# **Intracellular pH Controls Cell Membrane**  Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> Conductances and Transport **in Frog Skin Epithelium**

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ABSTRACT We determined the effects of intracellular respiratory and metabolic acid or alkali loads, at constant or variable external pH, on the apical membrane Na<sup>+</sup>-specific conductance ( $g_a$ ) and basolateral membrane conductance ( $g_b$ ), principally due to  $K^+$ , in the short-circuited isolated frog skin epithelium. Conductances were determined from the current-voltage relations of the amiloride-inhibitable cellular current pathway, and intracellular  $pH(pH<sub>i</sub>)$  was measured using double barreled H+-sensitive microelectrodes. The experimental set up permitted simultaneous recording of conductances and pH<sub>i</sub> from the same epithelial cell. We found that due to the asymmetric permeability properties of apical and basolateral cell membranes to HCO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>, the direction of the variations in pH<sub>i</sub> was dependent on the side of addition of the acid or alkali load. Specifically, changing from control Ringer, gassed in air without  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$  (pH<sub>o</sub> = 7.4), to one containing 25 mmol/liter HCO<sub>5</sub> that was gassed in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> (pH<sub>0</sub> = 7.4) on the apical side caused a rapid intracellular acidification whereas when this maneuver was performed from the basolateral side of the epithelium a slight intracellular alkalinization was produced. The addition of 15 mmol/liter NH4C! to control Ringer on the apical side caused an immediate intracellular alkalinization that lasted up to 30 min; subsequent removal of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl resulted in a reversible fall in  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ , whereas basolateral addition of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl produced a prolonged intracellular acidosis. Using these maneouvres to change pH<sub>i</sub> we found that the transepithelial  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  transport rate  $(I_{\kappa})$ , and  $g_{\kappa}$ , and  $g_{\kappa}$  were increased by an intracellular alkalinization and decreased by an acid shift in pH<sub>i</sub>. These variations in  $I_{\kappa}$ ,  $g_{\kappa}$ , and  $g_{\kappa}$  with changing pH<sub>i</sub> occurred simultaneously, instantaneously, and in parallel even upon small perturbations of pH<sub>i</sub> (range,  $7.1-7.4$ ). Taken together these results indicate that pH<sub>i</sub> may act as an intrinsic regulator of epithelial ion transport.

# INTRODUCTION

In epithelia it has long been realized that variations in ion movements at opposing apical and basolateral cell membranes may influence each other. Such intrinsic regulation has been termed transcellular "cross-talk" or coupling and is known to

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occur in a wide variety of epithelia (reviewed by Schultz 1981; and Diamond 1982). Definite evidence for cross-talk was first obtained from work on frog skin (MacRobbie and Ussing, 1961; Helman et al., 1979), toad urinary bladder (Finn, 1974; Reuss and Finn, 1975; Davis and Finn, 1982), and *Neaurus* urinary bladder (Thomas et al., 1983). In the frog skin it was found that inhibition of the basolateral  $Na^+/K^+$ ATPase was accompanied by a decrease in apical Na permeability and conductance. A converse type of cross-talk was described in the toad bladder where block of the apical Na<sup>+</sup> conductance was accompanied by a decrease in basolateral  $K^+$  conductance, whereas in *Necturus* urinary bladder the basolateral membrane conductance was found to increase with the conductance of the apical membrane when  $Na<sup>+</sup>$ transport was stimulated. Another type of "parallel coupling" has been described within the basolateral membrane between "pump"  $(Na^+/K^+ATPase)$  and "leak" (K<sup>+</sup> electrodiffusion). In renal proximal tubules ouabain inhibition of the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase pump was accompanied by a parallel decrease in apparent  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductance (Messner et al., 1985).

Up until now, however, the intracellular signal that controls cell membrane conductances has not been identified. In this study we examined the possibility that intracellular pH may act as such a signal.

Intracellular pH is closely regulated in animal cells and much information exists on the mechanisms that control  $pH_i$  within narrow limits (Roos and Boron, 1981; Thomas, 1984). In spite of the importance of this tight regulation of  $\rm pH_{i}$ , considering its profound effects on cell properties, such as excitability and ion transport (for review see Moody, 1984), there is little information on the role of normal physiological or experimentally induced changes in  $H<sub>i</sub>$  in controlling cell membrane conductances, especially in epithelia. Experimental maneuvers designed to create an intracellular acid load have been shown to decrease the short-circuit current in frog skin (Funder et al., 1967; Mandel, 1978) and to decrease apical  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  permeability in the K+-depolarized toad urinary bladder (Palmer, 1985). Furthermore, an intracellular acidification was reported to reduce the K<sup>+</sup> transference in the *Necturus* proximal tubule (Kubota et al., 1983) and in cultured bovine retinal pigment cells (Keller et al., 1986). Since no quantitative study has yet been reported on these responses, our aim was to characterize the effects of respiratory and metabolic acid-base disturbances on  $pH<sub>i</sub>$  in the short-circuited isolated frog skin epithelium and, having done so, to study the effects of such experimentally induced changes in  $H_i$  on apical Na<sup>+</sup> and basolateral  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductances.

In the companion paper (Harvey and Ehrenfeld, 1988) we report on the evidence for  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange at the basolateral membrane and its role in pH<sub>i</sub> regulation, and, as a consequence, the effect of its activity on  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductances.

#### GLOSSARY

Current is expressed in units of  $\mu A \cdot cm^{-2}$  surface area, voltage in mV, and conductance in  $mS\cdot cm^{-2}$ .

 $I_{\rm sc}$ : short-circuit current.

I,: transepithelial clamp current.

 $I_a$ ,  $I_b$ : amiloride-sensitive current across the apical and basolateral cell membranes, respectively.

- V.: transepithelial potential difference.
- $V<sub>a</sub>$ : apical cell membrane potential.
- $V<sub>b</sub>$ : basolateral cell membrane potential.
- $V_{\rm R}$ : reversal potential, equivalent to Nernst potential for passive Na<sup>+</sup> distribution across the apical membrane. Determined from  $I_a - V_a$  relations at  $V_a$  when  $I_a = 0$ .
- $g_n$ : slope conductance of the amiloride-sensitive Na<sup>+</sup> transport pathway at the apical membrane. Determined from the partial derivative of the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz (GHK) flux equation.
- $P_{\text{Na}}$ : apical membrane Na<sup>+</sup> permeability determined from GHK fit to  $I_{\text{A}} V_{\text{A}}$  relations.
- $g_b$ : slope conductance of the basolateral membrane determined from linear regression analysis of  $I_b - V_b$  relations.
- $G_{\text{Na}}$ : chord conductance of the amiloride-sensitive Na transport pathway at the apical membrane.
- G,: total transepithelial conductance.
- $G_c$ : transcellular conductance;  $(G_t$  in absence of amiloride)  $(G_t$  in presence of 50  $\mu$ M amiloride in apical bath).
- $G_a$ ,  $G_b$ : apical and basolateral membrane conductance, respectively, obtained from circuit analysis.
- $R_a$ ,  $R_b$ : reciprocal of  $G_a$  and  $G_b$  (resistance)
- $F(R_n)$ : fractional resistance of apical membrane, equivalent to  $G_c/G_n$ .
- $[Na^+]$ : intracellular sodium concentration calculated from  $V_R$  at constant external apical sodium concentration.
- pHi: intracellular pH measured with double-barreled ion-sensitive microelectrodes.
- $[K^+]_b$ : potassium concentration in the basolateral Ringer solution.

#### METHODS

The experiments were carried out on in vitro Rana esculenta ventral skin ("whole skin") and on the epithelium ("isolated epithelium") isolated by treating the corial side with 1.0 mg/ml collagenase (Worthington Biochemical Corp., St. Louis, MO) at 30°C under a 10-cm hydrostatic pressure. The whole skin or isolated epithelium was mounted in a modified Ussing chamber that permitted cell penetration from above, via either the apical or basolateral sides, by microelectrodes. The transepithelial potential  $(V_t)$  was clamped to zero by short-circuiting the tissue using an automatic voltage clamp (model VC600; Physiologic Instruments, Houston, TX). The  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  transport rate was measured as being equivalent to the short-circuit current  $(I_{\kappa})$ , which was sensitive to amiloride (50  $\mu$ M) applied to the apical side.

#### *Solutions and Drugs*

The tissue was normally perfused on both sides with a Ringer solution designated "control" in the text, which had the following composition (in millimolar): 83 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 2 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 11 Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 2 MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.2 KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2.5 Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 11 glucose. This solution was gassed in air and buffered to pH 7.4 with BES (10 mM), pH adjustment was made with 1 N NaOH (when 1 mM BaCl<sub>2</sub> was added to the basolateral side, this Ringer solution had sulfate salts replaced by the corresponding chloride salt). When intracellular acid-base disturbances were produced at constant external pH, the control Ringer on the apical side was changed for a Ringer of similiar composition except that it was gassed in  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> and contained 24 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> in place of the 11 mM  $Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>$ . Alternatively, an intracellular alkalinization or acidification was produced at constant external pH by adding 15 mM NH4CI to the control Ringer on the apical or basolateral side.

Amiioride was purchased from Merck, Sharp and Dohme (West Point, PA) and 4.4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2-2'disulfonic acid (DIDS) from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO).

# *Microelectrode Recording Arrangements*

Apical and basolateral cell membrane potential differences  $(V_a$  and  $V_b$ , respectively) were recorded with borosilicate glass (Hilgenberg, FRG) microelectrodes filled with 1 M KCI (60- 80 M $\Omega$  tip resistance when immersed in Ringer solution) and connected via Ag/AgCl wire to a dual microprobe amplifier (model 750; World Precision Instruments (WPI), New Haven, CT). Current and potential differences were measured with reference to the apical Ringer solution connected to virtual ground in the VC 600 clamp. Microelectrodes were advanced into the cells using Huxley Goodfellow micromanipulators (HG-3000; Goodfellow Metals, Cambridge, UK).

 $pH<sub>i</sub>$  was measured with double-barreled  $H<sup>+</sup>$  ion-sensitive microelectrodes using the proton ionophore tridodecylamine as the  $H^+$  sensor (Proton cocktail 82500; Fluka, Switzerland). Manufacture and calibration of pH microelectrodes was similar to that described previously (Harvey and Ehrenfeld, 1986) and is described in greater detail in the companion paper. The electrodes responded with non-Nernstian slopes of 50-54 mV per pH unit when tested in calibration solutions over the pH range 5-8. The reference barrel was filled with 1 M KCI and was used to measure  $V_a$  or  $V_b$ .

The ion-sensitive barrel was backfilled with 1 M NaCI and Na citrate at a pH of 6.5. This latter barrel, when present within a cell and referenced to the external Ringer solution, measures the transmembrane electrochemical potential for  $H<sup>+</sup>$  when corrected for the non-Nernstian calibration response. The outputs from the reference and ion-sensitive barrels were fed via Ag/AgCI wires to a high input impedance differential electrometer (FD 223; NPI) and then sent to a driven shield (FC 23; WPI) around the microelectrode. We used double-barreled ion-sensitive microelectrodes in preference to two separate single barrels. The accurate recording of pH<sub>i</sub> requires subtraction of the membrane potential output of both reference and ion-sensitive barrels, and this is best obtained when both barrels record from the same cell.

Membrane potentials were displayed on an oscilloscope (model 5115; Tektronix, Inc., Beaverton, OR), and  $I_{\kappa}$ , cell membrane potentials and pH<sub>i</sub> were monitored on a potentiometric pen recorder (type 2065; Linseis, FRG), and stored on floppy disk by an Apple IIe computer, or on hard disk by an IBM AT 3 computer using a Unisoft program.

#### *Current-Voltage Analysis*

The recording of current-voltage (I-V) curves was performed under short-circuit current conditions with a computer program adapted from the one used by Thomas et al. (1983) and an Apple IIe computer for data storage and analysis. The current-pulse train consisted of transepithelial bipolar current pulses  $(I_t)$  of 50-ms duration, 100-ms interval between pulses, and of sufficient strength to clamp the  $V_t$  over the range 0 to  $\pm 200$  mV in steps of 5, 10, or 20 mV under computer command.

The *I-V* relations of the apical membrane amiloride-sensitive Na<sup>+</sup> conductive pathway  $(I_a$ -V,) were obtained from the difference in the *IcV,* curves recorded under control spontaneous Na<sup>+</sup> transport conditions and those recorded when  $I_{\kappa}$  had fallen to a steady level between 30-90 s after the addition of 50  $\mu$ M amiloride to the apical Ringer solution. We assume that the amiloride-inhibited  $I_{\kappa}$  is equal to the transcellular Na<sup>+</sup> current pathway. For short applications of amiloride this assumption appears valid for a wide variety of tight-junctioned epithelia (Thompson et al., 1982; Nagel et al., 1983; Thomas et al., 1983). In agreement with recent reports in whole frog skin (De Long and Civan, 1984; Schoen and Erlij, 1985), the *Ia-Va* relationship recorded in whole skin or isolated epithelium could be accurately described

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by the GHK equation for a single permeant ion (Na<sup>+</sup>) over the range of  $V<sub>a</sub>$  between  $-200$ and  $+100$  mV.

The GHK flux equation (Eq. 1) was fitted to the  $I_a$ - $V_a$  relations by obtaining the best-fit values for apical Na<sup>+</sup> permeability ( $P_{\text{Na}}$ ) and cell sodium concentration ([Na]<sub>i</sub>)

$$
I_{\mathbf{a}} = -\left(\frac{P_{\mathbf{Na}} \cdot V_{\mathbf{a}} \cdot F^2}{RT}\right) \left(\frac{[\mathbf{Na}]_{\mathbf{a}} - [\mathbf{Na}]_{\mathbf{i}} \exp\left(\mathbf{x}\right)}{1 - \exp\left(\mathbf{x}\right)}\right),\tag{1}
$$

where  $x = V_s \cdot F/RT$ . The slope conductance of the amiloride-sensitive apical Na<sup>+</sup> transport pathway  $(g_a)$  was calculated from the following differential forms of the GHK equation: for  $g_a$ at any  $V_a$ , except  $V_a = 0$ 

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}V} = \left\{ \frac{F^2 \cdot P_{\text{Na}}}{RT} \right\} \left\{ \frac{[\exp{(x)(1-x) - 1][[\text{Na}]_i \exp{(x)} - [\text{Na}]_o]}}{[\exp{(x)} - 1]^2} + [\text{x}/(\exp{(x)} - 1)] \cdot [[\text{Na}]_i \exp{(x)}] \right\}. \tag{2}
$$

For  $g_a$  at  $V_a = 0$ :

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}V} - \left(\frac{F^2 \cdot P_{\text{Na}}}{RT}\right) \left(\frac{[\text{Na}]_o + [\text{Na}]_i}{2}\right). \tag{3}
$$

For  $g_a$  at the reversal potential:

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}V} = \left(\frac{F^2 \cdot P_{\mathrm{Na}}}{RT}\right) \left(\frac{[\mathrm{Na}]_o \cdot [\mathrm{Na}]_i}{[\mathrm{Na}]_o - [\mathrm{Na}]_i} \cdot \ln \frac{[\mathrm{Na}]_o}{[\mathrm{Na}]_i}\right). \tag{4}
$$

An alternative measure, used by some workers, of apical membrane  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  conductance is the chord conductance  $(C_{N_a})$ , which relates the measured transcellular Na<sup>+</sup> current to the transmembrane Na<sup>+</sup> electrochemical driving force ( $\Delta \tilde{\mu}$ Na).  $C_{Na}$  was determined from Eq. 5.

$$
G_{\text{Na}} = I_{\text{a}}/\Delta \tilde{\mu} \text{Na} = I_{\text{a}}/(V_{\text{a}} - V_{\text{R}}) = \left\{ \frac{F^2 \cdot P_{\text{Na}} \cdot \mathbf{x}}{RT} \right\} \left\{ \frac{[\text{Na}]_{\text{o}} - [\text{Na}]_{\text{i}} \exp(\mathbf{x})}{[\text{I} - \exp(\mathbf{x})] - [\text{In } [\text{Na}]_{\text{o}}/[\text{Na}]_{\text{i}}]} \right\}.
$$
 (5)

In general, we chose to determine the slope conductance at  $V_a - V_R$  since the chord and slope conductances are closely related only in the range of membrane voltages near the reversal potential (Thompson, 1986).

The  $I-V$  relations of the basolateral cell membranes  $(I_b-V_b)$  were recorded simultaneously with those of the apical membrane  $I_a - V_a$  relations and were obtained from the difference between those determined before and after the addition of amiloride (50  $\mu$ M) to the apical bath. These "difference"  $I_b - V_b$  relations were linear and stabilized for sample times  $>20$  ms after the onset of the voltage clamp, which is in agreement with the observations of Schoen and Erlij (1985). The slope conductance of the basolateral membranes  $(g_b)$  was calculated from linear regression analysis of the difference *Ib-Vb* relations over the range of basolateral membrane voltage of 0 and 150 mV.

## *Apparent Relative K<sup>+</sup> Conductance*

To a large extent,  $g_b$  reflects K<sup>+</sup> conductance since this membrane is K<sup>+</sup> permselective. We attempted to estimate the relative  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductance of the basolateral cell membranes by determining the K<sup>+</sup>-dependent partial potential ratio  $T_{\rm K}$ :

$$
T_{\mathbf{K}} = \Delta V_{\mathbf{b}} \frac{RT}{F} \ln \frac{[\mathbf{K}]_{\mathbf{t}}}{[\mathbf{K}]_{\mathbf{c}}},\tag{6}
$$

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where  $\Delta V_b$  is the response of the basolateral membrane potential (under short-circuit conditions) to the sudden increase in the  $K^+$  concentration of the basolateral Ringer from [K].  $=$ 3.7 to  $[K]_t = 37$  mM made by adding K gluconate or KCl.

The apparent relative rubidium conductance was calculated in the same manner as the  $T_{\rm k}$ by substituting all  $K^+$  with  $Rb^+$  in the control Ringer and then adding 33.3 mM RbCl to the test solution.

It is more correct to consider  $K^+$  transference  $(t_K)$  rather than  $K^+$ -dependent partial potential ratio ( $T_{\rm K}$ ) as indicative of the apparent relative K<sup>+</sup> conductance, since  $t_{\rm K}$  is calculated from changes in basolateral membrane electromotive force rather than membrane potential. From equivalent circuit analysis in open-circuit conditions  $t_{\rm K}$  = 0.97  $\pm$  0.03 (n = 8), and in shortcircuit conditions  $t_{\rm K} = 0.94 \pm 0.04$  (n = 8). Thus, the basolateral membrane is K<sup>+</sup> permselective. The normalized values of  $T_K/T_K$  max and  $t_K/t_K$  max showed the same relative change as a function of pH; for this reason we used the more easily determined  $T_k$  as an expression of variations occurring in  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductance.

#### *Circuit Analysis*

In some experiments when we were not measuring *I-V* relations we obtained a measurement of apical and basolateral membrane conductances  $(G_a$  and  $G_b$ , respectively) by an equivalent circuit analysis (Schultz et al., 1977). This method requires measurements of the fractional resistance of the apical membrane  $(FR<sub>a</sub>)$  and of the transcellular conductance  $(G<sub>c</sub>)$ .

The FR<sub>4</sub> was determined from the voltage divider  $\Delta V_a/\Delta V_t$  measured from the displacement of  $V_a$  when  $V_t$  was voltage clamped to  $\pm 10$  mV under short-circuit current conditions. The difference between the transepithelial conductance  $(G_t)$  measured before and after block of  $I_{\rm sc}$  with amiloride was assumed to give the transcellular conductance (see Nagel et al., 1983) for criticism). These measurements of *FRa* were performed for 500 ms every 5 s in the absence or presence of apical amiloride (50  $\mu$ M), and were displayed and stored by the computer. From this analysis we obtain:

$$
FR_a = \Delta V_a / V_t = G_c / G_a \tag{7a}
$$

$$
G_{\rm a} = G_{\rm c}/FR_{\rm a} \tag{7b}
$$

$$
G_{\mathbf{b}} = G_{\mathbf{c}} / (1 - FR_{\mathbf{a}}) \tag{7c}
$$

Cell impalements were accepted if  $FR<sub>a</sub>$  approached unity after the addition of amiloride (50  $\mu$ M) to the apical Ringer solution.

## *22Na Unidirectional Flux*

The transepithelial unidirectional sodium fluxes were measured in whole frog skin with the isotope  $^{22}$ Na (0.2  $\mu$ Ci/ml) added to the mucosal solution. After a 20-min equilibration period, the appearance of the isotope was followed in the serosal solution as a function of time with an automatic gamma-counter (MR 252; Kontron, France). The fluxes were calculated in nanoequivalents per hour<sup>-1</sup> per centimeters<sup>2</sup> and compared with simultaneous measurements of short-circuit current. Data are expressed as mean values  $\pm$  SE of the mean and n is the number of experiments.

## RESULTS

# *IntraceUular Acid-Base Disturbances*

In these experiments, we used, where indicated, the short-circuited whole frog skin or isolated epithelium when acid-base disturbances were produced from the apical side, and we always used the isolated epithelium when these perturbations were made from the basolateral side. Control conditions mean that the tissue was superfused on both sides with bicarbonate-free Ringer equilibrated with air and buffered to pH 7.4 with BES (N,N-bis[2-hydroxyethyl]-2 aminoethane sulfonic acid).

### *C02:HCO~ Load*

When the control Ringer bathing the apical side of the isolated epithelium was switched to one buffered in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 24 mmol/liter HCO $\frac{1}{2}$  at constant external



FIGURE 1. Recording of  $pH_i$  and apical membrane potential measured using a double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrode in an isolated epithelium under short-circuit current conditions. The fractional resistance *(FR<sub>a</sub>)* was determined from equivalent circuit analysis and is the ratio of apical to transcellular resistances. The electrode entered a cell from the apical side at arrow "in" and recorded a pH<sub>i</sub> of 7.27 and membrane potential of  $-80$  mV. When control Ringer (equilibrated in air and buffered with BES to pH 7.4) on the apical side was switched to a Ringer buffered to the same pH with  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> and 24 mM HCO<sub>3</sub>, the pH<sub>i</sub> fell rapidly to 6.85 and  $V_{\rm a}$  depolarized with a small increase in FR<sub>a</sub>. The pH<sub>i</sub> recovered to normal values over a period of 10 min after return to the control Ringer. On the contrary, superfusion of  $CO_2$ :HCO<sub>2</sub> Ringer on the basolateral side had little effect on pH, producing only a slight alkalinization, which increased further immediately after return to control Ringer. The opposite effects of apical and basolateral  $CO<sub>2</sub>: HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -buffered Ringer on pH<sub>i</sub> may be due to  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$  ions being permeable only at the basolateral membranes. In support of this conclusion it can be seen that superfusion of the basolateral side with Ringer gassed in  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> without  $HCO<sub>5</sub>$  (pH<sub>b</sub> 6.4) produced a reversible fall in pH<sub>i</sub>, comparable to that produced by apical  $CO_2$ :HCO $_3^-$ -buffered Ringer. After removal of the electrode from the cell (at arrow "out"), the electrode was calibrated by switching to a Ringer buffered to pH 6.8 with MES.

pH (7.4), an immediate and prolonged intracellular acidification was produced (Fig. 1). This marked fall in  $pH_i$  was readily reversible upon return to control Ringer. By contrast, when the basolateral side of the epithelium was superfused with the same  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -buffered Ringer, the pH<sub>i</sub> increased slightly (Fig. 1). The relative lack of effect of basolateral  $CO_2$  on pH<sub>i</sub> in this case is probably due to simultaneous  $CO_2$ 

and  $HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  entry across the basolateral membrane and a subsequent increase in intracellular buffering power. In support of this conclusion we found that superfusion of the basolateral side with a Ringer equilibrated in 5%  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  without  $HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>(pH)$ 6.4) caused a rapid and reversible cell acidification (Fig. 1). Since apical  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ buffered Ringer produced similiar effects on  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ , the  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$  permeability of the apical cell membranes must be low.

Concomitant with the changes in  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ , the intracellular potential also varied. Since the experiments were carried out under short-circuit current conditions this change



FIGURE 2. Recording of the effects of NH4CI (15 mM) on pH<sub>i</sub> measured by a double-barreled H+-sensitive microelectrode in the short-circuited frog skin. The electrode penetrated a cell from the apical side (at arrow "in") recording a phi of 7.21 and a membrane potential of  $-60$  mV. The pH $_{\rm i}$ increased to 7.39 when 15 mM NH,CI was added from the apical side of constant external pH. Subsequent removal of NH4C1 produced a "rebound" intracellular acidification. The effects of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl on pH<sub>i</sub> were time dependent and for longterm exposure the "plateau phase" alkalinization was followed, after a lapse of  $\sim 15$ min, by a fall in pH<sub>i</sub>. Subsequent removal of NH4CI produced an enhanced rebound acidification followed by a slow recovery phase. Despite the large changes in pH<sub>i</sub>, there was little variation in the fractional resistance of the apical membrane.

in potential reflects variations in both apical and basolateral membrane potentials. Surprisingly, however, the ratio of apical to transcellular resistances *(FRa)* changed only slightly. Thus, if changes in transcellular resistance occurred during perturbations of pHi, the resistances of both the apical and basolateral membranes must have been affected simultaneously and in the same direction.

### *NH3/NH~ Load*

To cause intracellular acid-base disturbances, we followed the now classical method described for other tissues of using an NH4CI prepulse to alkalinize the cell followed by its washout to create a rebound intracellular acidification. Exposure of the apical side to 15 mM NH4CI in whole frog skin was associated with a rapid and transient intracellular alkalinization that lasted between 15 and 30 min (Fig. 2). For incubation periods longer than 15 min, we observed a decrease in pH<sub>i</sub>. Upon removal of NH4CI the pHi rapidly acidified and then recovered slowly to control values (Fig. 2). The degree of this acidification depended on the duration of exposure to  $NH_{4}Cl$ . An incubation time of at least 30 min was found to produce the maximum acidification after washout.

Exposure of the basolateral side to  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  (15 mM) in isolated epithelia produced a similar but faster pattern of pH<sub>i</sub> changes to that observed during  $NH_{4}Cl$  addition on the apical side. During the first 2 min of exposure to  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  a rapid and tran-



**FIGURE 3.** Double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrode recording of pH<sub>i</sub> and membrane potential in the shortcircuited isolated epithelium when  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  (15 mM) was added from the basolateral side. The cell impalement from the basolateral side is indicated by the arrow. The variations in pH<sub>i</sub> appear similar to but faster than those seen in Fig. 2 for apical exposure to the weak base. The plateau-phase alkalinization, however, is reduced in both magnitude and in time course, and the subsequent fall in pH<sub>i</sub> begins much earlier. Recovery from the rebound acidification after washout of basolateral NH<sub>4</sub>Cl took longer than that produced from the apical side.

sient intracellular alkalinization was produced (Fig. 3). For longer incubation times, the pH<sub>i</sub> slowly decreased to more acidic values. After washout of the  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$ , the pH<sub>i</sub> fell even further before returning to control levels. In both cases of NH4CI addition to the apical or basolateral Ringer, the disturbances in  $H<sub>i</sub>$  were accompanied by changes in membrane potential without a great deal of variation in  $FR_{\alpha}$  (Figs. 2 and 3).

The degree of intracellular acidification produced by apical  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  or basolateral  $NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>$  was dependent on the intracellular buffering power (see Appendix). The latter was increased approximately twofold when a  $CO<sub>9</sub>:HCO<sub>8</sub>-buffered Ringers solution$ was present on the basolateral side. In this condition, gassing with  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  on the apical side or the addition of  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  to the basolateral side produced only very slight changes in pHi. Thus, to produce sizeable variations in intracellular pH, the Ringer





FIGURE 4.  $(A \text{ and } B)$  Simultaneous recordings of apical membrane (a) and basolateral membrane (b) amiloride-sensitive *I-V* relations in control ( $\bullet$ ), alkali- $(\blacksquare)$ , and acid-loaded  $(\blacktriangle)$ , short-circuited isolated epithelium at constant external pH. The acid, alkali, and control I-V relations were obtained in the same cell. In control Ringer ( $CO<sub>g</sub>$ -free, gassed in air) the pHi was 7.25. An alkali load was produced by adding 15 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl to this Ringer on the apical side (pH $_i$  7.65). Perfusion of the apical side with a  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -buffered Ringer was used to produce the acid load ( $pH_i$  6.85). The alkali load shifted both apical and basolateral membrane *I-V* 

curves, producing an increase in slope conductance and current at any given membrane potential. An acid load produced the opposite effects. Detailed characteristics of the GHK fit to the apical membrane *I-V* curves and linear regression analysis of the basolateral membrane *I-V* relations of such acid- and alkali-loaded cells are given in Table I. (C) Relations between  $g_*$ and  $V_4$  that were normalized by dividing  $g_4$  by its maximum theoretical value calculated from Eq. 8 under control conditions (O) and acid (A) or alkali ( $\bullet$ ) loads. Since  $g_a/g_{\text{max}}$  vs.  $V_a$  relations under all three conditions are superimposable over the normal range of membrane voltages (-100 to -20 mV), the effect of pH<sub>i</sub> on  $g_a$  is voltage independent. In other words, the degree of inhibition of  $g_a$  by low pH<sub>i</sub> or stimulation by high pH<sub>i</sub> is practically constant over the range of negative membrane potentials. This does not appear to be true for positive membrane potentials that are not normally encountered in the transporting epithelium. The maximum theoretical deviation from the voltage independence of the  $pH_i$  effect shown at large and positive  $V_a$  values was calculated from Eq. 9. At a large and negative  $V_a$  value:

$$
\max \frac{dI}{dV} = (F^2 \cdot P_{\text{Na}}/RT) \cdot [\text{Na}]_i \tag{8}
$$

At a large and positive  $V_a$  value:

$$
\min \mathrm{d}I/\mathrm{d}V = (F^2 \cdot P_{\text{Na}^*}[\text{Na}]_{\text{o}})/RT \tag{9}
$$

bathing the basolateral side must contain a nonpermeable buffer. It should be noted that application of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  from the apical side was found to be the most effective way of producing a rapid intracellular acidification that remained at a steady level during the presence of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . On the other hand, the production of an alkaline shift in  $pH_i$  was best obtained during the first 20 min of exposure to NH<sub>4</sub>Cl from the apical side. The response of  $pH_i$  to apically applied  $CO_2$  or  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  was similiar in experiments on whole skin and on the isolated epithelium.

An intracellular acid load could also be effectively produced after the washout of NH4CI after preloading from the apical or basolateral sides. Moreover, a slowly changing acidification was best observed during long-term exposure  $($ >5 min) of the isolated epithelium to NH4CI from the basolateral side.

These methods of creadng intracellular acid-base disturbances at constant external pH allowed us to examine the effects of pHi variations on the *I-V* relations and ionic conductances of the apical and basolateral cell membranes.

Condition	I.,	$P_{\rm N}$	g.	$G_{\rm th}$	Æь	[Na].	pH <sub>i</sub>
		$\mu A \cdot cm^{-2}$ $10^{-6} cm \cdot s$ $mS \cdot cm^{-2}$ $mS \cdot cm^{-2}$ $mS \cdot cm^{-2}$				$mmol \cdot liter^{-1}$	
Control							
$(n - 8)$	$20 \pm 2$			$0.569 \pm 0.067$ $0.156 \pm 0.019$ $0.166 \pm 0.017$ $0.29 \pm 0.04$ $11 \pm 2$ 7.23 $\pm 0.09$			
Alkali load							
$(n - 8)$	$25 + 2$			$0.853 \pm 0.075$ $0.432 \pm 0.036$ $0.307 \pm 0.041$ $0.45 \pm 0.04$ $23 \pm 3$ $7.65 \pm 0.11$			
Acid load							
$(n - 8)$	$3 \pm 0.5$			$0.265 \pm 0.011$ $0.039 \pm 0.005$ $0.036 \pm 0.004$ $0.08 \pm 0.01$ $5 \pm 2$ $6.85 \pm 0.25$			

TABLE I *Effects of Intracellular Alkali and Acid Loads on Na<sup>+</sup> Transport Parameters* 

Apical Na<sup>+</sup> permeability ( $P^{Mn}$ ), slope (g<sub>a</sub>) and chord ( $G_{Nn}$ ) conductance, basolateral membrane slope conductance (gb) and intracellular Na + concentration [Na+]i were determined from amiloride-sensitive cell *I-V* relatinm, pHi was measured using double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrodes. Control conditions were in bicarbonate-free Ringer solutions bathing both sides of the frog skin. An intracellular alkali load was induced by adding 15 mM NH<sub>4</sub>CL to the control Ringer solution on the apical side. The *I-V* relations were recorded between 2 and 15 min after NH<sub>4</sub>CL addition when pH<sub>i</sub> and short-circuit current  $(l<sub>x</sub>)$  had reached stable maximum values. An intracellular acid load was produced by switching the control Ringer solution bathing the apical side to a solution buffered at the same pH with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 24 mM HCO<sub>3</sub>. Data analysis was performed between 2 and 5 min after  $CO_2$  equilibration when pH<sub>i</sub> and  $I_x$  had reached stable minimum values.

# *Effects of pH<sub>i</sub> on Apical Membrane Na<sup>+</sup> Conductance and Basolateral Membrane Conductance at Constant External pH*

The amiloride-sensitive *I-V* relationship of the apical cell membranes could be accurately fit by the GHK flux equation for  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  in control and in conditions of acid-base disturbances (Fig.  $4 A$ ). Using the equation as described in the Methods, we calculated apical Na permeability  $(P_{\text{Na}})$ , slope conductance  $(g_{\text{a}})$ , chord conductance  $(G_{\text{Na}})$ , and  $[Na]$ <sub>i</sub> when the cells were acid or alkali loaded (Table I). The effects of acid and alkali load on the *I-V* relationships of the apical Na conductive pathway and of the basolateral cell membranes recorded in the same cell of an isolated epithelium are shown in Fig. 4,  $A$  and  $B$ . An alkali load (produced by  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  addition to the apical side) always increased  $P_{\text{Na}}$ ,  $g_{\text{a}}$ , Na transport rate  $(I_{\text{sc}})$ , and basolateral conductance (Table I) whereas a respiratory acid load (produced by  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$  added to apical side) had the opposite effects on all of these parameters (Table I).

## *Voltage Independence of the pH. Effect*

The membrane potential changed with variations in  $H<sub>ii</sub>$ , and, since the experiments were conducted under short-circuit conditions, the direction and magnitude of this change depended on both apical and basolateral membrane conductances. For example, inhibition of apical  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  entry would tend to hyperpolarize the apical membrane, whereas block of  $K<sup>+</sup>$  channels at the basolateral membrane would depolarize  $V_{\rm b}$ . Do these voltage changes influence the effects of pH<sub>i</sub> on apical membrane  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  conductance? With dissimilar concentrations of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  on either side of the membrane, a voltage dependence of  $g_a$  is implicit in the GHK curves shown in Fig. 4 A and can be calculated from the first derivative of the *I-V* plot as a function of voltage (Eqs. 2-4). When plots of  $g_a$  vs.  $V_a$  were normalized by dividing  $g_a$  by the maximum (theoretical) value of  $g_{\rm a}$  calculated for a large and negative  $V_{\rm a}$ , the relations of  $g_{\rm a}/g_{\rm max}$ vs.  $V_a$  were found to be practically superimposable for control, alkali, and acid load conditions over the  $V_a$  range of  $-100$  to  $-20$  mV (Fig. 4 C). Thus, the voltage dependence of  $g_a$  was not distorted by intracellular acidification or alkalinization over the normal intracellular voltage range. Moreover, the relative inhibition or stimulation of  $g_a$  by acid or alkali loads, respectively, was constant over the  $V_a$  range normally encountered, indicating that the effects of intracellular  $H^+$  on  $g_a$  were not affected by membrane potential changes.

## *Dependence of g<sub>a</sub> on pH<sub>i</sub>*

Simultaneous measurements of pH<sub>i</sub> and  $g_a$  using double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrodes and *I-V* analysis revealed a close covariance between these parameters. An intracellular acid load produced by  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ : HCO<sub>3</sub>-buffered Ringer on the apical side was accompanied by a decrease in  $g_a$  and short-circuit current (Fig. 5). Upon return to control Ringer, the  $g_a$  and  $I_a$  both increased in parallel with the recovery of pH<sub>i</sub> to control values. The change in  $I_{\rm sc}$  is expected to follow  $g_{\rm a}$  if the apical  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  entry step is rate-limiting for overall transepithelial  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  transport. On the other hand, both  $g_a$  and  $I_x$  were increased when  $CO_2:HCO_3^-$  Ringer was present either simultaneously on both sides or on the basolateral side alone. These changes were accompanied by a slight intracellular alkalinization (Fig. 5).

The effects of a long-term increase in  $pH_i$  on  $g_a$  and  $I_k$  were investigated in the presence of  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  on the apical side. Immediately after the addition of 15 mmol/ liter NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, the  $g_a$  and  $I_g$  increased in parallel with the rise in pH<sub>i</sub> and remained at a steady level during the "plateau-phase" alkalinization (Fig. 6). After a 20-min incubation with NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, the pH<sub>i</sub> began to decline, as did the  $g_a$  and  $I_{sc}$ . After washout of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, the "rebound" acidification was accompanied by a decrease in  $g_a$  and  $I_{sc}$ , and subsequently these parameters showed a similar time-dependent recovery. The dependence of  $g_a$  and  $I_x$  on pH<sub>i</sub> variations in both alkaline and acidic directions could also be observed in the same cell by loading from the basolateral side with  $NH_3:NH_4^+$ . The addition of 15 mmol/liter NH<sub>4</sub>Cl to the basolateral side produced a similar but much faster pattern of changes in pH<sub>i</sub>,  $g_a$ , and  $I_{sc}$  (Fig. 7) than when NH<sub>4</sub>Cl was present on the apical side. Again, the variations in  $g_a$  and  $I_s$ , were covariant with the induced perturbations in  $H<sub>i</sub>$ . The effect of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl on  $pH<sub>i</sub>$  and transport parameters was greatly diminished when the basolateral side was superfused in  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>-buffered Ringer (Fig. 7), a condition in which intracellular buffering$ 

power is more than double that found in control BES-buffered Ringer (cf. Appendix). This result emphasizes the role of permeable buffers in dampening the effects of acid or alkali loads on pH<sub>i</sub> and, as a consequence, on  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  transport.

The relationship obtained between  $g_a$  and pH<sub>i</sub> determined in these experiments is given in Fig. 8. The specific  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  conductance of the apical cell membranes was



FIGURE 5. Response of pH<sub>i</sub>,  $V_a$ ,  $g_a$ ,  $[Na^+]$ <sub>i</sub>, and  $I_a$  to substitution of control Ringer (HCO<sub>3</sub> free equilibrated in air, pH 7.4) with Ringer gassed in 5%  $CO_2$  containing 24 mM HCO<sub>3</sub> (pH 7.4) on the apical or basolateral side of an isolated epithelium. The  $pH_i$  and  $V_n$  were measured with a double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrode,  $g_{\mu}$  and [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> were calculated from the GHK fit of amiloride-sensitive *I-V* relations at ~60-s intervals. For clarity the deflections in V<sub>s</sub> and  $I_{\kappa}$  during the determination of the *I-V* relations that lasted 2 s have been blanked out. Application of a  $CO_2/HCO_3$  Ringer to the apical side caused a rapid covariant and reversible decrease in pH<sub>i</sub>,  $g_{\mu}$ , and  $I_{\kappa}$ . The  $V_{\mu}$  hyperpolarized and subsequently depolarized and calculated  $[Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>$  fell initially and then increased during the intracellular acidification phase. Perfusion of  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$  Ringer solution on both sides or solely on the basolateral side had the opposite effects, causing a slight intracellular alkalinization and an increase in  $g_*$  and  $I_{\kappa}$ . The inset shows the experimental protocol.

found to be a steep sigmoidal function of  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ , especially over the physiological range of pH<sub>i</sub> values between 7.1 and 7.4 where  $g_a$  varied 10-fold. The maximum value of  $g_a$  was obtained at a pH<sub>i</sub> of 8.0 and the minimum at pH<sub>i</sub> 6.5.

The relation  $g_{\text{a}}/g_{\text{max}}$  vs. pH<sub>i</sub> could be described by a titration curve fit by the equation  $g_a/g_{\text{max}} = K^n/(K^n + [H]^n)$ , where  $K = 10^{-pK}$  and n is a binding constant (Moody and Hagiwara, 1982). The best fit was obtained with a pK of 7.25 and  $n = 2$ (Fig. 8).

From  $I_a$ - $V_a$  relations, we also calculated apical  $P_{Na}$ ,  $G_{Na}$ , and [Na]<sub>i</sub> (from the reversal potential). An intracellular acid load always reduced  $P_{\text{Na}}$  and  $G_{\text{Na}}$  (Table I), whereas its effects on  $[Na]$  were biphasic.  $[Na]$  tended to decrease during the first 5



FIGURE 6. Effects of the addition of 15 mM NH4C1 (to the apical side of frog skin), at a constant external pH of 7.4 on pH<sub>i</sub> and  $[Na<sup>+</sup>]$ <sub>i</sub> membrane potential, amiloride-sensitive apical Na<sup>+</sup> conductance and short-circuit current. Cell impalement was from the apical side with a double-barreled H+-sensitive microelectrode. At the first arrow the perfusate on the apical side was switched from control Ringer  $(CO<sub>2</sub>-$ free and gassed in air) to a similar Ringer containing 15 mM NH4CI, and then, at the second arrow, it was subsequently returned to control 28 min later. NH4CI superfusion produced a rapid and long-lasting "plateau phase" intracellular alkalinization, which was followed 15 min later by a fall in pH<sub>i</sub>. An abrupt "rebound" acidification occurred after  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  washout. The Na<sup>+</sup> transport rate and slope conductance increased with cellular alkalinization, whereas cell acidification produced a decrease in  $I_{\rm sc}$  and  $g_a$  that closely followed the changes in pH<sub>i</sub>. The inset shows the experimental set-up.

min of acid load (Figs. 5 and 6, and Table I), and thereafter increased for longer periods of intracellular acidosis. Conversely, an alkaline load increased  $P_{Na}$  and  $G_{Na}$ (Table I) and again the changes in [Na]i were biphasic and time dependent. Initially, during the intracellular alkalosis the [Na]<sub>i</sub> increased and after 5-10 min decreased. These biphasic effects of changing pH<sub>i</sub> on the calculated  $[Na^+]$ <sub>i</sub> may be due to a pH

sensitivity of both apical Na<sup>+</sup> entry and basolateral Na<sup>+</sup> exit (via Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase). Another possibility is that pH<sub>i</sub>-regulating mechanisms, such as  $Na^+/H^+$  exchange, may modify the intracellular Na<sup>+</sup> transport pool (Ehrenfeld et al., 1987; Harvey and Ehrenfeld, 1988).



FIGURE 7. Response of pH<sub>i</sub>, membrane potential,  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  conductance, and transport rate to the application of 15 mM NH4CI to the basolateral Ringer at a constant external pH 7.4 in the short-circuited isolated epithelium. Cell impalement was from the basolateral side with a double-barreled H<sup>+</sup>-sensitive microelectrode. The addition of  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  to a  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ -free Ringer gassed in air (first arrow) resulted in a transient intracellular alkalinization lasting 2-3 min, followed by a steady decrease in  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ . A rapid rebound acidification occurred upon the removal of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. The changes in  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  conductance and transport rate were covariant with the variations in phi. Cell acidification produced a decrease, and alkalinization an increase, in these parameters. The effects of basolateral superfusion and washout of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl on pH<sub>i</sub>,  $g_a$ , and  $I_{\kappa}$  were considerably diminished when performed in a  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$ -buffered Ringer on the basolateral side (record after  $HCO<sub>3</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>$  arrow). The inset shows the experimental protocol.

## *Dependence of*  $g_b$  *on*  $pH_i$

The I-V relations of the amiloride-sensitive current pathway across the basolateral cell membranes  $(I_b - V_b)$  were determined simultaneously with those of the apical cell membranes described above. The pattern of stimulation or inhibition of basolateral slope conductance after an intracellular alkali or acid load, respectively, was similar to that found for the apical cell membranes (Table I). The effect of a respiratory



giving a pK of 7.25, with  $n = 2$ , the number of protons interacting with each titratable site.

intracellular acid load on  $g_b$  was instantaneous. Evidence for the covariance of  $g_b$ with  $pH_i$  was obtained from simultaneous recordings of these parameters as a function of time (Fig. 9).

The response of  $g_b$  to changes in pH<sub>i</sub> was just as rapid as that found for  $g_a$ , since the  $g_a$  and  $g_b$  described in Fig. 4, A and B were determined simultaneously and in the



FIGURE 9. Computer print out of pH<sub>i</sub> ( $\bullet$ ) and basolateral membrane conductance (+) (calculated every 5 s from circuit analysis), plotted as a function of time in the short-circuited frog skin. The record shows the rapid and covariant nature of  $pH_i$  and  $g_b$  variations after a respiratory acid load (at a constant external pH of 7.4) produced by switching from control Ringer (HCO $_{3}^-$ -free, gassed in air) to a Ringer buffered with  $CO_{2}$ :HCO<sub>3</sub> on the apical side. From this record an estimate of intrinsic (non-CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub>) intracellular buffering power ( $\beta_i$ ) may be obtained from the change in pH<sub>i</sub> of 0.21 units and the calculated  $[HCO_3]$  of 9 mM (pCO<sub>2</sub> = 38 torr) to give a  $\beta_i$  of 45 slykes.

same cells. Therefore, both  $g_b$  and  $g_a$  vary in parallel with pH<sub>i</sub>. The near constancy of *FRa* during acid-base disturbances supports this conclusion (Figs. 1-3).

The K<sup>+</sup> ion partial potential ratio  $(T<sub>K</sub>)$  of the basolateral cell membranes showed a dependence on pH<sub>i</sub> similiar to that found for  $g_b$ , and both parameters were extremely sensitive to  $pH_i$ , especially over the physiological range (Fig. 10). The best-fit curve relating  $g_b/g_{\text{max}}$  to pH<sub>i</sub> gave a pK of 7.1 with two H<sup>+</sup> binding to each titration site. The  $I_b$ - $V_b$  relations used to calculate  $g_b$  thus appear to provide a good description of the state of the  $K^+$  conductive pathway and its pH<sub>i</sub> dependence because of the close correlation between  $g_b$  and  $T_{K}$ .

#### DISCUSSION

## *Response of pHi to Acid-Base Disturbances*

We found that the effects of  $CO_9$  and  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  (at constant external pH) on pH<sub>i</sub> were dependent on the side of addition of the weak acid or base (Fig. 11). Apical applica-



$$
g_{\rm b}/g_{\rm max} \, (\text{or} \, T_{\rm K} \, / T_{\rm max}) = (10^{-\rm pK})^{\rm n} / [(10^{-\rm pK})^{\rm n} + [H^+]_{\rm i}^{\rm n}] \tag{11}
$$

with pK = 7.2 and  $n = 2$  for  $g_b$ ; and pK = 7.1 and  $n = 2$  for  $T_k$ , respectively.

tion of  $CO<sub>9</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub>$  Ringer caused an immediate and prolonged intracellular acidification, which was reversible upon the removal of  $CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub>$ . This response is similar to that found in the salamander proximal tubule (Boron and Boulpaep, 1983). The rapid acidification we observed could be explained by  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  entering the cells alone without HCO<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 11 A). The increased  $pCO<sub>2</sub>$  within the cells would favor the formation of H<sup>+</sup> and HCO<sub>5</sub>, and intracellular acidification would be maintained if HCO<sub>3</sub> can subsequently leave the cells. We have previously shown that  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$ efflux can occur across the basolateral cell membranes via a DIDS-sensitive CI-/  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$  exchanger (Duranti et al., 1986). The asymmetry of the epithelium with respect to HCO<sub>3</sub> permeability and the continuous loss of cell HCO<sub>3</sub> via Cl<sup>-</sup>/HCO<sub>3</sub> exchange could provide an intracellular sink for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , thus reinforcing the acid load.

For basolateral application of  $CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  in the isolated epithelium, we usually observed an intracellular alkalinization after a rapid but small initial acidification. The  $HCO<sub>3</sub>$  permeability of the basolateral membrane must be very high in order to



FIGURE 11. Schema of the experimental maneuvers designed to cause intracellular acidbase disturbances at constant external pH in frog skin epithelium. (a) The addition of CO,:HCOs-buffered Ringer solution to the apical side causes a rapid and prolonged intracellular acidification. The apical and basolateral membranes possess assymmetric permselectivity to HCO<sub>3</sub>. Loss of HCO<sub>3</sub> out across the basolateral membranes would tend to create an intracellular "sink" for  $CO_2$  and thus reinforce the acid load. (b)  $CO_2$ :HCO<sub>3</sub> addition from the basolateral side increases pHi slighdy. Since both partners of the buffer pair enter the cell, the  $\beta$ , is increased. (c) NH<sub>4</sub>Cl addition from the apical side produces an immediate and prolonged intracellular alkalinization. The apical membrane is normally impermeable to  $K^+$ and therefore NH<sup>+</sup> may not enter the cells from this side. The rapid diffusion of NH, into the cells will capture intracellular  $H^+$ , thus raising pH<sub>i</sub>. Loss of  $NH_4^+$  out across the basolateral membrane will favor the continued entry of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and cell alkalinization. (d) The addition of NH4CI from the basolateral side causes an initial transient intracellular alkalinization due to  $NH_3$  entry. The basolateral cell membranes, however, are highly permeable to K<sup>+</sup> and NH<sup>+</sup> entry via  $K^+$  channels is greatly favored by a large inward electrochemical driving force. Intracellular accumulation of NH $^*_4$  and its dissociation to NH<sub>3</sub> and H<sup>+</sup> will tend to acidify the cell and this process will be reinforced by  $NH_3$  exit into the  $NH_4Cl$ -free apical solution.

counteract acidification arising from entry of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  alone, and both partners of the buffer pair must have entered the cell almost simultaneously (Fig.  $11 B$ ). This would lead to an increase in the intracellular buffering power (see Appendix), which, of itself, may not change pH<sub>i</sub> but could serve to limit cell acidification.

Apical application of NH4CI produced an intracellular alkalinization lasting up to 30 rain, and rebound acidification occurred upon washout of the weak base. The pattern of these pH<sub>i</sub> transients in response to  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  was similar to that described for NH4CI exposure in mouse soleus muscle (Aickin and Thomas, 1977), giant barnacle muscle fibres (Boron, 1977), frog muscle (Bolton and Vaughan-Jones, 1977), squid giant axon (Boron and DeWeer, 1976), crayfish slow muscle fibers (Moody, 1980), crayfish neurons (Moody, 1981), and renal proximal tubule (Boron and Boulpaep, 1982). The prompt intracellular alkalinization in response to apical  $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl$  exposure may be explained by the rapid entry of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$  and subsequent capture of cell  $H^+$  (Boron and DeWeer, 1976). The NH $^+_4$  thus formed may leave the cell across the basolateral cell membranes (via  $K<sup>+</sup>$  channels) and thereby reinforce the intracellular alkalinization process (Fig. 11 $C$ ).

Exposure of the isolated epithelium to NH4CI from the basolateral side produced a biphasic pattern in the  $pH<sub>i</sub>$  response similar to, but faster than that seen in apical application (Fig. 11 D). In this case, however, a rapid entry of NH $^{\star}$  and accompanying intracellular acidification is to be expected since the basolateral membrane is highly permselective to  $K^+$ . Prolonged preexposure (>30 min) of the epithelium to NH4CI on the basolateral side produced a profound acidification. In this case, the recovery of pH<sub>i</sub>,  $I_{\rm sc}$ , and cell membrane conductances were delayed for periods of up to 1 h. Since a very high  $[NH_4^+]$  is expected at equilibrium, an increase in cell volume may have complicated the response to long term NH4CI exposure. Finally, the magnitude of the pH<sub>i</sub> changes induced by  $CO_2:HCO_3^-$  or  $NH_3:NH_4^+$  also depends on the intracellular buffering power (see Appendix).

## *pHi Effects on Cell Membrane Conductances*

The amiloride-sensitive *I-V* curves of the apical cell membranes were accurately described by the GHK equation for  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  flux, in agreement with the findings reported for frog skin by DeLong and Civan (1984), Schoen and Erlij (1985), and other tight junction epithelia such as rabbit colon (Thompson et al., 1982), and *Necturus* and toad urinary bladder (Palmer et al., 1980; Thomas et al., 1983).

As was the case for the  $\mathrm{pH}_i$  response, we found that the changes in the apical and basolateral membrane conductances depended on the side of the epithelium from which acid-base disturbances were induced. However, under short-circuit conditions, an intracellular acidification, no matter how produced, always caused an inhibition in Na<sup>+</sup> transport and in Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> conductances. Likewise, an intracellular alkalinization always brought about an increase in these transport parameters.

Since  $I_{sc}$ ,  $P_{Na}$ ,  $g_{a}$ ,  $g_{b}$ , and pH<sub>i</sub> could be determined simultaneously, we were able to show that slight variations of pH<sub>i</sub> in the physiological range  $(7.1-7.4)$  produced instantaneous and parallel changes in all these parameters. The relationship describing Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> conductances as a function of pH<sub>i</sub> could be fit by titration curves. Intracellular protons may titrate a charged group (at a pK of 7.2, histidine is a candidate) on the cytoplasmic side of the  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  channels.

Previous studies have shown that  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  transport is sensitive to maneuvers designed to change pH<sub>i</sub>. For example,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  applied to the apical side at constant external pH was reported to inhibit Na<sup>+</sup> transport in frog skin (Funder et al., 1967; Mandel, 1978) and Na<sup>+</sup> conductance in  $K^+$  depolarized toad urinary bladder (Palmer, 1985). However, Garty et al.  $(1985)$  recently reported that pH<sub>i</sub> changes had no effect on amiloride-sensitive <sup>22</sup>Na fluxes in toad urinary bladder vesicles. This latter report is at variance with our findings in frog skin since unidirectional <sup>22</sup>Na influxes were inhibited by intracellular acidification (Table II). The reason for this discrepancy is not clear. Perhaps the sensitivity of the  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  channel is modified by the vesicle preparation procedure or perhaps hydrogen ions do not act directly on the channel but via a cytoplasmic mediator. The latter possibility seems unlikely because of the extreme rapidity of the pHi effect in our study on whole epithelium and the recent report by Palmer and Frindt (1987) of the pH sensitivity of whole cell and cell-detached patch-clamped  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  channels in rabbit renal cortical collecting tubule.

Both the apparent  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductance and basolateral membrane conductance were also found to be very sensitive to  $pH<sub>i</sub>$  changes. This result agrees with previous reports on the effects of pH<sub>i</sub> on  $K^+$  conductances in excitable tissues, oocytes and epithelia.  $K^+$  conductance was reported to be blocked by lowering pH<sub>i</sub> in frog skeletal muscle (Blatz, 1980), starfish oocytes (Moody and Hagiwara, 1982), squid axon (Wanke et al., 1979), and in cultured bovine retinal pigment cells (Keller et al., 1986).





 $^{22}$ Na unidirectional influxes (apical to serosal) measured in frog skins (n - 4) during a control period lasting 30 min (control Ringer, pH 7.4 both sides), and in the presence of 15 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, to the apical Ringer at 20 and 50 min after addition, and 30 min after washout (return to control Ringer). The change in Na<sup>+</sup> fluxes are consistent with the variations in Na<sup>+</sup> conductance found in the experiment described in Fig. 6, as a result of NH<sub>3</sub>/ NH<sup>+</sup>-induced plateau phase alkalinization and subsequent acidification, followed by rebound acidification after washout.

\*Significantly different from control at level  $P < 0.025$ .

Our results indicate that, because of the high sensitivity of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  and  $K<sup>+</sup>$  conductances to  $pH_i$ ,  $pH_i$  is an important intrinsic regulator of transepithelial ion transport.

#### *Tramcellular Cross-Talk: pHi as Mediator*

Can intracellular H<sup>+</sup> act directly to effect changes in  $I_{\text{sc}}$ , and Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> conductances or is there a secondary intracellular mediator involved? The possible role of cell  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  as a regulator of epithelial Na<sup>+</sup> transport has recently been reviewed (Chase, 1984; Taylor and Windhager, 1985; Windhager et al., 1986; Frindt et al., 1988). Experimental maneuvers designed to increase  $[Ca<sup>2+</sup>]$  are reported to inhibit apical  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  entry (Grinstein and Erlij, 1978; Taylor and Windhager, 1979; Chase and Al-Awqati, 1983). It has been claimed that cell  $Ca^{2+}$  varies inversely with pH<sub>i</sub> in nervous tissue *(Helix* neurons) (Meech and Thomas 1977, 1980), and such changes can influence membrane conductance (Meech, 1978). On the other hand, cell acidification has been reported to produce a fall in cell Ca<sup>2+</sup> in *Helix* neurons (AlvarezLeefmans et al., 1981). Moreover, there are few data available on the relationship between pH<sub>i</sub> and  $[Ca^{++}]_i$  in epithelia, and the effect of changing pH<sub>i</sub> on  $[Ca^{++}]_i$  in excitable tissues are not consistent and cannot be predicted with certainty (for reviews see Moody, 1984; Busa, 1986). Palmer and Frindt (1987) recently reported that  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  had no effect on the activity of patch-clamped cell-detached epithelial Na<sup>+</sup> channels. Moreover, we have found that the response of  $g_a$  and  $P_{\text{Na}}$  to an intracellular acid load in frog skin epithelium was similar in the presence of 20 mmol/liter  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  or in a  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$ -free EGTA Ringer on the basolateral side, with or without the  $intract$ lular  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  chelator MAPTAM ([bis-(2-amino-5-methyl-phenoxy)-ethane- $N, N, N', N'$ -tetraacetic acid tetraacetoxymethyl ester]) and the  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  ionophore ionomycin (Harvey and Thomas, 1987). This agrees with recent studies in which doubt was cast on the role of  $Ca^{2+}$  in controlling Na<sup>+</sup> transport in frog skin (Hogan et al., 1985; Nagel, 1987).

An increase in  $[Na^+]$ ; has been proposed to act either directly or indirectly at the apical membrane to inhibit Na permeability (for review see Schultz, 1981). Here we found that changes in  $[Na^+]$ , (calculated from the  $I_a$ - $V_a$  relations) during an acid load and the recovery phases were variable and tended to lag behind the changes in pHi. We interpret the variations in  $[Na^+]$  to result from pH<sub>i</sub>-induced changes in Na<sup>+</sup> conductance and Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity. At the onset of an acid load the  $[Na^+]$ decreased, possibly as a result of the decreased apical  $P_{\text{Na}}$ . As the acid load was prolonged,  $[Na^+]$ ; increased; this may have been due to inhibition of the basolateral  $Na^+/K^+$  ATPase. An increase in  $[Na^+]$  at low pH<sub>i</sub> could also occur from activated basolateral  $Na^+/H^+$  exchange (Ehrenfeld et al., 1987; Harvey and Ehrenfeld, 1988). In these studies we showed that an acid load increases basolateral  $^{22}$ Na uptake to 1,600 neq/h<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-2</sup>, which is in excellent agreement with the rate of Na<sup>+</sup> uptake calculated from changes in  $[Na<sup>+</sup>]$ <sub>i</sub> (Figs. 4 and 5) at 5 mM/min corresponding to 1,800 neq/h<sup>-1</sup> $\cdot$ cm<sup>-2</sup> (for a volume to surface ratio of 6  $\mu$  $\cdot$ cm<sup>-2</sup> (Harvey and Ehrenfeld, 1988). The gain in  $[Na<sup>+</sup>]$  despite reduction of  $g_a$  at acidic pH<sub>i</sub>, is analogous to that found during ouabain inhibition of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  ATPase in the presence of apical amiloride (Harvey and Kernan, 1984). These results support the conclusion that Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase is inhibited at acidic pH<sub>i</sub> and that the gain in [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> occurs via stimulated basolateral  $\text{Na}^+/H^+$  exchange. Increased  $[H^+]$  is reported to reduce  $Na^+/K^+$  ATPase activity (Eaton et al., 1984; Homareda and Matsui, 1985), which could lead to an increased  $[Na^+]$  if apical Na<sup>+</sup> entry continued unrestricted. The sensitivity of  $P_{\text{Na}}$  to pH<sub>i</sub> would serve to limit such a gain in [Na]<sub>i</sub>. These effects are important in that previous studies have shown near constancy of  $[Na^+]$ <sub>i</sub> with increasing transport rate (Wills and Lewis, 1980; Thomas et al., 1983; Turnheim et al., 1983). For this to occur, the apical entry and basolateral extrusion of  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  must be kept in step. The signal for such transcellular coupling of ion movements may be  $pH<sub>i</sub>$ .

# **APPENDIX**

#### *IntraceUular Buffering Power*

*Weak acid method.* Assuming that the initial change in pH<sub>i</sub> upon superfusing the apical side with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> at constant external pH (24 mM HCO<sub>3</sub>) is due solely to the entry of CO<sub>2</sub> and that  $HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>$  (OH<sup>-</sup>) and H<sup>+</sup> do not cross the cell membranes during this time, then the change in pH<sub>i</sub> will depend on the intrinsic buffering power  $(\beta_i)$  of the cell and the initial pH<sub>i</sub>. Thus the non-CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>5</sub> (intrinsic) buffering power may be calculated from  $\beta_i = [HCO_5^{-1}]$ . pH<sub>i</sub>. For the CO<sub>2</sub> application the calculated buffering power was  $35 \pm 4$  meq H<sup>+</sup>/pH unit  $(n = 6)$ . Since CO<sub>2</sub> entry most likely gives rise to activation of pH<sub>i</sub> regulatory mechanism(s) and basolateral HCO<sub>3</sub> efflux, the calculation of  $\beta_i$  from the initial and final pH<sub>i</sub> values may be erroneous. We therefore calculated  $\beta_i$  by taking the final pH<sub>i</sub> value from the sharp peak obtained at the intersection of the tangent to the acidifying and plateau phases in response to a brief pulse of  $CO<sub>9</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -buffered Ringer.

*Weak base method.* In the absence of  $CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub>$  buffer, the buffering power calculated from the alkaline pH<sub>i</sub> response to an  $NH<sub>3</sub>/NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>$  load on the apical side also gives the intrinsic or non-NH<sub>3</sub>/NH<sub>4</sub> buffering power. The magnitude of the NH<sub>3</sub>-induced alkalinization is determined by the intrinsic buffering power  $\beta_i = [NH^+]_i/\text{pH}_i$ . The change in  $[NH_i^+]_i$  was determined by taking the initial  $[NH_4^+]$  to be zero and the final  $[NH_4^+]$  to be  $([NH_3] \cdot 10 \text{ exp}$  $[pK - pH_i]$  with pK = 9.15. The value of  $\beta_i$  calculated by this method was 38  $\pm$  4 meq  $H^+$ /pH unit (n = 6) and was not different from that determined by the weak acid method.

When a  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>2</sub><sub>2</sub>$  buffer is present and the cell membrane is permeable to both CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>5</sub>, the total intracellular buffering power  $(\beta_i)$  is given by  $\beta_i = \beta_i + \beta_{\text{CO}}$ , where  $\beta_{\text{CO}}$ , is the  $CO_2$ :HCO<sub>3</sub> buffering power. For any pCO<sub>2</sub>,  $\beta_{CO}$ , is given by 2.3 ([HCO<sub>3</sub>]<sup>2</sup>). At a pH<sub>i</sub> of 7.26  $\pm$ 0.03 and a 5% CO<sub>2</sub>:24 mM HCO<sub>3</sub> buffer on the basolateral side, the  $\beta_{00}$  was 38  $\pm$  5 meq H<sup>+</sup>/pH unit (n = 6). This gives a  $\beta$ <sub>t</sub> of 76  $\pm$  9 meq H<sup>+</sup>/pH unit (n = 6). Thus, in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub> Ringer solution on the basolateral side the  $\beta$ , is doubled. Under these conditions we have seen that an acid load produced by basolateral  $NH_3NH_4^*$  application produced small changes in pH<sub>i</sub> (Fig. 7). For the case of apical applied  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  (which normally produces a large intracellular acidification), the  $pH<sub>i</sub>$  response was practically abolished when the epithelium was previously bathed in  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -buffered Ringer solution on the basolateral side (Figs. 1 and 5). The increase in  $\beta$ , was produced only if CO:HCO, Ringer was added to the basolateral side. Consequently, reduced effects of acid load on  $I_r$  and conductances occur when compared with the effects produced when a  $CO<sub>2</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub>$ -free Ringer was present on the basolateral side. Under the latter conditions the addition of NH4C1 to the apical side allows measurement of the total buffering power of the cell. Calculated in this way,  $\beta_t = 80 \pm 7$  meq  $H^{\dagger}/pH$  unit (n = 4), which agrees with the predicted value given above.

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