

smooth muscle MLCK in the absence of calmodulin, including Ser⁵¹² [(4); M. E. Payne, M. Elzinga, R. S. Adelstein, *J. Biol. Chem.* **261**, 16346 (1986)]. The tryptic digestion of the phosphorylated enzyme also generated the inactive 64-kD fragment (6), which was not phosphorylated, together with two tryptic phosphopeptides. The largest phosphopeptide, a 23-kD species, purified by Mono Q anion-exchange chromatography, had the amino-terminal sequence Lys⁵²³-Ala-Ser(³²P)-Gly-Ser-Ser-Pro-Thr⁵³⁰; the same fragment was also generated from the unphosphorylated enzyme. The smaller phosphopeptide was purified by reversed-phase HPLC and found to have the sequence Leu⁵¹⁰-Ser-Ser(³²P)⁵¹²-Met-Ala-Met-Ile-Ser-Gly-Met⁵¹⁹. The identification of the two sites of phosphorylation, Ser⁵¹² and Ser⁵²⁵, confirms findings made by others [(4); M. E. Payne *et al.*, see above; Fig. 3B]. Thus the result of the tryptic analysis of the phosphorylated enzyme was consistent with the finding that 64-kD fragment ended at Arg⁵⁰⁵ (Fig. 3). The intervening tryptic

peptide Ala⁵⁰⁶-Ile-Gly-Arg⁵⁰⁹ was not recovered from the tryptic digest of the phosphorylated enzyme because identification of these peptides depended on the presence of ³²P.

14. A 60-min incubation of the 64-kD fragment with carboxypeptidase P [ratio of 1:20 (w:w)] yielded only 15% of the activity resulting from tryptic digestion over the same period [ratio of 1:40 (w:w)]. Carboxypeptidase P digestion resulted in the release of Val and Arg as well as Lys from the 64-kD fragment. These measurements were made after subtraction of the carboxypeptidase blank. The presence of Val and Arg was consistent with the assignment of Arg⁵⁰⁵ as the carboxyl terminus of the 64-kD fragment, but the lysine was unaccounted for.
15. The structure of the 61-kD fragment appears more open because it is more susceptible to proteolytic digestion than the 64-kD fragment. Several chymotryptic peptides were unique to the 61-kD fragment and were derived from the internal region; for example, HPLC peak 3, Gly²²⁸-Gln-Val-Phe²³¹, and

peak 7, Gly³⁵⁹-Leu-Ala-Arg-Arg-Leu³⁶⁴.

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20. The amino-terminal sequences were determined with an Applied Biosystems model 470A sequencer [R. E. H. Wettenhall, W. Kudlicki, G. Kramer, B. Hardesty, *J. Biol. Chem.* **261**, 12444 (1986)].
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Beta-N-Methylamino-L-Alanine Neurotoxicity: Requirement for Bicarbonate as a Cofactor

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Ingestion of the excitotoxic cycad seed amino acid β -N-methylamino-L-alanine may be responsible for the neuronal degeneration associated with Guam amyotrophic lateral sclerosis-parkinsonism-dementia in man. However, the basis for the central neurotoxicity of β -N-methylamino-L-alanine has been unclear, as it lacks the omega acidic (or equivalent electronegative) moiety characteristic of other excitatory amino acids. β -N-methylamino-L-alanine produced neurotoxic and neuroexcitatory effects in murine cortical cell cultures only when physiological concentrations of bicarbonate were available in the extracellular bathing medium. Bicarbonate may interact noncovalently with β -N-methylamino-L-alanine to produce, in combination, a molecular configuration that activates glutamate receptors.

THE HIGH INCIDENCE OF AMYOTROPHIC lateral sclerosis (ALS), often with features of parkinsonism and Alzheimer-type dementia (ALS-PD) among the Chamorro people in Guam has prompted intensive epidemiological searches for etiologic clues (1). The demonstration that ingestion of β -N-methylamino-L-alanine (BMAA), an uncommon amino acid present in the seed of the indigenous food plant *Cycas circinalis*, can induce in primates a neurodegenerative syndrome closely resembling Guam ALS-PD has implicated cycad-BMAA ingestion as the specific cause of the human disease (2, 3).

Chemically, BMAA is related to another plant-derived amino acid, β -N-oxalylamino-L-alanine (BOAA), which is implicated in the pathogenesis of lathyrism (4). BOAA is a dicarboxylic amino acid and, like other such amino acids, can produce neuroexcitatory and neurotoxic effects on central neurons and can induce seizures in rodents (5).

Although less potent than BOAA, single doses of BMAA can also induce seizures in rodents (6). In explants of spinal cord or frontal cortex, BMAA can produce excitotoxic neuronal degeneration that can be attenuated by N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) antagonists (7). Because BMAA lacks the ω -acidic or electronegative moiety characteristic of other excitatory amino acids (having instead a positively charged β -amino group), this excitotoxic action is curious; Spencer *et al.* hypothesized that it may be mediated indirectly by a metabolite (3).

We investigated BMAA neurotoxicity on cortical neurons in cell culture, a system permitting control of the extracellular milieu and a high degree of temporal resolution. Dissociated mouse cortical cultures were prepared (8) and studied between 15 and 21 days after plating in media consisting of Eagle's minimal essential medium (MEM-Earle's salts, supplied glutamine-free) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated horse serum, 10% fetal bovine serum, glutamine (2 mM), and glucose (total 21 mM). Cells were initially exposed to BMAA (9) in a defined Hepes-buffered (pH 7.4) physiolog-

ical salt solution (HSS) with the following composition: 130 mM Na⁺, 5.4 mM K⁺, 0.8 mM Mg²⁺, 1.8 mM Ca²⁺, 20 mM Hepes, 130.6 mM Cl⁻, and 15 mM glucose. A 1-hour exposure to 3 mM BMAA in HSS did not produce any evidence of the neurotoxicity seen with dicarboxylic excitatory amino acids (8, 10); that is, acute neuronal swelling, late cell loss, and efflux of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) to the bathing medium were all absent (Fig. 1A; Fig. 2 shows representative morphological appearance) (five experiments). A similar lack of BMAA neurotoxicity was seen in a tris-buffered exposure solution. These observations contrasted with rapid (within minutes) neuronal vacuolation seen in mouse frontal cortex explants after exposure to 1.6 mM BMAA (3).

To reconcile our findings with the previous study (3), we repeated the experiment and used the Eagle's MEM exposure solution described in (3); 1 to 3 mM BMAA then produced acute neuronal swelling and substantial late neuronal degeneration (ten experiments). The key difference appeared to be the bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) present in MEM but not in HSS. If 10 mM NaHCO₃ was added to HSS, then exposure to 3 mM BMAA for 1 hour produced a substantial amount of neuronal degeneration by the next day (Fig. 1A). This permissive effect of HCO₃⁻ on BMAA neurotoxicity was not mimicked by 10 mM NaCl (Fig. 1A) and not accounted for by pH shifts. The addition of 10 mM HCO₃⁻ to HSS produced only a small alkalization, to pH 7.5 initially and gradually to pH 7.7 at the end of 1 hour in room air. If this alkalization were mimicked by addition of NaOH (both at the beginning and in the middle of the 1-hour exposure), BMAA remained essentially nontoxic (Fig. 1A). BMAA was also nontoxic at a higher pH of 8.2 in HSS (Fig. 1A) and

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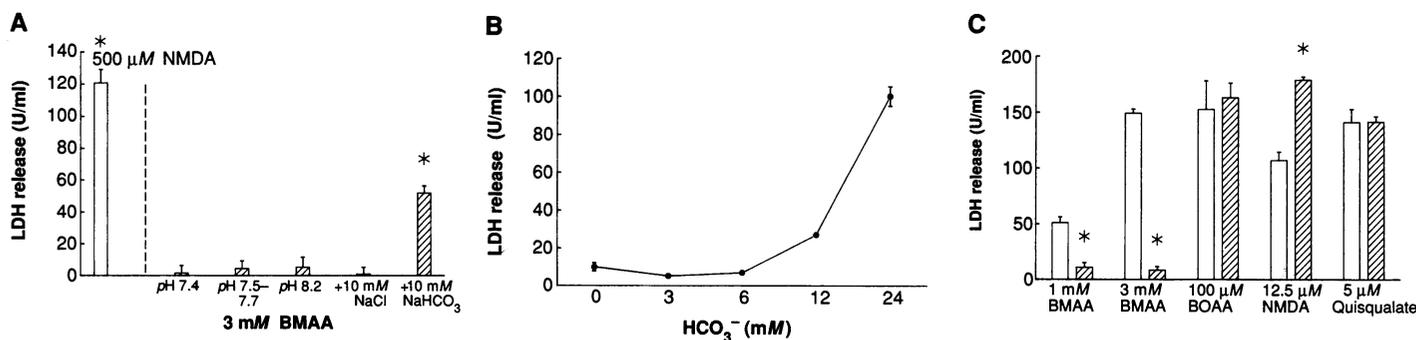


Fig. 1. (A) BMAA neurotoxicity requires extracellular bicarbonate. Sister cultures were exposed to 3 mM BMAA for 1 hour in HSS in room air under the indicated conditions, then exchanged into Eagle's MEM with augmented glucose (21 mM), and returned to the CO₂ incubator (37°C) overnight. The shaded bars depict LDH (mean + SEM, *n* = 4) present in the bathing medium 20 hours after BMAA exposure, following subtraction of the small amount of background LDH present in sister cultures exposed only to sham wash. For comparison, the open bar shows the LDH present in other sister cultures exposed to 500 μ M NMDA for 5 min, a toxic exposure sufficient to destroy most of the neurons in the dish. Experience has shown that this specific LDH efflux correlates quantitatively with the number of neurons irreversibly damaged by exposure to an excitatory amino acid (10). Description of shaded bars is as follows: pH 7.4, control exposure in HSS; pH 7.5 to 7.7, HSS titrated with NaOH to pH 7.5 initially and to pH 7.7 after 30 min; pH 8.2, HSS titrated with NaOH to pH 8.2; +10 mM NaCl, HSS with added 10 mM NaCl; and +10 mM NaHCO₃, HSS with added 10 mM NaHCO₃. The asterisk indicates significant difference from the pH 7.4 condition at *P* < 0.05 by analysis of variance and Student-Newman-Keuls

procedure. **(B)** BMAA neurotoxicity is dependent on the bicarbonate concentration. Sister cultures were exposed to 3 mM BMAA for 1 hour in HSS, with addition of the indicated concentration of HCO₃⁻. LDH (\pm SEM, *n* = 4) efflux above background was measured in the bathing medium 20 hours later. **(C)** Specificity of bicarbonate dependence. Sister cultures were exposed to the indicated toxic agonist for 1 hour in a standard bicarbonate-buffered salt solution (Earle's BSS) (open bars) with the following composition: 143.5 mM Na⁺, 5.4 mM K⁺, 1.8 mM Ca²⁺, 0.8 mM Mg²⁺, 125.3 mM Cl⁻, 26.2 mM HCO₃⁻, 0.8 mM SO₄²⁻, and 1.0 mM H₂PO₄⁻. Exposure took place in the CO₂ incubator at 37°C, under conditions ensuring normal pH (7.4) of the exposure solution. LDH efflux above background was measured 20 hours later (open bars, mean + SEM, *n* = 4). The shaded bars depict LDH values in cultures treated similarly, but exposed to the indicated toxic agonist in BSS modified by replacing HCO₃⁻ with 20 mM Hepes (HBSS) in a room air (37°C) incubator (also at pH 7.4). The asterisk indicates difference from toxicity in BSS at *P* < 0.05 by two-tailed *t* test.

became toxic in the presence of HCO₃⁻ even in an incubator that contained CO₂, in which pH was maintained at 7.4.

The neurotoxicity of BMAA depended on the concentration of added HCO₃⁻ between 6 and 24 mM, with little toxicity in the presence of less than 6 mM HCO₃⁻ (Fig. 1B). With the addition of 24 mM HCO₃⁻ and a 1-hour exposure, 3 mM BMAA destroyed 50 to 80% of the cortical neuronal population.

This requirement for HCO₃⁻ was not found with several other excitatory amino acid neurotoxins. One-hour exposure to 1 or 3 mM BMAA, 100 μ M BOAA, 12.5 μ M NMDA, or 5 μ M quisqualate in a standard HCO₃⁻-containing solution [Earle's balanced salt solution (BSS)] all produced substantial amounts of neuronal degeneration by the following day, accompanied by efflux of LDH to the bathing medium (Fig. 1C). However, substitution of Hepes for HCO₃⁻ in the exposure solution [Hepes balanced salt solution (HBSS)] abolished only the toxicity of BMAA (Fig. 1C). The toxicity of BOAA and quisqualate was largely unaffected; the toxicity of NMDA was actually increased by this substitution (Fig. 1C).

To investigate the possibility that HCO₃⁻ unmasked BMAA toxicity by preventing BMAA metabolism or uptake, we incubated cultures in BMAA alone before the addition of HCO₃⁻. No morphological changes in neurons were apparent during a 30-min preincubation in 3 mM BMAA in HSS. However, within 3 to 5 min of adding

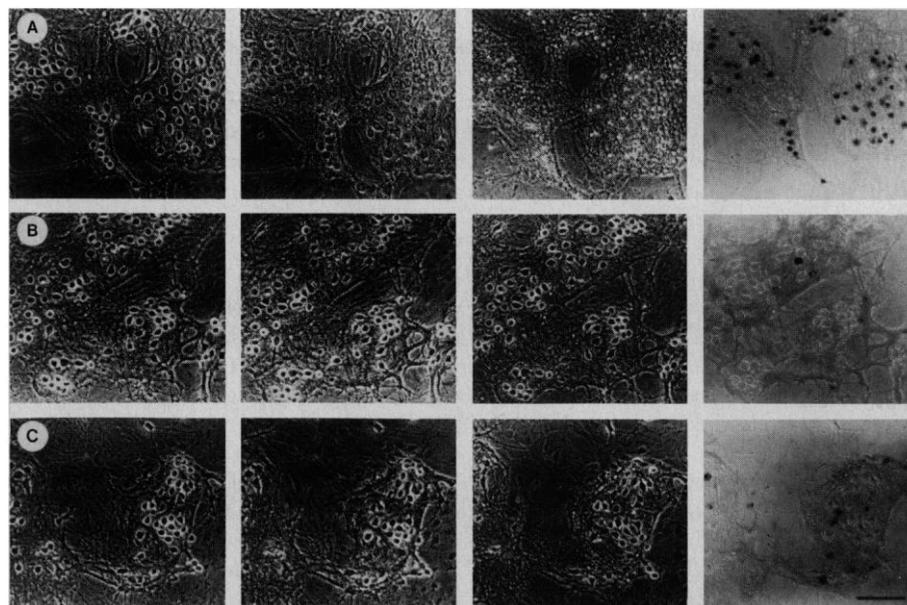


Fig. 2. Effect of bicarbonate on BMAA neurotoxicity. Photomicrographs (\times 100) from three sister cultures (A, B, and C) are shown before (left column), during (left center), and 20 hours after (right center) onset of a 1.5-hour exposure to 3 mM BMAA in HSS at room temperature; rightmost column shows same as right center after incubation in 0.5% Trypan blue for 5 min. After exposure to BMAA in HSS for 30 min, none of the cultures exhibited morphological changes compared with baseline. At that time, a small (<10 μ l) aliquot of desired test compounds was added to each culture, and 5 min later the "during" (left center column) micrographs were taken. After 55 more minutes, the exposure solutions were washed out, media (lacking serum) were replaced, and the cultures were returned to the 37°C incubator overnight, until the right center and rightmost micrographs were obtained. The following test compounds were added during BMAA exposure: (A) NaHCO₃ to a final concentration of 20 mM; (B) NaCl to a final concentration of 20 mM, plus enough NaOH to roughly mimic the alkalinizing effect of the HCO₃⁻ added in (A); and (C) NaHCO₃ to 20 mM plus APV to 500 μ M. Control experiments demonstrated that addition of 20 mM HCO₃⁻ to HSS acutely increased pH to about 7.7; over the next hour of exposure in room air, pH drifted upward to about 8.0. To control for this alkalinization, in (B) NaOH was added to raise pH to 7.7 initially (at the time of NaCl addition), and then another portion of NaOH was added 30 min later to further raise pH to 8.0. Photomicrographs were taken with phase-contrast optics, except for the Trypan blue staining, which was taken with bright-field optics. Bar, 50 μ m.

NaHCO₃, neuronal soma became abruptly swollen, granular, and phase-dark (Fig. 2A); continued joint BMAA-HCO₃⁻ exposure for 1 hour was followed by the usual widespread neuronal degeneration over the next 20 hours (Fig. 2A). This acute effect of HCO₃⁻ was not mimicked by addition of 20 mM NaCl (and enough base to match the alkalinizing effect of 20 mM HCO₃⁻) (Fig. 2B), and could be blocked by the NMDA antagonist 2-amino-5-phosphonovaleate (APV) (Fig. 2C).

We also investigated the effect of HCO₃⁻ on BMAA responses electrophysiologically. Neurons were penetrated with microelectrodes filled with potassium acetate (4M) (resistance, 50 to 80 megohms), and current pulses were passed through the recording electrode through a bridge circuit. Pressure ejection of either 3 mM BMAA (seven cells) or 20 mM NaHCO₃ (three cells) in Hepes-buffered recording medium produced little or no change in membrane potential or conductance (Fig. 3A). However, when 3 mM BMAA was applied together with 20 mM NaHCO₃ (in the same micropipette), a rapid membrane response occurred consisting of depolarization and increased membrane conductance. This response could be reversibly attenuated by immediate prior ejection of the glutamate antagonist kynurenate at 2 mM (three cells) (Fig. 3B).

These observations document a unique dependence of the neurotoxic effects of BMAA on physiological concentrations of extracellular HCO₃⁻. In the presence of HCO₃⁻, low millimolar concentrations of BMAA produced acute swelling and substantial late degeneration of cortical neurons

in cell culture, an effect consistent with the weak toxicity observed with BMAA in motor cortex explants bathed in a HCO₃⁻-containing culture medium (7). In both systems, BMAA-HCO₃⁻ neurotoxicity could be substantially attenuated by selective NMDA antagonists, suggesting important mediation by NMDA receptors. However, in the absence of extracellular HCO₃⁻, the neurotoxicity of BMAA was abolished.

The interaction between BMAA and HCO₃⁻ was highly specific to BMAA, and hence unlikely to represent a direct effect of HCO₃⁻ on postsynaptic glutamate receptors or on neuronal viability in general. None of the other excitatory amino acid compounds we have studied, including BOAA and NMDA, required the presence of HCO₃⁻ to produce neuronal injury.

The interaction between BMAA and HCO₃⁻ cannot be explained by an ability of HCO₃⁻ to reduce the cellular uptake or metabolism of BMAA. BMAA incubated in cultures without HCO₃⁻ was not toxic, but was fully available for subsequent rapid activation by addition of HCO₃⁻. This interaction was not restricted to the toxic effects of BMAA, but also extended to its neuroexcitatory effects, suggesting that HCO₃⁻ was required to allow BMAA to open glutamate receptor-linked membrane conductances. The interaction was also fast; HCO₃⁻ could unmask BMAA neuroexcitation within a fraction of a second when applied directly onto a neuron in cell culture, a result that argues against involvement of indirect metabolites.

The simplest explanation consistent with these observations is that HCO₃⁻ interacts

directly with BMAA to produce a structure suitable for glutamate receptor activation. Structure-activity analysis of NMDA agonists suggests a three-point association between agonist and receptor, with the agonist usually presenting a positively charged amino group, an α -carboxylate group, and an ω -acidic group (11). A noncovalent interaction between the positively charged β -amino group of BMAA and HCO₃⁻ could act both to negate the positive charge of the group and to add a moiety that approximates the ω -acidic group of other glutamate agonists (Fig. 4). Some precedent for this proposal exists; the γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA)-mimetic activity of ethylenediamine also requires the presence of HCO₃⁻ (12). Ethylenediamine is structurally similar to GABA but has a second amino group instead of a carboxylic acid group on one end of the molecule. Bicarbonate could associate with that amino group and simulate the existence of a carboxylic acid group.

The finding that HCO₃⁻ is required for BMAA neurotoxicity may be important for understanding the pathogenesis of Guam ALS-PD and could provide insights into the pathogenesis of the sporadic forms of ALS, Parkinson's disease, or Alzheimer's disease. In addition, the receptor "cofactor" principle delineated here could have far-reaching implications, perhaps suggesting that other compounds, which by themselves are not structurally recognizable as glutamate agonists, can produce neuronal injury.

Fig. 3. BMAA neuroexcitation also requires bicarbonate. Cultures were bathed in a recording medium consisting of HSS modified by augmenting Ca²⁺ (3.6 mM), removing Mg²⁺, and adding 1 μ M tetrodotoxin; Mg²⁺ was removed to facilitate detection of NMDA receptor-mediated neuroexcitation; tetrodotoxin was added to abolish spontaneous synaptic activity. Recordings were performed at room temperature, and drugs were applied by pressure ejection with recording medium as the carrier. (A) The solid triangles indicate the application of 2-s pressure ejection pulses of 3 mM BMAA plus 20 mM NaHCO₃, open triangles indicate 3-s pulses of BMAA plus 20 mM extra NaCl, and arrows indicate 3-s pulses of 20 mM NaHCO₃ alone. Cell resting potential was -60 mV, and injected current pulses were 0.11 nA. (B) Pressure ejection of 2 mM kynurenate (Kyn) markedly attenuated the subsequent response to 2-s pulses of 3 mM BMAA plus 20 mM NaHCO₃ (solid triangles). Resting potential was -60 mV, and current pulses were 0.09 nA.

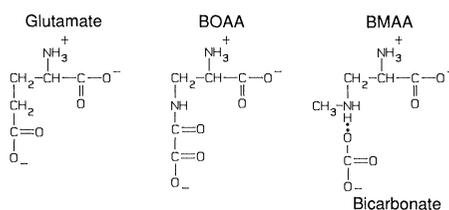
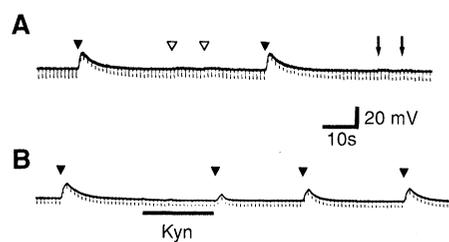


Fig. 4. A noncovalent interaction of BMAA and bicarbonate may simulate a glutamate agonist.

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