

Original Article

Comparative Electropharmacological Actions of Some Constituents from *Ginkgo biloba* Extract in Guinea-pig Ventricular Cardiomyocytes

Hiroyasu Satoh

Department of Pharmacology, Division of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Nara Medical University, School of Medicine, Japan

Effects of the constituents from *Ginkgo biloba* extract (GBE) on the action potentials and the ionic currents in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes were investigated using whole-cell and current-clamp techniques. The constituents, ginkgolides A, B, C and quercetin, had depressant effects at 0.1–3 μM on the action potential configuration. Ginkgolide A (1–3 μM) prolonged the action potential (action potential duration: APD) at 75% and 90% repolarizations (APD_{75} and APD_{90}). However, ginkgolides B and C at low concentrations prolonged APD, but at higher concentrations ($>1 \mu\text{M}$) shortened APD. Quercetin at 3 μM prolonged the APD, but not at the lower concentrations. These constituents also inhibited the V_{max} . The resting potential was unaffected. In voltage-clamp experiments, ginkgolides A and B (0.1–3 μM) markedly and concentration-dependently increased the Ca^{2+} current (I_{Ca}) and the delayed rectifier K^+ current (I_{K}), and decreased the inwardly rectifying K^+ current (I_{K1}). On the other hand, ginkgolide C failed to affect the I_{Ca} but increased the I_{K} by $14.0 \pm 2.3\%$ ($n = 6, P < 0.05$) at 1 μM . Quercetin inhibited I_{Ca} , and enhanced I_{K} but decreased I_{K1} . These responses to the constituents were almost reversible (80–90% of control) after a 10- to 20-min washout. These results indicate that even at acute administrations, these constituents produce the effective actions on the APD and the underlying ionic currents in cardiomyocytes. Each constituent does not exhibit a uniform response, although GBE acts as a net.

Keywords: action potential – ionic currents – ginkgolide A – ginkgolide B – ginkgolide C – *Ginkgo biloba* extract – guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes – quercetin

Introduction

The extract from the leaves of *Ginkgo biloba* (GBE) plays a role in cellular physiological and pharmacological functions. GBE is used for treating impaired brain functions in elderly and peripheral arterial occlusive diseases (1,2). Pharmacological experiments have recently demonstrated that GBE (i) increases cerebral blood flow, decreases viscosity and antagonizes platelet activating factor receptors (3,4); (ii) increases tolerance for anoxia by preventing the decrease in ATP level (5); (iii) improves neurotransmitter disturbances (6,7); and (iv) prevents cell damage induced by free radicals (8–10).

GBE contains many chemical constituents. The major constituents are terpenes such as bilobalide, ginkgolide A, ginkgolide B and ginkgolide C, and flavonoids such as quercetin, kaempferol and isorhamnetin (6,11). In the cardiovascular system, GBE does not affect heart rate and contractility, but produces a concentration-dependent increase in coronary flow (12,13). In our previous experiments, however, we have found that GBE prolongs the action potential duration (APD), whereas bilobalide, a main constituent, shortens the APD in cardiomyocytes (14). The alterations of the action potential configurations clinically would lead to the pathophysiological changes in the electrocardiogram (ECG). In addition, Tamago *et al.* (15) have shown that ginkgolide B is a PAF-antagonist and acts on the APD, consistent with our results.

The mechanisms of the therapeutic effectiveness of GBE are expected to be extremely complex, because of the large

For reprints and all correspondence: Hiroyasu Satoh, Department of Pharmacology, Division of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Nara Medical University, School of Medicine, Kashihara, Nara 634-8521, Japan. Tel: +81-744-29-8831; Fax: +81-744-25-7657; E-mail: hysat@naramed-u.ac.jp

The online version of this article has been published under an open access model. Users are entitled to use, reproduce, disseminate, or display the open access version of this article provided that: the original authorship is properly and fully attributed; the Journal and Oxford University Press are attributed as the original place of publication with the correct citation details given; if an article is subsequently reproduced or disseminated not in its entirety but only in part or as a derivative work this must be clearly indicated.

number of its constituent substances (6,8). Unknown mechanisms of these constituents for the ionic channel currents still remain. The aim of the present experiments was to examine, by use of a patch-clamp technique, how these constituents of GBE, other than bilobalide, affect the action potentials and the underlying ionic currents. In addition, the cardiac electropharmacological actions of each constituent were compared.

Materials and Methods

All experiments were carried out according to the guidelines laid down by the Nara Medical University Animal Welfare committee, and also under the terms of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Cell Preparation

Cells were prepared from tissue taken from the ventricle muscle of guinea pig hearts, using methods similar to those described previously (14,16). Under sodium pentobarbital (30 mg/kg, i.p.) anesthesia, the chest was opened and the aorta was cannulated *in situ*. The heart was dissected out and perfused with normal Tyrode solution on the Langendorff apparatus. After a washout of blood, the heart was perfused with Ca^{2+} -free Tyrode solution, and spontaneous beating ceased. Then, the perfusate was switched to low- Ca^{2+} (30–60 μM) Tyrode solution containing 0.4 mg/ml collagenase (Type I, Sigma Chemical, St Louis, MO) for about 20 min. The heart was washed out by high- K^+ and low- Cl^- solution (KB solution), and was dissected with scissors. The temperature of all solutions was maintained at 36°C.

Current- and Voltage-clamp Experiments

Current-clamp and whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings were performed using an Axopatch patch-clamp amplifier (Axon Instruments, Burlingame, CA) and standard techniques. Patch pipettes from borosilicate glass capillaries were fabricated using a two-stage puller, and had a resistance of 5–7 M Ω . The series resistance error was <3–7 mV, and no compensation was used. The liquid junction potential between the pipette solution and the external solution (<10 mV) was corrected for all membrane potential recordings. Experiments were carried out at a temperature of 36.5°C. The data were stored and analyzed on an IBM-AT microcomputer, using the PCLAMP analysis program (Axon Instruments). Current traces were filtered using a cut-off frequency of 1 kHz for plotting. The I_{Ca} was measured as the difference between the peak current and the zero current, and the I_{K1} was the difference between the current at the end of a 1-s test pulse and the zero current. The I_{K} was measured at the peak of the outward tail current. All values are given as mean \pm S.E.M. The differences of the mean values were analyzed by Student's *t*-test and ANOVA for paired data, and a *P*-value of <0.05 was considered significant.

Experimental Solutions

The composition of the modified Tyrode solution was: 137 mM NaCl, 5.4 mM KCl, 1.8 mM CaCl_2 , 1.0 mM MgCl_2 , 0.3 mM NaH_2PO_4 , 5.0 mM glucose and 5.0 mM HEPES.

The pH was adjusted to 7.4 with NaOH. The constituents of *Ginkgo biloba* extract, ginkgolides A, B and C, and quercetin (Tokiwa Phytochemical Co., Tokyo, Japan) were dissolved with DMSO. Bath solutions with the desired concentrations were made and superfused. The pipette solution (intracellular) contained: 110 mM K-aspartate, 20 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl_2 , 10 mM EGTA, 5 mM Mg-ATP, 5 mM creatine phosphate and 5 mM HEPES (pH 7.2). The pipette solution for the measurement of I_{Ca} alone contained: 110 mM CsOH, 20 mM CsCl, 2 mM MgCl_2 , 10 mM EGTA, 5 mM MgATP, 5 mM creatine phosphate, 100 mM aspartic acid and 5 mM HEPES (pH 7.2).

Results

Ginkgo biloba Effects on the Action Potentials

To examine the effects of each constituent on the action potential configuration, a current-clamp experiment was carried out. The isolated single cell was stimulated at 1 Hz. As shown in Fig. 1A, ginkgolide A (at >1 μM) markedly prolonged the APD; at 3 μM , 75% and 90% repolarizations of APD (APD₇₅ and APD₉₀) were by $+43.8 \pm 3.6\%$ ($n = 8$,

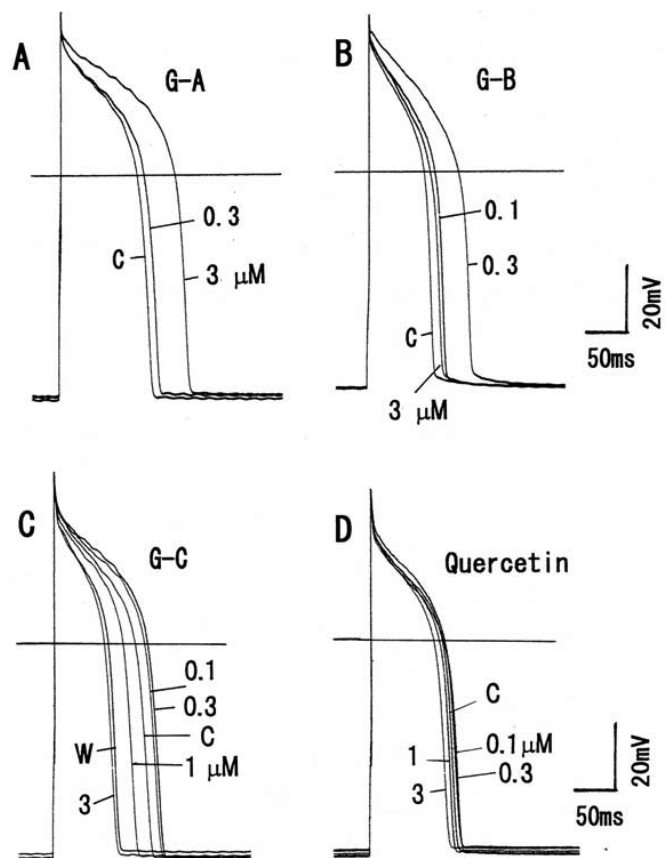


Figure 1. Modulation of the action potentials by the constituents of *Ginkgo biloba* extract in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes. (A) Effects of ginkgolide A on the action potentials. (B) Action potentials in ginkgolide B. (C) Action potentials in ginkgolide C. (D) Quercetin on action potentials. Each constituent from 0.1–3 μM was cumulatively added to bath solution. Horizontal lines indicate 0 mV. Symbols used are control (C) and washout (W).

$P < 0.001$) and by $+40.9 \pm 4.2\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.001$), respectively (Fig. 2A). Ginkgolide B at low concentrations (0.1–0.3 μM) markedly prolonged APD₇₅ and APD₉₀, but at high concentrations (1–3 μM) it decreased both of the APDs (although the APDs were still enhanced in comparison with the control) (Fig. 1B). The APD₇₅ and APD₉₀ at 0.3 μM were $+63.6 \pm 4.8\%$ ($n = 9$, $P < 0.001$) and $+58.3 \pm 3.6\%$ ($n = 6$, $P < 0.001$), respectively, and at 3 μM were $+16.2 \pm 3.9\%$ ($n = 9$, $P < 0.05$) and $+15.0 \pm 3.7\%$ ($n = 9$, $P < 0.05$), respectively (Fig. 2B).

On the other hand, ginkgolide C at low concentrations (0.3 μM) prolonged APD, whereas at high concentrations (1–3 μM) it markedly shortened APD (Fig. 1C). The APD₇₅ and APD₉₀ at 0.3 μM were altered by $+15.5 \pm 3.7\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$) and $+9.9 \pm 2.6\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$), respectively, and at 3 μM they were altered by $-38.5 \pm 2.8\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.001$) and $-37.2 \pm 3.5\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.01$), respectively (Fig. 2C). Quercetin at 0.1–1 μM tended to prolong the APD, and at 3 μM prolonged the APD₇₅ by $+11.9 \pm 3.4\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$) and APD₉₀ by $+17.9 \pm 3.0\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$) (Figs 1D and 2D).

The maximum rate of depolarization (V_{max}) significantly decreased by ~ 18 –20% ($n = 8$ –9) at higher concentrations

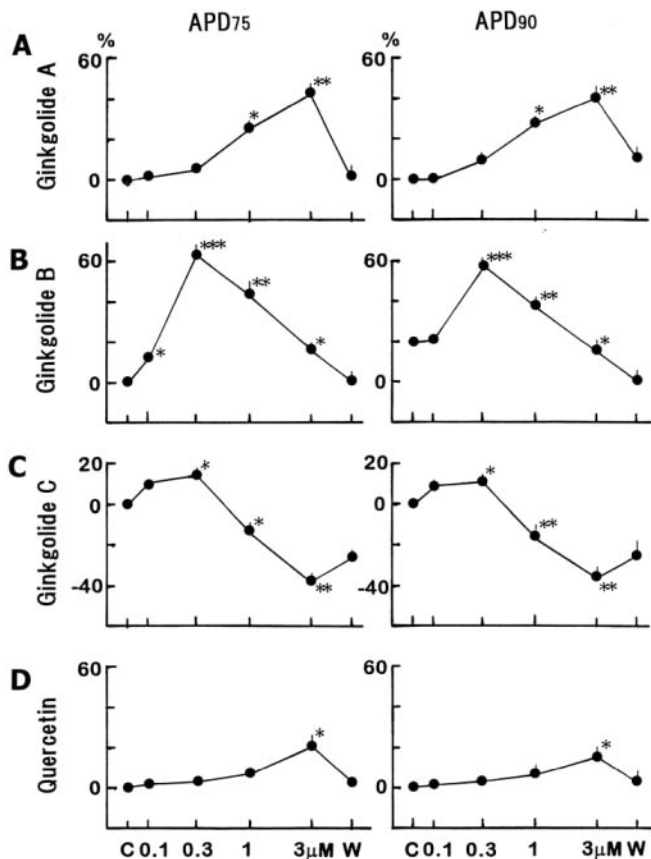


Figure 2. Changes in the action potential durations (75% and 90% repolarizations) in the presence of the constituents (0.1–3 μM). Maximum responses at different concentrations of each constituent are plotted. Values are represented as mean \pm S.E.M. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, with respect to control value.

(1–3 μM) of these constituents. Other action potential parameters were also unaffected in the presence of all the constituents. The modulation of the action potential configurations by the constituents is summarized in Fig. 3. A washout of the drugs for 15–20 min recovered to ~ 70 –80% of the control value.

Constituents of *Ginkgo biloba* and Quercetin Exert Contrasting Effects on Ionic Currents

Whole-cell patch voltage-clamp experiments were performed to examine the effects of the constituents on the underlying ionic currents. Test pulses (1 s duration) were applied to -20 to 60 mV and -40 to -120 mV from a holding potential of -30 mV. The average capacitance was 86.1 ± 2.0 pF ($n = 44$). As shown in Fig. 4, ginkgolide A (1 μM) enhanced both the Ca^{2+} current (I_{Ca}), by $68.2 \pm 2.8\%$ ($n = 7$, $P < 0.001$), and the delayed rectifier K^+ current (I_{K}) by $66.3 \pm 3.8\%$ ($n = 7$, $P < 0.001$). Each constituent (0.1–3 μM) was cumulatively administered to the bath solution. Ginkgolide B at 0.3 μM also increased the I_{Ca} at 10 mV by $58.1 \pm 2.8\%$ ($n = 6$, $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 5). Increasing the concentrations (1–3 μM) still enhanced the I_{Ca} , but the maximal response at 0.3 μM decreased. The I_{K} at 60 mV increased by $89.3 \pm 3.8\%$ ($n = 6$, $P < 0.001$) at 3 μM , but the inwardly rectifying K^+ current (I_{K1}) was not affected significantly. Ginkgolide C had a smaller or no effect on the I_{Ca} , but markedly increased the I_{K} by $59.2 \pm 2.8\%$ ($n = 7$, $P < 0.001$) at 3 μM (Fig. 6).

On the other hand, the application of quercetin (0.1–3 μM) inhibited the I_{Ca} (Fig. 7A and B). The I_{Ca} at 10 mV decreased by $34.9 \pm 3.2\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$) at 0.3 μM and by $56.8 \pm 3.3\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$) at 3 μM . The responses were produced in a concentration-dependent manner. Simultaneously, the I_{K} at 60 mV increased by $60.4 \pm 2.7\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.001$) at 0.3 μM and by $89.7 \pm 3.3\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.001$) at 3 μM . Quercetin simultaneously did not affect the I_{K1} to a significant extent (by ~ 10 –15%) at low concentrations, but at 3 μM inhibited the I_{K1} by $12.4 \pm 2.1\%$ ($n = 8$, $P < 0.05$). The responses to the constituents for the I_{Ca} and I_{K} currents are summarized in Fig. 8. The responses to all the constituents were recovered to ~ 80 –90% of the control value after a 20-min washout.

Discussion

The present experiments showed that: (i) ginkgolide A prolonged the APD, but ginkgolides B and C shortened APD; (ii) quercetin prolonged the APD; (iii) the constituents also inhibited the V_{max} and the RP was unaffected; (iv) ginkgolides A and B increased I_{Ca} and I_{K} , and decreased I_{K1} ; (v) ginkgolide C failed to affect the I_{Ca} but increased the I_{K} ; (vi) quercetin inhibited I_{Ca} , and enhanced I_{K} but decreased I_{K1} ; and (vii) these responses were almost reversible after a washout. These results indicate that acute administrations of these constituents can produce the effective actions on cardiomyocytes. Each constituent never exhibits a uniform response.

In recent clinical and experimental experiments, GBE has been found to be effective against ischemic brain injury (11,17)

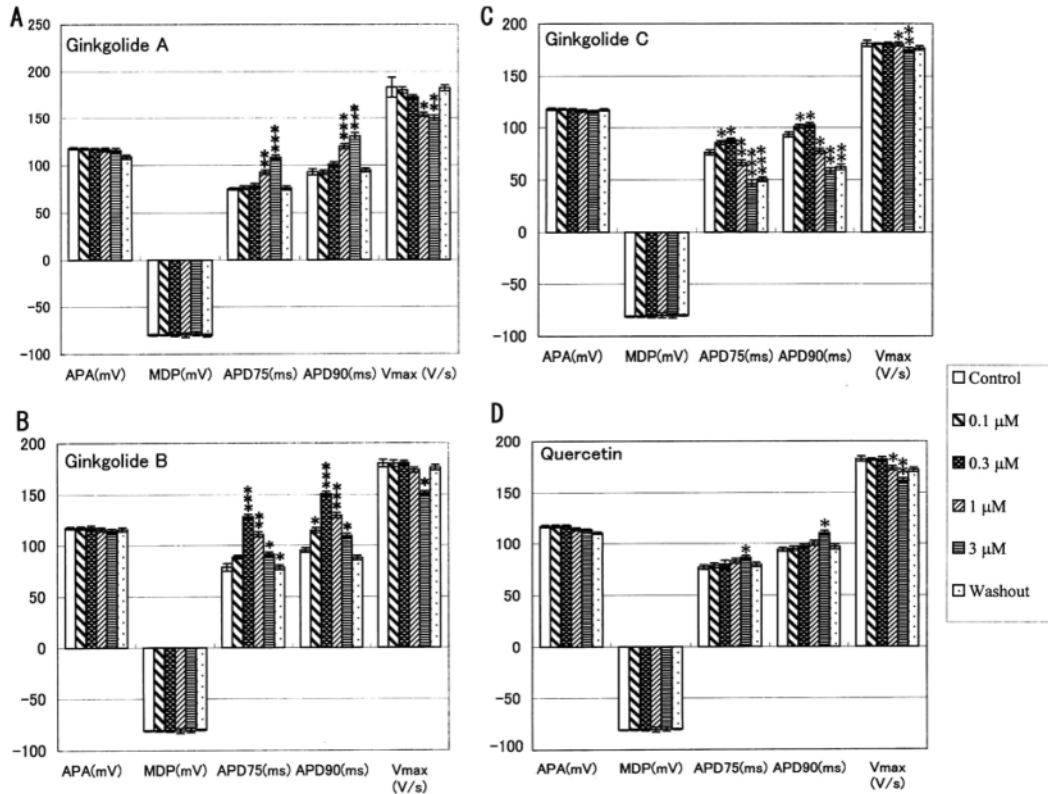


Figure 3. Summary of the effects on action potential parameters. (A) Ginkgolide A, (B) ginkgolide B, (C) ginkgolide C, (D) quercetin. APA, action potential amplitude; MDP, maximum diastolic potential; APD_{75} , 75% repolarization of the action potential duration; APD_{90} , 90% repolarization of the action potential duration; V_{max} , maximum rate of depolarization. Values are represented as mean \pm S.E.M. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, with respect to control value.

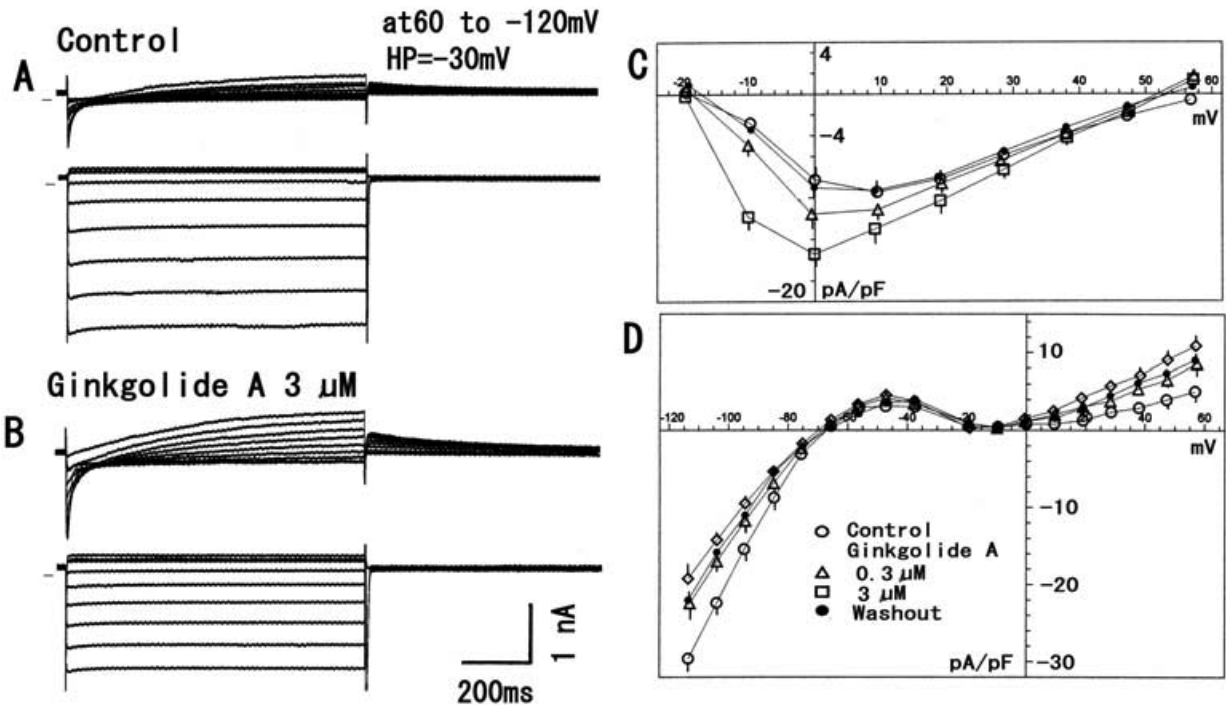


Figure 4. Modulation by ginkgolide A of the ionic currents. (A) Current traces in control. (B) Current traces in ginkgolide A (3 μ M). Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60 mV and -40 to -120 mV from a holding potential of -30 mV. Horizontal line before the current traces indicates zero current level. (C) Current-voltage relationship for Ca^{2+} current. (D) Current-voltage relationship for the delayed rectifier K^+ current and the inwardly rectifying K^+ current. Symbols used are control (open circles), 0.3μ M (triangles) and 1μ M (squares) of ginkgolide A, and washout (filled circles).

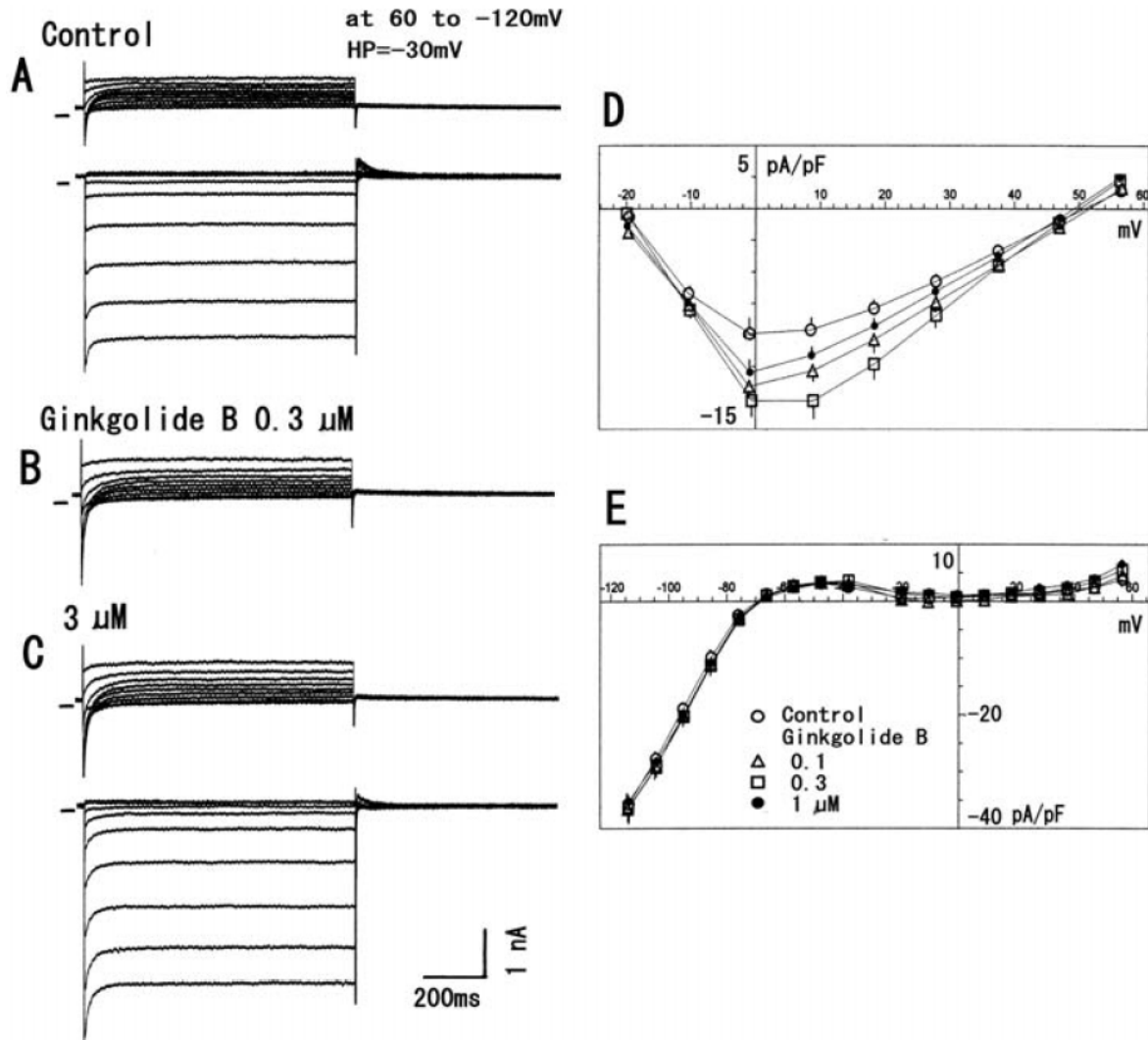


Figure 5. Modulation by ginkgolide B of the ionic currents. (A) Current traces in control. Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60 mV and -40 to -120 mV from a holding potential of -30 mV. (B) Current traces in ginkgolide B ($0.3 \mu\text{M}$). Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60 mV. Holding potential was -30 mV. (C) Current traces at $3 \mu\text{M}$. Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60 mV and -40 to -120 mV from a holding potential of -30 mV. Horizontal line before the current traces indicates zero current level. (D) Current-voltage relationship for Ca^{2+} current. (E) Current-voltage relationship for the delayed rectifier K^{+} current and the inwardly rectifying K^{+} current. Symbols used are control (open circles), $0.1 \mu\text{M}$ (triangles), $0.3 \mu\text{M}$ (squares) and $1 \mu\text{M}$ (filled circles) of ginkgolide B.

and cerebral disorders due to aging (18). The mechanisms of the beneficial effects of GBE are considered to be improvements in: (i) hemodynamic disorders (6,7,19); (ii) PAF-associated abnormalities (3,4,20,21); (iii) cell damage induced by free radicals (8–10); and (iv) a decrease in ATP level during anoxia (5). In fact, these effects have recently been recognized clinically by several double-blind studies with GBE versus placebo (22–25).

APD Regulation

In experiments for the cardiovascular system, GBE does not affect heart rate and contractility, but produces a concentration-dependent increase in coronary flow (12,13). In our laboratory, however, GBE caused a negative chronotropic

effect in rabbit SA nodal cells (unpublished data). Also, GBE inhibited I_{Ca} and I_{K} , but bilobalide (a constituent) increased them in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes (14). Simultaneously, GBE prolonged the APD, whereas bilobalide shortened it. In the present experiments, a major action of the constituents was the alteration of APD involved with the effects on the ionic channels. The APD means a period for the repolarization of the membrane, making T wave on ECG. Thus, the APD of cardiac myocytes is clinically reflected directly to the QT interval. The QT interval is a reflection of the repolarization of action potential, which is mainly responsible for the modulation of I_{K} . The APD prolongation increases the refractory period and simultaneously elevates the cellular Ca^{2+} concentration (26–28). Therefore, the constituents would play an important role as ionic channel modulators of

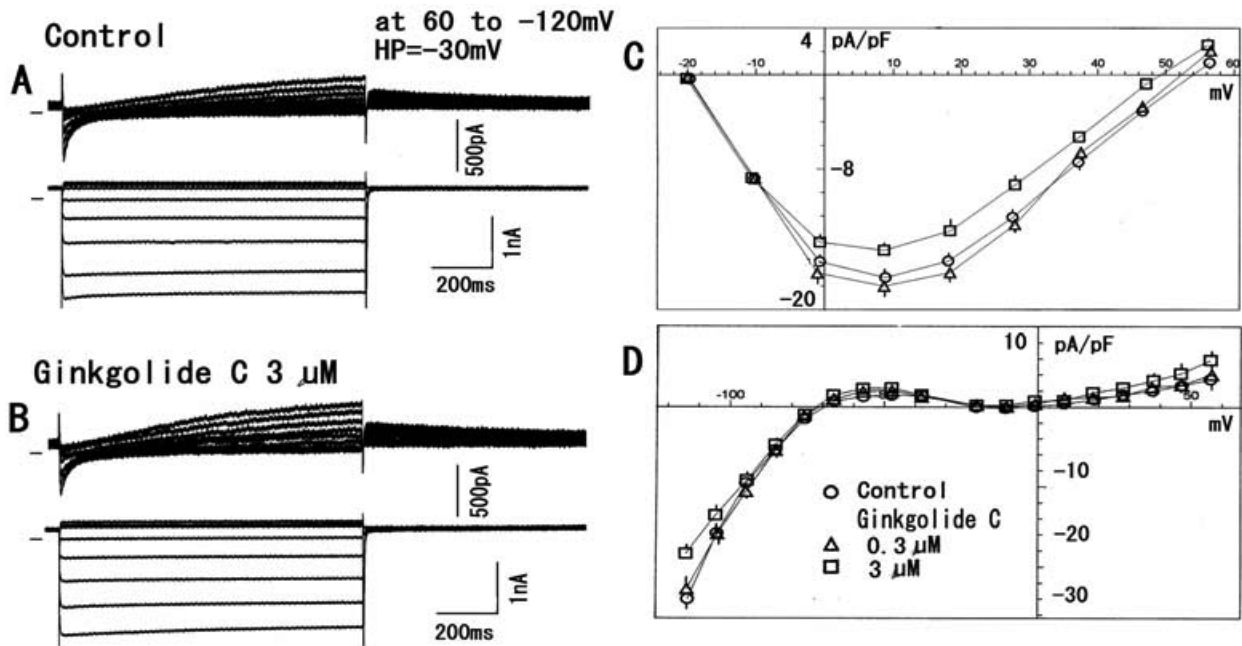


Figure 6. Modulation by ginkgolide C of the ionic currents in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes. (A) Current traces in control. (B) Current traces in ginkgolide C ($3\ \mu\text{M}$). Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60mV and -40 to -120mV from a holding potential of -30mV . Horizontal line before the current traces indicates zero current level. (C) Current-voltage relationship for the Ca^{2+} current. (D) Current-voltage relationship for the delayed rectifier K^+ current and the inwardly rectifying K^+ current. Symbols used are control (open circles), $0.3\ \mu\text{M}$ (triangles) and $3\ \mu\text{M}$ (squares) of ginkgolide C.

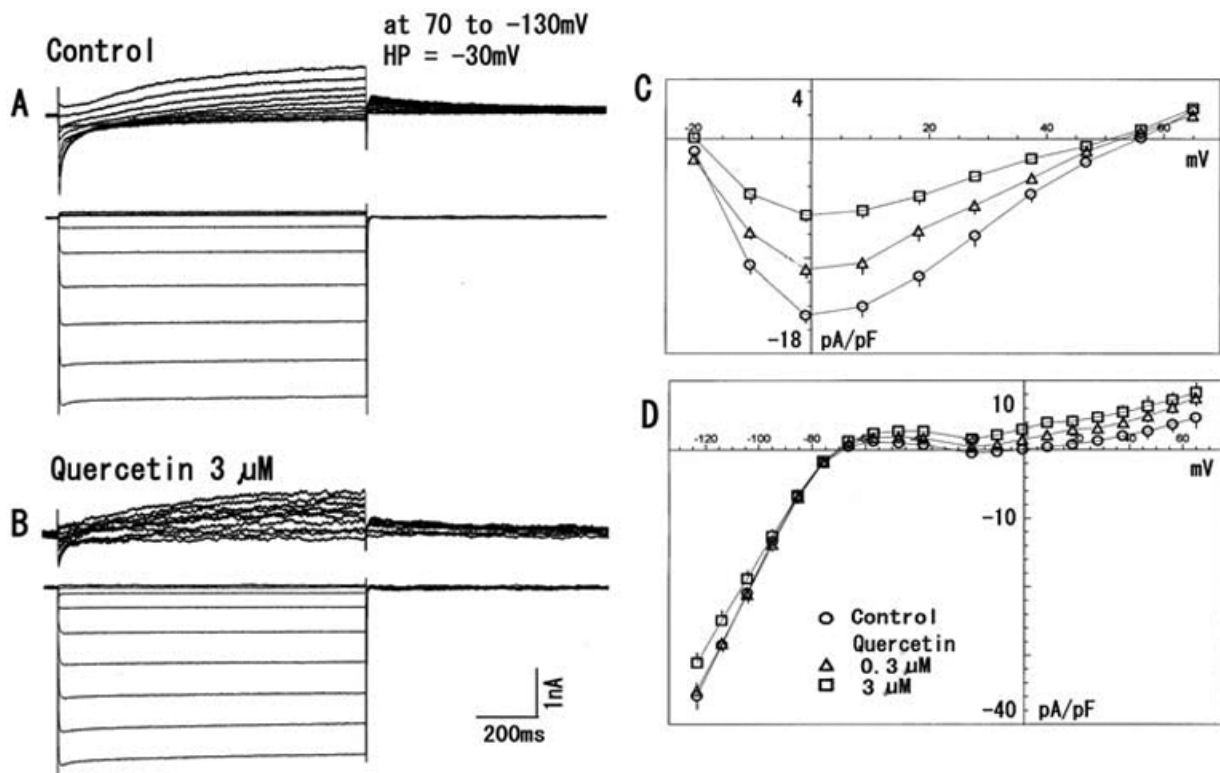


Figure 7. Modulation by quercetin of the ionic currents in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes. (A) Current traces in control. (B) Current traces in quercetin ($3\ \mu\text{M}$). Test pulses for 1 s were applied to -20 to 60mV and -40 to -120mV . Holding potential was -30mV . Horizontal line before the current traces indicates zero current level. (C) Current-voltage relationship for Ca^{2+} current. (D) Current-voltage relationship for the delayed rectifier K^+ current and the inwardly rectifying K^+ current. Symbols used are control (open circles), $0.3\ \mu\text{M}$ (triangles) and $3\ \mu\text{M}$ (squares) of quercetin.

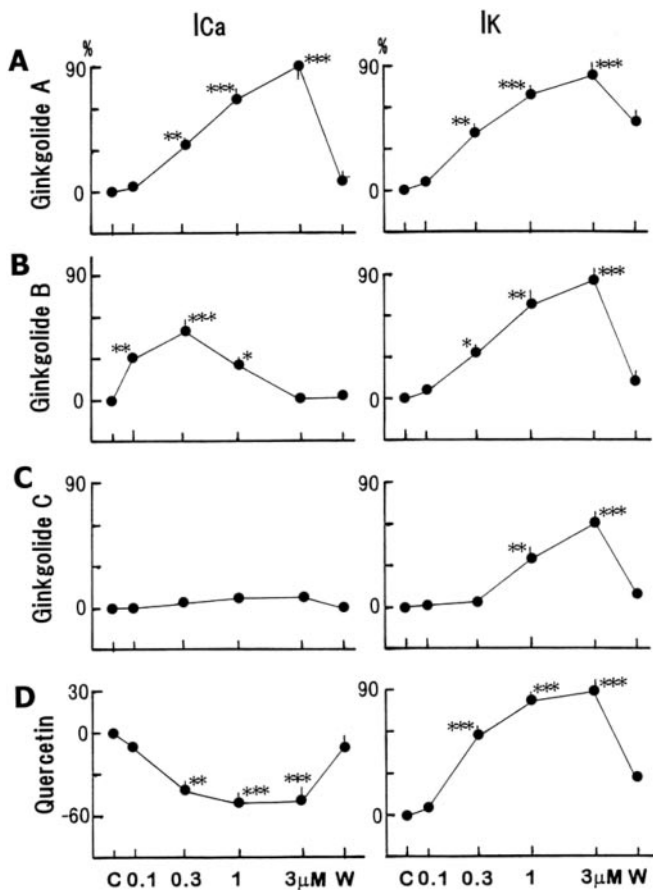


Figure 8. Concentration-dependent responses to the constituents on the Ca^{2+} and delayed rectifier K^+ currents. (A–D) Percentage changes in control and at 0.3 and 3 μM of ginkgolide A, B, C and quercetin. Maximum values for the currents at different concentrations of each constituent are plotted. Values are represented as means \pm S.E.M. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, with respect to control value.

cardiomyocytes, although the effects of each constituent on the APD and the ionic currents were not exhibited in a uniform direction. Quercetin, a kind of flavonoid, had a smaller or no effect on the action potentials, but caused the APD prolongation only at high concentrations. Also, quercetin inhibited I_{Ca} and enhanced I_{K} . Quercetin has been reported to possess many pharmacological effects (29,30); the modification of eicosanoid synthesis, prevention of platelet aggregation, and vasorelaxation due to the inhibition of PK-C.

Modulation of the Ionic Currents

Furthermore, these constituents also acted on the V_{max} , although they did not affect other action potential parameters. In general, the V_{max} is used as an activator of the Na^+ channel current (I_{Na}). Thus, the constituents have an inhibitory action on the I_{Na} , resulting in an inhibition of the conduction velocity and a suppression of excitability. In addition, the constituents simultaneously modulated the ionic channel currents such as I_{Ca} , I_{K} , I_{K1} and I_{Na} . These effects might cause antiarrhythmic actions. In all the constituents, I_{K} enhancement was finally

produced, indicative of a cell protection due to an APD shortening and a decline of cellular Ca^{2+} concentration.

The channel activity of single myocytes might be caused a run-down, especially Ca^{2+} channel and rapidly activating K^+ channel. The cells not causing run-down were chosen and used for the experiments. However, there may be a limitation to patch-clamp experiments. The responses to the constituents were considered to be due to the effects of constituents, because of the reversible response. Therefore, these constituents would exert many helpful and protective actions upon cardiac cells.

Clinical Uses and Summary

GBE can be administered to patients with mild to moderate symptoms of cerebral insufficiency (1,2). The half-life of GBE is 2–3 h (11). In pharmacokinetic analysis, the bioavailabilities of ginkgolides A and B are practically high, but that of ginkgolide C is very low (31). Of the GBE-containing flavonoids, quercetin has the highest percentage (8.91%). With regard to the distribution of radioactivity in the cardiovascular system, the tissues in areas such as vein, heart and aorta are relatively higher 3–7 h after oral administration (32). Quercetin possesses a vasodilating action (33,34). Also, the histamine-induced contraction of isolated guinea pig intestine was inhibited by a mixture of flavonoids (35). In our laboratory, GBE as a mixture exhibited a potent vasodilatory action (34). Therefore, these responses are most likely produced by the modulation of ionic channel currents that have been demonstrated in this study.

It has been reported that a single dose of GBE does not produce potent pharmacological activities, and repeated doses are needed to produce beneficial effects over a long period of administration (36–38). In the present *in vitro* experiments, however, acutely single administrations produced marked actions on the ionic channel currents and the action potentials. Since GBE is a mixture of its constituents, the total response to GBE would be a result of complex interactions with the constituents. Therefore, the constituents from GBE would play an important role in modulating the strong APD prolongation by interacting with each other. Although relatively higher concentrations were used in this study, because the pharmacological effects on the ionic channels were so remarkable, GBE and its constituents would be helpful in the treatment of cerebral disorders due to their effects on central nervous system (CNS) neurons. Further experiments are needed to elucidate the detailed mechanisms of the cardiac actions of *Ginkgo biloba*.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank Tokiwa Phytochemical Co. Ltd. for providing the constituents of *Ginkgo biloba* extract (ginkgolides A, B and C, quercetin).

References

- Christen Y, Costentin J, Lacour H. *Effects of Ginkgo biloba Extract (Egb 761) on the Central Nervous System*. Paris: Elsevier, 1992.

2. Kleijnen J, Knipschild P. *Ginkgo biloba* for cerebral insufficiency. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1992;34:352–8.
3. Oberpichler H, Beck T, Abdel-Rahman MM, Bielenberg GW, Kriegelstein J. Effects of *Ginkgo biloba* constituents related to protection against brain damage caused by hypoxia. *Pharmacol Res Commun* 1988;20:349–68.
4. Braquet P, Shen TY, Vargaftig BB. Perspectives in platelet-activating factor research. *Pharmacol Rev* 1987;39:97–145.
5. Janssens D, Michiels C, Delatave E, Eliaers F, Drieu K, Remacle J. Protection of hypoxia-induced ATP decrease in endothelial cells by *Ginkgo biloba* extract and bilobalide. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1995;50:991–9.
6. DeFeudis FV. *Ginkgo biloba* Extract (EGB 761): Pharmacological Activities and Clinical Applications. In: DeFeudis FV (ed.) *Clinical Studies and Clinical Pharmacology with Egb. 761*. Paris: Elsevier, 1991, 97–142.
7. Klein J, Chatterjee SS, Loffelholz K. Phospholipid breakdown and choline release under hypoxic conditions: inhibition by bilobalide, a constituent of *Ginkgo biloba*. *Brain Res* 1997;755:347–50.
8. Drieu K. Preparation et definition de l'extrait de *Ginkgo biloba*. *Press Med* 1986;15:1455–7.
9. Schoilcher H. *Ginkgo biloba* L. Untersuchung zur Qualitat, Wirkung, Wirksamkeit und Unbedenklichkeit. *Zeitschr Phytother* 1988;9:119–27.
10. Wagner H, Blatt S, Hartmann U, Daily A, Berkulin W. *Ginkgo biloba*. DC- und HPLC-analyse von *Ginkgo-extrakten* und *Ginkgo-extrakte* enthaltenden phytopreparaten. *Deutsch Apothek Zeit* 1989;129:2421–4.
11. Kleijnen J, Knipschild P. *Ginkgo biloba*. *Lancet* 1992;340:1136–9.
12. Chatterjee SS, Gabard B. Studies on mechanism of action of an extract of *Ginkgo biloba*, a drug used for treatment of ischemic vascular diseases. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 1982;321:207.
13. Chatterjee SS, Noldner M. Behavioural observations demonstrating influences of the extract of *Ginkgo biloba* (EGB-761) on some specific central cholinergic systems. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 1989;339:425.
14. Satoh H. Effects of *Ginkgo biloba* extract and bilobalide, a main constituent, on the ionic currents in Guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes. *Arztzeit Forsh* 2003;53:407–13.
15. Tamago J, Delgado CM, Diez J, Delpon E. Cardiac electrophysiology of PAF-acether and PAF-acether antagonists. In: Braquet P, Prous JR (eds). *Ginkgoliges vol. 1*. Barcelona, 1988, 417–31.
16. Satoh H. Taurine modulates I_{Kr} but not I_{Ks} in guinea pig ventricular cardiomyocytes. *Br J Pharmacol* 1999;126:87–92.
17. Zhang WR, Hayashi T, Kitagawa H, et al. Protective effect of *Ginkgo* extract on rat brain with transient middle cerebral artery occlusion. *Neurol Res* 2000; 22:517–21.
18. Taillandier J, Ammar A, Rabourdin JP, et al. Traitement des troubles du vieillissement cerebral par l'extrait de *Ginkgo biloba*. *Press Med* 1986; 15:1583–7.
19. Arrigo A, Cattaneo S. Clinical and psychometric evaluation of *Ginkgo biloba* extract in chronic cerebro-vascular diseases. In: Agnoli A, Rapin JR, Scapagnini V, Weitbrecht WV (eds). *Effects of Ginkgo Biloba Extract on Organic Cerebral Impairment*. Montrouge: John Libby Urotext, 1985, 85–9.
20. Braquet P, Esane A, Buisine E, Hosford D, Broquet C, Koltai M. Recent progress in ginkgolide research. *Med Res Rev* 1991;11:295–355.
21. Kriegelstein J, Beck T, Seibert A. Influence of an extract of *Ginkgo biloba* on cerebral blood flow and metabolism. *Life Sci* 1986;39:2327–34.
22. Bauer U. 6-Month double-blind randomized clinical trial of *Ginkgo biloba* extract versus placebo in two parallel group in patients suffering from peripheral arterial insufficiency. *Arzneimitt Forsch* 1984; 34:121–125.
23. Hamann KF. Physikalische Therapie des vestibularen Schwindels in Verbindung mit GBE. *Therapie* 1985;35:4586–90.
24. Weitbrecht WV, Jansen W. Doubleblind and comparative (*Ginkgo biloba* versus placebo) therapeutic study in geriatric patients with primary degenerative dementia—a preliminary evaluation. In: Agnoli A, Rapin JR, Scapagnini V, Weitbrecht WV (eds). *Effects of Ginkgo Biloba Extract on Organic Cerebral Impairment*. Montrouge: John Libby Eurotext, 1985, 91–9.
25. Meyer B. Etude multicentrique randomisee a double insu face au placebo du traitement des acouphenes par l'extrait de *Ginkgo biloba*. *Press Med* 1986;15:1562–4.
26. Satoh H, Hashimoto K. An electrophysiological study of amiloride on sino-atrial node cells and ventricular muscle of rabbit and dog. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 1986;333:83–90.
27. Satoh H, Ishii M, Hashimoto K. Effect of cibenzoline, a class I antiarrhythmic drug, on action potential in canine ventricular muscle. *Jpn J Pharmacol* 1987;44:113–9.
28. Satoh H, Tsuchida K, Hashimoto K. Electrophysiological actions of A23187 and X-537A in spontaneously beating and in voltage-clamped rabbit sino-atrial node preparations. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol* 1989; 339:320–6.
29. Middleton E Jr. The flavonoids. *Trends Biol Sci* 1984;5:335–8.
30. Pathak K, Pathak A, Singla A. Flavonoids as medical agents. *Fitoterapie* 1991;62:371–89.
31. Fourtillan JB, Brisson AM, Girault J, Ingrand I, Decourt JP. Pharmacokinetic properties of bilobalide and ginkgolide A and B in healthy subjects after intravenous and oral administration of *Ginkgo biloba* extract (Egb 761). *Therapie* 1995;50:137–44.
32. Moreau JP, Eck J, McCabe J, Skinner S. Absorption, distribution et elimination de l'extrait marque de *Ginkgo biloba* chez le rat. *Press Med* 1986;15:1458–63.
33. Kubota Y, Tanaka N, Umegaki K, et al. *Ginkgo biloba* extract-induced relaxation of rat aorta is associated with increase in endothelial intracellular calcium level. *Life Sci* 2001; 69:2327–36.
34. Nishida S, Satoh H. Mechanisms for the vasodilations induced by *Ginkgo biloba* extract and its main constituent, bilobalide, in rat aorta. *Life Sci* 2003;72:2659–67.
35. Peter H, Fisel ZJ, Weisser W. Zur Pharmakologie der Wirkstoffe aus *Ginkgo biloba*. *Arzneimitt Forsch* 1966;16:719–25.
36. Bauer U. A two-year study of *Ginkgo biloba* extract in the treatment of peripheral arterial disease (Fontaine Stage IIB). *Proc Int Union Angiol* 1986; 531–532.
37. Halama P, Bartsch G, Meng G. Hirnleistungsstörung vaskularer Genese. Randomisierte Doppelblindstudie zur Wirksamkeit von *Ginkgo-biloba*-Extrakt. *Fortsch Med* 1988;106:408–12.
38. Hofferberth B. Einfluss von *Ginkgo biloba*-Extrakt auf neurophysiologische und sychometrische Messergebnisse bei Patienten mit hirnorganischem Psychosyndrom: eine Doppelblindstudie gegen Plazebo. *Arzneimitt Forsch* 1989;39:918–22.

Received July 27, 2004; accepted September 16, 2004



Hindawi
Submit your manuscripts at
<http://www.hindawi.com>

