G Protein $\beta\gamma$ Complexes in Circumvallate Taste Cells Involved in Bitter Transduction

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Abstract

G protein $\beta\gamma$ (G $\beta\gamma$) complexes are considered to play an important role in second messenger signaling of phospholipase C (PLC). Monitoring the inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) response in circumvallate tissue homogenates upon stimulation with denatonium benzoate, it was demonstrated that a glutathione S-transferase–GRK3ct fusion protein—a G $\beta\gamma$ scavenger—attenuates the bitter tastant-induced second messenger reaction. Towards an identification of the G $\beta\gamma$ complex involved in rat bitter taste transduction, it was found that the G protein β_3 subtype is specifically expressed in taste receptor cells of circumvallate papillae. G β_3 -specific antibodies blocked the denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ formation in a dose-dependent manner; the inhibitory effect was reversed by preincubation with the antigenic peptide. A less pronounced inhibition was observed using G β_1 -specific antibodies. Analyzing individual taste cells by single cell reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction approaches, overlapping expression patterns for PLC β_2 , G α_{gust} , G β_3 and G γ_3 could be demonstrated. Furthermore, the coexpression of all profiled signal transduction components in individual taste receptor cells could be detected. These data support the concept that the denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ response is mediated by an activation of PLC β_2 via a G $\beta\gamma$ complex, possibly composed of G β_3 as the predominant β subunit and G γ_3 , and imply that multiple second messenger pathways may exist in individual taste receptor cells.

Introduction

Given the chemical diversity of taste molecules, complex mechanisms are involved for their transduction, ranging from amiloride-sensitive ion channels and several types of K⁺-channels to G protein-coupled receptors (Lindemann, 1996a). The perception of bitter stimuli is considered to be mediated by G protein-coupled reaction cascades involving the activation of at least two different effector enzymes (Kinnamon and Margolskee, 1996). One of the proposed mechanisms for signaling bitter tastants is the activation of phosphodiesterase (PDE), resulting in reduction of cAMP levels which cause activation of cyclic nucleotide-inhibited ion channels, thus leading to depolarization of bitterreactive gustatory cells (Kolesnikov and Margolskee, 1995; Ruiz-Avila et al., 1995; Wong et al., 1996). In addition, there is compelling evidence for an alternative mechanism for bitter transduction which relies on activation of phospholipase C (PLC) leading to generation of IP₃ (Akabas et al., 1988; Hwang et al., 1990; Spielman et al., 1994). A special subtype of PLC β has recently been identified from rat circumvallate papillae which is likely to participate in sensory transduction of the bitter agent denatonium benzoate (Rössler et al., 1998). Since this isoform is closely related to

human PLC β_2 , it may be activated in the same manner as proposed for the human isoform (Camps *et al.*, 1992; Park *et al.*, 1992; Sankaran *et al.*, 1998). In cotransfection assays, receptor-mediated release of G protein $\beta\gamma$ (G $\beta\gamma$) subunits from pertussis toxin-sensitive heterotrimeric G proteins was shown to result in activation of human PLC β_2 (Katz *et al.*, 1992). Possible sites for interaction with G $\beta\gamma$ complexes are the pleckstrin homology domain, a region separating the bipartite catalytic domain and the first half of the Y box (Wu *et al.*, 1993; Lee and Rhee, 1995; Kuang *et al.*, 1996; James and Downes, 1997).

Considering a role of $G\beta\gamma$ complexes in regulating PLC β_2 activity, we set out to identify and to characterize $\beta\gamma$ subunits possibly involved in rat bitter transduction.

Material and methods

Isolation of taste buds, single taste cells and non-sensory lingual tissue

Tongues were isolated from freshly decapitated adult Sprague–Dawley rats (Charles River, Sulzfeld, Germany) and stored in ice-cold tyrode solution (140 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4) for 10 min. Circumvallate papillae were collected using glass capillaries and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen (Spielman et al., 1989). Circumvallate sheets were prepared as described previously (Striem et al., 1991; Bernhardt et al., 1996; Kretz et al., 1999). Single taste buds were harvested by suction with a 40 μ m pipette containing low-Ca²⁺ tyrode solution (140 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4) by observation under an inverted microscope (Olympus IX70). For the isolation of single taste cells, individual taste buds were transferred to a Petri dish covered with cured Sylgard containing low-Ca²⁺ tyrode solution. Cells were observed under inverted microscope and taste receptor cells were identified by their characteristic morphology. Single taste cells were picked up under microscopic control with a micromanipulator by applying suction on a 10 μ m microcapillary containing low-Ca²⁺ tyrode solution. Single cells were then transferred to PCR tubes by applying positive pressure, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70°C. Non-sensory lingual tissue was obtained from epithelium around the circumvallate papilla and from the dorsal part of the tongue, just anterior to the circumvallate papilla, including underlying muscle and salivary tissue.

RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis and amplification of cDNA

Total RNA isolated from non-sensory control tissue was prepared by tissue homogenization in TRIzol reagent (Gibco BRL, Eggenstein, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions, including a DNase digestion (DNase I, Gibco BRL). Subsequently, mRNA was isolated from total RNA of control tissue and directly from single taste buds (Dynabeads, Dynal, Oslo, Norway), and reverse transcribed using a first-strand cDNA synthesis kit according to the manufacturer (Pharmacia, Freiburg, Germany). cDNA of individual taste buds was synthesized and re-amplified as described in the following for single taste cells. For lysis of single cells, frozen cells were incubated at 72°C for 2 min and rapidly chilled on ice. Single-stranded cDNA was synthesized using Superscript reverse transcriptase II (Gibco BRL) according to the manual provided with the SMARTTM cDNA technology (Clontech Laboratories, Heidelberg, Germany). The amplification of the cDNA was performed using the SMARTTM PCR cDNA synthesis kit (Clontech Laboratories) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Cycling parameters were as follows: 95°C for 1 min; 95°C for 15 s, 65°C for 30 s and 68°C for 6 min (24 cycles); 68°C for 6 min. After ethanol precipitation of the amplified cDNA the resulting pellet was resuspended in 20 µl water.

Reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction (RT–PCR), cloning and sequencing

For amplification of genes encoding $G\beta$ subtypes, equal

amounts (20-100 ng) of cDNA from single taste buds or non-sensory control tissue was used as the template. For analysis of $G\beta$ gene expression, five independent amplifications were performed: four experiments employing an individual taste bud and one experiment with a pool of six taste buds. The sense primers were for $G\beta_1$ 5'-TGACAC-CAGACTGTTTGTCTC-3'; for $G\beta_2$ 5'-CCAGATCAC-AGATGGGCTG-3': for GB₃ 5'-AGAAGACAGTGTTCG-TGGGAC-3'; for $G\beta_4$ 5'-GGGGGATATGATTCCAGGC-TAC-3'; and for $G\beta_5$ 5'-TACAGAGCTTCCATGGGCA-3'. The antisense primers were common for $G\beta_{1-4}$ 5'-KCC-WGTDGCCACAGCCATSC-3' and for GB₅ 5'-GATCCC-ATGATCCCGAGCAG-3'. Amplification was carried out in 50 µl of 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.8), 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 200 µM of each dNTP, 25 pmol of each primer and 2 U of Tag DNA polymerase (Gibco BRL). PCR was performed according to the following conditions: 94°C for 1 min; 94°C for 30 s, 62.5°C for 1.30 min and 72°C for 40 s (25 cycles); 72°C for 7 min. A 0.5-1 µl aliquot of the reamplified cDNA from a single cell was used as template for specific RT-PCR amplifications. In all, 12 individual taste cells were subjected to single cell RT-PCR. PCR was carried out as described before. The specific primers for PLC β_2 were 5'-CTGGAGGCTGAAGTAAAGGAG-3' (sense) and 5'-GCCCCTGCATGTATGTTAGG-3' (antisense); for $G\beta_3$ 5'-GGACTCTCTGAAGTGTGAG-3' (sense) and 5'-CAC-CTATAGTCATGGGCTG-3' (antisense); and for $G\alpha_{gust}$ 5'-CAATCCGAGAAGTAGAGAGG-3' (sense) and 5'-GCTGTTGAAGAGGTGAAGAC-3' (antisense). In order to identify $G\gamma$ subtypes present in single cells, degenerate primers matching conserved regions of Gy coding genes were used which had been tested for their ability to amplify common Gy subtypes (Gallagher and Gautam, 1994; Gautam et al., 1998). The primers were 5'-GTIGAICARCTIA-ARATI-3' (sense) and 5'-YTCICKRAAIGGRTTYTC-3' (antisense). The amplification was performed according to the following schedule: 94°C for 2 min, 50/60°C for 2 min and 72°C for 5 min (1 cycle); 94°C for 30 s, 50/60°C for 1.30 min and 72°C for 30 s (34 cycles); 72°C for 7 min. The annealing temperature for PLC β_2 , $G\beta_3$ and $G\alpha_{oust}$ was 60°C; for genes encoding Gγ subtypes it was 50°C. To exclude an amplification of genomic DNA contamination, the quality of cDNA was monitored by using primers corresponding to distinct exons of the β actin gene in PCR reactions (Ziegler et al., 1992). Actin exon 4 primer (5'-TCATGTTTGAGACCTTCAA-3') and actin exon 5 primer (5'-GTCTTTGCGGATGTCCACG-3') amplified a 512 bp fragment transcribed from RNA and a 607 bp fragment from genomic DNA. Following PCR, 10 µl of the reaction products were separated on 1.2% agarose gels. PCR products were subcloned into pGEM-5Zf(+) vector using the pGEM-T vector system I (Promega, Mannheim, Germany). Recombinant plasmids were subjected to DNA sequencing using the RR Dye Deoxy Terminator cycle sequencing kit (PE Biosystems, Weitherstadt, Germany).

Automatic sequencing was performed on an ABI 310 sequencer (PE Biosystems).

Analysis of sequence data

Analysis of sequence data was performed using HUSAR 3.0 software package based on the sequence analysis software package 7.2 from the Genetic Group (Madison, WI).

Stimulation experiments and second messenger determination

The circumvallate papilla from each rat tongue was dissected using glass capillaries and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen (Spielman et al., 1989, 1996). For a typical stimulation experiment, 10 circumvallate papillae were minced in a glass homogenizer in hypotonic buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM EGTA, pH 7.4) and centrifuged at 750 g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatants were immediately employed in subsequent stimulation experiments. Therefore, denatonium benzoate was diluted in reaction buffer [200 mM NaCl, 10 mM EGTA, 50 mM 4-morpholinepropanesulphonic acid, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 0.05% sodium cholate, 1 mM ATP and 4 µM GTP, 12 nM free calcium calculated and adjusted as described elsewhere (Pershadsingh and McDonald, 1980), pH 7.4] containing denatonium benzoate at a final concentration of 100 µM. To prevent degradation of IP₃, stimulation experiments were performed in the presence of 20 mM LiCl (final concentration during incubation). The reaction was started by mixing 210 µl of prewarmed reaction buffer with 50 μ l of the protein samples (0.59 ± $0.1 \,\mu\text{g/}\mu\text{l}$), incubated for 2 min at 37°C in a shaking water bath and stopped by 7% ice-cold perchloric acid (105 μ l) before the concentration of IP₃ was determined according to Palmer and Wakelam (Palmer and Wakelam, 1989). To determine the influence of the glutathione S-transferase (GST)-GRK3ct fusion protein, the GST control peptide and the subtype-specific $G\beta$ antisera (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) on the stimulus-induced second messenger responses, circumvallate protein samples were preincubated with the indicated dilution of the modulators for 10 min on ice. The GST-GRK3ct fusion protein and the GST control peptide were prepared and purified in a manner described previously (Koch et al., 1993). In additional experiments, the specificity of the $G\beta_3$ -specific antibodies was verified by incubating these antibodies with the corresponding peptide according to the specifications of the manufacturer (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) prior to stimulation.

In situ hybridization

Circumvallate papillae were dissected from 2- to 5-weekold rats, embedded in Tissue Tek (Miles Inc., Elkhart, IL) and rapidly frozen in a liquid N₂ cooled isopentane bath. Coronal sections of 10 μ m were cut on a Leica cryostat (model CM 3000) at -30°C and thaw-mounted on silanated slides. Generation of antisense and sense digoxigeninlabeled probes from $G\beta_1$, $G\beta_2$ and $G\beta_3$ cDNAs previously amplified by RT–PCR and subsequent *in situ* hybridization were performed as described previously (Rössler *et al.*, 1998).

SDS–PAGE and Western blot analysis

Membrane fractions of the gustatory tissue were prepared for SDS-PAGE as described previously (Rössler et al., 1998), subjected to 12.5% acrylamide gel electrophoresis and analyzed using the Laemmli buffer system (Laemmli, 1970). The separated proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose using the semi-dry blotting system (Pharmacia). The blot was stained with Ponceau S and stored at 4°C until use. For Western blot analysis, non-specific binding sites were blocked with 8% non-fat milk powder (Naturaflor) in TBST (10 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl and 0.05% Tween 20); the blots were incubated overnight with the $G\beta_3$ polyclonal antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) diluted in TBST, containing 3% non-fat milk powder. After three washes with TBST, horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG; 1:10 000 dilution in TBST with 3% milk powder) was applied and the enhanced chemoluminescence system (Amersham) was used to monitor immunoreactivity.

Immunohistochemistry

Circumvallate papillae were dissected from tongues of 2- to 5-week-old rats and placed in 4% paraformaldehyde, 1% picric acid in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; 150 mM NaCl, 1.4 mM KH₂PO₄, 8 mM Na₂HPO₄, pH 7.4), pH 7.3, for 2 h at 4°C. Tissue was rinsed in PBS, cryoprotected by immersion in 25% sucrose/PBS for 2 h at 4°C and embedded as described before. Coronal sections (10 µm) adhered to Superfrost plus (Fisher, Orangeburg, NY) microslides were air-dried for 4 h. Slides were treated with 0,1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 3 min. After washing three times in PBS, unspecific binding sites were blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 30 min in a wet chamber at room temperature. Excess of blocking solution was removed before application of the $G\beta_1$ -, $G\beta_2$ - and $G\beta_3$ -specific antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), diluted 1:200 in 1% BSA/PBS. After incubation at 37°C in a wet chamber for 2 h, sections were washed three times with PBS. The goat anti-rabbit IgG conjugated to the flourescent dye Cy 3 antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA) was applied (1:500 in PBS) and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. After three washes with PBS the reaction was stopped with double distilled water. The slides were air-dried, embedded in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and examined under a Zeiss Axiphot microscope. The specificity of the immunoreactivity obtained by the $G\beta_3$ -specific antibody was confirmed in control experiments employing primary antibodies preincubated with the antigenic peptide according to the specifications of the manufacturer (Santa Cruz Bio-technology).

Results

In order to approach the question whether $G\beta\gamma$ subunits may play a role in tastant-induced IP₃ responses, a fragment

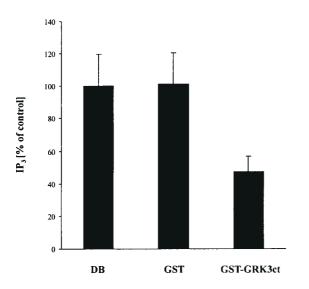


Figure 1 Denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ response is blocked by GST–GRK3ct fusion protein containing the $\beta\gamma$ binding domain. After stimulation with 100 μ M denatonium benzoate an inhibition of 53% was observed using 10 μ M GST–GRK3, whereas pretreatment with 10 μ M GST control peptide had no effect (1%). The basal level of IP₃ in circumvallate homogenates was 207.4 \pm 110.5 pmol/mg of protein; denatonium benzoate stimulation increased the IP₃ concentration to 331.6 \pm 88.4 pmol/mg of protein. Data, calculated as the percentage of denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ formation, are the mean values of three independent experiments with triplicate determinations \pm SD. DB, denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ response under control conditions.

of the G protein receptor kinase GRK3 was used as a scavenger for $\beta\gamma$ subunits with respect to its capacity to directly interact with $\beta\gamma$ dimers and to block their ability to modulate corresponding effectors (Pitcher et al., 1992; Boekhoff et al., 1994; Daaka et al., 1997). Therefore, tissue homogenates of circumvallate papillae were incubated with a GST-GRK3ct fusion protein containing the C-terminal 222 amino acid residues corresponding to the $\beta\gamma$ binding domain of the GRK3 (Pitcher et al., 1992) and subsequently analyzed for formation of IP₃ upon stimulation with denatonium benzoate. In such second messenger assays, the bitter agent causes a generation of IP₃ in taste tissue, but not in non-gustatory control tissue (Spielman et al., 1996; Rössler et al., 1998). As demonstrated in Figure 1, in the presence of GST-GRK3ct fusion protein the denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ response was significantly attenuated. In contrast, a GST control peptide had no effect on the tastant-induced second messenger response, emphasizing the specificity of the inhibitory effect. Since the C-terminal domain of GRK3 has no enzymatic activity, it is conceivable that the inhibitory effect is due to its interaction with membrane-anchored $\beta\gamma$ subunits, thus supporting the notion that $G\beta\gamma$ subunits may mediate a tastant-induced activation of phospholipase C.

As a first step towards an identification of the distinct β and γ subunits possibly involved in the transduction process for bitter compounds, RT–PCR assays were performed to identify the β subtypes expressed in gustatory tissue. To date, five β subunits have been identified in mammals, generally designated as $G\beta_1$ – $G\beta_5$; in addition, a heart-specific rat $G\beta_3$ subtype as well as a retina-specific $G\beta_5$ splice variant have been described (Ray and Robishaw, 1994; Watson *et al.*, 1994; Gautam *et al.*, 1998). Specific oligonucleotide primer pairs targeting each known β subunit were employed in

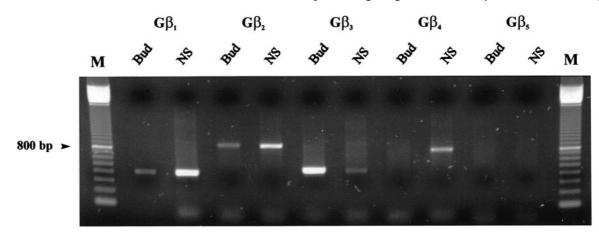


Figure 2 Differential expression of the G β genes evaluated by RT–PCR. RNA isolated from a circumvallate taste bud **(lanes 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9)** and non-sensory lingual tissue **(lanes 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10)** was subjected to RT–PCR analysis using specific primers for each known β subunit. The PCR products resulted in bands of predicted size (lanes 1 and 2, ±410 bp for G β_1 ; lanes 3 and 4, ±906 bp for G β_2 ; lanes 5 and 6, ±470 bp for G β_3 ; lanes 7 and 8, ±820 bp for G β_4 ; lanes 9 and 10, ±480 bp for G β_5). The position of the 100 bp mol. wt marker is shown on the left. Identical results were obtained in four independent experiments employing individual taste buds and an additional RT–PCR amplification of RNA isolated from a pool of six taste buds. Note the strong amplification signals for G β_3 in taste bud cDNA. Bud, circumvallate taste bud; NS, non-sensory lingual tissue.

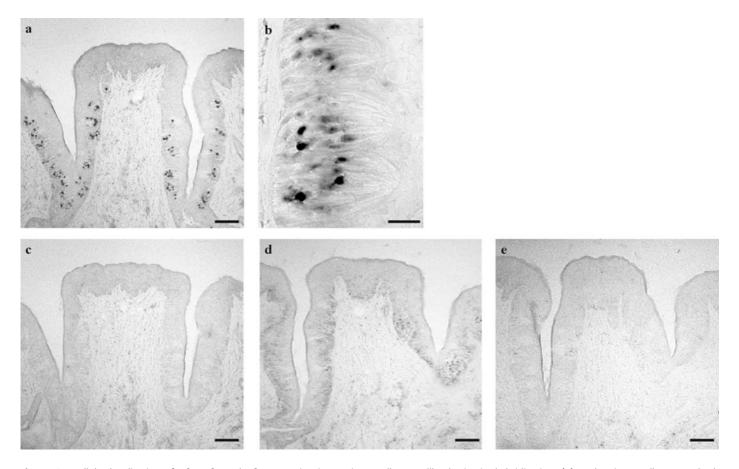


Figure 3 Cellular localization of $G\beta_3$, $G\beta_2$ and $G\beta_1$ expression in rat circumvallate papillae by *in situ* hybridization. (a) In the circumvallate taste buds individual gustatory cells were intensively labeled using the $G\beta_3$ -specific antisense probe. Signals were absent from the adjacent non-sensory lingual epithelium (bar = 50 µm). (b) High magnification of the hybridization with the $G\beta_3$ antisense probe indicates the labeling of individual cells within the taste buds (bar = 20 µm). (c) No signals were observed in control experiments using the $G\beta_3$ sense probe (bar = 50 µm). (d) The $G\beta_2$ antisense probe diffusely labeled cells close to the taste buds basal membrane and cells in the surrounding epithelium (bar = 50 µm). (e) No hybridization signals were detected within taste buds using the $G\beta_1$ antisense probe (bar = 50 µm).

RT-PCR experiments using cDNA obtained from isolated taste buds of rat circumvallate papillae as template. For comparison, experiments with cDNA from non-sensory lingual tissue were performed. The results of these RT–PCR studies, shown in Figure 2, indicate highly amplified PCR fragments of the expected size for $G\beta_3$. In contrast, specific primers for $G\beta_1$ and $G\beta_2$ resulted in minor signals of predicted size, whereas no amplification products were detectable using either $G\beta_4$ -or $G\beta_5$ -specific primers. For the non-sensory lingual tissue, strong amplification signals for $G\beta_1$ and $G\beta_2$ and weak signals for $G\beta_3$ and $G\beta_4$ were obtained (Figure 2). Sequence analysis of the amplified PCR fragments confirmed their identity to the previously described $G\beta_1$, $G\beta_2$ and $G\beta_4$ subtypes, as well as to the $G\beta_3$ subtype that is highly expressed in rat heart (Ray and Robishaw, 1994).

To explore the topological expression pattern of specific $G\beta$ subtypes in the lingual tissue, *in situ* hybridization experiments were performed using digoxigenin-labeled antisense probes of $G\beta_1$, $G\beta_2$ and $G\beta_3$. Only the $G\beta_3$

subtype was expressed in gustatory cells of the circumvallate taste buds (Figure 3a,b); transcripts for $G\beta_2$ were weakly detected in cells close to the basal membrane of the rat taste buds and in cells of the surrounding non-gustatory lingual epithelium (Figure 3d). The antisense probe for $G\beta_1$ failed to produce any hybridization signal within taste buds or adjacent tissue (Figure 3e). Since the RT–PCR led to the isolation of $G\beta_1$, the failure of the $G\beta_1$ antisense probe to hybridize within circumvallate buds may be due to a very low expression level.

To localize $G\beta_3$ protein and to monitor the subcellular localization, immunohistochemical experiments were performed. The specificity of the employed antibodies was first analyzed in Western blots. As depicted in Figure 4, antibodies raised against $G\beta_3$ visualized a polypeptide band with an apparent molecular mass of 37 kDa in circumvallate membrane preparations, corresponding to the expected molecular weight for $G\beta_3$. The specificity of the labeling was confirmed by preincubation of the primary antibody with the antigenic peptide, which inhibited immunoreactivity

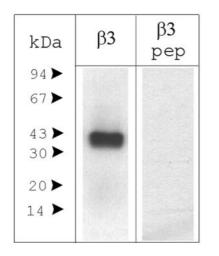


Figure 4 Western blot analysis of rat circumvallate papillae validating the specificity of G β_3 -specific antibodies. The G β_3 antibody was applied at 1:1000 dilution. Left panel, in membrane preparations of circumvallate papillae a strongly labeled band at about 37 kDa was visualized. Right panel, absorption of the G β_3 antibodies with the corresponding synthetic peptide. The positions of the low molecular mass markers are shown on the left.

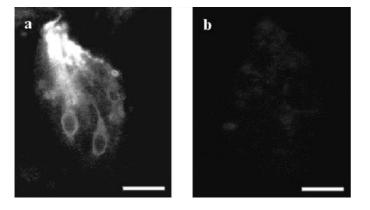


Figure 5 Immunohistochemical localization of $G\beta_3$ in rat circumvallate taste buds using the $G\beta_3$ -specific antibodies. (a) Immunoreactivity is restricted to a subset of elongated cells within a taste bud with a particular strong labeling of the apical portion of the taste bud (bar = 20 µm). (b) No immunoreactivity was observed after preincubation of the $G\beta_3$ antibody with the antigenic peptide (bar = 20 µm).

(Figure 4). Subsequently, coronal sections through the tongue were subjected to immunostaining. It was found that the $G\beta_3$ protein was located in a subset of spindle-shaped cells; particular strong immunoreactivity was observed at the apical part of taste cells. No labeling was detectable in surrounding epithelial cells (Figure 5a). The possibility that the observed immunoreactivity represented artifactual labeling was excluded in a control experiment: when the primary antibody was blocked with the antigenic peptide, no labeling could be detected (Figure 5b). Employing specific antibodies for $G\beta_1$ and $G\beta_2$ gave no staining of elongated taste cells; $G\beta_2$ was restricted to cells in the basal region of

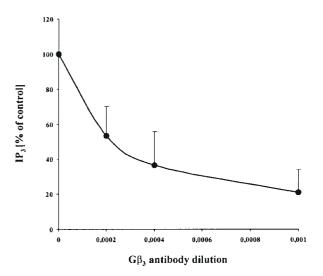


Figure 6 Concentration-dependent inhibition of denatonium benzoateinduced IP₃ formation by G β_3 -specific antibodies. After stimulation with 100 μ M denatonium benzoate an inhibition of 47% was obtained at an antibody dilution of 1:5000, 63% at a 1:2500 dilution and 79% at a 1:1000 dilution. Data, calculated as a percentage of denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ formation, are the mean values of three independent experiments with triplicate determinations \pm SD.

the taste buds and low immunoreactivity for $G\beta_1$ was found in the microvillar taste pore region (data not shown). These results confirm the *in situ* data and suggest that $G\beta_3$ may play a role in taste signal transduction.

To assess this notion, biochemical assays were performed monitoring the effect of $G\beta_3$ -specific antibodies on denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ responses in circumvallate preparations. As shown in Figure 6, preincubation with $G\beta_3$ antibodies attenuated the bitter tastant-induced IP₃ response in a dose-dependent manner. $G\beta_3$ antibodies caused a strong inhibition already at very low antibody concentrations; 47% inhibition was registered at a 1:5000 dilution. The specificity of this effect was confirmed in control experiments, employing $G\beta_3$ antibodies neutralized with the antigenic peptide, where no inhibitory effect was observed (Figure 7). Comparing the effects of the $G\beta$ subtype-specific antibodies on the denatonium benzoateinduced IP₃ signaling, it was found that $G\beta_2$ antibodies did not affect the responsiveness; in contrast, antibodies specific to $G\beta_3$ and $G\beta_1$ reduced IP₃ formation elicited by the bitter agent; however, at a 1:1000 dilution of both subtype-specific antibodies, the inhibitory effect of $G\beta_1$ was less pronounced than blockage observed upon pretreatment with $G\beta_3$ specific antibodies (Figure 7).

Even though these results strengthen the hypothesis for a functional involvement of $G\beta_3$ in denatonium benzoateinduced IP₃ transduction, it still remains unclear whether $G\beta_3$ could communicate bitter signals from receptors to the effector enzyme PLC β_2 . Therefore, individual taste cells were assessed by single-cell RT–PCR approaches in order to examine PLC β_2 -positive cells for expression of G protein

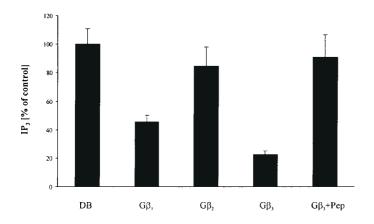


Figure 7 Effect of subtype-specific G β antibodies on IP₃ formation induced upon stimulation with denatonium benzoate. Comparing the same antibody dilution (1:1000) after stimulation with 100 μ M denatonium benzoate a strong inhibition was registered using G β_3 antibodies (77%; G β_3), a less pronounced inhibition using G β_1 antibodies (54%; G β_1) and almost no inhibition using G β_2 antibodies (16%; G β_2). The inhibitory effect of G β_3 antibodies was neutralized after absorbing G β_3 antibodies with the synthetic peptide (9%; G β_3 + Pep). Data, calculated as percent of denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ formation, are the mean values of three independent experiments with triplicate determinations \pm SD. DB, denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ response under control conditions.

subtypes. Twelve individual taste receptor cells were picked according to their typical elongated bipolar morphology. To monitor possible RNA degradation, cells were first tested for β actin expression. All 12 cells showed a positive actin amplification, indicating the integrity of the employed RNA (data not shown). Of these 12 cells, eight were PLC β_2 positive. These eight cells were further analyzed employing a specific primer combination for $G\beta_3$, degenerate oligonucleotides for Gy subunits and primers for the taste cell-specific G protein α subunit gustducin (G α_{gust}) (McLaughlin et al., 1992; Gallagher and Gautam, 1994; Clapham and Neer, 1997; Gautam et al., 1998). In detail, two of the PLC β_2 -expressing taste cells showed amplification products of the expected size employing $G\beta_3$ - (476 bp), $G\alpha_{gust}$ - (469) and Gy-specific primers (140 bp) (Figure 8). Two other cells showed positive amplification with $G\beta_3$ - and $G\alpha_{gust}$ -specific primers, and an additional two cells with primers targeting only Gy subunits. Two cells showed amplification products either with $G\beta_3$ - or with $G\alpha_{gust}$ specific primers. By subcloning and sequence analysis, the Gy-specific amplification products were identified as Gy₃coding sequences in each cell, whereas the specificity of the other amplification products could be confirmed.

These results indicate that PLC β_2 , $G\alpha_{gust}$, $G\beta_3$ and $G\gamma_3$ are coexpressed in individual cells and suggest that the denatonium benzoate-induced transduction cascade could be mediated by PLC β_2 and the $G\beta_3\gamma_3$ complex.

Discussion

Several bitter-tasting compounds have been correlated with

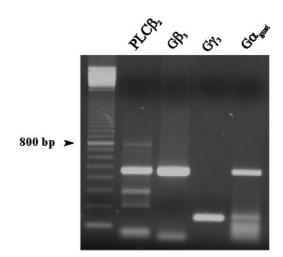


Figure 8 Identification of G β_3 , G γ_3 and G α_{gust} in a PLC β_2 -expressing circumvallate gustatory cell using a single cell RT–PCR approach. RT–PCR analysis resulted in PCR products of expected size; 474 bp for PLC β_2 (lane 1), 476 bp for G β_3 (lane 2), 144 bp for G γ_3 (lane 3) and 469 bp for G α_{gust} (lane 4). The position of the 100 bp mol. wt marker is shown on the left.

PLC activation and a raise of IP₃ levels in gustatory cells (Spielman *et al.*, 1996). With respect to the sensitivity of PLC to stimulation by βγ dimers (Park et al., 1993; Wu et al., 1993), the results of the present study point to a role for distinct $G\beta\gamma$ complexes as modulators of the PLC effector system. The specific expression of the $G\beta_3$ subtype in gustatory cells of circumvallate taste buds and the inhibitory effect of $G\beta_3$ -specific antibodies on the denatonium benzoate-induced IP₃ formation suggest a major function for this β subunit in mediating second messenger signaling in bitter taste. So far, the rat $G\beta_3$ subtype has been found to be predominately expressed in heart, whereas the closely related human $G\beta_3$ (96% identity) is most abundantly expressed in retina and brain (Levine et al., 1990; Ray and Robishaw, 1994), suggesting that each subtype is restricted to specialized systems and interacts with a limited set of effectors.

One proposed mechanism for transduction of the intensely bitter compound denatonium benzoate is an increase of IP₃ levels via activation of PLC (Akabas et al., 1988; Hwang et al., 1990; Spielman et al., 1994). The possible effector enzyme likely involved in transducing Gβγ-mediated responses to bitter tastants is the recently identified novel PLC β_2 subtype, which is selectively expressed in distinct taste sensory cells of the rat circumvallate papillae (Rössler et al., 1998). In addition, it has been proposed that denatonium benzoate may activate an alternative transduction pathway mediated by the taste-specific Ga subunits gustducin and/or transducin, activating a phosphodiesterase; the resulting decreased levels of cyclic nucleotides might elicit taste cell depolarization through a cyclic nucleotidesuppressible conductance (Kolesnikov and Margolskee, 1995; Ruiz-Avila et al., 1995; Wong et al., 1996). Besides the given multiplicity of pathways involved in bitter taste transduction, the molecular data of this study demonstrate that an individual cell expressing PLC β_2 is also equipped with the $G\beta_3\gamma_3$ complex and $G\alpha_{gust}.$ The notion that a similar portion of the monitored cells express either PLC β_2 , $G\alpha_{gust}$ and $G\beta_3$ without $G\gamma_3$ or, alternatively, PLC β_2 and $G\gamma_3$ without $G\alpha_{gust}$ and $G\beta_3$ raises the possibility that other $G\beta$ or $G\gamma$ subunits might be involved in bitter signal transduction processes. In this context, it is interesting to note that recent studies led to the identification of a novel $G\gamma$ subtype ($G\gamma_{13}$) which is coexpressed with gustducin and which is functionally involved in bitter taste transduction (Huang et al., 1999); furthermore, it was found that gustducin-positive cells always express $G\gamma_{13}$ and $G\beta_3$, whereas 79% also express $G\beta_1$. Thus, the results of the present study demonstrating that $G\beta_3$ - as well as $G\beta_1$ -specific antibodies block the denatonium benzoate-induced rise in IP₃ led to the suggestion that distinct compositions of $G\beta$ and $G\gamma$ subtypes might take part in bitter taste transduction processes. As distinct β subunits have selective effects on the activity of effector enzymes (Clapham and Neer, 1997; Hamm, 1998), it is conceivable that the $G\beta_1$ and $G\beta_3$ subtypes could differ in their regulatory activities of downstream signaling molecules.

The finding that $G\alpha_{gust}$ and PLC β_2 are coexpressed in the same cell raises the possibility that particular taste sensory cells may respond to denatonium benzoate through the PDE- as well as the PLC-mediated signaling machinery, thus activating parallel pathways. This notion is supported by a recent study demonstrating that denatonium induces not only a rise in the IP₃ level but also a suppression of the cAMP level; preincubation with gustducin antibodies rescued the suppressive effect on cAMP but did not affect IP3 responses (Yan et al., 1999). Also, in mouse fungiform papilla denatonium elicited both IP₃ and cAMP responses (Nakashima and Ninomiya, 1999). These effects may account for a synchronous activation of the PDE cascade through $G\alpha_{gust}$ and the PLC cascade through the associated $\beta\gamma$ complex in a distinct taste cell subpopulation. Basically, the existence of multiple second messenger pathways in one taste cell may have an important role in fine-tuning and modifying the response to a given taste stimulus, as has been suggested for the olfactory system (Ache and Zhainazarov, 1995). Moreover, it has been proposed that an individual taste cell may respond to more than one stimulus (Lindemann, 1996b). Recent evidence that particular taste cells express both putative taste receptors, TR1 and TR2, as well as the observation that neither TR1 nor TR2 are uniformly coexpressed with gustducin strengthen this concept (Hoon et al., 1999). Future studies should gain further insight how the sensory cells receive and process tastant stimuli.

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