

Calcium/calmodulin inhibition of coupled NaCl transport in membrane vesicles from rabbit ileal brush border

(trifluoperazine/intestinal secretion)

C.-C. FAN AND D. W. POWELL*

Department of Medicine, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514

Communicated by Carl W. Gottschalk, May 23, 1983

ABSTRACT The role of Ca^{2+} and calmodulin in regulating coupled NaCl transport has been investigated in membrane vesicles from rabbit ileal brush border. Uptake of $^{22}\text{Na}^+$ and $^{36}\text{Cl}^-$ was determined by a rapid filtration technique in vesicles isolated with a sucrose density gradient ultracentrifugation method. Ca^{2+} on the inside of the vesicle inhibited Na^+ uptake when Cl^- was the anion and Cl^- uptake when Na^+ was the cation by $\approx 30\%$. Ca^{2+} on the outside had no effect. When gluconate was the anion or when choline was the cation, Na^+ or Cl^- uptake was reduced by only 9–12%. A similar inhibition of D- ^3H mannitol uptake (10–17%) suggests this was due to a nonspecific decrease in the membrane permeability. Other cations such as Ba^{2+} and Mg^{2+} had no effect, but La^{3+} inhibited Na^+ and Cl^- uptake to the same degree as Ca^{2+} . Calmodulin (2 μM) in combination with Ca^{2+} (1 μM , free concentration) significantly inhibited Na^+ uptake when Cl^- was the anion by 21–32% and Cl^- uptake when Na^+ was the cation by 20–27%. This effect was completely reversed by 10 μM trifluoperazine. When gluconate was the anion or when choline was the cation, Na^+ or Cl^- uptake was unaffected by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin and trifluoperazine. The K_i for Ca^{2+} inhibition of Cl^- -coupled Na^+ uptake was reduced from 200 μM to 0.2 μM by incubation with 20 μM calmodulin. The K_i for exogenously added calmodulin studied at 1 μM Ca^{2+} was 0.2 μM . The K_i for trifluoperazine inhibition of the Ca^{2+} /calmodulin response was 3 μM . These results represent compelling evidence for intracellular Ca^{2+} /calmodulin regulation of coupled NaCl transport across the intestinal microvillus membrane. The exact mechanism of this regulation remains to be delineated.

Recent *in vitro* studies of intestine indicate a role for intracellular calcium in the regulation of basal and stimulated active electrolyte transport. Alterations in serosal solution Ca^{2+} concentration change Na^+ and Cl^- fluxes in a fashion that cannot be ascribed to modifications of epithelial passive permeability (1–4). Calcium deprivation increases Na^+ and Cl^- absorption, whereas high Ca^{2+} concentrations inhibit Na^+ and Cl^- absorption, cause Cl^- secretion, or both. The effect of Ca^{2+} deprivation is reproduced by the Ca^{2+} -channel blocker verapamil (1). Furthermore, NaCl absorption is inhibited or Cl^- secretion is stimulated by the Ca^{2+} ionophore A23187 (3, 4), by serotonin (5), and by carbamoylcholine (3) only if Ca^{2+} is present in the serosal solution. The serotonin effect is also prevented by verapamil (5).

Calmodulin may be necessary for Ca^{2+} -regulated transport. This protein has been identified in the intestinal microvillus, where it is primarily associated with the microfilament core (6, 7). Indirect evidence for calmodulin-mediated transport comes from inhibition of electrolyte secretion by trifluoperazine (TFP) (8, 9). However, the concentration of TFP necessary in whole gut for such an effect (100–500 μM) is far above that reported for other Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-dependent processes (10, 11).

The mechanism of calcium's effect is not known, but it could involve inhibition of coupled NaCl influx across the apical cell membrane as postulated by Field for cyclic nucleotides as well (12). Indeed, cAMP inhibition of coupled NaCl influx has been demonstrated in rabbit ileum (13) and gall bladder (14).

We have recently demonstrated a coupled NaCl influx process in membrane vesicles of rabbit ileal villus brush border (15). These vesicles were isolated in Ca^{2+} -free solutions and, therefore, represent a system in which to study Ca^{2+} /calmodulin regulation of electrolyte transport. In the experiments reported here, we present direct evidence for such a process.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials. D- ^3H mannitol, $^{36}\text{Cl}^-$, and ^{125}I -labeled calmodulin radioimmunoassay kits were obtained from New England Nuclear; $^{22}\text{Na}^+$ and $^{45}\text{Ca}^{2+}$ were from Amersham and ICN, respectively. Tris, Hepes, and EGTA were obtained from Sigma. Calmodulin (isolated from rat testis) was obtained from CAABCO (Houston, TX). TFP was a generous gift from Smith Kline & French. Purified troponin C was a gift from T. C. Vanaman (Duke University Medical Center). Rabbit antiserum against aminopeptidase from human small intestinal brush border was generously provided by W. D. Heizer (University of North Carolina School of Medicine).

Preparation of Brush Border Membrane Vesicles. Isolation and characterization of brush border membrane vesicles from rabbit ileal villus epithelial cells have been described (15). Enterocytes obtained by incubation and then vibration of ileal segments of 3- to 4-kg male New Zealand White rabbits in Ca^{2+} -free EGTA solutions are collected by centrifugation in a Ca^{2+} -free solution and homogenized in an Omni-mixer (Sorvall), and the brush border fraction was separated by a sucrose density gradient ultracentrifugation of the pellet after suspension with a Dounce homogenizer. The enrichment of maltase, a brush border membrane marker enzyme, for each preparation was between 16- and 23-fold. Usually batches of vesicles were prepared from several animals and then pooled and stored in liquid nitrogen for transport studies the following week.

To ascertain the orientation of our vesicles, electron microscopy of vesicles negatively stained with phosphotungstate revealed that virtually all had exterior particles similar to the knobs observed on the external surface of intestinal microvilli (courtesy of C. R. Hackenbrock, University of North Carolina School of Medicine). To quantitate the percentage of right-side-out vesicles, the immunological accessibility of brush border aminopeptidase to external antibody was determined as described by Haase *et al.* (16). In our vesicles, 85% inhibition of aminopeptidase activity was obtained with rabbit antiserum to human brush border aminopeptidase. Thus, a minimum of 85% of our vesicles are right-side-out.

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviation: TFP, trifluoperazine.

* To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

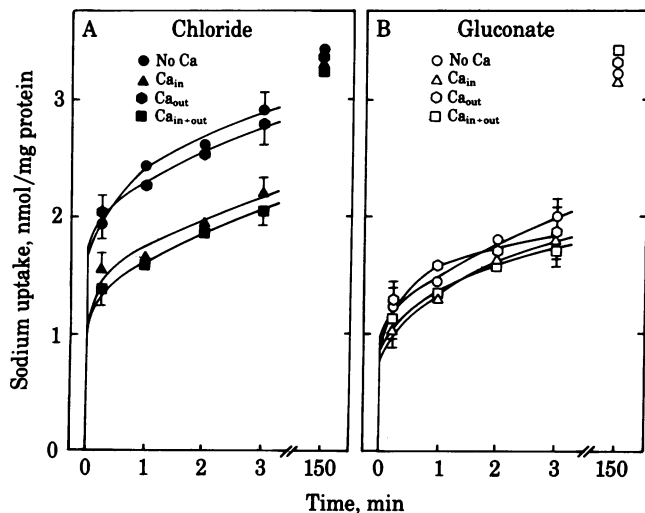


FIG. 1. Effect of 1 mM Ca²⁺ on the inside, outside, or both sides of the vesicle membranes on Na⁺ uptake in the presence of Cl⁻ (A) or gluconate (B). The membrane vesicles were loaded in a solution (inside) containing 1 mM CaCl₂ or EGTA and 2 mM NaCl/98 mM KCl (A) or 2 mM sodium gluconate/98 mM potassium gluconate (B), 100 mM mannitol, 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4 and then incubated at 22°C in the transport solution (outside) containing 1 mM CaCl₂ or EGTA, 2 mM ²²NaCl/98 mM KCl (A) or 2 mM ²²Na gluconate/98 mM potassium gluconate (B), 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4.

Measurement of Vesicle Calmodulin. Calmodulin concentrations in membrane vesicles were determined by radioimmunoassay using preheated calmodulin standards. Assays were performed before and after solubilization of the vesicles in 1% Triton X-100 at room temperature for 30 min. In addition, vesicles were preincubated with 10 μM calmodulin for 4 hr at 4°C and then washed in 100 mM mannitol/20 mM Hepes buffer adjusted to pH 7.4 with Tris, and the assays were repeated. Calmodulin concentrations in our vesicles were compared to those isolated by the Ca²⁺ precipitation method (17).

Transport Studies. Uptakes of ²²Na⁺, ³⁶Cl⁻, and D-[³H]-mannitol were determined as follows (15, 18): membrane vesicles were preincubated at 4°C for 4 hr in predesignated solutions (as indicated in the figure legends) that also contained 20 μg of valinomycin per mg of vesicle protein. Uptake was initiated by the addition of membrane vesicles (12 mg/ml) to transport medium containing isotopes and other solutes as de-

scribed in the figure legends. These vesicles were incubated at 22°C in a final volume of 300 μl. Samples (50 μl) were removed at intervals and transferred to 2 ml of ice-cold stopping solution containing 100 mM mannitol, 150 mM KCl, and 10 mM Tris/Hepes, pH 7.4. Vesicles were rapidly filtered and washed on membrane filters (Millipore, 0.45 μm pore diameter) and were dried and dissolved in a Triton X-100/xylene-based scintillation fluid and their radioactivities were measured. Uptake was calculated from the transport medium specific activities and expressed as nmol/mg of protein, based on Lowry protein determinations (19) using bovine serum albumin as standards. All experiments were repeated a minimum of three times and the data are presented as the means ± SEM.

Preparation of solutions with Ca²⁺ concentrations in the micro- and nanomolar range was facilitated by the computer program of Perin and Sayce (20) for calculating free Ca²⁺ concentrations in Ca²⁺-EGTA-buffered solutions. Absolute stability constants for the interactions of EGTA and ATP with H⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺ were chosen from Fabiato (21).

Preliminary experiments indicated that Na⁺, Cl⁻, and Ca²⁺ uptake into the vesicles reached equilibrium after incubation for 3–4 hr at 4°C. This assured us that ionic concentrations, particularly Ca²⁺, inside the vesicle were those prepared and calculated from the equilibrium constants.

RESULTS

Fig. 1 shows the effect of Ca²⁺ location on the time course of Na⁺ uptake by the brush border membrane vesicles. Sodium uptake in the presence of Cl⁻ was rapid (>40% at 15 sec), and the uptake values of control and Ca²⁺-treated vesicles at 150 min were similar. The latter result indicates that the different uptake of Na⁺ under the four conditions tested was not due to a different volume or size of the vesicles. When Cl⁻ was the counter anion (Fig. 1A), 1 mM Ca²⁺ inhibited Na⁺ uptake by 22–30% when Ca²⁺ was present on either the inside or both sides of the membrane vesicles (P < 0.01). No effect was observed when Ca²⁺ was present on the outside of the vesicle.

Fig. 2 demonstrates the effect of Ca²⁺ on Cl⁻ uptake by the brush border vesicles. When Na⁺ was the counter cation, Ca²⁺ (1 mM) on the inside or both sides of the vesicle inhibited Cl⁻ uptake by 29–35%, but no inhibition was observed when Ca²⁺ was present only on the outside (Fig. 2A).

The Ca²⁺ inhibition of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ uptake could be due to a decrease either in Na⁺ and Cl⁻ binding or in transmembrane

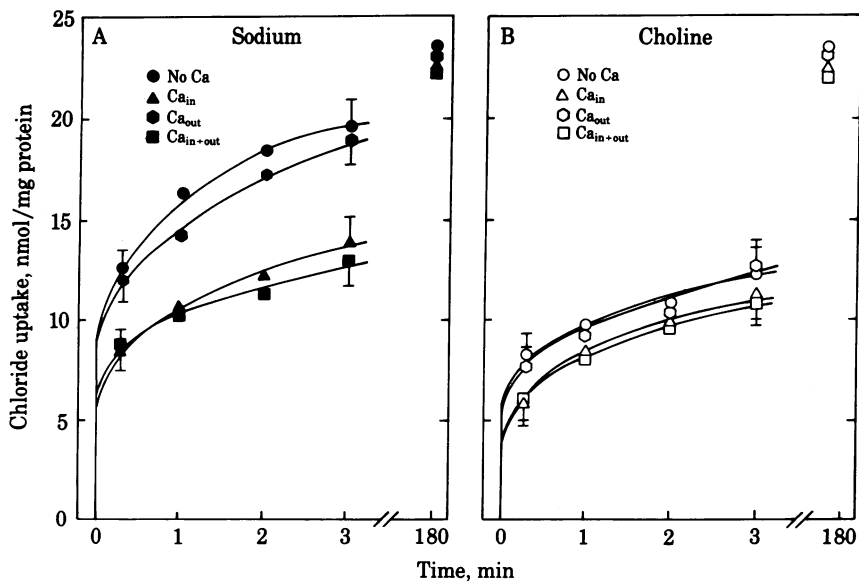


FIG. 2. Effect of 1 mM Ca²⁺ on the inside, outside, or both sides of the vesicle membranes on Cl⁻ uptake in the presence of Na⁺ (A) or choline (B). The membrane vesicles were loaded in a solution containing 1 mM calcium acetate or EGTA, 20 mM NaCl, 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4 and then incubated in a transport solution containing 1 mM calcium acetate or EGTA and 20 mM Na³⁶Cl (A) or choline ³⁶Cl (B), 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4.

Table 1. Calmodulin concentrations in rabbit ileal brush border membrane vesicles

Vesicle preparation (n)	Calmodulin, pmol/ mg protein	
	Before Triton	After Triton
Calcium-precipitated vesicles (5)	17.1 ± 0.9*	68.3 ± 11.5†
Sucrose density gradient vesicles (7)	4.9 ± 0.3	49.8 ± 2.0†
Sucrose density gradient vesicles incubated with 10 μM calmodulin (7)	13.4 ± 1.4*	85.1 ± 6.2**

* $P < 0.01$ as compared to sucrose density gradient vesicles.

† $P < 0.01$ as compared to before Triton X-100.

transport. To determine which, uptake experiments were performed in transport solutions of various osmolalities. A plot of Na^+ and Cl^- uptakes versus the reciprocal of osmolality showed the same intercept on the ordinate, but different slopes, in the presence or absence of inside Ca^{2+} . Thus, the decrease in electrolyte uptake by Ca^{2+} was due to inhibition of transport into the intravesicular space. Furthermore, the inhibition was virtually complete within the first 15 sec, indicating a decrease in unidirectional influx rather than an increased efflux.

A small but not statistically significant effect of Ca^{2+} location on Na^+ uptake was found when gluconate was the counter anion (Fig. 1B), whereas the small (9–12% inhibition) effect of inside Ca^{2+} on Cl^- uptake when choline was the counter cation (Fig. 2B) was significant ($P < 0.05$). The slight inhibition by Ca^{2+} of Na^+ uptake in the presence of gluconate and of Cl^- uptake in the presence of choline could be due to an effect of Ca^{2+} on the general permeability of the brush border vesicles. To examine this possibility, the effect of Ca^{2+} on D-[^3H]mannitol uptake was determined. Ca^{2+} (1 mM) only on the inside or both sides of the vesicle significantly ($P < 0.05$) inhibited mannitol uptake by 10–17%. No effect on mannitol uptake was noted at Ca^{2+} concentrations less than 10 μM (data not shown).

The effects of other polyvalent cations (1 mM Ba^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and La^{3+}) on Na^+ uptake in the presence of Cl^- and on Cl^- uptake in the presence of Na^+ were investigated. Ba^{2+} and Mg^{2+} had no significant effect, but La^{3+} inhibited Na^+ and Cl^- uptake to the same degree as Ca^{2+} . The inhibitory effect of Ca^{2+} , but not La^{3+} , could be reversed by incubating preloaded vesicles in Ca^{2+} - or La^{3+} -free solution for 4 hr at 4°C.

Many Ca^{2+} -regulated cellular functions are calmodulin dependent. In order to understand the effect of calmodulin on Ca^{2+} inhibition of Na^+ and Cl^- uptake, it was necessary to measure the concentration of endogenous calmodulin in our membrane preparation and to determine if exogenously added calmodulin would increase the measured concentration. Table 1 indicates that the calmodulin concentration of calcium-precipitated vesicles (17) was significantly greater than the concentration in our vesicles, which were isolated by a sucrose density gradient technique (15). In addition, two pools of calmodulin are evident: one pool is immunologically accessible to the externally added antibody; the other pool is revealed only after solubilization of the vesicles in Triton X-100 and is 4–10 times larger. Incubation of our vesicles with 10 μM calmodulin for 4 hr at 4°C significantly increased the calmodulin concentration in the Triton-accessible space.

The simple addition of calmodulin to the external transport solution had no effect on Ca^{2+} inhibition of Cl^- -coupled Na^+ uptake. Four hours of incubation of the vesicles with 1 μM calmodulin did have an effect, as shown in Fig. 3A. Compared to the response to Ca^{2+} alone (Fig. 3B), calmodulin shifted the dose-response curve for Ca^{2+} inhibition of Na^+ uptake to the left by nearly 3 log₁₀ units (Fig. 3C). Incubation with higher concentrations had little additional effect. The K_i values for Ca^{2+}

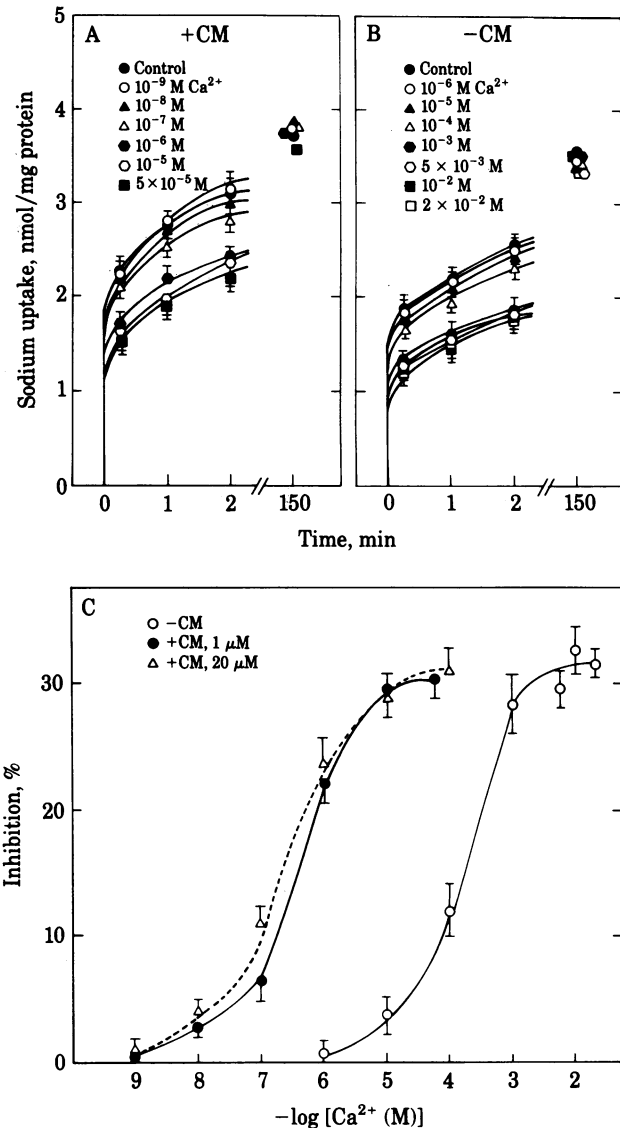


FIG. 3. Effect of various free Ca^{2+} concentrations on Na^+ uptake in the presence or absence of calmodulin (CM). (A) The membrane vesicles were incubated at 4°C for 4 hr in a solution containing various concentrations of free Ca^{2+} (10^{-9} to 5×10^{-5} M), 1 μM calmodulin, 2 mM NaCl/98 mM KCl, 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4. The transport solution had the same composition as the inside solution except 2 mM $^{22}\text{NaCl}$ replaced NaCl. (B) The membrane vesicles were incubated at 4°C for 4 hr in a solution containing 10^{-6} to 2×10^{-2} M Ca^{2+} , 2 mM NaCl/98 mM KCl, 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes at pH 7.4. The transport solution contained 2 mM $^{22}\text{NaCl}$ /98 mM KCl, 100 mM mannitol, and 20 mM Tris/Hepes buffer at pH 7.4. (C) Results in A and B are plotted as the percentage inhibition of Na^+ uptake at 15 sec (solid lines). In addition, the inhibition of Na^+ uptake by 20 μM calmodulin in the same experimental conditions as A is shown (broken line). The K_i values for Ca^{2+} inhibition of Na^+ uptake by 20, 1, and 0 μM calmodulin were 0.2, 0.5, and 200 μM free Ca^{2+} , respectively.

inhibition after incubation with 20, 1, and 0 μM calmodulin were 0.2, 0.5, and 200 μM Ca^{2+} , respectively.

In separate dose-response experiments (not shown), the K_i for inhibition by exogenous calmodulin studied at 1 μM Ca^{2+} was found to be 0.2 μM. To determine the specificity of the calmodulin effect, troponin C was studied with 1 μM Ca^{2+} . No inhibition of Cl^- -coupled Na^+ uptake could be determined even after incubation with troponin C at 100 μM.

We next investigated whether the calmodulin-binding neuroleptic TFP would inhibit the calmodulin-dependent effect on electrolyte transport. At high concentration such drugs react

with membrane lipids and have nonspecific effects on cellular and membrane functions. A significant inhibition of Na^+ uptake in Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-free solutions was noted with TFP concentration 10^{-4} M or greater ($P < 0.05$ at 10^{-3} M). TFP concentrations 10^{-5} M or less had no effect on Na^+ uptake; therefore, we studied the ability of 10^{-5} M TFP to prevent the inhibition of Na^+ and Cl^- uptake by $1 \mu\text{M}$ Ca^{2+} in the presence of $2 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin. At these concentrations, Ca^{2+} , calmodulin, and TFP alone had no effect on Na^+ or Cl^- uptake, and Ca^{2+} plus calmodulin had no effect on mannitol uptake. As illustrated in Fig. 4A, Ca^{2+} /calmodulin inhibited Na^+ uptake in the presence of Cl^- by 21–32%. TFP ($10 \mu\text{M}$) reversed this inhibitory effect. On the other hand, when gluconate replaced Cl^- in the transport solution, there was no stimulation of Na^+ uptake, and no effect of Ca^{2+} , calmodulin, or TFP would be observed (Fig. 4B). Formal dose-response studies (not shown) indicated the K_i for TFP to be $3 \mu\text{M}$.

Similar experiments of the effect of Ca^{2+} /calmodulin and TFP on Cl^- uptake in the presence of Na^+ and choline are shown in Fig. 5. Ca^{2+} /calmodulin inhibited Cl^- uptake in the presence of Na^+ by 20–27% and TFP ($10 \mu\text{M}$) reversed this effect (Fig. 5A). No effect of any agent could be seen when choline was the counter cation (Fig. 5B).

The studies depicted in Figs. 4 and 5 were performed after incubation of the vesicles in a solution containing ATP and Mg^{2+} in addition to Ca^{2+} and calmodulin. However, the degree of inhibition (20–30%) was no greater than that observed when ATP and Mg^{2+} were omitted (Fig. 3). The lack of effect of ATP preincubation was confirmed in formal comparison experiments in which Na^+ uptake was determined after incubation with identical solutions containing 10^{-6} or 10^{-7} M free Ca^{2+} and $20 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin, with or without 5 mM ATP and 2 mM

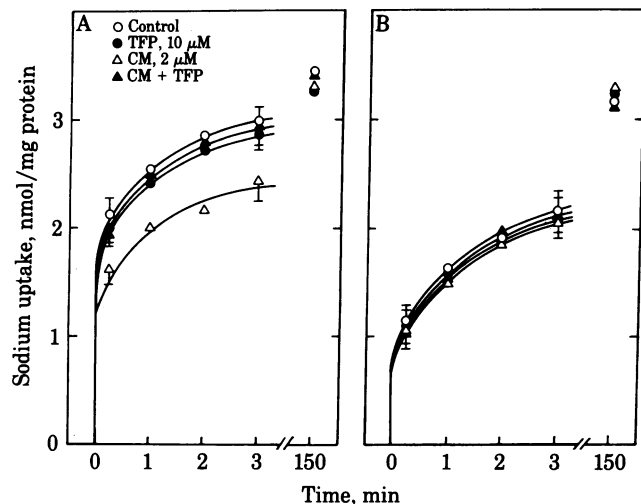


FIG. 4. (A) Inhibition of Cl^- -coupled Na^+ uptake by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin (CM) and reversal of this effect by the addition of TFP. (B) Lack of a Ca^{2+} /calmodulin effect when gluconate is the anion. Vesicle suspensions were split into four aliquots. In A, vesicles were incubated for 2–4 hr at 4°C in 2 mM NaCl/98 mM KCl/2 mM MgSO_4 /5 mM ATP/100 mM mannitol/20 mM Tris/Hepes, pH 7.4, and this alone was the composition of the incubation solution for controls (\circ). For the second aliquot (Δ), $1 \mu\text{M}$ free Ca^{2+} and $2 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin were also present in the incubation solution. In the third aliquot, TFP ($10 \mu\text{M}$ final concentration) was added to the control solution after 2 hr of incubation and the vesicles were incubated for an additional 2 hr (\bullet). In the fourth aliquot, $1 \mu\text{M}$ Ca^{2+} and $2 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin were present in the incubation solution and TFP ($10 \mu\text{M}$ final concentration) was added after 2 hr (\blacktriangle). The transport solution had the same Na^+ , Cl^- , mannitol, and Tris/Hepes concentrations as the inside solution except that $^{22}\text{NaCl}$ replaced NaCl. In B, sodium gluconate and potassium gluconate replaced the Cl^- salts.

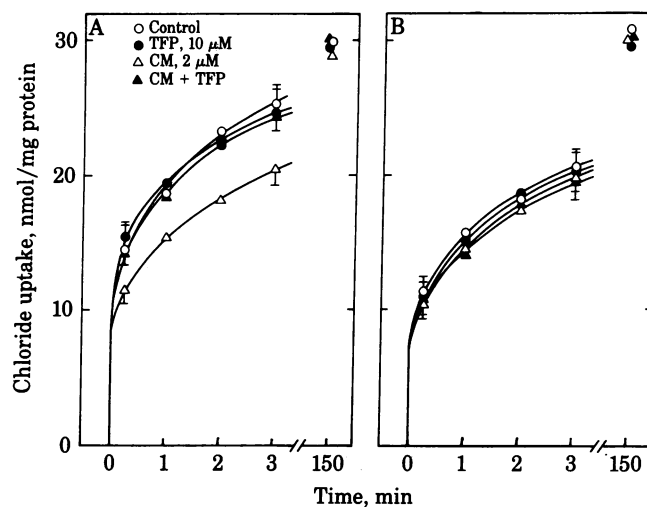


FIG. 5. (A) Inhibition of Na^+ -coupled Cl^- uptake by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin (CM) and reversal of this effect with TFP. (B) Lack of inhibition of Cl^- uptake by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin when choline replaces Na^+ . Controls (\circ) were incubated for 4 hr at 4°C in 20 mM NaCl/2 mM MgSO_4 /5 mM ATP/100 mM mannitol/20 mM Tris/Hepes, pH 7.4. For a second aliquot of vesicles (Δ), $1 \mu\text{M}$ free Ca^{2+} and $2 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin were present in the incubation solution. TFP at $10 \mu\text{M}$ was added to the incubation solution of a third aliquot (\bullet). For the fourth aliquot, $1 \mu\text{M}$ Ca^{2+} and $2 \mu\text{M}$ calmodulin were present in the incubation solution, and after 2 hr $10 \mu\text{M}$ TFP was added and incubation was continued for an additional 2 hr (\blacktriangle). The transport solutions had the same ionic composition as the inside solutions except Na^{36}Cl replaced NaCl. In B, choline Cl replaced NaCl.

MgSO_4 . Preliminary studies have demonstrated considerable ATP hydrolysis under these conditions, so it is doubtful that ATP entered the vesicles in significant concentrations.

DISCUSSION

We have used isolated membrane vesicles for studying the role of Ca^{2+} /calmodulin in regulating Na^+ and Cl^- transport. We have purified brush border membrane vesicles with a technique not involving calcium precipitation and have previously presented evidence for an electrically neutral, carrier-mediated, coupled Na^+ - Cl^- transport process (15). However, the nature of the coupling of Na^+ to Cl^- transport remains uncertain. We also demonstrated $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$ and $\text{Cl}^-:\text{OH}^-$ (or HCO_3^-) antiport and showed inhibition of Na^+ -dependent Cl^- uptake by Na^+ transport inhibitors such as harmaline or amiloride and inhibition of Cl^- -dependent Na^+ uptake by anion-exchange inhibitors such as 4-acetamido-4'-isothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid (SITS). Therefore, as suggested by Leitke and Hopfer (22, 23), it may be simultaneous $\text{Na}^+:\text{H}^+$ and $\text{Cl}^-:\text{OH}^-$ exchange rather than directly coupled NaCl influx that accounts for the comovements of Na^+ and Cl^- across the villus cell apical membrane.

In the studies reported here, we present direct evidence for Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-mediated inhibition of apical membrane NaCl uptake. The effect of Ca^{2+} on NaCl coupled uptake was found to be specific for the inside of the vesicle, was reversible, and was not the result of altered Na^+ or Cl^- binding to the vesicle membrane. The inhibition was observed in the first 15 sec and therefore represents a decrease in influx rather than an increase in efflux. The effect was not mimicked by other divalent cations, such as Ba^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , although La^{3+} was equally effective. The La^{3+} effect could not be reversed.

These findings contrast with those of Schulz and Heil (24) in cat pancreatic membrane vesicles, where Ca^{2+} outside the vesicle decreased membrane Na^+ permeability, whereas Ca^{2+} inside increased permeability. Those effects might well have been

nonspecific because they were reproduced by other divalent cations. Indeed, we found both nonspecific and specific alterations in permeability in our studies. Ca^{2+} concentrations of 1 mM decreased Na^+ uptake in the presence of gluconate, Cl^- uptake in the presence of choline, and mannitol uptake by a similar degree (10–17%). It is likely that the general membrane permeability of our vesicles, initially isolated in Ca^{2+} -free media, was decreased by addition of millimolar concentrations of Ca^{2+} . A similar nonspecific effect on permeability was demonstrated with TFP at greater than 10^{-5} M, concentrations at which the drug may interact with the vesicle membrane (25).

When studied at Ca^{2+} , calmodulin, and TFP concentrations that by themselves had no effect on electrolyte or mannitol transport, a TFP-inhibitable, Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-regulated NaCl uptake process was demonstrated. After incubation with 20 μM calmodulin, the K_i for Ca^{2+} inhibition of coupled NaCl uptake was reduced three orders of magnitude, from 200 to 0.2 μM . This inhibition was specific for calmodulin (troponin C had no effect) and was reversed by 10 μM TFP. The K_i (3 μM) for TFP reversal of the Ca^{2+} /calmodulin inhibition of NaCl coupled uptake is similar (1–10 μM) to that for inhibition of brain cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterase (26, 27), muscle protein kinase (28), and pituitary prolactin secretion (29).

The concentration of Ca^{2+} necessary for half-maximal inhibition of NaCl coupled uptake after incubation with 1 μM calmodulin was 0.5 μM , and there was a clearly discernible effect at 0.1 μM Ca^{2+} . This concentration of free Ca^{2+} is certainly in the range expected during stimulus-secretion coupling. This value is also similar to that reported in other calmodulin-dependent systems such as Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} -ATPase (30, 31) and intestinal Ca^{2+} transport (32).

The concentration of exogenous calmodulin incubated with our vesicles that achieved half-maximal inhibition of Na^+ uptake in the presence of 1 μM Ca^{2+} (0.2 μM) was in the range of that reported for other calmodulin-dependent systems such as Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} -ATPase (4–43 nM) (30, 31), Ca^{2+} transport across rat small intestinal basolateral membranes (0.12 μM) (32), and protein kinases found in sarcoplasmic reticulum (0.07 μM) (33) and pancreatic islet cell membranes (0.36 μM) (34). Because it is necessary to incubate calmodulin with the vesicles (which already contain endogenous calmodulin) before an effect is noted, the K_i for exogenously added calmodulin in our system is difficult to interpret. We cannot be certain which calmodulin pool is responsible, but the important pool is probably the calmodulin that is accessible only after vesicle solubilization—i.e., a pool associated with the lipid in the membrane or actually in the intravesicular space.

Calcium-dependent inhibition of apical cell membrane Na^+ permeability has been demonstrated previously in tight epithelia such as frog skin (35) and toad urinary bladder (36, 37). A role for Ca^{2+} and calmodulin in the regulation of intestinal NaCl transport is evident from the present studies and might be inferred for gall bladder and renal tubule, leaky epithelia that also have similar coupled NaCl apical membrane entry processes. Therefore, these results suggest that calcium (and calmodulin) plays an important role in regulating salt absorption in a variety of epithelia.

The mechanism of Ca^{2+} /calmodulin inhibition of NaCl transport remains unclear. Ca^{2+} /calmodulin could act directly on the ion carriers. Alternatively, protein kinase-mediated phosphorylation of membrane proteins might be responsible; Taylor *et al.* (38) have reported a Ca^{2+} /calmodulin-sensitive phosphorylation of rabbit ileal membrane proteins with kinetic values similar to those found here. Exogenous ATP was not necessary to demonstrate a Ca^{2+} /calmodulin effect in our membranes. However, this issue needs to be investigated in more detail with methods that ensure entrance of exogenous ATP into

the vesicle. An understanding of the specific mechanism of Ca^{2+} /calmodulin action should help clarify the intracellular control of epithelial electrolyte transport.

The authors acknowledge the helpful advice of Dr. R. G. Faust in the preparation of membrane vesicles, Dr. M. Donowitz for advice on preparing calcium solutions of low concentration, Dr. W. D. Heizer for antisera against brush border aminopeptidase, Dr. C. R. Hackenbrock for electron microscopy of our vesicles, and Dr. T. C. Vanaman for a supply of troponin C. We also acknowledge the invaluable help of Jane McLelland in preparation of the manuscript. This work was supported by U.S. Public Health Service Grant AM 15350.

1. Donowitz, M. & Asarkof, N. (1982) *Am. J. Physiol.* **243**, G28–G35.
2. Zimmerman, T. W., Dobbins, J. W. & Binder, H. J. (1983) *Am. J. Physiol.* **244**, G552–G560.
3. Bolton, J. E. & Field, M. (1977) *J. Membr. Biol.* **35**, 159–173.
4. Frizzell, R. A. (1977) *J. Membr. Biol.* **35**, 175–187.
5. Donowitz, M., Asarkof, N. & Pike, G. (1980) *J. Clin. Invest.* **66**, 341–352.
6. Howe, C. L., Mooseker, M. S. & Graves, T. A. (1980) *J. Cell Biol.* **85**, 916–923.
7. Glenney, J. R., Jr., & Weber, K. (1980) *J. Biol. Chem.* **255**, 10551–10554.
8. Ilundain, A. & Naftalin, R. J. (1979) *Nature (London)* **279**, 446–448.
9. Smith, P. L. & Field, M. (1980) *Gastroenterology* **78**, 1545–1553.
10. Cheung, W. Y. (1980) *Science* **207**, 19–27.
11. Klee, C. B., Crouch, T. H. & Richman, P. G. (1980) *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **49**, 489–515.
12. Field, M. (1979) in *Mechanisms of Intestinal Secretion*, The Kroc Foundation Series, ed. Binder, H. J. (Liss, New York), Vol. 12, pp. 83–91.
13. Nellans, H. N., Frizzell, R. A. & Schultz, S. G. (1973) *Am. J. Physiol.* **225**, 467–475.
14. Frizzell, R. A., Dugas, M. C. & Schultz, S. G. (1975) *J. Gen. Physiol.* **65**, 769–795.
15. Fan, C.-C., Faust, R. G. & Powell, D. W. (1983) *Am. J. Physiol.* **244**, G375–G385.
16. Haase, W., Schafer, A., Murer, H. & Kinne, R. (1978) *Biochem. J.* **172**, 57–62.
17. Kessler, M., Ainto, O., Storelli, C., Murer, H., Muller, M. & Semenza, G. (1978) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **506**, 136–154.
18. Hopfer, U., Nelson, K., Perrotto, J. & Isselbacher, K. J. (1973) *J. Biol. Chem.* **248**, 25–32.
19. Lowry, O. H., Rosebrough, N. J., Farr, A. L. & Randall, R. J. (1951) *J. Biol. Chem.* **193**, 265–275.
20. Perrin, D. D. & Sayce, I. G. (1967) *Talanta* **14**, 833–842.
21. Fabiato, A. (1981) *J. Gen. Physiol.* **78**, 457–497.
22. Liedke, C. & Hopfer, U. (1982) *Am. J. Physiol.* **242**, G263–G271.
23. Liedke, C. & Hopfer, U. (1982) *Am. J. Physiol.* **242**, G272–G286.
24. Schulz, I. & Heil, K. (1979) *J. Membr. Biol.* **46**, 41–70.
25. Seeman, P. (1972) *Pharmacol. Rev.* **24**, 583–655.
26. Levin, R. M. & Weiss, B. (1976) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **12**, 581–589.
27. Levin, R. M. & Weiss, B. (1977) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **13**, 690–697.
28. Campbell, K. P. & MacLennan, D. H. (1982) *J. Biol. Chem.* **257**, 1238–1246.
29. Merritt, J. E., Tomlinson, S. & Brown, B. L. (1981) *FEBS Lett.* **135**, 107–110.
30. Waisman, D. M., Gimble, J. M., Goodman, D. B. P. & Rasmussen, H. (1981) *J. Biol. Chem.* **256**, 409–414.
31. Pershadsingh, H. A., Landt, M. & McDonald, J. M. (1980) *J. Biol. Chem.* **255**, 8983–8986.
32. Nellans, H. N. & Popovitch, J. E. (1981) *J. Biol. Chem.* **256**, 9932–9936.
33. Le Peuch, C. J., Haiech, J. & Demaille, J. G. (1979) *Biochemistry* **18**, 5150–5157.
34. Landt, M., McDaniel, M. L., Bry, C. G., Kotagal, N., Colca, J. R., Lacy, P. E. & McDonald, J. M. (1982) *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **213**, 148–154.
35. Grinstein, S. & Elij, D. (1978) *Proc. R. Soc. London Ser. B* **202**, 353–360.
36. Taylor, A. & Windhager, E. E. (1979) *Am. J. Physiol.* **236**, F505–F512.
37. Chase, H. S. & Al-Awqati, Q. (1981) *J. Gen. Physiol.* **77**, 693–712.
38. Taylor, L., Guerina, V. J., Donowitz, M., Cohen, M. & Sharp, G. W. G. (1981) *FEBS Lett.* **131**, 322–324.