



# Thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> agonist modulation of excitatory synaptic transmission in the rat hippocampal slice

<sup>1</sup>Kuei-Sen Hsu & Wai-Ming Kan

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, National Cheng-Kung University, Tainan 701, Taiwan

**1** The effects of the selective thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> (TXA<sub>2</sub>) receptor agonist I-BOP on neuronal excitability and synaptic transmission were studied in the CA1 neurones of rat hippocampal slices by an intracellular recording technique.

**2** Superfusion of I-BOP (0.5 μM) resulted in a biphasic change of the excitatory postsynaptic potential (e.p.s.p.), which was blocked by pretreatment with SQ 29548, a specific antagonist of TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors. The inhibitory phase of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. was accompanied by a decrease in neuronal membrane input resistance.

**3** The sensitivity of postsynaptic neurones to glutamate receptor agonists, α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methylisoxazole-4-propionic acid (AMPA) or N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA), was unchanged by I-BOP (0.5 μM) pretreatment.

**4** Bath application of Ba<sup>2+</sup> (0.5 mM) prevented both the I-BOP-induced reduction of the neuronal membrane input resistance and the blockade of e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP.

**5** Intracellular dialysis of the hippocampal CA1 neurones with GDP (10 mM) significantly attenuated the I-BOP inhibition of e.p.s.p. and membrane input resistance. Incubation of the slices with either pertussis toxin (PTX, 5 μg ml<sup>-1</sup> for 12 h) or cholera toxin (CTX, 5 μg ml<sup>-1</sup> for 12 h) did not affect the biphasic action of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. or the reduction of membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP.

**6** Pretreatment of the slices with the protein kinase C (PKC) inhibitor, NPC-15437 (20 μM), abolished the biphasic modulation by I-BOP (0.5 μM) of the e.p.s.p. Intracellular application of a specific PKC inhibitor, PKCI 19–36 (20 μM), completely inhibited the I-BOP reduction of e.p.s.p. The specific cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) inhibitor, Rp-cyclic adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (Rp-cyclic AMPS, 25 μM), had no effect on the I-BOP action.

**7** In this study we have demonstrated, for the first time, the existence of functional TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors in the hippocampus which mediate the effects of a TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist on neuronal excitability and synaptic transmission. Activation of the presynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors may stimulate the release of glutamate. Conversely, activation of postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors leads to inhibition of synaptic transmission resulting from a decrease in the membrane input resistance of the neurones. The pre- and postsynaptic actions of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist are both mediated by PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-protein-coupled activation of PKC pathways.

**Keywords:** Thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> receptor; excitatory synaptic transmission; G-protein; protein kinase C; hippocampus

## Introduction

Thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> (TXA<sub>2</sub>) is the major cyclo-oxygenase metabolite of arachidonic acid (AA) which has been shown to activate platelets and to be a potent vasoconstrictor (Reilly & FitzGerald, 1993). It is synthesized by platelets in response to specific stimuli by a variety of platelet agonists (Hamberg *et al.*, 1975; FitzGerald, 1991) and acts as an amplifying signal for other platelet activators such as thrombin. Recently, it has been found that under physiological conditions, roughly 80% of the urinary metabolites of TXA<sub>2</sub> derive from platelets and that these metabolites are greatly increased, coincident with ischaemia, in cases of coronary instability, reflecting platelet activation (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1986; Reilly & FitzGerald, 1993). Hence, by regulating the activity of platelets and blood vessels, TXA<sub>2</sub> is thought to play a pathophysiological role in cerebral ischaemia, cardiovascular disease and shock (Pickard, 1981; Reilly & FitzGerald, 1993).

The role of TXA<sub>2</sub> in the cerebral ischaemic event has been of interest for a long time. Previous studies have shown that the level of brain TXB<sub>2</sub> (non-enzymatic degradation metabolite of TXA<sub>2</sub>) increases 55 fold in cerebral ischaemia, and it has

been postulated that this contributes to postischaemic hypoperfusion and the development of cerebral injury after ischaemia. Thus, it has been proposed that the elevation of TXA<sub>2</sub> levels in the brain is involved in the cerebral ischaemia-induced neuronal damage associated with cell death and subsequent functional deficiency (Shohami *et al.*, 1987; Tegmeier *et al.*, 1990; Matsuo *et al.*, 1993). Many studies have investigated the effect of cerebral ischaemia on the production of TXA<sub>2</sub> in the brain; however, the effects of TXA<sub>2</sub> on electrophysiological properties of neuronal cells have not been clarified.

Recently much evidence has been shown that neuronal death triggered by ischaemia is a result of excessive facilitation of glutamatergic synaptic transmission in the brain (Rothman & Olney, 1986; Szatkowski & Attwell, 1994). During ischaemia, the extracellular concentration of glutamate has been found to increase from the normal, low micromolar value, to several hundred micromolar (Szatkowski & Attwell, 1994). Excessive activation of glutamate receptors on the neurones may promote a flow of events eventually leading to cell depolarization, massive Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx, and neuronal death. Neurones in the CA1 region of the rat hippocampus have been shown to be particularly vulnerable to ischaemia (Pulsinelli *et al.*, 1982; Smith *et al.*, 1984) and the concentration of eicosa-

<sup>1</sup> Author for correspondence.

noids for the duration of ischaemia was correlated with the extent of neuronal damage following the insult (Westerberg *et al.*, 1987). Hence, the purpose of the present study was to determine whether the TXA<sub>2</sub>-induced neuronal damage during cerebral ischaemia is due to the excessive enhancement of excitatory synaptic transmission. We investigated the effect of a TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor agonist on neuronal excitability and excitatory synaptic transmission in the rat hippocampus by use of an intracellular recording technique in order to elucidate its mechanism of action. We found that the biphasic action of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist used synaptic transmission, that could be attributed to the enhancement of glutamate release at the presynaptic site, and the reduction of membrane input resistance of the postsynaptic pyramidal cells were both via PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-proteins-coupled activation of PKC pathways. Hence, we provide electrophysiological evidence that functional pre- and postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors exist in the CA1 region of rat hippocampal slices.

## Methods

### *Slice preparation and intracellular recordings*

Rat hippocampal slices (500  $\mu\text{m}$  thick) were isolated from male Sprague-Dawley rats (120–150 g) for intracellular recording by the procedure described previously (Hsu *et al.*, 1995; Hsu, 1996). A submerged recording chamber was used and the superfusing artificial cerebral spinal fluid (ACSF) solution was maintained at  $32 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . The composition of the ACSF solution was (in mM): NaCl 117, KCl 4.7, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1.2, NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 25, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 1.2 and glucose 11 (pH 7.4); oxygenated with 95% O<sub>2</sub>-5% CO<sub>2</sub>. The chamber consisted of a circular well of a low volume (1–2 ml) and was constantly perfused at a rate of 2–3 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. In experiments involving pertussis toxin (PTX) or cholera toxin (CTX) treatment, slices were incubated in ACSF solution containing PTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) or CTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) for at least 12 h before the recordings. Control preparations were treated with the same protocol in a PTX- or CTX-free ACSF solution. This experimental protocol was modified slightly from that described by Thomson & Gahiler (1992) and Huang & Gean (1994).

Intracellular recordings were made from CA1 pyramidal neurones by use of a glass microelectrode filled with 3 M potassium acetate (80–100 M $\Omega$ ). Microelectrodes were pulled from microfibre 1.0 mm capillary tubing on a Brown-Flaming electrode puller (Sutter Instrument, San Rafael, CA, U.S.A.). A bipolar stimulating electrode was positioned in the stratum radiatum. Orthodromic stimuli were delivered with monophasic constant voltage pulse at 0.033 Hz from a Grass stimulator with an isolation unit. The stimulus intensity was adjusted to subthreshold for action potential initiation. Electrical signals were amplified by an Axoclamp-2A amplifier (Axon Co.) connected to a Data-6100 digital oscilloscope (Data Precision Co.) for data analysis and subsequent plotting of fast transient potential.

### *Statistical analysis*

Throughout, results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean. The significance of difference was evaluated by Student's two-tailed paired *t* test. Numbers of experiments are indicated by *n*. Probability values (*P*) of less than 0.05 were considered to be significant.

### *Drugs*

[1S-(1 $\alpha$ , 2 $\beta$ (5Z), 3 $\alpha$ (1E), 3S\*)]-7-[3-(3-hydroxy-4-(4'-iodophenoxy)-1-butenyl)-7-oxabicyclo [2, 2, 1] heptan-2-yl]-5-heptenoic acid (I-BOP) and [1S-(1 $\alpha$ , 2 $\beta$ (5Z), 3 $\beta$ , 4 $\alpha$ )]-7-[3-(3-([2-(phenylamino) carbonyl] hydrazino)methyl))-7-oxabicyclo [2, 2, 1] heptan-2-yl]-5-heptenoic acid (SQ 29548) were purchased from Cayman Chemical Co. (Ann Arbor, MI, U.S.A.). R-2,

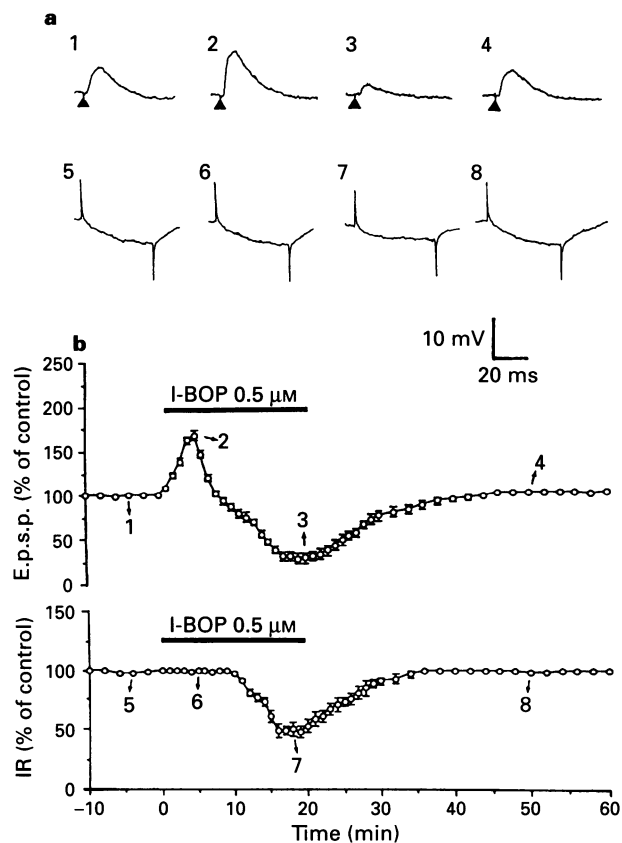
6-diamino-N-[[1-(1-oxotridecyl)-2-[piperidinyl]-methyl]-hexanamide dihydrochloride (NPC-15437), H-Arg-Phe-Ala-Arg-Lys-Gly-Ala-Leu-Arg-Gln-Lys-Asn-Val-His-Glu-Val-Lys-Asn-OH (PKCI 19-36) and guanosine 5'-diphosphate (GDP) were obtained from Research Biochemicals Inc. (Natick, MA, U.S.A.). ( $\pm$ )- $\alpha$ -Amino-3-hydroxy-5-methylisoxazole-4-propionic acid (AMPA), N-methyl-D-aspartic acid (NMDA), Rp-cyclic adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (Rp-cyclic AMPS), baclofen, DL-amino-5-phosphonovaleric acid (DL-APV), tetrodotoxin and BaCl<sub>2</sub> were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). All drugs were freshly prepared from stock solutions, dissolved in ACSF of known concentration. I-BOP was dissolved in ethanol as stock solution and kept frozen at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  until the day of the experiment. The concentration of ethanol in the perfusion medium ranged from 0.02–0.12%. In four control experiments, ethanol of these concentrations did not affect either the active or the passive properties of the recording neurones. PKCI 19-36 and GDP dissolved in the 3 M potassium acetate solution were applied intracellularly by allowing them to leak from the recording microelectrode for at least 40 min, according to the method described by Cerne *et al.* (1992).

## Results

### *Effects of TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist on the excitatory postsynaptic potential, (e.p.s.p.)*

The effects of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist on neuronal excitability and excitatory synaptic transmission were studied in the CA1 region of rat hippocampal slices by use of an intracellular recording technique. The data presented here were obtained from 168 stable intracellular recordings from rat hippocampal neurones with resting membrane potential more negative than  $-55$  mV and action potential amplitude greater than 70 mV. The resting membrane potential and neuronal input resistance were  $-64.8 \pm 0.6$  mV ( $n=42$ ) and  $42.7 \pm 1.2$  M $\Omega$  ( $n=42$ ), respectively.

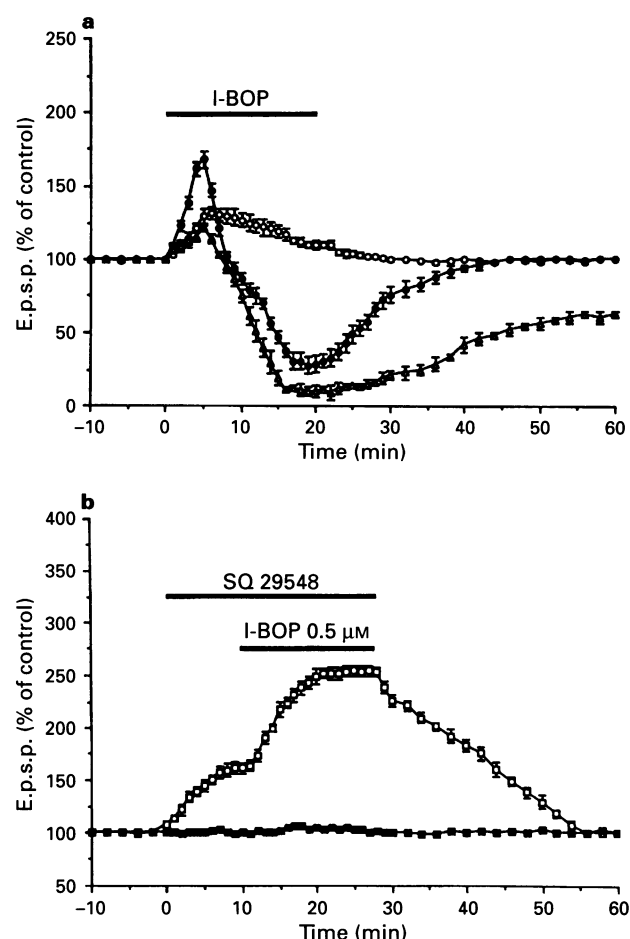
Figure 1a shows an example of an intracellular recording of excitatory postsynaptic potential (e.p.s.p.) evoked by orthodromic stimulation of the Schaffer collateral-commissural pathway. In our previous study, we identified that this depolarizing synaptic response is mediated by both NMDA ( $\sim 10\%$ ) and non-NMDA ( $\sim 90\%$ ) glutamate receptors on the hippocampal CA1 neurones (Hsu *et al.*, 1995; Hsu, 1996). Superfusion of a specific TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist, I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) (Morinelli *et al.*, 1989), resulted in a biphasic change of the e.p.s.p. The e.p.s.p. significantly increased ( $168.0 \pm 5.3\%$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) during the initial 2–10 min and then decreased to  $29.0 \pm 5.7\%$  ( $P < 0.001$ ) of the control ( $n=12$ ). The initial increase of the e.p.s.p. occurred without any change in neuronal membrane potential or membrane input resistance. In contrast to the enhancement phase, the inhibition by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. was accompanied by alternation of the passive cellular properties, i.e. a membrane hyperpolarization from  $-65.6 \pm 0.5$  mV to  $-75.8 \pm 1.1$  mV ( $n=12$ , data not shown) and a decrease in neuronal membrane input resistance from  $41.9 \pm 0.8$  M $\Omega$  to  $21.4 \pm 1.2$  M $\Omega$  ( $n=12$ ) (Figure 1). The e.p.s.p. recovered within minutes after withdrawal of I-BOP, suggesting the reversibility of the effect of I-BOP. The biphasic action of I-BOP (0.1–3  $\mu\text{M}$ ) on the e.p.s.p. was dose-dependent (Figure 2a). The mean I-BOP modulation of the e.p.s.p. at steady state was (% of control  $\pm$  s.e.mean): 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ , enhancement phase  $132.1 \pm 4.1\%$  and inhibitory phase  $110.1 \pm 3.2\%$  ( $n=6$ ); 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ , enhancement phase  $168.0 \pm 5.3\%$  and inhibitory phase  $29.0 \pm 5.7\%$  ( $n=12$ ); 3  $\mu\text{M}$ , enhancement phase  $121.3 \pm 2.3\%$  and inhibitory phase  $11.3 \pm 2.3\%$  ( $n=8$ ). Application of I-BOP at a low concentration (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) produced only an increase of the e.p.s.p. amplitude. However, higher concentrations of I-BOP (0.5 and 3  $\mu\text{M}$ ) produced more pronounced depression of the e.p.s.p. Superfusion of SQ 29548 (5  $\mu\text{M}$ ), a recently developed high affinity antagonist of TXA<sub>2</sub>



**Figure 1** Effect of I-BOP on synaptic transmission. (a) A depolarizing excitatory postsynaptic potential (e.p.s.p.) could be evoked by the electrical stimulation of Schaffer collateral-commissural pathway. A hyperpolarizing current pulse was passed through the recording electrode ( $-0.2$  nA, 50 ms) to monitor the membrane input resistance. The effect of I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M) on the e.p.s.p. was biphasic and reversible. (b) Time course of the effect of  $0.5$   $\mu$ M I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. Note that the biphasic change of the response is primary facilitation followed by depression of the e.p.s.p. The inhibition by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. was accompanied by a substantial decrease in the membrane input resistance (IR). Filled triangles represent the point of synaptic stimulation. Bars denote the period of I-BOP application. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean ( $n = 12$ ).

receptors (Morinelli *et al.*, 1989), produced a significant increase in the e.p.s.p. ( $153.2 \pm 2.7\%$  of control,  $P < 0.001$ ) and completely blocked the reduction by I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M) of the e.p.s.p. ( $n = 6$ ) (Figure 2b). Application of a low concentration of SQ 29548 ( $5$   $\mu$ M) had little effect on the enhancement phase of the e.p.s.p. amplitude induced by I-BOP. However, at a high concentration ( $20$   $\mu$ M), SQ 29548 abolished both the enhancement and the depression of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M,  $n = 7$ ) (Figure 2b), suggesting that SQ 29548 was not equally effective as an antagonist of the pre- and postsynaptic action of I-BOP. In addition, the I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M)-induced reduction of the membrane input resistance was also abolished by SQ 29548 ( $5$   $\mu$ M) ( $n = 8$ , data not shown). These data demonstrate that the modulation of e.p.s.p. and membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP on hippocampal neurones is mediated by the activation of TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors.

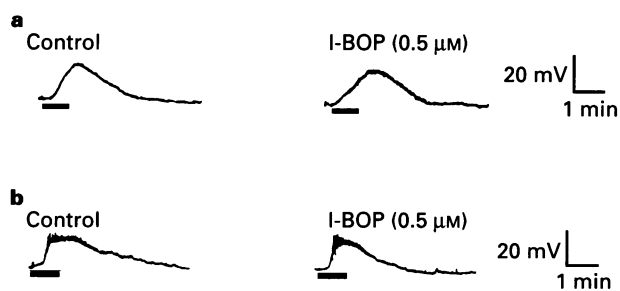
To determine whether the biphasic action on e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP is mediated by a pre- or postsynaptic mechanism, we examined the effects of I-BOP on the postsynaptic responses to exogenously applied AMPA and NMDA. The experiments were performed in the presence of tetrodotoxin ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M). As illustrated in Figure 3, application of AMPA ( $10$   $\mu$ M) or NMDA ( $10$   $\mu$ M) produced a membrane depolarization,  $22.6 \pm 3.6$  mV ( $n = 6$ ) and  $20.5 \pm 4.5$  mV ( $n = 6$ ), respectively. I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M) pretreatment did not affect the AMPA-induced ( $21.5 \pm 3.2$  mV,  $n = 6$ ) or NMDA-induced



**Figure 2** I-BOP modulates the e.p.s.p. in a dose-dependent manner which is blocked by SQ 29548. (a) The percentage changes of the e.p.s.p. are plotted as a function of time. The slices were superfused with I-BOP  $0.1$   $\mu$ M ( $\circ$ ),  $0.5$   $\mu$ M ( $\bullet$ ) and  $3$   $\mu$ M ( $\Delta$ ) for 20 min. Note that the higher concentration of I-BOP produced more pronounced depression of the e.p.s.p. (b) The modulation of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP was blocked by SQ 29548  $5$   $\mu$ M ( $\square$ ) and  $20$   $\mu$ M ( $\blacksquare$ ), a selective TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonist. Bars denote the period of application of the drugs. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean.

membrane depolarization ( $21.3 \pm 3.1$  mV,  $n = 6$ ) (Figure 3). These results in the slice experiments were also confirmed in dissociated neurones; I-BOP ( $0.5$   $\mu$ M) had no significant effect on the membrane inward currents induced by pressure application of AMPA ( $100$   $\mu$ M,  $98.7 \pm 1.1\%$ ,  $n = 8$ ) or NMDA ( $100$   $\mu$ M,  $96.7 \pm 2.6\%$ ,  $n = 6$ ) on the acutely dissociated hippocampal CA1 neurones measured by use of whole-cell voltage-clamp recording at a holding potential of  $-60$  mV (data not shown). These data suggest that the biphasic action of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. in hippocampal CA1 neurones is not mediated by a postsynaptic action on either AMPA or NMDA receptors.

To determine whether the activation of postsynaptic potassium conductance is involved in the reduction of membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP, a specific inhibitor of inward rectifier K<sup>+</sup> channels, Ba<sup>2+</sup> (Uchimura & North, 1990), was used. As depicted in Figure 4a, the effectiveness of Ba<sup>2+</sup> treatment was confirmed by the finding that baclofen ( $10$   $\mu$ M), a specific  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA)<sub>B</sub> receptor agonist, failed to produce neuronal membrane hyperpolarization or decrease the membrane input resistance. In 4 untreated neurones, superfusion with  $10$   $\mu$ M baclofen caused a  $-8.9 \pm 1.2$  mV membrane hyperpolarization. In the presence of Ba<sup>2+</sup> ( $0.5$  mM), baclofen produced little hyperpolarization ( $-0.3 \pm 0.1$  mV,  $n = 6$ ). The effect of Ba<sup>2+</sup> on the I-BOP action is summarized in Figure 4a. Bath application of Ba<sup>2+</sup> ( $0.5$  mM)

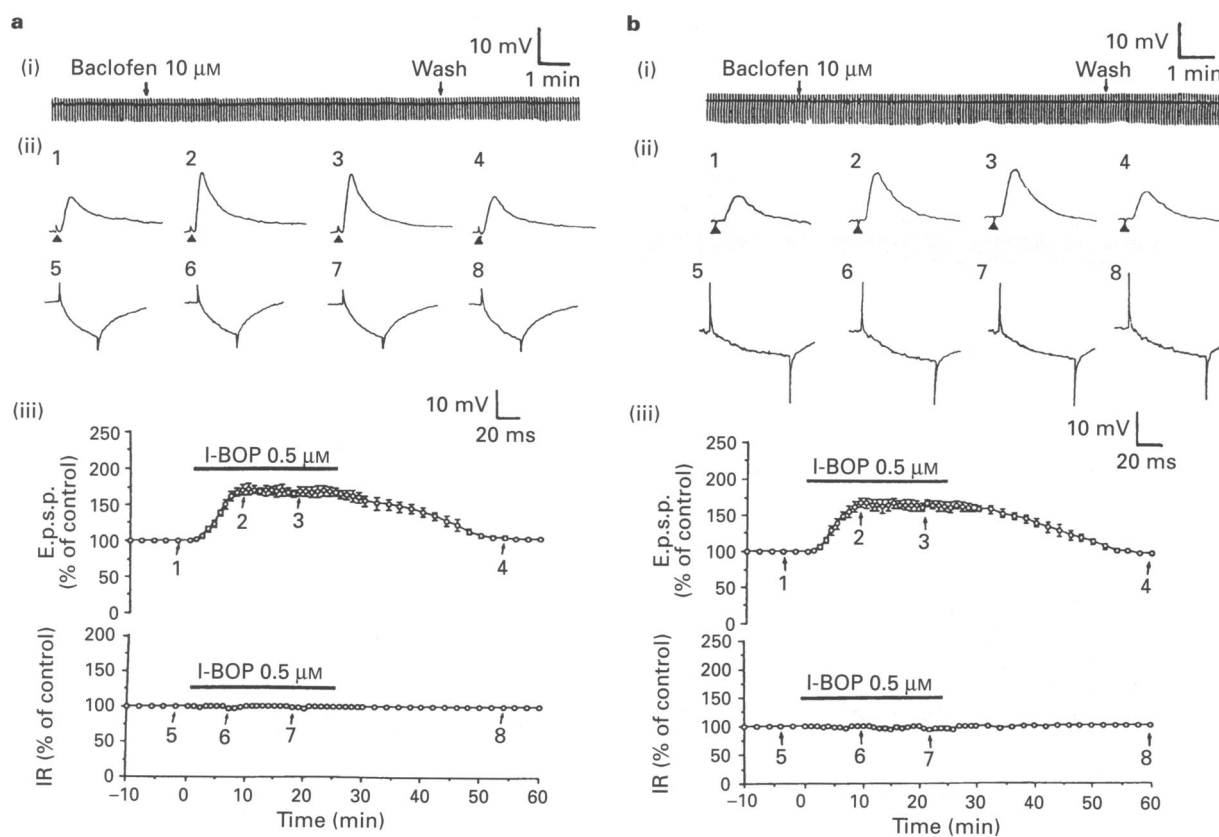


**Figure 3** Effect of I-BOP on (a) AMPA- and (b) NMDA-induced membrane responses. Superfusion of either (a) AMPA ( $10\ \mu\text{M}$ , 1 min) or (b) NMDA ( $10\ \mu\text{M}$ , 1 min) evoked a membrane depolarization. Pretreatment of the slices with I-BOP ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ) for 20 min did not significantly affect either AMPA- or NMDA-induced depolarization. The experiment was performed in the presence of tetrodotoxin ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ). Bars denote the period of drug application.

prevented the reduction by I-BOP ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ) of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance (from  $49.0 \pm 2.8\%$  to  $2.3 \pm 0.7\%$ ,  $n=6$ ); however  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  had no effect on the enhancement phase of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP ( $n=6$ ) (Figure 4a). These data suggest that the mechanism underlying the inhibitory effects of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance may be due to an increase in the post-synaptic potassium conductance and hyperpolarization of postsynaptic neurones.

#### *TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist modulates synaptic transmission via a G-protein coupled mechanism*

It has been claimed that the TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor is linked via a pertussis toxin (PTX)- and cholera toxin (CTX)-insensitive G-protein (Reilly & FitzGerald, 1993). Thus, G-proteins could be involved in I-BOP action on neuronal excitability and synaptic transmission in the hippocampus. This hypothesis was tested by studying the internal dialysis of hippocampal neurones with GDP, an inhibitor of G-proteins (Kucera & Rittenhouse, 1988;



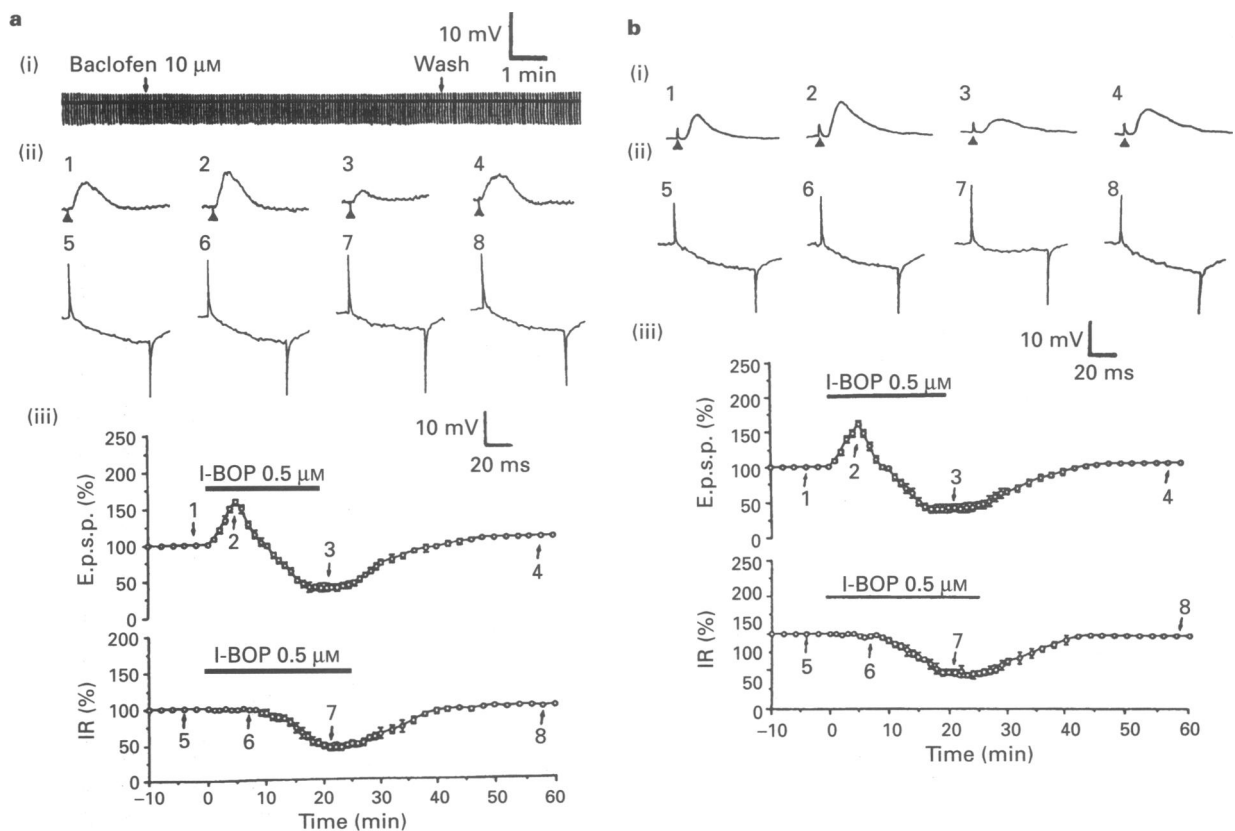
**Figure 4** Effects of barium ( $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ ) and GDP on the biphasic action of I-BOP on the synaptic transmission. (a(i)) Chart record illustrating the effect of baclofen ( $10\ \mu\text{M}$ ) on a hippocampal neurone in the presence of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ( $0.5\ \text{mM}$ ). During the experiment,  $-0.2\ \text{nA}$  hyperpolarizing current pulses were injected to monitor the membrane input resistance. The results indicate that baclofen failed to affect the membrane potential and the input resistance on the hippocampal neurone in the presence of  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ . During the recording,  $10\ \mu\text{M}$  DL-APV was applied in the perfusing ACSF solution to reduce the  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$ -induced increase in background spontaneous synaptic activity. (a(ii) and a(iii)) Sixty minutes after washout of baclofen with  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  ( $0.5\ \text{mM}$ )- and DL-APV ( $10\ \mu\text{M}$ )-containing ACSF solution, application of I-BOP ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ) to the same cell resulted in an increase in the e.p.s.p. amplitude but failed to change the neuronal membrane input resistance (IR). This indicates that  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  significantly attenuated the I-BOP-induced depression of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance. (b(i)) Chart record illustrating the effect of baclofen ( $10\ \mu\text{M}$ ) on the hippocampal neurone after intracellular application of GDP ( $10\ \text{mM}$ ) for 40 min. During application of baclofen,  $-0.2\ \text{nA}$  hyperpolarizing current pulses were injected to monitor the membrane input resistance. Baclofen failed to affect the membrane potential and the input resistance on the hippocampal neurone intracellularly dialyzed with GDP ( $10\ \text{mM}$ ). (b(ii)) After application of I-BOP ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ) to the same cell as shown in the b(i), there was an increase in the e.p.s.p. but no change in the neuronal membrane input resistance. (b(iii)) Intracellular application of GDP ( $10\ \text{mM}$ ,  $n=8$ ) significantly abolished the inhibition of the e.p.s.p. and the input resistance induced by I-BOP ( $0.5\ \mu\text{M}$ ). In contrast, the enhancement effect of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. remained unaffected. Solid triangles represent the point of stimulation. Bars denote the period of I-BOP application. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean. The changes of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance (IR) induced by I-BOP are expressed as a percentage of control.

Orellana *et al.*, 1989; Doroshenko, 1991). During dialysis of the hippocampal neurones with 10 mM GDP which prevents the activation of G-proteins, the depression of the e.p.s.p. and membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) were abolished in all eight neurones tested (Figure 4b). This demonstrates that the inhibition by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. and membrane input resistance occurs through the activation of GTP-binding proteins. The effectiveness of GDP treatment was confirmed by the finding that baclofen, a specific GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor agonist (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ), failed to produce neuronal membrane hyperpolarization or decrease the membrane input resistance (Huang & Gean, 1994). To determine the identity of the G-proteins that mediate the I-BOP action on synaptic transmission, hippocampal slices were pretreated with either PTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) or CTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) for 12 h (Huang & Gean, 1994; Thomson & Gahiler, 1992). The effects of I-BOP on e.p.s.p. and the input resistance in PTX- and CTX-pretreatment hippocampal slices are summarized in Figure 5a and b. As shown in Figure 5a(i), both the membrane hyperpolarizing and the membrane input resistance decreasing effects normally produced by baclofen (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) were blocked in hippocampal CA1 neurones of PTX-pretreated slices. This indicates that the activity of G-proteins expressed in neurones, which are sensitive to PTX (such as G<sub>i</sub> or G<sub>o</sub>), was blocked by our pretreatment protocol. During superfusion of 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  I-BOP, the e.p.s.p. amplitude significantly increased

(158.7  $\pm$  3.7%) during the initial 2–10 min and then decreased to 36.4  $\pm$  3.9% in PTX-pretreated neurones ( $n=10$ ). In addition, the membrane input resistance was reduced from 42.7  $\pm$  1.2 M $\Omega$  to 22.3  $\pm$  0.9 M $\Omega$  in the presence of 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  I-BOP ( $n=10$ ). Therefore, PTX treatment did not affect the action of I-BOP. Incubation of the slices with CTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) also did not change the biphasic modulation of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP. In the CTX-pretreated slices, the initial increase of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was 161.3  $\pm$  4.7% and the inhibitory phase was 38.2  $\pm$  3.2% of the control ( $n=10$ ). Moreover, the membrane input resistance was reduced from 43.2  $\pm$  1.1 M $\Omega$  to 21.6  $\pm$  0.7 M $\Omega$  in the presence of I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ,  $n=10$ ) in the hippocampal neurones of CTX-pretreated slices (Figure 5b). Hence as neither PTX ( $n=10$ ) nor CTX ( $n=10$ ) appeared to affect the I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ )-induced modulation of synaptic transmission in the hippocampus, this effect of I-BOP is mediated by PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-proteins.

#### The involvement of protein kinase C involves in the agonist action of TXA<sub>2</sub>

It has been well documented that TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor stimulation in platelets is linked through a G-protein to phospholipase C (PLC) activation which hydrolyzes membrane phosphoinositides, resulting in the release of two intracellular messengers,



**Figure 5** Effects of pertussis toxin (PTX) and cholera toxin (CTX) on the biphasic action of I-BOP on synaptic transmission. (a(i)) Chart record illustrating the effect of baclofen (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) on a hippocampal neurone which was exposed to PTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) for 12 h. During the recording,  $-0.2$  nA hyperpolarizing current pulses were injected to monitor the membrane input resistance. Baclofen did not affect the membrane potential and the input resistance on neurones pretreated with PTX. (a(ii)) Application of I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) to the same cell as shown in a(i) resulted in a biphasic modulation of the e.p.s.p. amplitude and a reduced membrane input resistance. (a(iii)) PTX-pretreatment (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ,  $n=10$ ) did not affect the modulation of the e.p.s.p. and the depression of neuronal membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ). (b(i) and b(ii)) Neither the biphasic action on the e.p.s.p. nor the depression of membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP was affected by the CTX-pretreatment (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ,  $n=10$ ). The hippocampal slices were pretreated with PTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) and CTX (5  $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ) for 12 h before the recordings. Solid triangles represent the point of stimulation. Bars denote the period of I-BOP application. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean. The changes of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance (IR) reduced by I-BOP are expressed as the percentage of control.

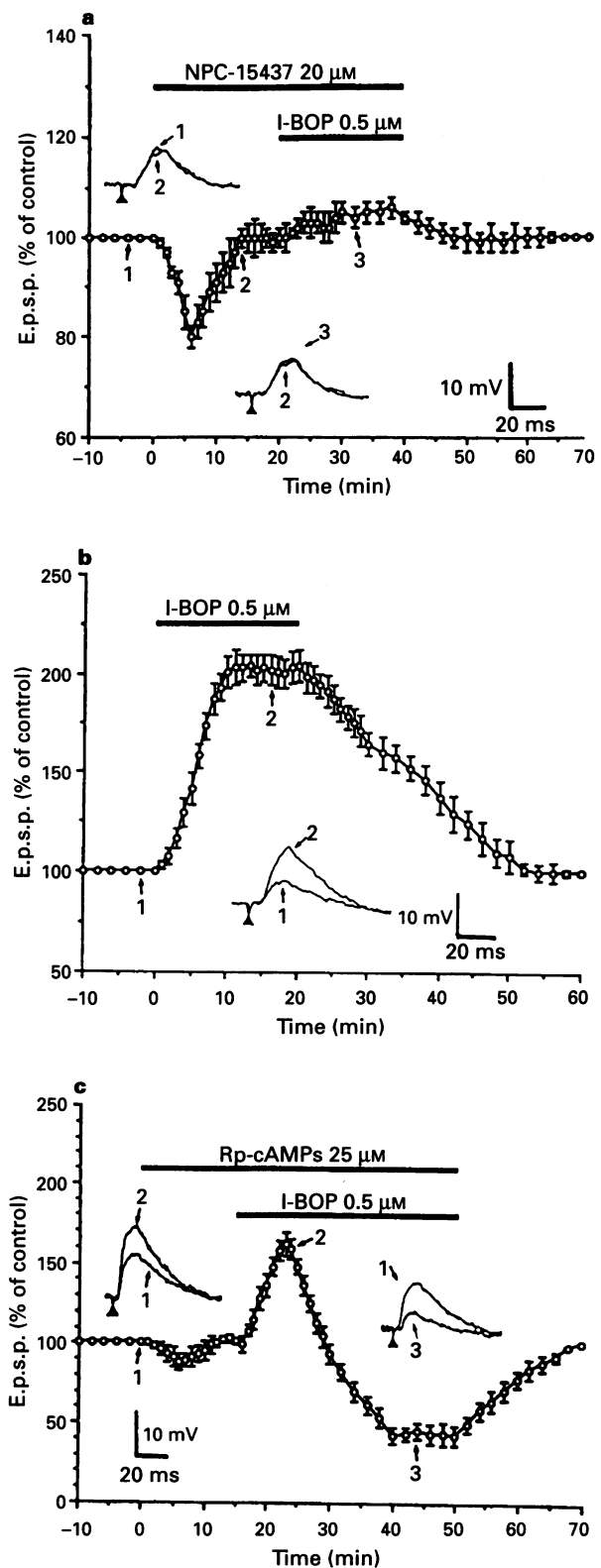
inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) and diacylglycerol (DAG) (Reilly & FitzGerald, 1993). These, in turn, release intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> and stimulate protein kinase C (PKC), respectively. Thus, PKC activation could be involved in the I-BOP modulation of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance on the hippocampal neurones. This hypothesis was tested by pretreatment of the hippocampal slices with the PKC inhibitor, NPC-15437 (Sullivan *et al.*, 1992). As shown in Figure 6a, superfusion of NPC-15437 (20 μM) resulted in a transient reduction of the e.p.s.p. and subsequent application of 0.5 μM I-BOP failed to affect the e.p.s.p. in all 6 slices tested ( $105.0 \pm 2.3\%$ ,  $n=6$ ,  $P<0.001$ ). In addition, the reduction of neuronal membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP (0.5 μM) was also abolished by the pretreatment with NPC-15437 (20 μM,  $n=6$ ) (data not shown). Further evidence supporting the hypothesis that PKC activation is involved in the depression by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. and the membrane input resistance was obtained by internal application of the specific PKC inhibitor, PKCI 19–36 (20 μM) to the hippocampal CA1 neurones; this abolished the I-BOP induced inhibition of the e.p.s.p. ( $n=8$ ) (Figure 6b). In contrast, the enhancement effect of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. was significantly potentiated by internal dialysis of PKCI 19–36 (20 μM) (from  $168.0 \pm 5.3\%$  to  $212.3 \pm 3.9\%$ ,  $n=6$ ,  $P<0.001$ ) (Figure 6b). These data indicate that both the presynaptic enhancement and the postsynaptic inhibition of excitatory synaptic transmission induced by I-BOP are mediated by the activation of PKC pathways. To test whether the activation of protein kinase A (PKA) is involved in the effect of I-BOP; Rp-cyclic AMPS (a potent inhibitor of PKA) was used (Rothermel *et al.*, 1984). As shown in Figure 6c, application of Rp-cyclic AMPS (25 μM) alone decreased the e.p.s.p. below baseline values ( $89.7 \pm 2.1\%$  of the control,  $n=6$ ) but failed to affect the biphasic action of I-BOP (0.5 μM) on e.p.s.p., suggesting that PKA activation is not involved in the effects of I-BOP on hippocampal CA1 neurones.

## Discussion

In this study, we have provided the first electrophysiological evidence that functional pre- and postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors exist in the CA1 region of rat hippocampal slices. The TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist at a low concentration (0.1 μM) produced enhancement of the e.p.s.p.; however, at higher concentrations (0.5 and 3 μM), it could produce a biphasic change of the e.p.s.p. The biphasic effect of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist on the excitatory synaptic transmission has been attributed to the enhancement of glutamate release at the presynaptic site and the reduction of membrane input resistance of the postsynaptic pyramidal cell via PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-proteins-coupled to activation of the PKC pathway.

### Mechanism of action of pre- and postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors

The results of the present study provide evidence that the initial increase of the e.p.s.p. amplitude induced by the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist (I-BOP, 0.5 μM) was due to an increase of glutamate release from presynaptic terminals. Two sets of data support this conclusion. Firstly, the initial increase of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP (0.5 μM) occurred with negligible changes in resting membrane potential (RMP) or input resistance of the postsynaptic neurones. Secondly, postsynaptic responses induced by AMPA and NMDA in the slice preparation and in acutely dissociated hippocampal CA1 neurones were unchanged by I-BOP (0.5 μM) pretreatment. The mechanism underlying the increase in the evoked release of glutamate through the activation of presynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors remains to be established. The most likely possibility is that the activation of PKC by I-BOP (see below) may directly phosphorylate voltage-dependent Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels and increase the activity of Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, resulting in an increased intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> level and the release of glutamate. We cannot



**Figure 6** Protein kinase C (PKC) inhibitors block the modulation of I-BOP on the synaptic transmission. (a) In the presence of a specific PKC inhibitor, NPC-15437 (20 μM,  $n=6$ ), the I-BOP modulation of the e.p.s.p. was significantly attenuated. (b) Intracellular application of PKCI 19–36 (20 μM,  $n=6$ ) abolished the inhibition by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. but potentiated the enhancement effect of I-BOP. (c) Pretreatment with the protein kinase A (PKA) inhibitor, Rp-cyclic AMPS (25 μM,  $n=6$ ), did not significantly affect the biphasic action of I-BOP (0.5 μM) on the e.p.s.p. Solid triangles represent the point of synaptic stimulation. Bars denote the period of delivery of different treatment as indicated. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  s.e.mean.

rule out the possibility that PKC activation may alter the release process by changing the properties of synaptic vesicle proteins, or by altering some other aspect of the vesicular fusion mechanism described by Parfitt & Madison (1993) in rat hippocampus. Our results are in agreement with the earlier suggestion that PKC activator, phorbol esters, enhance the synaptic transmission in hippocampal slices via a presynaptic mechanism. It has shown that phorbol esters enhance synaptic transmission without changing the sensitivity of postsynaptic pyramidal cells to iontophoretically applied glutamate (Malenka *et al.*, 1986). On the other hand, the decrease of the membrane input resistance caused by the activation of the postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors certainly contributes to depression of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP. This action alone could account for the depression of the excitatory synaptic transmission that was produced by I-BOP. Firstly, in virtually every neurone tested, depression of the e.p.s.p. by I-BOP persisted at time when I-BOP-induced decreases in the membrane input resistance were detectable. Secondly, Ba<sup>2+</sup> (0.5 mM), a specific inhibitor of inward rectifier K<sup>+</sup> channels (Uchimura & North, 1990), prevented both the I-BOP-induced reduction of the membrane input resistance of hippocampal CA1 neurones and the depression of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP. Thirdly, dialysis of the hippocampal neurones with GDP (10 mM) or PKCI 19–36 (20 μM) which prevented the I-BOP-induced depression of the membrane input resistance, also abolished the depression of the e.p.s.p. induced by I-BOP in all neurones tested. All of these results suggest that I-BOP reduces excitatory synaptic transmission of rat hippocampal CA1 neurones via its depression of the membrane input resistance.

#### *Mediation of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist action by G-proteins*

The possible involvement of G-proteins in the inhibition by I-BOP of the neuronal excitability and the synaptic transmission was tested by intracellular dialysis of the postsynaptic pyramidal cells with GDP. Internal dialysis of 10 mM GDP, which inhibits the activation of G-proteins (Orellana *et al.*, 1987), resulted in the loss of the reduction of e.p.s.p amplitude and membrane input resistance induced by I-BOP (0.5 μM) (Figure 4a). This demonstrates the involvement of a G-protein-coupled mechanism in the reduction of the synaptic transmission and the neuronal excitability induced by postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor activation. Pertussis toxin (PTX) and cholera toxin (CTX) are popularly used for implicating G-proteins in specific functions (Birnbaumer, 1992). In this study, to determine the identity of the G-proteins that mediate the I-BOP-induced modulation of neuronal excitability and synaptic transmission, the hippocampal slices were pretreated with either PTX (5 μg ml<sup>-1</sup>) or CTX (5 μg ml<sup>-1</sup>) for 12 h (Thomson & Gahler, 1992; Huang & Gean, 1994). We found that neither PTX- nor CTX-pretreatment affected the actions of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. and neuronal membrane input resistance. This suggests that the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist modulates the neuronal excitability and the synaptic transmission in the CA1 region of the rat hippocampal slices via a PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-protein. Hence, the mechanism of action of the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist in the hippocampus is similar to that previously found by Carlson *et al.* (1989) and Takahara *et al.* (1990) in human platelets; they showed that TXA<sub>2</sub>-induced platelet shape change, secretion and aggregation occurred via a PTX- and CTX-insensitive G-protein. This G-protein has not been fully characterized, but is thought to belong to the G<sub>z</sub> or the G<sub>q</sub> class of G-proteins.

#### *The involvement of PKC in the pre- and postsynaptic activation of TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors*

To determine whether TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist activation of a G-protein(s) and coupling, which result in the modulation of neuronal excitability and the synaptic transmission, involves intracellular mediators such as protein kinase C (PKC) and a cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA), we examined the

effects of two specific inhibitors of PKC and one specific inhibitor of PKA on the action of I-BOP. We found that NPC-15437, a specific membrane permeable inhibitor of PKC, significantly abolished the effect of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. (Sullivan *et al.*, 1991; 1992). Further evidence supporting the role of PKC activation in the effect of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p. was obtained by intracellular application of PKCI 19–36, a synthetic pseudosubstrate inhibitor of PKC (Bell & Burns, 1991). The mechanism of action by which the enhancement effect of I-BOP on the e.p.s.p amplitude was potentiated by internal dialysis of the pyramidal cells with PKCI 19–36 is not yet resolved and remains to be elucidated. Recently, it has been shown that PKA activation may also be indirectly involved in the TXA<sub>2</sub> receptor activation (Heemskert *et al.*, 1994). To test this possibility we examined the effect of a specific inhibitor of PKA on the action of I-BOP. The specific membrane-permeable and competitive inhibitor of PKA (Dostmann *et al.*, 1990; Frey *et al.*, 1993), Rp-cyclic AMPS which competes with cyclic AMP for the binding site on the regulatory subunit of PKA, was used. Pretreatment of the hippocampal slices with Rp-cyclic AMPS had no effects on the biphasic modulation by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. Taken together, these data suggest that the biphasic modulation by I-BOP of the e.p.s.p. and the reduction of membrane input resistance by I-BOP on the hippocampal CA1 neurones are mediated by activation of PKC but not of PKA. It is clear that the pre- and postsynaptic TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors share a pharmacologically indistinguishable intracellular mechanism (PKC activation) to exert their actions in the hippocampus.

In the present study, we demonstrated that TXA<sub>2</sub> receptors exist on the hippocampal neurones; but the kind of cells supplying TXA<sub>2</sub> to the neurones remain to be elucidated. Pearce *et al.* (1989) showed that ATP released TXA<sub>2</sub> from rat astrocytes via activation of purinoceptors and similar results were also confirmed by Nakahata *et al.* (1992) with rabbit astrocytes. Therefore, the cell supplying TXA<sub>2</sub> to neurones might be astrocytes. Moreover, the brain vascular bed might be another source of TXA<sub>2</sub> for neurones, since Shirahata *et al.* (1988) indicated that endothelium-derived contracting substance in brain vascular bed might be a TXA<sub>2</sub>-like substance.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist, I-BOP regulates the excitatory synaptic transmission in the hippocampus by a complex neuromodulatory mechanism. I-BOP, at a low concentration enhances glutaminergic synaptic transmission in the hippocampal CA1 neurones primarily by increasing neurotransmitter release from presynaptic terminals. This effect probably represents the significant mechanisms of TXA<sub>2</sub>-induced neuronal death in cerebral ischaemia, since the excessive facilitation of glutaminergic synaptic transmission in the brain may promote a flow of events eventually leading to cell depolarization, massive Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx, and neuronal death (Rothman & Olney, 1986; Szatkowski & Attwell, 1994). Conversely, at higher concentrations, I-BOP reduced the membrane input resistance of the hippocampal CA1 neurones and produce a depression of the excitatory synaptic transmission. These effects may result in the reduction of neuronal excitability which then affect higher brain functions including learning and memory. It has been found that when the membrane input resistance is reduced by drugs (e.g. GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor against baclofen), a decrease in inhibitory transmission as well as excitatory transmission is observed (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1992). In the present study, we did not test the effect of I-BOP on the inhibitory synaptic transmission in the hippocampal CA1 neurones. Whether the TXA<sub>2</sub> agonist could also modulate the inhibitory synaptic transmission remains unknown. Additional studies are required to test this possibility.

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