

dosage is important because an increase in the dose limits the adjuvant effect (18). The amounts of NAGO that produced optimal adjuvant effects ( $\sim 5 \mu\text{g}$  of GO,  $< 50 \text{ ng}$  of NA) are likely to be substantially less than natural exposure to ubiquitous microbial enzymes. Antibodies reacting with NA and GO were detectable in normal mouse serum. Anti-NA titers were unchanged after single NAGO use, whereas anti-GO titers were increased fivefold.

Because galactose oxidation does not compete in the conventional adjuvant pathways, it might be used in combination with conventional adjuvants and vehicles. It was not compatible with alum but showed good synergy with muramyl dipeptide (19) in mice (20). On its own, galactose oxidation was particularly potent in inducing  $T_H$  cell priming and T cell cytotoxicity and seems well suited to prophylactic applications where such responses are important (15, 21–28). Such use depends, of course, on the sustained absence of adverse reactions, and in this respect the absence of adverse reactions in mice looks promising.

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8. Neuraminidase (E.C. 3.2.1.18) was from *Vibrio cholerae* (25 U per microgram of protein, BDH Poole, Dorset, United Kingdom). Galactose oxidase (E.C. 1.1.3.9) was from *Dactylium dendroides* (800 U per milligram of protein, Sigma). Standard adjuvant doses were as follows: NAGO: 1 U of NA plus 5 U of GO in 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing Ag (mixed immediately before injection); FCA (Difco): 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of Ag solution emulsified in 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of FCA; saponin (Quil A, Superfos, Denmark): 50  $\mu\text{g}$  in 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of PBS containing Ag; alum (Wellcome, Beckenham, United Kingdom): 100  $\mu\text{g}$  in 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of PBS containing Ag. Heat inactivation of NAGO completely abrogated the adjuvant effect. Excess  $\alpha$ -galactose was inhibitory. GO responses were 50 to 70% of NAGO responses.
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## Calcium Entry Through Kainate Receptors and Resulting Potassium-Channel Blockade in Bergmann Glial Cells

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Glutamate receptors, the most abundant excitatory transmitter receptors in the brain, are not restricted to neurons; they have also been detected on glial cells. Bergmann glial cells in mouse cerebellar slices revealed a kainate-type glutamate receptor with a sigmoid current-to-voltage relation, as demonstrated with the patch-clamp technique. Calcium was imaged with fura-2, and a kainate-induced increase in intracellular calcium concentration was observed, which was blocked by the non-*N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) glutamate receptor antagonist 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX) and by low concentrations of external calcium, indicating that there was an influx of calcium through the kainate receptor itself. The entry of calcium led to a marked reduction in the resting (passive) potassium conductance of the cell. Purkinje cells, which have glutamatergic synapses, are closely associated with Bergmann glial cells and therefore may provide a functionally important stimulus.

During the development of the cerebellum, Bergmann glial cells provide the guiding structures for the migrating granule cells (1). In contrast, little is known about their function in the adult animal despite the fact that their complex architecture and intimate contacts with the Purkinje cells suggest an interaction between these two cell types. Recent studies have challenged the view of the glial cells as electrically passive elements in the brain by demonstrating the presence of many transmitter receptors, including those for glutamate (2). In situ hybridization studies indicate the expression of kainate-binding proteins on Bergmann glial cells (3). Although the subunits of the  $\alpha$ -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionate (AMPA)-kainate receptor channel GluR-A and GluR-D are expressed in these cells, the ubiquitous GluR-B sub-

unit was not found (4). Recombinant GluR-A and GluR-D receptors exhibit a behavior distinct from other kainate receptors; namely, they have a doubly rectifying current-voltage (*I*-*V*) relation and high  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  permeability (4).

We have used isolated slices of the mouse cerebellum to analyze membrane properties of Bergmann glial cells in situ with the patch-clamp technique (5) and with a fura-2-based  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  imaging system (6). The Bergmann glial cell somata were recognized by their location in the Purkinje cell layer and by their small diameter (5 to 10  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Filling the cells with the fluorescent dyes Lucifer yellow (7) or fura-2 revealed the typical morphology of Bergmann glial cells: two to six processes extended through the molecular layer and terminated at the pia with the formation of glial end feet (Fig. 1, A and B). Eleven of the cells injected with Lucifer yellow were positively stained for glial fibrillary acidic protein, identifying them as astrocyte-like cells (Fig. 1C) (8).

Patch-clamp recordings demonstrated that the membrane was characterized by a large  $\text{K}^+$  conductance with no sign of voltage- or time-dependent gating (Fig. 1D). Currents were observed with depolarizing and hyperpolarizing voltage steps, and the

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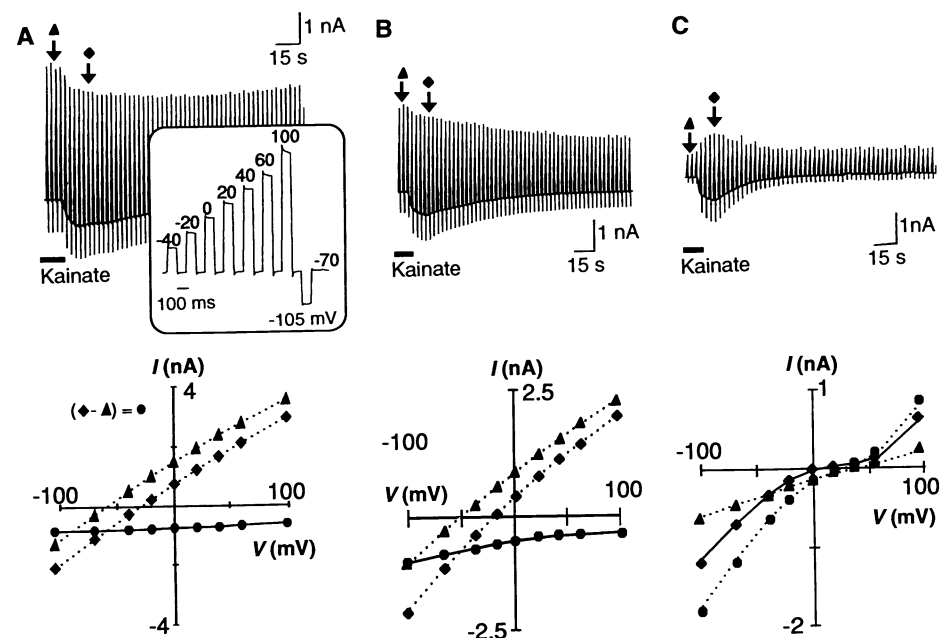
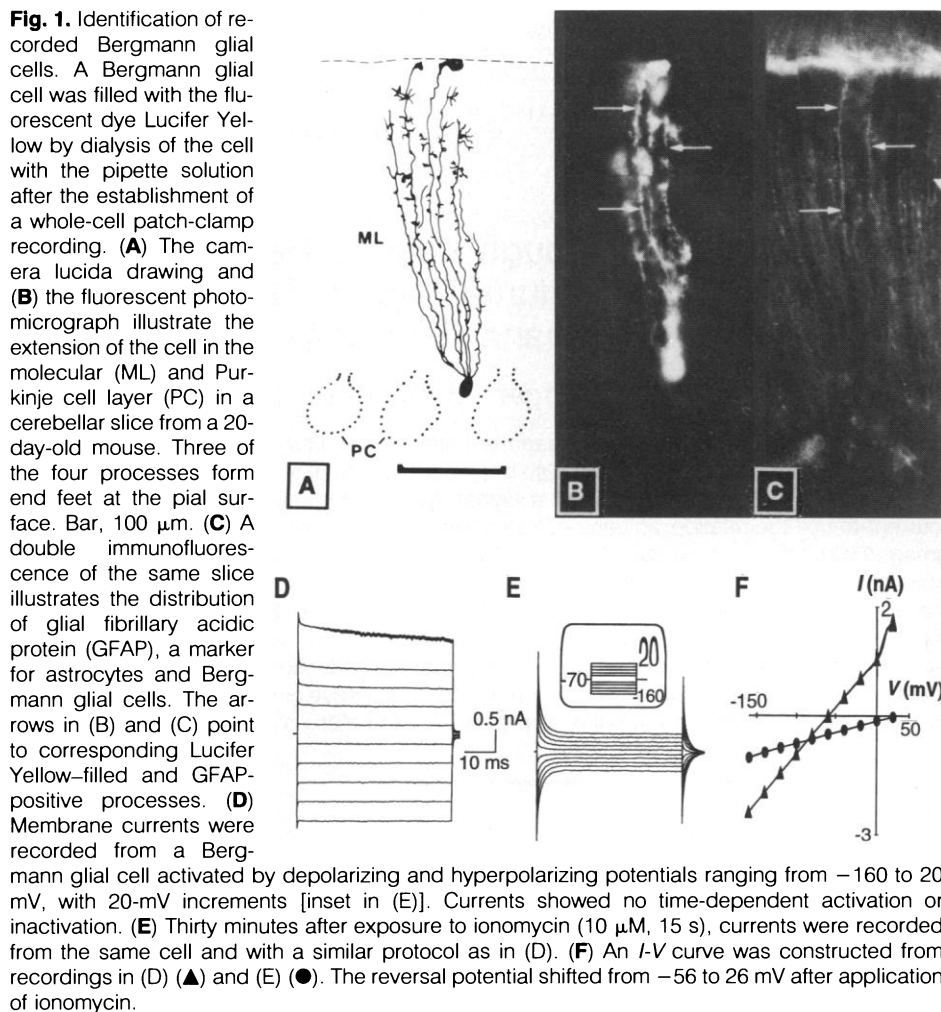
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*I*-*V* relation was linear (Fig. 1F). As expected for a  $K^+$ -selective conductance, the reversal potential of these currents followed

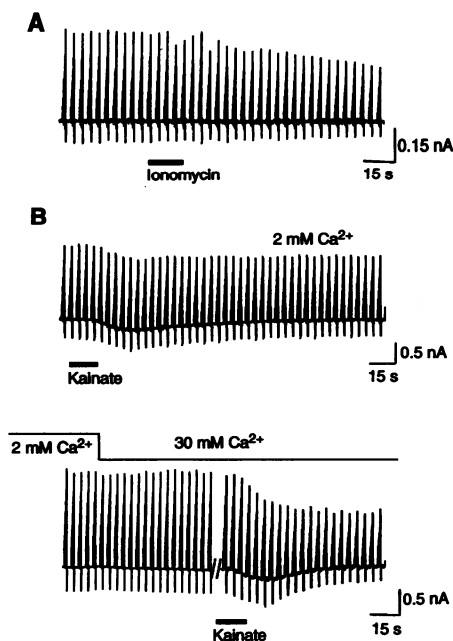
the  $K^+$  gradient; when the extracellular  $K^+$  concentration was increased from 5 to 25 mM, the reversal potential shifted from

−80 to −40 mV. The membrane potential measured after establishing the whole-cell recording configuration was between −60 and −70 mV ( $n = 50$ ) and thus was close to the  $K^+$  equilibrium potential. Although the  $K^+$ -channel blockers  $Ba^{2+}$  (10 mM in the bathing solution),  $Cs^+$  (130 mM in the pipette solution), and apamin ( $10^{-9}$  M in the bathing solution) were not effective or were only slightly effective in reducing these passive currents, they were markedly blocked when cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$  was increased by adding the  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore ionomycin (Figs. 1E, 2B, and 3A). The effectiveness of ionomycin varied among cells. In some cells 80% of the current was blocked after 3 min; in others a 50% blockade was observed after 30 min.

Glutamate ( $n = 5$ ;  $10^{-3}$  M; range, 20 to 174 pA) and kainate ( $n = 50$ ;  $10^{-3}$  M; range, 71 to 1574 pA) induced an inward current in Bergmann glial cells. We determined the reversal potential of the kainate-induced current while the resting  $K^+$  conductance was blocked by exposing the slice for 30 min to ionomycin. The membrane was clamped from a resting value of −70 mV to −40, −20, 0, 20, 40, 60, 100, and −105 mV for 100-ms durations separated by 100-ms intervals. This clamp protocol was repetitively used (every 2 s) before, during, and after addition of kainate (Fig. 2). The kainate-induced currents were obtained by subtracting currents at a specific membrane potential in the presence of kainate from those recorded before the application of kainate. The resulting *I*-*V* relation was sigmoidal; that is, it was outwardly rectifying at positive potentials and inwardly rectifying at negative potentials (Fig. 2C), similar to that described for the recombinant GluR-A–GluR-D receptor (4). The kainate-induced currents reversed



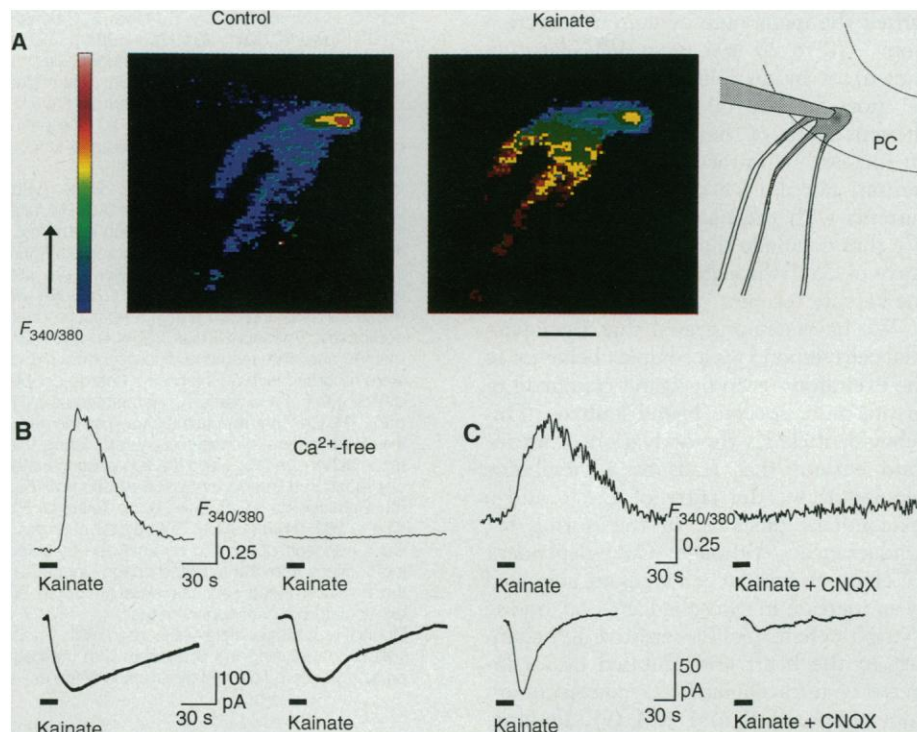
**Fig. 2.** Effect of kainate on membrane currents. (A) Membrane currents were recorded from a Bergmann glial cell before, during, and after application of kainate ( $10^{-3}$  M). Holding potential, −70 mV. With a voltage-clamp protocol, the membrane was depolarized or hyperpolarized for 100-ms intervals to −40, −20, 0, 20, 40, 60, 100, and −105 mV (inset). With this voltage-clamp protocol, *I*-*V* curves were constructed at 2-s intervals. Three *I*-*V* curves were averaged before (▲) and at the peak of the kainate response (◆) and are displayed at the bottom. The kainate-induced current was obtained by subtracting the current before from that at the peak of the kainate response (●). There is no apparent kainate-induced conductance increase. (B) A recording protocol similar to that in (A) was obtained from the same cell 5 min after application of the  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore ionomycin ( $10 \mu M$ , 15 s). (C) Current and *I*-*V* curve 40 min after application of ionomycin. The membrane conductance was 18% of its original value.



**Fig. 3.** (A) Effect of ionomycin on resting currents. Membrane currents were recorded as described in Fig. 2 while the membrane was clamped to depolarizing and hyperpolarizing values from a resting value of  $-70$  mV. Ionomycin ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ , 15 s) was applied (bar). (B) Kainate-induced currents in different extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations. With a similar recording protocol as in (A), kainate ( $10^{-3}$  M) was applied in bathing solution containing normal extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (2 mM, upper trace). Extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was then increased to 30 mM (lower trace). The recording was interrupted for 5 min as indicated by the parallel bars.

at 0 mV (Fig. 2C) ( $n = 5$ ; range,  $-15$  to  $5$  mV).

A different type of result was obtained when the resting  $\text{K}^+$  current was present: kainate also induced an inward current, but the conductance significantly decreased after application of kainate, and it was not possible to determine a clear reversal potential of the kainate-induced current (Fig. 2A). In some cases the conductance decrease was not fully reversible, and, with repetitive applications of kainate, the membrane conductance decreased in discrete steps to values similar to those observed after a exposure to ionomycin. Under such conditions, a reversal potential of the kainate-induced current could again be determined, which was then close to 0 mV. Figure 2 illustrates the changes in the membrane conductance and kainate-induced currents; in addition, ionomycin was added at a defined time. At  $-70$  mV, kainate always induced an inward current of similar amplitude. However, the voltage jumps to depolarizing potentials revealed a marked reduction of the membrane conductance after the first application of kainate that was only partially reversible. After 40 min of



**Fig. 4.** (A) Kainate-induced changes in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . A Bergmann glial cell was filled with fura-2 by dialysis with the patch pipette solution. The bar on the left indicates the change in the fluorescence ratio ( $F_{340/380}$ ) (colors on the bottom indicate low  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations). The diagram on the right outlines the extension of the Bergmann glial cell with the pipette still attached on the soma. Three processes can be distinguished. Bar,  $20 \mu\text{m}$ . The color-coded pictures illustrate the increase in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration during application of kainate (1 mM, middle) as compared to the control before (left). In the presence of kainate, the tips of the processes disappear because of saturation of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  imaging system. (B) Effect of low extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration. From a series of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  images as described in (A), continuous traces of changes in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration were constructed by averaging the changes in the cell processes. (Top) Application of kainate leads to an increase in the fluorescence ratio, indicative of an increase in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration ( $F_{340/380}$ ) (left trace). In the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free bathing solution, the kainate-induced change in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration is blocked (right trace). (Bottom) The current recordings were obtained simultaneously with the patch-clamp technique. The kainate-induced inward current was not blocked in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free bathing solution. (C) Effect of CNQX. As described in (B), the effect of the kainate receptor antagonist CNQX ( $45 \mu\text{M}$ ) was analyzed. The current and intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration recordings were obtained from two different cells.

exposure to ionomycin, the resting membrane conductance was decreased to 18% of its initial value and the kainate-induced current reversed at 0 mV. This result can be explained by the entry of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  via the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ionophore and a resulting blockade of the resting  $\text{K}^+$  conductance by the increased intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration. To further strengthen this hypothesis, we increased the extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration from 2 to 30 mM (Fig. 3B). The resting  $\text{K}^+$  conductance was not affected by this increase until kainate was applied; then the conductance substantially decreased and did not recover (Fig. 3B) (mean decrease, 42.4%;  $n = 5$ ). These results suggested that kainate triggers an influx of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , as described for the recombinant GluR-A–GluR-D receptor (4).

To record the changes in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration, we used a fura-2-

based imaging system. Bergmann glial cells were voltage-clamped with the patch-clamp method and filled with fura-2 by dialysis of the cell from the patch pipette. The cells, including their processes, were filled within 10 to 40 min (Fig. 4A). We were thus able to simultaneously record membrane currents and changes in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration. Application of kainate induced an increase in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration ( $n = 10$ ) (Fig. 4A). This increase was reversibly blocked in the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -free bathing solution, indicating an influx of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the extracellular space, whereas the kainate-induced inward current was still observed ( $n = 3$ ) (Fig. 4B). Application of  $45 \mu\text{M}$  6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX) blocked both the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry and the membrane current ( $n = 5$ ) (Fig. 4C). To exclude participation of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels, we depo-

larized the membrane by current injection from  $-70$  to  $20$  mV ( $n = 10$ ) (data not shown) or by an increase of extracellular  $K^+$  from  $5$  to  $50$  mM ( $n = 3$ ) (data not shown). None of these experiments led to an increase in intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration, nor did we observe  $Ca^{2+}$  inward currents with the patch-clamp technique. We thus conclude that kainate triggers the entry of  $Ca^{2+}$  through the intrinsic pore of the kainate receptor channel.

We have demonstrated that Bergmann glial cells respond with complex behavior to the excitatory receptor ligand glutamate or to the more specific ligand kainate. This behavior includes the activation of an inward current that leads to a membrane depolarization, the entry of  $Ca^{2+}$ , and a concomitant blockade of the resting  $K^+$  conductance. Although  $Ca^{2+}$ -dependent  $K^+$  channels in most cell types are activated by an increase in cytosolic  $Ca^{2+}$ , adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP)-sensitive  $K^+$  channels in the heart are inhibited by an increase of intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration from nominally  $0$  to  $1$   $\mu$ M (9). Purkinje cells receive glutamatergic input, and the Bergmann glial cells are in intimate contact with these synaptic areas (10); excitation of the Purkinje cells may simultaneously trigger a cascade of events in the adjacent Bergmann glial cells. Such events could occur locally but also propagate along the cell. The functional consequences of the glial response are not known. However, the approach of assessing Bergmann glial cells in situ helps to elucidate such neuron-glia interactions.

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5. Young mice (postnatal day 17 to 22) were killed by decapitation, and  $120\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -thick slices were cut from the cerebellum. Slices were placed on a cover slip under a nylon mesh in a recording chamber [F. Edwards, A. Konnerth, B. Sakmann, T. Takahashi, *Pfluegers Arch.* **414**, 600 (1989)]. Slices were viable under these conditions for more than 3 hours. The chamber was continuously perfused with a salt solution containing  $150$  mM NaCl,  $5.4$  mM KCl,  $2$  mM  $CaCl_2$ ,  $1$  mM  $MgCl_2$ ,  $5$  mM Hepes, and  $10$  mM glucose and gassed with  $O_2$ . The pH was adjusted with NaOH to  $7.2$ . Cell somata of the Bergmann glial cells were visible in normal water-immersion optics and could be approached by the patch electrode (pipette resistance  $\sim 10$  megohms). The pipette contained  $130$  mM KCl,  $0.5$  mM  $CaCl_2$ ,  $5$  mM EGTA,  $2$  mM  $MgCl_2$ ,  $10$  mM Hepes, and, except for fura-2 experiments, Lucifer yellow  $1$  mg/ml. Membrane currents were measured with the patch-clamp technique in the whole-cell recording configura-

tion [O. P. Hamill, A. Marty, E. Neher, B. Sakmann, F. J. Sigworth, *ibid.* **391**, 85 (1981)]. Current signals were amplified with conventional electronics (EPC-7 amplifier, List Electronics, Darmstadt, Germany), filtered at  $3$  kHz, and sampled at  $5$  kHz by an interface connected to an AT-compatible computer system, which also served as a stimulus generator.

6. Individual Bergmann glial cells were patch-clamped with pipettes containing  $200$   $\mu$ M fura-2 in the tip and normal pipette solution in the rest of the pipette. In the whole-cell recording configuration, cells including their processes were filled with fura-2 within  $10$  to  $40$  min. The dye was excited at  $340$  and  $380$  nm with epifluorescence equipment (Axioplan Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany), and the resulting fluorescence signals were recorded with an intensified charge-coupled device camera (Hamamatsu, Hamamatsu City, Japan). The  $Ca^{2+}$  transients are shown as the ratio of the fluorescence intensity measured during excitation at  $340$  nm ( $F_{340}$ ) and the fluorescence intensity measured during excitation at  $380$  nm ( $F_{380}$ ) [G. Grynkiewicz, M. Poenie, R. Y. Tsien, *J. Biol. Chem.* **260**, 3440 (1985)]. Subcellular changes in  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration could be analyzed by selecting sections from the digitized image signals, and the pixels in these sections were averaged and extrapolated to continuous traces.
7. During recording, cells were filled with Lucifer yellow by dialyzing the cytoplasm with the patch pipette solution. To avoid destruction of the cell as

the pipette was pulled off after recording, we destroyed the seal with a large hyperpolarizing current injection. After recording, slices were fixed for  $3$  to  $5$  hours at room temperature in  $4\%$  paraformaldehyde and  $0.25\%$  glutaraldehyde in  $0.1$  M phosphate buffer (pH  $7.2$ ). Slices were then transferred to phosphate buffer. Lucifer yellow-filled cells were examined in a microscope equipped with the appropriate filter combination (band pass,  $400$  to  $440$  nm; mirror,  $460$  nm; long pass,  $470$  nm).

8. After electrophysiology, slices were stained for glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) by indirect immunofluorescence. Incubation with antibodies to GFAP ( $5$   $\mu$ g/ml diluted in  $0.5\%$  Triton X-100 in phosphate buffer, clone G-A-5) [E. Debus, U. Weber, M. Osborne, *Differentiation* **25**, 193 (1983)] was carried out overnight. Staining was visualized with goat antibody to mouse immunoglobulin. Slices were mounted with buffered glycerol.
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## Calcium-Permeable AMPA-Kainate Receptors in Fusiform Cerebellar Glial Cells

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Glutamate-operated ion channels (GluR channels) of the L- $\alpha$ -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA)-kainate subtype are found in both neurons and glial cells of the central nervous system. These channels are assembled from the GluR-A, -B, -C, and -D subunits; channels containing a GluR-B subunit show an outwardly rectifying current-voltage relation and low calcium permeability, whereas channels lacking the GluR-B subunit are characterized by a doubly rectifying current-voltage relation and high calcium permeability. Most cell types in the central nervous system coexpress several subunits, including GluR-B. However, Bergmann glia in rat cerebellum do not express GluR-B subunit genes. In a subset of cultured cerebellar glial cells, likely derived from Bergmann glial cells, GluR channels exhibit doubly rectifying current-voltage relations and high calcium permeability, whereas GluR channels of cerebellar neurons have low calcium permeability. Thus, differential expression of the GluR-B subunit gene in neurons and glia is one mechanism by which functional properties of native GluR channels are regulated.

Glutamate-operated channels are present in both neurons and glial cells. In most types of neurons (1) and in astrocytes (2, 3), the GluR channels of the AMPA-kainate type are characterized by outwardly rectifying steady-state current-voltage ( $I$ - $V$ ) relations and low divalent-cation perme-

ability. In recombinant GluR channels, transiently expressed in a mammalian cell line or in amphibian oocytes, both properties have been traced to the presence of an arginine residue in the putative TM2 transmembrane segment of the GluR-B subunit. Recombinant GluR channels containing a GluR-B (GluR-2) subunit show an outwardly rectifying  $I$ - $V$  relation and a low permeability ratio  $P_{Ca}/P_{Cs}$ , whereas channels lacking a GluR-B subunit are characterized by a doubly rectifying  $I$ - $V$  relation and a high permeability ratio  $P_{Ca}/P_{Cs}$  (4). In accordance with the finding that native GluR channels in most neurons and glial cell types show outward rectification and

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