# Organolead Toxicity in Plants: Triethyl Lead (Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>) Acts as a Powerful Transmembrane Cl<sup>-</sup>/OH<sup>-</sup> Exchanger Dissipating H<sup>+</sup>-Gradients at Nano-Molar Levels

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Z. Naturforsch. 42c, 1116-1120 (1987); received June 24, 1987

Triethyl Lead (Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>)-Toxicity, H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase (Tonoplast), Anion Antiporter, Elongation Growth, Zea mays

Triethyl lead  $(Et_3Pb^+)$ , a highly toxic oxidation product of the anti-knock agent tetraethyl lead  $(Et_4Pb)$  was shown to act as anion  $(Cl^-/OH^-)$  antiporter in plant membranes, dissipating energy-dependent ion gradients, membrane potentials, and consequently turgor. This mechanism was demonstrated with tonoplast-type vesicles isolated from coleoptiles of *Zea mays L*. The ATP-driven  $H^+$  accumulation within those vesicles was abolished already at nano-molar levels of  $Et_3Pb^+$ , but only in the presence of  $Cl^-$ .

In intact cells the turgor dependent indole-3-acetic acid induced elongation growth of coleoptile segments of *Avena sativa L*. was inhibited by  $Et_3Pb^+$  at micro-molar levels and after a lag of 15-20 min. This lag might be due to a slow penetration of the agent through the waxy cuticle and the cell wall.

## Introduction

Tetraethyl lead (Et<sub>4</sub>Pb) is used as anti-knock agent in motor fuel. Its degradation product triethyl lead (Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>) is toxic to cells of mammalian origin [1–5] as well as of algae and higher plants [3, 6-9]. Recently, triethyl lead was suggested to be one of the factors causing progressive damage of European forests [10-12] (but see [13]). The toxic effect of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> to cells was attributed to an inhibition of microtubule assembly [2, 3, 5]. In in vitro experiments it has been found that  $Et_3Pb^+$  (>1 µM) interacts with thiol groups present in tubulin dimers. As a result tubulin looses its capability for microtubule assembly [4]. In the present study, evidence will be given that in plant cells, demonstrated with isolated vacuolar vesicles from Zea mays L., Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> also acts as a potent trans-membrane Cl-/OH- exchanger. Thereby it dissipates ion gradients at nano-molar concentrations, i.e., a range which is 1000-fold lower than that affecting microtubules [4].

## Materials and Methods

The preparation of microsomal and tonoplast vesicles from coleoptiles of  $Zea\ mays\ L.$ , and the separa-

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Verlag der Zeitschrift für Naturforschung, D-7400 Tübingen 0341-0382/87/0900-1116 \$ 01.30/0

tion of membrane fractions by density gradient centrifugation was performed according to [18, 21]. The ATP-dependent intravesicular acidification of tonoplast-type vesicles was demonstrated with a dual wavelength method and neutral red (40 µM) as pH indicator [15, 19, 21]. Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> and Et<sub>4</sub>Pb were purchased from Ventron, Karlsruhe, FRG.

### Results and Discussion

The energy-dependent transport of ions and solutes into the vacuole of a plant cell (necessary for the formation of turgor) can be studied by using isolated vacuoles or membrane vesicles derived from the tonoplast (reviewed in [14]). The primary driving force for the accumulation of osmotic compounds within the vacuole or vacuolar vesicles was shown to be an ATP-dependent H<sup>+</sup>-pump [15]. A second, pyrophosphate-driven H<sup>+</sup>-pump localized at the tonoplast was demonstrated only recently [16–18]. The transport of H<sup>+</sup> strictly depends on a cotransport with Cl<sup>-</sup> [18-20] or organic anions, such as malate [21], whereas the uptake of the osmotically important K<sup>+</sup> ion occurs via a K<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchange mechanism [18, 21, 22]. Furthermore, in some cases the active H<sup>+</sup> transport is responsible for the uptake of sugars, metabolites, and natural products [23], thereby increasing the osmotic potential of the cell sap.

Fig. 1 depicts the ATP-driven uptake of H<sup>+</sup> ions into tonoplast vesicles of coleoptiles of Zea mays.

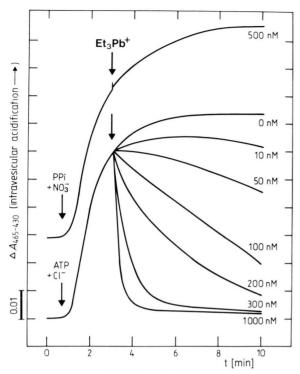


Fig. 1. Inhibition by  $\mathrm{Et_3Pb^+}$  of the ATP-driven intravesicular acidification of tonoplast vesicles from coleoptiles of *Zea mays* in the presence of 50 mm KCl. In the presence of  $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$  (instead of  $\mathrm{Cl}^-$ ) the pyrophosphate(PPi)-driven acidification (which is  $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$  insensitive in contrast to the  $\mathrm{H^+}\text{-}\mathrm{ATPase}$  [18]) is not abolished by  $\mathrm{Et_3Pb^+}$ .

Under the given experimental conditions Cl is cotransported with the H<sup>+</sup> [18, 19]. Addition of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> at various concentrations caused an immediate destruction of the H<sup>+</sup> gradient. Even in the low concentration range of 10 nm the toxin stopped the ATPdependent accumulation of protons immediately and a decrease of the H+ concentration was initiated. A prerequisite for this drastic effect of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> is the presence of Cl<sup>-</sup>. As shown in Fig. 2 the intravesicular acidification occurring in the presence of the anion fumarate was not inhibited by Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>. Addition of Cl<sup>-</sup> at the 3<sup>rd</sup> minute increases the H<sup>+</sup> transport rate in the absence of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>. In its presence, however, Cl<sup>-</sup> induced a decrease of the H<sup>+</sup> concentration within the vesicles. This effect can best be explained by the assumption that the Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> cation solubilized within the membrane is acting as a powerful Cl<sup>-</sup>/ OH exchanger (Fig. 5). The disappearence of accumulated protons can only occur if Cl- ions transported into the vesicles are exchanged by OH- from the medium, neutralizing the protons within the vesicles. Organic acids, such as fumarate, can not be exchanged for OH<sup>-</sup> via Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> (Fig. 2). A further indication for Cl-/OH- antiporter properties of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> is the fact that if Cl<sup>-</sup> is substituted by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> the intravesicular acidification of tonoplast vesicles which is driven by the pyrophosphate (PPi)-dependent H<sup>+</sup>-pump (insensitive to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in contrast to the

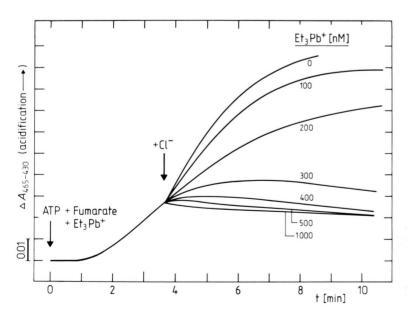


Fig. 2. ATP-driven intravesicular acidification of tonoplast vesicles in the presence of  $Et_3Pb^+$ . Initially fumarate was the anion, cotransported with the proton. Addition of  $Cl^-$  after the third minute enhances the  $H^+$  uptake, but in the presence of  $Et_3Pb^+$   $Cl^-$  decreases the  $H^+$  accumulation.

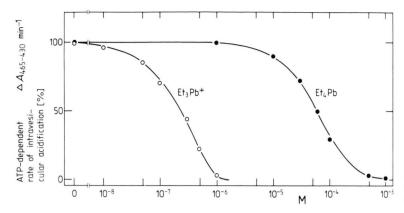


Fig. 3. Initial rate of the ATP-dependent intravesicular acidification of tonoplast-type vesicles in the presence of various concentrations of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> and Et<sub>4</sub>Pb.

ATP-driven H<sup>+</sup>-pump; see Fig. 5) could not be inhibited by the toxin (Fig. 1).

The functioning of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> as Cl<sup>-</sup>/OH<sup>-</sup> antiporter corresponds with similar mechanisms reported for triethyl-, tripropyl- or triphenyltin [24, 25].

It should be mentioned that in concentrations higher than 1 µm an additional inhibitory effect of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> was observed. The tonoplast-type H<sup>+</sup>-pump activity depends on regulatory thiol groups on the enzyme [21]. SH-blocking agents, such as p-hydroxymercuribenzoate, or an oxidation of these sulfhydryl groups to disulfides, e.g., by blue light or by  $H_2O_2$ , inactivated the enzyme reversibly; a rereduction by GSH restores the activity [21, 26]. Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> interacts with these thiols of the H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase at concentrations comparable with those employed for the inhibition of microtubule assembly [4]. But this SH-blocking effect might not be of importance under in vivo conditions because Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup>, acting as Cl<sup>-</sup>/OH<sup>-</sup> exchanger, already disturbs cell metabolism in a much lower, nano-molar concentration range.

A comparison of the effects of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> and Et<sub>4</sub>Pb on the ATP-dependent rates of the acidification of tonoplast vesicles (Fig. 3) shows that the oxidized charged molecule is 1000-fold more effective in abolishing the proton accumulation within tonoplast vesicles than Et<sub>4</sub>Pb. The relatively small inhibitory effect of Et<sub>4</sub>Pb may probably be caused by contamination with Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> molecules, which are permanently formed in small amounts by oxidation from Et<sub>4</sub>Pb.

The strong inhibitory effect of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> on the accumulation of ions within vacuolar vesicles should result in an immediate collapse of turgor of the intact cell. However, in experiments with coleoptiles auxininduced elongation growth, which depends on a suf-

ficient osmolarity of the cell sap, was inhibited only slowly and at higher concentrations of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> only (Fig. 4). This retarded effect of the toxin could be due to absorption (cuticle; cell wall) and, consequently, a poor penetration into the cytoplasm.

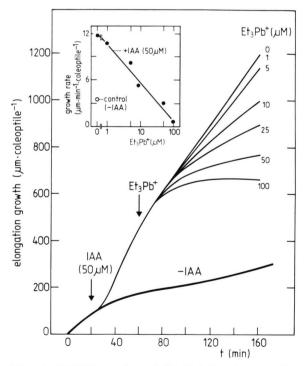


Fig. 4. Inhibition of auxin(IAA)-induced elongation growth of *Avena* coleoptile segments (1 cm in length) by various concentrations of  $Et_3Pb^+$ . Insert: Rate of elongation growth of coleoptile segments 3 h after addition of IAA (50  $\mu$ M) and  $Et_3Pb^+$  (various concentrations). IAA = Indole-3-acetic acid. Method see [28].

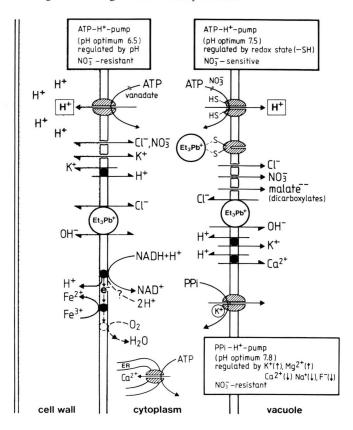


Fig. 5. Schematic presentation of the primary and secondary energized ion transport mechanisms in a plant cell as demonstrated in [18] and other recent publications [21, 26–29; 14, 30], and the sites of  $\rm Et_3Pb^+$  action as  $\rm Cl^-/OH^-$  antiporter and SH-blocker, effective in nmolar and µmolar concentrations, respectively.

Therefore, the disappearence of the toxin from a solution containing fresh needles of conifers [10] can not give evidence to what degree cellular processes will be inhibited.

The effects of Et<sub>3</sub>Pb<sup>+</sup> on plant cells by acting as an anion antiporter and a thiol blocker of the tonoplast-type H<sup>+</sup>-pump are summarized in Fig. 5. The experi-

mental basis of this scheme is provided in some recent publications [18 and 15, 19, 21, 26–29; 14, 30].

# Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Prof. R. Hampp for critical reading of the manuscript.

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