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## Adrenaline-, not somatostatin-induced hyperpolarization is accompanied by a sustained inhibition of insulin secretion in INS-1 cells. Activation of sulphonylurea $K_{ATP}^+$ channels is not involved

Received: 10 October 1995/Received after revision: 3 January 1996/Accepted: 9 January 1996

**Abstract** Adrenaline and somatostatin inhibit insulin secretion via pertussis toxin (PTX)-sensitive mechanisms. Since glucose-stimulated release involves inhibition of ATP-sensitive  $K^+$  ( $K_{ATP}^+$ ) channels and activation of  $Ca^{2+}$  influx, we took advantage of the glucose-sensitive, insulin-secreting cell line INS-1 to investigate whether inhibitors of insulin release modulate membrane voltage and  $K_{ATP}^+$  channel activity in cell-attached patch-clamp experiments. We found that adrenaline, through  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptors, and somatostatin counteracted glucose-induced depolarization and action potentials. As expected, these effects were mediated via PTX-sensitive G proteins since PTX pretreatment of the cells eliminated the effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage. When INS-1 cells were activated by adding both the  $K_{ATP}^+$  channel inhibitor tolbutamide and the adenylyl cyclase activator forskolin, adrenaline and somatostatin still repolarized the plasma membrane. Single-channel measurements in the cell-attached mode revealed that tolbutamide closed a 40 to 70 pS  $K^+$  channel which was neither reopened by adrenaline nor by somatostatin. In parallel cell preparations, insulin secretion was measured by radioimmunoassay. Insulin release induced by glucose, forskolin and tolbutamide was abolished by adrenaline. In contrast, somatostatin attenuated insulin secretion by only 30%. After comparing the potency of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage and on insulin secretion, it is concluded that the repolarizing effect of adrenaline on membrane voltage is not sufficient to explain its potent inhibitory effect on insulin secretion.

**Key words** Insulin secretion · Adrenaline ·  $\alpha_2$ -Adrenoceptors · Somatostatin · Patch-clamp method ·  $\beta$ -cell membrane voltage · Sulphonylurea-sensitive  $K_{ATP}^+$  channels

### Introduction

A major defect in NIDDM (non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus) is the dysfunction of insulin-secreting  $\beta$ -cells which do not secrete sufficient insulin to lower elevated blood glucose concentrations [22]. Thus, our understanding of the regulation of insulin secretion is crucial for effective treatment of the disease. Some intracellular events involved in islet cell function are already clarified. Hence, augmented glucose entry into the cells increases both the metabolic flux and the generation of ATP [21]. It is now generally accepted that the link between enhanced glucose metabolism and  $Ca^{2+}$  influx, which is necessary for the induction of insulin secretion, is the ATP-mediated inhibition of  $K^+$  channels [4, 7]. These channels are also the targets of sulphonylureas [26], which are hypoglycaemic drugs used for the treatment of NIDDM. Recently, a sulphonylurea-binding protein has been cloned and this may be a modulatory protein of  $K^+$  channel activity [1]. The  $\beta$ -cell depolarization resulting from closure of ATP-sensitive  $K^+$  ( $K_{ATP}^+$ ) channels leads to the opening of L-type  $Ca^{2+}$  channels and to  $Ca^{2+}$  influx [5, 10, 21].

A variety of substances are known to inhibit the stimulatory effects of glucose and sulphonylureas. Among these are adrenaline and noradrenaline, somatostatin and galanin [2, 13, 18, 29–32]. These substances are known to bind to specific membrane receptors which are coupled to pertussis-toxin-sensitive G proteins [14] modifying a variety of cellular parameters involved in signal transduction. Thus, activation of these receptors inhibits adenylyl cyclase and lowers adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate (cAMP) levels

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[2, 14]. Moreover,  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor activation, as well as somatostatin and galanin have been shown to inhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels [12, 27] and to repolarize the plasma membrane [8, 19, 25]. In addition, experiments performed using permeabilized cells, in which membrane channels are bypassed and soluble cytosolic messengers such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  are determined by the concentration in the bath solution, showed that inhibitors of insulin secretion are still functioning, which implies direct effects of these modulators on insulin secretion [30–32]. Recently,  $G_i$  proteins have been located on insulin-secreting granule membranes [16].

The involvement of the described effects to elicit inhibition of insulin secretion under physiological conditions is not completely understood. Experimental evidence suggests that inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and the effects on ion channels are not sufficient to explain the inhibition of secretion. Thus, in the past, we and others were able to show that insulin secretion is still abolished by adrenaline in the presence of elevated cAMP levels [18, 29]. The effects on membrane voltage were transient and could be dissociated from inhibition of insulin release [8]. Moreover, the interpretation became even more complicated, because results obtained with insulin-secreting cell lines differed from data obtained with normal  $\beta$ -cells. Thus, in RINm5F and HIT cells, activation of  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels by somatostatin and galanin leading to hyperpolarization was observed [9, 23, 33, 34], whereas in normal  $\beta$ -cells a small  $\text{K}^+$  channel distinct to the  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels was activated by the  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist clonidine [24].

In this study we used the INS-1 cells, a glucose-sensitive insulin-secreting cell line [3], which has been proven to be much less dedifferentiated than other insulin-secreting cell lines such as RINm5F and HIT cells, to evaluate the effects of inhibitory hormones on membrane voltage,  $\text{K}^+$  channel activity and insulin secretion. It was found that the repolarizing effect of adrenaline does not involve  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels and is not sufficient to account for the potent inhibitory effect of insulin secretion.

## Materials and methods

### Cell culture

INS-1 cells culture was performed as previously described [3]. Briefly, cells were treated with trypsin and seeded every week at a cell density of  $250 \times 10^6$  cells/l in 20 ml of RPMI 1640 culture medium (GIBCO, Eggenstein, Germany) supplemented with 50  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  2-mercaptoethanol, 1 mmol/l sodium pyruvate, 10 mmol/l 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulphonic acid (HEPES), 100 000 IU/l penicillin, 100 mg/l streptomycin and 100 g/l decomplemented fetal calf serum (Seromed, Berlin, Germany) into 75  $\text{cm}^2$  culture flasks. The medium was changed twice per week. All substances used were purchased from Sigma (Munich, Germany) or RBI, Bio Trend (Cologne, Germany).

### Patch-clamp measurements

Patch-clamp measurements were performed using cells ( $0.2 \times 10^6$  cells, passages 80–100) seeded on glass coverlips coated with poly-L-ornithine (10 mg/l, Sigma). After 2–5 days of culture in standard culture medium the coverslip was mounted onto the stage of an inverted microscope (Axiovert 10, Zeiss, Germany) and perfused continuously at 37° C with a solution containing (in mmol/l): 140 NaCl, 5.6 KCl, 1.2  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 2.6  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , 0.5 glucose and 10 HEPES, pH 7.4. A flowing KCl (1 mol/l) electrode served as a reference and appropriate corrections for liquid junction voltages were made. The patch-clamp pipettes (Clark-Medical, Reading, UK) with an input resistance of 5–8 M $\Omega$  were pulled automatically (DMZ Universal Puller, Zeitz, Augsburg, Germany) and coated with bee's wax. The pipette solution contained (in mmol/l): 130 KCl, 4  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 2  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , 10 ethylenebis(oxonitrilo)tetraacetate (EGTA), 0.65  $\text{Na}_2\text{ATP}$  and 20 HEPES, pH 7.15. After seal resistances of  $\geq 1$  G $\Omega$  were obtained, membrane voltage ( $V_m$ ) was measured continuously using the current-clamp mode of the patch-clamp amplifier (U. Fröbe, and R. Busche, this institute, Freiburg, Germany) and was displayed by a pen recorder. The pipette capacitance was cancelled by the compensation circuit of the amplifier (U. Fröbe and R. Busche, this institute) using a sine wave command voltage [15]. Single-channel measurements were performed in the voltage-clamp mode and current/voltage ( $I/V$ ) curves were obtained by clamping the pipette voltage to  $\pm 80$  mV. The data was low-pass filtered (3 kHz) and stored on digital audio tape. Patch-clamp software written by U. Fröbe (this institute) was used for channel analysis.

### Insulin secretion

Insulin secretion was measured in cells ( $0.25 \times 10^6$  cells per well) seeded into 24-hole multiwell dishes. After 2 days of culture, the cells were washed with a modified KRB-HEPES buffer containing (in mmol/l): 136 NaCl, 4.7 KCl, 1.2  $\text{MgSO}_4$ , 1  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , 1.2  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 5  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 0.5 glucose, 10 HEPES, pH 7.4 and 0.5% bovine serum albumin (fraction V, Sigma). They were preincubated at 37° C for 30 min in the same buffer and incubated for another 30 min in a buffer containing the test substances at the concentrations indicated. Insulin released into the supernatant and insulin content of the cells after acid ethanol extraction was measured by a radioimmunoassay as described previously [11] utilizing rat insulin (Novo Nordisk, Bagsvaerd, Denmark) as standard and rabbit anti-insulin porcine antiserum (Calbiochem).  $^{125}\text{I}$ -labelled insulin was from CIS Diagnostik (Dreieich, Germany).

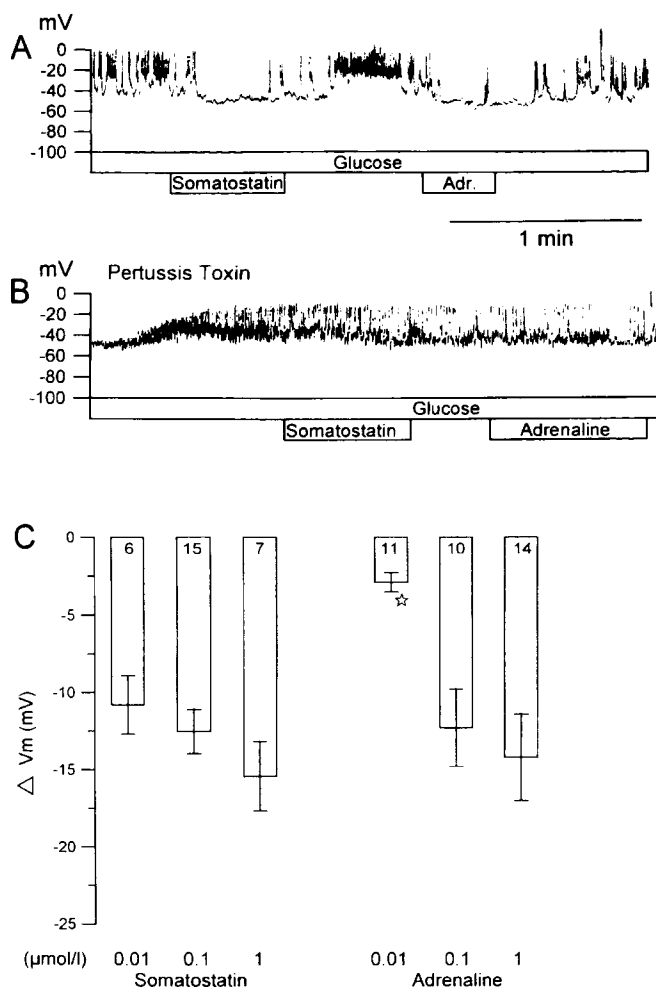
### Statistical analysis

Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Student's *t*-tests for paired data of patch-clamp experiments and for unpaired data of insulin secretion experiments were used for statistical analysis ( $P < 0.05$ ).

## Results

### Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage in INS-1 cells

In cell-attached measurements, adrenaline and somatostatin abolished action potentials induced by glucose and hyperpolarized the plasma membrane (Fig. 1A, C). At 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline, the effect was persistent, but reversible after removal of the catecholamine. At lower



**Fig. 1A–C** Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage in INS-1 cells. Measurements of membrane voltage were performed as described in the Materials and methods. **A–C** Depolarization and action potentials were induced by glucose (15 mmol/l). **A** Control cells were superfused with somatostatin and adrenaline (0.1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  each) as indicated. **B** Cells were incubated for 3 h with 100  $\mu\text{g/l}$  pertussis toxin added to the culture medium prior to the patch-clamp experiment. **C** Maximal hyperpolarizations induced by increasing concentrations of somatostatin and adrenaline plotted as mean  $\pm$  SEM for the indicated number of observations as shown in each column (\*significant vs the values prior to addition)

concentrations action potentials also reappeared in the continuous presence of adrenaline. Somatostatin proved to be as potent as adrenaline, repolarizing the plasma membrane at 0.1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  by 13 mV.

Pertussis toxin pretreatment of the cells abolished the effects of adrenaline and somatostatin ( $n = 11$ , Fig. 1B). The treatment itself did not alter either basal membrane voltage ( $-64 \pm 4$  mV and  $-57 \pm 6$  mV,  $n = 9$ , in treated and control cells, respectively) or the responsiveness of the cells to glucose (data not shown).

Two  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic agonists, clonidine, 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , and UK14,304, 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , mimicked the adrenaline-evoked effect (Fig. 2B and C, respectively). Rauwolscine (10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ), an  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic antagonist, counteracted

the adrenaline-induced hyperpolarization whereas prazosin (10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) an  $\alpha_1$ -adrenergic antagonist, and propranolol (10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ), a  $\beta$ -adrenergic antagonist, had no effects on membrane voltage in the presence of adrenaline in INS-1 cells (Fig. 2D–F).

These results indicate that somatostatin and adrenaline, the latter through activation of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptors, hyperpolarize INS-1 cell plasma membrane via pertussis-toxin-sensitive G protein(s).

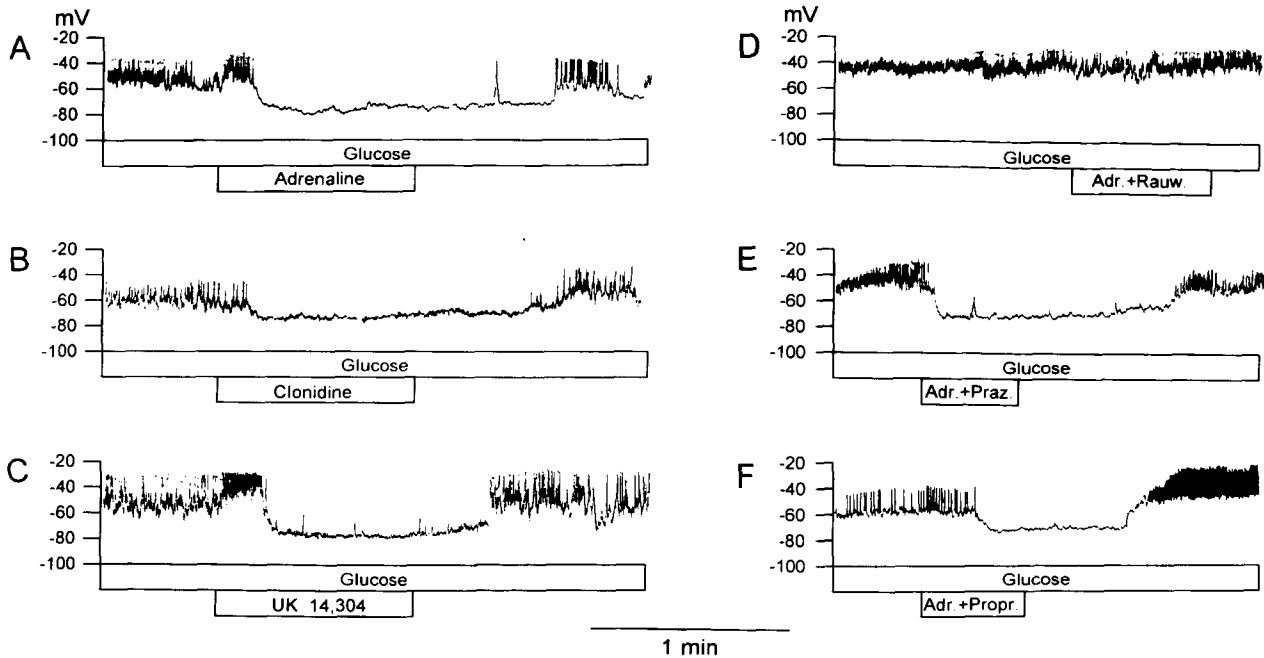
In an additional series of experiments, adrenaline and somatostatin were tested in the presence of the sulphonylurea tolbutamide, 50  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , and forskolin, 5  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , a stimulator of adenylyl cyclase. This combination of stimulators was proven to potently increase insulin release (Fig. 6, Table 1 and S. Ullrich et al. unpublished observations). As can be seen in Fig. 3, adrenaline and somatostatin significantly repolarized the plasma membrane even in the presence of these stimulators.

To investigate whether the adrenaline-evoked effect on membrane voltage is accompanied by a change in whole-cell conductance, we performed experiments using the amphotericin B-perforated patch technique to gain electrical access to the cell cytosol [5]. To this end the pipette was backfilled with a solution supplemented with 250 mg/l amphotericin B. The resting membrane voltage was  $-73 \pm 2.7$  mV ( $n = 9$ ). Glucose (15 mmol/l) depolarized the cells to  $-56 \pm 2.4$  mV ( $n = 9$ ) and induced action potentials. Subsequent addition of 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline in the presence of glucose repolarized the cells to  $-63.4 \pm 2.2$  mV ( $n = 9$ ). In the voltage-clamp mode  $\pm 10$  mV steps were performed for current measurements. The basal whole-cell

**Table 1** Effects of adrenergic agonists and antagonists on adrenaline-evoked inhibition of insulin secretion in INS-1 cells. Cells were incubated and insulin was measured as described in Materials and methods. *Control* denotes incubations performed in the presence of 0.5 mmol/l glucose; *Stimulators* indicates incubations in the presence of 16.7 mmol/l glucose, 5  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  forskolin and 50  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  tolbutamide. Results are mean  $\pm$  SEM for the number of observations indicated in parentheses (3–4 observations per individual experiment)

Conditions	Insulin Release (% of content)
Control	$0.32 \pm 0.03$ (28)
Stimulators	$4.04 \pm 0.26$ (28)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ clonidine	$1.51 \pm 0.30$ (8)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ adrenaline	$0.54 \pm 0.06$ (28)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ adrenaline + 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ rauwolscine	$6.22 \pm 0.59$ (24)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ adrenaline + 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ prazosin	$1.46 \pm 0.13$ (7)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ adrenaline + 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ propranolol	$1.27 \pm 0.30$ (11)
Stimulators + 1 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ adrenaline + 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ propranolol + 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ rauwolscine	$4.38 \pm 0.63$ (12)**

\*\* Not significant compared to the effect of stimulators alone



**Fig. 2** Effects of adrenoceptor agonists (A–C) and antagonists (D–F) on glucose-induced depolarization and action potentials in INS-1 cells. Measurements of membrane voltage were performed as described in Materials and methods. The substances were superfused as indicated: **A** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline; **B** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  clonidine; **C** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  UK 14,304; **D** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline + 10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  rauwolscine; **E** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline + 10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  prazosin; **F** 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  adrenaline + 10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  propranolol

conductance was  $3.9 \pm 1.0$  nS ( $n = 9$ ) which was reduced to  $0.23 \pm 0.04$  nS by glucose. The addition of adrenaline increased the conductance slightly but significantly to  $0.36 \pm 0.07$  nS ( $n = 9$ ). During these measurements the access conductance was  $16 \pm 3$  nS ( $n = 9$ ). These results suggest that the repolarizing effect of adrenaline is at least in part due to opening of  $\text{K}^+$  channels.

#### Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on sulphonylurea-sensitive $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$ channel activity in INS-1 cells

Since tolbutamide is known to depolarize insulin-secreting cells by its specific inhibitory action on  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels present in the plasma membrane, it was important to examine whether adrenaline- and somatostatin-induced hyperpolarization was due to an activation of these channels. Channel analysis of cell-attached patches revealed that tolbutamide-sensitive channels were observed in the plasma membrane of INS-1 cells at 0.5 mmol/l glucose. They have a single-channel conductance of 40–70 pS (mean:  $53.8 \pm 2.6$  pS,  $n = 13$ ) and a reversal potential of  $82.4 \pm 1.8$  mV ( $n = 10$ , Fig. 4). After addition of tolbutamide, the channels were closed. At the same time, events revealing

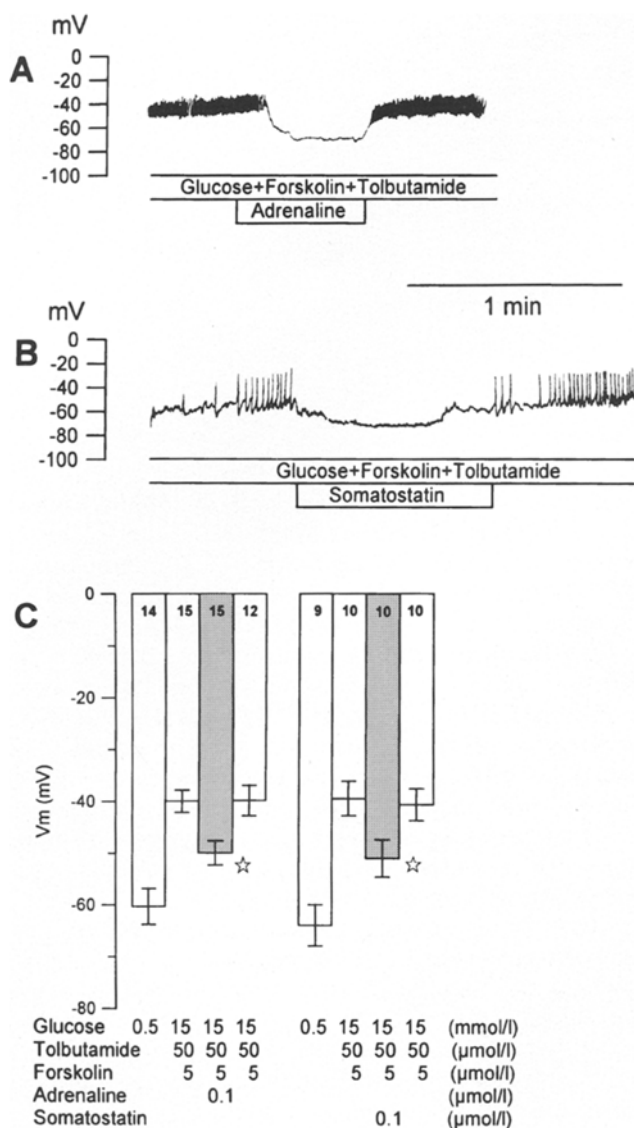
action potentials appeared (Fig. 5). When adrenaline and somatostatin were added in the presence of tolbutamide, action potentials were abolished but no reopening of these channels could be observed (Fig. 5). Moreover no other channels greater than the basal noise ( $> 4$  pS) were detectable in the presence of adrenaline and somatostatin.

To check whether an adrenaline-evoked effect may have escaped detection, since channels analysed under the patch pipette may not be modulated by adrenaline added to the bath solution, adrenaline was added to the pipette solution only. Under these conditions, we observed similar  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channel activity to that shown without adrenaline in the pipette and tolbutamide still inhibited channel opening (data not shown).

Thus the repolarizing effect of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage cannot be explained by an activation of tolbutamide-sensitive  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels.

#### Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on insulin secretion

Figure 6 demonstrates that adrenaline inhibited insulin secretion induced by glucose (16.7 mmol/l), forskolin (5  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) and tolbutamide (50  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) in INS-1 cells. The inhibitory action of adrenaline was half-maximal at 0.05  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ . Adrenaline (1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) inhibited secretion by 98%. Clonidine (1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) mimicked the effect of the catecholamine (71% inhibition of stimulated secretion, Table 1). Rauwolscine (10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) antagonized the catecholamine-evoked effect completely, while prazosin and propranolol, each at 10  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , did not (Table 1). These results show that adrenaline inhibits



**Fig. 3A–C** Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage in the presence of glucose, tolbutamide and forskolin. Measurements of membrane voltage were performed as described in Materials and methods. Cells were superfused with a bath solution containing 15 mmol/l glucose, 50  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  tolbutamide and 5  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  forskolin. **A** Adrenaline (0.1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) or **B** somatostatin (0.1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) were added as indicated. **C** Mean  $\pm$  SEM of experiments performed as in **A** and **B** for the number of observations as indicated in each *column*

insulin secretion in INS-1 cells through the activation of  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic receptors. In contrast, somatostatin attenuated insulin secretion by only 30% at 0.1 and 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$  (Fig. 6).

We also performed experiments with galanin. Galanin did not inhibit stimulated insulin secretion in INS-1 cells nor did it hyperpolarize the INS-1 cell plasma membrane, indicating that either galanin receptors are absent or signal transduction for galanin is interrupted (data not shown).

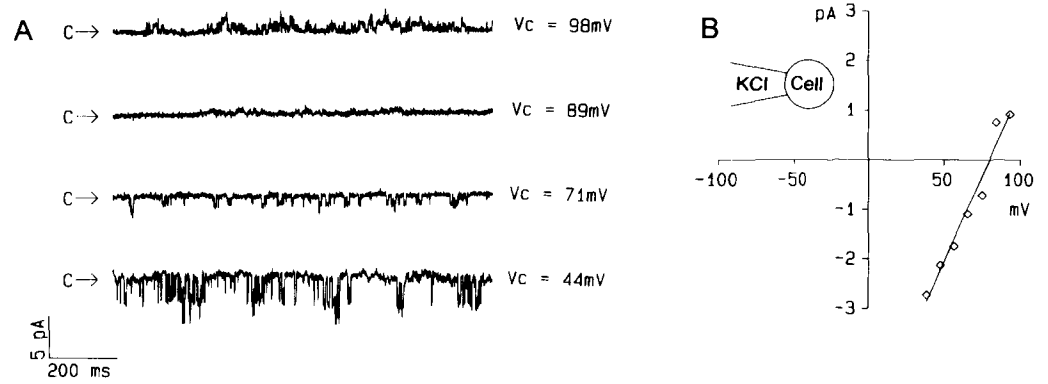
## Discussion

We found that adrenaline and somatostatin repolarize INS-1 cells in the presence of glucose and the sulphonylurea tolbutamide without affecting sulphonylurea-sensitive  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channel activity (Figs. 3 and 5). These results were surprising since adrenaline abolished secretion in the presence of tolbutamide (Fig. 6) and since it has been found using other insulin-secreting cell lines (RINm5F and HIT-T15) that inhibitory agents such as somatostatin and galanin activate  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels [33, 34]. For two reasons it is unlikely that the adrenaline-evoked effects on  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels escaped detection in this study. First, when adrenaline was added to the pipette solution only,  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channel opening was not significantly changed nor was the inhibitory effect of tolbutamide in cell-attached patches. Second, we performed experiments to examine whether adrenaline increases whole-cell conductance in the presence of glucose. Adrenaline augmented whole-cell conductance by only 0.13 nS. As a single  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channel has a conductance of 0.05 nS, the adrenaline-evoked effect should have to be mediated by only a few  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels. In a recent study by Ribalet and Eddlestone [23] performed with RINm5F and HIT-T15 cells, somatostatin activated  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels in the absence of glucose, but was unable to reopen  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels in the presence of glucose. This finding is in agreement with our results, where glucose and tolbutamide closed channels were not reopened by adrenaline and somatostatin (Fig. 5). The repolarizing effect of inhibitors found in normal  $\beta$ -cells [8, 19] has been attributed to the activation of small  $\text{K}^+$  channels distinct from  $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}^+$  channels [24]. Our results now also suggest that small  $\text{K}^+$  channels with a single-channel conductance  $< 4$  pS are activated by adrenaline and are responsible at least in part for the observed repolarization. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that adrenaline has a dual effect on whole-cell conductance, i.e. activation of small  $\text{K}^+$  channels and inhibition of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels, whereby changes in whole-cell conductance may reflect the sum of both effects. Indeed, adrenaline has been shown to inhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels resulting in a decrease in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration [19] and to inhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mediated action potentials [27].

Clonidine and UK 14,304 mimicked the adrenaline-evoked effects on membrane voltage and insulin secretion. The  $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic antagonist rauwolscine counteracted the adrenaline-evoked effect whereas prazosin and propranolol had only minor effects at very high concentrations. Thus, adrenaline acts through  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptors. Analysis of the expression pattern of adrenoceptor subtypes in purified rat  $\beta$ -cells suggests that two of three  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor subtypes are present in insulin-secreting cells [6]. The receptor subtype expressed in INS-1 cells remains to be determined.

After comparing the effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on membrane voltage, both substances

**Fig. 4A, B** Voltage dependency of channel opening observed in INS-1 cells under control conditions. Measurements were performed in the cell-attached mode as described in Materials and methods. Cells were superfused with bath solution containing 0.5 mmol/l glucose. The patched membrane was clamped with 9 mV steps to  $\pm 50$  mV. **B** Current/voltage relationship ( $I/V$  curve) of channels observed in **A**. Analysis was performed as described in Materials and methods

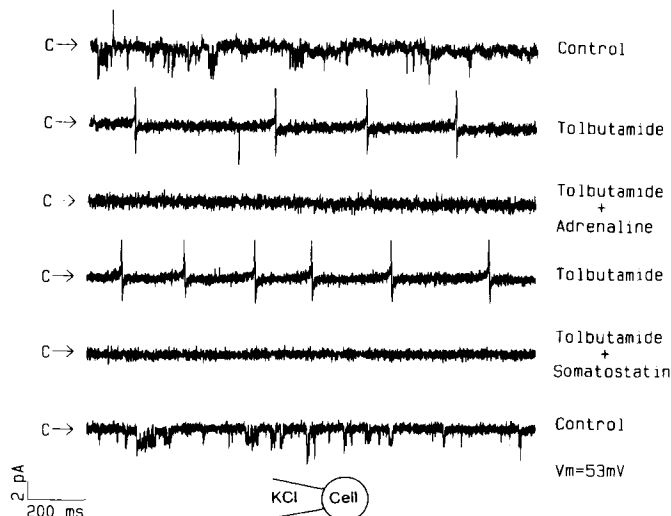


proved to be equipotent. Thus, at 1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ , the hyperpolarization was only reversed after removal of the agonists. At lower concentrations, both adrenaline and somatostatin induced a transient repolarization similar to that observed for normal  $\beta$ -cells [8, 25]. In INS-1 cells, the duration of the effects and especially the frequency of action potentials varied largely from cell to cell, which is why we felt unwilling to quantify the effects on action potential frequency in more detail. In contrast to the similar potency on membrane voltage, adrenaline was revealed to be much more potent in inhibiting insulin release than somatostatin (Fig. 6). Thus, the effect on membrane voltage alone cannot explain the inhibition of release.

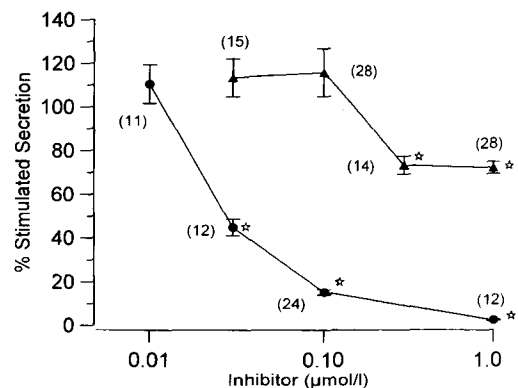
The pertussis toxin sensitivity of adrenaline- and somatostatin-induced membrane repolarization indicates that the effects are mediated via receptors which exert their actions through pertussis-toxin-sensitive G

proteins of the  $G_{o/i}$  family. Since all other known effects of adrenaline in insulin-secreting cells, the inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, the inhibition of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels and the inhibition of insulin release are also mediated via pertussis-toxin-sensitive G proteins [14, 27, 29, 30], toxin treatment cannot discriminate between the different actions.  $G_{\alpha(1-3)}$  and  $G_{\alpha_o}$  proteins were found in RINm5F, HIT-T15,  $\beta$ -TC and  $\beta$ -cells [16, 27, 28].  $G_i$  proteins were found on insulin-containing granules [16] and  $G_{i1}$  was shown to mediate adrenaline-evoked effects on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels [27]. It has been suggested previously [30] that adrenaline may exert its inhibition of secretion through a direct coupling of pertussis-toxin-sensitive G proteins to the exocytotic fusion pore. Indeed it has been shown recently that activated  $G_i$  and  $G_o$  proteins directly inhibit insulin secretion [17]. The results of this study suggest that a distinct set of G proteins and thus different effector systems may be activated by adrenaline and somatostatin. To explain our results, only adrenaline would then stimulate the pathway which directly modulates secretion.

**Fig. 5** Effects of tolbutamide, adrenaline and somatostatin on channels in INS-1 cells measured in the cell-attached mode. Cells were superfused with bath solution containing 0.5 mmol/l glucose. Tolbutamide (100  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ), adrenaline (1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) and somatostatin (1  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ) were added as indicated. The holding potential of the patch was 53 mV. All traces were from one cell



**Fig. 6** Effects of adrenaline and somatostatin on glucose-, tolbutamide- and forskolin-induced insulin secretion. Cells were incubated and insulin secretion measured as described in Materials and methods. Curves originate from 3–6 independent experiments for each agonist ( $\bullet$ – $\bullet$ , adrenaline,  $\blacktriangle$ – $\blacktriangle$ , somatostatin). The number of observations (3–4 for each independent experiment) is given in parentheses. Results are expressed as % of release (the increment of secretion induced by glucose, tolbutamide and forskolin was set to 100 %, \* significant vs stimulated secretion)



The small inhibitory effect of somatostatin on secretion differs from that found in HIT-T15 cells [32], where 10 nM somatostatin inhibited stimulated release by 85%. It remains to be analysed whether receptor expression and/or the somatostatin-sensitive G protein concentrations are responsible for these differences in distinct cell lines.

The results presented in this study show that repolarization and inhibition of insulin secretion by adrenaline occur in the presence of blocked  $K_{ATP}^+$  channels, although these channels are responsible for the membrane voltage in unstimulated insulin-secreting cells. Further analysis of G proteins involved in the different effects of adrenaline and somatostatin may perhaps explain the differences in action of the two inhibitors.

**Acknowledgements** We thank Dr. R. Greger for helpful discussions. We are gratefully indebted to Ljiljana Mijovic, Kari Zipfel and Charlotte Hupfer for skilled technical assistance. This work was supported by DFG grant UI 140/1-2. S.U. is a recipient of a DFG fellowship (UI 140/1-1).

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