

## Evidence against the involvement of cytochrome P450 metabolites in endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization of the rat main mesenteric artery

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1. The influence of different inhibitors of cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenase on the endothelium-dependent and -independent hyperpolarization in the isolated rat main mesenteric artery was investigated.
2. Application of acetylcholine (ACh; 1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) for 10 min evoked an endothelium-dependent peak hyperpolarization of about 18 mV followed by a partial recovery to a level 7 mV more negative than the resting value ( $-50.2 \pm 0.5$  mV).
3. Proadifen (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) completely and reversibly inhibited the ACh-induced hyperpolarization. Conversely, the imidazole antimycotics clotrimazole (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and miconazole (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) had less effect on the peak endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization. The suicide substrate inhibitors 17-octadecynoic acid (17-ODYA; 5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and 1-aminobenzotriazole (1-ABT; 2 mM) did not significantly influence endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization.
4. The endothelium-independent hyperpolarization (16 mV) evoked by levcromakalim (300 nM) was completely inhibited by proadifen as well as by clotrimazole and miconazole but was not affected by 17-ODYA or 1-ABT.
5. These results do not support the view that the ACh-induced endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization in the rat mesenteric artery is mediated by cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenase metabolites. Proadifen and imidazole antimycotics impair the activation of ATP-regulated  $\text{K}^+$  channels in mesenteric artery cells, rendering non-specific inhibition of smooth muscle  $\text{K}^+$  channel activation an alternative explanation for the inhibitory influence of some (but not all) P450 inhibitors on endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization in this preparation.

Acetylcholine (ACh) relaxes vascular smooth muscle by stimulating the endothelial cells to release various diffusible substances (Furchgott & Vanhoutte, 1989). Endothelium-derived nitric oxide (NO) is synthesized from L-arginine by the constitutive NO synthase, which can be inhibited by arginine analogues such as nitro-L-arginine (Rees, Palmer, Schultz, Hodson & Moncada, 1990). NO diffuses to the underlying vascular smooth muscle and activates soluble guanylyl cyclase, leading to increased muscular cGMP levels and relaxation (Rapoport & Murad, 1983; Ignarro & Kadowitz, 1985). In some vessels under certain conditions, NO also causes hyperpolarization of the vascular smooth muscle cells (Tare, Parkington, Coleman, Neild & Dusting, 1990; Garland & McPherson, 1992; Vanheel, Van de Voorde & Leusen, 1994). In addition, in some vascular tissues prostacyclin released by the endothelial cells produces a slowly developing and limited hyperpolarization (Parkington, Tare, Tonta & Coleman, 1993; Murphy & Brayden, 1995). However, liberation of a distinct substance, the endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF), is responsible for the main and often single component of hyperpolarization

in response to ACh and other vasoactive agonists (Chen, Suzuki & Weston, 1988; Taylor & Weston, 1988; Félétou & Vanhoutte, 1988; Vanheel *et al.* 1994). The EDHF-induced hyperpolarization results from an increase in  $\text{K}^+$  conductance of the smooth muscle cell membrane (Chen & Suzuki, 1989; Fujii *et al.* 1992). The nature of the  $\text{K}^+$  channels involved is not yet established. In several arteries, including the main mesenteric artery (Fujii *et al.* 1992) and its smaller branches (McPherson & Angus, 1991; Garland & McPherson, 1992), the EDHF-induced hyperpolarization is not sensitive to glibenclamide, the sulphonylurea which selectively inhibits the activation of ATP-regulated  $\text{K}^+$  ( $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$ ) channels by  $\text{K}^+$  channel openers such as levcromakalim. The inhibitory influence of low concentrations of tetraethylammonium (TEA; 3 mM) or tetrabutylammonium (TBA; 1 mM) rather suggests the involvement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent  $\text{K}^+$  ( $\text{K}_{\text{Ca}}$ ) channels (Van de Voorde, Vanheel & Leusen, 1992; Zygmunt & Högestätt, 1996).

The chemical nature of EDHF is as yet unknown. Some studies, in which the nitro-L-arginine-resistant component of vasodilatation was measured in bovine, porcine and rat

coronary arteries, suggest that the substance liberated by the endothelium in response to bradykinin might be a metabolite of arachidonic acid, derived from cytochrome P450-dependent mono-oxygenase activity (Bauersachs, Hecker & Busse, 1994; Hecker, Bara, Bauersachs & Busse, 1994). Epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs) indeed have a potent vasorelaxant action and have been shown to hyperpolarize bovine coronary smooth muscle cells (Campbell, Gebremedhin, Pratt & Harder, 1996) and increase  $K_{Ca}$  channel activity in smooth muscle cells from several arteries (Gebremedhin, Ma, Falck, Roman, Vanrollins & Harder, 1992; Hu & Kim, 1993; Campbell *et al.* 1996).

The aim of the present study was to investigate the role of cytochrome P450-dependent arachidonic acid metabolism in endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization elicited by ACh in the rat main mesenteric artery. After characterization of the hyperpolarization induced by EDHF, we used quinacrine, which blocks phospholipase  $A_2$ -induced liberation of arachidonic acid, and five structurally and mechanistically different cytochrome P450 inhibitors: proadifen, clotrimazole, miconazole, 17-octadecynoic acid (17-ODYA) and 1-aminobenzotriazole (1-ABT).

## METHODS

### Preparation

The mesentery from 4- to 6-week-old Wistar rats, anaesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of a lethal dose (200 mg  $kg^{-1}$ ) of pentobarbitone, was excised and placed in cold normal Krebs–Ringer solution of the following composition (mmol  $l^{-1}$ ): NaCl, 135; KCl, 5;  $NaHCO_3$ , 20;  $CaCl_2$ , 2.5;  $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ , 1.3;  $KH_2PO_4$ , 1.2; EDTA, 0.026; and glucose, 10. The solution was gassed with a 95%  $O_2$ –5%  $CO_2$  gas mixture. The superior mesenteric artery was dissected free of adherent connective tissue and cut into 4–6 mm long ring segments which were subsequently slit along their longitudinal axis. For membrane potential ( $V_m$ ) measurements, a strip was pinned down, luminal side upwards, to the bottom of a small recording chamber (35 °C), which was continuously perfused (3 bath volumes per minute) with warmed (35 °C) and oxygenated Krebs–Ringer fluid of pH 7.4. The preparation was equilibrated for at least 60 min before the start of the microelectrode impalements.

### Electrophysiological measurements

Transmembrane potentials were measured using conventional microelectrodes, pulled with a vertical pipette puller (David Kopf, model 750; Tujunga, CA, USA) from 1 mm o.d. filamented borosilicate glass tubing (Hilgenberg GmbH, Malsfeld, Germany). Microelectrodes were filled with 1 M KCl. The electrical resistance of the microelectrodes ranged from 40 to 80 M $\Omega$ . The measured potential was followed on an oscilloscope and traced with a pen recorder (Philips PM 8224). Absolute values of  $V_m$  were taken as the difference of the stabilized potential after cell impalement and the zero potential upon withdrawal of the microelectrode from the cell. Hyperpolarizations produced by 10 min applications of either ACh or levcromakalim under control conditions and after experimental intervention were only measured from continuous recordings. Moreover, we usually compared the changes in  $V_m$  under control conditions and after experimental intervention from continuous traces obtained during the same cell impalement. The various inhibitors were superfused for at least 10 min before

challenging the preparation with the hyperpolarizing vasodilators. Since repeated applications of ACh elicited progressively decreasing  $V_m$  responses (see Results), we always tried to measure, in addition, the hyperpolarization after washout of the various inhibitors.

### Drugs

Acetylcholine chloride, tetraethylammonium chloride, indomethacin, quinacrine, proadifen (SKF525a), clotrimazole, miconazole nitrate, 17-ODYA and 1-ABT were obtained from Sigma. Glibenclamide was obtained from Merck. Levcromakalim (BRL 38227) was a gift from Beecham Pharmaceuticals, Essex, UK. Stock solutions were made in water, except for acetylcholine chloride (dissolved in 50 mM potassium hydrogen phthalate buffer, pH 4.0), clotrimazole, miconazole and glibenclamide, which were dissolved in dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO), indomethacin and 17-ODYA, which were dissolved in ethanol, and levcromakalim, for which 70% ethanol was used. Except for 1-ABT, all substances were added from the appropriate stock solutions to aliquots of the equilibrated (95%  $O_2$ –5%  $CO_2$ ; 35 °C) Krebs–Ringer solution a few minutes before superfusion. The final solvent concentration never exceeded 0.2% for DMSO or 0.07% for ethanol, concentrations which had no influence on the measured electrophysiological parameters. All drug concentrations are expressed as final molar concentrations in the superfusate.

### Statistics

Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M. Statistical significance was evaluated using Student's *t* test for paired or unpaired observations, a *P* value  $< 0.05$  indicating a significant difference; *n* indicates the number of preparations, each obtained from a different rat.

## RESULTS

### Endothelium-dependent responses

**Characterization of the membrane electrical response to ACh.** In mesenteric artery strips, the resting  $V_m$  was stable and averaged  $-50.2 \pm 0.5$  mV ( $n = 49$ ). Prolonged (10 min) exposure of vessel strips with endothelium to ACh (1  $\mu M$ ) in the superfusate produced a hyperpolarization with a characteristic time course (Chen & Suzuki, 1989; Vanheel *et al.* 1994), typical examples of which can be seen in Fig. 1. After addition of ACh,  $V_m$  hyperpolarized to a peak value of  $-68.3 \pm 1.0$  mV ( $n = 28$ ). In the prolonged presence of the agonist, the peak hyperpolarization, due to EDHF (Chen & Suzuki, 1989; Fujii *et al.* 1992), was followed by a partial recovery of  $V_m$  to a level that was somewhat more negative than the control resting  $V_m$ . After 10 min in the presence of ACh,  $V_m$  tended to stabilize at a level of  $-56.9 \pm 0.8$  mV. Part of this sustained component of hyperpolarization is caused by endogenous NO liberated from the endothelium, as has been shown in the rat aorta (Vanheel *et al.* 1994) and the coronary artery (Parkington *et al.* 1993). After washout of the agonist,  $V_m$  depolarized back to its resting level.

As observed in the rat aorta (Vanheel *et al.* 1994), a progressive decrease of the ACh-induced hyperpolarization was noted with repeated administrations during the course of the experiments. This decrease can also be observed by comparing, for example, the first and the last hyperpolarization in Fig. 1*B*. The rate and extent of this 'run-

Table 1. Influence of the various inhibitors on  $V_m$  and its response to ACh

Inhibitor	Hyperpolarization			$\Delta V_m$ drug (mV)
	Control (mV)	Drug (mV)	After (mV)	
Glibenclamide (10 $\mu$ M)	$-15.2 \pm 1.5$ (5)	$-11.9 \pm 1.6$ (4)	$-8.3 \pm 1.9$ (5)	$1.6 \pm 0.8$ (5)
Quinacrine (30 $\mu$ M)	$-17.3 \pm 1.4$ (4)	$1.0 \pm 0.6$ (4)***	$-7.1 \pm 2.5$ (3)†	$1.6 \pm 0.8$ (4)
Indomethacin (50 $\mu$ M)	$-17.5 \pm 1.5$ (4)	$-13.9 \pm 1.0$ (3)	$-11.0 \pm 0.2$ (2)	$-1.1 \pm 0.4$ (4)
Proadifen (30 $\mu$ M)	$-13.8 \pm 2.8$ (5)	$-0.2 \pm 0.2$ (5)**	$-3.3 \pm 0.7$ (4)†	$1.9 \pm 0.7$ (5)
Clotrimazole (30 $\mu$ M)	$-17.8 \pm 1.8$ (6)	$-10.3 \pm 1.3$ (6)**	$-6.1 \pm 3.7$ (3)	$1.1 \pm 0.3$ (7)‡
Miconazole (100 $\mu$ M)	$-23.0 \pm 0.8$ (5)	$-8.9 \pm 3.3$ (7)**	$-22.7 \pm 0.9$ (3)†	$5.7 \pm 0.6$ (7)‡‡‡
17-ODYA (5 $\mu$ M)	$-18.2 \pm 1.3$ (5)	$-14.9 \pm 1.8$ (5)	$-13.0 \pm 1.9$ (5)	$-0.6 \pm 0.3$ (4)
1-ABT (2 mM)	$-16.7 \pm 1.9$ (4)	$-14.1 \pm 2.0$ (4)	$-13.2 \pm 0.2$ (3)	$-2.6 \pm 0.3$ (5)‡‡

Magnitude of the ACh-induced endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization before (Control), in the presence (Drug) and after washout (After) of the different inhibitors. The influence of the drugs on the resting membrane potential is also given ( $\Delta V_m$  drug). Values are means  $\pm$  s.e.m.; the number of experiments is given in parentheses. \*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $P < 0.001$ , significantly different from the ACh-induced hyperpolarization under control conditions (Control); †  $P < 0.05$ , significantly different from the hyperpolarization in the presence of the drug (Drug); ‡  $P < 0.05$ , ‡‡  $P < 0.01$ , ‡‡‡  $P < 0.001$ , significantly different change.

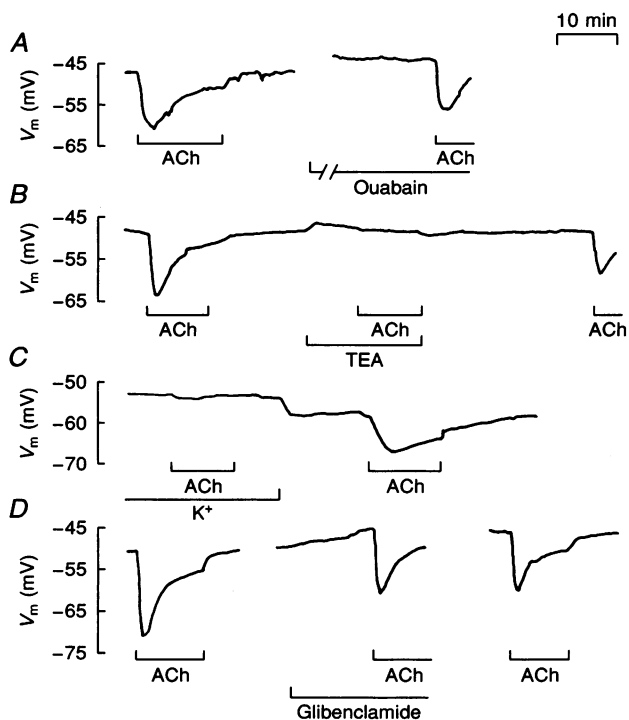
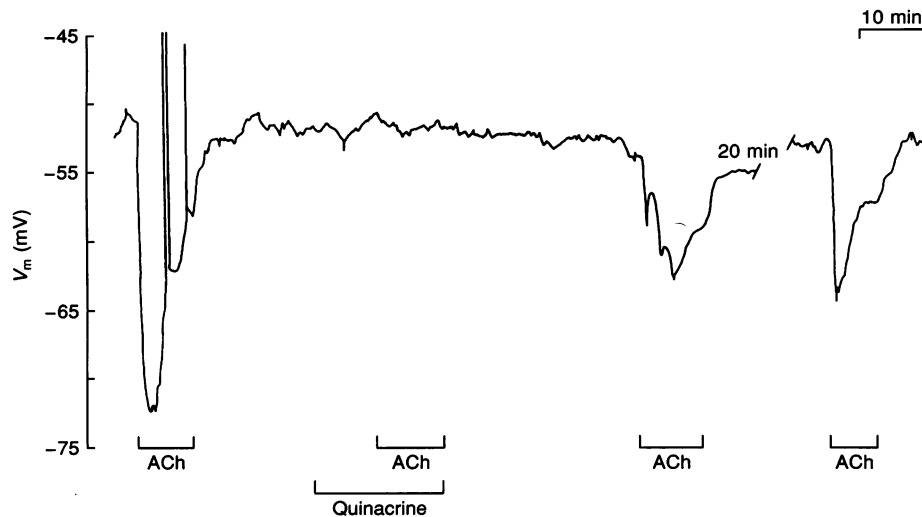


Figure 1. ACh-induced endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization is caused by opening of  $K^+$  channels

Original traces of membrane potential ( $V_m$ ) responses to 10 min applications of ACh (1  $\mu$ M) in smooth muscle cells from the mesenteric artery. A–D show traces from 4 different preparations. Endothelium-dependent hyperpolarizations consist of an initial peak followed by a partial recovery of  $V_m$ . A, 10  $\mu$ M ouabain does not inhibit endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization. Superfusion with 3 mM tetraethylammonium (TEA; B) and by high  $K^+$  (15.6 mM)-containing solution (C) reversibly inhibits the electrical response. Glibenclamide (10  $\mu$ M) does not significantly influence the response to ACh (D).



**Figure 2. Phospholipase  $A_2$  inhibition reversibly blocks endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization**

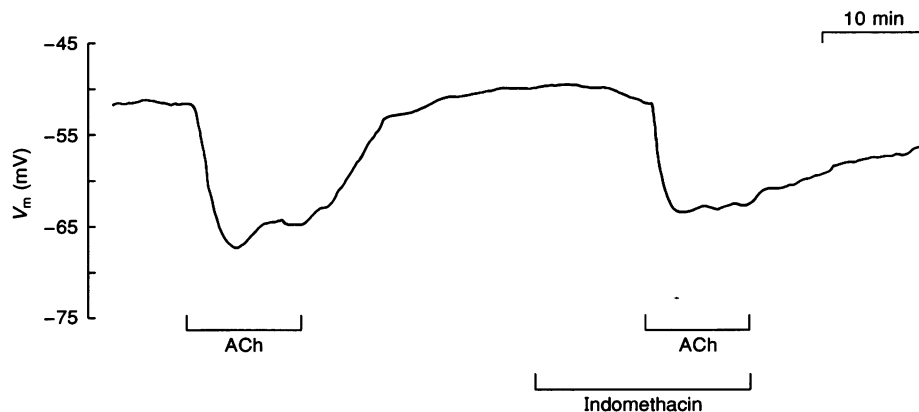
$V_m$  responses to ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) before, during and after application of quinacrine ( $30 \mu\text{M}$ ). Vertical lines during the first ACh exposure are due to microelectrode dislodgement and reimpalement. During the break in the record the preparation was superfused for 20 min with control fluid without microelectrode displacement from the cell.

down' was variable between different preparations, the membrane response to a second application of ACh being reduced by 5–20%.

Pre-exposure of the vessel strips to ouabain ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) did not have a significant effect on the peak hyperpolarization induced by ACh (Fig. 1A). Exposure to 3 mM TEA depolarized  $V_m$  by 2–3 mV. In the presence of this rather non-specific  $K^+$  channel inhibitor, the membrane hyperpolarization produced by ACh was virtually completely and fully reversibly inhibited (Fig. 1B). Superfusion with 15.6 mM  $K^+$ -containing solution drastically diminished the hyperpolarization to ACh (Fig. 1C). The specific inhibitor of  $K_{ATP}$  channels, glibenclamide, at a concentration of  $10 \mu\text{M}$ ,

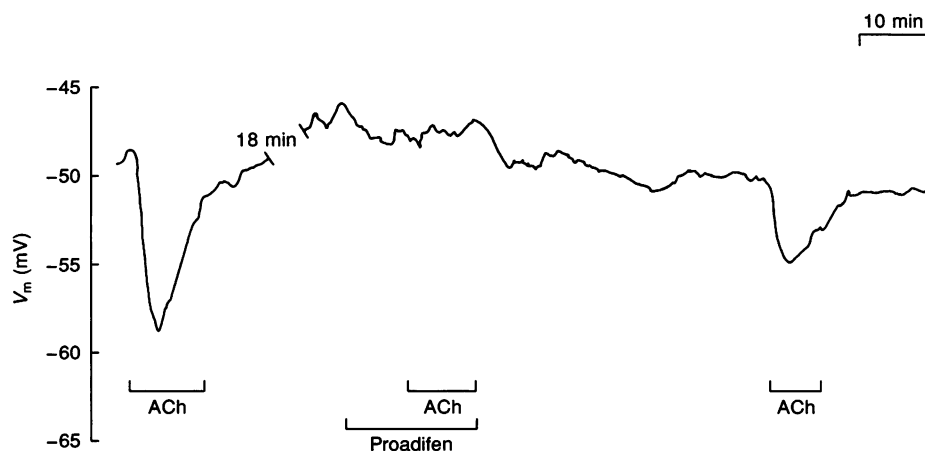
failed to significantly influence the membrane electrical change in response to ACh (Fig. 1D). The mean values of the ACh-induced hyperpolarization before, in the presence of, and after washout of the drug are listed in Table 1.

**Influence of quinacrine on endothelium-dependent responses.** Quinacrine ( $30 \mu\text{M}$ ) did not have a significant effect on the resting  $V_m$ . In the presence of the substance, the hyperpolarization in response to ACh was completely inhibited (Table 1). This influence was only partially reversible. A typical experiment in which the microelectrode impalement was kept throughout the exposure to and washout of quinacrine is depicted in Fig. 2. After washout of the substance, the endothelium-dependent  $V_m$  change



**Figure 3. Cyclo-oxygenase inhibition does not impair ACh-induced hyperpolarization**

The endothelium-dependent  $V_m$  responses to ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) were measured in the absence and presence of indomethacin ( $50 \mu\text{M}$ ).



**Figure 4. Proadifen reversibly inhibits endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization**

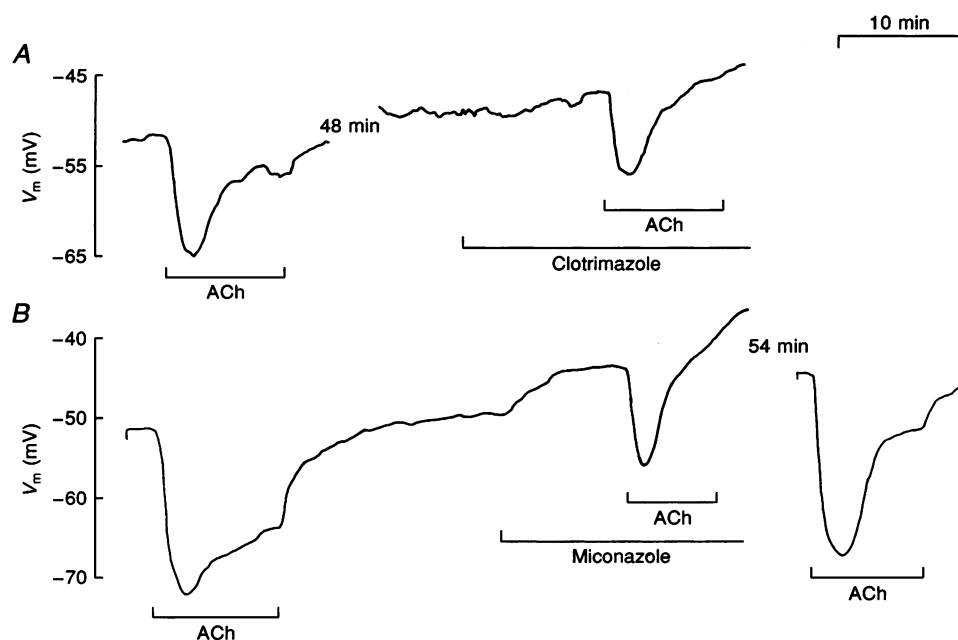
$V_m$  responses to ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) before, during and after application of  $30 \mu\text{M}$  proadifen. During the break in the record, the preparation was superfused for 18 min with the control fluid.

produced by ACh reappeared. In the experiment shown in Fig. 2, the hyperpolarization during the first ACh challenge after quinacrine removal occurred hesitatingly but later on the  $V_m$  change regained its regular time course.

**Influence of indomethacin.** The hyperpolarization produced by ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) was not significantly affected by pre-exposure of the preparation to a high concentration ( $50 \mu\text{M}$ ) of the inhibitor of the cyclo-oxygenase pathway of arachidonic acid metabolism (Fig. 3 and Table 1).

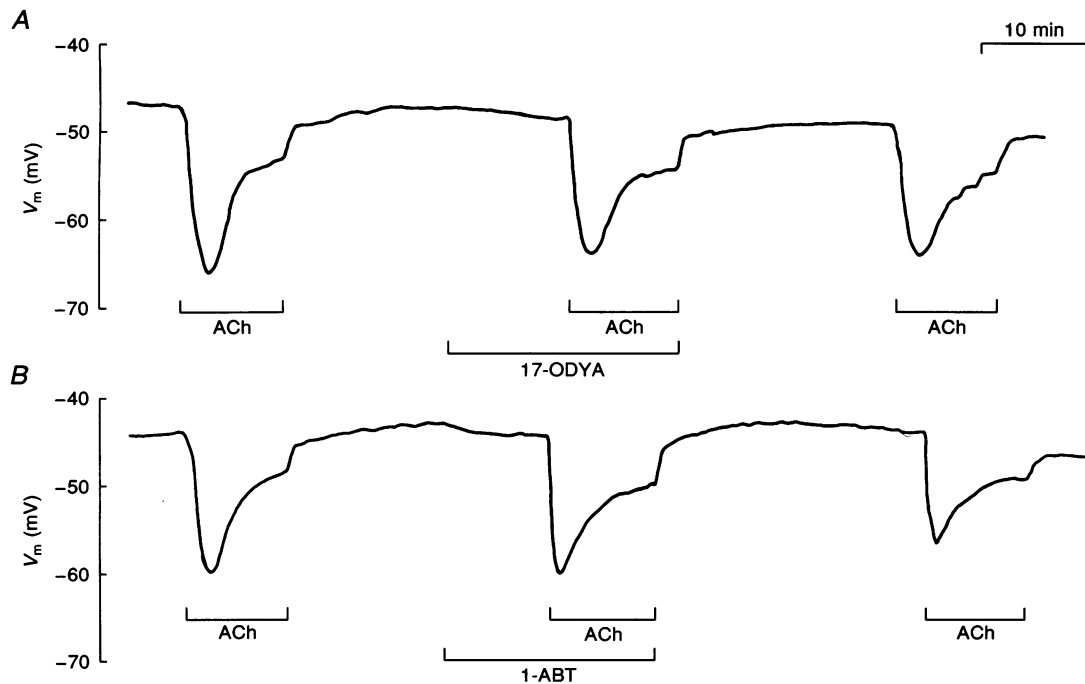
**Influence of cytochrome P450 inhibitors.** The application of  $30 \mu\text{M}$  proadifen virtually completely inhibited the membrane hyperpolarization to  $1 \mu\text{M}$  ACh (Fig. 4 and Table 1). After washout of the drug, the  $V_m$  response to the agonist reappeared (Fig. 4).

The imidazole antimycotic clotrimazole ( $30 \mu\text{M}$ ) slightly depolarized the resting  $V_m$  (Fig. 5A and Table 1). In the presence of the cytochrome P450 inhibitor, the peak hyperpolarization produced by ACh was decreased to



**Figure 5. Effect of imidazole antimycotics on endothelium-dependent responses**

Endothelium-dependent hyperpolarizations of  $V_m$  induced by ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) were measured in the absence and presence of  $30 \mu\text{M}$  clotrimazole (A) and  $100 \mu\text{M}$  miconazole (B). During the break in the records the preparation was superfused for the indicated time with the control solution.

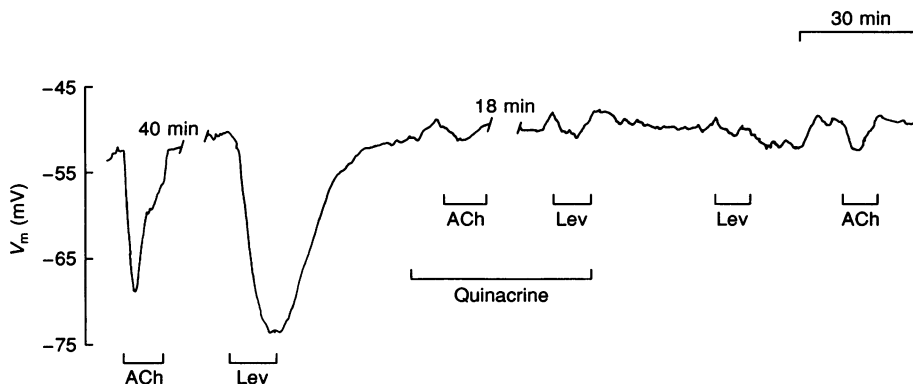


**Figure 6. Lack of influence of the cytochrome P450 inhibitors 17-ODYA and 1-ABT**

$V_m$  recordings in the rat main mesenteric artery. Traces from 2 different experiments, in which the influence of pre-exposure to 17-ODYA ( $5 \mu\text{M}$ ; A) and 1-ABT ( $2 \text{ mM}$ ; B) on the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization induced by ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ ) was tested.

$10.3 \pm 1.3 \text{ mV}$  compared with  $17.8 \pm 1.8 \text{ mV}$  under control conditions in this group of preparations. A further, more marked and consistent observation was a large inhibitory effect on the sustained  $V_m$  change in the continuous presence of ACh. Whereas under control conditions  $V_m$  in the presence of ACh remained significantly hyperpolarized

with respect to the resting level, in the presence of clotrimazole it was not significantly different from the resting  $V_m$  in the absence of the mediator (Fig. 5A). Following washout of clotrimazole, the peak hyperpolarization averaged  $6.1 \pm 3.7 \text{ mV}$  ( $n = 3$ ).



**Figure 7. Quinacrine inhibits endothelium-independent hyperpolarization induced by  $K_{\text{ATP}}$  channel opening**

$V_m$  changes of mesenteric artery smooth muscle cells in response to  $300 \text{ nM}$  levcromakalim (Lev) before, during and after exposure to quinacrine ( $30 \mu\text{M}$ ). For comparison, the influence of quinacrine on ACh ( $1 \mu\text{M}$ )-induced response was also tested in this preparation. During the breaks in the record, the preparation was superfused for the indicated time with, respectively, control solution and quinacrine-containing superfusate.

Miconazole (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) significantly depolarized the resting  $V_m$  by about 6 mV (Fig. 5B and Table 1). After 10 min pre-exposure to this cytochrome P450 inhibitor, the peak hyperpolarization in response to ACh was significantly decreased to  $8.9 \pm 3.3$  mV ( $n = 7$ ). As was observed with clotrimazole, the ACh-induced hyperpolarization was significantly abbreviated, the sustained component being totally inhibited (Fig. 5B). This inhibitory effect was partially reversible (Fig. 5B).

After pre-exposure to 5  $\mu\text{M}$  17-ODYA, the ACh-induced hyperpolarization was not significantly affected (Fig. 6A and Table 1). Similarly, 1-ABT at a concentration of 2 mM, which hyperpolarized the resting  $V_m$  by 2.6 mV, did not have a significant effect on the ACh-induced hyperpolarization (Fig. 6B and Table 1).

### Endothelium-independent responses

Levcromakalim, a selective opener of  $K_{\text{ATP}}$  channels, hyperpolarized  $V_m$  in a concentration-dependent manner (see e.g. Fig. 9A). In order to induce a hyperpolarization similar to that obtained with 1  $\mu\text{M}$  ACh, we usually applied 300 nM levcromakalim, producing a mean  $V_m$  change of  $-15.6 \pm 0.9$  mV ( $n = 21$ ) under control conditions. This hyperpolarization was endothelium independent and was completely prevented by pre-exposure to 10  $\mu\text{M}$  glibenclamide (not shown).

**Influence of quinacrine.** Quinacrine (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) nearly completely prevented the hyperpolarization produced by 300 nM levcromakalim (mean  $V_m$  change,  $-1.3 \pm 0.8$  mV;  $n = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). A representative experiment in which exposures of a muscle strip to ACh and levcromakalim were alternated in the absence, presence and after washout of quinacrine is shown in Fig. 7. The inhibitory influence of quinacrine on the hyperpolarization produced

by levcromakalim was less reversible than on that produced by ACh. After washout of quinacrine, the  $V_m$  change produced by 300 nM levcromakalim was  $-0.7 \pm 0.7$  mV ( $n = 3$ ).

**Influence of cytochrome P450 inhibitors.** Pre-exposure to proadifen completely inhibited the hyperpolarization produced by 300 nM levcromakalim ( $n = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). This influence was only partially reversible within the time limits of the experiments (Fig. 8).

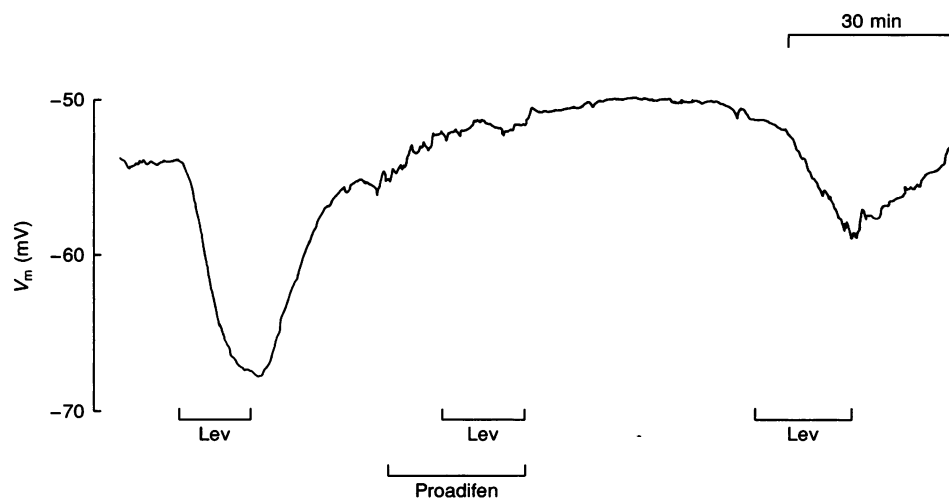
Clotrimazole (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) completely blocked the membrane hyperpolarization produced by 300 nM levcromakalim ( $n = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), although higher concentrations of the  $K^+$  channel opener could still elicit small changes in  $V_m$  (Fig. 9A). In two experiments, the influence of levcromakalim could also be tested after washout of clotrimazole. Both showed irreversible inhibition (see Fig. 9A).

Miconazole (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) also inhibited the peak hyperpolarization by 300 nM levcromakalim ( $n = 4$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). Moreover, the inhibition was irreversible, while the peak hyperpolarization in response to ACh was little affected (Fig. 9B) following washout of the cytochrome P450 inhibitor.

Neither 17-ODYA (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) nor 1-ABT (2 mM) significantly influenced the levcromakalim-induced hyperpolarization (Fig. 10;  $n = 3$ ,  $P = 0.4$  for 17-ODYA; and  $n = 2$  for 1-ABT).

## DISCUSSION

The present studies confirm previous findings in various vessels. ACh produces a hyperpolarization of the  $V_m$  which is endothelium-dependent and displays, in the rat main mesenteric artery (Fukao, Hattori, Kanno, Sakuma & Kitabatake, 1995), as well as in the rat aorta (Chen &



**Figure 8.** Proadifen inhibits endothelium-independent hyperpolarization induced by  $K_{\text{ATP}}$  channel opening

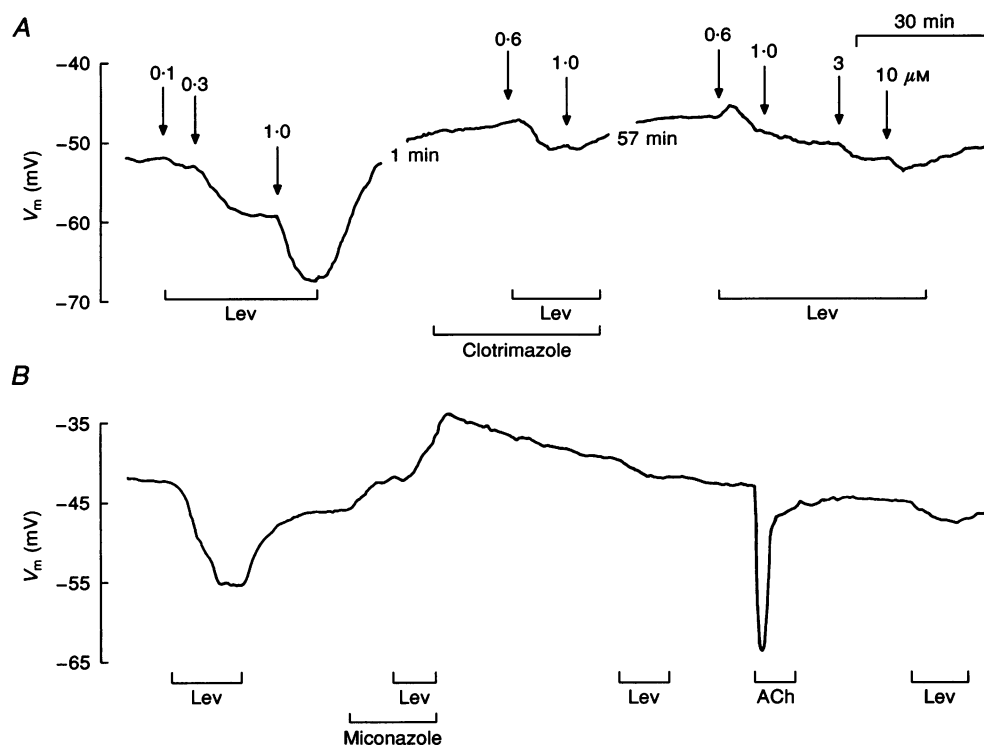
$V_m$  changes of mesenteric artery smooth muscle cell induced by 300 nM levcromakalim (Lev) before, during and after exposure to proadifen (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ).

Suzuki, 1989; Vanheel *et al.* 1994), a rather characteristic time course. An initial transient peak hyperpolarization is followed by a smaller and more sustained component of hyperpolarization (Chen & Suzuki, 1989). The latter phase is partly due to endogenous NO liberated from the endothelium, as has been shown in the rat aorta (Vanheel *et al.* 1994) and the coronary artery (Parkington *et al.* 1993). Exogenous NO indeed slightly ( $\sim 2$  mV) hyperpolarizes the main mesenteric artery under our experimental conditions (Vanheel & Van de Voorde, 1995). The transient peak hyperpolarization is mainly caused by release of EDHF. It occurs by activation of smooth muscle  $K^+$  channels since: (a) ouabain, which blocks the  $Na^+$  pump, has no significant effect on this hyperpolarization; (b) decreasing the outwardly directed driving force for  $K^+$  ions greatly reduces the hyperpolarization; and (c) the rather non-specific  $K^+$  channel inhibitor TEA reversibly blocks the peak  $V_m$  change (Fig. 1). As reported for several rat vessels including mesenteric arteries (McPherson & Angus, 1991; Fujii *et al.* 1992), glibenclamide does not have a large effect on the ACh-induced endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization (Fig. 1D and Table 1), suggesting that the  $K^+$  channels activated by EDHF are different from those activated by levromakalim. Since glibenclamide is known

to block the (slower) hyperpolarization induced by iloprost (Murphy & Brayden, 1995), the limited and statistically insignificant influence of the sulphonylurea on the ACh-induced peak hyperpolarization further confirms the nominal absence of a prostacyclin-mediated component in this rapid phase of hyperpolarization in rat tissue (Parkington *et al.* 1993), which is predominantly due to EDHF.

Several studies in which the nitro-L-arginine-resistant, thus NO-independent, component of vasodilatation was measured suggested that the hyperpolarizing factor might be (a) cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenase-generated metabolite(s) from arachidonic acid (Hecker *et al.* 1994; Bauersachs *et al.* 1994; Fulton, Mahboubi, McGiff & Quilley, 1995). In coronary arteries, the biosynthesis of several EETs has been shown (Rosolowski, Falck, Willerson & Campbell, 1990). In addition, all EET regioisomers have been shown to activate  $K_{Ca}$  channels in isolated smooth muscle cells from several arteries (Gebremedhin *et al.* 1992; Hu & Kim, 1993; Campbell *et al.* 1996) and are, therefore, possible candidates as EDHF.

In the present experiments on rat mesenteric arteries, we found that quinacrine reversibly inhibited the EDHF-



**Figure 9.** Imidazole antimycotics inhibit endothelium-independent hyperpolarization induced by  $K_{ATP}$  channel opening

Original tracings of two long-term  $V_m$  measurements in mesenteric artery cells in which the influence of 30  $\mu M$  clotrimazole (A) and 100  $\mu M$  miconazole (B) on the hyperpolarization induced by levromakalim (Lev) was tested. In A, cumulative concentrations ( $\mu M$ ) of the  $K^+$  channel opener were applied as indicated by the arrows. During the breaks in the trace, the preparation was superfused for the indicated time with the control fluid. In B, a fixed levromakalim concentration (300 nM) was used to elicit hyperpolarization. Note inhibition of hyperpolarization by miconazole and intact peak hyperpolarization to ACh (1  $\mu M$ ) after washout of miconazole, while responses to levromakalim were still inhibited.

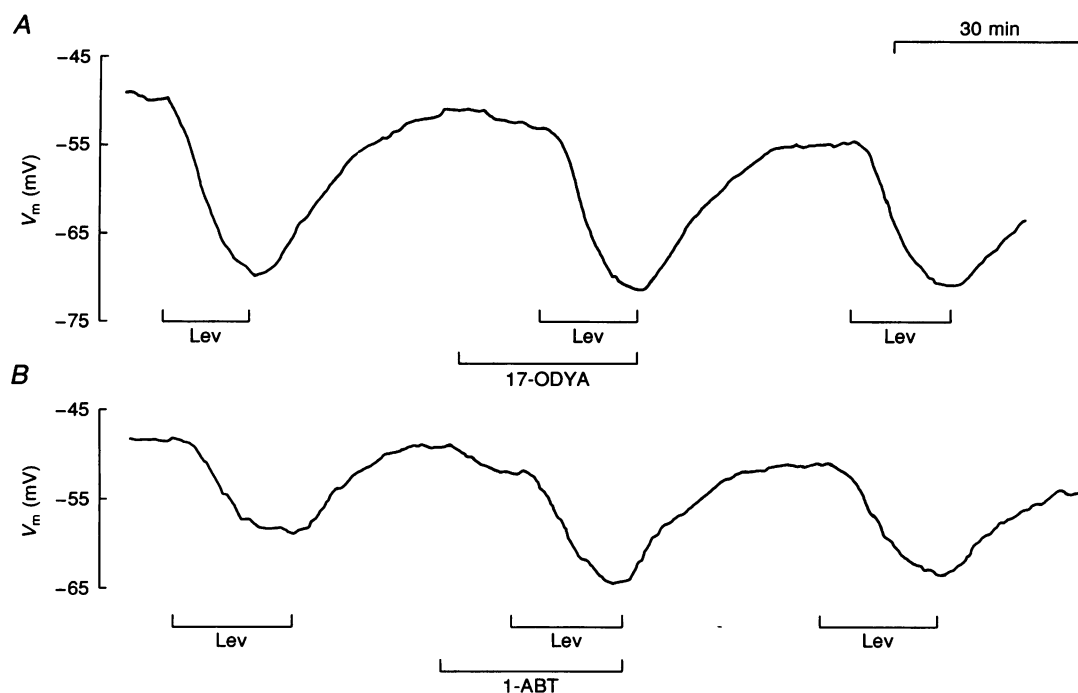


induced peak hyperpolarization elicited by ACh. In addition, proadifen, which is metabolized to an intermediate that inhibits cytochrome P450, fully blocked the ACh-induced hyperpolarization. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarizing factor is a cytochrome P450-derived metabolite from arachidonic acid (Hecker *et al.* 1994; Fulton *et al.* 1995). However, from these experiments an inhibitory influence of both quinacrine and proadifen on the liberation of this factor and/or on the activation of the muscular  $K^+$  channels by this substance cannot be excluded. Both drugs, for example, have been shown to possess calmodulin-antagonizing activity (Volpi, Sharafi, Epstein, Andrenyak & Feinstein, 1981), and calmodulin antagonists have been shown to inhibit the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization (Nagao, Iliano & Vanhoutte, 1992). In the present study, both compounds inhibited the endothelium-independent hyperpolarization produced by the  $K^+$  channel opener levromakalim (Figs 7 and 8). This directly indicates that the activation of at least the  $K_{ATP}$  channels in the membrane of the vascular smooth muscle cells is inhibited by these drugs.

The antifungal agents clotrimazole and miconazole inhibit cytochrome P450 by the formation of nitrogenous ligands to the haem iron of the protein. In the present experiments, we found that 10 min pre-exposure to 30  $\mu\text{M}$  clotrimazole or 100  $\mu\text{M}$  miconazole, concentrations considerably higher than their reported  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values, totally inhibited the

levromakalim-induced hyperpolarization but had less effect on the peak endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization produced by ACh (Fig. 5 and Table 1). In addition, we showed that two other structurally different inhibitors of cytochrome P450, 17-ODYA, which specifically blocks cytochrome P450-dependent mono-oxygenase-mediated long chain fatty acid metabolism, and 1-ABT, which is oxidized to benzyne which alkylates the porphyrin structure of the haemoprotein, had no influence on the ACh-induced hyperpolarization. These findings are a strong argument against the proposal that the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarizing factor is a cytochrome P450-derived metabolite from arachidonic acid, at least in the rat mesenteric artery. Similar findings were reported recently for the rat hepatic and the guinea-pig carotid artery (Zygmunt, Edwards, Weston, Davis & Högestätt, 1996; Corriu, Félétou, Canet & Vanhoutte, 1996). In the rat vessel, proadifen decreased the ACh-induced hyperpolarization from 14 to 3 mV, but completely abolished the hyperpolarization (23–25 mV) by levromakalim. In addition, the more specific inhibitor of cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenases, 17-ODYA, failed to inhibit the EDHF-mediated endothelium-dependent relaxation (Zygmunt *et al.* 1996).

Imidazole antimycotic agents have been reported to inhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent  $K^+$  channels (Alvarez, Montero & Garcia-Sancho, 1992) as well as voltage-dependent  $K^+$  channels (Yuan, Tod, Rubin & Blaustein, 1995). Both proadifen



**Figure 10.** 17-ODYA or 1-ABT do not impair hyperpolarization induced by  $K_{ATP}$  channel opening

Traces from 2 different experiments in which the influence of 17-ODYA (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ; A) and 1-ABT (2 mM; B) on the endothelium-independent hyperpolarization elicited by levromakalim (Lev; 300 nM) was tested.

(10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and clotrimazole (30  $\mu\text{M}$ ) have recently been reported to inhibit the delayed rectifier and the ATP-regulated  $\text{K}^+$  current ( $I_{\text{K(ATP)}}$ ) in freshly isolated rat portal vein smooth muscle cells, while 17-ODYA (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) had no effect on  $I_{\text{K(ATP)}}$  (Edwards, Zygmunt, Högestätt & Weston, 1996). In the present study, we found that both imidazole antimycotics completely and nearly irreversibly inhibited the hyperpolarization produced by levromakalim, while they had much less influence on the peak endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization produced by ACh (compare Figs 9 and 5). This indicates that  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels are more sensitive to these agents than the channels activated by EDHF, and adds further evidence that in smooth muscle cells from the rat main mesenteric artery the action of EDHF is not mediated by activation of  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels.

The influence of clotrimazole and miconazole on the later component of the ACh-induced hyperpolarization is similar to the effect of inhibition of NO synthase in the rat aorta (Vanheel *et al.* 1994) and might possibly be explained by partial inhibition of the release and/or of the hyperpolarizing influence of NO. The NO synthase enzyme contains a haem centre with the spectral properties of cytochrome P450, and shows considerable sequence homology with the NADPH-dependent cytochrome P450 reductase (for review, see Knowles & Moncada, 1994). Cytochrome P450 inhibitors, especially those interacting with the haem group, might therefore influence NO synthase activity. In fact, early studies suggested that the endothelium-dependent relaxing factor, later identified as NO, was a lipoxygenase or cytochrome P450 metabolite of arachidonic acid (Singer & Peach, 1983). In bovine aortic endothelial cells, miconazole has been shown to directly inhibit the constitutive NO synthase (Dudek, Conforto, Pinto, Wildhirt & Suzuki, 1995). Furthermore, the hyperpolarizing effect of NO is known to be mediated by  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channels, at least in small mesenteric arteries from the rat (Garland & McPherson, 1992). If endogenous NO liberated by ACh would act on the same type of  $\text{K}^+$  channel in the main mesenteric artery, one might expect that the imidazole antimycotics, documented in the present study to inhibit  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$  channel opening, were more effective inhibitors of the later component of hyperpolarization (induced by NO) than on the peak endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization (induced by EDHF). The observed depolarization of the resting  $V_{\text{m}}$  by miconazole is also in line with inhibition of basal NO release.

In conclusion, it was found that mechanistically dissimilar inhibitors of cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenase have a dissimilar effect on the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization elicited by ACh in the rat mesenteric artery. Proadifen, which inhibited the endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization, also inhibited the endothelium-independent hyperpolarization induced by levromakalim, showing an inhibitory effect on the target for EDHF, the vascular smooth muscle cell. Inhibition of the  $\text{K}^+$  channels activated by EDHF, therefore, is just as likely to explain

the blocked endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization (and NO-independent relaxation) as inhibition of the formation of EDHF. Imidazole antimycotics irreversibly inhibited the levromakalim-induced hyperpolarization, but had much less effect on the (peak) endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization induced by ACh. Moreover, two different suicide substrate inhibitors of cytochrome P450-dependent arachidonic acid metabolism, 17-ODYA and 1-ABT, had no influence on EDHF-mediated hyperpolarization. Taken together, these findings do not support the view that the ACh-induced endothelium-dependent hyperpolarization in the rat mesenteric artery is caused by (a) cytochrome P450 mono-oxygenase-derived metabolite(s) of arachidonic acid.

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