Is a guanine nucleotide-binding protein involved in excitation-contraction coupling in skeletal muscle?

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Plasma membrane depolarization causes skeletal muscle contraction by triggering Ca^{2+} release from an intracellular membrane network, the sarcoplasmic reticulum. A specialized portion of the sarcoplasmic reticulum, the terminal cisternae, is junctionally associated with sarcolemmal invagimations called the transverse tubules, but the mechanism by which the action potential at the level of the transverse tubules is coupled to Ca^{2+} release from the terminal cisternae is still mysterious. Here we show that: (i) GTP.S, a non-hydrolyzable analog of GTP, elicits isometric force development in skinned muscle fibre; (ii) GTP_xS is unable to release CA^{2+} from isolated sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions; (iii) the threshold for tension development is shifted to higher $GTP_{\gamma}S$ concentrations by pre-incubation with pertussis toxin. These results suggest that a GTP-binding protein is involved in coupling the action potential of transverse tubules to Ca^{2+} release from the terminal cisternae.

Key words: muscle/excitation-contraction coupling/N protein

Introduction

Skeletal muscle contraction is initiated by sarcolemmal depolarization which triggers the release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular depots (Huxley and Taylor, 1958; Winegrad, 1970). The anatomical site at which the coupling of electrical events to Ca^{2+} release occurs is the triadic junction which is formed by sarcolemmal invaginations called the transverse tubules together with a specialized component of the sarcoplasmic reticulum called the terminal cisternae and bridging structures called 'feet' (Franzini-Armstrong, 1970). Although the anatomy of this coupling unit is well defined (Ferguson et al., 1984), its physiology is a matter of dispute. In particular the molecular mechanism by which the action potential flowing along transverse tubules triggers $Ca²⁺$ release from terminal cisternae, i.e. the mechanism of excitation-contraction (EC) coupling, is still unknown (Endo, 1977). We have recently suggested that in muscle, as in other cell types (Berridge and Irvine, 1984), a chemical mediator, inositol trisphosphate $(InsP_3)$ is responsible for EC coupling (Volpe et al., 1985). In other cell types it has been proposed that the polyphosphoinositide (PPI) phosphodiesterase which generates $InsP₃$ from phosphatidylinositol(4,5)bisphosphate [PtdIns(4,5)P₂] is coupled to plasma membrane receptors via a GTP-binding protein (Np,p for 'phosphodiesterase') analogous to those involved in the control of adenylate cyclase activity (Cockroft and Gomperts, 1985). Furthermore, it has also been shown recently that pertussis toxin, also called islet activating protein (IAP), selectively inhibits several cell functions dependent on the activation of receptors linked to PPI turnover (Okajima and Ui, 1984).

This study was therefore aimed at investigating the effect of $GTP_{s}S$ on Ca^{2+} release in isolated sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions and in chemically and mechanically skinned skeletal fibres.

Results and Discussion

GTP,,S elicits tension rise in chemically skinned fibres

 $Ca^{2+'}$ release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum of chemically skinned muscle fibres of the rabbit (Salviati et al., 1982) was followed indirectly as isometric force development. A segment of a single fibre was exposed to Ca^{2+} loading solution (Ca^{2+})= 0.25 μ M) for 30 s, then rinsed with an EGTA-free solution and challenged with $GTP_{s}S$ (Figure 1a). The addition of the guanine nucleotide elicited a tension rise which levelled off rather slowly. Similar results were obtained with another non-hydrolyzable GTP analog, GMP-PNP. The rise of tension was slower and sometimes preceded by a short lag, as compared with that elicited by caffeine, a drug known to cause $Ca²⁺$ release from terminal cisternae of isolated fractions and of intact and skinned fibres (Weber and Herz, 1968; Luttgau and Oetlicher, 1968; Stephenson, 1981). The latency disappeared, however, at high GTP_~S concentrations and also the rise of tension was faster (not shown in the figures). We think, therefore, that the slow response could be due, at least in part, to the time needed for GTP_.S to diffuse into the fibre. Seventeen fibres were challenged under identical experimental conditions with sequential $GTP_{\gamma}S$ additions: eight exhibited a threshold at 100 μ M GTP_{$_{\gamma}$}S, six at 200 μ M, two at 250 μ M and one at 500 μ M. Despite this slight variability not a single fibre failed to respond to $GTP_{\gamma}S$. Moreover, $GTP_{\gamma}S$ -

Fig. 1. GTP₂S elicits isometric force development in chemically skinned muscle fibres. Trace a shows rise of tension induced by 200 μ M GTP S. Caffeine (C) was 10 mM. Trace **b** demonstrates that GDP β S (500 μ M) was completely ineffective and that nevertheless the fibre was responsive to subsequent additions of GTP S (500 μ M). Single fibres were placed in solution R, then in Ca^{2+} uptake solution (pCa 6.6) and finally in solution W.

Fig. 2. GTP S-induced rise of tension requires Ca^{2+} mobilization from sarcoplasmic reticulum. Trace a shows that in the presence of ruthenium red (RR) (20 μ M), the effect of GTP S (250 μ M) was abolished. A23187 $(10 \mu g/ml)$, however, elicited a tension rise. Ruthenium red prevented a tension rise over the whole range of $GTP_{\gamma}S$ concentrations tested, i.e. from 100 to 500 μ M, both at low or high $[Mg^{2+}]$. In trace **b** the fibre was first exposed to 3% Triton X-100 (T), then washed in solution R, loaded with Ca^{2+} and finally placed in solution W. GTP S was 250 μ M. Caffeine (C) 10 mM. In trace c the fibre, before being loaded with Ca^{2+} and exposed to GTP_yS (500 μ M) in solution W, was pre-treated with 500 μ M GTP S in solution R for ⁸ min.

GTP S was 500 μ M. For experimental details see Materials and methods. Data are duplicate determinations from two different sarcoplasmic reticulum preparations.

induced force development was also observed when $[Mg^{2+}]$ was raised from 0.1 to 2.6 mM. A non-hydrolyzable analog of GDP, $GDP\beta S$, did not cause tension rise whereas subsequent additions of GTP_xS elicited force development (Figure 1b). Since myofibrils possess binding sites for nucleotides, $GTP_{\gamma}S$ could elicit force development simply by interfering with these sites, i.e. by interacting directly with the myofibrils. This possibility was ruled out because, as Figure 2a shows, GTP_~S-triggered contraction, but not that triggered by the Ca^{2+} ionophore A23187, was completely abolished by 20 μ M ruthenium red, a blocker of Ca²⁺ channels in terminal cisternae (Antoniu et al., 1985). Furthermore, the blocking effect of ruthenium red could not be overcome by increasing GTP_{oss} up to the higher concentration tested, 500 μ M, either in low or high Mg²⁺ (not shown). Secondly, pretreatment of skinned fibres with Triton X-100, which destroys the integrity of the sarcoplasmic reticulum compartment and of the sarcolemma without impairing the contractile apparatus, pre-

Fig. 3. GTP S triggers tension rise in mechanically skinned fibres. The fibre was challenged with GTP_yS (250 μ M) under the same experimental conditions already detailed for chemically skinned fibres (see Figure 1). Caffeine was ¹⁰ mM.

vented the tension rise evoked by $GTP_{\gamma}S$ (Figure 2b). Finally, fibre exposure to $GTP_{\gamma}S$ for 8 min in an EGTA-containing medium, before Ca^{2+} loading, did not develop tension (Figure 2c). In this experiment the fibre was pre-incubated with 500 μ M $GTP_{s}S$ in solution R (see Materials and methods for description of soiutions used) for 8 min. The fibre was then rinsed once again in solution R, loaded with Ca^{2+} (pCa 6.6), placed in solution W and stimulated with GTP_{$_{\gamma}$}S and later with caffeine. GTP_{$_{\gamma}$}Sinduced contraction was clearly dependent on the presence of intact terminal cisternae with Ca^{2+} stores. Furthermore Figure 2b also suggests that the pre-treatment of skinned fibres with GTP_gS , under conditions which are non-permissive for contraction, somehow desensitized the fibre to a subsequent addition of the guanine nucleotide.

$GTP_{s}S$ does not release Ca^{2+} from isolated sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions

The results so far presented do not clarify whether $GTP_{\sim}S$ mobilized Ca^{2+} directly from the sarcoplasmic reticulum of skinned fibres or possibly generates a mediator which is the direct agent of Ca^{2+} release. Although it was already known that GTP does not evoke Ca^{2+} efflux from isolated sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions (Meissner, 1984; Morii and Tonomura, 1983), we addressed this issue directly in the experiments summarized in Table I. $GTP_{\sim}S$ did not influence Ca^{2+} fluxes either in longitudinal sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions (LSR) or in terminal cisternae, as judged by the lack of effect on Ca^{2+} -dependent ATPase activity, Ca^{2+} loading, Ca^{2+} uptake and Ca^{2+} release. Therefore GTP_xS has a compulsory requirement for the presence of the surface membrane in order to exert its Ca^{2+} releasing action. We suggest that in chemically skinned fibres, which retain a major portion of the plasma membrane (sarcolemma and transverse tubules) and of the associated enzymes (Eastwood et al., 1979), $GTP_\sim S$ promotes the generation of a mediator which in turn triggers $Ca²⁺$ release from the terminal cisternae. Pre-incubation with cyclic AMP phosphodiesterase (20 μ g/ml) did not prevent the action of GTP_{\sim}S (375 μ M) (not shown), thus excluding a possible involvement of the adenylate cyclase complex, which is known to be activated by GTP_~S (Ross and Gilman, 1980). Furthermore, it is known that cyclic AMP does not induce Ca^{2+} release from sarcoplasmic reticulum (Moroii and Tonomura, 1983).

GTP_sS elicits tension rise in mechanically skinned fibres

Although the experiments discussed so far suggest that the guanine nucleotide needs the presence of the sarcolemma to exert its $Ca²⁺$ releasing activity, they do not give us any hint as to which part of the plasma membrane is involved in GTP, S-induced $Ca²⁺$ release. Mechanical skinning of fibres completely removes

Fig. 4. Pertussis toxin shifts the threshold of GTP_yS -induced tension. Trace a, control segment. Trace b, segment exposed to 10 μ g/ml of IAP for 30 min. See Figure ¹ and Materials and methods for further details.

the sarcolemma but not transverse tubules (Constantin et al., 1965). Figure 3 shows also that in mechanically skinned fibres GTP_xS elicits tension development thus indicating that the target of the guanine nucleotide is at the level of the transverse tubules.

Pertussis toxin inhibits $GTP_{\gamma}S$ -induced tension development One of the main tools for investigating the role of GTP and of GTP-binding proteins (N proteins) in the adenylate cyclase system has been pertussis toxin, also called islet activating protein (IAP). This toxin irreversibly ADP rybosylates and inactivates the inhibitory GTP-binding protein (N_i) of the adenylate cyclase complex (Katada and Ui, 1981; Katada, et al., 1984). The pre-treatment of neutrophils with this toxin prevents secretion, intracellular $Ca²⁺$ changes and phosphoinositide breakdown induced by the chemotactic peptide fMet-Leu-Phe (Okajima and Ui, 1984; Molski et al., 1984; Volpi et al., 1984). It has therefore been proposed that an N protein, maybe stimulatory, is also involved in phosphoinositide turnover and its inactivation by IAP inhibits the cleavage of plasma membrane inositol lipids. In Figure 4 two segments of the same fibre were incubated for 30 min in solution R, containing also ²⁰ mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 2.5 mM NAD, pH 8.0, in the presence and absence of IAP. At the end of the incubation the fibres were rinsed in solution R, allowed to accumulate Ca^{2+} , rinsed in solution W and challenged with $GTP_{\gamma}S$. The pre-treatment with IAP significantly shifted the threshold to higher $GTP_{\gamma}S$ concentrations. In fact the segment which had received IAP contracted only when exposed to 300 μ M GTP_{$_{\alpha}$ S, while the control had a threshold at 100 μ M GTP_{$_{\alpha}$ S.}} Furthermore the tension, normalized against that of caffeine, was 0.83 with 100 μ M GTP_{$_{\gamma}$}S in the absence of IAP and 0.48 with 300 μ M GTP_{\sim}S in the presence of IAP. If DTT was omitted from the incubation medium, no dose shift was observed, as one would expect if inhibition of force development was due to a specific action of the catalytic unit (Okajima and Ui, 1984). LAP was tested in three skinned fibres, and in all cases the threshold was shifted to higher (3- to 4-fold) GTP_sS concentrations as compared with control segments (not treated with IAP). We took care always to use segments of the same fibre to study the effect of IAP because, as already pointed out, the threshold for $GTP_{\sim}S$ varied in different fibre preparations.

In a previous report (Volpe *et al.*, 1985) we showed that $InsP₃$ was able to release Ca^{2+} from terminal cisternae and to elicit force development in chemically skinned fibres. Other authors have recently confirmed this observation, also demonstrating the generation of $InsP₃$ following a 5 s tetanus in frog muscle (Vergara et al., 1985). It seems legitimate to propose a role for $InsP₃$ in EC coupling. The gap between transverse tubules depolarization and $InsP₃$ formation is, however, still to be filled. We sug-

Fig. 5. Tentative description of the events responsible for excitation-contraction coupling at the transverse tubule-terminal cistemae junction. $\Delta \psi$, transverse tubule potential changes; Np, GTP-binding protein; PDE, phosphodiesterase. As soon as transverse tubule membrane depolarizes, Np exchanges bound GDP for GTP. This generates an activated conformation of Np which stimulates PDE. PtdIns(4,5) \overline{P}_2 is split and InsP₃ diffuses to the terminal cisternae membrane where it triggers Ca^{2+} release.

gest that, as in non-muscle cells, PtdIns $(4,5)P_2$ is cleaved in muscle by a GTP-modulated phosphodiesterase. As depicted in Figure 5, transverse tubule depolarization triggers the exchange of bound GDP for GTP at the level of Np. The activated Np is thus allowed to interact with the catalytic unit, the PPI phosphodiesterase, which finally splits PtdIns $(4,5)P_2$ into InsP₃ and diacylglycerol. The physiological relevance of the model is supported by the observation that GTP_vS triggers tension development also in the presence of physiological $[Mg^{2+}]$, and in mechanically as well as in chemically skinned fibres. In fact one of the major criticisms raised against the InsP_3 hypothesis for EC coupling is that exogenous InsP_3 elicits contraction only at unphysiologically low concentrations of Mg^{2+} (Somlyo, 1985). Our findings with GTP_{$_{\gamma}$}S suggest, however, that if InsP₃ is generated 'in situ', i.e. at the transverse tubule-terminal cisternae junction, this limitation can be overcome. The experiments with mechanically skinned fibres further support this view. In these fibres the sarcolemma is completely removed, whereas the transverse tubule system remains junctionally associated with the terminal cisternae (Constantin et al., 1965). GTP_{$_{\alpha}$}S elicited tension rise in mechanically skinned fibres and this indicates a transverse tubule localization of the enzymatic complex putatively activated by GTP_xS. This is what one would expect if this mechanism has to generate $InsP_3$ as close as possible to the terminal cisternae in order to reduce the latency between the transverse tubule depolarization and Ca^{2+} release.

In addition to the classical adenylate cyclase complex, a role for N proteins is being recognized in ^a variety of events: secretory exocytosis in granulocyte mast cells and platelets, phototransduction in retinal cells, activation of protein kinase and cyclic AMP phosphodiesterase by insulin (Okajima and Ui, 1984; Molski et al., 1984; Volpi et al., 1985; Gomperts, 1983; Haslam and Davidson, 1984; Stryer, 1984; Heyworth et al., 1983a, 1983b). The plausibility of such a device for stimulus-activation coupling is strengthened by the demonstration of the occurrence of receptor- (Vicentini et al., 1985; Di Virgilio et al., 1985) or GTP_~S-activated (Cockroft and Gomperts, 1985) PPI splitting at physiological resting cystolic Ca^{2+} concentrations (i.e. 100 nM). This mechanism can, therefore, operate in the absence of previous elevations of cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} .

We are aware of the difficulty in accepting for ^a fast process such as EC coupling ^a model which postulates several enzymatic steps and ^a diffusible chemical mediator. On the other hand, the latency of myoplasmic Ca^{2+} rise after transverse tubule depolarization is calculated to be of \sim 2.5 ms at 10°C (Vergara et al., 1985), a lag even longer than that occurring between the arrival of the pre-synaptic impulse and the observation of the first postsynaptic electrical changes in neuromuscular junction (Hill,

1982). Yet neuromuscular transmission is generally believed to involve a complex sequence of intracellular biochemical reactions and the release of a chemical mediator (acetylcholine). Therefore we believe that diffusible chemical mediators should be seriously considered in the search for the missing link in excitation-contraction coupling.

Materials and methods

Reagents

Caffeine, antipyrylazo III, disodium phosphocreatine, creatine phosphokinase and ruthenium red were obtained from Sigma, St. Louis, MO. Ionophore A23187 was from Calbiochem-Behring, San Diego, CA. GTP S, GMP-PNP and GDP βS were purchased from Boehringer Mannheim GmbH, FRG. The GTP analogs were used without further purification, therefore ^a small contamination by GDP is to be expected, which is, however, ineffective or inhibitory (Cockroft and Gomperts, 1985). IAP was ^a kind gift of Dr Rino Rappuoli, Sclavo Research Laboratories, Siena, Italy. All other reagents were analytical grade.

Preparation of chemically skinned fibres

Rabbit adductor muscle bundles were chemically skinned (Salviati et al., 1982) and stored at -20° C in a solution containing 50% glycerol, 5 mM K₂-EGTA, 0.17 M K-propionate, pH 7.0, 2.5 mM K₂-Na₂-ATP, 2.5 mM Mg-propionate and ¹⁰ mM imidazole-propionate.

Preparation of mechanically skinned fibres

Rabbit extensor digitorum longus was the source of fibres for the mechanical skinning. The muscle was isolated and kept in mammalian Ringer's solution at 0°C for 30 min. From a bundle of fibres transferred to cold paraffin oil, single fibres were isolated from tendon to tendon and cut into segments that were skinned by microdissection just before use (Stephenson, 1981).

Isometric force measurements

In order to measure isometric force development, segments of single fibres were inserted between two clamps, one of them attached to a strain gauge (800 series, Akers Electronics, Horton, Norway), and stretched to 130% of the slack length (Salviati et al., 1982). Fibres were kept for 30–45 s in solution R (5 mM K_2 -EGTA, 0.17 M K-propionate, 2.5 mM Mg-propionate, 5 mM K_2 -Na₂-ATP and 10 mM imidazole-propionate pH 7.0), exposed for 30 s to a $Ca²⁺$ -containing solution (pCa 6.6, 0.17 M K-propionate, 2.5 mM Mg-propionate, 5 mM K₂-Na₂-ATP, 1.6 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM K₂-EGTA, 10 mM imidazole-propionate, pH 7.0), rinsed for 20-30 ^s in solution W (solution ^R without EGTA) and then challenged with the agonists. $[Mg^{2+}]$ (either 0.09 or 2.6 mM) and $[Ca^{2+}]$ (0.25 μ M) were determined using association constants given by Orentlicher et al. (1977). It is likely that the addition of GTP₂S, even at high concentrations, does not affect significantly $[Mg^{2+}]$ since the K d for this metal is similar to that of ATP. Furthermore, increasing concentrations of ATP, up to ⁵ mM, did not elicit force development. All experiments were carried out at room temperature and at an ionic strength of 0.2 M.

Isolation of sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions

Sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions were isolated from rabbit fast-twitch skeletal muscle of the hind limbs of New Zealand White male rabbits. Sarcoplasmic reticulum was fractionated by density gradient centrifugation into longitudinal tubules and terminal cisternae, as previously described (Zorzato et al., 1985). After isolation, purified sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions were resuspended in 0.3 M sucrose, 5 mM imidazole, pH 7.4, and stored at -70° C until used.

$Ca²⁺$ uptake and release measurements

 Ca^{2+} accumulation in the absence of precipitating anions is termed Ca^{2+} uptake. Ca^{2+} uptake and Ca^{2+} release were continuously monitored with a Ca2+-sensitive electrode (W.Moller, Glasblaserei, Zurich, Switzerland). The assay was carried out at room temperature in ^a medium containing ²⁰ mM histidine, pH 7.2, 0.1 M KCl, 5 mM MgSO₄, 2 mM ATP, 5 mM disodium phosphocreatine and 80 μ g of creatine phosphokinase, final volume 4 ml. The response was calibrated by sequential additions of $10-50$ nmol of $CaCl₂$, then, when $[Ca^{2+}]$ was 10 μ M, 200-400 μ g of sarcoplasmic reticulum protein was added. GTP₂S was added before sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions in order to determine its effect on Ca^{2+} uptake, or at peak Ca^{2+} accumulation in order to measure the effect on Ca^{2+} release.

 $Ca²⁺$ loading

 $Ca²⁺$ accumulation in the presence of precipitating anions, i.e. phosphate, is termed $Ca²⁺$ loading and was continuously monitored by following differential absorbance change of the Ca^{2+} indicator antipyrylazo III (Zorzato et al., 1985) at 710-790 nm in ^a Perkin Elmer 356 spectrophotometer. The assay was carried out at room temperature (22-24°C) in a medium containing, in a final volume of 1 ml, 92 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.0, 1 mM $MgSO₄$, 1 mM $Na₂ATP$, 200 μ M

$Ca²⁺$ -dependent ATPase

 $Ca²⁺$ -dependent ATPase activity was measured as phosphate production as described earlier (Mitchell et al., 1983) with slight modifications (Zorzato et al., 1985). Briefly, sarcoplasmic reticulum fractions (10 μ g of protein) were incubated in a medium containing, in a final volume of 0.5 ml, 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgSO₄, 0.2 mM Tris-EGTA, 0.2 mM CaCl₂, 20 mM histidine, pH 7.2, in the absence and presence of GTP_sS. After 5 min of incubation at 25° C, the reaction was started by adding 2 mM Tris-ATP and stopped at 60 s by adding 0.5 ml of 20% trichloroacetic acid, 12% ascorbic acid, 1% ammonium molybdate. Phosphate production was determined using a modification of the method of Ottolenghi (1975). Rates were determined by least squares fit.

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