# Electrophysiological characterization of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in cat petrosal ganglion neurons in culture: Effects of cytisine and its bromo derivatives

Rodrigo Varas<sup>c</sup>, Viviana Valdés<sup>c</sup>, Patricio Iturriaga-Vásquez<sup>b</sup>, Bruce K. Cassels<sup>b</sup>, Rodrigo Iturriaga<sup>c</sup>, Julio Alcayaga<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Laboratorio de Fisiología Celular, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Chile, Casilla 653, Santiago, Chile <sup>b</sup>Laboratorio de Química Biodinámica, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile <sup>c</sup>Laboratorio de Neurobiología, Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas, P. Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile

## ARTICLEINFO

Keywords: Acetylcholine α7 subunit Carotid body Cytisine Nicotinic receptor

Abbreviations: 3-Br-cy, 3-bromocytisine 5-Br-cy, 5-bromocytisine ACh, acetylcholine nAChR, nicotinic acetylcholine receptor PG, petrosal ganglion

## ABSTRACT

Petrosal ganglion neurons are depolarized and fire action potentials in response to acetylcholine and nicotine. However, little is known about the subtype(s) of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors involved, although  $\alpha 4$  and  $\alpha 7$  subunits have been identified in petrosal ganglion neurons. Cytisine, an alkaloid unrelated to nicotine, and its bromo derivatives are agonists exhibiting different affinities, potencies and efficacies at nicotinic acetylcholine receptors containing  $\alpha 4$  or  $\alpha 7$  subunits. To characterize the receptors involved, we studied the effects of these agonists and the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor antagonists hexamethonium and  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin in isolated petrosal ganglion neurons. Petrosal ganglia were excised from anesthetized cats and cultured for up to 16 days. Using patch-clamp technique, we recorded whole-cell currents evoked by 5-10 s applications of acetylcholine, cytisine or its bromo derivatives. Agonists and antagonists were applied by gravity from a pipette near the neuron surface. Neurons responded to acetylcholine, cytisine, 3-bromocytisine and 5-bromocytisine with fast inward currents that desensitized during application of the stimuli and were reversibly blocked by 1  $\mu$ M hexamethonium or 10 nM  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin. The order of potency of the agonists was 3-bromocytisine  $\gg$  acetylcholine  $\cong$  cytisine  $\gg$  5-bromocytisine, suggesting that homomeric a7 neuronal nicotinic receptors predominate in cat petrosal ganglion neurons in culture.

## 1. Introduction

The petrosal ganglion (PG) is the main sensory ganglion containing the perikarya of primary afferent neurons of the glossopharyngeal nerve, whose peripheral axons project either through the carotid sinus nerve or the glossopharyngeal branch (Alcayaga et al., 1996; Stensaas and Fidone, 1977). The carotid sinus nerve conveys chemo- and mechanosensory fibers from the carotid body and carotid sinus, respectively, while the glossopharyngeal branch contains chemo- and mechanosensory fibers from the tongue and the pharynx. The transduction of chemical

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Fax: +56 2 271 2983.

E-mail address: jalcayag@uchile.cl (J. Alcayaga).

stimuli involves specialized receptor cells in both the carotid body and the gustatory papillae.

The current model of chemotransduction in the carotid body states that chemoreceptor (glomus) cells release one or more transmitters, which in turn increase the frequency of sensory discharges originated from PG neurons peripheral endings (Iturriaga and Alcayaga, 2004). In response to hypoxia and hypercapnia, the carotid body releases acetylcholine (ACh) from chemoreceptor cells (Fitzgerald et al., 1999), and several studies indicate that ACh modulates the release of catecholamines from cat and rabbit carotid body chemoreceptor cells (Hirasawa et al., 2002; Ishizawa et al., 1996; Iturriaga et al., 2000; Shirahata et al., 1998).

Applications of ACh to the isolated rat and cat PG neurons in culture evoke inward currents, depolarization and action potentials, effects mimicked by nicotine and blocked by hexamethonium (Koga and Bradley, 2000; Varas et al., 2000; Zhong and Nurse, 1997). Moreover, applications of ACh to the superfused cat PG generate bursts of action potentials conducted along the carotid sinus nerve, while only a few spikes are observed in the glossopharyngeal branch in response to the highest doses of ACh (Alcayaga et al., 1998). The neural response evoked by ACh is dosedependent and reversibly antagonized by hexamethonium and mecamylamine. Similarly, recordings from cat PG neurons functionally connected to the carotid body in vitro show that application of ACh to their somata depolarizes these neurons, having no effect on PG mechanosensory neurons (Varas et al., 2003). Thus, the electrophysiological data indicate that a population of PG neurons projecting through the carotid sinus nerve are selectively activated by ACh acting on nicotinic ACh receptors located in the somata of these neurons.

Nicotinic cholinergic receptors (nAChRs) are widely distributed in vertebrates, including different regions of the central and peripheral nervous systems (Hogg et al., 2003). Neuronal nAChRs are pentameric structures resulting from the ensemble of 12 subunits ( $\alpha 2-\alpha 10$  and  $\beta 2-\beta 4$ ), of which at least homomeric  $\alpha$ 7 and  $\alpha$ 9 and heteromeric  $\alpha$ 4 $\beta$ 2 and  $\alpha$ 2 $\beta$ 4 receptor subtypes are known to be present in other sensory ganglia (Genzen et al., 2001; Lips et al., 2002; Liu et al., 1998). The subunit composition of nACh heteromeric receptors determines features such as conductance and kinetics of desensitization (Fenster et al., 1997), Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability and agonist and/or antagonist affinities. Homomeric  $\alpha$ 7-nACh receptors have the highest Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability, the fastest desensitization kinetics of nACh receptors and are blocked by  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin. In contrast, heteromeric receptors have much lower Ca<sup>2+</sup> permeability and are mostly insensitive to  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin (Fenster et al., 1997; Gotti et al., 1997). Immunohistochemical studies have shown the presence of  $\alpha$ 7 and  $\alpha$ 4 nACh subunits in the nerve endings as well as in the perikarya of cat PG neurons that innervate the carotid body, suggesting that  $\alpha 7$ and  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  receptors predominate in these neurons (Ishizawa et al., 1996; Shirahata et al., 1998). However, little is known about the functional type of nAChRs that mediate the electrophysiological response of PG neurons to ACh. Accordingly, we characterized the currents elicited by ACh in PG neurons using the nAChR agonist cytisine and its bromo derivatives 3bromocytisine (3-Br-cy) and 5-bromocytisine (5-Br-cy) to

distinguish between the  $\alpha$ 7 and  $\alpha$ 4 $\beta$ 2 nicotinic cholinergic receptor subtypes (Houlihan et al., 2001; Slater et al., 2003).

## 2. Results

### 2.1. ACh-evoked currents in cultured PG neurons

At an imposed membrane resting potential of -60 mV, ACh (0.02-1 mM) evoked fast-desensitizing, dose-dependent transient inward currents in 17 out of 24 (71%) PG neurons in culture (Figs. 1 and 3A). To avoid the effects of receptor desensitization, at least 5 min were allowed between successive ACh applications. The nicotinic blocker hexamethonium (1 µM) reversibly suppressed ACh-evoked inward currents in all the cases studied (Figs. 1A, B). Fig. 1 shows the inward currents induced by ACh in 3 different neurons. Superfusion for 3 min with Hanks' solution containing 1 µM hexamethonium completely abolished the inward current (Figs. 1A, B), an effect that was reversible in all the 17 neurons studied. Similarly, the nicotinic blocker α-bungarotoxin (10 nM) reversibly blocked the ACh-evoked inward current in 5 of 6 PG neurons studied (83%). Fig. 1C shows that the inward current evoked by ACh (500  $\mu$ M) in one neuron was reversibly blocked by superfusion of  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin (10 nM) for 3 min. The blocking effect  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin was reversible in two neurons in which the recording was stable after a 10-min period of wash out.

### 2.2. Currents evoked by cytisine and its bromo derivatives

Cytisine and 3-Br-cy evoked dose-dependent, transient inward currents in 15 of the 17 (88%) neurons responding to ACh (Figs. 3B-D). In contrast, 5-Br-cy only induced currents in 10 out of the 15 (59%) neurons responding to ACh, all of which had responded to cytisine. It is worth mentioning that only those neurons that responded to ACh showed currents evoked by cytisine or its brominated derivatives. Fig. 2 shows a comparison of the responses evoked by 100 µM applications of ACh, cytisine, 5-Br-cy and 3-Br-cy in a single PG neuron. All these agents produced transient inward currents that receded within 4 s even when the agonists were still being applied to the neuron. For this single concentration of 100 µM, ACh and cytisine evoked currents of similar amplitude, while 3-Br-cy produced a larger inward current (about 140%) and 5-Br-cv evoked a smaller inward current (only 40%). Superfusion of 1 µM hexamethonium for 3 min completely and reversibly blocked the currents evoked by ACh, cytisine and 5-Br-cy, but failed to completely block the currents evoked by 3-Brcy at concentrations higher than 100  $\mu$ M (data not shown).

# 2.3. Dose–response curves evoked by ACh, cytisine and its bromo derivatives

Responses induced by increasing concentrations of ACh, cytisine, 3-Br-cy and 5-Br-cy are shown in Fig. 3. ACh and cytisine (20  $\mu$ M–1 mM) produced dose-dependent inward currents of similar amplitude, with a threshold concentration of 10–20  $\mu$ M and reaching maxima at concentrations





near 0.5–1 mM (Figs. 3A, B). The maximal currents evoked by the highest concentrations of ACh and cytisine were in the order of 1 nA for neurons of about 45  $\mu$ m of diameter. However, the neurons were more sensitive to 3-Br-cy, which produced currents of larger amplitude, reaching their maximum near 50–100  $\mu$ M (Fig. 3C). In contrast, 5-Br-cy only induced very small inward currents in a neuron of similar size (Fig. 3D).

Fig. 4 summarizes the dose-dependent curves for inward currents evoked by ACh, cytisine, 3-Br-cy and 5-Br-cy in 6 neurons. The dose-response curves induced by ACh and cytisine had similar  $I_{max}$  (-1.02 vs. -1.12 nA) and ED<sub>50</sub> (182 vs. 168  $\mu$ M) (Fig. 4, Table 1), but that evoked by 3-Br-cy was shifted to the left by one order of magnitude

 $(EC_{50} = 16.5 \ \mu\text{M})$  and showed a larger  $I_{max}$  (-1.28 nA). In contrast, the currents evoked by 5-Br-cy attained a very small amplitude and showed a much higher  $EC_{50}$  (1264  $\mu$ M) (Fig. 4, Table 1). Therefore, the rank order of potencies was: 3-Br-cy  $\gg$  ACh  $\cong$  cytisine  $\gg$  5-Br-cy.

## 3. Discussion

The present results show that ACh evoked transient inward currents in 71% of PG neurons studied. The proportion of AChsensitive neurons found here agrees with previous studies in rat (Zhong and Nurse, 1997) and cat cultured PG neurons





Fig. 4 – Dose–response curves for ACh (filled circles), cytisine (filled triangles), 3-bromocytisine (3-Br-cy, filled diamonds) and 5-bromocytisine (5-Br-cy, filled squares) in 6 PG neurons, at a holding membrane potential of –60 mV. The abscissa corresponds to the pipette concentration of the agonists.

Fig. 2 – Inward currents elicited by 100  $\mu$ M (in the pipette) concentrations of ACh, cytisine, 3-bromocytisine (3-Br-Cy) and 5-bromocytisine (5-Br-Cy) in a PG neuron in culture. The bar indicates the duration of the superfusion of the drugs.  $V_{\rm h}$ , holding membrane potential at –60 mV.

(Varas et al., 2000). With a holding membrane potential of -60 mV, ACh evoked a fast inactivated inward current, whose amplitude showed a dose-dependent increase, with a



Fig. 3 – Whole cell inward currents evoked by increasing concentrations of ACh (A: 20, 50,100, 200, 500 and 1000  $\mu$ M), cytisine (B: 10, 20, 100, 200, 500 and 1000  $\mu$ M), 3-bromocytisine (C: 2, 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100  $\mu$ M) and 5-bromocytisine (D: 100, 200, 500 and 1000  $\mu$ M) in four cultured PG neurons of similar size (diameter 45  $\mu$ m). Bars indicate the applications of the agonists. Successive doses were applied at 5 min intervals, at a holding membrane potential (V<sub>h</sub>) of –60 mV.

Table 1 – Functional potency of ACh, cytisine and its
isosters 3-bromocytisine (3-Br-cy) and 5-bromocytisine
(5-Br-cy) on cultured cat PG neurons

	I <sub>max</sub> (nA)	EC <sub>50</sub> (μM)	n
ACh	-1.02	182.30	2.25
Cytisine	-1.12	167.65	1.32
3-Br-cy	-1.28	16.48	1.70
5-Br-cy	-0.10	1264.70	0.81

Estimated values obtained by fitting the dose-response curves to a non-linear regression according to the equation  $I = I_{max} / [1 + (EC_{50} / X)^n]$ .  $I_{max}$  = maximal current evoked by any given agonist.  $EC_{50}$  = concentration required to evoke half-maximal current amplitude. X = dose of a given agonist. n = calculated Hill coefficient (N = 6 neurons).

threshold of 10–20  $\mu$ M, reaching a maximum between 0.5 and 1 mM. Thus, our data on PG neurons obtained from adult cats agree with those obtained from PG neurons of perinatal rats (Koga and Bradley, 2000; Zhong and Nurse, 1997). The AChinduced current was reversibly blocked by 1  $\mu$ M hexamethonium, a much lower concentration than the 200  $\mu$ M required to block the ACh-induced inward current in rat PG neurons (Zhong and Nurse, 1997). Even more, 10 nM  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin blocked the current induced by ACh in 83% of the PG neurons studied.

The proportion of PG neurons projecting through the carotid sinus nerve represents approximately 15-20% of the total number of neurons in the ganglion, and only a half of the above proportion probably projects to the carotid body (Alcayaga et al., 1996; Berger, 1980; Claps and Torrealba, 1988; McDonald, 1983). However, more than two thirds of our neurons in culture showed sensitivity to ACh. A possibility is that PG neurons that project through the glossopharyngeal nerve also present ACh sensitivity. This agrees with the idea that ACh is the excitatory transmitter between the gustatory cells of the tongue and glossopharyngeal nerve endings (Landgren et al., 1954), and the observation that, when previously marked with Fluorogold applied to the tongue, 50% of the rat PG neurons in culture respond to ACh with inward currents (Koga and Bradley, 2000), similarly to the results reported here. Nevertheless, it is also possible that culture conditions favor the survival of PG neurons that project to the carotid body or the presence of trophic factors, as NGF, may induce the upregulation of nAChRs. In addition, modification of the trophic interaction between PG neurons and their target tissues due to culture conditions may induce an over-expression of nAChRs in the membranes of the PG neurons in culture. This idea is supported by the observation that scarce antidromic discharges are recorded from the glossopharyngeal branch in response to ACh applied to the PG superfused in vitro (Alcayaga et al., 1998).

A large percentage (88%) of the PG neurons that responded to ACh also responded to cytisine with inward currents of similar intensity and profile than those elicited by ACh. It must be noted that a long series of reports by Russian researchers led Anichkov and Belen'kii (1963) to conclude that cytisine is "one of the most powerful carotid chemoreceptor stimulants" and to use cytisine as a respiratory analeptic. Furthermore, cytisine applied to the superfused PG in vitro elicits antidromic discharges in the carotid sinus nerve (Alcayaga et al., unpublished observations).

Cytisine has a low micromolar affinity for  $\alpha$ 7 homomeric nAChRs (Flores et al., 1992; Pabreza et al., 1991), but it is a full agonist, with higher efficacy than ACh at these receptors. Otherwise, cytisine nanomolar affinity for  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  receptors is associated with a very low efficacy (0.04%) relative to that of ACh (Slater et al., 2003). The bromo isosteres of cytisine have shown widely different affinities and agonist potencies in recombinant human  $\alpha7,\,\alpha4\beta2$  and  $\alpha4\beta4$  nAChRs expressed in cultured cells and in Xenopus oocytes (Houlihan et al., 2001; Slater et al., 2003). According to Houlihan et al. (2001) and Slater et al. (2003), cytisine and 3-Br-cy are full agonists at  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs but partial agonists at  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  nAChRs. They also show high potency and efficacy at  $\alpha 4\beta 4$  nAChRs. 5-Bromocytisine has lower potency and is a partial agonist at  $\alpha 7$  and  $\alpha 4\beta 4$ nAChRs, but it did not elicit any response at  $\alpha 4\beta 2$  nAChRs. Thus, cytisine and its derivatives are useful tools to distinguish between the  $\alpha$ 7 and  $\alpha$ 4 $\beta$ 2 nicotinic cholinergic receptor subtypes.

Cytisine and its bromo derivatives evoked inward currents only in neurons activated by ACh, and these currents were blocked by hexamethonium. Cytisine shows high agonist potency (EC<sub>50</sub>  $\approx$  nM) at  $\alpha$ 4 and  $\beta$ 2 subunit-containing nicotinic ACh receptors and much less potency (EC<sub>50</sub>  $\approx \mu$ M) at homomeric α7 nAChRs (Holladay et al., 1997; Houlihan et al., 2001; Slater et al., 2003). Interestingly, we observed that 3-Br-cy was the most potent agonist, with the lowest  $EC_{50}$  (16.2  $\mu M)$  of all agonists used. The rank order of agonist potencies to evoke inward currents in PG neurons was: 3-Br-cy  $\gg$  ACh  $\cong$  cytisine  $\gg$  5-Br-cy (see Table 1). Taken together, with the very low efficacy of cytisine and the relatively weak partial agonism of 3-bromocytisine at  $\alpha 4$  and  $\beta 2$  subunit-containing receptors, this suggests that the current observed here corresponds mainly to  $\alpha$ 7 nicotinic ACh receptors. The same rank order of potency and relative efficacy of cytisine and its bromo derivatives has been found for human  $\alpha$ 7 recombinant nAChRs expressed in Xenopus oocytes or neuroblastoma cell lines (Houlihan et al., 2001; Slater et al., 2003). In addition, the inward current induced by ACh on PG neurons shows the same time-course of fast inactivation that characterized the response of recombinant human or rat dorsal root ganglion neurons expressing  $\alpha 7$ nAChRs (Genzen et al., 2001; Houlihan et al., 2001).

Our electrophysiological recordings suggesting a prominent contribution of  $\alpha$ 7 subunits agree with the immunohisto chemical studies showing the presence of the  $\alpha$ 7 subunit not only in nerve endings in the carotid body, but also in the somata of PG neurons (Shirahata et al., 1998). Nevertheless, we observed that 59% of the ACh-sensitive neurons (10/17) also respond to 5-Br-cy, suggesting that the current evoked by 5-Brcy was due to the activation of nAChRs different from the  $\alpha 4\beta 2$ subtype, e.g.  $\alpha 4\beta 4$ . An alternative explanation is that  $\alpha 4\beta 2$ nAChRs may differ between cat and human. However, different species have shown nAChRs of identical composition (Itier and Bertrand, 2001; McGehee and Role, 1995), suggesting that other combinations of nAChR subunits (such as  $\alpha 3$  and  $\beta$ 2) found in the cat PG neurons (Hirasawa et al., 2002; Shirahata et al., 1998) may be functional. It is important to notice that 5 out of 15 neurons which responded to ACh, cytisine and 3-Br-cy did not respond to 5-Br-cy, suggesting

that other nAChRs subtypes may exist in cat cultured PG neurons.

In summary, the present results show that PG neurons responded to ACh, cytisine, 3-Br- and 5-Br-cytisine with fast inward currents that desensitized rapidly (during stimuli application) and were reversibly blocked by 1  $\mu$ M hexamethonium or 10 nM  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin. The order of potency of the agonists on PG neurons was: 3-Br-cytisine  $\gg$  ACh  $\cong$  cytisine  $\gg$  5-Br-cytisine. Therefore, our results suggest that homomeric  $\alpha$ 7 nAChRs predominate in cat PG neurons in culture.

### 4. Experimental procedures

Petrosal ganglia were excised bilaterally from 10 adult cats anesthetized with sodium pentobarbitone (40 mg/kg, i.p.). The ganglia were placed in ice-chilled modified Hanks' solution (Ca<sup>2+</sup>-Mg<sup>2+</sup>-free), minced into 15–20 pieces, and enzymatically dissociated under agitation at 38 °C in modified Hanks' solution supplemented with 1 g/L collagenase, 0.5 g/L trypsin and 150,000 U/L DNAse for 30-60 min. The cell suspension was centrifuged for 10 min at 2000  $\times$  q, and the pellet suspended in F-12 nutrient mixture supplemented with 100 mL/L horse serum, 100 mL/L fetal bovine serum, NaHCO $_3$  (14 mM) and nerve growth factor (15 × 10<sup>-6</sup> g/L). The cells were plated onto 35 mm Petri dishes previously coated with poly-L-lysine (0.1 g/L) and maintained at 38 °C in water-saturated, 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air atmosphere. The culture medium was changed every other day after a 3-day initial lag during which the cultures were left undisturbed. The protocol was approved by the Ethical Committees of the Facultad de Ciencias of the Universidad de Chile and the Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas of the P. Universidad Católica de Chile and meets the guidelines of the National Fund for Scientific and Technological Research (FONDECYT), Chile.

The cultures were placed on the stage of an inverted microscope with phase contrast and superfused (flow 1.2 mL/ min) at room temperature with Hanks' solution (in mM: NaCl 137, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1.3, MgSO<sub>4</sub> 0.8, KCl 5.4, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.4, Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> 0.3, D-glucose 5.6, HEPES 5 and NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 4) at pH 7.43 equilibrated with room air. Recordings were made with a patch-clamp amplifier (PC 501-A; Warner Instrument Corp., USA) and 1.5-mm O.D. borosilicate glass pulled electrodes (1–2 MΩ) filled with an intracellular solution (in mM: KCl 135, NaCl 5, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 1, EGTA 10, HEPES 10, pH 7.2). Seal formation and membrane breakthrough, from 25 to 65  $\mu$ m diameter neurons, was carried out in the current-clamp mode and monitored by observing the response to one 2–10 pA depolarizing current step lasting 50 ms.

The currents evoked by ACh, cytisine, 3-Br-Cy and 5-Br-Cy were recorded in the whole cell voltage-clamp mode at a holding potential (V<sub>h</sub>) of –60 mV. Liquid junction potential between microelectrodes and bath solution was corrected, and series resistance and capacitive transients were electronically compensated. All agonists were applied for 5–10 s by superfusion under gravity flow from a pipette whose tip was located at about 100–200  $\mu$ m from the neuron surface. Hexamethonium (1  $\mu$ M) and  $\alpha$ -bungarotoxin (10 nM), in Hanks' solution, were applied for 3 min through a superfusion pipette.

### 4.1. Purification of cytisine and its analogs

Cytisine was purified from Sophora secundiflora seeds using standard methodology. 3-Br-cy and 5-Br-cy were obtained by treating cytisine with slightly more than 1 M equivalent of bromine in acetic acid. The brominated isomers were separated by column chromatography on silica gel, crystallized to homogeneity and characterized by <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR.

#### 4.2. Statistical analyses

To compare the effects of ACh, cytisine and its bromo derivatives on the dose–response curves for the inward current (I), pooled data of individual experiments were fitted to the following logistic expression:  $I = I_{max} / 1 + (EC_{50} / X)^n$ , where  $I_{max} =$  maximal current evoked by a given agonist,  $EC_{50} =$  agonist concentration that evoked the half-maximal current, X = agonist concentration delivered by the stimulus pipette and n = Hill coefficient. Correlation coefficients for adjusted curves were higher than 0.90 (P < 0.01) for all conditions studied.

### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by FONDECYT (National Fund for Scientific and Technological Research, Chile) grants 1040638, 1040776 and 1010951.

#### REFERENCES

- Alcayaga, J., Arroyo, J., Font, M.I., Gutierrez, O.C., 1996. The petrosal ganglion of the adult cat: neuronal count, sectional area, and their respective distributions. Biol. Res. 29, 189–195.
- Alcayaga, J., Iturriaga, R., Varas, R., Arroyo, J., Zapata, P., 1998. Selective activation of carotid nerve fibers by acetylcholine applied to the cat petrosal ganglion in vitro. Brain Res. 786, 47–54.
- Anichkov, S.V., Belen'kii, M.L., 1963. Pharmacology of the Carotid Body Chemoreceptors. Macmillian, New York.
- Berger, A.J., 1980. The distribution of the cat's carotid sinus nerve afferent and efferent cell bodies using the horseradish peroxidase technique. Brain Res. 190, 309–320.
- Claps, A., Torrealba, F., 1988. The carotid body connection: a WGA-HRP study in the cat. Brain Res. 455, 123–133.
- Fenster, C.P., Rains, M.F., Noerager, B., Quick, M.W., Lester, R.A.J., 1997. Influence of subunit composition on desensitization of neuronal acetylcholine receptors at low concentrations of nicotine. J. Neurosci. 17, 5747–5759.
- Fitzgerald, R.S., Shirahata, M., Wang, H.Y., 1999. Acetylcholine release from cat carotid body. Brain Res. 841, 53–61.
- Flores, C.M., Rogers, S.W., Pabreza, L.A., Wolfe, B.B., Kellar, K.J., 1992. A subtype of nicotinic cholinergic receptor in rat brain is composed of alpha 4 and beta 2 subunits and is upregulated by chronic nicotine treatment. Mol. Pharmacol. 41, 31–37.
- Genzen, J.R., Van Cleve, W., McGehee, D.S., 2001. Dorsal root ganglion neurons express multiple nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes. J. Neurophysiol. 86, 1773–1782.
- Gotti, C., Fornasari, D., Clementi, F., 1997. Human neuronal nicotinic receptors. Prog. Neurobiol. 53, 199–237.
- Hirasawa, S., Mendoza, J.A., Kobayashi, C., Jacoby, D.B., Chanrasagaran, S., Fitzgerald, R.S., Shirahata, M., 2002. Diverse cholinergic receptor gene expression and localization in the cat carotid body and the petrosal ganglion. Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 536, 313–319.
- Hogg, R.C., Raggenbass, M., Bertrand, D., 2003. Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: from structure to brain function. Rev. Physiol. Biochem. Pharmacol. 147, 1–46.
- Holladay, M.W., Dart, M.J., Lynch, J.K., 1997. Neuronal nicotinic receptors as targets for drug discovery. J. Med. Chem. 40, 4169–4194.
- Houlihan, L.M., Slater, Y., Guerra, D.L., Peng, J.-H., Kuo, Y.-P., Lukas, R.J., Cassels, B.K., Bermúdez, I., 2001. Activity of cytisine and its brominated isosteres on recombinant human  $\alpha 7 \alpha 4\beta 2$  and

 $\alpha 4\beta 4$  nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. J. Neurochem. 78, 1029–1043.

- Ishizawa, Y., Fitzgerald, R.S., Shirahata, M., Schofield, B., 1996. Localization of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in cat carotid body and petrosal ganglion. Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 410, 253–256.
- Itier, V., Bertrand, D., 2001. Neuronal nicotinic receptors: from protein structure to function. FEBS Lett. 504, 118–125.
- Iturriaga, R., Alcayaga, J., 2004. Neurotransmission in the carotid body: transmitters and modulators between glomus cells and petrosal ganglion nerve terminals. Brain Res. Rev. 46, 46–53.
- Iturriaga, R., Alcayaga, J., Zapata, P., 2000. Lack of correlation between cholinergic-induced changes in chemosensory activity and dopamine release from the cat carotid body in vitro. Brain Res. 868, 380–385.
- Koga, T., Bradley, R.M., 2000. Biophysical properties and responses to transmitters of petrosal and geniculate ganglion neurones innervating the tongue. J. Neurophysiol. 84, 1404–1413.
- Landgren, S., Liljestrand, G., Zotterman, P., 1954. Chemical transmission in taste endings. Acta Physiol. Scand. 30, 105–114.
- Lips, K.S., Pfeil, U., Kummer, W., 2002. Coexpression of alpha 9 and alpha 10 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in rat dorsal root ganglion neurons. Neuroscience 115, 1–5.
- Liu, L., Chang, G.Q., Jiao, Y.Q., Simon, S.A., 1998. Neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in rat trigeminal ganglia. Brain Res. 809, 238–245.

- McDonald, D., 1983. Morphology of the rat carotid sinus nerve: II. Number and size of axons. J. Neurocytol. 12, 373–392.
- McGehee, D.S., Role, L.W., 1995. Physiological diversity of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors expressed by vertebrate neurons. Annu. Rev. Physiol. 57, 521–546.
- Pabreza, L.A., Dhawan, S., Kellar, K.J., 1991. [<sup>3</sup>H]Cytisine binding to nicotinic cholinergic receptors in brain. Mol. Pharmacol. 39, 9–12.
- Shirahata, M., Ishizawa, Y., Rudisill, M., Schofield, B., Fitzgerald, R.S., 1998. Presence of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors in cat carotid body afferent system. Brain Res. 814, 213–217.
- Slater, Y., Houlihan, L.M., Bermúdez, I., Lukas, R.J., Valdivia, A.C., Cassels, B.K., 2003. Halogenated cytisine derivatives as agonists at human neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes. Neuropharmacol. 44, 503–515.
- Stensaas, L.J., Fidone, S.J., 1977. An ultrastructural study of cat petrosal ganglia: a search for autonomic ganglion cells. Brain Res. 124, 29–39.
- Varas, R., Alcayaga, J., Zapata, P., 2000. Acetylcholine sensitivity in dissociated neurones of the cat petrosal ganglion. Brain Res. 882, 201–205.
- Varas, R., Alcayaga, J., Iturriaga, R., 2003. ACh and ATP mediate excitatory transmission in cat carotid chemoreceptor units in vitro. Brain Res. 988, 154–163.
- Zhong, H., Nurse, C., 1997. Nicotinic acetylcholine sensitivity of rat petrosal sensory neurons in dissociated cell culture. Brain Res. 766, 153–161.