Functional Interactions of HCO₃⁻ with Cystic Fibrosis Transmembrane Conductance Regulator

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Summary

Disruption of normal cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator-(CFTR)-mediated C1 transport is associated with cystic fibrosis (CF). CFTR is also required for HCO₃ transport in many tissues such as the lungs, gastro-intestinal tract, and pancreas, although the exact role CFTR plays is uncertain. Given the importance of CFTR in HCO₃⁻ transport by so many CF-affected organ systems, it is perhaps surprising that relatively little is known about the interactions of HCO₃ions with CFTR. We have used patch clamp recordings from native pancreatic duct cells to study HCO₃ permeation and interaction with CFTR. Ion selectivity studies shows that CFTR is between 3-5 times more selective for CT over HCO₃. In addition, extracellular HCO₃ has a novel inhibitory effect on cAMP-stimulated CFTR currents carried by C1. The block by HCO₃ was rapid, relatively independent of voltage and occurred over the physiological range of HCO₃⁻ concentrations. These data show that luminal HCO₃ acts as a potent regulator of CFTR, and suggests that inhibition involves an external anion-binding site on the channel. This work has implications not only for elucidating mechanisms of HCO₃⁻ transport

in epithelia, but also for approaches used to treat CF.

It is well established that cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) transports chloride ions in a variety of epithelial tissues. Disruption of normal CFTR-mediated Cl transport is associated with a number of diseases such as cystic fibrosis (CF), certain types of secretory diarrhoea, and possibly polycystic kidney disease. CFTR is also involved in the transport of other physiologically important anions such as HCO₃ [1], glutathione [2] and larger organic anions [3]. In the case of HCO₃ many epithelial tissues secrete this anion by a mechanism which is dependent on functional CFTR channels. This has been observed in the airways [4], including submucosal glands [5]; the gastro-intestinal tract [6]; the liver and gallbladder [7, 8] and the pancreas [9], the bicarbonate-transporting archetypal While there is now strong evidence that CFTR is essential for effective HCO₃ secretion the exact role it plays is still uncertain.

Our studies have focused on the role of CFTR in the production of an HCO₃⁻ rich alkaline secretion by the exocrine pancreas [1]. We

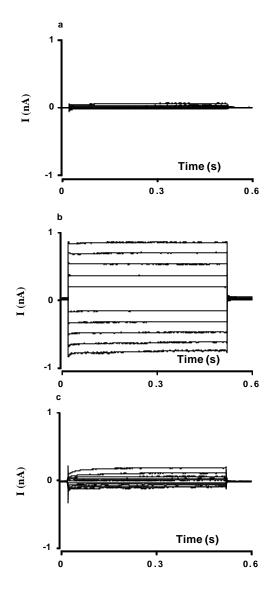


Figure 1. Inhibition of cAMP-activated currents by bath HCO₃⁻.

Whole cell currents were recorded at room temperature under control conditions (a) or after exposure to stimulants (5 µM forskolin and 100 µM dibutyryl cAMP) that activate PKA (b and c). Whole cell currents were obtained by holding the membrane potential (V_m) at 0 mV and clamping V_m to ± 100 mV in 20 mV steps. The pipette solution contained (mM): 110 CsCl, 2 MgCl₂, 5 ethyleneglycol-bis-(beta-aminoethyl ether)-N,N'tetraacetic acid (EGTA). 10 N-2hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic (HEPES), 1 Na, ATP, pH 7.2 with CsOH. The bath solution contained (mM): 145 NaCl, 4.5 KCl, 2 CaCl₂, 1 MgCl₂, 10 HEPES, 5 Glucose, pH 7.4 or in (c), 140mM NaCl was replaced with NaHCO₃ and CaCl₂ was omitted from the solution (pH about 8.0). For further details on cell preparation and electrophysiology see [17].

proposed back in 1988 that HCO₃ exits across the apical membrane of pancreatic duct cells (PDCs) by parallel operation of CFTR C1 channels and CI/HCO₃ exchangers [10]. In this scheme the CFTR channel can be viewed as having two functions. The first is to provide luminal CI for operation of the anion exchangers. The second is to act as a leak pathway dissipate intracellular to accumulated as the exchanger cycle. Implicit in this 'CFTR-anion exchanger model' is that CFTR is better at transporting C1 than HCO₃ under normal physiological conditions.

We showed this to be the case in subsequent patch clamp studies using both single channel [11] and whole cell current recordings [12], of CFTR in native rat pancreatic duct cells. However, it should be noted that in all cases CFTR did demonstrate a low but measurable permeability to HCO₃. Therefore, conditions where intracellular CI is at or near electrochemical equilibrium then it is possible that CFTR could act as an exit pathway for HCO₃. With this in mind our computer modeling studies indicate that parallel operation of CFTR channels and C1/HCO₃ exchangers cannot support the secretion of a pancreatic juice containing near isotonic NaHCO₃, as occurs in most other species [13]. Secretory studies on isolated guinea-pig ducts have also virtual absence of extracellular CT which would not be predicted for the CFTR - anion exchanger model [14, 15]. The implication of these findings is that species such as cat, dog, pig, guinea-pig and human, all of which secrete a pancreatic juice with a high HCO₃ content (about 150 mM), employ a different secretory mechanism to that originally suggested for the rat, but which is still dependent on CFTR (see the chapter by Sohma et al. which discusses this in more detail [16]).

Extracellular HCO₃ Blocks Cl Efflux through CFTR

During recent anion permeability studies from native guinea pig PDCs, we observed an

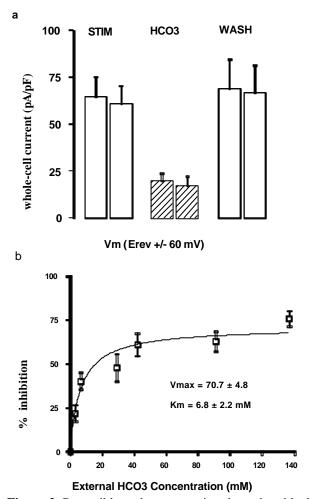


Figure 2. Reversible and concentration-dependent block of CFTR by extracellular HCO₃⁻.

(a) Summary of the effect of 140 mM external HCO_3^- on the size of cAMP-activated CFTR Cl $^-$ currents. Same conditions as Figure 1. Current density was calculated by dividing the total current by cell capacitance. Data measured at the reversal potential (E_{rev}) ± 60 mV and was obtained from current/voltage plots of the data in Figure 1.

(b) Effect of different extracellular HCO_3^- concentrations on inward current inhibition. Data measured at $E_{\rm rev}$ –60 mV and fitted to a Michaelis-Menten equation with the parameters indicated on the figure (diagram adapted from O'Reilly CM *et al.*, with permission [17]).

unexpected and novel effect of extracellular HCO₃ on cAMP-activated CFTR C1 currents [17]. Figure 1 shows that when 140 mM extracellular C1 is replaced by HCO₃ this resulted in a marked inhibition of CFTR currents. While the reduction in outward current (anion influx) was expected because of

the decrease in extracellular C1 concentration, the marked block of inward current (anion efflux) was not predicted as pipette C1 concentration was unchanged. The reduced inward current indicates that external HCO₃⁻ is causing 'trans' inhibition of C1 efflux.

This effect of extracellular HCO₃ was rapid, fully reversible (Figure 2a) and dose-dependent over a physiological range of extracellular HCO₃ concentrations (Figure 2b).

The data in Figure 2b suggest that a single binding site is involved in the HCO₃ induced inhibition of inward current flow. Since inhibition was only weakly voltage-dependent (Figures 1 and 2a), this site is unlikely to experience the voltage drop across the channel. We next investigated which component of the HCO₃ containing solutions, pH, HCO₃ or pCO₂, was responsible for the observed current inhibition. By varying intra and extracellular pH over a wide range (6.2-8.0), and changing pCO₂ fourfold (3-12 kPa) while maintaining a concentration of HCO₃ that caused maximal inhibition, we were able to conclude that it is the HCO₃ ion itself that inhibits CFTR [17].

Although our experiments have not identified how HCO₃⁻ is able to block CFTR we think that an external anion-binding site is involved. We speculate that a positively charged site (arginine, lysine or possibly histidine) in the extracellular loops (EL) of CFTR could be

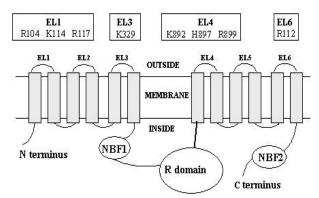


Figure 3. Positively charged residues in the extracellular loops (EL) of human CFTR.

Abbreviations used. H: Histidine, K: Lysine and R: Arginine.

involved (Figure 3). For example in EL1 of human CFTR residues R104 and R117 are conserved amongst all species, and R117H is a known disease causing mutation. Our current research is aimed at testing this hypothesis. It should also be noted that HCO₃⁻ is not unique in being able to inhibit CΓ movement through CFTR, since both extracellular Γ and ClO₄⁻ also cause a significant reduction in inward current, but with less affinity than HCO₃⁻, and in the case of iodide, irreversibly [17].

Physiological Implications of HCO₃⁻ Inhibition of CFTR

At first sight an inhibitory effect of extracellular $HCO_3^$ on **CFTR** appears paradoxical in that it would inhibit HCO₃secretion. At the maximum concentration of HCO₃ found in guinea-pig pancreatic juice (about 150 mM) the CFTR conductance would be more than 70% blocked (Figure 2). However, it is notable that in guinea pig ducts basal HCO₃ secretion is C1 dependent and blocked by 4,4'-diisothiocyanatostilbene-2,2'disulphonic acid (DIDS), suggesting that it occurs via CT/HCO₃ exchange [13, 14]. In contrast, cAMP-stimulated HCO₃ secretion is unaffected by removal of extracellular C1 and must therefore involve some other pathway [13, 14]. That pathway is likely to be CFTR. Inhibiting the CFTR conductance via a negative feedback mechanism from 'signals' in the lumen of the pancreatic ducts may be advantageous in that it would limit apical membrane depolarisation and maintain the electrical driving force for HCO₃⁻ secretion via the uninhibited fraction of CFTR. Since many other organ systems (liver, gastro-intestinal tract and lungs) also secrete HCO₃, this suggests that HCO₃ concentration at the luminal surface of epithelial cells plays a general role in the regulation of CFTR, as well as providing an appropriate physiological environment for these tissues to operate normally.

Key words Chloride Channels; Cystic Fibrosis; Ion Transport; Pancreas; Sodium Bicarbonate

Abbreviations CF: cystic fibrosis; CFTR: cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator; DIDS: 4,4'-diisothiocyanatostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; EGTA: ethyleneglycolbis-(beta-aminoethyl ether)-N,N'-tetraacetic acid; EL: extracellular loops; HEPES: N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid; PDC: pancreatic duct cell

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