schizophrenia (17). With knowledge of the localization of MAO A and B in specific neuronal tracts, retrospective examination of past basic and clinical studies may clarify the patterns of altered neurotransmitter function and metabolism that are thought to occur in some of these disorders.

Our localization studies may also contribute to explaining the neurotoxicity of 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP), which produces parkinsonian symptoms in humans and monkeys (18, 19). This substance is thought to be oxidized by MAO B (20) to the active metabolites 1-methyl-4-phenyl-2,3-dihydropyridine (MPDP<sup>+</sup>) and 1methyl-4-phenyl-pyridine (MPP<sup>+</sup>) (21), yet we find that MAO B is localized primarily in serotonin-containing neurons, which are not affected by MPTP (19, 22). Thus MAO B is not observed in the dopamine-containing neurons in the substantia nigra, which are selectively destroyed by the drug (19, 22). However,  $MPDP^+$  or  $MPP^+$  might be selectively taken up by these neurons (23) after release from serotonin-containing neurons that project onto the substantia nigra or the striatum (for example, cells of the nucleus raphe dorsalis) or from MAO B-containing astrocytes. Localization of MAO A and MAO B and clarification of their physiological roles in the brain may help resolve the molecular mechanisms underlying a variety of monoamine-related neurological and psychiatric disorders.

### **References and Notes**

- 1. J. P. Johnston, Biochem, Pharmacol, 17, 1285 Johnston, Biochem. Futuration. 17, 1253
   Jossi, J. Knoll and K. Magyar, Adv. Biochem.
   Psychopharmacol. 5, 393 (1972).
   B. A. Callingham and D. Parkinson, in Mono-
- amine Oxidase: Structure. Function and Altered *Functions*, T. P. Singer, R. W. Von Korff, D. L. Murphy, Eds. (Academic Press, New York, 1979), pp. 81–86; G. K. Brown, J. F. Powell, I. W. Craig, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 29, 2595 (1980).
- R. McCauley and E. Racker, Mol. Cell. Bio-chem. 1, 73 (1973); I. W. Craig, J. F. Powell, G. K. Brown, K. M. Summers, in Monoamine Oxidase: Basic and Clinical Frontiers, K. Ka-
- Basic and Clinical Frontiers, K. Kamijo, E. Usdin, T. Nagatsu, Eds. (Excerpta Medica, Princeton, N.J., 1982), pp. 18–27.
  R. M. Denney, R. R. Fritz, N. T. Patel, C. W. Abell, Science 215, 1400 (1982); R. M. Denney, N. T. Patel, R. R. Fritz, C. W. Abell, Mol. Pharmacol. 22, 500 (1982).
- 5. L. M. Kochersperger et al., J. Neurosci., in
- R. M. Denney, R. R. Fritz, N. T. Patel, S. G. Widen, C. W. Abell, Mol. Pharmacol. 24, 60 (1983)
- Widen, C. W. Abeli, Mol. Fnarmacol. 24, 60 (1983).
  A. Dahlström and K. Fuxe, Acta Physiol. Scand. 62 (suppl. 232), 1 (1964).
  L. W. Swanson and B. K. Hartman, J. Comp. Neurol. 163, 467 (1975); H. W. M. Steinbusch, Neuroscience 6, 557 (1981); S. P. M. Schofield and B. J. Everitt, J. Comp. Neurol. 197, 369 (1981); D. L. Felten and J. R. Sladek, Jr., Brain Res. Bull. 10, 171 (1983); K. N. Westlund, R. M. Bowker, M. G. Ziegler, J. D. Coulter, Brain Res. 292, 1 (1984); A. Nobin and A. Bjorklund, Acta Physiol. Scand., Suppl. 388, 1 (1973); J. Pearson, M. Goldstein, M. Markey, L. Brandeis, Neuroscience 8, 3 (1983).
  G. G. Glenner, H. J. Burtner, G. W. Brown, Jr., J. Histochem. Cytochem. 5, 591 (1957); N. Shimizu, N. Morikawa, M. Okada, Z. Zell-

- forsch. 49, 389 (1959); K. Satoh, M. Tohjama, K. Yamamoto, T. Sakumoto, N. Shimizu, Exp. Brain Res. 30, 175 (1977). C. Goridis and N. H. Neff, Neuropharmacology 10, 557 (1971); J. M. Saavedra, M. J. Brown-stein, M. Palkovits, Brain Res. 118, 152 (1976); M. Hirapa et al. J. Naurochem 30, 265 (1978). 10. M. Hirano et al., J. Neurochem. 30, 162 (1976);
   K. T. Demarest and A. J. Azzaro, in Mono-amine Oxidase: Structure, Function and Altered Functions, T. P. Singer, R. W. Von Korff, D. L. Imme Ordatse, Structure, Nucleon Anterea Functions, T. P. Singer, R. W. Von Korff, D. L. Murphy, Eds. (Academic Press, New York, 1979), pp. 423-430; K. T. Demarest and K. E. Moore, J. Neural Trans. 52, 175 (1981); I. C. Campbell, P. J. Marangos, A. Parma, N. A. Garrick, D. L. Murphy, Neurochem. Res. 7, 657 (1982); L. Oreland, Y. Arai, A. Stenstrom, C. J. Fowler, in MAO and Its Selective Inhibitors: Modern Problems in Pharmacopsychiatry, H. Beckmann and P. Riederer, Eds. (Karger, Ba-sel, 1983), vol. 19, pp. 246-254; A. M. O'Car-roll, C. J. Fowler, J. P. Phillips, I. Tobbia, K. F. Tipton, Arch. Pharmacol. 322, 198 (1983).
  P. Levitt, J. E. Pintar, X. O. Breakefield, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 79, 6385 (1982); J. E. Pintar et al., Brain Res. 276, 127 (1983).
  H. W. M. Steinbusch and R. Nieuwenhuys, in Chemical Neuroanatomy, P. C. Emson, Ed. (Raven, New York, 1983), p. 160; M. Frankfurt, J. M. Lauder, E. C. Azmitia, Neurosci. Lett. 24, 277 (1981): P. Panula, H. V. T. Yang, F. Costa
- X. Lauder, E. C. Azmitia, Neurosci. Lett. 24, 227 (1981); P. Panula, H.-Y. T. Yang, E. Costa, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 81, 2572 (1984).
   H. L. White and R. L. Tansik, in Monoamine October 2014.
- H. L. white and R. L. Tansik, in Monoamine Oxidase: Structure, Function and Altered Func-tions, T. P. Singer, R. W. Von Korff, D. L. Murphy, Eds. (Academic Press, New York, 1979), pp. 129–144.
- 14. Nature (London) 265, 80 (1977); P. Riederer, M. B. H. Youdim, W. Birkmayer, K. Jellinger, Adv. Biochem. Psychopharmacol. 19, 377 (1978).
- 15. D. L. Murphy, Biochem. Pharmacol. 27, 1889 (1978).
- C. Koren, Y. Pfeifer, F. G. Sulman, J. Reprod. Fert. 12, 75 (1966); J. F. Fowler and S. B. Ross, Med. Res. Rev. 4, 347 (1984).

- J. B. Brown, Am. J. Psychiatr. 134, 206 (1977);
   L. F. Major and D. L. Murphy, Br. J. Psychiatr.
   132, 548 (1978); D. L. Murphy and R. Weiss, Am. J. Psychiatr. 128, 1351 (1972); J. Mann, Psych. Med. 9, 729 (1979); R. J. Wyatt et al., Schizo. Bull. 6, 199 (1980).
   G. C. Davis et al. Psychiatr. Page 1, 240 (1070);
- G. C. Davis *et al.*, *Psychiatr. Res.* 1, 249 (1979);
   J. W. Langston, P. Ballard, J. W. Tetrud, I. Irwin, *Science* 219, 979 (1983); J. W. Langston, L. S. Forno, C. S. Rebert, I. Irwin, *Brain Res.* 202 (198).
- I. Win, Science 229, 775 (1953), J. W. Langston, L. S. Forno, C. S. Rebert, I. Irwin, Brain Res. 292, 390 (1984).
   R. S. Burns et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 80, 4546 (1983).
   K. Chiba, A. Travor, N. Castagnoli, Jr., Bio-chem. Biophys. Res. Comm. 120, 574 (1984); J. W. Langston, I. Irwin, E. B. Langston, L. S. Forno, Science, 225, 1480 (1984); R. E. Heik-kila, L. Manzino, F. S. Cabbat, R. C. Duvoisin, Nature (London), 311, 467 (1984); W. Gessner, A. Brossi, R. S. Shen, R. R. Fritz, C. W. Abell, Helv. Chim. Acta 67, 2037 (1984); J. I. Salach, T. P. Singer, N. Castagnoli, Jr., A. Trevor, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm. 125, 831 (1984); R. R. Fritz, C. W. Abell, N. T. Patel, W. Gessner, A. Brossi, FEBS Lett. 186, 224 (1985).
   S. P. Markey, J. N. Johannessen, C. C. Chiueh, R. S. Burns, M. A. Herkenham, Nature (Lon-don) 311, 464 (1984).
   I. Irwin and J. W. Langston, Life Sci. 36, 207 (1984).
- 22 I. Irwin and J. W. Langston, Life Sci. 36, 207 (1985).
- J. A. Javitch and S. H. Snyder, *Eur. J. Pharma-*col. 106, 455 (1984); J. A. Javitch. R. J. J. A. Javitch and S. H. Snyder, *Eur. J. France* col. 106, 455 (1984); J. A. Javitch, R. J. D'Amato, S. M. Strittmatter, S. H. Snyder, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 82, 2173 (1985). We thank C. B. Denney for her helpful com-ments on the manuscript, W. D. Willis for
- 24. reviewing the manuscript, and J. D. Coulter for reviewing the manuscript, and J. D. Coulter for advice in the design and execution of these studies. Supported by PHS grants NIMH MH34757, NIH NS19543, NIH NS07309, and NIH NS12481 and by the Multidisciplinary Re-search Program on Schizophrenia, University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston.

1 April 1985; accepted 9 July 1985

# Externalization of $\beta$ -Adrenergic Receptors Promoted by **Myocardial Ischemia**

Abstract.  $\beta$ -Adrenergic receptors were identified in two fractions of guinea pig myocardium: a purified sarcolemmal fraction and a light vesicle (presumably intracellular) fraction. In the light vesicle fraction, which contained approximately 25 percent of the myocardial receptors under control conditions, the receptors appeared to be segregated from the stimulatory guanine nucleotide binding and catalytic components of adenylate cyclase. During myocardial ischemia,  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors were redistributed from the intracellular vesicles to the sarcolemmal fraction, where isoproterenol-stimulated adenylate cyclase activity was increased. These findings should facilitate further studies on cellular and molecular mechanisms that regulate adrenergic receptor traffic in the myocardium and may explain the rapid enhancement in adrenergic receptor expression that occurs with myocardial ischemia.

### ALAN S. MAISEL HARVEY J. MOTULSKY

**PAUL A. INSEL** 

Divisions of Cardiology and Pharmacology, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Diego, and Veterans Administration Medical Center, La Jolla, California 92093

Cell surface receptors for hormones and neurotransmitters are actively regulated by processes such as synthesis, internalization, recycling, and degradation. Because the population of receptors on target cell surfaces is under dynamic control, steady-state changes in receptor number reflect an alteration in one or more aspects of the receptor life cycle (1, 2). Ischemia is one example of an altered cellular environment with important physiological and pathological ramifications. Earlier studies have shown that myocardial ischemia is associated with a rapid (<1 hour) increase in the number of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in crude cardiac membranes, and this increase in receptors may account for the enhanced effects of catecholamines in the ischemic heart (3). However, the mechanism mediating this up-regulation of receptors is unknown. Not all β-ad-

Table 1. Plasma membrane marker enzymes in plasma membranes and vesicles from control and ischemic left ventricles prepared from guinea pig. The results are means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean for three experiments performed in triplicate for all values except those for adenylate cyclase in the presence of Gpp(NH)p (n = 2). 5'-Nucleotidase, expressed as nanomoles of inorganic phosphate per minute per milligram of protein, was assayed by the method of Purdum and Dixon (12). Adenylate cyclase was assayed by the method of Salomon (13) in a buffer containing 50 mM tris-HCl, 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.3 mM cyclic adenosine monophosphate, 1 mM adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 20 mM creatine phosphate, creatine phosphokinase (50 unit/ml), and [<sup>32</sup>P]ATP at 800,000 count/min. The other compounds listed were used at the following concentrations: guanosine triphosphate (GTP) (10 mM), isoproterenol (100  $\mu$ M), Mn<sup>2+</sup> (10 mM), forskolin (100  $\mu$ M), and Gpp(NH)p (10  $\mu$ M).

Condition	5'-Nucleotidase (nmol min <sup>-1</sup> mg <sup>-1</sup> )	Adenylate cyclase (pmol $min^{-1} mg^{-1}$ ) in the presence of			
		GTP	Isoproterenol plus GTP	Mn <sup>2+</sup> plus forskolin plus GTP	Gpp(NH)p
		Plasm	ia membranes		
Control	$10 \pm 3$	$123 \pm 6$	$150 \pm 6$	$430 \pm 9$	172, 177
Ischemia	$14 \pm 3$	$113 \pm 5$	$190 \pm 5$	$367 \pm 8$	171, 182
		Lis	cht vesicles		,
Control	$0.016 \pm 0.01$	$12 \pm 3$	$13 \pm 4$	$18 \pm 3$	8, 14
Ischemia	$0.009 \pm 0.02$	$12 \pm 4$	$10 \pm 4$	$22 \pm 4$	8, 12

renergic receptors sediment with plasma membrane fractions, but instead can be found in membrane fractions isolated at high speeds (100,000g to 200,000g); occupancy of receptors by agonists promotes movement (internalization) of receptors from the plasma membrane to those presumably intracellular sites (4, 5). We propose that myocardial ischemia is associated with the reverse process: a translocation of intracellular  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors to the sarcolemma, thereby increasing binding and functional activity at the myocardial cell surface.

We first isolated and defined two distinct fractions from guinea pig heart: a purified sarcolemmal fraction, in which  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors are responsive to agonist, and a lighter, presumably intracellular, pool of receptors that are distinct from the sarcolemmal fraction. Using modifications of reported techniques (4-6), we extracted contractile proteins from homogenized hearts and prepared a 40,000g sarcolemmal fraction. From the supernatant we then prepared a light membrane fraction that sedimented in sucrose buffer at 137,000g. On electron microscopy these light membrane fractions appeared as small vesicles. The specific activities of two plasma membrane markers, 5' nucleotidase and adenylate cyclase were very low in the vesicle preparation as compared to sarco-



Fig. 1. Competition of (-)-isoproterenol for [<sup>125</sup>I]ICYP in (A) plasma membranes from control guinea pig left ventricles and (B) light vesicles from control guinea pig left ventricles. The two membrane fractions were prepared by mincing left ventricular tissue, extracting contractile proteins with 750 mM NaCl and 10 mM histidine (pH 7.5), and centrifuging samples at 14,000g. The pellet was then suspended and washed once in 10 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and 10 mM histidine. The material was vigorously homogenized and centrifuged at 45,000g for 30 minutes. The supernatant was centrifuged at 137,000g for 90 minutes, and the white rim above the pellet was aspirated and suspended in 50 mM tris-HCl, 8 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 0.5 mM EGTA at pH 7.5, and used as the light vesicle fraction. The pellet from the 45,000g spin was resuspended, washed, and centrifuged at 17,000g. The resulting supernatant was centrifuged at 137,000g, and the rim above the pellet was aspirated and used as purified sarcolemmal membranes. The binding of 50  $pM[^{125}I]ICYP$  to membrane and vesicle fractions were performed in the absence or presence of increasing concentrations of (-)-isoproterenol and in the absence and presence of 100  $\mu M$ Gpp(NH)p, in a total volume of 0.25 ml. Binding reactions were maintained at 25°C for 1 hour. Binding was terminated by diluting samples to 10 ml with ice-cold buffer, filtering over Whatman GF/B filters that had been soaked in 2 percent polyethyleneimine (14) and washing of filters with 10 ml of buffer. Values for total and isoproterenol-competed [1251]ICYP binding were corrected for nonspecific binding [in the presence of 1  $\mu M$  (-)-propranolol (Ayerst)]. The data points represent the mean of triplicate determinations and are representative of values obtained in three separate experiments.

lemmal membranes (Table 1). The specific activity of both basal and isoproterenol-stimulated adenylate cyclase in vesicles was only 8 to 10 percent of that found in surface membranes. In the light vesicle fraction, adenylate cyclase activity was unresponsive to the guanine nucleotide guanylyimidodiphosphate [Gpp(NH)p] and to forskolin, suggesting that this fraction is devoid of guanine nucleotide binding stimulatory ( $G_s$ ) proteins and deficient in catalytic components of the adenylate cyclase system.

Data from cultured tumor cells and amphibian erythrocytes indicate that the interaction of β-adrenergic receptors in light vesicles is different from that in plasma membrane fractions (4). Our findings in the light vesicle fraction from guinea pig heart were similar (Fig. 1). In competitive radioligand binding studies conducted with plasma membrane (sarcolemmal) fractions, agonists recognized two classes of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors, a high-affinity class of receptors coupled to G<sub>s</sub> and a low-affinity class of receptors apparently uncoupled from  $G_s$  (Fig. 1A). Addition of Gpp(NH)p reduced the apparent affinity of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors [recognized by the iodinated β-antagonist [125I]iodocyanopindolol ([125I]ICYP)] for the agonist isoproterenol, a result compatible with conversion of a highaffinity state of the receptor to a lowaffinity state (Fig. 1A). By contrast, the competitive binding curve for isoproterenol in the light vesicle preparation (Fig. 1B) showed only low-affinity binding of isoproterenol, and this binding was not modulated by Gpp(NH)p. Thus, receptors in these light vesicles appeared to be functionally (and presumably physically) uncoupled from  $G_s(4)$ .

To test whether ischemia would alter the distribution of receptors between sarcolemmal and light vesicle fractions, we conducted the following studies. We performed a thoracotomy on anesthetized guinea pigs and then ligated the proximal left anterior descending coronary artery, thus creating intense cyanosis in the anterior left ventricular region. Recordings from an electrocardiographic lead demonstrated ST-segment elevations over the affected region, a pattern typical of ischemia. Ischemia was maintained for periods of 15, 30, 60, or 90 minutes. The animals were then killed and membrane fractions were prepared described above. Sham-operated as guinea pigs were used as controls. Specific binding of β-adrenergic receptors to [<sup>125</sup>I]ICYP was measured in sarcolemmal and light vesicle fractions. In control hearts, 85 and 92 fmol of  $[^{125}I]$ ICYP were bound per milligram of protein in sarcolemmal membrane and light vesicle fractions, respectively. After 15 minutes of ischemia there was no significant change in the number of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in either fraction (Fig. 2). However, after 30 to 90 minutes, the number of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in the surface sarcolemma membranes increased 45 percent with a concomitant 60 percent decrease in the light vesicle fraction. This is evidence for an ischemia-induced redistribution or externalization of B-adrenergic receptors to the cardiac cell surface. The number of β-adrenergic receptors detected in control membranes (sarcolemma plus light vesicle) was 96 percent of that in ischemic hearts (Fig. 3); thus only the distribution, not the total number, of  $\beta$ adrenergic receptors was changed by ischemia. Isoproterenol-stimulated adenylate cyclase activity was also significantly higher in the ischemic as compared to control sarcolemmal membranes (P < 0.003 by one-tailed unpaired t test, Table 1), but basal, Gpp(NH)p- and forskolin-stimulated adenylate cyclase activities were unaltered in ischemia. Thus, the "new" sarcolemmal *β*-adrenergic receptors were functionally active.

These data provide evidence that  $\beta$ adrenergic receptors of the heart, as well as other classes of cell surface receptors (1, 7) in other tissues, may exist in several cellular environments, including the plasma membrane and an intracellular membrane (light vesicle) location. Under control conditions, in guinea pig heart, we find about 25 percent of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in these light vesicle fractions. Thus the routine practice of preparing only crude membranes at 30,000g discards a substantial portion of myocardial cell *β*-adrenergic receptors. Our observations in ischemic tissue and previous work involving agonist treatment (3-5)suggest a reciprocal relation between



Fig. 2 (left). Ischemia leads to an externalization of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in guinea pig heart. Male Wistar guinea pigs (400 to 500 g) were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (30 mg/kg, intraperitoneally), intubated, and ventilated with supplemental oxygen on a Harvard respirator. A left thoracotomy was performed, the pericardium was opened, and the proximal left anterior descending coronary was ligated with 6-0 prolene suture, so as to create an anterior left ventricular region with intense cyanosis. An epicardial ECG lead was sutured over the area, confirming ST-segment elevations. Ischemia was maintained for 15, 30, 60, or 90 minutes, and then the animals were killed. Sham-operated animals were used as controls. The two membrane fractions were prepared as described in Fig. 1. Binding of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors to [<sup>125</sup>I]ICYP was measured by incubating membranes with eight to ten concentrations of radioligand (50-600 pM) at 25°C for 1 hour. Binding reactions were terminated as described in the legend to Fig. 1. The maximal binding determined from Scatchard analysis of the binding isotherms (dissociation constants were unaltered) is plotted. Each point is the mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean of at least three experiments, with two left ventricles used in each experiment and triplicate determinations at each point. To determine statistical significance, we calculated unpaired twotailed t tests at each time point. Because the data obtained at each of the four time points were compared against the same control hearts, we multiplied the resulting P values by 4 in accordance with the Bonferroni method. The resulting P values for sarcolemmal membranes were: 15 minutes, >0.10; 30 minutes, 0.09; 60 minutes, 0.03; and 90 minutes, 0.01. For light vesicles, the corresponding P values were >0.10, 0.07, 0.02, and 0.01. Fig. 3 (right). β-Adrenergic receptors during control conditions and ischemia in guinea pig heart. One hour of ischemia was created as described in the legend of Fig. 2. The two membrane fractions were prepared and the binding of  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors to [<sup>125</sup>I]ICYP was measured as previously described. The total number of receptors recovered from two control (left) and two ischemic (middle) hearts are plotted. The results are shown as the mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean of four experiments.

surface and light vesicle receptors. The specific subcellular location and detailed biochemical properties of the light vesicle receptors will require further study, but the recognition of the existence of such a fraction should facilitate further studies on mechanisms that regulate adrenergic receptor traffic in myocardium.

The evidence that myocardial  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors can "move" between two subcellular compartments provides a means by which the heart may rapidly modulate its ability to respond to neuronally released or circulating catecholamines. In the setting of ischemia the molecular basis of the cellular redistribution is not yet defined, but possibilities that should be considered include enhanced breakdown of membrane phospholipids to membrane-active agents (8), altered cytoskeletal function (9), and formation of heat shock proteins (10).

During acute ischemia, the effects of catecholamines can be extremely deleterious. Alterations in the cardiac action potential can lead to life-threatening arrhythmias, and sinus tachycardia and increased contractility lead to increased myocardial oxygen consumption, which may extend the zone of ischemia or infarction (11). Our results provide a

means to explain the enhanced sensitivity of ischemic myocardium to catecholamines. It will be of interest to explore mechanisms that regulate, and therapeutic interventions that may prevent, externalization in ischemia.

### **References and Notes**

- 1. J. Kaplan, Science 212, 14 (1981); I. Pastan and J. Kaplan, Science 212, 14 (1981); I. Pastan and M. Willingham, *ibid.* 214 504 (1981); M. S. Brown, R. G. W. Anderson, J. L. Goldstein, *Cell* 32, 663 (1983); A. Dautry-Varsat and H. F. Lodish, *Sci. Am.* 250 (No. 5), 52 (1984).
  M. Kasuga et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 78, 691 (1981); V. P. Knutson et al., *ibid.* 79, 2822 (1982); M. N. Krupp et al., *J. Biol. Chem.* 257, 11489 (1982); P. W. Chun et al., *ibid.* 259, 2161 (1984); M. D. Snavely, M. G. Ziceler, P. A.
- 2161 (1984); M. D. Snavely, M. G. Ziegler, P. A. Insel, *Mol. Pharmacol.* 27, 19 (1985).
- Inset, Mol. Fnarmacol. 27, 19 (1985).
   A. Mukherjee et al., J. Clin. Invest. 64, 1423 (1979);
   A. Mukherjee et al., Circ. Res. 50, 735 (1982);
   A. Baumen et al., Am. Heart J. 101, 569 (1981);
   P. B. Carr et al., J. Clin. Invest. 61, 109 (1980). 3. (1978). Mukherjee and his colleagues found an increase in  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptors in canine heart after 1 hour of ischemia, with and without reperfusion, while Baumen et al. reported an
- repertusion, while Baumen et al. reported an ischemia-induced increase in β-adrenergic receptor in guinea pig heart.
  G. I. Waldo et al., J. Biol. Chem. 258, 13900 (1983); J. M. Stadel et al., ibid., p. 3032; R. H. Strasser, G. Stiles, R. J. Lefkowitz, Endocrinology 115, 1392 (1984).
  C. J. Limas and C. Limas, Hypertension 6 (suppl. 1) 21 (1984).
- C. J. Limas and C. Limas, Hypertension 6 (suppl. 1), 31 (1984).
   L. R. Jones, S. W. Maddock, H. R. Besch, J. Biol. Chem. 225, 9971 (1980).
   B. T. Pan and R. M. Johnstone, Cell 33, 967 (1987)
- 1983) P. B. Corr, R. W. Grass, B. E. Sobel, Circ. Res. 8. 55, 135 (1984); A. M. Katz, J. Mol. Cell. Car-diol. 14, 627 (1982); K. R. Chien et al., J. Clin. Invest. 75, 1770 (1985).
- 9.0 J. Limas and C. Limas, Circ. Res. 55, 524 (1984)

- 10. W. H. Dillman et al., Circulation Suppl. 70, 11
- (1984). 11. H. F. Brown and O. J. Noble, J. Physiol.
- (London) 238, 51 (1974) 12. T. F. Dixon and M. Purdom, J. Clin. Pathol. 7,
- 341 (1954). 13. Y. Salomon, D. Londos, M. Rodbell, Anal. Biochem. 58, 541 (1974).
- R. F. Bruns, K. Lawson-Wendling, T. A. Pugs-ley, *ibid*. 132, 74 (1983).
- Supported by grants from the Veterans Admin-istration, National Institutes of Health, American Heart Association, California affiliate, and National Science Foundation.

1 April 1985; accepted 20 August 1985

## Acquisition by Innervated Cardiac Myocytes of a Pertussis Toxin–Specific Regulatory Protein Linked to the $\alpha_1$ -Receptor

Abstract. During development, the chronotropic response of rat ventricular myocardium to  $\alpha_l$ -adrenergic stimulation changes from positive to negative. The  $\alpha_l$ agonist phenylephrine increases the rate of contraction of neonatal rat myocytes cultured alone but decreases the rate of contraction when the myocytes are cultured with functional sympathetic neurons. The developmental induction of the inhibitory myocardial response to  $\alpha_l$ -adrenergic stimulation in intact ventricle and in cultured myocytes was shown to coincide with the functional acquisition of a substrate for pertussis toxin. A 41-kilodalton protein from myocytes cultured with sympathetic neurons and from adult rat myocardium showed, respectively, 2.2- and 16-fold increases in pertussis toxin-associated ADP-ribosylation (ADP, adenosine diphosphate) as compared to controls. In nerve-muscle cultures, inhibition of the actions of this protein by pertussis toxin-specific ADP-ribosylation reversed the mature inhibitory  $\alpha_l$ -adrenergic response to an immature stimulatory pattern. The results suggest that innervation is associated with the appearance of a functional pertussis toxin substrate by which the  $\alpha_I$ -adrenergic response becomes linked to a decrease in automaticity.

SUSAN F. STEINBERG ELIZABETH D. DRUGGE JOHN P. BILEZIKIAN **RICHARD B. ROBINSON** Departments of Pharmacology and Medicine, College of Physicians & Surgeons, Columbia University, New York 10032

The effects of  $\alpha_1$ -adrenergic catecholamines on cardiac automaticity change as a function of development. Purkinje fibers from dogs less than 1 day old often exhibit an increase in automaticity after exposure to the  $\alpha$ -agonist phenylephrine. In contrast, adult canine Purkinje fibers show predominantly a decrease in rate in response to  $\alpha$ -adrenergic input (1). Similarly, the neonatal rat heart responds to  $\alpha$ -adrenergic stimulation by an increase in rate, whereas the adult rat ventricle responds by a decrease in rate (2). In both species, the developmental change in the  $\alpha$ -adrenergic response from an increase to a decrease in rate parallels the maturation of functional sympathetic innervation in the heart. This observation prompted the suggestion that the cardiac sympathetic nerves are responsible for the change in cardiac responsiveness to the  $\alpha$ -adrenergic catecholamines (3)

This hypothesis was tested in primary cultures of neonatal rat ventricular cells grown alone or cocultured with nerves from sympathetic ganglion cells (2). The neonatal rat ventricular cells showed an alone. However, when cultured with functional (4) sympathetic neurons, the myocytes showed a predominantly negative chronotropic response to the  $\alpha$ -agonist (2). The developmental induction of an in-

exclusive, positive chronotropic re-

sponse to phenylephrine when cultured

hibitory chronotropic response to  $\alpha$ -adrenergic catecholamines provides an opportunity to examine potential changes in the biochemical regulators of the response. One specific candidate is the inhibitory guanine nucleotide binding protein, designated N<sub>i</sub>, which mediates effects linked to the inhibition of adenylate cyclase (5). This inhibitory protein is also important in the function of effector systems not mediated by adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cyclic AMP) (6). The latter observation is pertinent to a consideration of  $\alpha_1$ -adrenergic catecholamines that are not believed to be regulated by cyclic AMP under most circumstances (7).  $N_i$  can be monitored directly with pertussis toxin, which catalyzes the transfer of ADP-ribose from NAD (ADP, adenosine diphosphate; NAD, nicotinamide-adenine dinucleotide) to the  $\alpha$ subunit of  $N_i$  (8). The ADP-ribosylation of N<sub>i</sub> inactivates it and permits unopposed utilization of stimulatory pathways (9). Thus, pertussis toxin can be used in pharmacological experiments to assess the functional relevance of N<sub>i</sub>.

We present data supporting the hypothesis that the developmental conver-

sion of the  $\alpha$ -adrenergic chronotropic response in the heart from positive to negative is due to an increase in the functional inhibitory guanine nucleotide binding protein, presumably N<sub>i</sub>. We used two experimental systems: (i) neonatal and adult rat ventricles and (ii) neonatal rat myocardial cells cultured alone and in the presence of sympathetic neurons.

The effect of pertussis toxin on the  $\alpha_1$ adrenergic response in muscle cultures and in nerve-muscle cocultures is shown in Fig. 1. Pertussis toxin did not alter significantly the basal autonomic rate of noninnervated neonatal rat myocytes. Similarly the concentration-response relation to phenylephrine was not significantly changed by pertussis toxin (Fig. 1A). The positive chronotropic response to phenylephrine, in the presence or absence of pertussis toxin, was inhibited by the  $\alpha_1$ -adrenergic antagonist prazosin (data not shown). Thus, in neonatal muscle cells cultured alone, pertussis toxin had no significant action. In muscle cells cultured with sympathetic nerves (Fig. 1B), pertussis toxin, which did not change basal automaticity, altered the response to phenylephrine so that all concentrations were associated with a positive chronotropic response. The responses of both the control and the pertussis toxin-treated nerve-muscle cultures to phenylephrine were inhibited by prazosin.

It is possible that pertussis toxin enhances either basal cyclic AMP levels or cyclic AMP accumulation in response to stimulatory agents. Such elevations of myocyte intracellular cyclic AMP concentration are associated with an increase in automaticity (10). Thus, the effect of pertussis toxin could simply have been due to an indirect action to raise cyclic AMP levels in the nervemuscle cultures. Several results, however, make this suggestion unlikely. First, the experiments were performed in the presence of both the  $\beta$ -adrenergic antagonist propranolol (0.1  $\mu M$ ) and the muscarinic inhibitor atropine  $(0.1 \ \mu M)$ , negating a cyclic AMP response through a β-adrenergic mechanism or through reversal of a muscarinic receptor-dependent effect. Second, cyclic AMP levels in muscle and nerve-muscle cultures were measured by a sensitive radioimmunoassay and found not to be changed under any of our experimental conditions. Muscle and nerve-muscle cultures had similar basal cyclic AMP levels that did not change after addition of phenylephrine. Furthermore, there was no significant increase in cellular cyclic AMP concentration in innervated or noninnervated myocytes after pertussis toxin ex-