

## Intracellular pH regulation in rabbit renal medullary collecting duct cells. Role of chloride-bicarbonate exchange.

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*J Clin Invest.* 1986;77(5):1682-1688. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI112486>.

### Research Article

The renal medullary collecting duct (MCD) secretes protons into its lumen and HCO<sub>3</sub> into its basolateral space. Basolateral HCO<sub>3</sub> transport is thought to occur via Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange. To further characterize this Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange process, intracellular pH (pHi) regulation was monitored in freshly prepared rabbit outer MCD cells. Cells were separated by protease digestion and purified by Ficoll gradient centrifugation. pHi was estimated fluorometrically using the entrapped intracytoplasmic pH indicator, 6-carboxyfluorescein. Cells were preincubated in bicarbonate-containing solutions and then abruptly diluted into bicarbonate-free media. The MCD cell pHi response to abrupt removal of CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub> included an initial alkalinization due to rapid CO<sub>2</sub> efflux, followed by an acidification due to HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux and a gradual recovery to the resting pHi of 7.24 +/- 0.06 partly due to the action of a plasma membrane H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase. The initial alkalinization required a CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub> gradient and did not occur in the presence of acetazolamide. The acidification phase required intracellular HCO<sub>3</sub> and extracellular Cl, which was consistent with a Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange. MCD HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux exhibited saturable kinetics for extracellular Cl, with a Michaelis constant (K<sub>m</sub>) of 29.9 +/- 7.7 mM. HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux also exhibited preference for halides over NO<sub>3</sub>, SCN, and gluconate, and striking sensitivity to disulfonic stilbene and acetazolamide inhibition, with an apparent K<sub>1</sub> of 5 X 10<sup>-7</sup> M for DIDS. The final pHi recovery required [...]

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# Intracellular pH Regulation in Rabbit Renal Medullary Collecting Duct Cells

## Role of Chloride-Bicarbonate Exchange

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### Abstract

The renal medullary collecting duct (MCD) secretes protons into its lumen and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  into its basolateral space. Basolateral  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  transport is thought to occur via  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange. To further characterize this  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange process, intracellular pH ( $\text{pH}_i$ ) regulation was monitored in freshly prepared rabbit outer MCD cells. Cells were separated by protease digestion and purified by Ficoll gradient centrifugation.  $\text{pH}_i$  was estimated fluorometrically using the entrapped intracytoplasmic pH indicator, 6-carboxyfluorescein. Cells were preincubated in bicarbonate-containing solutions and then abruptly diluted into bicarbonate-free media. The MCD cell  $\text{pH}_i$  response to abrupt removal of  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3^-$  included an initial alkalization due to rapid  $\text{CO}_2$  efflux, followed by an acidification due to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  efflux and a gradual recovery to the resting  $\text{pH}_i$  of  $7.24 \pm 0.06$  partly due to the action of a plasma membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase. The initial alkalization required a  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3^-$  gradient and did not occur in the presence of acetazolamide. The acidification phase required intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and extracellular  $\text{Cl}^-$ , which was consistent with a  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange. MCD  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  efflux exhibited saturable kinetics for extracellular  $\text{Cl}^-$ , with a Michaelis constant ( $K_m$ ) of  $29.9 \pm 7.7$  mM.  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  efflux also exhibited preference for halides over  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SCN}^-$ , and gluconate, and striking sensitivity to disulfonic stilbene and acetazolamide inhibition, with an apparent  $K_i$  of  $5 \times 10^{-7}$  M for DIDS. The final  $\text{pH}_i$  recovery required intracellular ATP, which indicated that  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase activities are present in the same cells in these suspensions. The results provide direct evidence for MCD  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange and describe some of the properties of this transport process.

### Introduction

The mammalian medullary collecting duct (MCD)<sup>1</sup> is the final site of urinary acidification. Acid secretion is known to occur in this segment in a sodium-independent fashion against a steep electrochemical gradient (1). Protons are thought to be transported from the cytoplasm to the lumen via a plasma membrane

$\text{H}^+$ -ATPase (2, 3), while the alkali equivalents generated by acid secretion are converted to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  by intracellular carbonic anhydrase (4). The resulting  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is thought to exit the basolateral membrane in exchange for extracellular  $\text{Cl}^-$  via a  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchanger (5, 6). Evidence has been obtained in studies using the isolated perfused MCD that favors a role for basolateral  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange in bicarbonate reabsorption in this segment. In this preparation, substitution of the impermeant anion, gluconate, for  $\text{Cl}^-$  on the basolateral side increased intracellular pH (7) and abolished bicarbonate reabsorption (5). Also, addition of the anion exchange inhibitor, SITS, to the basolateral solution inhibited bicarbonate reabsorption (5).

To further characterize the properties of  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange in the MCD, we monitored intracellular pH ( $\text{pH}_i$ ) regulation in suspensions of cells isolated from rabbit outer MCD using a fluorescent intracellular pH probe (3). In these experiments cells were preloaded with  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and abruptly diluted into  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ -free solutions with on-line measurement of  $\text{pH}_i$ .

### Methods

**Isolation of MCD cells.** The technique for preparing fresh suspensions of MCD cells has been previously described (3). Briefly, male New Zealand white rabbits were killed by cervical dislocation and exsanguinated via the carotid artery. All enzyme treatments and centrifugations were carried out in Joklik's minimal essential medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum. The kidneys were perfused free of blood and treated with 0.2% collagenase. The inner stripe of the outer medulla was excised from each kidney and finely minced. The tissue was incubated for 1 h in 0.2% collagenase at 37°C under 95%  $\text{O}_2/5\%$   $\text{CO}_2$ , and the resulting digest centrifuged to harvest the suspended tubule segments. The tubules were incubated repeatedly in 0.25% trypsin solution at room temperature under 95%  $\text{O}_2/5\%$   $\text{CO}_2$  for 20 min. At the end of each incubation the undigested tubules were pelleted and returned to the trypsin, and the suspended cells were harvested and pooled on ice. The resulting cell suspension containing all medullary cell types was layered over 60 ml continuous Ficoll gradients (2.5–43%) and centrifuged for 45 min at 2,300 g. The gradients were harvested in 4-ml fractions, and the cells in each fraction were washed free of Ficoll in a 10-fold excess of Joklik's medium and centrifuged at 300 g for 10 min. MCD cells were found in the upper two fractions (3). The MCD cells prepared in this manner resembled closely MCD principal cells *in situ* by both light and electron microscopy, and no intercalated cells were found. As discussed below and in a previous paper, it is likely that the principal cells in this segment participate in acidification *in vivo* (3, 6). The MCD fraction was purified for both carbonic anhydrase and ADH-stimulated adenylate cyclase, which are two enzymes known to be present at high activity in MCD (8, 9). In addition, these cells regulate  $\text{pH}_i$  and partly transport protons via a plasma membrane proton-ATPase (3).

**Measurement of intracellular pH.** The technique of measurement of  $\text{pH}_i$  of MCD cells has been described previously (3, 10). The medium used for all experiments was a nominally bicarbonate-free Ringer's, which was composed of NaCl (130 mM), KCl (5 mM), Tris-Hepes (10 mM, pH 7.40),  $\text{MgSO}_4$  (0.4 mM),  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (2 mM), and  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$  (2 mM). In solutions containing bicarbonate, 25 mM  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  was substituted iso-

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Received for publication 2 August 1985 and in revised form 19 December 1985.

1. Abbreviations used in this paper: ADH, antidiuretic hormone; MCD, medullary collecting duct; MES, 2-[N-morpholine]-ethanesulfonic acid;  $\text{pH}_i$ , intracellular pH.

J. Clin. Invest.

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0021-9738/86/05/1682/07 \$1.00

Volume 77, May 1986, 1682–1688

tonically for NaCl. Bicarbonate-containing solutions were gassed with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>/95% O<sub>2</sub>; PCO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in these solutions, measured using a Corning blood gas analyzer, were 40 mmHg and 25 mM, respectively. The pH of all solutions was checked immediately before use and adjusted as needed to pH 7.40 with small amounts of 1 M HCl or 1 M NaOH. Cells were resuspended in nonbicarbonate Ringer's and incubated for 15–20 min in 10 μM 6-carboxyfluorescein diacetate at 25°C and an extracellular pH titrated to 6.50 by addition of small amounts of 330 mM 2-[N-morpholino]-ethanesulfonic acid (MES). The diacetate form rapidly enters the cells, where it is converted to the optically active 6-carboxyfluorescein by intracellular esterases (10). Once loaded with 6-carboxyfluorescein, cells were washed thoroughly with nonbicarbonate Ringer's pH 7.40 to remove MES and extracellular dye. The fluorescence of dye-loaded cells was monitored using an Aminco-Bowman fluorescence spectrophotometer equipped with a temperature-controlled water jacket and a mechanical stirrer. Excitation wavelengths were 492 and 450 nm and emission wavelength was 530 nm. One-million cells were diluted into 3.5 ml of nonbicarbonate Ringer's and stirred in the fluorimeter at 37°C. At the end of each run the cells were pelleted and the fluorescence of the supernatant assayed directly. By subtracting this extracellular signal from the total signal, the signal generated by the intracellular dye could be calculated.

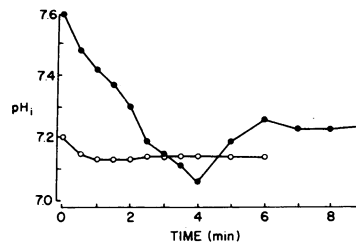
Standard curves relating pH<sub>i</sub> and fluorescence excitation ratio were obtained daily (3) by placing the cells in medium containing 137 mM KCl and adding the K/H ionophore, nigericin. Addition of small amounts of concentrated MES to the medium produced incremental acidification, thus generating the curve. The fluorescence excitation ratios obtained from each curve were compared with these standard curves to estimate pH<sub>i</sub>.

**Materials.** Collagenase was obtained from Worthington Biochemical Corp., Freehold, NJ; Joklik's minimal essential medium was obtained from Gibco, Grand Island, NY; Ficoll was obtained from Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Piscataway, NJ; and 6-carboxyfluorescein diacetate was obtained from Molecular Probes, Junction City, OR. 4-acetamido-4'-isothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulfonate (SITS) and 4,4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulfonate (DIDS) were obtained from Pierce Chemical Co., Rockford, IL. Both SITS and DIDS were kept frozen, in the dark, and dissolved into stock solutions immediately before use and kept in the dark. Furosemide was a gift of Hoescht-Roussel Pharmaceuticals, Somerville, NJ. Bumetanide was a gift of Hoffmann-LaRoche Pharmaceuticals, Nutley, NJ. All other reagents were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO and were of analytical grade.

**Statistics.** In all bar graphs a single "n" represents the mean of duplicate or triplicate determinations of pH<sub>i</sub> time course on a given cell preparation. Unless specified experimental results are given for the mean±SEM for at least three separate cell preparations. Protocols for which representative experiments are presented were also performed on at least three different cell preparations.

## Results

To determine the effect on pH<sub>i</sub> of bicarbonate efflux from cells, carboxyfluorescein-loaded MCD cells were resuspended in bicarbonate-containing Ringer's for at least 20 min and then diluted abruptly into a cuvette containing nonbicarbonate Ringer's in the fluorimeter. Fig. 1 shows a typical pH<sub>i</sub> time course obtained in this manner. The pH<sub>i</sub> response observed when CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> preloaded cells were diluted into nonbicarbonate Ringer's can be divided into three phases: an initial alkalization to pH<sub>i</sub> = 7.45±0.03 (n = 22), completed before the fluorescence measurements began, an acidification to pH<sub>i</sub> = 6.93±0.03 (n = 22), occurring over the first 4 min, and a final recovery of pH<sub>i</sub> to a resting level of 7.24±0.06 (n = 3). Because the stirrer on the Aminco-Bowman fluorimeter could not rapidly mix the cells, readings of fluorescence were delayed until 30 s after the cells



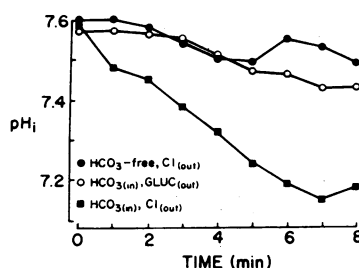
**Figure 1.** Effect of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> gradient on pH<sub>i</sub>. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-loaded MCD cells were preincubated in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-containing Ringer's as described in Methods and added to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-free Ringer's (closed circles) or to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-containing Ringer's (open circles).

The time course of pH<sub>i</sub> was followed as described in the text. These time courses are representative of identical protocols performed on at least three different MCD cell preparations.

were added. Thus, the time course of the initial alkalization of the cells could not be observed directly. When MCD cells were incubated in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-containing Ringer's and diluted into the same medium (open circles, Fig. 1), pH<sub>i</sub> remained stable at 7.20±0.03 (n = 3). The almost instantaneous alkalization from a pH<sub>i</sub> of 7.20–7.45 can be attributed to more rapid efflux from the cells of CO<sub>2</sub> than HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. In numerous studies of intracellular pH, this more rapid permeance of CO<sub>2</sub> than HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> has allowed investigators to alkalize or acidify the intracellular space (11). Direct measurements showing the high permeability of biological and artificial membranes to CO<sub>2</sub> (12) support the idea that the initial alkalization was due to CO<sub>2</sub> efflux.

Since the acidification phase shown in Fig. 1 was likely to be caused by bicarbonate efflux down its chemical gradient, this phase was examined in further detail. In Fig. 2, the curve labeled "HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup><sub>in</sub>, Cl<sub>out</sub>" represents a typical time course of the acidification response. To allow quantitative comparison of experimental groups, the first three minutes of this time course were fitted to the following linear equation form: pH<sub>i</sub> = k(t) + pH<sub>i(t=0)</sub>, where k is the fitted constant that describes the initial rate of acidification, t is the time after the cells reached maximum pH<sub>i</sub>, and pH<sub>i(t=0)</sub> was the maximal intracellular pH. r values from these linear fits averaged 0.96. Fitting pH<sub>i</sub> time courses to a linear function relating pH<sub>i</sub> to time requires no assumptions regarding the mechanism of pH<sub>i</sub> response, but merely provides a straightforward means of quantitatively comparing experimental groups (3, 13, 14).

To determine the role of extracellular Cl and intracellular HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> on the acidification response, the substitution experiments shown in Fig. 2 were performed. When the impermeant anion, gluconate, was substituted for Cl in the extracellular medium (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup><sub>in</sub>, Gluc<sub>out</sub>), the acidification response was markedly in-



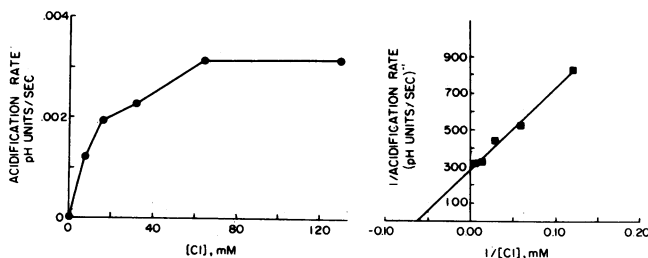
**Figure 2.** Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> exchange. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-loaded MCD cells were preincubated in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-containing Ringer's (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup><sub>in</sub>) or in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-free Ringer's titrated to pH 8.30 with KOH (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-free). At time zero, cells were added to HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-free Ringer's containing 135 mM Cl<sup>-</sup> (Cl<sub>out</sub>)

or to an identical solution with gluconate salts replacing Cl (GLUC<sub>out</sub>). These time courses are representative of identical protocols performed on three different MCD cell preparations.

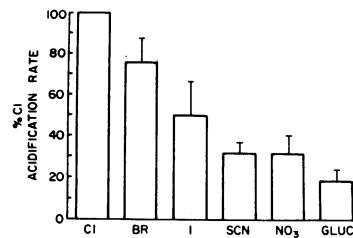
hibited. When MCD cells were alkalinized (by preincubation in nonbicarbonate Ringer's titrated to pH 8.40 with 1 N KOH) and then added to the usual Cl-containing nonbicarbonate Ringer's ( $\text{HCO}_3$ -free,  $\text{Cl}_{\text{out}}$ , final extracellular pH = 7.40), the acidification response was again markedly inhibited. This result indicates that  $\text{HCO}_3$  in the presence of similar transmembrane pH gradients was a far better "substrate" for the acidification response than  $\text{OH}^-$ . The dependence of the acidification response on intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3$  and extracellular Cl indicates that this process occurs via a  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange.

The next experiments were designed to determine whether MCD cell  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange is carrier-mediated and to describe some of the properties of this transport process. Fig. 3 shows the effect of varying extracellular Cl concentration on the rate of the acidification response. MCD cells were loaded with  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3$  as described above and added to solutions containing mixtures of 130 mM NaCl and 130 mM sodium gluconate. The acidification rates were determined and plotted against the extracellular Cl concentration (Fig. 3, left). Note that the acidification rate reached a plateau as the Cl concentration rose, thus indicating a saturable process. A Lineweaver-Burk plot (Fig. 3, right) permitted calculation of the apparent Michaelis constant ( $K_m$ ) and maximum velocity ( $V_{\text{max}}$ ) for Cl of  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. The values obtained from identical experiments on three separate MCD cell preparations were apparent  $K_m = 29.9 \pm 7.7$  (SE) mM, and  $V_{\text{max}} = 0.00314 \pm 0.00067$  pH U/s. Correlation coefficients averaged 0.98. In these experiments, intracellular Cl concentration was not measured. Although the level of intracellular Cl will influence the response of  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange to varying extracellular Cl concentrations, it is valid to compare different extracellular Cl concentrations if intracellular Cl is initially the same for each extracellular Cl level. Since the cells for each run on a given day were taken from a single suspension that was preincubating in  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3$ , it is likely that the intracellular Cl concentration was identical for each extracellular Cl concentration at the start of each rate determination.

To determine the anion selectivity of MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange, the rate of the acidification response was measured in the presence of different extracellular anions. Since use of concentrations far in excess of the apparent  $K_m$  for Cl might have obscured differences between anions, all experiments were car-



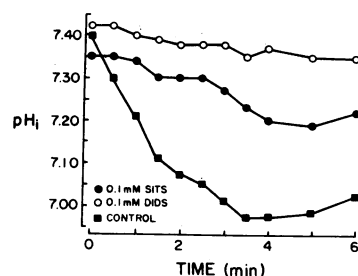
**Figure 3.** Kinetics of  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-preloaded MCD cells were preincubated with  $\text{HCO}_3$ -containing Ringer's and added to  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's containing varying concentrations of Cl. Gluconate salts were used to replace Cl salts isotonicly. (Left) Acidification rates were obtained as described in text and are plotted on the ordinate. Extracellular Cl concentration is plotted on the abscissa. (Right) Double reciprocal plot of data from left panel. The apparent  $K_m$  for Cl in this MCD cell preparation was 16.9 mM. Each data point is the mean of duplicate or triplicate rate determinations at the [Cl] given.



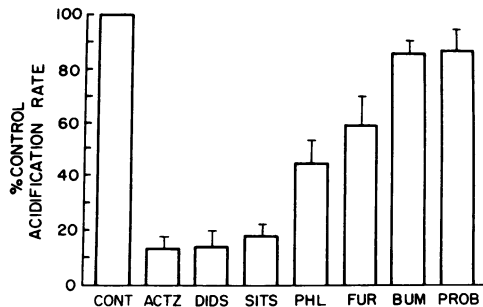
**Figure 4.** Effects of anion substitution on acidification rate. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-preloaded MCD cells were preincubated with  $\text{HCO}_3$ -containing Ringer's and added to solutions of varying anion content. Each solution was made up of 70 mM gluconate salts ( $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$ ) and 65 mM Na anion. Results are expressed as the percentage of the rate of acidification observed using an extracellular solution containing 65 mM NaCl on the same MCD preparation. Results represent the mean and standard error of duplicate determinations on three different MCD cell preparations.

ried out with 65 mM extracellular sodium gluconate and 65 mM extracellular sodium anion. Fig. 4 shows the results of duplicate determinations performed on three different MCD cell preparations. We obtained the ranking  $\text{Cl} > \text{Br} > \text{I} > \text{SCN} = \text{NO}_3 > \text{gluconate}$ . These results demonstrate specificity of MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange for halides.

The effects of inhibitors of anion transport on MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange were also examined. Fig. 5 shows, in a representative experiment, the effect of the stilbenes, SITS and DIDS, on the acidification response. These anion exchange inhibitors markedly inhibited  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange when present in the extracellular medium at  $10^{-4}$  M. Fig. 6 shows the relative rates of the acidification response in the presence of various anion transport inhibitors at  $10^{-4}$  M concentration. SITS and DIDS diminished the rate of the acidification response by over 80%. These molecules act as potent inhibitors of the red cell anion exchanger, band 3 (15). Phloretin, a less potent inhibitor of band 3 (15) reduced the acidification rate by 50%. Furosemide, which inhibits  $\text{Na}/\text{K}/\text{Cl}$  co-transport in the thick ascending limb (16), and acts as a weak band 3 inhibitor (17), also partially inhibited MCD cell  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. Interestingly, bumetanide, another potent inhibitor of  $\text{Na}/\text{K}/\text{Cl}$  co-transport (18), showed only slight inhibition of the acidification response. Probenecid, which inhibits organic anion transport in the proximal tubule (19), exhibited slight inhibition of MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. The carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, acetazolamide, was a potent inhibitor of  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. As with the other inhibitors shown in this table, cells were not pretreated with acetazolamide, and were only exposed to it when added to the  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free medium. To assess the sensitivity of MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange to stilbene inhibition, the acidification rate was measured in the presence of varying concentrations of DIDS. As shown in Fig. 7, half-maximal inhibition of acidification occurred at a DIDS concen-



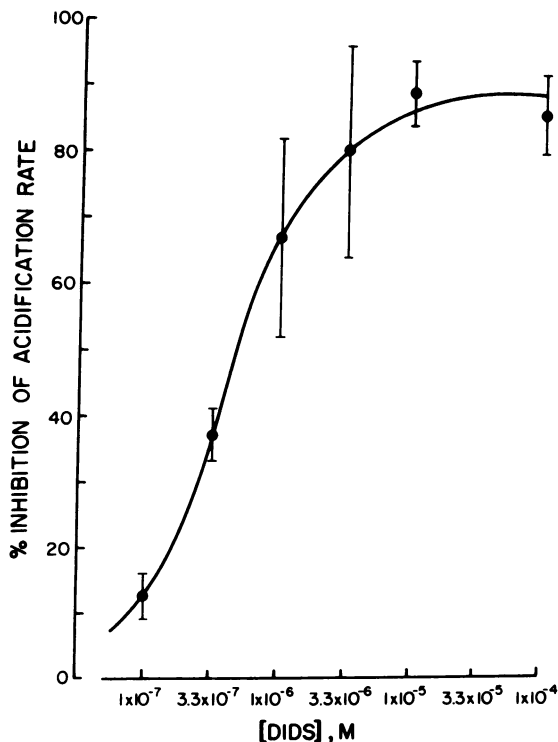
**Figure 5.** Effects of stilbene inhibitors on  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-loaded MCD cells were preincubated with  $\text{HCO}_3$ -containing Ringer's and added to  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's. Where indicated, 0.1 mM SITS or DIDS were present in the extracellular medium at the start of the time course.



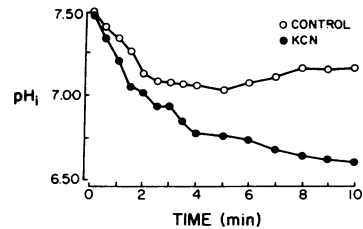
**Figure 6.** Effects of inhibitors on  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. Protocol was as described in Fig. 5. Each inhibitor was present in the  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's at  $10^{-4}$  M. MCD cells were not pretreated with inhibitor before time courses began. Results are expressed as percentage of acidification rate observed with the same MCD cell preparation in the absence of inhibitor. Results represent the mean and standard error of duplicate or triplicate time courses performed with each inhibitor on three different MCD cell preparations. CONT, control; ACTZ, acetazolamide; PHL, phloretin; FUR, furosemide; BUM, bumetanide; and PROB, probenecid.

tration of  $\sim 5 \times 10^{-7}$  M, a level comparable with that exhibited by red cell anion exchange (15).

Since MCD cells recover from acid loading by extruding protons via a plasma membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase (3), we examined the mechanism of  $\text{pH}_i$  recovery after the acidification response characterized above. In Fig. 8, untreated MCD cells (control) and MCD cells poisoned with potassium cyanide in the absence of extracellular glucose (KCN) were preloaded with  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3$  and added to nonbicarbonate Ringer's. Although the initial al-



**Figure 7.** Effect of varying [DIDS] on rate of  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange. Protocol was as in Fig. 5. DIDS concentration was varied and the percentage inhibition determined as in Fig. 6 and plotted as a function of [DIDS].



**Figure 8.** Effect of ATP depletion on  $\text{pH}_i$  recovery. 6-Carboxyfluorescein-preloaded MCD cells were preincubated in  $\text{HCO}_3$ -containing Ringer's and added to  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's. KCN: Cells were pretreated with 2 mM KCN; 2 mM KCN was also present in the  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's. We have previously shown (3) that cells treated with KCN in the absence of glucose are rapidly depleted of ATP. These time courses are representative of identical protocols performed on three different MCD cell preparations.

kalization and acidification responses were similar in the two protocols, the cells poisoned with KCN did not restore  $\text{pH}_i$  to the usual resting level of 7.20 but instead continued to acidify. As described previously, MCD cells treated with KCN in the absence of glucose are rapidly depleted of  $>95\%$  of cellular ATP (3, 20). Thus, Fig. 8 indicates that recovery from  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3$ -induced acidification is ATP-dependent and provides evidence that  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange occurred in the same cell as ATP-dependent proton extrusion.

Since the bicarbonate-induced acidification response appeared to be more rapid when ATP-dependent proton extrusion was inhibited (see Fig. 8), it seemed likely that our measurements of acidification rates in unpoisoned cells reflected the rate of bicarbonate-induced acidification minus the rate of  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase-mediated proton extrusion. Since the opposing effects on  $\text{pH}_i$  of these two transport mechanisms might have altered the apparent relationship between external  $\text{Cl}$  concentration and  $\text{HCO}_3$  efflux, we repeated the  $\text{Cl}$  kinetics experiments in cells exposed to KCN in the absence of glucose. When  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase was inhibited by ATP depletion, saturability was again observed. The apparent  $V_{\text{max}}$  in  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase-inhibited cells was  $0.00356 \pm 0.000163$  pH U/s ( $n = 2$  cell preparations), and the apparent  $K_m$  was  $14.8 \pm 3.5$  mM, with correlation coefficients for the fitted Lineweaver-Burk plots averaging 0.98.

## Discussion

Plasma membrane  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange is known to participate in a wide variety of epithelial transport functions. Net  $\text{Cl}$  transport is mediated in part via  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange in mouse thick ascending limb (20), amphibian gall bladder (21), and intestinal epithelia (22). Volume regulation in response to hypertonic stimuli has recently been shown to be mediated by  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange coupled to  $\text{Na}/\text{H}$  exchange in mouse thick ascending limb (23) and amphibian gall bladder (24). In epithelial cells specialized to secrete luminal acid, basolateral  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange functions to restore intracellular pH by secreting into the basolateral space alkali equivalents generated by the luminal secretion of acid (25). Such acid-secreting epithelia include gastric mucosa (26), amphibian bladder (27), and MCD (5). Evidence favoring basolateral  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange in the isolated, perfused mammalian medullary collecting duct includes the cellular alkalization and inhibition of lumen-to-bath  $\text{HCO}_3$  transport, which accompanies removal of basolateral  $\text{Cl}$  (5, 7). Furthermore, addition of SITS to basolateral solutions inhibits  $\text{HCO}_3$  reabsorption (5). The ability to monitor  $\text{pH}_i$  in MCD cell suspensions provides a straightforward means of measuring and characterizing  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange in an epithelial tissue specialized to secrete acid.

There is direct histochemical and electrophysiological evidence that inner stripe MCD principal cells participate in acidification *in vivo*. Thus these cells stain strongly for carbonic anhydrase *in situ* (28). In addition, isolated perfused inner stripe collecting ducts reabsorb bicarbonate (4, 5) and have a single cell population by electrophysiologic criteria (6). Since principal cells make up the vast majority of cells in this segment (29), principal cells must be responsible for acid secretion *in vivo*. The cells used in these experiments express morphologic and enzymatic characteristics of principal cells of the inner stripe of the outer MCD (3). Their viability has been confirmed by measurement of O<sub>2</sub> consumption, ATP levels, and the demonstration of pH<sub>i</sub> regulation (3). In the cortical collecting duct and the turtle bladder, acid secretion is thought to occur only via the intercalated cells (7, 25). Because of the striking morphologic differences between principal cells in the inner stripe and in the cortex (29), it is impossible to assign functions to inner stripe collecting duct cell types based on analogy to these other tissues.

The bicarbonate preloading protocol used in these experiments was designed to allow exchange of extracellular Cl for intracellular HCO<sub>3</sub>, the direction of transport expected to occur *in vivo*. The initial alkalinization that we observed in these studies was due to rapid efflux of CO<sub>2</sub> from the cells. The known high permeability of CO<sub>2</sub> in biological membranes favors this view (12). Further evidence that the rise in pH<sub>i</sub> was due to CO<sub>2</sub> efflux, includes the lack of alkalinization in the absence of CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub> gradients (Fig. 1) or in the absence of functional carbonic anhydrase.

Although our methods do not provide a direct measure of the intracellular HCO<sub>3</sub> concentration, a calculated value of 15.1 mM could be expected at a PCO<sub>2</sub> of 40 mmHg and a pH<sub>i</sub> of 7.20, which were the conditions present when the cells were suspended in CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub> Ringer's medium (see Fig. 1). After the cells were added to a bicarbonate-free Ringer's, a HCO<sub>3</sub> gradient was established across the cell membrane. This gradient could be dissipated by efflux of HCO<sub>3</sub> anion, or by conversion of HCO<sub>3</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, with rapid efflux of CO<sub>2</sub> from the cells. Since the latter mechanism involves removal of a proton and HCO<sub>3</sub> from the cell as CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, it cannot account for the striking acidification that we observed in these cells. Thus, the acidification and dissipation of the bicarbonate gradient could only have been caused by efflux of bicarbonate from the cells. This bicarbonate efflux was markedly inhibited when the impermeant anion, gluconate, was substituted for Cl in the extracellular medium (Fig. 2). This observation parallels the findings in turtle bladder (27) and perfused rabbit MCD (5), in which basolateral Cl was necessary for net acid transport, and is in agreement with the recent demonstration that removal of basolateral Cl alkalinizes pH<sub>i</sub> (7). The finding that intracellular alkalinity alone, in the absence of bicarbonate, could not duplicate the acidification response, indicates that the bicarbonate efflux mechanism operates far more efficiently with HCO<sub>3</sub> than with OH.

The demonstration that MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange exhibits saturability with respect to extracellular Cl (Fig. 3) provides evidence that this exchange is carrier mediated. The apparent  $K_m$ s for Cl that were calculated in this study are similar to values obtained for the red blood cell anion exchanger, which range from 33 to 65 mM, depending on the transport function being studied (15, 30). In recent studies of the effect of basolateral Cl on turtle bladder acidification, Fischer et al. reported an apparent

$K_m$  for Cl in the micromolar range (27). The differences between their results and ours are not readily explained, but may be due to tissue and species differences and the fact that in their studies, transepithelial acid transport was measured using short circuit current, while in our study the cell pH was measured directly.

The Cl saturability that we observed in this study could reflect the kinetics of binding of Cl to a Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange protein or the effects of raising extracellular Cl concentration on MCD cell membrane potential via a saturable Cl channel. Alterations of membrane potential via a Cl conductance could only affect HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux if HCO<sub>3</sub> exit occurs via an electrogenic conductance. Recently, Koeppen has measured directly the membrane potential of rabbit inner stripe MCD cells using intracellular electrodes and the *in vitro* perfusion technique (6). His experiments showed that abrupt changes in extracellular Cl, but not in HCO<sub>3</sub>, provoke rapid alterations in membrane potential (6), which indicates that the MCD cell possesses electrogenic Cl but not HCO<sub>3</sub> conductance (6). In this context, our finding of saturability to Cl likely reflects the interaction of Cl with a Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchanger.

Another characteristic of mediated transport is ion specificity. The anion ranking, Cl<sup>-</sup> > Br<sup>-</sup> > I<sup>-</sup> (Fig. 4) is similar to that seen in anion exchange in human red blood cells (30, 31) and in microvillus membrane vesicles prepared from *Necturus* proximal tubule (32), and may reflect size selectivity of the exchanger. Because NO<sub>3</sub> and SCN were far less effective than the halides in stimulating HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux, we suggest that MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange is electroneutral. If, as is true in many biological membranes (32–35), SCN and NO<sub>3</sub> exhibit a higher passive permeance than Cl, the presence of these two more permeant anions at high extracellular concentrations might be expected to hyperpolarize the cells and stimulate electrogenic HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux. Thus, the inability of these anions to allow an acidification response much higher than that of the impermeant gluconate suggests that MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange is not electrogenic, but that occurs via a direct exchange process. However, since the basolateral membrane of MCD cells perfused *in vitro* exhibits a Cl conductance (6), it is not certain that either SCN or NO<sub>3</sub> permeate the MCD membrane more rapidly than Cl. The evidence stating that MCD basolateral HCO<sub>3</sub> flux is electrically silent (6) leads us to favor electroneutral Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange as the mechanism of HCO<sub>3</sub> exit from this cell.

The inhibitor sensitivities of MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange were examined to allow comparison of anion exchange in this tissue with that of other systems. The stilbenes, SITS and DIDS, are relatively specific and potent inhibitors of red blood cell anion exchange (15). Sensitivity to these inhibitors has been demonstrated for turtle bladder (25) and MCD bicarbonate transport (5), in *Necturus* gall bladder (21) and proximal tubule (32), and also in mammalian proximal tubule (36) and thick ascending limb (20). In all of these studies, stilbene concentrations of 10<sup>-4</sup> M or higher were used. MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange was highly sensitive to these stilbenes (Figs. 5 and 6); the apparent  $K_i$  for DIDS was ~5 × 10<sup>-7</sup> M, which is similar to the sensitivity of red blood cell anion exchange to this inhibitor (1.2 × 10<sup>-6</sup> M, 15). The relative insensitivity of MCD Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange to furosemide, bumetanide, and probenecid distinguishes this transport process from Na/K/Cl co-transport of the thick ascending limb, and from the organic anion transport of the proximal tubule. The finding that furosemide is a more effective inhibitor of Cl/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange than bumetanide is similar to

results obtained for *Necturus microvillus vesicle anion exchange* (37).

The apparent inhibition of anion exchange by acetazolamide may have been caused by direct interaction of this carbonic anhydrase inhibitor with the  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchanger. Preincubation of MCD cells with acetazolamide prevented initial alkalization due to  $\text{CO}_2$  efflux, and prevented the subsequent acidification (due to  $\text{HCO}_3$  efflux). In the inhibitor protocols (Fig. 6), acetazolamide was present only when the  $\text{HCO}_3$ -preloaded cells were added to the  $\text{HCO}_3$ -free Ringer's; in these protocols, normal alkalization was observed. Once the cell had alkalized (due to  $\text{CO}_2$  efflux), inhibition of carbonic anhydrase was expected to diminish the protonation of intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3$  to  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$  and provide more  $\text{HCO}_3$  for efflux and acidification of the cell interior. Thus, carbonic anhydrase inhibition was expected to increase rather than decrease the acidification rate. Direct interaction of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors with anion transport processes has been reported in human red blood cell and in mammalian proximal tubule (36). Further studies using carbonic anhydrase inhibitors that cannot enter the cell will be necessary to determine whether these inhibitors interact directly with MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange.

The recovery of MCD cells from intracellular acidification induced by exposure to mineral acids and acetate salts, and by withdrawal of ammonium salts, is mediated in part via a plasma membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase (3). As shown in Fig. 8, recovery of these cells from an acid load induced by  $\text{HCO}_3$  efflux was also critically dependent on cellular ATP. Taken together, these results indicate that both  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange and  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase activity are present in the MCD cell.

In summary, the MCD cell  $\text{pH}_i$  response to abrupt removal of  $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCO}_3$  includes an initial alkalization due to  $\text{CO}_2$  efflux, followed by an acidification (due to  $\text{HCO}_3$  efflux) via  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange, with a gradual recovery to the resting  $\text{pH}_i$  of 7.20 partly due to the action of a plasma membrane  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase. MCD  $\text{Cl}/\text{HCO}_3$  exchange requires intracellular  $\text{HCO}_3$  and extracellular  $\text{Cl}$ , and is a saturable process that exhibits anion specificity and sensitivity to stilbene and acetazolamide inhibition.

## Acknowledgments

We thank Robert Fuhro and Robert Lufburrow for their excellent technical assistance and Dr. Lloyd Cantley for help with the cell preparations.

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health New Investigator Research Award 31983, and by grants AM18078 and AM07214.

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