

Differential Response of DPI-Modified Cardiac Na⁺ Channels to Antiarrhythmic Drugs: No Flicker Blockade by Lidocaine

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Summary. Elementary Na⁺ currents were recorded in cell-attached patches from short-time cultured neonatal cardiocytes in order to test the hypothesis whether the open state of DPI-modified, noninactivating cardiac Na⁺ channels is basically sensitive to blocking drug molecules such as antiarrhythmics.

Lidocaine (300 μmol/liter) effectively reduced the open probability of cardiac Na⁺ channels and, at a stimulation rate of 1 Hz, depressed the reconstructed macroscopic peak I_{Na} to $40 \pm 3.5\%$ of the predrug value. The same drug concentration failed to influence DPI-modified Na⁺ channels. Their open state proved almost insensitive to lidocaine. τ_{open} decreased only slightly to $85 \pm 2\%$. Still more importantly, the number of transitions between the conducting and a nonconducting configuration did not increase. At -40 mV, lidocaine may interfere with the open state with an association rate constant of $1.3 \times 10^5 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ which is about two orders of magnitude smaller than the rate constant obtained with propafenone or prajmalium. Moreover, propafenone (10–20 μmol/liter) or prajmalium (30 μmol/liter) led to a tremendous increase in the number of transitions between the open and a nonconducting configuration. Lidocaine also failed to evoke a fast flicker blockade with reaction kinetics in the microsecond range.

It is concluded that DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels discriminate between lidocaine and other antiarrhythmic drugs. As a tentative explanation, this might be indicative for multiple binding sites for those drugs in cardiac Na⁺ channels.

Key Words noninactivating cardiac Na⁺ channels · class I antiarrhythmic drugs · I_{Na} depression · drug-induced block

Introduction

Voltage-gated Na⁺ channels in the sarcolemma provide the molecular substrate of excitability in normal heart muscle. Like their neuronal relatives, they react sensitively to a number of naturally occurring toxins and a group of organic compounds classified as local anesthetics. The blockade which develops in the presence of local anesthetics represents the final manifestation of an interaction of those drugs with a channel-associated binding site. Nature and location of this drug target in the α -subunit of the

Na⁺ channel protein are not yet known. The binding site has been modeled as modulated (Hille, 1977; Hondeghem & Katzung, 1977) or as guarded drug receptor (Starmer, Grant & Strauss, 1984), but there is still some controversy whether Na⁺ channels possess a single site capable to interfere with local anesthetics (Mrose & Ritchie, 1978). Lidocaine may be considered as a classical representative of local anesthetics and has been used together with some structure analogues in numerous biophysical studies to evaluate the properties of I_{Na} depression (for review, see Hille, 1984). All these drugs, including the related antiarrhythmics, follow the all-or-none principle in blocking the Na⁺ pore (Kohlhardt & Fichtner, 1988; Grant et al., 1989), thereby preventing Na⁺ channels from attaining the conducting configuration. A depressed excitability and a hyperpolarizing voltage shift of steady-state Na⁺ inactivation emerge from this drug action.

Inhibitory drug molecules can produce still another type of blockade. Na⁺ channels modified by N-bromoacetamide (Yamamoto & Yeh, 1984), batrachotoxin (Wang, 1988) or DPI 201-106 (Kohlhardt et al., 1989) were reported to have a highly drug-sensitive open state, in contrast to normal Na⁺ channels, and respond to a variety of organic compounds, including 9-aminoacridine, cocaine and several antiarrhythmics such as propafenone and prajmalium with a microscopic or flicker blockade. Flicker blockade arises from multiple transitions between the open and a blocked state as if the drug molecule would compete with the permeant cation for the permeation pathway and represents a widespread response of ionic channels to blocking molecules. In Na⁺ channels, however, the occurrence of drug-induced flicker blockade requires channel modification (Benz & Kohlhardt, 1991), suggesting that removal of inactivation only enables Na⁺ channels to react to blocking drugs during the open state. Since local anesthetics and the related antiarrhyth-

mics can combine their conventional inhibitory action on I_{Na} with a flicker blockade, it seems tempting to assume that flicker blockade will inevitably occur when these drugs interfere with noninactivating Na⁺ channels.

The present patch-clamp experiments with single DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels concentrated on this problem. As found with lidocaine under conditions that effectively depress the macroscopic I_{Na} significantly, the drug was proven to exert this inhibitory action without producing a concomitant flicker blockade. This peculiarity may well be specific for Na⁺ channels of cardiac origin but can be barely explained with a single drug target whose occupancy will cause both macroscopic I_{Na} depression and microscopic blockade.

Materials and Methods

Elementary Na⁺ currents were recorded in cell-attached patches from cultured neonatal rat cardiocytes with an L-M/EPC-5 amplifier by employing the standard patch-clamp technique (Hamill et al., 1981). Details of the cell culture and the handling of the short-time (18–24 hr) cultured myocytes have been already described in detail elsewhere (Kohlhardt, Fröbe & Herzig, 1986). To avoid spontaneous activity and, thus, unpredictable changes in membrane potential, the cultured cardiocytes were kept in an isotonic K⁺ solution to bring their resting potential to approximately 0 mV. Since depolarized cardiocytes frequently show the morphological signs of Ca²⁺ intolerance, the isotonic K⁺ solution contained 2 mmol/liter EGTA as Ca²⁺ buffer. This stabilized the cellular structure usually for 1–2 hr. Nevertheless, the cellular structure was periodically monitored to detect an eventual development of cytoplasmic granulation. In this case, the cell-attached experiment was discarded since morphological signs of cellular deterioration can be accompanied by a decrease of NP_o of Na⁺ channels (N means the number of Na⁺ channels and P_o open probability). After patch formation, an equilibrium period of at least 10 min was found to be necessary to achieve stable Na⁺ channel activity. During the subsequent control period of about 20 min, a sufficiently large ensemble of sweeps was collected, thereby carefully monitoring the activity mode of the Na⁺ channels. Just after perfusing the cardiocyte with a drug-containing solution, a second registration period began to analyze the influence of lidocaine, propafenone, diprafenone or prajmalium.

Na⁺ channel activity was triggered by depolarizing the membrane from a holding potential (–110 to –130 mV) to a test potential (–40 to –30 mV) for 120 msec at a rate of 0.5 or 1 Hz. The patch-clamp recordings were filtered at 1 kHz with an 8-pole Bessel filter, digitized with a sampling rate of 5 kHz and stored on floppy disks. The dead time of the recording system was 0.2 msec.

Idealized patch-clamp recordings were obtained from a subtraction of leakage and residual capacity currents. Open times of and closed times between nonoverlapping single events were analyzed by setting a threshold at 50% unitary current amplitude (Colquhoun & Sigworth, 1983). Probability density functions in individual experiments before and after drug treatment yielded τ_{open} and τ_{closed} , respectively, and were based on an unweighted fit, meaning that each bin was considered to be of identical sig-

nificance. Late and, therefore, rare events were fitted by lumping several bins with a certain minimum of events arbitrarily chosen to be four. The best fit of the probability density functions resulted from the least-square method.

DPI 201-106 ($3\text{--}6 \times 10^{-6}$ mol/liter) added to the pipette solution was used as Na⁺ channel modifier. Modified Na⁺ channel activity was analyzed with a biased P_o method (Kohlhardt et al., 1989): activity sweeps with a $P_o > 0.1$ showing bursts and several-fold prolonged openings were considered to represent the noninactivating mode. Burst analysis was based on the bimodal closed-time distribution. Gaps within bursts can be discriminated from gaps between bursts by introducing a certain critical gap time. The latter depends on the ratio between $\tau_{closed(1)}$ and $\tau_{closed(2)}$ and was calculated from the geometric mean of both time constants.

Ensemble averaging of 120–180 sweeps yielded the macroscopic I_{Na} whose peak was taken as an index for NP_o . Activity sweeps refer to samples with channel openings, and blanks refer to samples without detectable channel openings.

Whenever possible, the data are given as mean \pm SEM.

SOLUTIONS (COMPOSITION IN MMOL/LITER)

A. Isotonic K⁺ solution: KCl 140; MgCl₂ 5; Na-pyruvate 2.5; glucose 20; EGTA 2; HEPES 10; pH 7.4. B. Pipette solution: NaCl 200; CaCl₂ 0.2; MgCl₂ 5; HEPES 10; pH 7.4. Freshly dissolved DPI 201-106 was added to give a final concentration of 3–6 μ mol/liter. Temperature (controlled by a Peltier element): 19 \pm 0.5°C.

DRUGS

All drugs were freshly dissolved before use in solution A. Propafenone hydrochloride and diprafenone hydrochloride were provided by Helopharm KG, Berlin; lidocaine hydrochloride was purchased from SIGMA Chemie, Munich; prajmalium bitartrate was a gift of Kali-Chemie, Hannover.

Results

DPI 201-106 was chosen to be applied as Na⁺ channel modifier (Kohlhardt et al., 1986) mainly for two reasons. (i) In contrast to many protein reagents and proteolytic enzymes, DPI 201-106 is also effective to remove Na⁺ inactivation upon external application and, much more importantly, has no additional influence on the channel availability. (ii) DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels show long-lasting burst activity and are, therefore, particularly suitable to detect drug-induced blocking events and to analyze the reaction kinetics of antiarrhythmics.

Lidocaine treatment (300 μ mol/liter) of the cardiocytes had the expected effect and blocked DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels within a few seconds if the cell-attached patches were repetitively depolarized with an appropriate rate. As shown in Fig. 1A, this blockade became manifest as an increase of the fraction of blank sweeps, at the

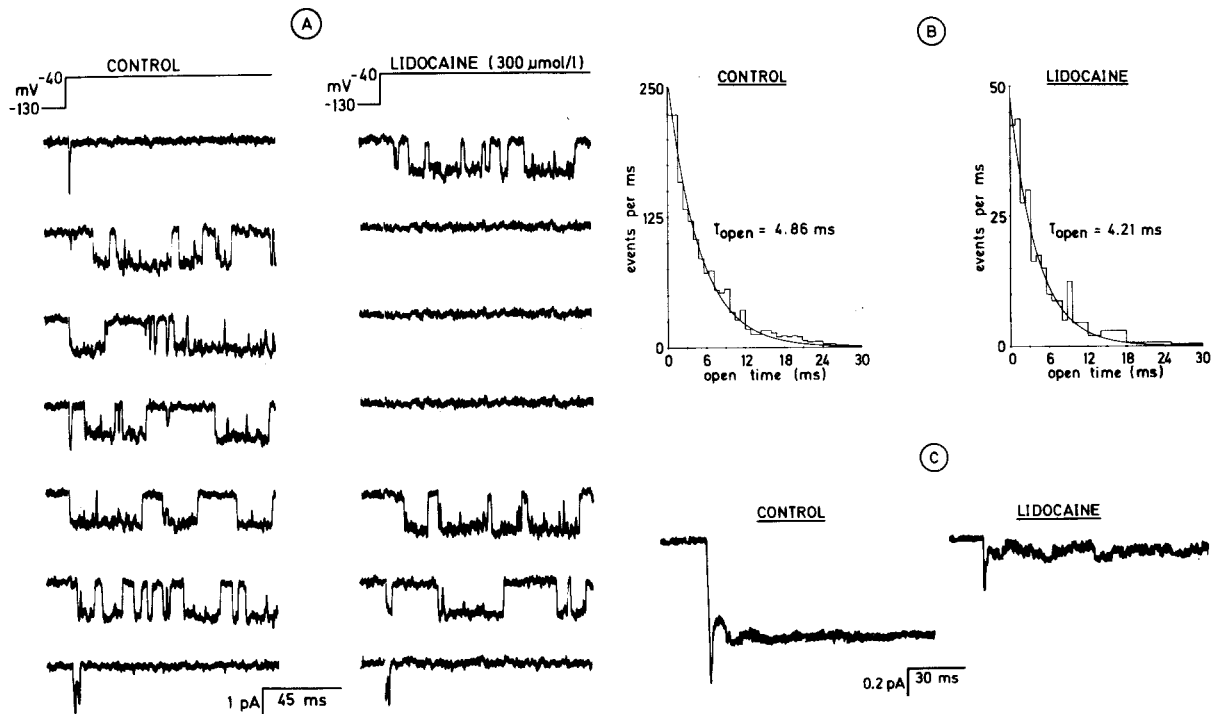


Fig. 1. The influence of lidocaine (300 $\mu\text{mol/liter}$) on DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels. (A) Recordings of elementary Na⁺ channels before and after drug treatment. (B) Open-time probability density functions. The histograms were constructed from 1316 nonoverlapping events under control conditions and from 288 nonoverlapping events in the presence of lidocaine. By disregarding the first bin of 0.4 msec, they could be best fitted by $N(t) = 262\exp(-t/0.00486)$ and $N(t) = 48\exp(-t/0.00421)$, respectively. (C) Reconstructed macroscopic I_{Na} before and after lidocaine treatment. Ensemble averages from each 128 sweeps triggered at 1 Hz. Patch 325CA; stimulation rate 1 Hz; holding potential -130 mV; test potential -40 mV.

expense of the fraction of activity sweeps. Consequently, the reconstructed macroscopic I_{Na} declined (see Fig. 1C): peak I_{Na} decreased in this cell-attached experiment from 1.0 p to 0.38 pA and the sustained I_{Na} component (measured at the end of the 120-msec lasting membrane depolarization and reflecting NP_o of noninactivating Na⁺ channels) decreased from 0.65 to 0.08 pA at a stimulation rate of 1 Hz. It is well established from conventional I_{Na} measurements in several excitable tissues, including heart muscle, that the blocking efficacy of lidocaine is strongly use dependent. To produce a significant I_{Na} depression in papillary muscles, for example, stimulation frequencies of 1 Hz or higher are required (Kohlhardt & Seifert, 1985). In the present patch-clamp experiments, the NP_o depression seen at 1 Hz became strongly attenuated or even disappeared when the stepping rate of the patches was reduced to 0.5 Hz. At 1 Hz, peak I_{Na} (i.e., the maximum NP_o attained during membrane depolarization) declined to $40 \pm 3.5\%$ ($n = 4$) of the control value under predrug conditions.

As calculated from

$$K_D = [\text{lidocaine}] \times \frac{I_{Na(\text{drug})}}{I_{Na(\text{control})} - I_{Na(\text{drug})}}$$

lidocaine would block at 1 Hz Na⁺ channels with an apparent dissociation constant of 180 $\mu\text{mol/liter}$.

Surprisingly, the open state of DPI-modified Na⁺ channels proved only less sensitive to the lidocaine treatment. As evaluated from $P_o > 0.1$ activity sweeps, lidocaine (300 $\mu\text{mol/liter}$) reduced τ_{open} only slightly, in the experiment illustrated in Fig. 1 from 4.86 to 4.21 msec (at -40 mV; see Fig. 1B). Three other experiments yielded a very similar result: at -40 mV, τ_{open} of DPI-modified Na⁺ channels declined to $85.5 \pm 2.1\%$ of the control value.

Moreover, lidocaine was found to be incapable of blocking open DPI-modified Na⁺ channels repetitively since long-lasting openings were not chopped into multiple transitions between the conducting and a nonconducting state. This was evidenced by counting the opening events in $P_o > 0.1$ sweeps during the 120-msec lasting membrane depolarization. In the cell-attached experiment shown in Fig. 1, for example, the mean number of openings even declined,

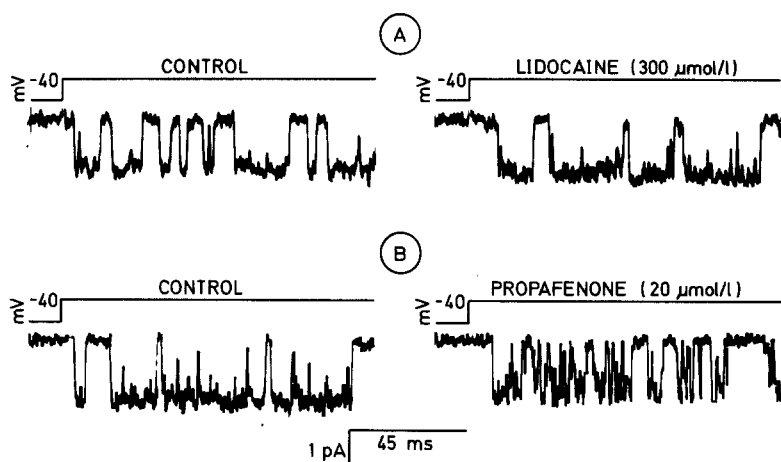
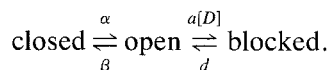


Fig. 2. Recordings of elementary Na⁺ currents through DPI-modified Na⁺ channels before and after lidocaine treatment (A) and before and after propafenone treatment (B). Holding potential: -120 mV in the experiment depicted in A; -130 mV in the experiment depicted in B. Test potential: -40 mV in both experiments. Patches 324CA (A) and 328CA (B).

from 9.2 to 6.9. Three other experiments confirmed this observation.

By comparing the response of DPI-modified Na⁺ channels to other antiarrhythmic drugs such as propafenone or prajmalium (Fig. 2), the particular mode of the lidocaine action becomes apparent. The influence of propafenone and prajmalium was studied under the same experimental conditions, i.e., likewise in cell-attached patches at -40 mV and in concentrations (20 and 30 μmol/liter, respectively) effective to reduce NP_o significantly. As expected from earlier studies with cardiac Na⁺ channels (Kohlhardt et al., 1989), exposing the cardiocyte to a propafenone- or prajmalium-containing solution led, within a few seconds, to the occurrence of multiple transitions between the open and a nonconducting state (Fig. 2B). By contrast, in the presence of lidocaine (Fig. 2A), Na⁺ channels can dwell some 10 msec in the open state obviously without going to be blocked. But it could still be argued that, compared with propafenone and other related drugs, lidocaine interacts with several-fold faster reaction kinetics making, for methodological limitations, channel openings and closings as the manifestations of drug unbinding and binding too short to be resolvable. Nevertheless, fast flicker blockade with kinetics in the microsecond range would be detectable under the present recording conditions as a reduction of the elementary current size. It is, therefore, important to note that lidocaine had no influence on the elementary current size (Fig. 2A). Propafenone and prajmalium, in interfering with DPI-modified Na⁺ channels, increased in a concentration-dependent fashion the number of openings during membrane depolarization (see Fig. 3B). Lidocaine (300 μmol/liter) exerts the opposite effect and reduced the number of openings during membrane depolarization to $75 \pm 2\%$ ($n = 4$; see Fig. 3A).

Considering the lidocaine-induced decrease of τ_{open} as a block manifestation of open DPI-modified Na⁺ channels, this blockade can be described, in the simplest case, by the reaction scheme



The rate constants a and d correspond to the association and dissociation rate constants of the drug. a was calculated from $(1/\tau_{\text{open}(\text{drug})} - 1/\tau_{\text{open}(\text{control})})$, and d was calculated from the reciprocal of the mean shut time within bursts. At -40 mV, values for a and d of $1.3 \pm 0.12 \times 10^5 \text{ mol}^{-1}\text{sec}^{-1}$ and $1002 \pm 269 \text{ sec}^{-1}$ were obtained. Since $K_D = d/a$, the mean K_D amounted to $7.7 \pm 2.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol/liter}$. By contrast, $a_{\text{propafenone}}$ and $a_{\text{prajmalium}}$ are approximately two orders of magnitude larger.

DPI-modified Na⁺ channels, like other noninactivating Na⁺ channels, can attain at least two nonconducting states, one of them being in the submillisecond range and the other closed state being several-fold longer. Lidocaine (300 μmol/liter) increased the latter (Fig. 4A) to $158 \pm 8.5\%$ ($n = 4$) of the control value. It is not yet clear whether this prolongation reflects a blocking event or whether lidocaine simply acts to stabilize DPI-modified Na⁺ channels in that particular closed configuration. Other antiarrhythmic agents like diprafenone having a much higher affinity to open DPI-modified Na⁺ channels can exert the opposite effect, thereby causing a decrease of $\tau_{\text{closed}(2)}$ (Fig. 4B).

Discussion

The present patch-clamp experiments with neonatal rat cardiocytes demonstrate that DPI-modified, noninactivating cardiac Na⁺ channels can tolerate the

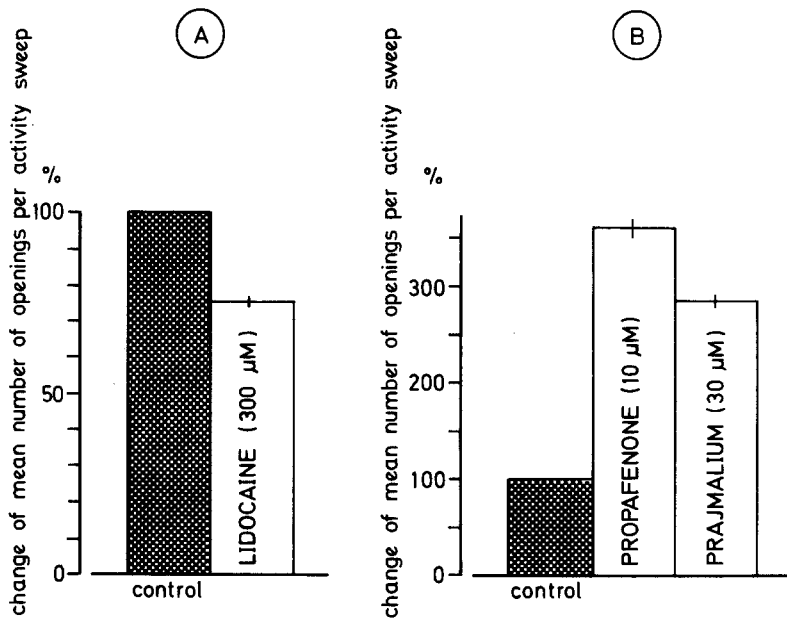


Fig. 3. The influence of lidocaine (A) and propafenone or prajmalium (B) on the number of openings of DPI-modified Na⁺ channels during membrane depolarization. 100% refers to the control value under drug-free conditions. The mean number of openings was obtained from the whole number of nonoverlapping events in $P_o > 0.1$ activity sweeps divided by the number of $P_o > 0.1$ sweeps in an individual patch. Each column represents the mean of four experiments; vertical bars indicate SEM. Step potential in the lidocaine experiments was -40 mV, and in the other drug experiments step potential was -30 mV.

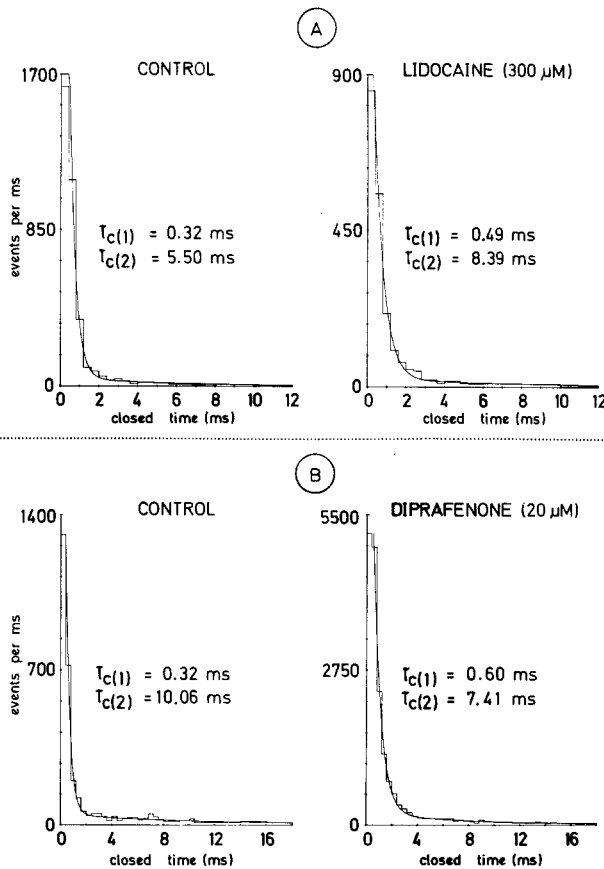


Fig. 4. The influence of lidocaine (A) and diprafenone (B) on the closed-state kinetics of DPI-modified Na⁺ channels. By disregarding the first bin of 0.4 msec, the best fits were as follows: in A, control: $N(t) = 7101\exp(-t/0.00032) + 46\exp(-t/0.0055)$; lidocaine: $N(t) = 1714\exp(-t/0.00049) + 23\exp(-t/0.00839)$. In B, control: $N(t) = 4346\exp(-t/0.00032) + 49\exp(-t/0.0106)$; diprafenone: $N(t) = 12244\exp(-t/0.0006) + 223\exp(-t/0.00741)$. Patch 327CA; holding potential -120 mV; test potential -40 mV.

presence of antiarrhythmic drug molecules without responding with a flicker blockade. Lidocaine in concentrations effective to reduce NP_o and to depress I_{Na} significantly, failed to block DPI-modified Na⁺ channels repetitively during their open configuration. This particular mode of action fundamentally contrasts to the effect of a number of antiarrhythmics, including propafenone, diprafenone or prajmalium which combine their depression on NP_o with a flicker blockade.

Regardless of the chemical tool employed for modification, N-bromoacetamide (Yamamoto & Yeh, 1984), batrachotoxin (Wang, 1988) or DPI 201-106 (Kohlhardt et al., 1989), noninactivating Na⁺ channels in neuronal tissues, skeletal muscle and heart share the common property of being sensitive to organic blocking molecules when dwelling in the open state. It is important to note in this context that batrachotoxin and DPI 201-106 bind, in contrast to protein reagents, noncovalently to Na⁺ channels and eliminate Na⁺ inactivation not irreversibly. Compounds capable of provoking a flicker blockade comprise structurally heterogeneous molecules such as 9-aminoacridine (Yamamoto & Yeh, 1984), cocaine (Wang, 1988) and antiarrhythmic drugs (Kohlhardt et al., 1989). Lidocaine, like other related drugs, are supposed to interact with a channel-associated binding site which can be reached from the surrounding lipid matrix or, after passing the latter, from the cytoplasmic side (Hille, 1977). In cell-attached experiments, this route is the only access for antiarrhythmic drugs to reach, after bath application, the Na⁺ channels within the patched membrane. As inferred from the observed NP_o depression, an effective lidocaine concentration existed in the close vicinity of the Na⁺ channels. Moreover, the lipophilic lidocaine fraction would even reach the external face of the patched membrane simply by a retrograde permeation of the sarcolemma. This is important since Alpert et al. (1990) presented evidence in favor of a second local anesthetic binding site in cardiac Na⁺ channels accessible for hydrophilic compounds such as QX-314 upon external application.

Unfortunately, the channel-associated binding site is not yet defined on a molecular level. Its nature and location within the Na⁺ channel protein is purely hypothetical and remains to be characterized. Assuming that both the conventional I_{Na} blockade as arising from the NP_o depression and the microscopic blockade in noninactivating Na⁺ channels emerge from a drug interaction with one and the same drug target, the present observations with lidocaine find no plausible explanation.

In considering the response of noninactivating cardiac Na⁺ channels to lidocaine and other antiar-

rhythmic drugs, the question is crucial indeed as to whether the intrinsic drug binding properties remain conserved after chemical or pharmacological channel modification. As recently reported from studies in planar bilayers, batrachotoxin-activated Na⁺ channels of various origins, including heart muscle, show a drastically altered stereoselectivity in that the (+)-enantiomer of cocaine and bupivacaine were found to be less effective than the (-)-enantiomer (Wang, 1990). This is opposite to the effectiveness in intact nerve fibers. Wang (1990) offers two possible explanations, a loss of an additional binding site in planar bilayers or an influence of batrachotoxin on binding properties. But it should be emphasized that the (+)-enantiomers of cocaine and bupivacaine did not principally lose their capability to evoke a flicker blockade. Using DPI 201-106 as modifier of cardiac Na⁺ channels *in situ*, a microscopic block analysis with propafenone revealed reaction kinetics (Kohlhardt et al., 1989) which are close to the association rate constant (in the order of $10^7 \text{ mol}^{-1}\text{sec}^{-1}$) computed by Starmer & Grant (1985) from experimental data in papillary muscles of guinea pig (Kohlhardt & Seifert, 1983). Moreover, external Na⁺ variations which are well established from I_{Na} measurements in voltage-clamped axons (Cahalan & Almers, 1979) and ventricular cardiac preparations (Kohlhardt, 1982) to modulate the local anesthetic action have the same crucial influence on the drug-induced flicker blockade in that a reduction in external Na⁺ accentuates the blocking drug efficacy and vice versa (Kohlhardt et al., 1989).

This would not be in favor of the assumption that DPI 201-106, in interacting with cardiac Na⁺ channels, and thereby removing reversibly their inactivation process, may simultaneously alter some fundamental drug binding properties. In other words, the failing ability of lidocaine to produce a flicker blockade still awaits a tentative explanation.

A more attractive hypothesis is based on the assumption that noninactivating cardiac Na⁺ channels can discriminate among antiarrhythmic drugs. This postulates a separate drug receptor as being involved in the flicker blockade and having no lidocaine affinity. In fact, there is still another argument against a single drug receptor whose occupancy evokes I_{Na} depression together with flicker blockade. As shown in DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels with propafenone (Benz & Kohlhardt, 1991), the dissociation rate constant was 700 sec^{-1} (at -45 mV and 9°C). Recovery from I_{Na} blockade, however, proceeds with a rate of about 0.2 sec^{-1} (at -90 mV and 35°C ; Kohlhardt & Seifert, 1985). Even a fast I_{Na} recovery recently described in papillary muscles treated with quinidine operates with a rate of 10

sec⁻¹, as an upper limit (Snyders & Hondeghem, 1990).

Nevertheless, DPI-modified cardiac Na⁺ channels are not definitely resistant to lidocaine since the drug decreased τ_{open} and the number of opening events during membrane depolarization. Clearly, this response is definitely distinct from flicker blockade and suggests that lidocaine may hinder noninactivating Na⁺ channels from gating.

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