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Francisco J. Urbano · Osvaldo D. Uchitel

L-Type calcium channels unmasked by cell-permeant Ca²⁺ buffer at mouse motor nerve terminals

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Abstract The involvement of the different types of voltage-dependent calcium channels (VDCC) in both DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated and EGTA-AM-incubated mature mice levator auris neuromuscular junctions (NMJ) was studied. We evaluated the effects of ω -agatoxin IVA (ω -Aga IVA), nitrendipine and ω -conotoxin GVIA (ω -CgTX) (P/Q-, L- and N-type VDCC blockers, respectively) on perineurial calcium currents (I_{Ca}) and nerveevoked transmitter release. The application of ω -Aga IVA (100 nM) drastically reduced perineurial I_{Ca} (>90%) and nerve-evoked transmitter release (>90% of reduction in quantal content, m) at both DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. The L-type VDCC antagonist nitrendipine (10 µM) caused a significant reduction (23 \pm 9%, *n*=5) of perineurial I_{Ca} at DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ. In addition, after the block of P/Qtype VDCC with ω-Aga IVA (100 nM), nitrendipine reduced (>90%, n=2) the remaining perineurial I_{Ca} . Such reduction was not observed at EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ, before or after the total block of P/Q-type VDCC. Moreover, nitrendipine did not significantly reduce the quantal content of DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ. Finally, the application of ω -CgTX (5 μ M) did not significantly affect perineurial I_{Ca} or nerve-evoked transmitter release at either DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated or EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. These results show the existence of a nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of perineurial I_{Ca} in DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ of mature mice.

F.J. Urbano · O.D. Uchitel
Laboratorio de Fisiología y Biología Molecular (LFBM),
Departamento de Ciencias Biológicas,
Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales,
Universidad de Buenos Aires, Ciudad Universitaria,
Pebellón II-2^{do} piso, 1428-Buenos Aires, Argentina
O.D. Uchitel (☑)

Laboratorio de Fisiología y Biología Molecular (LFBM), Departamento de Ciencias Biológicas, Ciudad Universitaria, Pabellón II, 2^{do} piso, 1428-Buenos Aires, Argentina e-mail: ODU@BG.FCEN.UBA.AR Tel.: +54-1-7886954, Fax: +54-1-7802788 **Key words** Calcium channel · Cell-permeant calcium buffers · DM-BAPTA-AM · EGTA-AM · Neuromuscular junction

Introduction

The influx of Ca²⁺ through voltage-dependent calcium channels (VDCC) at nerve terminals is the link between an action potential and transmitter release [2, 18]. At mature mammalian neuromuscular junctions (NMJ), neurotransmitter release is mediated by VDCC of the P/Q-type family, on the basis of the blocking effects of both funnel-web spider toxin (FTX) and ω -agatoxin IVA (ω -Aga IVA) on electrically evoked and K⁺-evoked acetylcholine (ACh) release and presynaptic Ca²⁺ currents [6, 14, 29, 37, 38]. In contrast, neither the L- nor the N-type VDCC have been found to participate in the evoked release of ACh in these mature termini [5, 6, 27, 31]. Some of this pharmacological evidence has been reinforced using immunocytochemical techniques [7, 26].

The function of the VDCC is controlled by voltage as well as by Ca^{2+} -dependent inactivation, the later being mediated by the Ca^{2+} influx through the channel [23]. This provides an intrinsic feedback mechanism through changes of the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$), which modulates both the magnitude and the duration of Ca^{2+} entry through VDCC. Both enzymatic and nonenzymatic mechanisms have been proposed to mediate the process of Ca^{2+} -dependent inactivation of VDCC in a variety of cell types. In particular, Ca^{2+} -dependent inhibition of the L-type VDCC has been described as a complex mechanism, where the Ca^{2+} is thought to bind directly to the channel protein [11, 13, 16, 17] as well as to a regulatory protein [12, 32] to promote inactivation.

The intracellular injection of Ca²⁺ buffers has been used to study Ca²⁺-dependent inactivation phenomena in several systems [23]. BAPTA and EGTA buffers, which are those most used, have similar affinity constants for Ca²⁺ (i.e. K_D values). But EGTA has a binding rate constant (i.e. k_{on}) for Ca²⁺ greater than 100 times slower [1]. In addition, the cell-permeant acetoxymethylester (AM) forms of these buffers have been accepted as a noninvasive way to control the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ [30, 34–36]. Furthermore, the fastest BAPTA-derived buffers (e.g. DM-BAPTA) have been used to reduce the rapid rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ at the vicinity of the VDCC pore [33], and also to make inferences about the spatial relationship between Ca^{2+} influx through VDCC and neurotransmitter release [25].

Thus, the objective of the present study was to investigate whether intracellular Ca²⁺ buffers are able to affect the pharmacological profile of the perineurial calcium currents (I_{Ca}) and nerve-evoked transmission release of mature mouse NMJ. We found the existence of a nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of perineurial I_{Ca} in NMJ of mature mice incubated in 5'-dimethyl-1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetoxymethyl ester (DM-BAPTA-AM).

Materials and methods

Experiments were carried out on the levator auris longus muscle of male Swiss mice weighting 20–30 g. The animals were cared for in accordance with national guidelines for the humane treatment of laboratory animals, which are as protective as those of the US National Institutes of Health. Animals were anaesthetized with an overdose of 2% tribromoethanol (0.15 ml per 10 g body mass, intraperitoneally). The corresponding muscle with its nerve supply was excised and dissected on a Sylgard-coated Petri dish containing a physiological saline solution of the following composition (mM): NaCl, 137; KCl, 5; CaCl₂, 2; MgSO₄, 1; NaHCO₃, 12; Na₂HPO₄, 1 and glucose 11; continuously bubbled with 95% O₂/5% CO₂. The preparation was then transferred to a recording chamber of 1.5 ml. Experiments were performed at room temperature (20–23°C).

Values are expressed as means \pm SEM. Statistical significance (*P* values in the text and figure legends) was evaluated by two-tailed Student's *t* test (for unpaired values and not assuming equal variances).

Electrophysiological recordings

Evoked endplate potentials (EPPs) and miniature endplate potentials (MEPPs) were recorded intracellularly with conventional glass microelectrodes filled with 3 M KCl (10–15 M Ω resistance). During the recording of EPPs muscle contraction was prevented by d-tubocurarine (dTC; 0.8–1.2 μ M). After impalement of a muscle fibre, the nerve was stimulated continuously for 1 min at 0.5 Hz, using two platinum electrodes coupled to a pulse generator associated with a stimulus isolation unit, and then 100 successive EPP were recorded (minimum 15 fibres per NMJ). The mean quantal content (*m*) of the evoked response was evaluated by the coefficient of variation method, calculated as:

$$m = (V_{\rm EPP})^2 / [(S_{\rm EPP})^2 - (S_{\rm noise})^2]$$

where V_{EPP} is the mean amplitude of the EPP, and S_{EPP} and S_{noise} are the standard deviations of the recorded EPP amplitudes and of the noise, respectively [15].

MEPPs were recorded for periods of 1–2 min and stored on tape for further analysis. For evaluating K⁺-evoked MEPPs, frequency was always evaluated after 30 min of incubating the muscle with a modified saline solution where the [KCl] was increased from 5 to 10 mM. The iso-osmolarity was maintained by adjusting $[Na^+]_o$. In both cases, MEPPs frequency was computer analysed (Axoscope 1.0, Axon Instruments).

Presynaptic I_{Ca}

Presynaptic currents were recorded extracellularly upon stimulation of the motor nerve by means of glass microelectrodes filled with 2M NaCl (5–10 M Ω) inserted into the perineurial sheath of small-diameter nerve bundles [22]. In all the experiments, control and toxin-treated records were obtained without changing the position of the electrode and once a stable recording had been achieved. Presynaptic I_{Ca} were obtained by adding tetraethylammonium (TEA; 10 mM), 3,4-diaminopyridine (DAP; 250 μ M) and dTC (30 μ M). The recording electrodes were connected to an Axoclamp-2A amplifier (Axon Instruments). A distant Ag-AgCl electrode connected to the bath solution via an agar bridge (3.5% agar in 137 mM NaCl) was used as reference. The signals were digitized (TL-1 DMA interface; Axon Instruments), stored and computer analysed. The percentage block was measured by integrals of the Cd²⁺sensitive, upward deflection (see Fig. 4), corresponding to the Ca²⁺ influx (I_{Ca}) from the terminal [22].

Loading procedure

The preparation was incubated with the AM forms of buffers for 2 h at 37°C in Ca²⁺-free saline solution in the presence of 10 μ M of the AM forms of buffers. Control experiments were performed incubating with the final concentration of dimethylsulphoxide (DM-SO). After incubation, the preparations were first washed for 15 min with the Ca²⁺-free solution and finally for 15 min with normal physiological saline solution.

Facilitation of transmitter release

Facilitation of transmitter release was studied using intracellular microelectrodes under conditions of low probability of release (modified saline solution containing 0.5 mM Ca^{2+} and 5 mM Mg^{2+}). Transmitter release was elicited by nerve stimulation through an isolation unit coupled to a computer. Then, 15 trains of stimuli at 100 Hz were applied every 10 s and the facilitation index was estimated as:

$I_{\rm f} = [({\rm Amp}_9 + {\rm Amp}_{10})/2]/{\rm Amp}_1$

where Amp_9 and Amp_{10} are the average amplitudes of the 9th and 10th endplate potentials (EPPs) of the train and Amp_1 is the mean average of the first EPP [30, 34]. I_f values were obtained before and after incubating the preparation with both DM-BAPTA-AM and ethylene glycol-bis-(β -aminoethylether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacet-oxymethyl ester (EGTA-AM).

Toxins and chemicals

Tribromoethanol was purchased from Aldrich. Nitrendipine was purchased from Research Biochemicals. dTC, DAP and all other salts were of analytical grade and purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, Mo., USA). DM-BAPTA-AM and EGTA-AM were purchased from Molecular Probes. The synthetic polypeptides ω -conotoxin GVIA (ω -CgTx) and ω -Aga IVA were purchased from Alomone Laboratories (Jerusalem, Israel). In all cases, both control and toxin-treated fibres were assayed in the presence of 0.01% BSA (Sigma).

Nitrendipine was made up as a 50 mM stock solution in ethanol, stored at 4°C and protected from light. Experiments in the presence of nitrendipine were carried out in the absence of direct illumination. The final ethanol concentration in control and drug-treated preparations was 0.1% (v/v). In control experiments this concentration of ethanol did not affect any of the parameters under study (n=2, data not shown).

 \dot{DM} -BAPTA-AM and EGTA-AM were prepared as 10 mM stock solutions dissolved in DMSO and stored in a freezer at -20° C. Aliquots were diluted in the incubation solution to yield the final concentration of 10 μ M. Neither the incubation nor the DMSO affected any of the parameters under study (n=5, data not shown)

Administration of nitrendipine was performed during constant flow perfusion ($\cong 2$ ml/min). Toxins (ω -CgTX and ω -Aga IVA) and CdCl₂ (100 μ M) were added directly to the bath after stopped the perfusion and having obtained stable recordings for at least 15 min.

Results

Loading of cell-permeant Ca²⁺ buffers into incubated NMJ

Initially, in order to verify the loading of the AM forms, facilitation of transmitter release was studied after incubation with both cell-permeant Ca²⁺ buffers. After incubation with DM-BAPTA-AM, but not EGTA-AM, a significant decrease of the I_f of transmitter release was continually observed throughout the experiments (*n*=3; data not shown), as previously described [30].

However, it was also important to verify the loading of EGTA-AM. In this sense, Losavio and Muchnik [20] have recently described an EGTA-AM-mediated reduction of MEPP frequency in rat NMJ. Then, it was of interest to study whether both cell-permeant Ca²⁺ buffers reduce spontaneous and/or K⁺-evoked MEPP frequency compared with control conditions (i.e. DMSO-incubated NMJ) at mouse NMJ.

Figure 1A,B shows the MEPP frequency recorded in DMSO-, DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ (empty, filled and hatched bars, respectively), bathed with normal (5 mM K⁺) and 10 mM K⁺ physiological saline solution, respectively. The spontaneous MEPP frequency (Fig. 1A) was not significantly different under these conditions (DMSO, 49.0±4.8 min⁻¹; DM-BAPTA-AM, 42.5±6.9 min⁻¹; EGTA-AM, 43.5±7.8 min⁻¹; P>0.5,

n=8). Nevertheless, the K⁺-evoked MEPP frequency (Fig. 1B) was drastically decreased at both DM-BAPTA-AMand EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ (DMSO, 125.5±8.7 min⁻¹; DM-BAPTA-AM, 60.9±4.9 min⁻¹; EGTA-AM, 67.5±3.0 min⁻¹; P<0.001, *n*=8). Moreover, no significant differences were observed comparing the K⁺-evoked MEPP frequency of DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ (*P*>0.7).

These data suggest the normal loading of both cell-permeant Ca^{2+} buffers and the continuous presence of the active salt forms of the buffers at incubated NMJ.

Effects of Ca²⁺ channel blockers on perineurial I_{Ca} currents in incubated NMJ

Perineurial I_{Ca} signals of DMSO-, DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ recorded in the presence of dTC (30 µM), TEA (10 mM) and DAP (250 µM) showed initially the capacitative artefact, followed by downward and upward deflections. Here, the downward component reflects the Na⁺ entry in the last heminodes, while the upward deflection corresponds to the Ca²⁺ influx (I_{Ca}) from the terminal [22]. In all cases, the I_{Ca} was suppressed after the bath application of Cd²⁺ (100 µM; see Fig. 4D).

The application of 5 μ M ω -CgTX (*n*=4), at a concentration that ensures maximal blocking effects in other systems, did not produce any change in the *perineurial I_{Ca}* of either DM-BAPTA-AM or EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ (Fig. 2A).

At both DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ, the application of 100 nM ω -Aga IVA drastically blocked the perineurial I_{Ca} (Fig. 2B). Washing the prepa-



Fig. 1 A Spontaneous (5 mM K⁺) miniature end-plate potential (*MEPP*) frequency (DMSO-incubated; *empty bar*) was not significantly reduced after incubation with neither DM-BAPTA-AM (*filled bar*) or EGTA-AM (*hatched bar*). **B** Bar diagram showing that K⁺evoked (*10 mM K*⁺) MEPP frequency (DMSO-incubated; *empty bar*) was significantly reduced after incubation with both DM-BA-PTA-AM (*filled bar*) and EGTA-AM (*hatched bar*). *P<0.001 compared with value in 10 mM K⁺ of the DMSO-incubated neuro-muscular junction (*NMJ*). Each *bar* represents the mean ±SEM of at least 15 fibres per NMJ (*n*=12). [*DM-BAPTA-AM* 5'-Dimethyl-1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-*N*,*N*,*N'*,*N'*-tetraacetoxymethyl ester]



Fig. 2A, B Effect of Ca²⁺ channels blockers ω-conotoxin GVIA (ω-CgTX) and ω-agatoxin IVA (ω-Aga IVA) on perineurial I_{Ca} of both DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. **A** Superimposed recordings from the same site before (*continuous line*) and 30 min after addition of 5 µM ω-CgTX (*dotted line*) from a DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated (*upper panel*) and an EGTA-AM-incubated (*lower panel*) NMJ. **B** Superimposed recordings from the same site before (*continuous line*) and 30 min after addition of 100 nM ω-Aga IVA (*dotted line*) from a DM-BAPTA-AMincubated (*upper panel*) and an EGTA-AM-incubated (*lower panel*) and an EGTA-AM-incubated (*lower panel*) and a Superimposed recordings from the same site before (*continuous line*) and 30 min after addition of 100 nM ω-Aga IVA (*dotted line*) from a DM-BAPTA-AMincubated (*upper panel*) and an EGTA-AM-incubated (*lower panel*) and an EGTA-AM-incubated (*lower panel*). All currents were recorded in the presence of d-tubocurarine (*dTC*, 30 µM), tetraethylammonium (*TEA*, 10 mM) and 3,4diaminopyridine (*DAP*, 250 µM) and are the average of three currents elicited by nerve stimulation every 30 s. Each *panel* corresponds to different preparations



Fig. 3A–C Effects of nitrendipine on the presynaptic perineurial I_{Ca} of DMSO-, DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. **A** Superimposed recordings from the same site before (*continuous line*) and 40 min after perfusion with 10 µM nitrendipine (*dotted line*) from a DMSO-incubated NMJ. **B** Superimposed recordings from the same site before (*continuous line*), 40 min after perfusion with 10 µM nitrendipine (*dotted line*) and 30 min of washout (*washout*) from a DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ. **C** Same as **A**, but for an EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. Note that *traces* are superimposed on both DMSO- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ, indicating that nitrendipine has no effect on I_{Ca} . All currents were recorded in the presence of dTC (30 µM), TEA (10 mM) and DAP (250 µM) and are the average of three currents elicited by nerve stimulation every 30 s. **A–C** Data are from different preparations

ration with toxin-free solution could not reverse the blocking effects of this drug (data not shown). The averaged block of ω -Aga IVA (100 nM) was 90±4% and 89±3% for DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM- incubated NMJ, respectively (*n*=5).

Thus, the strong inhibition provoked by ω -Aga IVA and the lack of effect of ω -CgTX suggested that activation of presynaptic P/Q-type VDCC is responsible for the major part of perineurial I_{Ca} of incubated NMJ.

The application of 10 μ M nitrendipine did not produce any change in the perineurial I_{Ca} of DMSO-incubated NMJ (*n*=4, Fig. 3A). However, the application of nitrendipine (10 μ M) to the DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ partially reduced the perineurial I_{Ca} . Figure 3B illustrates the effects of the application of 10 μ M nitrendipine (dotted line) on the perineurial I_{Ca} recorded in a DM-BA-



Fig. 4 Superimposed recordings from the same site 40 min after addition of 100 nM ω -Aga IVA to the bath (**A**), 45 min after perfusion with 10 μ M nitrendipine (**B**) and after 30 min of washout (**C**) from a DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ. Note that after washout the application of 100 μ M Cd²⁺ (**D**) abolished the remnant I_{Ca} , which indicates the Ca²⁺-mediated nature of the nitrendipine-blocked I_{Ca} . All currents were recorded in the presence of dTC (30 μ M), TEA (10 mM) and DAP (250 μ M) and are the average of four currents same preparation

PTA-AM-incubated NMJ. Note that this blocking effect of nitrendipine was partially reversible (see Fig. 3B). The averaged block observed was $23\pm9\%$ (*n*=5). Nevertheless, the application of 10 µM nitrendipine did not affect (*n*=4) the perineurial I_{Ca} at EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ (Fig. 3C).

Furthermore, the blocking effect of nitrendipine was also observed after the application of 100 nM ω -Aga IVA to DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ (Fig. 4). Indeed, the application of nitrendipine (10 μ M) practically abolished the remaining I_{Ca} (Fig. 4B) in a reversible way (Fig. 4C), after the application of ω -Aga IVA. However, at both DMSO- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ, after the application of ω -Aga IVA (100 nM), the remaining I_{Ca} was not sensitive to nitrendipine (*n*=4; data not shown).

Thus, these results reveal the existence of a nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of perineurial I_{Ca} in DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ of mature mice.

Effects of nitrendipine on nerve-evoked release in DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ

In order to evaluate if the nitrendipine-sensitive component of presynaptic I_{Ca} described above participates in

Table 1 Effect of calcium channels blockers ω -Aga IVA and nifedipine on quantal content (*m*) of both DMSO- and DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ. Each *value* represents the mean \pm SEM

	Control	Nitrendipine (10 µM)	ω-Aga IVA (100 nM)
DMSO	94.5±10.9 (<i>n</i> =2 NMJ; 32 fibres)	_	<10* (<i>n</i> =1 NMJ; 28 fibres)
DM-BAPTA-AM	91.9±8.8** (<i>n</i> =2 NMJ; 35 fibres)	99.0±11.8*** (<i>n</i> =2 NMJ; 30 fibres)	<10* (<i>n</i> =1 NMJ; 33 fibres)

*P < 0.05 versus before the toxin in each condition

**Not significant versus DMSO-incubated NMJ

***Not significant versus DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ

the release process at DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ, we tested the effects of 10 μ M nitrendipine on quantal content (*m*).

The estimated *m* values for DMSO- and DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ, before and after the application of 10μ M nitrendipine, are expressed in Table 1.

Hence, nitrendipine did not affect significantly the quantal content of the DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ (see Table 1).

On the other hand, in DMSO- and DM-BAPTA-AMincubated NMJ, ω -Aga IVA (100 nM) drastically reduced *m* (see Table 1). Also, nitrendipine had no further effects on the quantal content of the DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ after the application of 100 nM ω -Aga IVA (*n*=2, data not shown).

Discussion

It is well known that once in the cell, and after the action of cytoplasmic esterases, cell-permeant Ca2+ buffers do become active intracellular Ca²⁺ buffers [35]. Under our conditions of incubation (2 h at 37°C) and according to Tymianski et al. [36], the highest intracellular concentration of DM-BAPTA and EGTA may have been reached. The intracellular buffers normally regulate the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ around their K_D values (K_D estimated by Pethig et al. [28] to be 150 and 210 nM for DM-BAPTA and EGTA, respectively); therefore, the resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ during our experiments should be in the nanomolar range for both DM-BAPTA- and EGTA-loaded NMJ. Moreover, DM-BAPTA has a binding rate constant (i.e. k_{on}) more than 100 times higher than that of EGTA [1]. Thus, the observed reduction in K⁺-evoked MEPP frequency could be explained by the buffering response of both buffers to the massive Ca²⁺ entry from the extracellular space after the K⁺-mediated tonic depolarization of the NMJ. In contrast, the reduction of $I_{\rm f}$ observed specifically with DM-BAPTA-AM relies on its k_{on} rather on the K_D . Thus, the data indicate that both buffers were successfully loaded. In addition, other authors have also described analogous effects of cell-permeant buffers on K⁺-evoked MEPP frequency at rat NMJ [20] and on the I_f at NMJ of frog [34] and mouse [30].

Indeed, in our experiments DM-BAPTA-AM did not significantly change the quantal content of the incubated NMJ (see Table 1). However, BAPTA, but not EGTA, was able to reduce the evoked transmitter release when injected into the presynaptic terminal of the squid giant synapse [1]. This might be due to differences in spatial vesicle and/ or Ca^{2+} distribution in squid versus mammalian NMJ.

The results presented here show that ω -Aga IVA but not ω -CgTX drastically reduced perineurial I_{Ca} and nerveevoked transmitter release at both DM-BAPTA-AM- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ. This indicates that the P/Qbut not the N-type VDCC mediates transmission release under these experimental conditions, in agreement with previous results in studies of mature mice [6, 14, 29, 31, 37, 38]. The absence of a blocking effect of nitrendipine (10 μ M) observed at both DMSO- and EGTA-AM-incubated NMJ as well as the presence of a nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of the I_{Ca} at DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ suggests that only the fast intracellular buffer was able to unmask it.

The existence of a blocking effect of nitrendipine after application of ω -Aga IVA (100 nM) to DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ, but not to DMSO- or EGTA-AMincubated NMJ suggests that the Ca²⁺ influx through the P/Q-type is not involved in the inactivation process of these channels. In this way, other authors have described that the Ca²⁺ influx through L-type channels can selectively facilitate the inactivation of other adjacent L-type channels, without a generalized elevation of bulk [Ca²⁺]_i [16]. Thus, our observation of the nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of I_{Ca} only when a fast intracellular buffer is used suggests a rapid action of intracellular DM-BAPTA, regulating the Ca²⁺ inflow through these channels.

Nevertheless, the application of nitrendipine did not affect the quantal content of DM-BAPTA-AM-incubated NMJ, before or after the application of ω -Aga IVA, suggesting that this nitrendipine-sensitive L-type component of presynaptic I_{Ca} is not directly implicated in nerveevoked transmitter release. Although this lack of effect of dihydropyridines in nerve-evoked release at mature NMJ has been previously reported [5, 27], other roles for the VDCC present in nerve terminals have been recently described. In this sense, the Ca²⁺ entering through VDCC present in the axons can play an important role in regulating action potential propagation [21]. Furthermore, in hippocampal neurons the Ca²⁺ influx through L-type VDCC is able to cause the translocation of calmodulin from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, whereas that through other VDCC types is not [8]. This translocation of calmodulin provides a form of cellular communication that combines the specificity of local Ca²⁺ signalling with the ability to produce action at a distance. Likewise, the L-type VDCC has also been implicated in gene expression, mediating the synaptic activation of immediate early genes [24]. This suggests that the L-type VDCC could participate in more complex reactions in which local and short-lived signals are transcribed into long-lasting global signals [25].

The regulation of VDCC by Ca^{2+} is not yet clear: Ca²⁺ ions could be acting by binding directly to the channel [11, 13, 16, 17] or via a protein phosphatase-mediated dephosphorylation process [32]. In this sense, Arenson and Gill [4] have recently described that protein phosphorylation and dephosphorylation may regulate the activity of L-type channels at frog NMJ. Then, the L-type VDCC present at mature mouse NMJ could be regulated by Ca²⁺-dependent enzymatic mechanisms.

Also, as judged by the effects of dihydropyridines, the presence of the L-type VDCC may also be regulated during both development and reinnervation of the vertebrates [3, 10, 19] and amphibian [9] NMJ.

In conclusion, these results provide evidence for a nitrendipine-sensitive, L-type component of perineurial I_{Ca} , unmasked by the fast intracellular buffer DM-BAPTA, which is not involved in nerve-evoked transmitter release. Further studies should be done in order to deduce the physiological functions of these VDCC.

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