. A, nicotine current (0.066 Hz pulses) is rapidly (<5 s) blocked by DH β E. Apparent steady-state antagonism is obtained in 30 s. Combined depolarization to $+30$ mV (filled bar) plus nicotine pulse does not evoke block relief. Prompt current recovery (15 s) is observed after washout of antagonist. B, bar chart showing block relief (as % of blocked current before test protocol; see scheme in inset) in the presence of mecamylamine (MECA; $n = 9$), DH β E ($n = 4$), *d*-tubocurarine (*d*-TC; $n = 3$), F3 ($n = 4$), or proadifen ($n = 5$). *, $P < .01$, **, $P < .05$.

$$R + A \xrightleftharpoons[k_1^-]{k_1^+} AR + A \xrightleftharpoons[k_2^-]{k_2^+} A_2R \xrightleftharpoons[\alpha]{\beta} A_2R^* + B \xrightleftharpoons[k_b^-]{k_b^+} A_2RB$$

Figure 1 displays five panels (A-E) of electrophysiological current traces from HEK293 cells expressing hKv1.1. A voltage protocol is indicated at the top: a holding potential of -30 mV is stepped to +30 mV for 100 ms, then returned to -30 mV. The traces show the current response to this voltage step under various conditions. Panel A shows a control response with a peak current of 50 pA. Panel B shows a response to 1 μM MECA, with a peak current of 50 pA. Panel C shows a response to 1 μM MECA, with a peak current of 50 pA. Panel D shows a response to 1 μM MECA, with a peak current of 50 pA. Panel E shows a response to 1 μM MECA, with a peak current of 50 pA. The traces are labeled with 'a', 'b', 'c', and 'd' to indicate specific time points. Scale bars indicate 50 pA and 15 s.

where H is the coefficient for e -fold constant change with membrane potential. Whereas the k_b^+ value was taken from Nelson and Lindstrom (1999), the k_b^- value (42 s^{-1}) and its H coefficient (80 mV) were calculated from $\text{IC}_{50}^* k_b^+$ and $1/H(k_b^-) = 1/H(\text{IC}_{50}) + 1/H(k_b^+)$. Figure 8B shows that this model could not fit our experimental data. Note that responses elicited by 20-ms application of nicotine (0.1 mM pipette concentration) corresponded to approximately the half-maximal effect (Giniatullin et al., 1999). Even when we increased β from 460 to $27,000 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Mathie et al., 1991), the model remained unsuitable to describe the data. These observations suggest that simple open channel block was presumably not the mechanism responsible for the action of mecamylamine.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 A + R & \xrightleftharpoons[k_1^-]{k_1^+} & AR + A & \xrightleftharpoons[k_2^-]{k_2^+} & A_2R & \xrightleftharpoons[\alpha]{\beta} & A_2R^* + B \\
 & & & & & & \updownarrow k_b^- \uparrow k_b^+ \\
 RB & \xrightleftharpoons[k_1'^-]{k_1'^+} & ARB + A & \xrightleftharpoons[k_2'^-]{k_2'^+} & A_2RB & \xrightleftharpoons[\alpha']{\beta'} & A_2RB
 \end{array}$$

This modeling test seemed to suggest that our initial assumption of identical kinetics for blocked or unblocked receptors was inadequate. Because Dilmore and Johnson (1998) have concluded that the operation of trapped NMDA receptors becomes significantly slower, we extended this concept to the mecamylamine-bound nAChRs by implying a retarded rate of nicotine binding to them and/or their sluggish gating. As shown in Fig. 8D, slowing β' from 460 to 220 s⁻¹ was insufficient to improve the correspondence of simulated records to experimental ones (inadequate block relief, fast

We next explored whether other steps in model 2, downstream of blocked/agonist-bound/closed receptors, might have been responsible for the phenomenon. In practice, we considered a possible limiting role for the unbinding/binding of nicotine to the closed/blocked receptors. To test this possibility, we reset the β' value to the same as β (460 s^{-1}), and we assigned values to $k_1^{+'}$ ($H = 20 \text{ mV}$) and $k_2^{+'}$ ($H = 20 \text{ mV}$) smaller than k_1^{+} and k_2^{+} . When this difference was 1.25-fold smaller (with a corresponding increase by 1.25-fold in $k_1^{-'}$ ($H = -20 \text{ mV}$) and $k_2^{-'}$ ($H = -20 \text{ mV}$) over k_1^{-} and k_2^{-}), we observed results (data not shown) analogous to those found previously (see Fig. 8D) with a mere reduction in β' to 220 s^{-1} . When the ratio for the constants of blocked over unblocked receptors was raised to 3.5, the current block became too strong with virtually no recovery (data not shown). These simulations suggested that strong reductions in the rate constants of the reactions downstream to the complex of agonist and mecamylamine bound, active receptor were insufficient per se to replicate the experimental data. Equally inadequate were the simulations based on wide changes ($5\text{--}190 \text{ s}^{-1}$ range; $H = 20/100 \text{ mV}$) in the k_b^{-} values only (data not shown).

It seemed plausible that the mechanism of mecamlamine block was complex and that once nAChRs had been bound by mecamlamine, their kinetics were disrupted at more than just a single reaction step. To test this assumption, we run simulations by changing a series of parameters like k_b^- , and $k_1^{+'}$, $k_2^{+'}$, k_1^- , and k_2^- , as indicated above. Limited success was obtained when k_b^- was 190 s^{-1} and the ratio of the constants for blocked receptors over unblocked receptors was 3.5 (data not shown). However, even in this case, the block relief was too intense and required an additional assumption, namely that the constants for closed/blocked receptors were strongly voltage dependent ($H = 20 \text{ mV}$). The latter did not seem a plausible phenomenon and lacked any experimental support. We then turned our attention to the reactions involving open/bound receptors and found the most satisfactory simulation (see Fig. 8E) to match experimental data when β' was 112 s^{-1} , k_b^- was 200 s^{-1} , and all the other constants

Discussion

The present study provides a novel, quantitative description of the strong block of chromaffin cell nAChRs by mecamylamine. Such a block could be rapidly relieved by combining a large membrane depolarization with nicotine application, suggesting that mecamylamine was trapped inside nAChRs from which it could be subsequently released on channel reopening. Activation of nAChRs in the presence of mecamylamine was therefore possible as long as there was coincidence of agonist binding with strong membrane depolarization. Computer modeling enabled us to outline the rate limiting step(s) of this phenomenon.

Block by Mecamylamine of nAChRs. On autonomic nAChRs, the action of mecamylamine is either competitive (Asher et al., 1979; Gurney and Rang, 1984) or noncompetitive (Fieber and Adams, 1991; Nooney et al., 1992), a difference caused, perhaps, by different subunit compositions of these receptors. Even within the same tissue, namely the superior cervical ganglion, mecamylamine produces distinct types of receptor block depending on the cells examined (Shen and Horn, 1998).

The present study carried out on rat chromaffin cells demonstrated the blocking action of mecamlamine to be slow in onset (compare it with DH β E or with F3; Giniatullin et al.,

	Model 1 (Fig. 8B)		Model 2 (Fig. 8C)		Model 2 (Fig. 8D)		Model 2 (Fig. 8E)	
	Values at 0 mV	H	Values at 0 mV	H	Values at 0 mV	H	Values at 0 mV	H
		mV		mV		mV		mV
k_1^+	$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	
k_1^-	$4170 s^{-1}$		$4170 s^{-1}$		$4170 s^{-1}$		$4170 s^{-1}$	
k_2^+	$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	
k_2^-	$8340 s^{-1}$		$8340 s^{-1}$		$8340 s^{-1}$		$8340 s^{-1}$	
β	$460 s^{-1}$		$460 s^{-1}$		$460 s^{-1}$		$460 s^{-1}$	
α	$45 s^{-1}$	156	$45 s^{-1}$	156	$45 s^{-1}$	156	$45 s^{-1}$	156
k_b^+	$23 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	-100	$23 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	-100	$23 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	-100	$23 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	-100
k_b^-	$42 s^{-1}$	80	$42 s^{-1}$	80	$42 s^{-1}$	80	$200 s^{-1}$	
α'			$45 s^{-1}$	156	$45 s^{-1}$	156	$45 s^{-1}$	156
β'			$460 s^{-1}$		$220 s^{-1}$		$112 s^{-1}$	22.5
$k_2^{-'}$			$8340 s^{-1}$		$8340 s^{-1}$		$8340 s^{-1}$	
$k_2^{+'}$			$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$20.4 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	
$k_1^{-'}$			$4170 s^{-1}$		$4170 s^{-1}$		$4170 s^{-1}$	
$k_1^{+'}$			$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$		$40.8 \mu M^{-1} s^{-1}$	

1999), potent ($IC_{50} = 0.34 \mu M$), and persistent on washout. The reduction in current decay during mecamlamine block is similar to that found on recombinant $\alpha_3\beta_4$ receptors (Zhang et al., 1999). The use and voltage dependence of mecamlamine block confirms that the effect of mecamlamine can be classified as "uncompetitive" antagonism. This type of block, which has recently been investigated in relation to glutamate receptors (Blanpied et al., 1997; Chen and Lipton, 1997), implies that the blocker only acts if the receptor has been activated. This form of antagonism is therefore dissimilar from conventional noncompetitive antagonism when the blocker can interact with resting as well as activated receptors (for a recent review, see Dingle-dine et al., 1999).

Mechanism of Mecamlamine Action. Because mecamlamine has a pK_a value of 11.2, more than 99% of this compound will be ionized at pH 7.4 (Goldstein et al., 1979), making possible its interaction with the strong negative charges inside the nicotinic channel (Pascual and Karlin, 1998). This property suggests that, at negative membrane potentials, mecamlamine can deeply penetrate into open nAChRs as indicated by our calculations based on the Woodhull (1973) method.

The ability of membrane depolarization to reverse the mecamlamine block was a striking property of the action of this antagonist. Lingle (1983) had briefly reported a similar phenomenon on crustacean muscle nicotinic receptors. Intracellular processes played little, if any, role in rapid recovery from mecamlamine. Thus, potential involvement of Ca^{2+} -dependent second messengers because of depolarization-evoked Ca^{2+} influx was made unlikely by the fact that cells had been dialyzed with a solution containing the fast Ca^{2+} chelator BAPTA (1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-*N,N,N',N'*-tetraacetic acid). In addition, simple depolarization (which should have opened voltage dependent Ca^{2+} channels) without activation of nAChRs was ineffective on mecamlamine block. Furthermore, we found no evidence to support a role for intracellular Mg^{2+} (Ifune and Steinbach, 1991) in displacing mecamlamine from blocked receptors. The special voltage dependence of the mecamlamine block and unblock should therefore be explained differently.

In this sense, we might imagine at least two distinct mechanisms underlying uncompetitive antagonism: 1) mecamlamine bound to (and came off from) a site deep inside the channel with strong voltage dependence that was also manifested as depolarization-dependent block relief (similar to positively charged channel blockers; Adams and Feltz, 1980; Chen and Lipton, 1997); 2) mecamlamine entered open nAChR channels, in which it remained trapped after receptor closure; in this case, voltage-dependence resided in the processes that control opening and closure of mecamlamine-bound channels, and agonist sensitivity. The present experimental data based on whole-cell currents could not resolve which steps were voltage dependent. However, even single channel recordings may not help to separate a voltage-dependent, open-channel block from a voltage-dependent trapping mechanism, particularly if the latter is manifested as nonspecific decrease in macroscopic charge transfer or reduction in opening frequency (Neher, 1983; Nelson and Lindstrom, 1999). Indeed, using mecamlamine at relatively high (5–50 μM) concentrations on recombinant nAChRs of excised patches, Nelson and Lindstrom (1999) observed that

the persistent, strong reduction in channel open frequency (which might be related to trapping mechanisms) precluded estimation of the channel closed state. Further understanding of the mode of mecamlamine interaction with nAChRs was therefore sought with computer modeling in which we changed the rate constants of one or more reaction steps of distinct kinetic schemes.

Computer Modeling of Mecamlamine Action. By testing the effects of discrete changes in the rate constants of the various reactions underlying mecamlamine/nAChR interaction, it was possible to simulate how cell responses should have been generated if a certain step was rate limiting for the observed phenomenon. This approach had inherent limitations because of the selection of values for reaction constants not directly measured here. Nevertheless, strong reliance on ensuring that simulated responses could match a set of crucial criteria inherent to the action of mecamlamine should have prevented unrealistic conclusions. Modeling results should predict certain receptor properties to be tested in future experiments.

Simple open channel block (even assuming voltage-dependent interaction by mecamlamine with nAChRs) could not match the criteria necessary to simulate closely the experimental data. Further progress was therefore attempted by using a more complex receptor scheme (Blanpied et al., 1997; Dillmore and Johnson, 1998) employed previously to model the action of antagonists trapped inside NMDA receptors. If the kinetics of agonist interaction with mecamlamine-bound receptors were left as in control conditions, modeling failed to meet the prearranged set of criteria. This result indicated that the mere presence of mecamlamine inside the channel could not account for the observed phenomena. A suitable model for the present data was obtained when the rate constant for isomerization of nAChRs bound by nicotine was assumed to become slow and voltage-dependent, whereas mecamlamine unbinding from the channel did not need voltage sensitivity. These observations suggest that, once mecamlamine had bound nAChRs, the latter rapidly converted into an inactive state despite the presence of nicotine. The predictions raised by the present model, however, will need validation through experimental tests.

How General Is the Phenomenon of Block Relief? A trapping block mechanism has first been proposed for tetraethylammonium acting on potassium channels (Armstrong, 1971). The suggestion of an analogous process for cholinergic receptors originated from a report on lobster muscle receptors activated by slowly applied cholinergic agonists (Lingle, 1983). On submandibular ganglia, Gurney and Rang (1984) observed substantial relief of the hexamethonium block but not of the mecamlamine one. On bovine chromaffin cell nAChRs, Nooney et al. (1992) briefly reported mecamlamine block relief by depolarization plus ACh application without further quantitative data. In our study, the characteristics of block analogous to that by mecamlamine were not found with the competitive antagonists DH β E (Xiao et al., 1998) or F3 (Giniatullin et al., 1999). Note that despite the demonstrated channel blocking action of tubocurarine on submandibular ganglia (Ascher et al., 1979), this compound did not share the peculiar voltage dependent block relief observed with mecamlamine in the present study. Weak block relief was observed in the case of proadifen, an agent that facilitates receptor desensitization (SKF-525A; Giniatullin et al.,

1989). In general, one may conclude that the rapid reversal of the action of mecamylamine on chromaffin cells remains an outstanding, although not unique, case. This agent could thus be a tool to identify the molecular structure inside the nAChR channel so sensitive to trapping block.

Functional Implications. One interesting aspect was the requirement for the coincidence of two factors to achieve rapid block relief. One was a selective signal, namely activation of nAChRs, whereas the other was nonspecific cell depolarization. This situation is reminiscent of the Mg^{2+} block (and relief) of NMDA receptors by combining membrane depolarization with glutamate application (reviewed by Dingledine et al., 1999). In the case of chromaffin cells (and perhaps even of brain nicotinic receptors sensitive to mecamylamine that can cross the blood-brain barrier), this antagonist might generate a system detecting the coincidence of pre- and postsynaptic activity (i.e., a Hebbian synapse). In other words, application of a drug like mecamylamine might simply unveil a phenomenon generated in standard conditions by endogenous substances acting together with acetylcholine. Physiological compounds that might possess a mecamylamine like-action are 5-hydroxytryptamine (Grassi, 1999), or substance P (Clapham and Neher, 1984; Boyd and Leeman, 1987), which depress nAChR function by voltage-dependent but incompletely understood mechanisms. Depolarization of the postsynaptic membrane necessary for block relief might be achieved via a distinct synaptic input, which, together with endogenous acetylcholine, might quickly restore cholinergic transmission. ATP (Ralevic and Burnstock, 1998) is one potential candidate for such interplay with blocked nAChRs.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. S. Antonov, École Normale Supérieure, Paris, for helpful discussions and Dr. Massimo Righi for assistance in the preparation of chromaffin cell cultures.

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