

*IN VITRO* STUDIES OF TELEOST IONOREGULATION IN  
FRESHWATER KILLIFISH, TILAPIA AND TROUT

***IN VITRO* STUDIES OF FRESHWATER TELEOST IONOREGULATION IN THE  
COMMON KILLIFISH (*Fundulus heteroclitus*), NILE TILAPIA (*Oreochromis  
niloticus*) AND RAINBOW TROUT (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)**

By

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IONOREGULATION IN THE COMMON KILLIFISH  
(*Fundulus heteroclitus*), NILE TILAPIA (*Oreochromis niloticus*)  
AND RAINBOW TROUT (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)

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## Abstract

Largely through the use of *in vitro* preparations there is now a generally accepted theory for ion transport for the seawater (SW) gill. However, to date there is no generally accepted freshwater (FW) model for the mechanisms of NaCl transport in the teleost gill. By using an Ussing chamber approach with the opercular epithelia of *Fundulus heteroclitus* and *Oreochromis niloticus*, and the urinary bladder of *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, all acclimated to FW, we hoped to establish one as a possible model for the study of FW ion regulation.

FW *Fundulus* opercular epithelia displayed a serosal negative transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ ) of -43.9 mV, transepithelial conductance ( $G_t$ ) of  $1.94 \text{ mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , and active transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the mucosal FW against a strong electrochemical gradient.  $\text{Na}^+$  movement was dominated by passive diffusion. The opercular epithelia of *Fundulus* adapted to 10% SW exhibited properties similar to SW *Fundulus* by actively extruding  $\text{Cl}^-$  while  $\text{Na}^+$  moved passively into the mucosal 10% SW. With FW bathing the mucosal surface, FW *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia displayed a serosal positive  $V_t$  of +8.0 mV,  $G_t$  of  $1.78 \text{ mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , and active reabsorption of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  against large electrical and/or chemical gradients. The FW *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia is the only FW *in vitro* preparation to date that exhibits active absorption (albeit at small absolute rates) of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

FW *O. mykiss* urinary bladders mounted *in vitro* under symmetrical saline conditions exhibited a transepithelial conductance ( $G_t$ ) of  $\sim 9.15 \text{ mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and

electroneutral active absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the mucosal urine side. The transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  was a partially coupled process whereby removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the mucosal saline decreased  $\text{Cl}^-$  absorption by a 56% and removal of  $\text{Cl}^-$  inhibited  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption by 69%. However, active net absorption of both ions persisted when the counter-ion was replaced with a non-permeant ion. Under more realistic conditions with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface,  $V_i$  increased to a serosal positive  $\sim +7.6$  mV and  $G_i$  decreased to  $\sim 1.47$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ . Unidirectional influx rates of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were much lower, but active absorption of both ions still occurred. Replacement of  $\text{Na}^+$  in the mucosal artificial urine caused no change in unidirectional influx of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and *vice versa*. The mucosal addition of DIDS, amiloride or bumetanide ( $10^{-4}$  M) all had no effect on absorption rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$ , under either artificial urine or symmetrical saline conditions. When the mucosal surface was bathed in artificial urine, removal of mucosal  $\text{Cl}^-$  significantly reduced the maximum transport rate ( $J_{\text{max}}$ ) of  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $6.1 \rightarrow 2.1$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) but had no effect on affinity for  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $K_m \sim 27$  mM). Similarly, removal of mucosal  $\text{Na}^+$  significantly reduced the  $J_{\text{max}}$  for  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake ( $11.4 \rightarrow 2.4$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) but had no effect on  $\text{Cl}^-$   $K_m$  ( $\sim 37$  mM). The anterior portion of the urinary bladder transported  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at a faster rate than the posterior portion under symmetrical saline conditions, but there was no difference in measured  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activities between the two portions.

In conclusion, opercular epithelia of *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* demonstrated transport properties believed to be typical of FW teleosts; either preparation may eventually prove to be a good working model for studying FW transport mechanisms.

The urinary bladder of *Oncorhynchus* mounted *in vitro* did not behave characteristically as the teleost gill is thought to function, but this model may be useful in characterizing various other mechanisms of ionic transport.

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## **Thesis Format**

This thesis is organized into three Chapters and one Appendix. Chapter one is composed of background information and a general overview of the rationale for this research and the conclusions of the work. The second and third chapters describe the experimental work and have been written as manuscripts for submission to scientific journals. The appendix includes general methodology for Ussing chamber techniques and equations used in this thesis. Literature cited follows chapters two and three respectively and general references from chapter 1 follow appendix.

### **Chapter 1: General Introduction**

#### **Chapter 2:**

**Title:** NaCl transport of the opercular epithelia of freshwater acclimated *Fundulus heteroclitus* and *Oreochromis niloticus*

**Authors:** D.W. Burgess, W.S. Marshall and C.M. Wood

**Comments:** *In vitro* experiments and analyses performed by D.W.B with advice from W.S.M and supervision of C.M.W. This paper has been submitted to Can. J. Zool.

#### **Chapter 3:**

**Title:** Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> transport by the urinary bladder of the freshwater rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)

**Authors:** D.W. Burgess, M. Miarczyński and C.M. Wood

**Comments:** *In vitro* experiments and analyses performed by D.W.B with

the exception of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase measurements and kinetic flux experiments which were performed by M.M under the guidance of D.W.B. Overall advice and supervision was provided by C.M.W. This paper will be submitted to J. Exp. Zool.

#### Appendix 1: General Methodology

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## **Chapter 1**

### **General Introduction - The Need for a Flat Epithelial Model**

#### **for the Freshwater Gill.**

#### **Background**

The freshwater (FW) fish gains water by osmosis while  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are lost by passive diffusion. Excess water is regulated by the kidney and lost salt is replaced by transport mechanisms in the gills and other epithelia, and also by the ingestion of food (Smith *et al.*, 1989). In contrast, the seawater (SW) fish survives in a hypertonic environment and must actively extrude  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at the gills and other epithelia. The seawater fish must also actively drink seawater to replenish water which is continually lost by osmosis across the body surface. In FW teleosts, the primary role of the kidney is to excrete excess water while reabsorbing most of the filtered solutes. In contrast, the renal tubules of SW teleosts maintain a low permeability, and the glomerular filtration rate is less than half that of FW teleosts (Nishimura *et al.*, 1983). The urinary bladder of SW-adapted (Renfro, 1977; Demarest, 1984) and FW-adapted teleost fish (Fossat and Lahlou, 1979a; Marshall, 1986) has also been shown to play an important osmoregulatory role. In FW teleosts, the urinary bladder has a low osmotic permeability, reabsorbing monovalent ions ( $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) with a minimum of accompanying water, thereby excreting a very dilute urine (Curtis and Wood, 1991). The urinary bladder of SW teleosts also reabsorbs  $\text{NaCl}$  but has a higher osmotic permeability and the excreted urine is concentrated with respect to non-transported ions (eg.  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) (Marshall, 1995).

The understanding of ion transport in the gills of seawater teleosts has been successful largely due to the use of *in vitro* studies. Opercular epithelia from the killifish *Fundulus heteroclitus* (Degnan *et al.* 1977; Degnan and Zadunaisky 1979, 1980; Karnaky *et al.* 1977; Karnaky 1980, 1986; Ernst *et al.* 1980; Zadunaisky 1984), Mozambique tilapia *Oreochromis mossambicus* (Foskett *et al.* 1981, 1983; Foskett and Scheffey 1982; Scheffey *et al.* 1983) and the jaw skin epithelia of the goby *Gillichthys mirabilis* (Marshall and Nishioka, 1980; Marshall, 1981) have all been instrumental in this regard. These *in vitro* studies have used flat epithelial preparations mounted in Ussing-style chambers (which facilitate rigorous radioisotopic fluxes and electrophysiology measurements), to characterize the Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> transport mechanisms.

The euryhaline *Fundulus* has long been used as an experimental animal for the study of SW ionoregulation *in vivo* (Potts and Evans, 1967; Motais *et al.*, 1966; Maetz *et al.*, 1967a) along with other *in vivo* preparations such as the European flounder *Platichthys flesus* (Motais *et al.*, 1966) and the European eel *Anguilla anguilla* (Maetz *et al.*, 1967b). However, it is largely because of the *in vitro* studies (mentioned above) that there is a generally accepted model for SW teleost ionoregulation.

### **Seawater opercular epithelia**

Opercular epithelia from the *Fundulus*, *Oreochromis* and jaw skin of *Gillichthys* are easily dissected from the animal to yield a planar sheet that can be mounted in an Ussing-style chamber. Under symmetrical saline and open-circuit conditions, the transepithelial potential (V) of the *Fundulus* opercular epithelium is serosal positive by about +15 mV, and transepithelial resistance (R<sub>t</sub>) is approximately 170 Ω·cm<sup>2</sup> (Degnan *et*

*al.* 1977). Once the epithelium is clamped to a  $V_i$  of zero, there remains a large serosal to mucosal net flux of  $\text{Cl}^-$  ( $\sim 5 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) which is not different from the measured short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ) ( $138 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), thus suggesting current is equal to  $\text{Cl}^-$  secretion ( $1 \mu\text{eq}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1} = 27 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). There was no net movement of  $\text{Na}^+$  under these conditions and application of the Ussing flux ratio criterion to the observed ion fluxes of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  indicated that there was active  $\text{Cl}^-$  secretion and passive diffusion of  $\text{Na}^+$ . The  $V_i$  of the SW epithelium appears to be a combination of a  $\text{Na}^+$  diffusion potential (Potts, 1984) and the active, electrogenic extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Marshall, 1981).

*O. mossambicus* opercular epithelia have a serosal-positive  $V_i$  of about +21 mV and a  $R_i$  of approximately  $259 \Omega\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  under symmetrical saline conditions (Foskett *et al.* 1981). The  $I_{sc}$  of this preparation is approximately  $65 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and is equal to the measured net  $\text{Cl}^-$  extrusion ( $\sim 2.1 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ). Under similar symmetrical experimental conditions, the opercular epithelia of the *G. mirabilis* display a serosa-positive  $V_i$  of about +14 mV and a  $R_i$  of approximately  $540 \Omega\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Marshall, 1981). The  $I_{sc}$  ( $24 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) is also approximately equal to the net flux of  $\text{Cl}^-$ . The epithelium exhibits active  $\text{Cl}^-$  extrusion against electrical and concentration gradients and the observed  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratio is in disagreement with the predicted ratio, again suggesting active transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$ . However, as in the other epithelia previously mentioned,  $\text{Na}^+$  moves passively across the membrane based on agreement of the observed and predicted flux ratios.

Each of the epithelia (above) demonstrated a dependency of measurable  $I_{sc}$  on the presence of  $\text{Na}^+$ , such that removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the basal side (goby, Marshall, 1977; tilapia, Foskett *et al.*, 1983) or apical side (killifish Degnan *et al.*, 1977) resulted in a

reduction of  $I_{sc}$  to zero.  $Na^+/K^+$ -ATPase is involved in  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  secretion by opercular membranes since the addition of ouabain to the basolateral side also results in an inhibition of  $I_{sc}$ , due to a decreased  $Cl^-$  efflux and increased influx (Foskett *et al.*, 1983).

### Seawater mitochondrial-rich cells

The  $I_{sc}$  of the *Fundulus* epithelia has been significantly correlated with the number of mitochondria-rich cells (MR cells, also often called “chloride cells”) detected by DASPEI fluorescence, thus indicating that MR cells are responsible for  $Cl^-$  transport. Further evidence has been obtained through the use of the vibrating probe technique which localized all current and nearly all conductance to the apical crypt of MR cells in the tilapia opercular epithelium (Foskett and Scheffey, 1982; Scheffey *et al.*, 1983; Foskett and Machen, 1985).

The occurrence of mitochondrial-rich (MR) cells appears to be an essential component for an epithelial “model” preparation which successfully mimicks gill function in the intact animal. The seawater opercular epithelium contains a high density of these cells, and the number of cells per  $mm^2$  varies from preparation to preparation and from species to species (Marshall and Nishioka, 1980). The MR cells of the opercular epithelium are identical in ultrastructure to those of the gills, and other cells types (mucous, pavement, and accessory) are also very similar (Karnaky and Kinter, 1977). The opercular epithelia of *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* both contain MR cells and it has been shown that these cells are the sites of  $Cl^-$  secretion in seawater adapted teleosts (hence the former name, chloride cells) (Foskett and Scheffey, 1982).

Pavement cells form a continuous layer over the surface of the opercular bone interrupted only by mucous cells and apical crypts from MR cells. The MR cell extends from the basal lamina (serosa) to the surface of the epithelia (mucosa) (Zadunaisky, 1984). MR cells contain numerous mitochondria and an extensive branching tubular system that is continuous with the basal and plasma membranes (Degnan *et al.* 1977).

### **Current seawater model for NaCl transport**

The SW transport model proposed by Silva *et al.* (1977), based initially on experiments with the eel *in vivo*, and later validated and elaborated through the use of opercular epithelial “models” *in vitro*, is now widely accepted (Wood and Marshall, 1994) (Fig.1.1). Extrusion of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the blood to the external seawater is energized by the transport enzyme  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase. This enzyme, located on the basolateral membrane, creates a large  $\text{Na}^+$  gradient across the basolateral membrane and is the primary source of energy for active  $\text{Cl}^-$  secretion. The  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase maintains a low intracellular concentration of  $\text{Na}^+$  and contributes to the negative potential inside the cell, thus creating an electrochemical gradient for the entry of  $\text{Na}^+$  along with  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{K}^+$  by way of a  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+/\text{2Cl}^-$  cotransporter.  $\text{Cl}^-$  then leaves the cell passively down an electrical gradient through an apical  $\text{Cl}^-$  channel (transcellular), and  $\text{Na}^+$  moves through a paracellular pathway also following its electrochemical gradient. The large serosal positive  $V_t$  (+35-40 mV) found in SW teleost epithelia is established by secondary  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport and a cation-selective paracellular shunt pathway (Silva *et al.*, 1977; Karnaky, 1986; Wood and Marshall, 1994; McCormick, 1995).

The current model for seawater ion regulation does not however include an acid-base component. There has been circumstantial evidence for the presence of  $\text{Na}^+$ /acid and  $\text{Cl}^-$ /base exchange in the gills of several seawater species (Evans *et al.* 1982), but as yet no direct evidence (Degnan *et al.* 1977; Karnaky *et al.* 1977; Zadunaisky 1984). In the freshwater gill, intracellular carbonic anhydrase is believed to provide  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  which are then exchanged on a 1-for-1 basis with  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  respectively. However the function of carbonic anhydrase, which has been detected in the chloride cells of SW killifish opercular epithelia (Lacy, 1983), remains uncertain in the SW gill.

### **Freshwater opercular epithelia**

The SW model of ion regulation (Fig. 1) is now firmly established through the contributions of numerous *in vitro* studies (see above). However, for FW teleost ion regulation, there are many theories and as yet no generally accepted model. The current FW transport models are based on experiments *in vivo* and with perfused gill preparations, with an absence of any contribution from *in vitro* model preparations.

The *Fundulus* opercular epithelium, which has been used so successfully in constructing the SW ion transport model, has been largely ignored in FW since an initial study by Degnan *et al.* (1977). Degnan and colleagues adapted *Fundulus* to freshwater (FW) ( $\text{Na}^+ = 5 \text{ mM}$ ;  $\text{Cl}^- = 0.5 \text{ mM}$ ;  $\text{K}^+ = 0.5 \text{ mM}$ ) and mounted the opercular epithelia *in vitro* under symmetrical saline, short-circuited conditions; the membrane exhibited net  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux equal to  $I_{\text{sc}}$ , similar to SW epithelia, however at a reduced efflux rate. These results indicated that MR cells of the FW opercular epithelium retained their SW characteristic of extruding  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

Only recently have there been further studies directed at establishing an *in vitro* model for FW ion transport. *Fundulus* acclimated to FW ( $\text{Na}^+ = 1\text{mM}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^- = 1\text{mM}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 0.1\text{mM}$ ), with the opercular epithelium mounted *in vitro* under symmetrical saline, short-circuited conditions ( $I_{sc} = \sim 9\text{-}12\ \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ,  $V_t = \sim 0$ ,  $R_t = 562\text{-}758\ \Omega\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) display net transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in an uptake direction (Marshall *et al.*, 1997). With the mucosal side of the epithelium bathed with FW (a more realistic environmental condition), the  $V_t$  is serosa negative ( $-61\text{ mV}$ ) and  $R_t$  is approximately  $590\ \Omega\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ . Under these conditions the opercular epithelia actively take up  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the FW while  $\text{Na}^+$  exhibits passive diffusion (Wood and Marshall, 1994; Marshall *et al.*, 1997). It should be mentioned however, that under these more realistic conditions, the epithelium loses both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in a net direction to the mucosal bath. The apparent leak component to  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux was confirmed by showing a significant linear correlation to conductance indicating that the majority of  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux is conductive and passive. The negative  $\text{Na}^+$  balance is thought to reflect passive diffusion to the mucosal FW through a cation selective shunt pathway thereby producing a serosal negative  $V_t$ . Pharmacological agents such as SITS (blocker of anion exchange and anion channels) and amiloride ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange and  $\text{Na}^+$  channel inhibitor) have no effect on  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  unidirectional influx respectively, following mucosal application ( $10^{-4}\text{ M}$ ) to the FW epithelia. Nevertheless, the negative results with SITS and amiloride may arise from lack of accessibility of the drugs to the apical side because of the mucous in the apical crypts; they should not convince one that the mechanisms are necessarily absent (Marshall, personal communication). The mucosal addition of thiocyanate anion ( $\text{SCN}^-$ , a

competitive anion transport inhibitor) decreases unidirectional influx of  $\text{Cl}^-$  suggesting active transport or ion exchange mechanisms may be present.

Opercular epithelia of *O. mossambicus* acclimated to FW with saline bathing both sides of the membrane had a serosal positive  $V_t$  of +1.4 mV,  $R_t$  of  $\sim 3700 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$  and an  $I_{sc}$  of  $1.2 \mu\text{A} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$  (Foskett *et al.*, 1981). These epithelia did not actively transport  $\text{Cl}^-$  as unidirectional radio-labelled  $\text{Cl}^-$  fluxes under these conditions were small ( $\sim 0.2 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ) and the net flux was not different from zero.

Kültz and Onken (1993) monitored electrophysiology and MR cell density of opercular epithelia from *O. mossambicus* acclimated to various salinities. FW acclimated membranes demonstrated the lowest values of MR cell density,  $V_t$  and  $I_{sc}$  and highest  $R_t$ . In the salinity range between FW and SW, all electrophysiological parameters increased in parallel. These results suggest that the mechanism for  $\text{Cl}^-$  secretion increased on the cellular and epithelial level as salinity increased.

The cleithrum skin of FW-adapted *Oncorhynchus mykiss* had a serosal positive  $V_t$  of +3.8 mV and a high  $R_t$  of  $\sim 10400 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$  when the mucosal side was bathed with FW (Marshall *et al.*, 1992). This preparation actively transported only  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (positive balance) while both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ions were passively distributed.

Branchial epithelia of *Oncorhynchus mykiss* from dispersed gill epithelial cells cultured on permeable supports and exposed to apical FW actively transport  $\text{Cl}^-$  against an electrochemical gradient in the mucosal to serosal direction (Wood *et al.*, 1997).  $\text{Na}^+$  movement is dominated by passive diffusion. Of particular importance is that based on morphological criteria, the cultured epithelia consist entirely of pavement-type cells (Wood and Pärt, 1997).

These *in vitro* studies have all tried to establish their preparation as a model for FW ion transport. However, none of the *in vitro* preparations mentioned above has been able to accurately mimick ion regulation processes of the gills of intact fish under realistic environmental conditions (FW bathing mucosal surface). For example, active Cl<sup>-</sup> uptake has been shown in opercular epithelia (*F. heteroclitus* and *O. mossambicus*) and cultured epithelia (*O. mykiss*), but Cl<sup>-</sup> tends to be in overall net negative balance. Furthermore, every *in vitro* preparation studied has reported only the passive diffusion of Na<sup>+</sup>. In contrast, the FW teleost is believed to actively and independently take up both Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> on a net basis through mechanisms in the gills and/or other epithelia (see below), something *in vitro* studies have only partially reproduced to date.

### **Freshwater mitochondrial-rich cells**

MR cells in *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia are smaller in diameter and fewer in number when the fish are acclimated to FW, in comparison to MR cells which are hypertrophied and differentiated when the same species is acclimated to SW (Foskett *et al.*, 1981; Kültz and Onken, 1993; Wood and Marshall, 1994). The density of MR cells has been positively correlated to the influx of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in three FW epithelia, the *Fundulus* (Marshall *et al.*, 1995) and *Oreochromis* (McCormick *et al.*, 1992) opercular epithelia and the cleithrum skin of *Oncorhynchus* (Marshall *et al.*, 1992). However, no *in vitro* study has yet demonstrated evidence for a relationship between MR cells and the FW uptake of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup>.

FW MR cells, similar to SW MR cells, contain a large number of mitochondria and an extremely complex system of Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase populated tubules which represent

infolding of the basolateral membrane. In freshwater teleosts, the apical plasma membrane of the MR cells express a shallow crypt, whereas teleosts acclimated to SW express a deep, narrow apical crypt (Pisam and Rambourg, 1991). FW MR cells also have well developed tight junctions between adjacent MR cells (Karnaky, 1986).

The gill epithelia of teleosts *Lebistes reticulatus* (Pisam *et al.*, 1987), *Salmo salar* (Pisam *et al.*, 1988), *Gobio gobio* (Cyprinidae), *Cobitis taenia* (Cobitidae), *Scophthalmus maximus* (Scophthalmidae) (Pisam *et al.*, 1990) and *Oreochromis niloticus* (Cichlidae) (Pisam *et al.*, 1993) adapted to FW contain two types of MR cells ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  cells). The  $\alpha$  MR cells are pale elongated cells located in close contact with lamellar vessels at the base of the lamellae, and  $\beta$  cells, are darker, ovoid cells located in the interlamellar region of the filament epithelium. However, only one type ( $\alpha$  cells) is present after acclimation to SW, which is then joined by another cell type (accessory MR cells) (Jürss and Bastrop, 1995). It has not yet been determined if  $\alpha$  and/or  $\beta$  MR cells are present in FW opercular epithelia.

### **Current ideas about NaCl transport in FW fish**

Our current ideas about FW teleost ion regulation (Fig. 1.2) have been developed through whole animal and perfused gill work on the stenohaline goldfish (*Carassius auratus*), eel (*Anguilla anguilla* and *rostrata*), channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*), European carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and the euryhaline salmonids (*Oncorhynchus*, *Salmo* and *Salvelinus* sp.).

$\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are transported apparently independently, from the dilute FW across the gill against an electrochemical gradient. These independent processes are thought to

occur by electroneutral exchangers on the apical membranes of MR cells and/or pavement cells (undetermined).  $\text{Na}^+$  is exchanged for  $\text{H}^+$  and/or  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and  $\text{Cl}^-$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , processes that may be driven indirectly by a basolateral  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase. The energy required to drive  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption is thought to be provided by the basolateral  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase. This pump creates low intracellular  $[\text{Na}^+]$  which creates a suitable gradient for the entry of  $\text{Na}^+$ .  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake is stimulated by addition of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  on the serosal side and inhibited by addition on the mucosal side and also addition of SITS (Perry *et al.*, 1981), suggesting  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange. There is inhibition of  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake by addition of thiocyanate while  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake is unaffected, indicating independent transport (Kerstetter *et al.*, 1970). Amiloride addition inhibits  $\text{Na}^+$  influx and produces internal acidosis and reduction in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  efflux, indicating  $\text{Na}^+/(\text{H}^+$  or  $\text{NH}_4^+)$  exchange (Perry *et al.*, 1981). The enzyme carbonic anhydrase, found in all types of gill epithelial cells (Perry and Laurent, 1994), hydrates respiratory  $\text{CO}_2$  and forms  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . The  $\text{H}^+$  formed may also be added to intracellular  $\text{NH}_3$  to form  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . According to the acid/base exchange mechanisms described above, the gill is the principal organ of acid/base regulation in freshwater fish (McDonald *et al.*, 1989; Wood, 1991; Goss *et al.*, 1992).

An alternate proposed mechanism for  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake is by diffusion through a  $\text{Na}^+$  selective channel on the apical membrane of gill cells, driven by an electrical gradient created by an  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase which actively extrudes  $\text{H}^+$  ions across the apical membrane of the same or neighbouring cells (Lin and Randall, 1991). This mechanism, as with  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  and/or  $\text{Na}^+/\text{NH}_4^+$  exchange, operates on a 1-for-1 exchange basis and is linked to an acidic component; however existence of this mechanism in the teleost gill is unproven.  $\text{Cl}^-$  absorption is far less understood.  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  efflux may be driven by a pH gradient

developed by  $\text{Na}^+$ /acidic equivalent exchange and extruded by  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange (however such exchangers would not be independent).  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ -dependent ATPase has been detected in freshwater gills, however its location and linkage to  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport remains uncertain (Bornancin *et al.*, 1977). Diffusive loss of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  is through the paracellular channels which may be regulated by extracellular and environmental pH. The mechanisms by which  $\text{Cl}^-$  and acidic/basic equivalents move across the basolateral membrane is also unknown and largely speculative.

### **$\text{Ca}^{2+}$ transport in freshwater opercular epithelia**

A few *in vitro* studies have demonstrated active  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in isolated epithelia (McCormick *et al.*, 1992; Marshall *et al.*, 1992; Marshall *et al.*, 1995). However, unlike the FW model for  $\text{NaCl}$  transport, the mechanism(s) of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport is better understood and therefore more complete. The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport model (Fig. 1.3) has been generated mostly from whole animal studies on freshwater teleosts (most recently see Perry and Wood, 1985; Bently, 1992; Verbost *et al.*, 1987, 1989, 1993; Flik *et al.*, 1985, 1986, 1993; Flik and Perry, 1989; Hogstrand *et al.*, 1994).

FW adapted *Fundulus* opercular epithelia mounted *in vitro*, with serosal saline and mucosal FW, exhibit net active absorption of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Marshall *et al.*, 1995). The transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is significantly correlated with the density of MR cells on the opercular epithelium, and appears to involve passive entry across the apical membrane of these cells through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -selective channels. Marshall *et al.* (1995) reasoned that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is then complexed intracellularly by calmodulin and actively transported to the plasma through a high-affinity  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase. In tilapia branchial epithelia, a  $\text{Na}^+$ -dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

transporter is present (Verbost *et al.*, 1993) and in intestinal epithelia a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}/3\text{Na}^{+}$  exchanger is driven by the  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{K}^{+}$ -ATPase (Flik *et al.*, 1993). Both transporters occur on the basolateral membrane.

The opercular epithelia of *O. niloticus*, as with *Fundulus* epithelia, also actively transport  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  against ionic and electrical gradients in parallel to the density of mitochondrial-rich cells (McCormick *et al.*, 1992). Tilapia acclimated to low environmental  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  display an increased capacity to transport  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . The cleithrum skin of FW *O. mykiss* also actively transports  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the mucosal FW against an electrochemical gradient (Marshall *et al.*, 1992). Again, the transport is linearly correlated to the density of MR cells.

### **The urinary bladder: a potential in vitro model**

As previously mentioned, the urinary bladder of teleost fish plays an important role in ionoregulation and can be considered an accessory osmoregulatory organ to the kidney (Marshall, 1995). In FW teleosts, the urinary bladder reabsorbs  $\text{Na}^{+}$  and  $\text{Cl}^{-}$  from the ureteral urine stored in the bladder and excretes a dilute urine thus conserving ions while surviving in a hyposmotic environment (Curtis and Wood, 1991; 1992). The urinary bladder has a similar function to the teleost gill in that it also reabsorbs  $\text{Na}^{+}$  and  $\text{Cl}^{-}$  from a dilute media (ie dilute urine *versus* freshwater). Because the urinary bladder is easily removed from the fish and provides a flat epithelial surface, it can be mounted in an Ussing-style chamber. Potentially, the urinary bladder studied *in vitro* could serve as a possible “surrogate” model for the gill.

### **Ultrastructure of the urinary bladder**

The urinary bladder, like the mesonephric duct, is believed to be derived from mesoderm, and both structures are therefore thought to contribute to ion transport (Kamalaveni, 1961). The urinary bladder of the goby *Gillichthys mirabilis* contains two distinct cell types (tall columnar and low cuboidal cells) (Nagahama *et al.*, 1975). Columnar cells are most abundant in the area closest to the ureters. These cells are rich in mitochondria and rough and smooth endoplasmic reticulum. The remaining portion of the *Gillichthys* urinary bladder is composed mostly of cuboidal cells with fewer MR cells. These two major cell types are also found in the urinary bladder epithelia of *Tinca tinca* and *Ictalurus sp.* (Gerzeli *et al.*, 1973). Columnar cells in *Gillichthys* epithelia are ultrastructurally similar to epithelial columnar cells in bladders of *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, *Hemitripterus americanus*, *Platichthys stellatus* and *Oreochromis mossambicus* (Loretz and Bern, 1980).

Further observations by Curtis (1990) describes a thin layer of smooth muscle surrounding the entire urinary bladder of *O. mykiss*. The inside (mucosal) surface contains microvilli, which greatly enhance surface area for ion transport. The urinary bladder is also a well vascularized, single layer epithelium, which minimizes the distance transported ions have to traverse before entering the plasma.

### **Freshwater urinary bladder studies *in vivo***

Until recently all *in vivo* ion transport studies of urine flow and composition were collected using internal bladder catheters (e.g. Holmes and Stainer, 1966; Hunn, 1969; Hunn and Willford, 1970; Hofmann and Butler, 1979; Elger and Hentschel, 1983;

Wheatley *et al.*, 1984; Oikari and Rankin, 1985; Elger *et al.*, 1986; Erickson and Gingerich, 1986; Wood, 1988). This method of urine collection collects ureteral urine, thus bypassing any regulatory role of the bladder (Marshall, 1988). However, Curtis and Wood (1991, 1992) developed a new external catheterization technique that collected naturally discharged urine in *O. mykiss*. This new method of urine collection determined that trout urinate in intermittent bursts at 20-30 minute intervals, and during urine storage time in the bladder, significant ion reabsorption occurs. Thus the urinary bladder contributes significantly to the osmoregulatory function of the entire renal system.

#### **Freshwater urinary bladder studies *in vitro*:**

##### **Current freshwater urinary bladder models for NaCl transport**

The majority of studies involving urinary bladder ion regulation have been performed *in vitro*. Most of these *in vitro* studies have used Ussing-type chambers (Marshall, 1986, 1988) or bladder sac preparations (Hirano *et al.*, 1973). Studies interested in urinary bladder ion transport have been numerous and included many species (e.g. *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, *Salvelinus fontinalis*, *Salmo irideus*, *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*, *Gillichthys mirabilis*). However, of particular interest is that two closely related species *Salvelinus fontinalis* and *Salmo irideus* have demonstrated two very different mechanisms for the absorption of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>.

*Salmo irideus* is generally considered to be the European strain of *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. The bladder of the FW acclimated *Salmo irideus* has been studied extensively in perfused bladder sac preparations and in Ussing-style chambers (Fossat and Lahlou, 1977, 1979a, 1979b, 1982; Lahlou and Fossat, 1971, 1984). Lahlou and Fossat (1971)

determined there was a net transport of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in a mucosal to serosal direction using a perfused sac technique. Active transport by the epithelium was suggested because mucosal saline  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations were 10-fold lower than the serosal saline concentrations at the end of the experiment.

In the absence of an osmotic gradient (symmetrical saline), water transport was dependent on active absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the urinary bladder of *Salmo irideus* and the removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the mucosal saline abolished the water transport (Fossat and Lahlou, 1977). The following study by Fossat and Lahlou (1979a) indicated there was a coupling of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport whereby the luminal removal of one ion inhibited the transport of its co-ion. This epithelia appeared to employ an electroneutral transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  as found in other preparations such as the rabbit ileum (Nellans *et al.*, 1973, 1974) and the rabbit gall-bladder (Frizzel *et al.*, 1975). The mucosal to serosal fluxes of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  yielded similar linear and saturating ( $K_m = 8 \text{ mM}$ , Michaelis-Menten kinetics) components as a function of the mucosal concentration of the relevant ion. Upon pH changes in the mucosal or serosal bathing media, ionic transport was not affected, suggesting that a mechanism of  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange is unlikely (Fossat and Lahlou, 1979a).

Work was also performed to determine whether the  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase enzyme is involved in the absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  in the urinary bladder of *Salmo irideus* (Fossat *et al.*, 1974). Through the use of bladder sac preparations, separate experiments involving the serosal addition of ouabain ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase blocker) and removal of  $\text{K}^+$  from the serosal bathing solution were performed. Both treatments caused a similar decrease in  $\text{Na}^+$  influx. The enzymatic activity of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase also decreased when *Salmo irideus*

were acclimated to higher salinities. These results indicated a relationship between  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase and  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption in the urinary bladder.

A characteristic of some transporting epithelia (ie *Fundulus* opercular epithelium, *Goby* jaw skin preparation) is a cation selective paracellular shunt which usually produces a transepithelial potential. However, the cation 2,4,6-Triaminopyrimidine (TAP) commonly used to block  $\text{Na}^+$  permeability was ineffective in the urinary bladder of *Salmo irideus* (Fossat and Lahlou, 1979b). This result also suggested a portion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  absorption must be through paracellular channels due to the previous finding of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  coupled transport and the overall higher permeability of  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Fossat and Lahlou, 1979a). A model representing the findings of Fossat and Lahlou (1979a) is presented in Figure 1.4 A.

The mechanism of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the urinary bladder of the closely related brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) appears to be fundamentally different from that of *Salmo irideus*. Active transport and kinetics of  $\text{Cl}^-$  were not affected by the absence of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$ , indicating independent transport and suggesting the presence of  $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange (Marshall, 1986) (Fig. 1.4 B).  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption was active and continued in the absence of  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the mucosal bath. Also, under these conditions net acid was secreted into the mucosal bath suggestive of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange. Amiloride ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange blocker) partially inhibited  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake, but bumetanide, a classic  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Cl}^-$  co-transport blocker, had no effect. These independent mechanisms of transport appears very similar to models normally presented for the freshwater teleost gill (Wood, 1991; Perry, 1997).

Further voltage clamping experiments on the *S. fontinalis* urinary bladder indicated that  $\text{Na}^+$  diffusion occurs primarily through transcellular pathways (Marshall,

1988). The epithelium behaves characteristically as a simple resistive barrier to  $\text{Cl}^-$ , suggesting that a portion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux may be paracellular. Non-conductive anion exchange is believed to be located apically which accounts for the remainder of  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux. Marshall and Bryson (1991) confirmed the existence of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange by simultaneously adding amiloride and altering the mucosal pH. This treatment inhibited intracellular pH regulation by an apically located  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange mechanism. Addition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to the serosal bath (saline) enhanced the mucosa to serosa flux of  $\text{Na}^+$ . This flux was also blocked by mucosal addition of amiloride;  $\text{Na}^+/\text{NH}_4^+$  exchange was therefore indicated.

## Chapter 2

### **NaCl transport of the opercular epithelia of freshwater acclimated *Fundulus heteroclitus* and *Oreochromis niloticus***

Chapter 2 describes the results of studies on  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the opercular epithelia of two different FW-adapted species (*F. heteroclitus* and *O. niloticus*). The goal of this chapter was to establish one or both of these *in vitro* preparations as a model to further our understanding of FW ionoregulation in the teleost gill. The first objective of this study was to confirm the findings of Marshall *et al.* (1997) who reported active  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake but passive diffusion of  $\text{Na}^+$  across the *Fundulus* opercular epithelium. The 10% SW-adapted *Fundulus*, like the FW-adapted *Fundulus*, survives in a hyposmotic environment and must maintain its internal composition by absorbing salts from the environment. Therefore, the second objective of the study was to determine if adapting *Fundulus* to 10% seawater, a more natural situation for this estuarine species, would

promote active NaCl uptake, possibly in a net positive direction. The FW-adapted *Oreochromis* is an endemic FW species, unlike the euryhaline *Fundulus* and it was reasoned that the opercular epithelium of this species may display active Na<sup>+</sup> and/or Cl<sup>-</sup> uptake. An additional objective was to test whether avoiding exposure of the *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium to high salt concentrations (saline) during the dissection procedure would facilitate NaCl transport. This final objective was tested because Karnaky (1991) suggested that exposure of transporting membranes to high salt content may change the ultrastructure and physiology of the transporting cells.

The *Fundulus* opercular epithelium exhibited active transport of Cl<sup>-</sup> from the mucosal FW against a strong electrochemical gradient. Na<sup>+</sup> movement was dominated by passive diffusion. This *in vitro* study of FW *Fundulus* opercular epithelia recorded larger influx rates of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> than previous studies on the same species (attributed to higher FW Ca<sup>2+</sup>). The opercular epithelia of *Fundulus* adapted to 10% SW exhibited properties similar to SW *Fundulus*, and not to FW *Fundulus* by actively extruding Cl<sup>-</sup> while Na<sup>+</sup> moved passively into the mucosal 10% SW. With FW bathing the mucosal surface, FW *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia displayed active absorption of Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> against large electrical and/or chemical gradients. Ca<sup>2+</sup> movement was in a net uptake positive balance direction. Using FW osmotically compensated with mannitol during the dissection procedure instead of saline, did not increase or decrease influx of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup>.

Therefore, Chapter 2 confirmed the movement of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in the *Fundulus* opercular epithelium from past studies and introduced the FW *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium as a new *in vitro* model for the study of branchial ion regulation. The *O.*

*niloticus* preparation is the only FW *in vitro* preparation to our knowledge that exhibits active absorption of both Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>.

### Chapter 3

#### Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> transport by the urinary bladder

#### of the freshwater rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)

Chapter 3 describes the results of studies on the mechanisms by which Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> are reabsorbed in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss* mounted *in vitro*. This chapter examined NaCl transport under numerous experimental conditions to determine whether the transport of these ions was coupled or independent. Ion replacement experiments were performed whereby Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> was removed from the mucosal bathing solution and its counter-ion movement was monitored. These ion replacement experiments were conducted under symmetrical saline conditions and with artificial urine bathing the mucosal side. Another objective of this study was to test whether the addition of pharmacological agents, known to block specific transporters or ion channels, would affect ion transport. Electrophysiological and kinetic transport properties of the epithelium were also determined.

FW *O. mykiss* urinary bladders mounted *in vitro* under symmetrical saline conditions displayed electroneutral active absorption of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> from the mucosal urine side. Removal of Na<sup>+</sup> from the mucosal saline decreased Cl<sup>-</sup> absorption by 56% and removal of Cl<sup>-</sup> inhibited Na<sup>+</sup> absorption by 69%. However, active net reabsorption of neither Na<sup>+</sup> nor Cl<sup>-</sup> was abolished when its counter-ion was replaced with a permeable ion. Under more realistic conditions with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface,

unidirectional influx rates of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  decreased, and net serosal to mucosal fluxes occurred. Nevertheless active absorption of both ions still occurred according to the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the mucosal artificial urine yielded no change in unidirectional influx of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and removal of  $\text{Cl}^-$  also resulted in no change in unidirectional influx rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  from control values. The mucosal addition of DIDS, amiloride or bumetanide ( $10^{-4}$  M), when the bladder was bathed with either artificial urine or symmetrical Cortland's saline on the mucosal side, did not affect absorption rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$ . When the mucosal surface of bladder epithelia were bathed in artificial urine and "Na<sup>+</sup> kinetics" were compared in control and mucosal  $\text{Cl}^-$  free solutions,  $J_{\max}$  substantially decreased but the affinity of the transport system for  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $K_m$ ) was not affected. Similar analyses of "Cl<sup>-</sup> kinetics" revealed a significant decrease in  $J_{\max}$  values in the low- $\text{Na}^+$  mucosal bathing solution compared to the control artificial urine solution, while  $K_m$  was again unaffected. A further observation was that the anterior portion of the urinary bladder transported  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at a faster rate than posterior portions, particularly under symmetrical saline conditions. However, there was no difference in measured  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activities between anterior and posterior portions of bladder epithelia.

These results suggest that  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  reabsorption in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss* is a partially coupled process, where both dependent and independent uptake processes occur. The findings from this study in particular reinforce previous data from Fossat and Lahlou (1979a) who studied the European strain of rainbow trout (*Salmo irideus*).

The information in this thesis will hopefully contribute towards a better understanding of freshwater teleost ionoregulation. The three different *in vitro*

preparations presented here each should be further studied and their transport processes expanded upon. By way of future *in vitro* experiments one or all of these preparations could be used as a potential model for the study of Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> and/or Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport in the teleost gill.

Figure 1.1. The current model for NaCl transport in the gill epithelia of seawater adapted teleosts. This model was proposed from whole animal studies and later confirmed through *in vitro* use of opercular epithelia from *Fundulus heteroclitus*, *Oreochromis mossambicus* and *Gillichthys mirabilis*. The basolateral Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase indirectly drives Cl<sup>-</sup> extrusion through the operation of a Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, 2Cl<sup>-</sup> co-transporter. Na<sup>+</sup> diffusion is passive along a net electrochemical gradient from blood to external seawater, through paracellular channels between choride and/or adjacent accessory cells. Cl<sup>-</sup> exits along an electrochemical gradient through channels in the apical crypt. Carrier-mediated processes are indicated by solid arrows, diffusive processes by dashed lines.

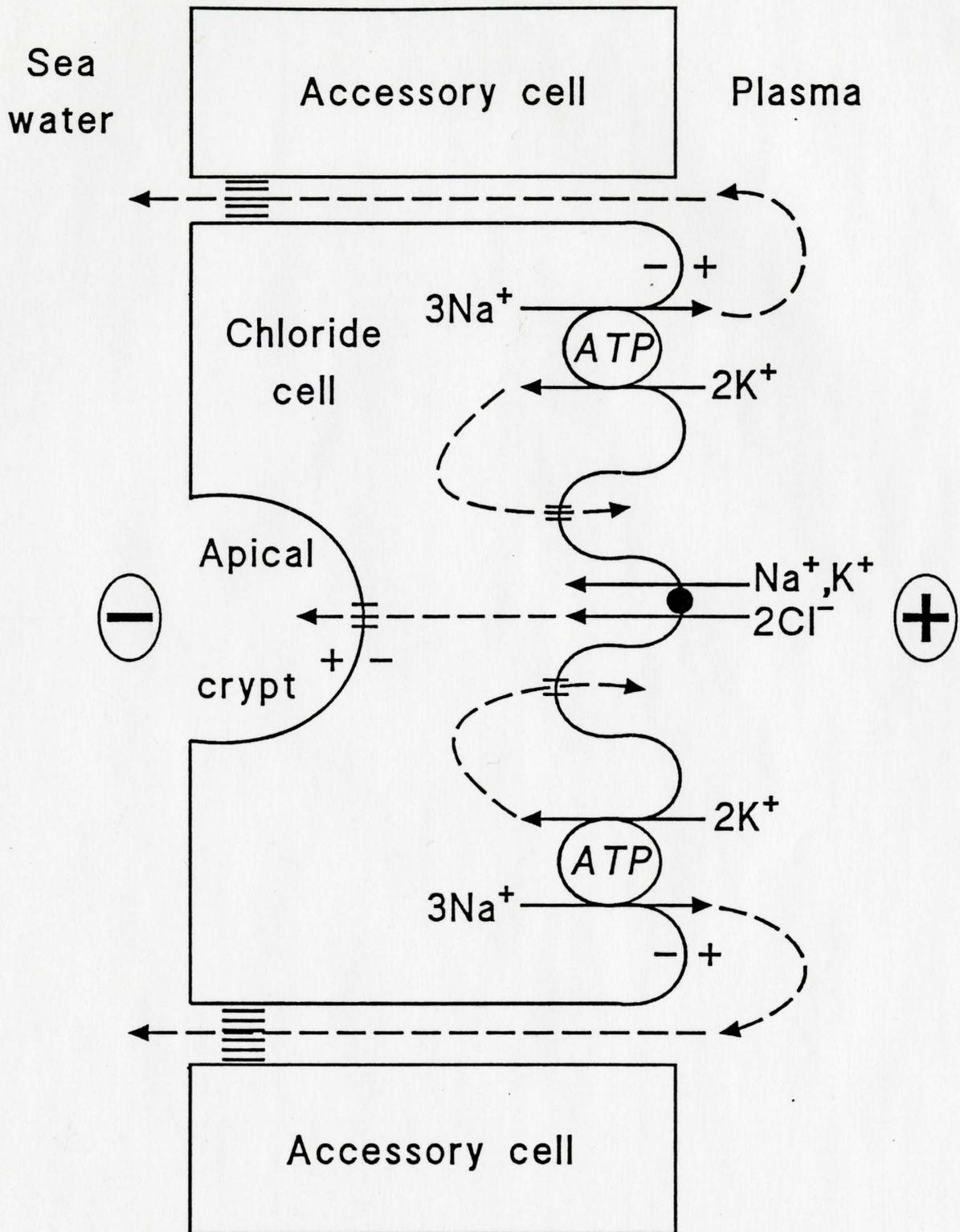


Figure 1.2. Current ideas for NaCl transport in the gill epithelia of freshwater adapted teleosts. This model was developed mainly from whole animal studies and perfused gill preparations.  $\text{Na}^+$  is exchanged for  $\text{H}^+$  and/or  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , exchange processes that may be driven indirectly by a basolateral  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase. An alternate proposed mechanism for  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake is by diffusion through a  $\text{Na}^+$  selective channel on the apical membrane of gill cells, driven by the electrical gradient created by active extrusion of  $\text{H}^+$  ions across the apical membrane of the same or neighbouring cells by  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPase. Carbonic anhydrase (CAH) hydrates respiratory  $\text{CO}_2$  and forms  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . Cell types involved in ion regulation have not been identified and thus are not labelled. Carrier-mediated processes are indicated by solid arrows, diffusive processes by dashed lines.

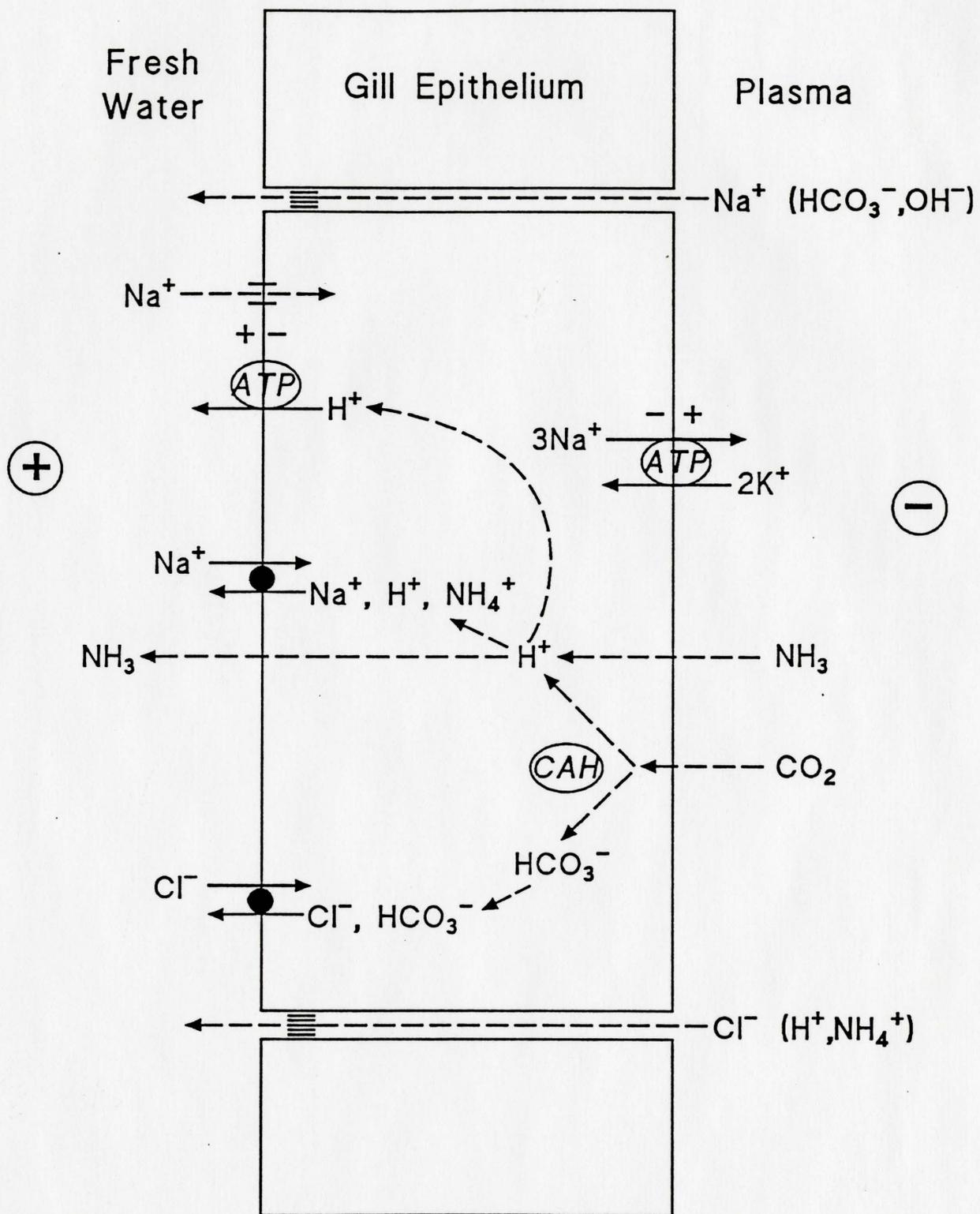


Figure 1.3. The current model for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport in the gill epithelia of freshwater adapted teleosts. This model was developed from whole animal studies and *in vitro* preparations.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake is believed to occur via a calmodulin-dependent, high affinity  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase or a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}/3\text{Na}^{+}$  exchanger driven by the enzyme  $\text{Na}^{+}/\text{K}^{+}$ -ATPase. Cell types involved in ion transport have not been identified and thus are not labelled, however strong evidence suggests that they are MR cells. Carrier-mediated processes are indicated by solid arrows, diffusive processes by dashed lines.

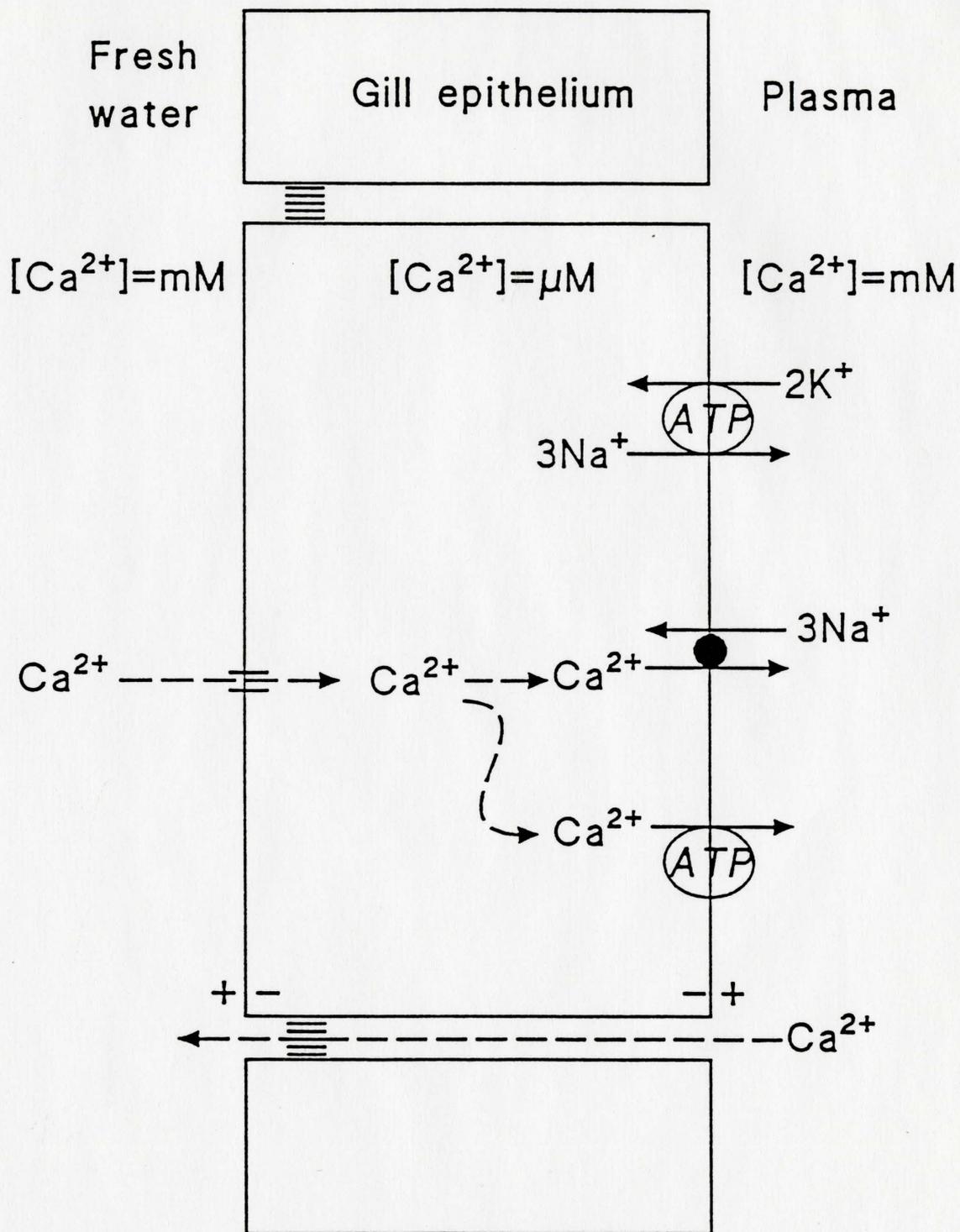
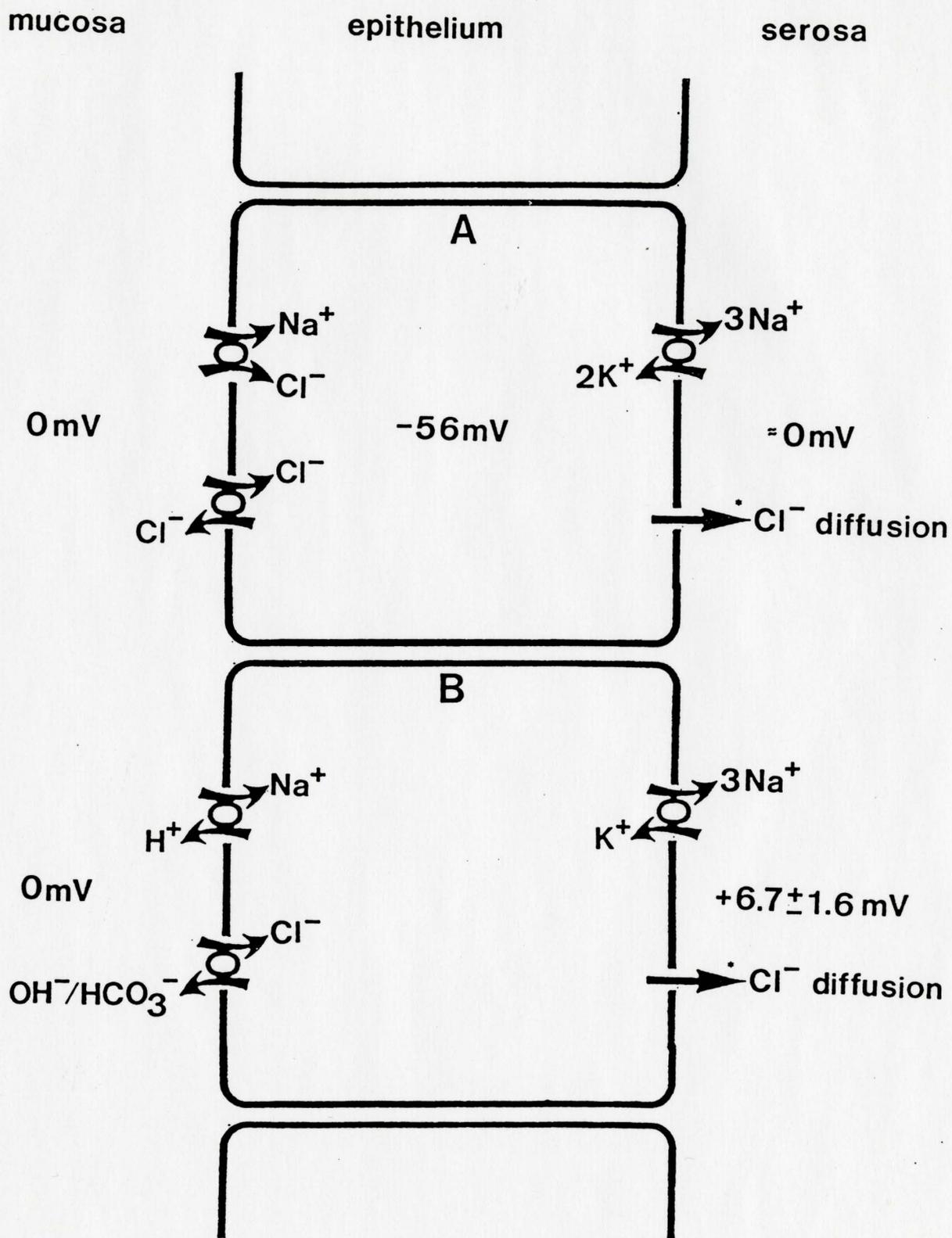


Figure 1.4. A diagrammatic representation of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the freshwater salmonid trout urinary bladder. A. Transport model based on *in vitro* studies using European rainbow trout *Salmo irideus* (Fossat and Lahlou, 1979a). A coupled transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  is shown and driven indirectly by the basolateral enzyme  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase. B. Transport model based on *in vitro* work on brook trout *Salvelinus fontinalis* (Marshall, 1986, 1988). Independent transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  on the apical side of the membrane in exchange for  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{OH}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  respectively.  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase enzyme is believed to supply the energy required for  $\text{Na}^+$  reabsorption. Asterisk in each figure indicates the assumptions of the original authors as to the processes marked.



## Chapter 2

### Abstract

Opercular epithelia from the freshwater (FW) acclimated *Fundulus heteroclitus* and the FW *Oreochromis niloticus* were mounted *in vitro* with FW bathing the mucosal surface. The density of mitochondrial-rich cells was approximately 40-fold greater in the *Fundulus* preparation. The *Fundulus* preparation had larger absolute flux rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  than the *Oreochromis* preparation. The *Fundulus* opercular epithelium had an inside negative transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ ) of -43.9 mV and exhibited non-diffusive transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the mucosal FW while  $\text{Na}^+$  was passively distributed across the membrane according to the flux ratio criterion. Opercular epithelia from *Fundulus* acclimated to 10% seawater (SW) extruded  $\text{Cl}^-$ , when bathed either with 10% SW on the mucosal side or symmetrical Cortland's saline.  $\text{Na}^+$  moved passively across the membrane under both experimental conditions. *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia had a  $V_t$  of +8.0 mV and displayed non-diffusive uptake of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  against large concentration gradients from the mucosal FW media, based on disagreement with the Ussing flux ratio equation. Non-diffusive net absorption of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the FW bath by the *Oreochromis* membrane was also shown. In experiments with FW osmotically compensated with mannitol as the dissection medium instead of saline,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx increased but so did  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux. When the membrane was bathed with symmetrical Cortland's saline, the conductance increased approximately 15-fold to 14.6  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and the short-circuit current was less than 1  $\mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  with no net movement of either  $\text{Cl}^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+$ . The FW *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia may be good

preparations for studying *in vitro* the mechanisms of Cl<sup>-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport in FW teleosts.

## Introduction

There is now a generally accepted model for the mechanisms of ion transport in the gills of seawater teleosts (see Evans 1993; Marshall 1995; McCormick 1995 for recent reviews). Historically, the genesis of this model was largely due to the availability of flat epithelial preparations (“gill surrogates”) which allowed mechanistic study of transport details *in vitro*. These *in vitro* studies used opercular epithelia from the killifish *Fundulus heteroclitus* (e.g. Degnan et al. 1977; Degnan and Zadunaisky 1979; 1980; Karnaky et al. 1977; Karnaky 1980, 1986; Ernst et al. 1980; Zadunaisky 1984) and the Mozambique tilapia *Sarotherodon* (= *Oreochromis*) *mossambicus* (e.g. Foskett et al. 1981, 1983; Foskett and Scheffey 1982; Scheffey et al. 1983), and the jaw skin epithelium of the goby *Gillichthys mirabilis* (e.g. Marshall and Nishioka 1980; Marshall 1981).

In contrast, our understanding of the mechanisms of ion transport in the gills of freshwater teleosts remains controversial and incomplete (see Evans 1993; Lin and Randall 1995; Perry 1997 for recent reviews). While it is clear that freshwater fish can take up  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  actively and independently from the dilute external environment, there are competing theories as to the mechanisms and sites of  $\text{Na}^+$  uptake, a complete lack of knowledge on the energetic basis of  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake, and considerable uncertainty as to the mechanisms by which  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  fluxes are linked to acidic and basic equivalent fluxes respectively (e.g. Péqueux et al. 1988; Wood 1991; Goss et al. 1992; Potts 1994). To a large extent, this deficit of understanding can be linked to the absence of suitable flat epithelial “gill surrogates” for *in vitro* study of the freshwater gill.

To date, the search for such freshwater model preparations has been disappointing. Foskett et al. (1981) found no apparent active  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake across the opercular epithelium of freshwater-adapted *Oreochromis mossambicus*, and Marshall et al. (1992) found no apparent active  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake across the cleithral epithelium of freshwater-adapted rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, despite the fact that both preparations exhibited populations of mitochondrial-rich (MR) cells. Recently, Marshall et al. (1997) studied the opercular epithelium of freshwater adapted *Fundulus heteroclitus*, which has a much higher density of MR cells than the other two preparations. When the mucosal surface was bathed with symmetrical saline, active uptake of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  occurred. However when the mucosal surface was bathed with freshwater, only the active uptake of  $\text{Cl}^-$  could be documented. Interestingly, there is active  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake from fresh water in skin preparations from trout (Marshall et al., 1992), killifish (Marshall et al. 1995) and Nile tilapia *Oreochromis niloticus* (McCormick et al. 1992).

The present study extends the search for a suitable freshwater model. The first objective was to confirm the conclusions of Marshall et al. (1997) using a different batch of *Fundulus heteroclitus* and different freshwater quality (higher  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration). The second was to evaluate whether acclimation and testing in a more moderate salinity (10% seawater) would promote active  $\text{NaCl}$  uptake in the preparation, because the killifish is more commonly an estuarine rather than a freshwater inhabitant in its normal environment. A third objective was to test whether  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  uptake could be detected across the opercular epithelium of freshwater-adapted *Oreochromis niloticus*, inasmuch as the Nile tilapia is native to freshwater. An additional goal was to confirm

the occurrence of active  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake across this preparation (McCormick et al. 1992). A final goal was to test whether avoiding exposure to high external NaCl concentrations (*i.e.* isotonic saline) during preparation would promote NaCl transport in the tilapia epithelium, because Karnaky (1991) has suggested that the morphology and physiology of the epithelium, particularly the role of the tight junctions, may change rapidly in response to external salinity.

## Materials and Methods

### Animals

Adult killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*) were obtained from the Antigonish estuary (Antigonish, NS), transferred directly to holding tanks that were ten percent seawater (3.0-3.2 ppt.), and then air-freighted to Hamilton, ON. In Hamilton, the fish were maintained in ten percent synthetic seawater (Marinemix, Baltimore, MD) in a 500 l aerated, charcoal-filtered system, but transferred to freshwater at least two weeks prior to use. During freshwater acclimation, the killifish were held in Hamilton tapwater with an average composition (in  $\text{mmol l}^{-1}$ ) of  $\text{Na}^+$  0.6;  $\text{Cl}^-$  0.7;  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  1.05; pH 7.5-8.0. The 60 l acclimation tanks contained charcoal-filter systems and were well aerated. Light was maintained at seasonal photoperiod and water temperature was constant with room temperature ( $20 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ). Killifish were fed with commercial food (Wardley, Secaucus, NJ) at a rate of 1% of their body mass per day.

Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) (10-15 g) were obtained from Northern Tilapia, Lindsay, ON, and were kept in a 500-l tank supplied at a rate of  $50 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$  with a flow through of dechlorinated Hamilton tap water, charcoal filtration and aeration. The

freshwater was maintained at  $30 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Tilapia were fed commercial trout pellets (Zeigler, Hazelton, PA) at a rate of 1% of their body mass per day.

### Bathing solutions

A modified Cortland saline solution used for dissection and for the basolateral bathing solution was composed of (in  $\text{mmol l}^{-1}$ ) NaCl, 129.9; KCl, 2.55;  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 1.56;  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 0.93;  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 13.00;  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 2.97; glucose, 5.55;  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ , 0.30 (all salts from Sigma Chemical Co.). To substitute for plasma protein the saline was supplemented with  $20 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$  bovine serum albumin. The saline was equilibrated with a 0.3%  $\text{CO}_2$ , balance  $\text{O}_2$ , gas mixture and had a measured pH of 7.8-7.9.

In open-circuit experiments using asymmetrical bathing solutions, the solution for the mucosal surface of the membrane was taken from either the freshwater entering the holding tank or directly from the 10% SW in the holding tank. The FW or 10% SW was then equilibrated with 100%  $\text{O}_2$  before being used in the Ussing chamber. Prior to the start of the experiment and at the end of each 60 minute flux period (see below), the mucosal solution was rinsed extensively to maintain the original ion composition of the FW ( $\text{Na}^+ = 0.7$ ,  $\text{Cl}^- = 0.6$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 1.05 \text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ) or 10% SW ( $\text{Na}^+ = 47.0$ ,  $\text{Cl}^- = 54.8$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 1.02 \text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ).

### Isolated opercular epithelia preparation

The fish were killed by pithing and both opercular membranes were immediately dissected from their underlying opercular bone, teasing off the epithelia in a ventral-anterior to dorsal-posterior direction. Prior to dissection, mucus was carefully removed

from the epithelial surface using fine forceps. Each opercular epithelium yielded an approximate area of 1-2 cm<sup>2</sup>. Throughout the dissection, the preparation was kept moist by the addition of saline.

The Ussing membrane apertures (0.125 cm<sup>2</sup>) were prepared with stopcock grease (Dow Corning, Midland, MI) and a thin vinyl mesh was placed over each aperture to support the tissue. The opercular epithelium was carefully pinned down to the aperture mucosal side up and the second half of the aperture then sandwiched the epithelium. After mounting, the mucosal surfaces were thoroughly rinsed with fresh water to remove the saline and any mucus that had accumulated during the dissection. The aperture sandwich was then placed between the two hemi-chambers and tightened into place. The hemi-chambers were filled with the appropriate solutions: fresh water or saline or 10% seawater for the mucosal side, and saline for the serosal side. Each hemi-chamber was filled at an equal rate to ensure there was no 'bagging' of the epithelium. The membranes were then given a 30 min period to adjust to the *in vitro* conditions.

#### Mannitol dissection procedure

In one set of experiments concerning the *Oreochromis* opercular epithelia, 250 mM mannitol (Sigma Chemical, Co.) was added to FW to serve as the dissection medium in place of saline so as to maintain the correct FW NaCl concentration yet at the same time provide a normal extracellular fluid osmotic pressure which would avoid osmotic stress to the basolateral surface.

## Electrophysiology

Polyethylene 4% agar/saline bridges were used to measure transepithelial potential ( $V_p$ , mucosal side grounded) and membrane conductance ( $G_i$ ). Each bridge was connected to the current/voltage clamp (WP Instruments, New Haven, CT, DVC-1000) by Hg/HgCl calomel half-cells. Membrane conductance was corrected for solution resistances. In asymmetrical solutions, corrections for liquid junction potentials were accomplished by measurements against a free flowing 3 M KCl half-cell. Ussing chambers were water jacketed to the killifish and tilapia acclimation temperatures at  $20 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  and  $30 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  respectively. In certain flux experiments with opercular epithelia from *Fundulus* adapted to 10% SW, or *Oreochromis* adapted to FW, the preparation was short-circuited (with saline bathing the mucosal surface) to negate any effect of  $V_i$  on ion transport.  $G_i$  was determined by clamping the membrane to a set voltage every 10 min. and  $V_i$  was recorded at the beginning and end of each 60 min short-circuited flux period.

## Experimental protocol

One chamber was set up for each opercular epithelium for pair wise measurements of influx and efflux. Each fish therefore yielded a mucosal to serosal unidirectional influx ( $J^{ms}$ ) measurement and a serosal to mucosal unidirectional efflux ( $J^{sm}$ ) measurement. After the initial 30 min adjustment period, the mucosal hemichamber volume was gently rinsed again with FW (20 times the chamber volume) and isotope was added to the appropriate side.

Unidirectional fluxes were determined by measuring the specific activity in the labelled side and the appearance of isotope on the unlabelled side. Dual flux

experiments were performed with  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  ( $\text{Na}^{36}\text{Cl}$  from I.C.N. Radiochemicals, Irvine, California) and  $^{22}\text{Na}$  ( $^{22}\text{NaCl}$  from NEN-Dupont, Boston, MA) which were added to either the mucosal side (final specific activity of  $300\,000\text{ CPM } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ ) for unidirectional influx or serosal side ( $8\,000\text{ CPM } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ ) to monitor unidirectional efflux. In  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  flux experiments, the final specific activity of  $^{45}\text{Ca}$  ( $^{45}\text{CaCl}_2$  from NEN-Dupont, Boston, MA) was 10-100-fold higher. Upon first addition of the radioisotope(s), a 45 min equilibration period was employed. Each experiment consisted of three 60 min periods; within each period samples were taken from the unlabelled bath every 20 min for radioactivity analyses. Flux values for each 20 min period were averaged to produce a final flux rate for each 60 min experimental period. At the start and end of each period, samples were taken from the labeled side to determine the specific activity and ionic concentrations. Between each one hour period the chambers were thoroughly flushed, and new solutions with isotope were added and equilibrated for at least 45 min.

The observed flux ratio ( $J^{\text{ms}}/J^{\text{sm}}$ ) was compared to the predicted flux ratio using the Ussing flux ratio equation (Ussing 1949). Disagreement between the observed and predicted value indicated the presence of non-diffusive transport. The predicted flux ratio equation was as follows:

$$J_i^{\text{ms}}/J_i^{\text{sm}} = (a_i^{\text{m}}/a_i^{\text{s}})e^{(z_i F V_t/RT)}$$

The activities of ion  $i$  are  $a_i^{\text{s}}$  and  $a_i^{\text{m}}$  on the serosal and mucosal sides respectively; valency of the ion is  $z_i$ ,  $V_t$  is the transepithelial potential and  $F$ ,  $R$  and  $T$  have their usual thermodynamic meanings. The ionic activities of  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $109.5\text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ( $0.79\text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ) in Cortland's saline and  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $35.6\text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ) in 10% SW were taken from measurements with microelectrodes filled with the appropriate ionophore (Steiner et al.

1979), while  $\text{Cl}^-$  was predicted to have the same relative activity (on a % basis) as  $\text{Na}^+$  from theory for solutions of these ionic strengths (Lee, 1981). The presence of 20 mg  $\text{ml}^{-1}$  of bovine serum albumin lowered the activity of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the saline, but  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  activity were unaffected. The FW ionic activities of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  were taken as equal to their measured concentrations.

### Fluorescence microscopy

Opercular epithelia from the Ussing chamber were bathed in 10  $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$  DASPEI [2-(4-dimethylaminostyryl)-N-ethylpyridium iodide]; I.C.N Biomedicals, Costa Mesa, CA] (mitochondrial fluorophore) to determine the density of MR cells. DASPEI was initially dissolved in distilled water to a concentration of 0.2 mg  $\text{ml}^{-1}$ . The membranes were then incubated in a diluted DASPEI stock solution (oxygenated saline) for 30 min. before being viewed as a wet mount on an epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss, Germany) with an excitation wavelength of 450-490 nm. Cell counts were made at four randomly chosen fields at a magnification of 160 (1.7  $\text{mm}^2$  field of view) and the values were then averaged to yield a density of MR cells per  $\text{mm}^2$ .

### Analytical techniques

Saline  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations were measured by coulometric titration (model CMT10, Radiometer, Copenhagen) and freshwater  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations were determined by colorimetric assay (Zall et al. 1956).  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations in both media were analyzed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (model AA-1275, Varian, Springvale, Australia). Samples of 40  $\mu\text{l}$  from the labelled side and 250  $\mu\text{l}$  from the unlabelled side

were added to 4.0 ml of Readysafe fluor (Beckman, Fullerton, CA). Radioactivities of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  and  $^{45}\text{Ca}$  were determined by counting on a Rackbeta 1217 liquid scintillation counter (LKB, Wallac, Turku, Finland), and  $^{22}\text{Na}$  radioactivity was counted on Minaxi Autogamma 5000 counter (Packard Instrument Co., Downers Grove, IL).  $^{22}\text{Na}$  emits both gamma and beta radiation, therefore scintillation counts collected from a  $^{22}\text{Na}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  dual flux experiment were from both  $^{22}\text{Na}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ .  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  counts were determined by a count subtraction procedure. This was accomplished by measuring the CPM of a known concentration of  $^{22}\text{Na}$  in both the scintillation and gamma counters and then determining the relative efficiency of the two counters for detecting  $^{22}\text{Na}$ . The CPM from the gamma counter was then multiplied by this ratio and subtracted from the CPM of the scintillation counter to yield the beta emission of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  only.

Data are presented as means  $\pm$  1 standard error unless indicated otherwise. Comparisons within and between treatments were analyzed by paired or un-paired *t*-tests (two-tailed), as appropriate, at  $P < 0.05$ .

## Results

Opercular epithelia from FW acclimated *Fundulus*, bathed on the mucosal side with FW, had a serosa-negative transepithelial potential at open-circuit of  $-43.9 \pm 2.4$  mV and a transepithelial conductance of  $1.94 \pm 0.34$  mS $\cdot$ cm $^{-2}$  (Table 1). The influx (Jms) values for Cl $^{-}$  generally decreased over time, however the difference was not significant from period 1 to period 3 ( $P > 0.05$ ). Efflux (Jsm) was about 10 fold greater than influx (Jms); thus there was also a net loss of Cl $^{-}$  over each of the three one hour flux periods. Figure 1A shows a clear difference between the observed and predicted flux ratios

( $P < 0.05$ ) averaged over the three periods for  $\text{Cl}^-$ , thereby suggesting active chloride absorption by the tissue according to the Ussing flux ratio criterion.

The unidirectional influx and efflux values for  $\text{Na}^+$  demonstrated that the epithelium was also losing sodium over each of the three one hour periods. The observed and predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  were not significantly different, indicating that this ion moves passively across the epithelium (Figure 1A).

Experiments performed on 10% SW acclimated *Fundulus* opercular epithelia (with 10% SW bathing the mucosal surface and the preparation at open circuit), indicated that the epithelia had a serosa positive  $V_t$  of  $+3.3 \pm 0.5$  mV in contrast to the very negative  $V_t$  seen with FW membranes (Table 1). The  $G_t$  of  $2.32 \pm 0.43$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  however, was not different from FW membranes. The preparation displayed significant net extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  into the mucosal 10% SW, with a similar, but non-significant trend for net extrusion of  $\text{Na}^+$ . Flux ratio analysis indicated passive diffusion of  $\text{Na}^+$  and active extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Fig. 1B). This conclusion was confirmed by placing the epithelia from 10% SW acclimated *Fundulus* under short-circuit conditions with saline bathing both sides of the membrane.  $V_t$  increased to  $+9.52 \pm 1.9$  mV (prior to short-circuit),  $G_t$  was significantly greater at  $5.97 \pm 0.89$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , and short-circuit current was  $34.08 \pm 2.47$   $\mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  (not shown). Under these conditions, the epithelia exhibited higher unidirectional fluxes for both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ , a clear net extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  into the mucosal saline, but no significant net flux of  $\text{Na}^+$  (see hour 3 in bottom part of Table 1). The observed flux ratio for  $\text{Cl}^-$  was clearly different from the predicted ratio of unity, confirming the active secretion of  $\text{Cl}^-$ , whereas the observed flux ratio for  $\text{Na}^+$  was not

significantly different from unity, confirming passive distribution of this cation (not shown).

The FW-adapted *Oreochromis* opercular membranes, bathed on the mucosal surface with FW had a serosa-positive  $V_t$  of  $+8.0 \pm 0.57$  mV and  $G_t$  of  $1.78 \pm 0.19$  mS·cm<sup>-2</sup> (Table 2). Both Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> unidirectional fluxes indicated that there was a net loss of ions into the mucosal FW bath during the flux experiment. Over time Cl<sup>-</sup> influx was more or less stable, while Na<sup>+</sup> influx showed a steady decrease. The observed flux ratios for both Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> were significantly greater ( $P < 0.05$ ) than the flux ratios predicted on the basis of passive diffusion by the Ussing flux ratio equation (Figure 2A), thus indicating these ions were actively transported in the uptake direction.

Net uptake of Ca<sup>2+</sup> occurred in each of the three experimental periods. Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx was against a concentration and an electrical gradient and was almost twice the magnitude of Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux (Table 2). The much greater observed flux ratio of Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Figure 2A) than predicted by the Ussing equation indicated active transport of this ion.

Under symmetrical saline conditions, the ionic conductance of the *Oreochromis* opercular membrane increased approximately 8-fold to 14.6 mS·cm<sup>-2</sup>, while  $V_t$  was reduced to approximately zero ( $0.04 \pm 0.04$  mV), so, the short-circuit current was less than 1  $\mu$ A·cm<sup>-2</sup> (Table 2). There was no net movement of either Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> that was significant in any direction and the flux ratios for Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> were not significantly different from the predicted flux ratios, suggesting that these ions were passively distributed across the epithelium under these conditions.

To evaluate whether exposure to high NaCl levels on the mucosal surface during dissection was a problem, FW was osmotically compensated with mannitol and then used

in place of saline in the *Oreochromis* dissection procedure. Unidirectional influx and efflux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were not significantly affected. The observed  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratios were significantly different from their respective predicted ratios (Fig. 2B), but the magnitude of the observed ratios were almost identical to those seen during the normal saline dissection procedure (Fig. 2A).

A comparison of absolute unidirectional flux rates between FW-adapted *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* preparations when FW was present on the mucosal surface in both (compare Tables 1 and 2) demonstrated that in each period, uptake values ( $J_{ms}$ ) for both  $\text{Na}^+$  (9-fold difference) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (4-fold difference) were significantly higher in *Fundulus*.  $J_{sm}$  values for  $\text{Na}^+$  were also significantly higher (2.5 fold difference) in *Fundulus*, whereas there was only a slight, non-significant difference in  $J_{sm}$  values for  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

The FW adapted *Fundulus* opercular epithelium contained  $1868 \pm 87$  MR cells  $\text{mm}^{-2}$  ( $n=6$ ). The FW *Oreochromis* epithelium contained a MR cell density of approximately forty-fold less at  $45.8 \pm 3.0$   $\text{mm}^{-2}$  ( $n=6$ ).

## Discussion

### *Fundulus* opercular epithelium

The FW acclimated *Fundulus* opercular epithelium actively transported  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the mucosal FW bath to the serosal saline according to the Ussing flux ratio equation (Fig. 1A), against a large concentration gradient (1:194) and a large electrical gradient (-44 mV). The movement of  $\text{Na}^+$  across the FW *Fundulus* opercular epithelium was passive (Fig. 1A). These results confirm those of Marshall et al. (1997) who studied *Fundulus* opercular epithelium acclimated to and bathed mucosally in a FW with a

somewhat higher NaCl and a 10-fold lower  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  level. Furthermore, unidirectional  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux rates and values of  $G_t$  were very similar in the two studies. Interestingly,  $V_t$  was less negative (-44 mV vs -64 mV) than in the study of Marshall et al. (1997), probably reflecting the well known effect of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$  in modulating the diffusion potential across epithelia of freshwater teleosts (Potts, 1984).

To determine if active transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the uptake direction could be facilitated, *Fundulus* were acclimated to 10% SW. When the 10% SW adapted opercular epithelium was bathed with 10% SW on the mucosal surface in the Ussing chamber, it exhibited transport properties very similar to those of a SW adapted preparation, and not a FW preparation. The  $V_t$  was small but positive (+3.3 mV) and the epithelia exhibited active extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and passive movement of  $\text{Na}^+$  into the mucosal bath (Fig. 1B). Under short-circuit (Isc) symmetrical saline conditions,  $\text{Na}^+$  movement was passive and net extrusion of  $\text{Cl}^-$  was  $4.8 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  compared to  $6.07 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  of a SW operculum (Degnan et al. 1977). The Isc of this preparation ( $34 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) was intermediate between values previously found for FW adapted ( $\sim 9\text{-}12 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ; Marshall et al. 1997) and SW adapted *Fundulus* ( $136 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ; Degnan et al. 1977). The small Isc found for the *Fundulus* 10% SW-adapted preparation indicated that the SW adaptive  $\text{Cl}^-$  secretion was not operating to its full extent. It seems curious that the opercular epithelium would actively excrete salt when the fish is living in 10% SW, because the tonicity of this media is only about one third blood levels. This situation would lead to salt depletion unless compensated in some way. It is possible that the *in vitro* preparation does not properly mimic the *in vivo* condition due to the lack of inhibitory hormones or neurotransmitters. Nevertheless, the result is in accord with structural

studies. *Fundulus* adapted to 10% SW are reported to have MR cells that are identical in ultrastructure to a 100 and 200% SW adapted *Fundulus* (Karnaky et al. 1976). The appearance of FW like MR cells has been found only upon acclimation to very low salinities (1/16 SW) (Philpott and Copeland, 1963). In *O. mossambicus*, Kültz and Onken (1993) found in the salinity range between FW and SW, MR cell density and all electrical parameters ( $I_{sc}$ ,  $V_i$  and  $G_i$ ) increased in parallel.

#### *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium

The *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium had an inside positive  $V_i$  of +8.0 mV compared to the -43 mV found for the *Fundulus* preparation (see also Marshall et al. 1997). Both of these species survive in FW, yet each have their own distinct  $V_i$ . Marshall et al. (1997) reasoned the large negative inside  $V_i$  of *Fundulus heteroclitus* represents the membrane's cation selective diffusion potential. The  $V_i$  of intact freshwater fish can be slightly positive or slightly negative (Potts, 1984) and in this study the FW *Oreochromis* membrane's  $V_i$  (8 mV) was very comparable to the 10 mV reported for the skin of the same species by McCormick et al. (1992). The closely related *O. mossambicus* in FW had a whole-animal  $V_i$  of -1 to +10 mV (Young et al. 1988). In this study the positive  $V_i$  of the *Oreochromis* membrane could indicate a diffusion potential that favours anion movement out to the mucosal FW bath (Table 2).

For *Oreochromis*, both  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  observed flux ratios were significantly greater than predicted by the Ussing flux ratio equation (Fig. 2A) and therefore  $Na^+$  along with  $Cl^-$  transport was active and in the uptake direction. To our knowledge, FW *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium is the only isolated epithelial preparation from a

teleost fish which exhibits *in vitro*, the non-diffusive transport of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ , as well as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from a dilute mucosal bathing medium (FW). Other *in vitro* studies have used a variety of isolated preparations in an attempt to elucidate the FW transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . The cleithrum skin of the rainbow trout actively transported only  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  while both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ions were passively distributed (Marshall et al. 1992). The FW killifish opercular epithelium displayed a passive movement of  $\text{Na}^+$  and active transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  when bathed with FW on the mucosal side (Marshall et al. 1997), an observation confirmed by the present study. Isolated skin from the 5% SW-adapted *Gillichthys mirabilis* demonstrated active transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  from serosa to mucosa (Marshall, 1977), rather similar to the 10% SW acclimated *Fundulus* preparations of the present study. Cultured branchial epithelia from rainbow trout exposed to apical freshwater were found to actively transport  $\text{Cl}^-$  against an electrochemical gradient but  $\text{Na}^+$  was again passively distributed (Wood et al. 1997).

#### Fluxes in symmetrical saline

The FW *Fundulus* opercular epithelium in symmetrical saline has a net uptake of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at relatively rapid rates ( $1\text{-}2\ \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) indicating the presence of active uptake mechanisms for both major ions (Marshall et al. 1997). However, once the FW *Oreochromis* epithelium was bathed in symmetrical saline the  $V_i$  was reduced to near zero, the  $I_{sc}$  was very small ( $\sim 1\ \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), and both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were passively distributed across the epithelium (Table 2). The isolated opercular membrane of a closely related species, the FW adapted *Oreochromis mossambicus*, had a small  $I_{sc}$  ( $\sim 1\ \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) and also did not actively transport  $\text{Cl}^-$  when bathed in symmetrical saline (Foskett et al. 1981).

Thus, whatever mechanism was operating when the preparation was bathed with FW on the mucosal surface is not detectable when mucosal saline increases shunt conductance and induces large unidirectional fluxes.

There were obvious differences in the electrical and transport parameters of the FW-adapted *Fundulus* and FW *Oreochromis* preparations. The *Fundulus* is a euryhaline, normally estuarine species that can readily adapt to a variety of salinities (Zadunaisky, 1984). Perhaps this species is not characteristic of a “true” FW teleost. The application of SITS, a drug which blocks anion exchange and anion channels had no effect on Cl<sup>-</sup> influx in the FW adapted *Fundulus* preparation (Marshall et al. 1997). Amiloride, a well known Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchange and Na<sup>+</sup> channel inhibitor, added to the mucosal FW, had no effect on Na<sup>+</sup> unidirectional influx. According to these drug experiments, the transport properties of this FW *in vitro* preparation does not behave as a standard FW teleost is thought to function (Wood 1991; Potts 1994; Lin and Randall 1995; Perry 1997).

#### Ca<sup>2+</sup> transport

The transport of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the isolated skin of the FW *Oreochromis* against an electrochemical gradient and in a net uptake direction (Table 2) was also shown to be a non-diffusive process (Fig. 2A). The uptake of Ca<sup>2+</sup> by this isolated FW skin confirms the viability of the preparation. The mean net flux of Ca<sup>2+</sup> (3.1 nmol·cm<sup>-2</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>) was markedly higher than the previously reported Ca<sup>2+</sup> mean net flux of 0.31 nmol·cm<sup>-2</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> for the same species (McCormick et al. 1992). Possible discrepancies between the two studies exist in the ionic compositions of the serosal and mucosal bathing solutions, thus rendering the Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration gradient opposing transport almost seven-times smaller

for the present study. Active transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the mucosal to serosal surface against electrochemical gradients has also been shown in the cleithrum skin of the rainbow trout (Marshall et al. 1992) and the opercular epithelium of the FW-adapted *Fundulus* (Marshall et al. 1995). However, the opercular epithelium of the *Fundulus* displayed a very high rate of net transport of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ( $29 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) relative to  $3.1 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  by the *Oreochromis* opercular epithelium of the present study. Of interest is the greater density of MR cells ( $\sim 2000 \text{ mm}^{-2}$ ) in the *Fundulus* preparation and the greater rate of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transport when compared to the smaller number of MR cells ( $\sim 50 \text{ mm}^{-2}$ ) and transport rate of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the *O. niloticus* preparation. MR cells have also been correlated to the rate of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx in isolated skin preparations of the *O. niloticus* (McCormick et al. 1992) and rainbow trout (Marshall et al. 1992).

Comparison of unidirectional  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux between the FW *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* epithelia indicated that the former had much larger  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx rates (by 10 and 4 fold respectively) (Tables 1 and 2). The *Fundulus* epithelium contained approximately 40-times more MR cells than the *Oreochromis* epithelium. Therefore, these results may suggest a quantitative relationship between MR cells and influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . MR cells have long been thought to be directly associated with the active uptake of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Avella et al. 1987; Laurent and Perry 1990). Conversely, it has also been suggested that these cells are not involved in such ion transport (Girard and Payan 1980).

Based on the proposal of Karnaky (1991), we hypothesized that during the dissection procedure, exposure to high levels of  $\text{NaCl}$  in the saline that came into contact with the apical side of the membrane might affect the ultrastructure of the membrane, and therefore *in vitro* it would not behave characteristically as a FW membrane. Therefore,

in one series freshwater was osmotically compensated with mannitol and then used instead of saline to bathe the *Oreochromis* preparation during the dissection and setup procedure. This modification did not significantly change  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx and efflux (Table 2), however observed ratios were not different from control observed ratios (Fig. 2 A/B). Future experiments may be more effective if it is possible to develop a dissection procedure in which FW would moisten only the mucosal surface and saline the serosal surface.

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**Table 1.** Unidirectional efflux ( $J^{sm}$ ) and influx ( $J^{ms}$ ) of  $Cl^-$  and  $Na^+$  in opercular epithelia of fresh water and 10% seawater adapted *Fundulus heteroclitus* ( $n = 6$ ) bathed on mucosal side with fresh water and 10% seawater respectively. Open circuit conditions, except as noted.

Bathing Solutions Serosa/Mucosa	$V_t$ (mV) <sup>a</sup>	$G_t$ (mS·cm <sup>-2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	Hour 1		Hour 2		Hour 3	
			$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$	$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$	$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$
<b>FW adapted <i>Fundulus</i></b>								
Saline/FW								
$Cl^-$	-43.9 ± 2.4	1.94 ± 0.34	1110 ± 256	125 ± 42.5	962 ± 265	116 ± 28.9	1082 ± 255	74 ± 21.8
$Na^+$			1217 ± 215	163 ± 47	1387 ± 286	121 ± 31	1504 ± 365	126 ± 31
<b>10% SW adapted <i>Fundulus</i></b>								
Saline/10% SW								
$Cl^-$	+3.3 ± 0.5	2.32 ± 0.43	1624 ± 427	664 * ± 153	1998 ± 407	879 * ± 214	7861* <sup>T</sup> ± 949	2880 * <sup>T</sup> ± 391
$Na^+$			1868 ± 405	1310 * ± 297	1404 ± 96	944 * ± 265	2810 * <sup>T</sup> ± 242	2784 * <sup>T</sup> ± 277

<sup>a</sup> Transepithelial potential (mucosal ground) corrected for junction potentials;  $n = 12$ .

<sup>b</sup> Tissue conductance corrected for solution resistance;  $n = 12$ .

<sup>T</sup> Preparation under saline/saline short-circuit conditions,  $V_t = 0$  mV.

\* Un-paired *t*-test, two-tailed. Comparison of mean flux values ( $J^{ms}$  and  $J^{sm}$ ) between the two preparations; \*,  $P < 0.05$ .

**Table 2.** Unidirectional efflux ( $J^{sm}$ ) and influx ( $J^{ms}$ ) of  $Cl^-$ ,  $Na^+$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  in opercular epithelia of fresh water *Oreochromis niloticus* (n = 6) bathed on mucosal side with fresh water. Open circuit conditions, except as noted.

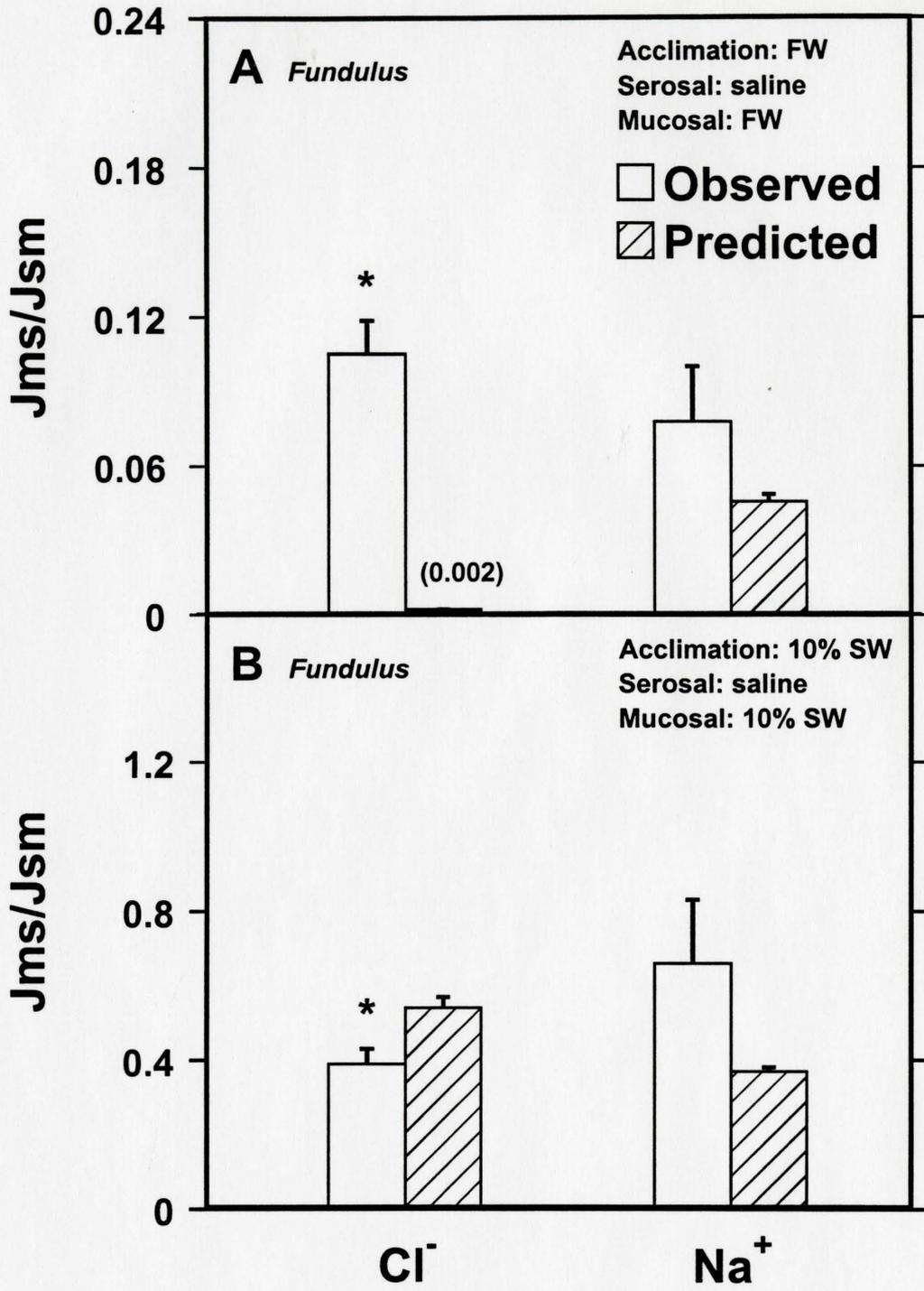
Bathing Solutions Serosa/Mucosa	$V_t$ (mV) <sup>a</sup>	$G_t$ (mS·cm <sup>-2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	Hour 1		Hour 2		Hour 3	
			$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$	$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$	$J^{sm}$	$J^{ms}$
<i>FW Oreochromis</i>								
Saline/FW								
$Cl^-$	+8.0 ± 0.6	1.78 ± 0.19	752 ± 122	30.4 ± 6.0	626 ± 158	23.5 ± 2.6	727 ± 147	27 ± 4.0
$Na^+$			520 ± 54	22.3 ± 2.6	552 ± 72	13.1 ± 4.0	587 ± 91	7.6 ± 3.0
$Ca^{2+}$			4.4 ± 0.6	7.1 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.6	7.6 ± 0.8	4.5 ± 0.8	8.4 ± 1.0
250mM Mannitol Dissection Media								
Saline/FW								
$Cl^-$	+7.9 ± 0.3	0.95 ± 0.33	1294 ± 313	48 ± 7	1230 ± 325	47 ± 12	1296 ± 197	39 ± 16
$Na^+$			798 ± 208	21 ± 7	960 ± 203	21 ± 4	887 ± 115	16 ± 4
Saline/Saline, short circuit conditions								
$Cl^-$	0 ± 0	14.48 ± 1.72	12047* ± 3162	11267* ± 1494	13801* ± 4849	8971* ± 1798	7281* ± 2137	8082* ± 2051
$Na^+$			9044* ± 1820	7413* ± 999	10607* ± 3316	6410* ± 1171	4720* ± 1675	5948* ± 1430

<sup>a</sup> Transepithelial potential (mucosal ground) corrected for junction potentials; n = 24.

<sup>b</sup> Tissue conductance corrected for solution resistance; n = 24.

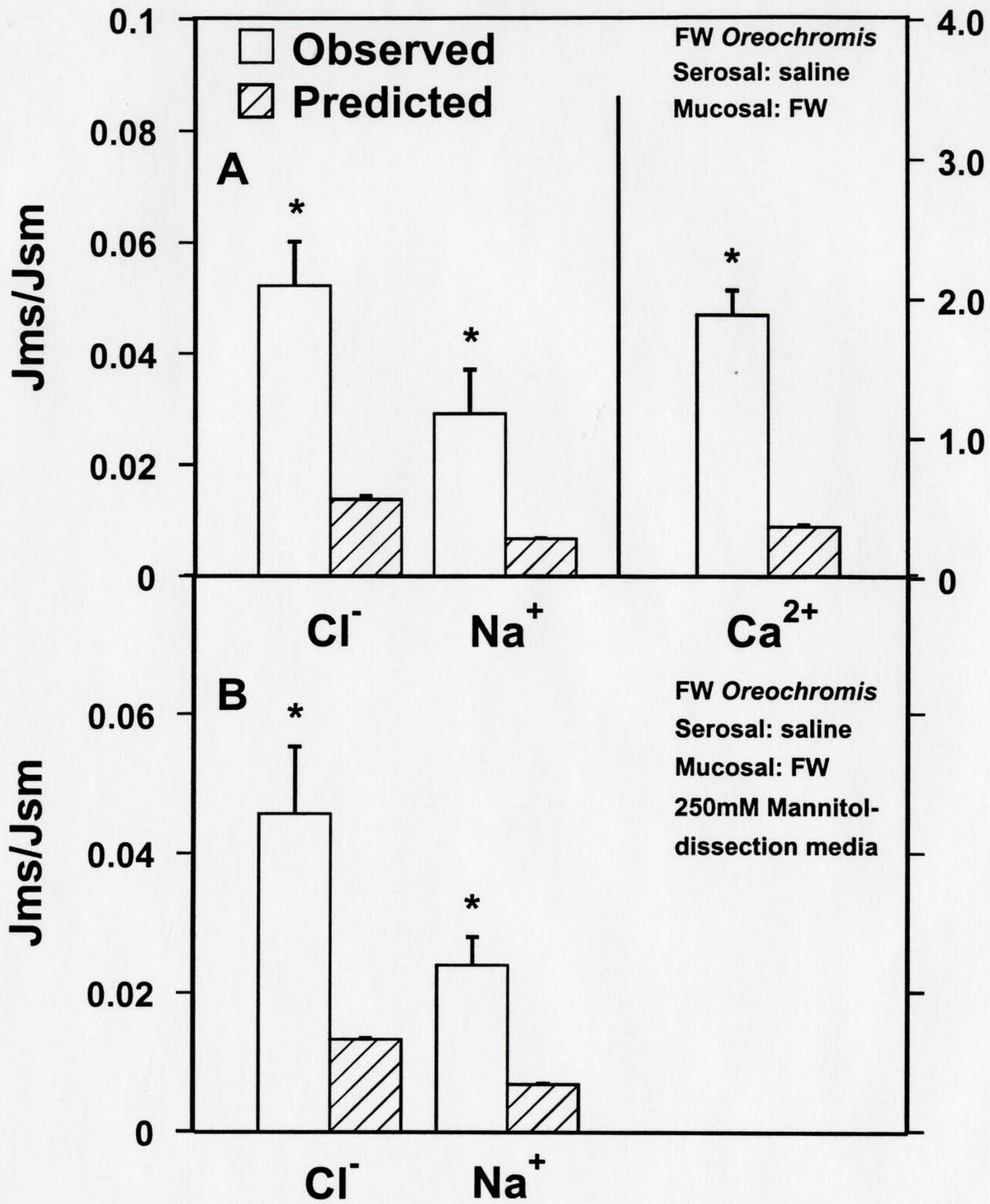
\* Un-paired *t*-test, two-tailed. Comparison of mean flux values relative to the control saline/FW preparation; \*, *P*<0.05.

**Figure 2.1.** (A). Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  in isolated opercular epithelium of FW acclimated *Fundulus heteroclitus* with FW in the mucosal bath (n = 6). Open bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ , hatched bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  based on the Ussing flux ratio equation. (B). Observed and predicted ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  for the 10% SW acclimated *Fundulus* opercular epithelium with 10% SW in the mucosal bath (n = 6). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired *t*-test, two-tailed) implying evidence for non-diffusive transport.



**Figure 2.2.** (A). Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in isolated opercular epithelium of FW *Oreochromis niloticus* (n = 6). Open bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , hatched bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  based on the Ussing flux ratio equation.

(B). Observed and predicted  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  flux ratios for the isolated opercular epithelium of *Oreochromis* using FW osmotically compensated with 250mM mannitol, instead of saline during the dissection (n = 6). Other methods the same as in (A). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired  $t$ -test, two-tailed) implying evidence for non-diffusive transport.



## Chapter 3

### Abstract

Freshwater (FW) rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) urinary bladders mounted *in vitro* under symmetrical saline conditions displayed electroneutral active absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the mucosal side; the short-circuit current was less than  $1\mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ . The removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the mucosal saline decreased  $\text{Cl}^-$  absorption by 56% and removal of  $\text{Cl}^-$  decreased  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption by 69%. However, active net absorption of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were not abolished when the counter-ion was replaced with an impermeant ion (choline or gluconate respectively). Under more realistic conditions with artificial urine ( $[\text{Na}^+] = 2.12\text{ mM}$ ,  $[\text{Cl}^-] = 3.51\text{ mM}$ ) bathing the mucosal surface, transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ ) increased to a serosal positive  $\sim +7.6\text{ mV}$ . Unidirectional influx rates of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were much lower but active absorption of both ions still occurred according to the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Replacement of  $\text{Na}^+$  with choline, or  $\text{Cl}^-$  with gluconate in the mucosal artificial urine yielded no change in unidirectional influx of the counter-ion. The mucosal addition of DIDS, amiloride or bumetanide ( $10^{-4}\text{ M}$ ) had no effect on either  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport, under either symmetrical saline or artificial urine/saline conditions. With the mucosal surface bathed in artificial urine, kinetics analyses indicated a decrease in maximum  $\text{Na}^+$  transport rate ( $J_{\text{max}}$ ) of 66% with no change in affinity ( $K_m$ ) in the low  $\text{Cl}^-$  mucosal solution relative to the control solution. Similarly, there was a 79% decrease in  $J_{\text{max}}$  values for  $\text{Cl}^-$ , again with no change in  $K_m$ , in the low- $\text{Na}^+$  mucosal bathing solution compared to the control solution. The anterior portion of the urinary bladder transported  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at a faster rate than posterior portions under symmetrical saline conditions, anterior portions also exhibited larger transepithelial conductance ( $G_t$ ) and

smaller  $V_i$  than posterior portions, but there was no difference in  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activities.  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  reabsorption is a partially coupled process in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss*, where both dependent and independent transport mechanisms occur.

## Introduction

The transport functions of the urinary bladder in freshwater teleosts have been studied extensively *in vitro*, particularly in the European rainbow trout (*Salmo irideus*, generally considered a strain of *Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Lahlou and Fossat, '71, '84; Fossat *et al.*, '74; Fossat and Lahlou, '77, '79a, b, '82), brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) (Marshall, '86, '88; Marshall and Bryson, '91), and North American rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*) (Hirano *et al.*, '73; Demarest and Machen, '82; Harvey and Lahlou, '86). The urinary bladder of a teleost fish is an enlargement of the paired mesonephric ducts which leave the kidney and unite to form the urinary bladder (Hickman and Trump, '69). It is a single-layered epithelium containing mitochondria-rich cells, microvilli and cilia surrounded by a contractile muscular wall (Lahlou and Fossat, '84). *In vivo* studies have shown that ureteral urine is modified during residence in the bladder, yielding a urine with lower  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations (Curtis and Wood, '91). Therefore, the urinary bladder functions as an accessory osmoregulatory organ to the kidney in the FW teleost, facilitating hyperosmotic regulation.

The mechanism of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the urinary bladder of *Salmo irideus* has been characterized as electroneutral co-transport (Fossat and Lahlou, '79a). Thus the removal of either ion from the mucosal side induced the disappearance of the net flux of the co-ion. This coupled  $\text{NaCl}$  transport is associated with an undetectable transepithelial potential difference ( $V_t$ ) and short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ). The urinary bladder is termed a 'leaky' epithelium due to its low transepithelial resistance  $R_t$  ( $\sim 200 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ ) and the paracellular pathway did not exhibit cation selective properties, in contrast to other low resistance epithelia (Fossat and Lahlou, '79b).

The brook trout urinary bladder also displays active mucosa to serosa absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  but the transport mechanism appears to be very different (Marshall, '86, '88). The uptake of  $\text{NaCl}$  was electroneutral, and  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport continued when  $\text{Cl}^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+$ -free solutions, respectively, were placed on the mucosal surface. There was also evidence of independent  $\text{Cl}^-$ - $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ - $\text{H}^+$  exchange mechanisms, and there was no response of  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  movement to the mucosal addition of the cotransporter antagonist bumetanide ( $\text{Na}^+$ - $\text{K}^+$ - $2\text{Cl}^-$  transport blocker). This "independent model" model appears very similar to that normally presented for the freshwater teleost gill (Wood, '91; Perry, '97).

Of interest is that two related salmonid species, albeit in different genera, demonstrated two very different methods of urinary bladder  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport. Marshall ('88) has speculated that discrepancies between work done on *Salvelinus fontinalis* and previous work done on the urinary bladder of *Salmo irideus* reflected different techniques, holding conditions or genetic variations among the fish.

By comparison among other transporting epithelia, there appears to be a variety of methods for  $\text{NaCl}$  uptake. The urinary bladders of the seawater (SW) adapted winter flounder (Renfro, '77) and the SW starry flounder (Demarest and Machen, '84) appear to have both coupled and independent uptake of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Other epithelial preparations such as the rabbit ileum (Nellans *et al.*, '73, '74) and rabbit gall-bladder (Frizzell *et al.*, '75) have shown a tight coupling of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport.

The aim of the present study was to establish the mechanism(s) of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the urinary bladder of the North American strain of freshwater rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). In particular, this *in vitro* study used an Ussing chamber

approach to examine  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport under a variety of conditions to determine whether the transport of these ions was coupled or independent. First, the urinary bladder was bathed in symmetrical saline, either with both ions present, or with one removed and then flux rates were measured using radiolabelled  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Secondly, artificial urine was used to more closely mimic the conditions found *in vivo* and similar experiments were performed as above. Thirdly, with saline or artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface, drugs known to affect  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in other dependent or independent transporting epithelia were applied. Finally, electrophysiological and kinetic transport properties of the epithelium were determined. Our results suggest that  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  transport in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss* is a partially coupled process, where both dependent and independent uptake processes occur.

## Materials and Methods

### Animals

Adult rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*; 300-750 g) were obtained from Humber Springs Hatchery (Orangeville, ON). The fish were maintained in a 500-l tank, supplied with dechlorinated, aerated Hamilton tap water at a flow rate of  $900 \text{ ml} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$  and with an average composition (in  $\text{mmol l}^{-1}$ ) of  $\text{Na}^+$ , 0.6;  $\text{Cl}^-$ , 0.7;  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , 1.05; pH 7.5-8.0. Light was maintained at seasonal photoperiod fluctuations and water temperature varied according to ambient temperature during September to May (5-14°C). The fish were fed commercial trout pellets (Zeigler, Hazelton, PA) at a rate of 1% of their body mass per day.

## Bathing solutions

All salts were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO. The Ringer's solution used for dissection and for the basolateral bathing solution was a modified Cortland saline and composed of (in mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) NaCl, 129.9; KCl, 2.55; CaCl<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 1.56; MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.93; NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 13.00; NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 2.97; glucose, 5.55; NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 0.30. The saline was equilibrated with a 0.3% CO<sub>2</sub>, balance O<sub>2</sub>, gas mixture and had a measured pH of 7.8-7.9. Phosphate-free and potassium-free saline used for the Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase assay was composed of (in mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) NaCl, 129.1; MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.9; CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.4; NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 11.9.

In open-circuit experiments using asymmetrical bathing solutions, the artificial urine solution for the mucosal surface of the membrane was formulated from the results of "spot-sampling" of urine from the bladder of undisturbed, non-cannulated rainbow trout, as reported by Curtis and Wood (1991). This artificial urine was composed of (in mmol l<sup>-1</sup>) KCl, 0.81; CaCl<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 1.35; MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.79; NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 1.66; NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.46; urea, 0.55; Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·4H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.045; (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 0.235. The Ringers and artificial urine solutions were each modified for ion replacement experiments. In the Cl<sup>-</sup>-free Ringers, sodium, potassium and calcium gluconate (NaC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>11</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, KC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>11</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, ½CaC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>11</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, respectively) and (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> were substituted for NaCl, KCl, CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O and NH<sub>4</sub>Cl respectively. The Na<sup>+</sup>-free Ringers had choline chloride (C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>14</sub>NOCl), choline bicarbonate (C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>14</sub>NOHCO<sub>3</sub>), and KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> substituted for NaCl, NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O respectively. In Cl<sup>-</sup>-free artificial urine KCl and CaCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O were replaced with KC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>11</sub>O<sub>7</sub> and ½CaC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>11</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, respectively. In Na<sup>+</sup>-free artificial urine,

$\text{NaHCO}_3$  and  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  were replaced with  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{14}\text{NOHCO}_3$  and  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  respectively.

For the kinetic experiments, in the initial mucosal “urine”,  $\text{Cl}^-$  was adjusted to equal 2.16 mM and  $\text{Na}^+$  was set initially to 2.12 mM, so that  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  concentrations were roughly equal. The artificial urine’s  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentrations were then manipulated to the approximate concentrations of 5, 10, 50, and 150 mM by addition of  $\text{NaCl}$ ,  $\text{NaC}_6\text{H}_{11}\text{O}_7$ , or  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{14}\text{NOCl}$  as appropriate.

The artificial urine solution was equilibrated with a 0.3%  $\text{CO}_2$ , balance  $\text{O}_2$ , gas mixture and had a measured pH of 7.2-7.5. Prior to the start of the experiment and at the end of each 60 minute flux period (see below) except in the kinetic experiment, the mucosal solution was rinsed extensively to maintain the original ion composition of the artificial urine ( $\text{Na}^+ = 2.12$ ,  $\text{Cl}^- = 3.51$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+} = 1.4 \text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ).

#### Isolated urinary bladder preparation

The fish were anaesthetized using 0.1 g/l MS-222 and a flanged PE-tubing was inserted into the bladder and tied to the urinary papilla. The bladder was filled with Ringer’s to aid in differentiation of its structure from the peritoneum during dissection. Both ureters just anterior to the urinary bladder were ligated with surgical thread and the urinary bladder was separated from surrounding tissues. Following careful removal of remaining fat and connective tissue, the bladder was cut into equal anterior and posterior portions and then both portions were opened by a longitudinal cut. Each portion of the bladder yielded an approximate area of 1-2  $\text{cm}^2$ . Throughout the dissection, the preparation was kept moist by the addition of saline.

The Ussing membrane apertures ( $0.125 \text{ cm}^2$ ) were prepared with stopcock grease (Dow Corning, Midland, MI) and a thin vinyl mesh was placed over each aperture to support the tissue. Each portion of urinary bladder was stretched gently (to remove macroscopic folds) and carefully pinned down to the aperture mucosal side up and the second half of the aperture then sandwiched the epithelium. After mounting, the mucosal surfaces were thoroughly rinsed with the appropriate solution to remove the saline and any mucus that had accumulated during the dissection. The aperture sandwich was then placed between the two hemi-chambers and tightened into place. The hemi-chambers were filled with the appropriate solutions: Ringers or artificial urine or ion replacement solution for the mucosal side, and saline for the serosal side. Each hemi-chamber was filled at an equal rate to ensure there was no 'bagging' of the epithelium. The membranes were then given a 30 min. period to adjust to the *in vitro* conditions. Appropriate gasses were passed across the surface of each hemi-chamber's media and the mucosal and serosal solutions were mixed by magnetic stirrers.

### Electrophysiology

Polyethylene 4% agar/Ringer bridges were used to measure transepithelial potential ( $V_p$ , mucosal side grounded) and membrane conductance ( $G$ ). Each bridge was connected to the voltage/current clamp (DVC-1000, WP Instruments, New Haven, CT) by Hg/HgCl calomel half-cells. Membrane conductance was corrected for solution resistances. In asymmetrical solutions, corrections for liquid junction potentials were accomplished by measurements against a free flowing 3 M KCl half-cell. Ussing chambers were water jacketed to  $15^\circ\text{C}$ . In flux experiments with saline bathing the

mucosal surface, the preparation was short-circuited to negate any effect of  $V_t$  on ion transport.  $G_t$  was determined by clamping the membrane to a set voltage every 10 min. and  $V_t$  was recorded at the beginning and end of each 60 min. short-circuited flux period.

### Experimental protocol

One chamber was set up for each portion of the urinary bladder for independent measurements of either influx or efflux. Therefore either the anterior or posterior portion yielded a mucosal to serosal unidirectional influx ( $J^{ms}$ ) measurement while the other portion yielded the serosal to mucosal unidirectional efflux ( $J^{sm}$ ) measurement. These were alternated to obtain equal numbers of both approaches within each treatment group. For data analyses, posterior and anterior portions of the membranes were matched according to  $G_t$ . After the initial 30 min. adjustment period, the mucosal hemi-chamber volume was gently rinsed again with the appropriate solution (20 times the chamber volume) and isotope was added to the appropriate side.

Dual flux experiments were performed with  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  ( $\text{Na}^{36}\text{Cl}$  from I.C.N. Radiochemicals, Irvine, California) and  $^{22}\text{Na}$  ( $^{22}\text{NaCl}$  from NEN-Dupont, Boston, MA) which were added to either the mucosal side (final specific activity of 300 000 CPM  $\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , artificial urine) for unidirectional influx or serosal side (8 000 CPM  $\mu\text{mol}^{-1}$ , Ringer) to monitor unidirectional efflux. Upon first addition of the radioisotope(s), a 45 min equilibration period was employed. Each experiment consisted of three 60 min. periods; within each period samples were taken from the unlabelled bath every 20 min. for radioactivity analyses. Flux values for each 20 min. period were averaged to produce a final flux rate for each 60 min. experimental period. At the start and end of each

period, samples were taken from the labeled side to determine the specific activity and ionic concentrations and the solutions were replaced at the end of each period.

Unidirectional fluxes were determined by measuring the specific activity on the labelled side and the appearance of isotope on the unlabelled side.

A total of five periods were performed for each kinetic flux experiment. Each period represented a different mucosal artificial urine concentration of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  at approximately 2, 5, 10, 50 or 150 mM. Appropriate isotope was added and followed by a 30 min. equilibration period prior to the beginning of each 40 min. flux period. At the end of each flux period, both the serosal and mucosal sides were emptied from each hemi-chamber, and new solutions were added to each side, using an increasing mucosal concentration of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  throughout the kinetic flux experiment.

For each drug experiment, an initial 60 min. control period was employed (DMSO alone added at the same concentration as in the drug period). The chambers were then emptied, new isotope along with the drug/DMSO solution was added, and allowed to equilibrate for at least 45 min.. The drug experimental flux period was 60 min. in duration and was followed by a second 60 min. control period (DMSO alone again present). Prior to the final control period, the chambers were emptied, the membrane was removed, and the hemi-chambers were flushed extensively with distilled  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , the membrane was then replaced, and new solutions with isotope were added and equilibrated for 45 min..

The observed flux ratio ( $J^{\text{ms}}/J^{\text{sm}}$ ) was compared to the predicted flux ratio using the Ussing flux ratio equation (Ussing, '49). Disagreement between the observed and

predicted value indicated the presence of non-diffusive transport. The predicted flux ratio equation was as follows:

$$J_i^{ms}/J_i^{sm} = (a_i^m/a_i^s)e^{(z_i F V_t/RT)}$$

The activities of ion  $i$  are  $a_i^s$  and  $a_i^m$  on the serosal and mucosal sides respectively; valency of the ion is  $z_i$ ,  $V_t$  is the transepithelial potential and  $F$ ,  $R$  and  $T$  have their usual thermodynamic meanings. The ionic activity of  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $109.5 \text{ mmol l}^{-1}$ ) in Cortland's saline was taken from measurements with microelectrodes filled with the appropriate ionophore (Steiner et al. 1979), while  $\text{Cl}^-$  was predicted to have the same relative activity (on a % basis) as  $\text{Na}^+$  from theory for a solution of this ionic strength (Lee, 1981). The activities of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were unaffected in the presence of  $20 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$  of bovine serum albumin. The activities of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in artificial urine were taken as equal to their measured concentrations.

#### $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase measurements

$\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activity was determined by the assay of Holliday ('85). The urinary bladder was removed from the trout (as above) using  $\text{PO}_4^-$ -free and  $\text{K}^+$ -free saline. After the bladder was cut into equal posterior and anterior portions and medial cuts were performed on each portion, surface area was measured. Membranes were cut into small pieces and stored in homogenizing medium at  $-70^\circ\text{C}$  overnight. The homogenizing medium contained sucrose  $0.25\text{M}$  and EDTA  $6 \text{ mM}$ . The individual membranes were homogenized by a tissue grinder using a teflon pestle. Total homogenate protein was assayed by adding  $40 \mu\text{l}$  of sample to  $2 \text{ ml}$  of Bradford reagent (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). Following vortexing and  $20 \text{ min}$  at room temperature, the samples were read on an

Ultraspec Plus spectrophotometer (model 4054, LKB Biochrom, Cambridge, England) at 595nm. Separate, equal amounts of homogenate were mixed with  $K^+$  assay media (NaCl 167 mM; KCl 50 mM; imidazole 33.3 mM; pH to 7.2 with 1M HCl) and with  $K^+$  free assay media (NaCl 217 mM; imidazole 33.3 mM; ouabain 1.67 mM; pH to 7.2 with 1M HCl). Each sample was then vortexed and incubated in a 30°C waterbath for 10 min. The reaction was then initiated by addition of 'start' solution ( $Na_2ATP$  25mM;  $MgCl_2 \cdot 7H_2O$  50 mM; pH to 7.2 by crystalline imidazole). Samples were then vortexed and returned to the water bath for 30 min., and then the assay was terminated by the addition of Bonting's stop colour reagent (560 mM  $H_2SO_4$ ; 8.1 mM ammonium molybdate; 176 mM  $FeSO_4$ ). All samples and standards were vortexed and allowed to stand for 15 min. before being read at 700 nm on the Ultraspec.

### Pharmaceuticals

DIDS (4,4 diiso thiocyanato-stilbene-2,2 disulfonic acid) was dissolved in dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO,  $20 \mu l \cdot mg^{-1}$ ) and added to the mucosal side at a final concentration of  $10^{-4}$  M. Amiloride ( $10^{-4}$  M) and bumetanide ( $10^{-4}$  M) were dissolved using the same protocol as DIDS (all drugs from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO). The resulting DMSO concentration in each drug experiment was adjusted to maintain a concentration of no greater than 0.1 %. The same DMSO concentration was added to the mucosal side in both control periods prior to and following the addition of the drug.

## Analytical techniques

Saline Cl<sup>-</sup> concentrations were measured by coulometric titration (model CMT10, Radiometer, Copenhagen) and artificial urine Cl<sup>-</sup> concentrations were determined by colorimetric assay (Zall *et al.*, '56). Na<sup>+</sup> concentrations in both media were analyzed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (model AA-1275, Varian, Springvale, Australia). Ammonia was determined by a micro-modification of the colorimetric assay of Verdouw *et al.* ('78). Net titratable acid flux was determined by removing 3 mls from each mucosal hemi-chamber at the beginning and end of each flux period, equilibrating with air for 30 min., then titrating down through a pH of 4, using a burette filled with 0.02 N HCl. Net titratable acid flux was calculated by subtracting the final titration value ( $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) from the initial titration value and taking into account aperture area and flux duration. A negative flux value represented movement of acid from serosa to mucosa.

Samples of 40 $\mu\text{l}$  from the labelled side and 250 $\mu\text{l}$  from the unlabelled side of the Ussing chamber were added to 4.0 ml of Readysafe fluor (Beckman, Fullerton, CA). Radioactivities of <sup>36</sup>Cl were determined by counting on a Rackbeta 1217 liquid scintillation counter (LKB, Wallac, Turku, Finland), and <sup>22</sup>Na radioactivity was counted on Minaxi Autogamma 5000 counter (Packard Instrument Co., Downers Grove, IL). <sup>22</sup>Na emits both gamma and beta radiation, therefore scintillation counts collected from a <sup>22</sup>Na and <sup>36</sup>Cl dual flux experiment were from both <sup>22</sup>Na and <sup>36</sup>Cl. <sup>36</sup>Cl counts were determined by a count subtraction procedure. This was accomplished by measuring the CPM of a known concentration of <sup>22</sup>Na in both the scintillation and gamma counters and then determining the relative efficiency of the two counters for detecting <sup>22</sup>Na. The CPM

from the gamma counter was then multiplied by this ratio and subtracted from the CPM of the scintillation counter to yield the beta emission of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  only.

Data are presented as means  $\pm$  1 standard error unless indicated otherwise.

Comparisons within and between treatments were analyzed by paired or un-paired *t*-tests (two-tailed), as appropriate, at  $P < 0.05$ . Regressions were performed by the method of least squares, and correlation evaluated by Pearson's linear correlation coefficient.

Kinetic values of  $J_{\max}$  and  $K_m$  were determined by Eadie-Hofstee plots, and kinetic plots were generated according to the Michaelis-Menten relationship:

$$J_o = J_{\max}[\text{ion}] / K_m + [\text{ion}].$$

Initial flux rate is designated as  $J_o$ , and  $J_{\max}$  represents the maximum flux rate of an enzymatic reaction when the binding site is saturated with the ion.  $K_m$  is the substrate concentration at which  $J_o$  is half-maximal (affinity) and  $[\text{ion}]$  is the ion concentration at the beginning of the flux.

## Results

### Bladder bathed with mucosal saline

The isolated urinary bladder bathed in symmetrical saline and open-circuited, had a serosa-positive  $V_t$  of  $0.10 \pm 0.04$  mV and a  $G_t$  of  $9.15 \pm 1.50$  mS $\cdot$ cm $^{-2}$ ; the short-circuit current ( $I_{sc}$ ) of the preparation was  $< 1$   $\mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ . Under these symmetrical saline conditions the urinary bladder transported  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in a net uptake direction (Fig. 1). Both unidirectional flux values and net flux values (all periods) for  $\text{Na}^+$  were less than those for  $\text{Cl}^-$  (paired *t*-test,  $P < 0.05$ ). Comparison of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  observed flux ratios

with their respective predicted flux ratios indicated that both these ions were transported non-diffusively (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 1).

Upon removal of  $\text{Na}^+$  from the saline in the mucosal bath and replacement with choline, the  $V_t$  increased to  $0.7 \pm 0.2$  mV ( $P < 0.05$ ) and  $G_t$  decreased to  $2.26 \pm 0.33$   $\text{mS} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$  ( $P < 0.05$ ). For both control and experimental treatments, the net transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  was in the uptake direction for all three periods, and net movement of  $\text{Cl}^-$  was not different between the two treatments (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 2). However unidirectional influx ( $P < 0.05$ ) of  $\text{Cl}^-$  decreased in the  $\text{Na}^+$  free mucosal saline treatment by about 56%; the accompanying decrease in efflux was not significant. The observed flux ratios were different from their predicted ratios (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ), indicating that active transport of  $\text{Cl}^-$  still occurred in the absence of  $\text{Na}^+$ . The observed  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratios measured under  $\text{Na}^+$  free conditions in the mucosal bath were not statistically different from those in the control treatments (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Replacement of  $\text{Cl}^-$  with gluconate in the mucosal saline increased  $V_t$  to  $11.6 \pm 0.2$  mV and  $G_t$  decreased to  $3.26 \pm 0.4$   $\text{mS} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) from their respective control values (see above). Net flux rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  were still in the positive uptake direction but were smaller (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ; 2 of 3 periods) in the  $\text{Cl}^-$  free treatment group compared to control values (Fig. 3). The influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  was also significantly lower (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) than control value by about 69% in all three periods of the  $\text{Cl}^-$  free treatment; the accompanying decrease in efflux was not significant (Fig. 3.) The observed flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  in the  $\text{Cl}^-$  free solution remained different from the predicted ratios (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) as in the control observed ratios, suggesting active transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  was still occurring. For each of the one hour flux periods, the  $\text{Na}^+$  flux ratios in the  $\text{Cl}^-$  free

solution were not significantly different from those in the control treatment (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

The addition of either DIDS ( $10^{-4}$  M) or amiloride ( $10^{-4}$  M) or bumetanide ( $10^{-4}$  M) to the mucosal saline had no effect on  $\text{Cl}^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+$  observed flux ratios or unidirectional flux of either ion (Table 1). There were no effects on  $V_t$  or  $G_t$  with any of the drug treatments.

#### Bladder bathed with mucosal artificial urine

When the isolated urinary bladder was bathed on the mucosal side with artificial urine, the  $V_t$  increased to  $7.6 \pm 0.4$  mV and the  $G_t$  decreased to  $1.47 \pm 0.1$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , both significant relative to the saline/saline condition (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ). Net fluxes of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  were in the negative serosal to mucosal direction. Unidirectional influx rates of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  were  $0.72 \pm 0.12$  and  $0.37 \pm 0.06$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  respectively and net flux rates were  $-1.29 \pm 0.21$  and  $-0.80 \pm 0.13$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively. This may be compared to the much larger unidirectional influx rates of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  in symmetrical saline ( $10.6 \pm 1.0$  and  $8.0 \pm 0.9$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  respectively) and net flux rates ( $6.1 \pm 0.6$  and  $5.0 \pm 0.6$   $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  respectively).

With artificial urine on the mucosal surface, the net  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux rates were similar to net  $\text{Na}^+$  flux rates except in hour 1 (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 4).  $\text{Cl}^-$  unidirectional influx was larger than  $\text{Na}^+$  influx (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) in two of the three hours and  $\text{Cl}^-$  unidirectional efflux was greater than  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux in all periods ( $P < 0.05$ ). Of interest was the noticeable increase in the observed  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratio over time; the observed  $\text{Na}^+$  flux ratio did not display any trend over time. The  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  observed flux ratios were

significantly different (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) from each of their respective predicted flux ratios suggesting non-diffusive uptake of both ions.

With  $\text{Na}^+$  free artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface,  $V_t$  ( $9.7 \pm 0.4$  mV) and  $G_t$  ( $1.1 \pm 0.1$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) were not different from control (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Unidirectional influx and efflux of  $\text{Cl}^-$  were also the same in both treatments (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ). The movement of  $\text{Cl}^-$  was still in the net extrusion direction, and there was no difference between the net flux rates in the two treatments (Fig. 5). In all three periods, control observed  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratios in the  $\text{Na}^+$  free treatment were not significantly different (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ) from the observed ratios in the control treatment.  $\text{Cl}^-$  observed flux ratios were different from their respective predicted values for each bathing solution (paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) indicating non-diffusive transport was maintained. Again observed  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux ratios increased markedly over time.

When gluconate was substituted for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the mucosal artificial urine solution,  $V_t$  decreased to  $3.3 \pm 0.4$  mV and  $G_t$  increased to  $3.0 \pm 0.2$   $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  respectively (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ). The unidirectional and net flux rates of  $\text{Na}^+$  were similar for both treatments (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 6). The observed ratios for the control and mucosal  $\text{Cl}^-$  free solution were very similar (unpaired t-test,  $P > 0.05$ ), indicating there was no change in the non-diffusive transport of  $\text{Na}^+$ .

Table 2 compares “cold”  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  net fluxes (measured chemically) and “hot” net fluxes (as calculated from the difference between unidirectional influx and efflux rates measured with  $^{22}\text{Na}$  or  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ ) when the urinary bladder was bathed with control, or  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free or  $\text{Na}^+$ -free artificial urine. In each of the comparisons between  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ , “hot” and “cold” net flux measurements, the “hot” net fluxes were substantially smaller than the

measured “cold” fluxes, but because of considerable variability, only a few of the differences were significant. Under the three different mucosal bathing conditions, the “hot” net fluxes generally decreased (not significantly) over time. For each of the three experimental conditions, the “cold” fluxes of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  did not appear to display any trend over time. There was a significant difference (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) between “hot” and “cold” net fluxes of  $\text{Cl}^-$  only in the hour 3 when the bladder was bathed in  $\text{Na}^+$  free artificial urine and under the control conditions. “Cold” net fluxes of  $\text{Na}^+$  were significantly different (2 of 3 periods) from “hot” net fluxes under  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free artificial urine conditions and in hour 3 of the control condition (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ).

The addition of either DIDS ( $10^{-4}$  M) or amiloride ( $10^{-4}$  M) or bumetanide ( $10^{-4}$  M) to the mucosal artificial urine had no effect on  $\text{Cl}^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+$  observed flux ratios or unidirectional flux of either ion (Table 3). There were no effects on  $V_t$  or  $G_t$  with any of the drug treatments.

The effects on  $\text{Na}^+$  influx rate (ie “ $\text{Na}^+$  kinetics”) of increasing the  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration in the artificial urine (control) and low  $\text{Cl}^-$  artificial urine solutions bathing the mucosal surface are shown in Fig. 7. Analysis of the kinetic curves by Eadie-Hofstee plots indicated  $J_{\text{max}}$  and  $K_m$  under control conditions were  $6.1 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  and  $34 \pm 20$  mM respectively. The solution low in  $\text{Cl}^-$  decreased (un-paired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ) the  $J_{\text{max}}$  ( $2.1 \pm 0.56 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) of the  $\text{Na}^+$  influx but did not change  $K_m$  ( $27 \pm 12$  mM) ( $P > 0.05$ ). Comparison of  $\text{Na}^+$  influx rates between the two mucosal solutions demonstrated significant differences in the 40-50 and 110-150 mM range (unpaired t-test,  $P < 0.05$ ). Unidirectional influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  decreased 80% and net uptake was abolished (not

shown) in the 110-150 mM range when the solution low in Cl<sup>-</sup> bathed the mucosal surface.

Figure 8 represents the effect of increasing the Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration (ie “Cl<sup>-</sup> kinetics”) in the artificial urine and low Na<sup>+</sup> mucosal solutions on Cl<sup>-</sup> influx rate. The control and low Na<sup>+</sup> curves had different (unpaired t-test, P<0.05) J<sub>max</sub> values of 11.4 ± 5.1 and 2.4 ± 0.16 μmol·cm<sup>-2</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> and similar (P>0.05) K<sub>m</sub> values of 37 ± 26 and 16 ± 2 mM respectively. Control Cl<sup>-</sup> influx rates were significantly greater than those in the low Na<sup>+</sup> treatment at mucosal Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration ranges of 5-10, 40-50 and 110-150 mM (unpaired t-test, P<0.05). In the range of 110-150 mM of Cl<sup>-</sup> in the mucosal low Na<sup>+</sup> artificial urine solution, unidirectional influx of Cl<sup>-</sup> decreased 85% from control values and the net uptake of Cl<sup>-</sup> was abolished (not shown). There were no significant differences between the K<sub>m</sub> and J<sub>max</sub> values of the Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> control curves.

The mean V<sub>i</sub> decreased for the control “kinetic” fluxes as the Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> concentrations in the mucosal bath increased (Table 4). The V<sub>i</sub> for the low Na<sup>+</sup> mucosal solution in the 40-50 and 110-150 mM ranges were significantly different from their respective control values. The low Cl<sup>-</sup> mucosal artificial urine displayed an increase in V<sub>i</sub> when the Na<sup>+</sup> concentration was increased. The V<sub>i</sub> of the low Cl<sup>-</sup> treatment in the 0-5, 40-50 and 110-150 ranges were different from their respective control values. The mean G<sub>i</sub> increased for each different mucosal treatment (Table 4), most noticeably in the control treatments (12-fold increase), and values in the range 110-150 mM were different from that in the 0-5 mM range (unpaired t-test, P<0.05). By increasing the Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> concentrations in the low Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> solutions respectively, the G<sub>i</sub> increased approximately 2-fold each in the 110-150 mM range (unpaired t-test, P<0.05).

When the bladder was bathed in symmetrical saline, there was a significant correlation between the efflux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $G_t$  ( $P < 0.001$  and  $0.0001$  respectively; Fig. 9). Under the same bathing conditions there was also a significant relationship between  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  unidirectional influx and  $G_t$  ( $P < 0.0001$  and  $0.0001$  respectively). Upon exposure to the more dilute artificial urine as the mucosal bathing media, the overall rate of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  efflux decreased, but there was still a linear correlation with  $G_t$  ( $P < 0.05$  and  $0.01$  respectively, Fig. 10). However, under these conditions there was no relationship between  $G_t$  and the influx of  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$ .

There was no significant difference at open-circuit in  $V_t$  or  $G_t$  between anterior and posterior portions of the bladder when bathed on the mucosal surface with artificial urine (Fig. 11). However, when the bladder was bathed in symmetrical saline, the anterior portion had a smaller  $V_t$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) and larger  $G_t$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) than the posterior portion.

With artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface of the bladder,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  unidirectional and net fluxes were similar in the anterior and posterior portions of the bladder (Fig. 12). When the bladder was bathed under symmetrical saline, both anterior unidirectional influx and net fluxes for  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $P > 0.05$ ) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) were greater than the posterior fluxes.

The  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activities in the anterior and posterior portions of the bladder were not statistically different. The posterior portions had a mean activity of  $0.15 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  or  $1.21 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{M}\cdot\mu\text{g protein}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  and the anterior portion mean activity was  $0.09 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{M}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  or  $0.68 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{M}\cdot\mu\text{g protein}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ .

With artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface of the urinary bladder, net  $\text{NH}_4^+$  flux was  $0.56 \pm 0.87 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  in the uptake direction from urine to saline. Net titratable acid flux was  $0.91 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  also in the urine to saline direction. When  $\text{Cl}^-$  or  $\text{Na}^+$  free artificial urine bathed the mucosal side, net  $\text{NH}_4^+$  flux was  $-0.60 \pm 0.2$  and  $-0.22 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  respectively (serosa to mucosa) and net titratable acid flux was  $0.22 \pm 0.3$  and  $-1.96 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  (mucosa to serosa and serosa to mucosa) respectively. None of the above net acid or net  $\text{NH}_4^+$  fluxes were significantly different from zero ( $P>0.05$ ).

## Discussion

### Urinary bladder $\text{Na}^+$ and $\text{Cl}^-$ transport

The negligible transepithelial potential ( $\sim 0.1$  mV) and apparent active absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Fig. 1) suggests an electrically neutral transport mechanism for these ions in the rainbow trout urinary bladder. Electro-neutral transport is a well documented characteristic of many fish transporting epithelia such as the flounder intestine (Field et al., '78), sculpin intestine (House and Green, '65), marine eel intestine (Skadhauge, 1974), SW-adapted (Renfro, '77) and FW-adapted flounder urinary bladder (Demarest, 1984), and the urinary bladder of the European strain of rainbow trout (Lahlou and Fossat, '71).

Replacement of either  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the mucosal saline significantly decreased influx of the counter-ion by 56 and 69% respectively (Figs. 2 and 3). The absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  appeared saturable at high mucosal concentrations of substrate. However upon removal of the counter-ion from the mucosal bath, absorption rates of both  $\text{Na}^+$  and

Cl<sup>-</sup> were greatly inhibited (Figs. 7 and 8). These results suggest that a Na<sup>+</sup>-Cl<sup>-</sup>-dependent carrier mediated uptake mechanism is present in the FW *O. mykiss* urinary bladder.

Previous studies using the urinary bladder of the closely related *S. irideus* by Fossat and Lahlou ('77, '79a, b, '82) report a tight coupling of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> transport from mucosa to serosa, whereby the removal of one ion completely abolished the net transport of the counter-ion. Noteworthy however, is that in the present study, net active absorption of both ions, albeit reduced, persisted upon the removal of the counter-ion (Figs. 2, 3).

Therefore, the luminal absorption of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in the FW trout urinary bladder may only be a partially coupled process. These observations are in agreement with studies performed on urinary bladders of FW (Demarest, '84) and SW-adapted flounder (Renfro, '77), both of which display a partial coupling (60 and 75% respectively) of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> transport. In the present study, the mucosal bath in each of the ion replacement experiments contained a small concentration of the "removed" ion (eg. 3 mM) due to either a "rinse-off" effect of the epithelium or passive unidirectional efflux that appeared to increase throughout the experimental period (data not shown). Therefore, the 56 and 69% decrease in influx of Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> respectively (as mentioned above) would most likely be greater if their respective counter-ions were completely absent from the mucosal bath, assuming that a coupled transport mechanism is actually present. Further evidence for a coupled transport system in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss* was observed when net transport of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> was abolished upon the removal of the counter-ion at higher levels (150 mM) of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> in the mucosal artificial urine.

Under more realistic conditions representative of those occurring in the animal *in vivo*, with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface, the active absorption of Na<sup>+</sup> and

Cl<sup>-</sup> continued (Fig. 4). However, unlike results reported under symmetrical saline conditions, there was no effect on the rate of transport of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> upon the removal of the counter-ion (Figs. 5 and 6). It is possible (as mentioned above) that a “rinse-off” effect also occurred in these experiments, such that the removal of Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> in the mucosal solutions was not complete. These data suggest that at lower mucosal concentrations of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>, coupled transport did not occur. These results are more consistent with data reported by Marshall ('86) which indicated active independent transport of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in the urinary bladder of brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*). However unlike results from the present study, in Marshall's ('86) study, the removal of either Na<sup>+</sup> or Cl<sup>-</sup> at higher levels of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> did not affect the absorption rate of the respective counter-ion. Furthermore, analyses of net acid and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> fluxes in the present study argue against acid-base linkage of an independent transport mechanism.

Under these “more realistic” conditions, bladder epithelia were also in negative balance (net loss of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>) (Fig. 4, Table 2) thus indicating the bladder was most likely not behaving as *in vivo* (Curtis and Wood, '91, '92). Therefore, optimal net absorption of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> *in vivo*, may occur only at higher accumulated levels of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> within the bladder (Fig. 1, 7 and 8). The bladder may be “poised” kinetically to transport at the concentrations of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> present in ureteral urine (see Curtis and Wood, '91, '92 for typical concentrations) and not for the concentrations in the final “polished” urine which we supplied.

## Electrophysiology

The mucosal  $\text{Na}^+$ -free saline treatment changed  $V_t$  slightly ( $\sim 0.7$  mV, mucosal ground) from the control value ( $\sim 0.1$  mV) in contrast to the large observed change in  $V_t$  ( $\sim 11.6$  mV) when bladder epithelia were bathed with  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free saline. It is apparent then, that under symmetrical saline conditions, the epithelia's electroneutral  $V_t$  is a diffusion potential generated mostly by a passive mucosa to serosa movement of  $\text{Cl}^-$ . With artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface, a marked change in  $V_t$  to more negative values ( $\sim 7.6$  mV) was observed, which most probably represented greater permeability of the membrane for  $\text{Cl}^-$  (as seen in symmetrical saline fluxes, Fig. 1) or an anion-selective paracellular leak pathway. With low mucosal  $\text{Na}^+$  artificial urine bathing the membrane, observed  $V_t$  was not statistically different from control, however low  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the artificial urine changed  $V_t$  to  $\sim 2$  mV (approximately 75% decrease). Thus, as in the saline/saline preparations, asymmetrical  $V_t$  appeared to be dependent on the mucosal concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Table 4). Under asymmetrical solutions  $G_t$  ranged between 1 and 4  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  for all mucosal solutions; when mucosal  $\text{NaCl}$  concentration increased in the mucosal bath,  $G_t$  also increased significantly to approximately 18.3  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ , however an increase in  $\text{Na}^+$  or  $\text{Cl}^-$  levels in the mucosal solutions low in  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively did not yield a large increase in  $G_t$  (Table 4). These results are in accord with the findings of Marshall ('86) but presently cannot be explained.

Under symmetrical saline conditions, a relationship between  $G_t$  and efflux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  was demonstrated suggesting that effluxes of these ions occurred by passive diffusion (Fig. 9). However, it was also found that  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  influx was correlated to  $G_t$ , but as previously mentioned, active net transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  was exhibited under

these conditions and therefore a portion of the observed influx component was passive. With artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface,  $G_i$  was significantly correlated to the efflux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  but not influx. These results suggest that the influx rates of these ions observed at these mucosal concentrations were non-conductive, and by active transport alone.

#### Effects of pharmaceuticals

Mucosal addition of DIDS ( $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$  exchange blocker), amiloride ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange and  $\text{Na}^+$  channel inhibitor) or bumetanide ( $\text{Na}^+-\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+-\text{K}^+-\text{Cl}^-$  co-transport blocker) all had no effect on the transport (absorption/extrusion) of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Tables 1 and 3) in either symmetrical saline or mucosal artificial urine conditions. Active absorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  continued in the presence of each drug, which reinforces the suggestion of a dual mechanism type of transport. Thus, for example, if two transport systems were operating in parallel ( $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  independent and dependent mechanisms), addition of DIDS would impair anion exchange but co-transport mechanisms would be unaffected. In fact in saline/saline conditions, DIDS decreased  $\text{Cl}^-$  absorption and bumetanide decreased  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption (but not significantly). However in each case active transport persisted.

#### Anterior vs posterior portions of urinary bladder

Unidirectional influx, efflux and net flux of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  were similar in the anterior and posterior portions of the bladder under artificial urine conditions (Fig. 12). In contrast, when  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  levels were increased in the mucosal bath (saline/saline)  $\text{Cl}^-$

( $P < 0.05$ ) absorption rates (and also  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption rates, but not significantly) were greater in the anterior portion than in the posterior portion of the urinary bladder. The ureters, from the mesonephric duct of the kidney, lead into the anterior portion of the urinary bladder, delivering the more concentrated urine which has exited from the kidney. The anterior portion of the urinary bladder may absorb  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at a greater rate because of its proximity to the ureters. This result is also supported by the observation that  $G_i$  was significantly greater in the anterior vs the posterior portion of the bladder (Fig. 11). Experiments performed on the goby (*G. mirabilis*) urinary bladder (Loretz and Bern, '80, '83) reported that the columnar cell region is responsible for the active reabsorption of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ . The columnar cells are most abundant in the area closest to the ureters and are rich in mitochondria and rough and smooth endoplasmic reticulum. However,  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase measurements failed to distinguish greater  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$ -ATPase activity between the two portions of the bladder.

#### Further conclusions

The present study observed electroneutral co-transport of  $\text{NaCl}$  in the urinary bladder of *O. mykiss* under symmetrical saline conditions, thus reinforcing previous studies performed on the urinary bladder of the closely related European strain of rainbow trout (*Salmo irideus*) (Fossat and Lahlou '79a, '82). However, there was not an observed 100% coupling of  $\text{NaCl}$  transport as reported in *S. irideus* (Fossat and Lahlou '79a). Experiments performed on *S. irideus* did not use an artificial urine, and  $\text{NaCl}$  transport at these more realistic levels of mucosal  $\text{NaCl}$  in the present study, were not found to be a coupled process. Therefore a partially coupled transport process of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  appears

to be present. Electrical parameters of *S. irideus* (Fossat and Lahlou '79a, '82) and *O. mykiss* (present study) are also very similar under symmetrical saline conditions (negligible  $V_p$ ,  $I_{sc} < 1 \mu\text{A}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  and  $G_t = 3\text{-}4 \text{ mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). In contrast, the urinary bladder of the brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*), exhibited independent transport of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  at both higher and lower levels of mucosal NaCl (Marshall '86). The transport of NaCl was reported to be electroneutral, however  $V_t$  (6.7 mV) and  $G_t$  ( $0.23 \text{ mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) were rather different from those of the present study. It is interesting that the brook trout appears to transport  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  in a very different manner than the rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*).

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**Table 1.** Effect of the  $10^{-4}$ M mucosal addition of DIDS, amiloride or bumetanide on unidirectional efflux ( $J_{sm}$ ), influx ( $J_{ms}$ ) and flux ratios of  $Cl^-$  and  $Na^+$  and on  $V_t$  and  $G_t$  in urinary bladder of *Oncorhynchus mykiss* ( $n = 4$ ) bathed on mucosal side with Cortland saline under open circuit conditions.

Experimental Period	$V_t$ (mV) <sup>a</sup>	$G_t$ (mS·cm <sup>-2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	$J_{sm}$		$J_{ms}$		$J_{sm}/J_{ms}$	
			(μmol·cm <sup>-2</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup> )		Observed	Predicted		
$Cl^-$								
Control (Hour 1)	0.1 ± 0.1	8.39 ± 2.1	3.5 ± 1.0	12.3 ± 4.6	5.8 ± 2.1	1.00 ± 0.003		
DIDS	0.1 ± 0.2	9.20 ± 1.7	3.5 ± 0.6	8.7 ± 2.3	2.7 ± 0.7	1.00 ± 0.008		
Control (Hour 3)	-0.1 ± 0.2	8.23 ± 1.9	3.4 ± 0.7	12.9 ± 3.5	5.0 ± 1.6	1.00 ± 0.006		
$Na^+$								
Control (Hour 1)			0.9 ± 0.3	2.9 ± 1.0	11.1 ± 3.0	1.00 ± 0.003		
DIDS			1.3 ± 0.4	5.8 ± 0.9	10.1 ± 2.5	1.00 ± 0.008		
Control (Hour 3)			1.2 ± 0.5	3.5 ± 0.3	13.5 ± 2.3	1.00 ± 0.006		
$Cl^-$								
Control (Hour 1)	0.2 ± 0.1	3.49 ± 0.9	1.8 ± 0.6	5.0 ± 1.6	3.1 ± 0.5	1.01 ± 0.005		
Amiloride	0.2 ± 0.1	3.36 ± 1.1	2.4 ± 0.8	5.6 ± 0.8	3.1 ± 0.6	1.01 ± 0.004		
Control (Hour 3)	0.1 ± 0.1	3.56 ± 1.2	1.8 ± 0.6	5.8 ± 0.8	4.2 ± 0.9	1.00 ± 0.005		
$Na^+$								
Control (Hour 1)			0.9 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 1.5	4.2 ± 1.8	0.99 ± 0.005		
Amiloride			1.0 ± 0.3	3.9 ± 0.8	4.3 ± 0.6	0.99 ± 0.004		
Control (Hour 3)			1.0 ± 0.4	4.2 ± 0.4	6.0 ± 1.6	1.00 ± 0.005		
$Cl^-$								
Control (Hour 1)	0.2 ± 0.1	6.8 ± 1.5	2.7 ± 0.4	5.6 ± 0.6	2.2 ± 0.1	1.01 ± 0.003		
Bumetanide	0.3 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 1.0	2.4 ± 0.6	5.2 ± 0.6	2.7 ± 0.6	1.02 ± 0.003		
Control (Hour 3)	0.1 ± 0.1	4.3 ± 0.6	2.1 ± 0.4	4.3 ± 0.5	2.2 ± 0.3	1.00 ± 0.005		
$Na^+$								
Control (Hour 1)			1.8 ± 0.8	4.1 ± 0.8	4.6 ± 1.6	0.99 ± 0.003		
Bumetanide			1.3 ± 0.6	3.4 ± 0.6	4.7 ± 1.4	0.98 ± 0.003		
Control (Hour 3)			1.1 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.9	1.00 ± 0.005		

<sup>b</sup> Tissue conductance corrected for solution resistance;  $n = 8$ .

\* Paired *t*-test, two-tailed, observed vs. predicted values of  $J_{sm}/J_{ms}$ . Comparison of all observed and predicted ratios were significantly different,  $P < 0.05$ .

There were no significant effects of any of the drug treatments on the parameters measured.

**Table 2.** Comparison of Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> “cold” (measured chemically) net fluxes ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) and “hot” net fluxes as calculated from unidirectional flux measurements with <sup>22</sup>Na<sup>+</sup> and <sup>36</sup>Cl<sup>-</sup> ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) in the *Oncorhynchus mykiss* urinary bladder (n = 6) bathed on mucosal side with control, or Cl<sup>-</sup>-free or Na<sup>+</sup>-free artificial urine under open circuit conditions.

Bathing Solutions Serosa/Mucosa	Hour 1	Hour 2	Hour 3
	$J_{\text{net}}$	$J_{\text{net}}$	$J_{\text{net}}$
Saline/Artificial Urine	( $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ )		
<sup>36</sup> Cl <sup>-</sup>	-1.7	-1.4	-0.9
	± 0.3	± 0.3	± 0.4
Cl <sup>-</sup>	-5.7	-3.3	-9.6*
	± 3.6	± 1.4	± 3.4
<sup>22</sup> Na <sup>+</sup>	-0.9	-0.9	-0.6
	± 0.3	± 0.4	± 0.2
Na <sup>+</sup>	-9.8	-3.1	-6.7*
	± 3.7	± 2.0	± 3.2
Saline/Na <sup>+</sup> Free Artificial Urine			
<sup>36</sup> Cl <sup>-</sup>	-1.5	-1.2	-0.5
	± 0.5	± 0.6	± 0.2
Cl <sup>-</sup>	-4.3	-4.6	-7.1*
	± 1.4	± 1.3	± 1.6
Saline/Cl <sup>-</sup> Free Artificial Urine			
<sup>22</sup> Na <sup>+</sup>	-1.7	-1.4	-1.8
	± 0.4	± 0.3	± 0.6
Na <sup>+</sup>	-5.7*	-5.5*	-2.7
	± 1.4	± 1.0	± 1.1

\* Un-paired *t*-test, two-tailed. Comparison between “hot” and “cold” net fluxes of Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> in each treatment group; \*, P<0.05.

**Table 3.** Effect of the  $10^{-4}$ M mucosal addition of DIDS, amiloride or bumetanide on unidirectional efflux ( $J_{sm}$ ), influx ( $J_{ms}$ ) and flux ratios of  $Cl^-$  and  $Na^+$  and on  $V_t$  and  $G_t$  in urinary bladder of

*Oncorhynchus mykiss* ( $n = 4$ ) bathed on mucosal side with artificial urine under open circuit conditions.

Experimental Period	$V_t$ (mV) <sup>a</sup>	$G_t$ (mS·cm <sup>-2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	$J_{sm}$	$J_{ms}$	$J_{sm}/J_{ms}$	
			( $\mu$ mol·cm <sup>-2</sup> ·h <sup>-1</sup> )		Observed	Predicted
<b><math>Cl^-</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)	6.5 ± 0.4	1.45 ± 0.2	2.3 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.14 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.0004
DIDS	5.2 ± 0.6	1.31 ± 0.2	2.3 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.16 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.0004
Control (Hour 3)	5.2 ± 0.6	1.34 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 0.4	0.3 ± 0.1	0.11 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.0004
<b><math>Na^+</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)			1.3 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.03	0.01 ± 0.0001
DIDS			1.3 ± 0.3	0.2 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.03	0.01 ± 0.0002
Control (Hour 3)			2.0 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.0001
<b><math>Cl^-</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)	4.4 ± 1.0	2.38 ± 0.8	0.7 ± 0.3	0.3 ± 0.1	0.53 ± 0.11	0.03 ± 0.002
Amiloride	4.7 ± 1.1	2.10 ± 0.8	2.2 ± 0.6	0.5 ± 0.2	0.33 ± 0.16	0.03 ± 0.001
Control (Hour 3)	5.1 ± 0.8	2.70 ± 0.9	1.0 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.56 ± 0.17	0.03 ± 0.001
<b><math>Na^+</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)			0.6 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.09	0.01 ± 0.0001
Amiloride			1.4 ± 0.5	0.3 ± 0.05	0.34 ± 0.08	0.01 ± 0.0002
Control (Hour 3)			0.6 ± 0.1	0.2 ± 0.02	0.45 ± 0.13	0.01 ± 0.0001
<b><math>Cl^-</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)	4.9 ± 1.0	1.41 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.1	0.40 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.002
Bumetanide	4.0 ± 1.3	1.51 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.1	0.60 ± 0.17	0.03 ± 0.002
Control (Hour 3)	3.8 ± 1.2	1.36 ± 0.4	1.0 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.1	0.43 ± 0.09	0.03 ± 0.002
<b><math>Na^+</math></b>						
Control (Hour 1)			0.4 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.02	0.46 ± 0.17	0.01 ± 0.001
Bumetanide			0.3 ± 0.1	0.2 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.24	0.01 ± 0.001
Control (Hour 3)			0.6 ± 0.2	0.2 ± 0.03	0.44 ± 0.13	0.01 ± 0.001

<sup>a</sup> Transepithelial potential (mucosal ground) corrected for junction potentials;  $n = 8$ .

<sup>b</sup> Tissue conductance corrected for solution resistance;  $n = 8$ .

Paired *t*-test, two-tailed, observed vs. predicted values of  $J_{sm}/J_{ms}$ . Comparison of all observed and predicted ratios were significantly different,  $P < 0.05$ .

There were no significant effects of any of the drug treatments on the parameters measured.

**Table 4.** Mean transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ ) and transepithelial conductance ( $G_t$ ) for different  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration ranges for control, low  $\text{Na}^+$  and low  $\text{Cl}^-$  artificial urine mucosal solutions bathing the isolated urinary bladder of the *Oncorhynchus mykiss* ( $n = 6$ ).

[ $\text{Na}^+$ ] and/or [ $\text{Cl}^-$ ] range (mM)	Mean transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ , mV)		
	control ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{Cl}^-$ )	low $\text{Na}^+$	low $\text{Cl}^-$
0-5	7.53 ± 1.6	10.51 ± 0.7	1.90 ± 0.6 <sup>†</sup>
5-10	6.71 ± 0.7	7.69 ± 0.7*	4.76 ± 1.2
10-20	4.85 ± 0.7	-	5.51 ± 0.8*
40-50	2.10 ± 0.4*	9.66 ± 0.6 <sup>†</sup>	5.19 ± 1.0* <sup>†</sup>
110-150	0.57 ± 0.03*	17.64 ± 0.3* <sup>†</sup>	10.31 ± 1.6* <sup>†</sup>

[ $\text{Na}^+$ ] and/or [ $\text{Cl}^-$ ] range (mM)	Mean conductance ( $G_t$ , $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ )		
	control ( $\text{Na}^+/\text{Cl}^-$ )	low $\text{Na}^+$	low $\text{Cl}^-$
0-5	3.31 ± 1.5	1.58 ± 0.7	1.82 ± 0.2
5-10	4.95 ± 1.3	1.89 ± 0.8	1.94 ± 0.6
10-20	3.33 ± 1.0	-	2.46 ± 0.8
40-50	7.91 ± 3.3	2.56 ± 1.6	2.48 ± 0.7
110-150	18.3 ± 7.9*	3.63 ± 2.1	3.76 ± 1.0

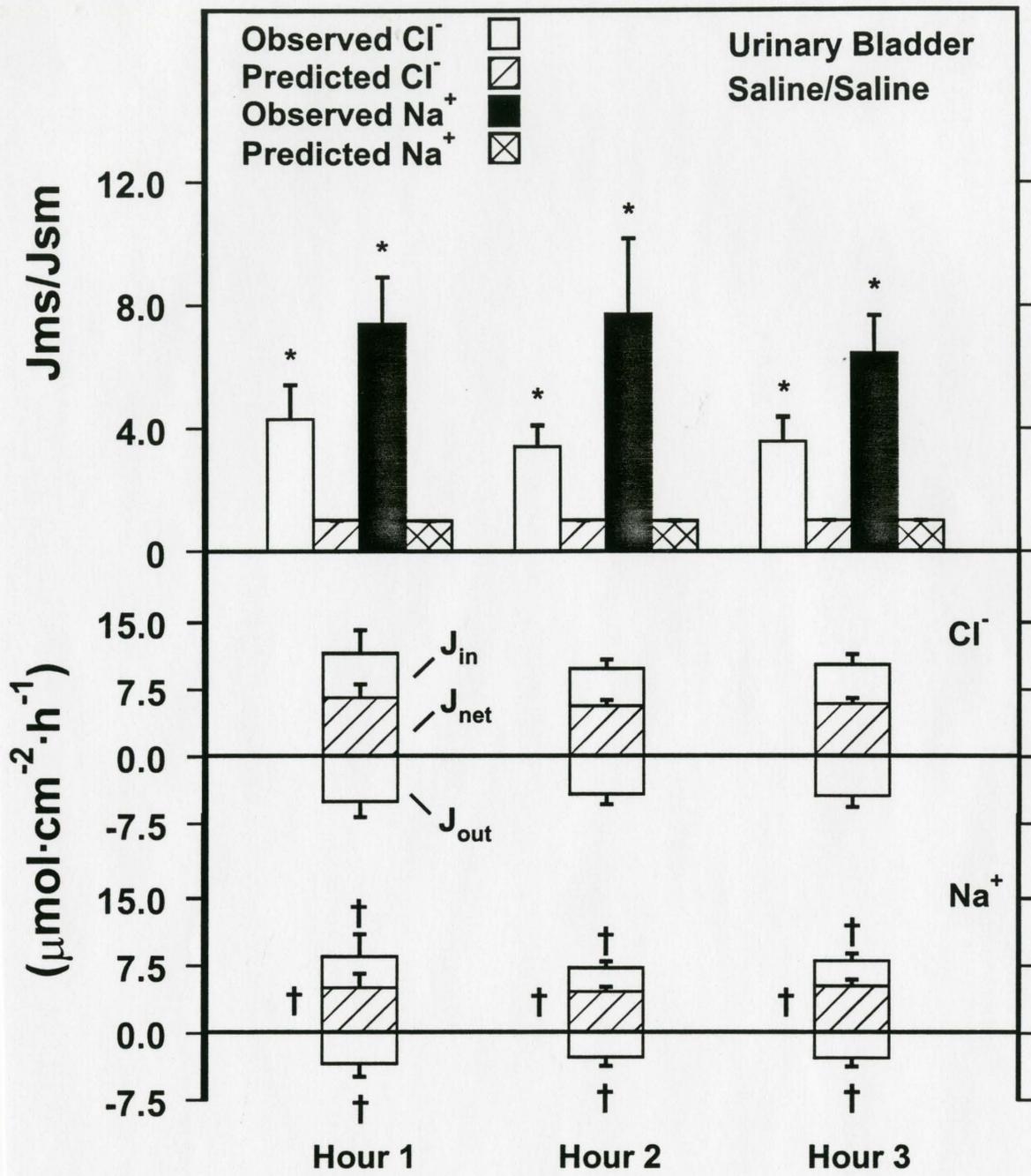
<sup>a</sup> Transepithelial potential (mucosal ground) corrected for junction potentials;  $n = 6$ .

<sup>b</sup> Tissue conductance corrected for solution resistance;  $n = 6$ .

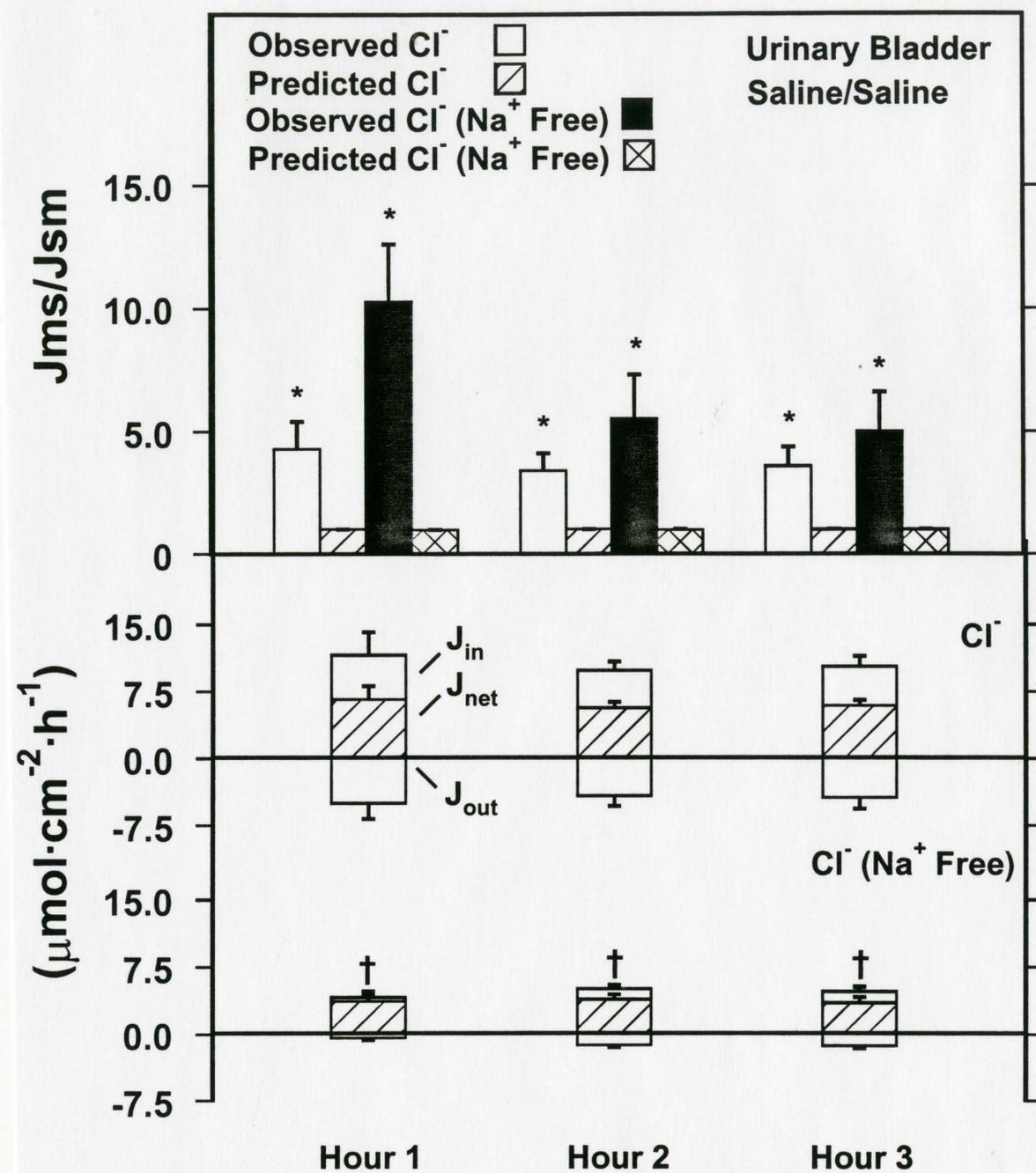
\* Un-paired  $t$ -test, two-tailed. Comparison of control  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Cl}^-$   $V_t$  and  $G_t$  values to 0-5 range; \*,  $P < 0.05$ .

<sup>†</sup> Un-paired  $t$ -test, two-tailed. Comparison of low  $\text{Na}^+$  and low  $\text{Cl}^-$   $V_t$  and  $G_t$  values to their respective control values; <sup>†</sup>,  $P < 0.05$ .

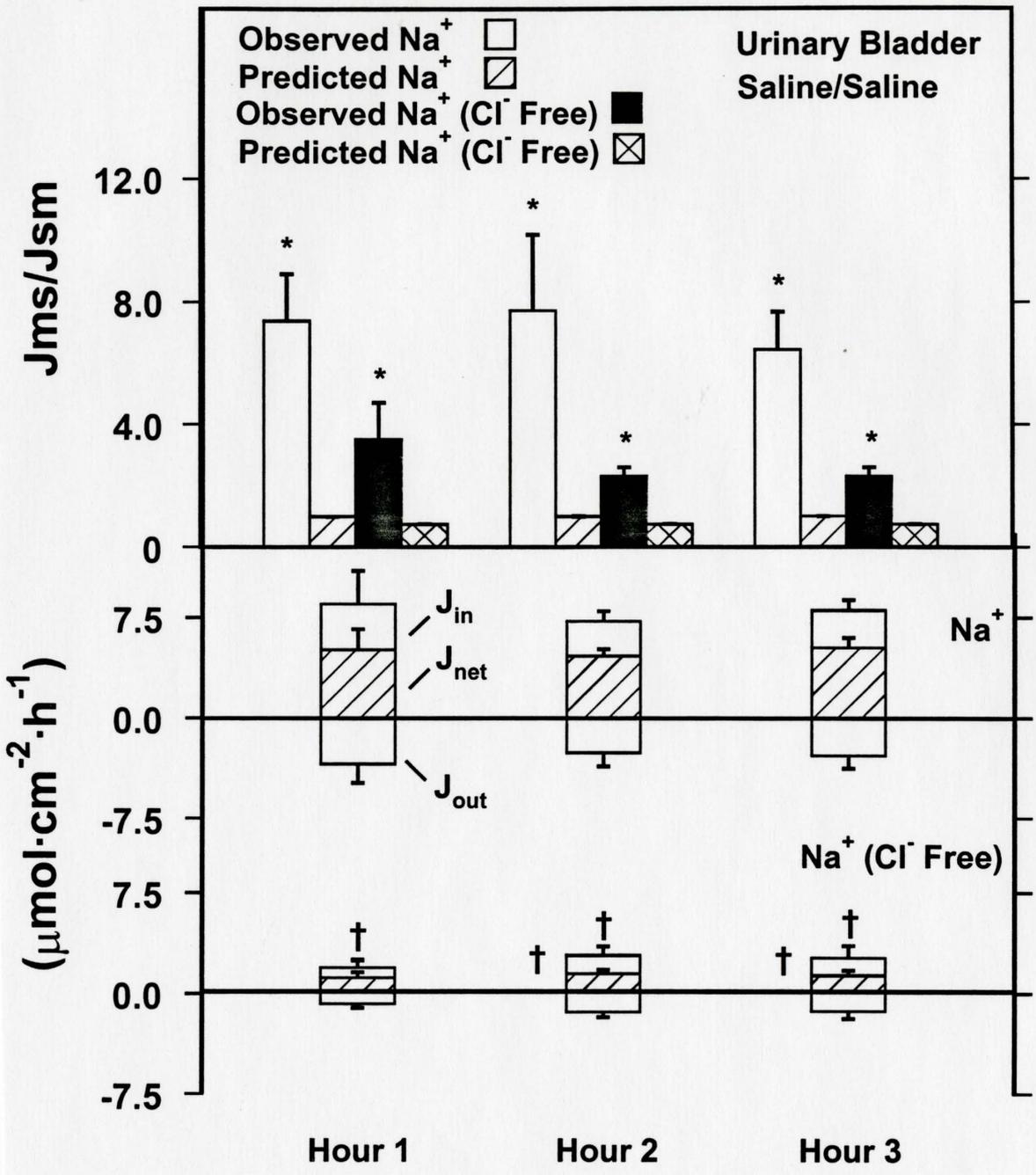
**Figure 3.1.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  in urinary bladders of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* under symmetrical saline conditions. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 6). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed), indicating non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ . Cross indicates significant differences from unidirectional influx (above bar), efflux (below bar) or net flux (beside bar) ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed) between  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ .



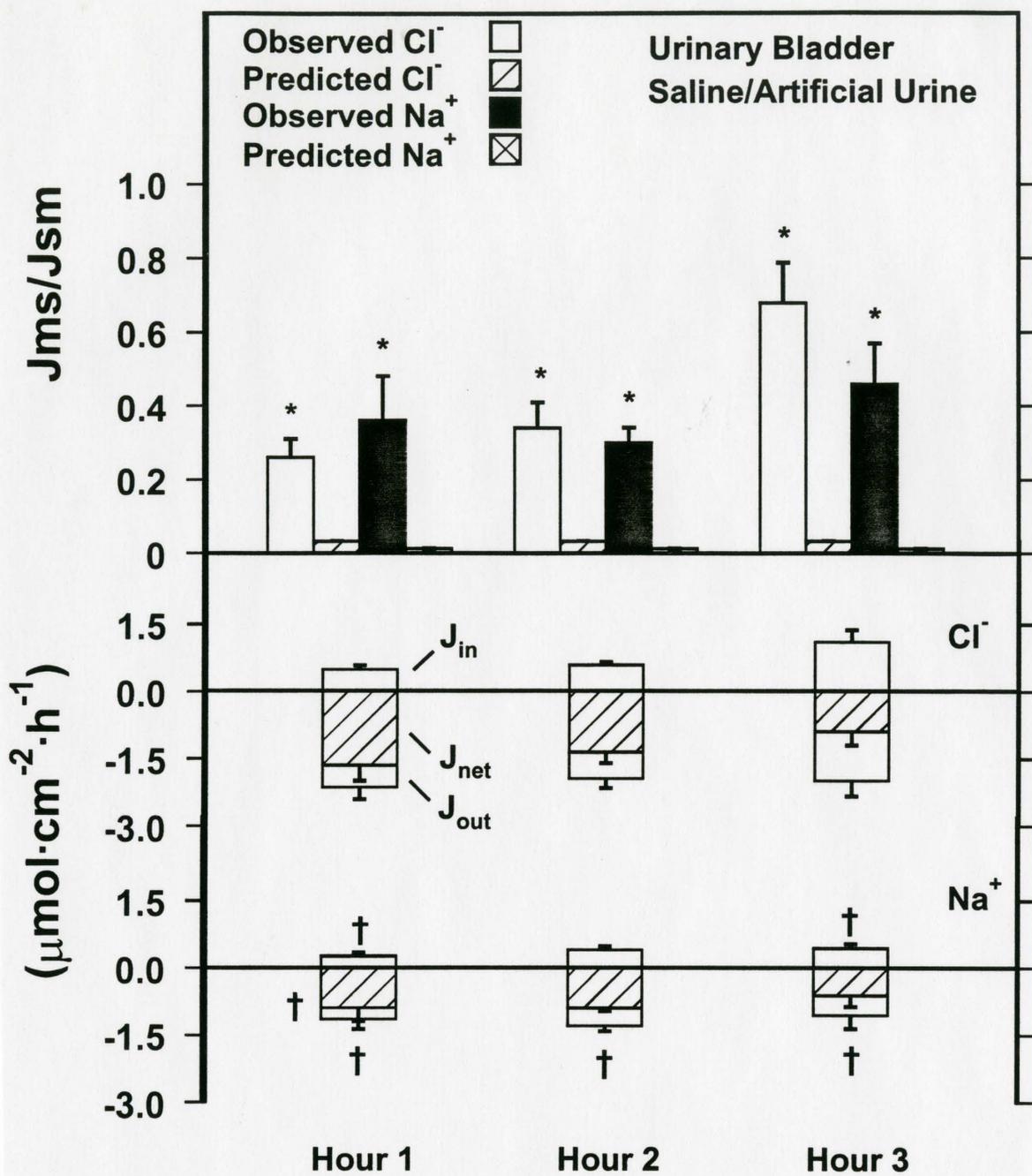
**Figure 3.2.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$  with control or  $\text{Na}^+$ -free saline bathing the mucosal surface of urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal saline respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal saline respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 4). Asterisk indicates significant differences from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed), indicating non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal saline. Cross indicates significant difference from unidirectional influx (above bar), efflux (below bar) or net flux (beside bar) ( $P < 0.05$ , un-paired t-test, two-tailed) of  $\text{Cl}^-$  between the two treatment groups.



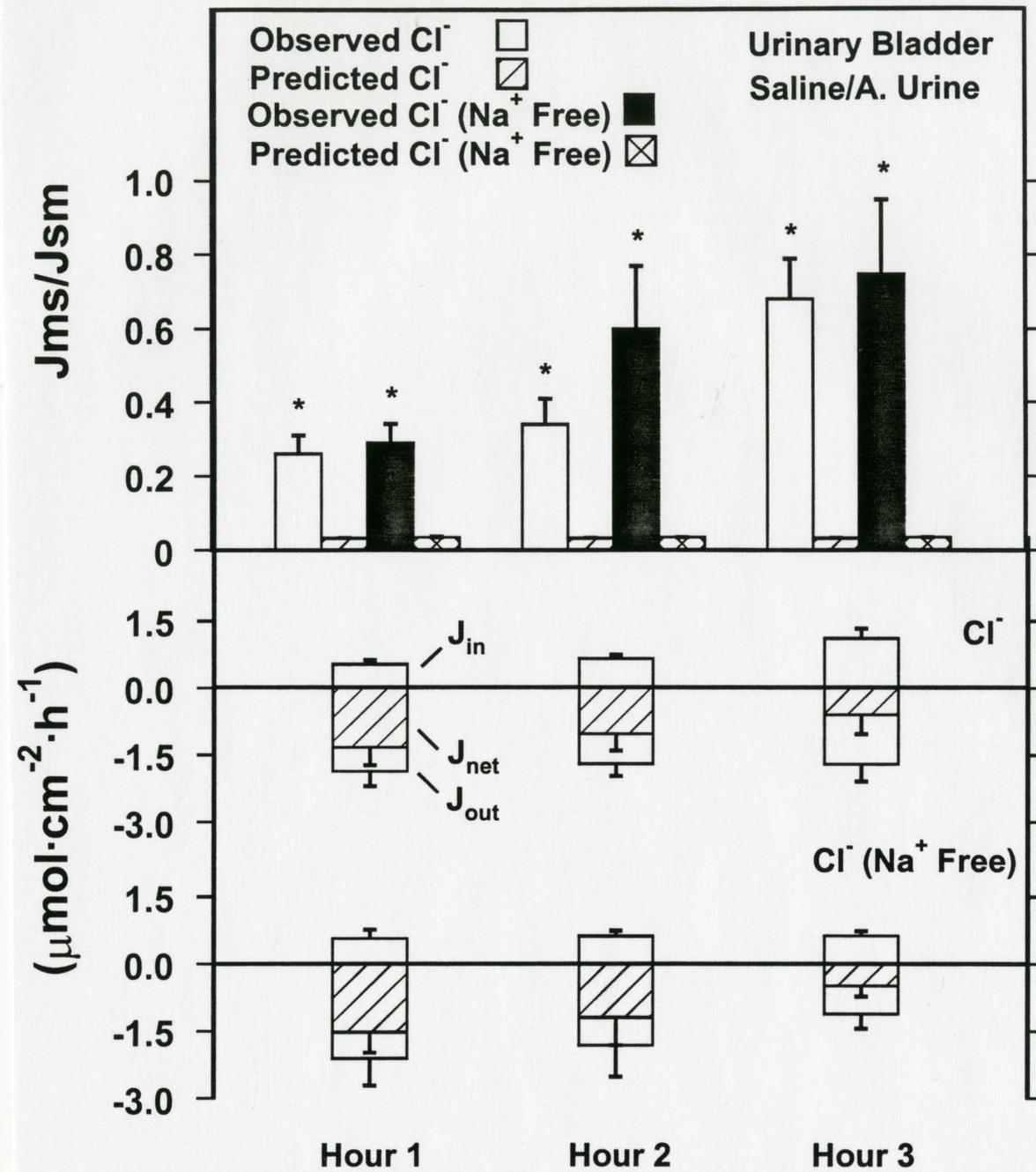
**Figure 3.3.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Na}^+$  with control or  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free saline bathing the mucosal surface of urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free mucosal saline respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free mucosal saline respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 4). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed), indicating non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in  $\text{Cl}^-$ -free mucosal saline. Cross indicates significant difference from unidirectional influx (above bar), efflux (below bar) or net flux (beside bar) ( $P < 0.05$ , un-paired t-test, two-tailed) of  $\text{Na}^+$  between the two treatment groups.



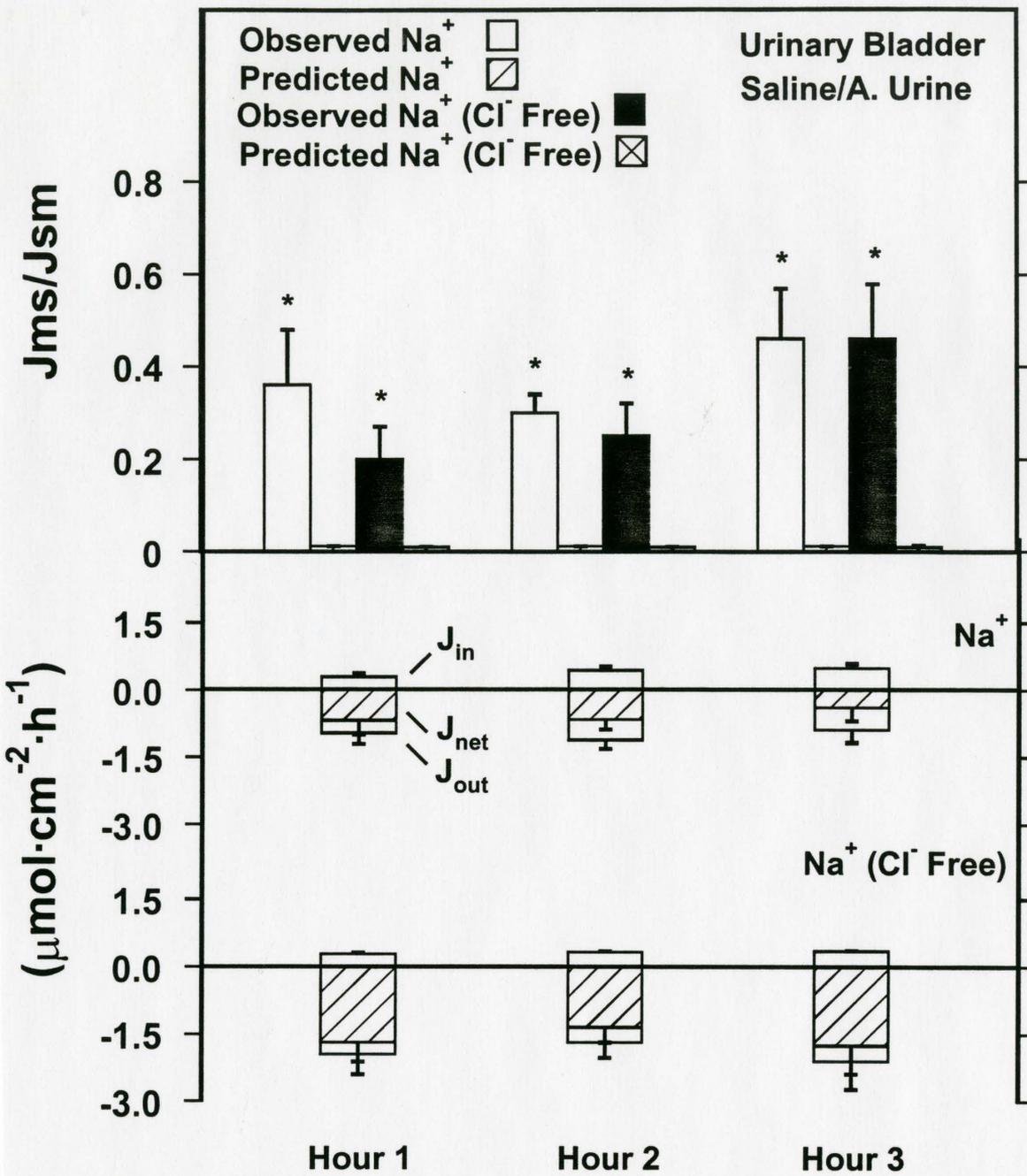
**Figure 3.4.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  in urinary bladders of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* bathed with artificial urine on the mucosal surface. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 6). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed), indicating non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ . Cross indicates significant difference from unidirectional influx (above bar), efflux (below bar) or net flux (beside bar) ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed) between  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$ .



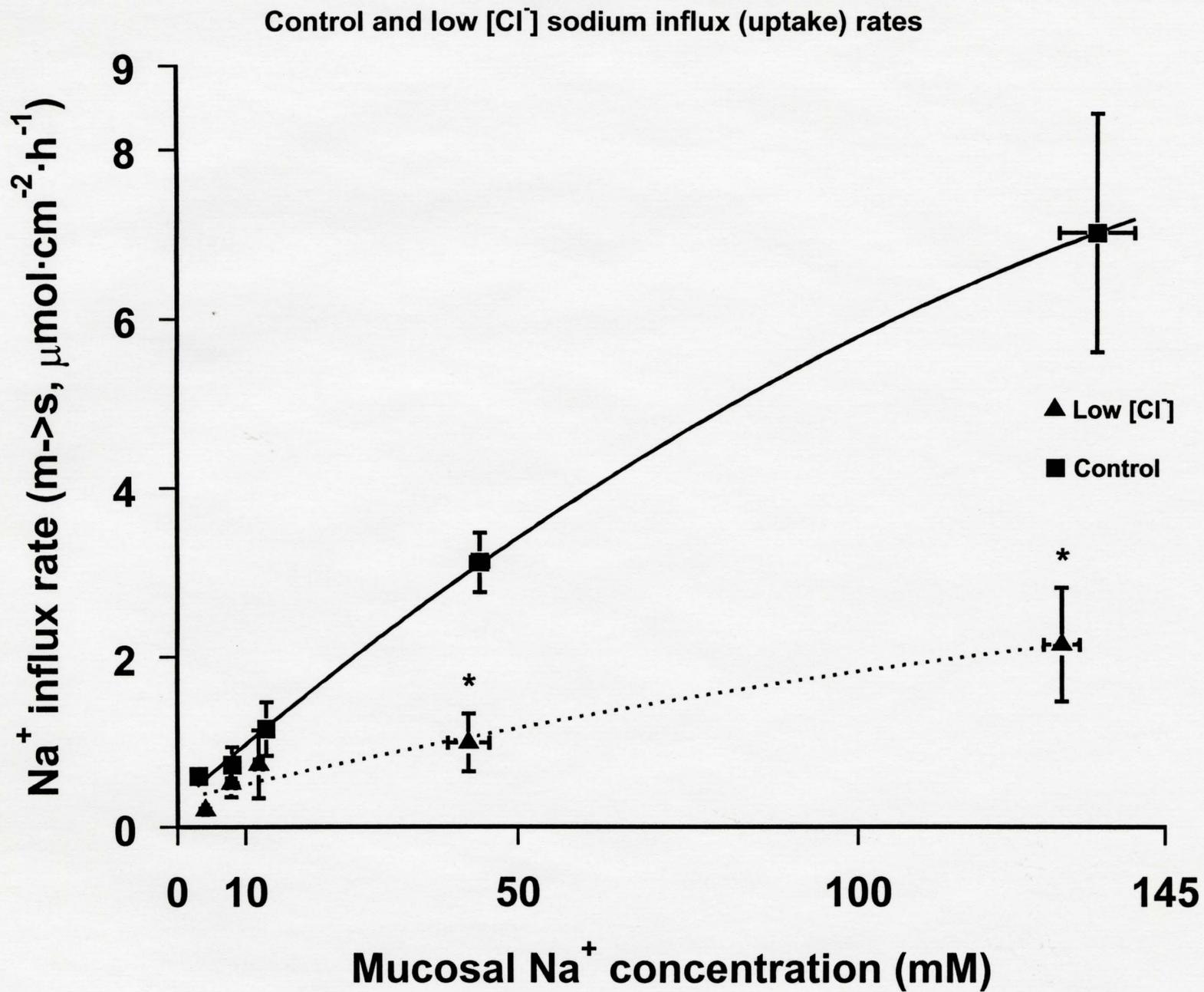
**Figure 3.5.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Cl}^-$  with control or  $\text{Na}^+$ -free artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface of urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal artificial urine respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal artificial urine respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 4). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed), indicating non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control and in  $\text{Na}^+$ -free mucosal artificial urine. There were no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between the two treatment groups.



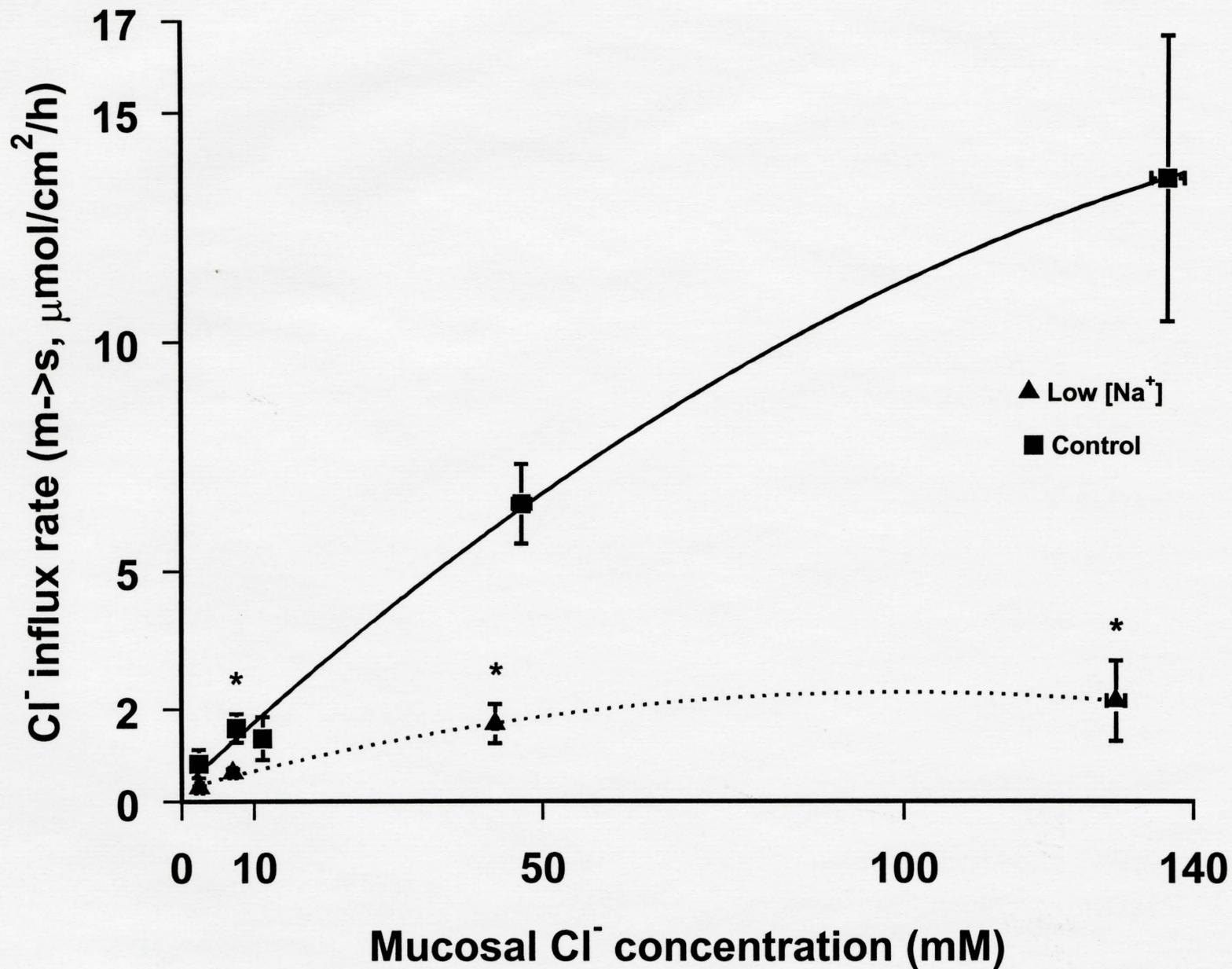
**Figure 3.6.** Observed and predicted flux ratios for the unidirectional movements of  $\text{Na}^+$  with control or Cl-free artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface of urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*. Open bars and solid bars represent the observed flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in Cl-free mucosal artificial urine respectively, hatched and crossed bars represent the predicted flux ratios for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in Cl-free mucosal artificial urine respectively based on the Ussing flux ratio criterion. Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 4). Asterisk indicates significant difference from predicted flux ratio ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed) implying evidence for non-diffusive transport. Unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{in}}$ ), efflux ( $J_{\text{out}}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{\text{net}}$ ) are shown for  $\text{Na}^+$  in control and in Cl-free mucosal artificial urine. There were no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between the two treatment groups.



**Figure 3.7.** Relationship of mucosal to serosal  $\text{Na}^+$  flux ( $\text{Na}^+$  influx) to the concentration (mM) of  $\text{Na}^+$  in control solutions (closed squares) and low  $\text{Cl}^-$  solutions (closed triangles). Serosal medium was Cortland's saline and mucosal medium was artificial urine with varying concentrations of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Vertical and horizontal lines represent  $\pm$  the standard error of mean;  $n = 4-8$  for each concentration range of (0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 40-50 and 110-150 mM). Curves were best fit for Michaelis-Menten kinetics. Asterisk indicates significant difference between concentration range of each treatment ( $P < 0.05$ , un-paired t-test, two-tailed).

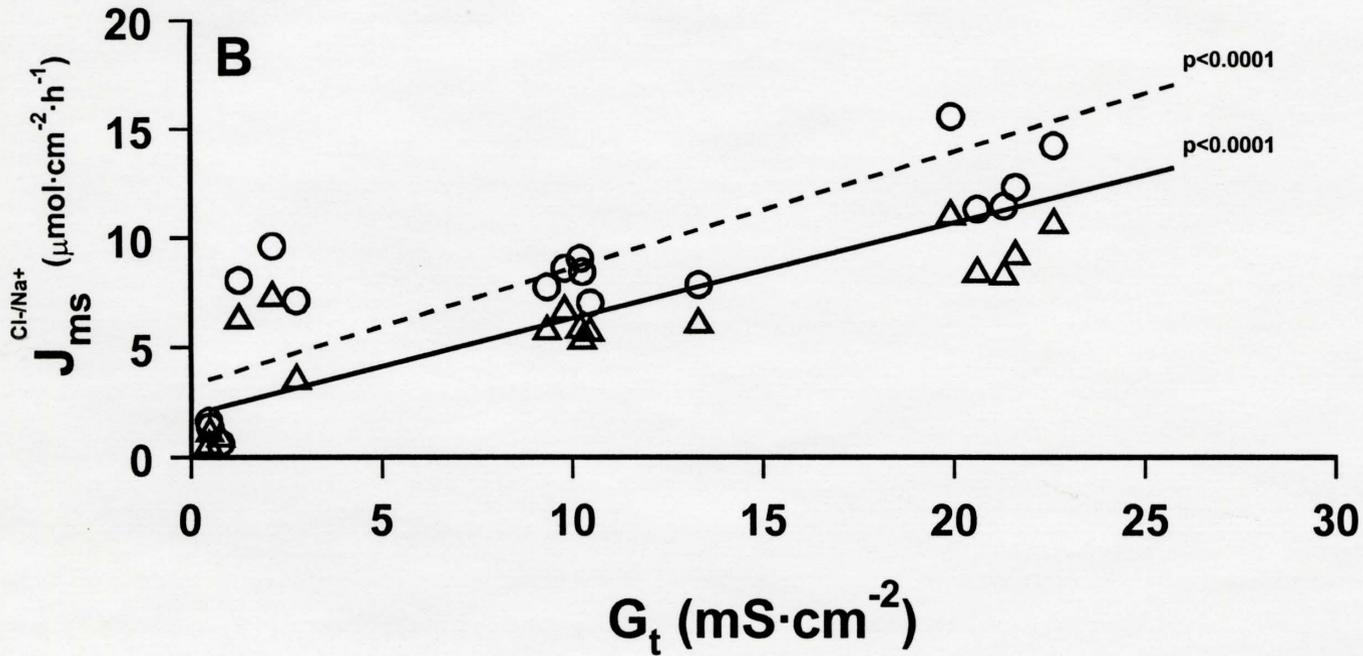
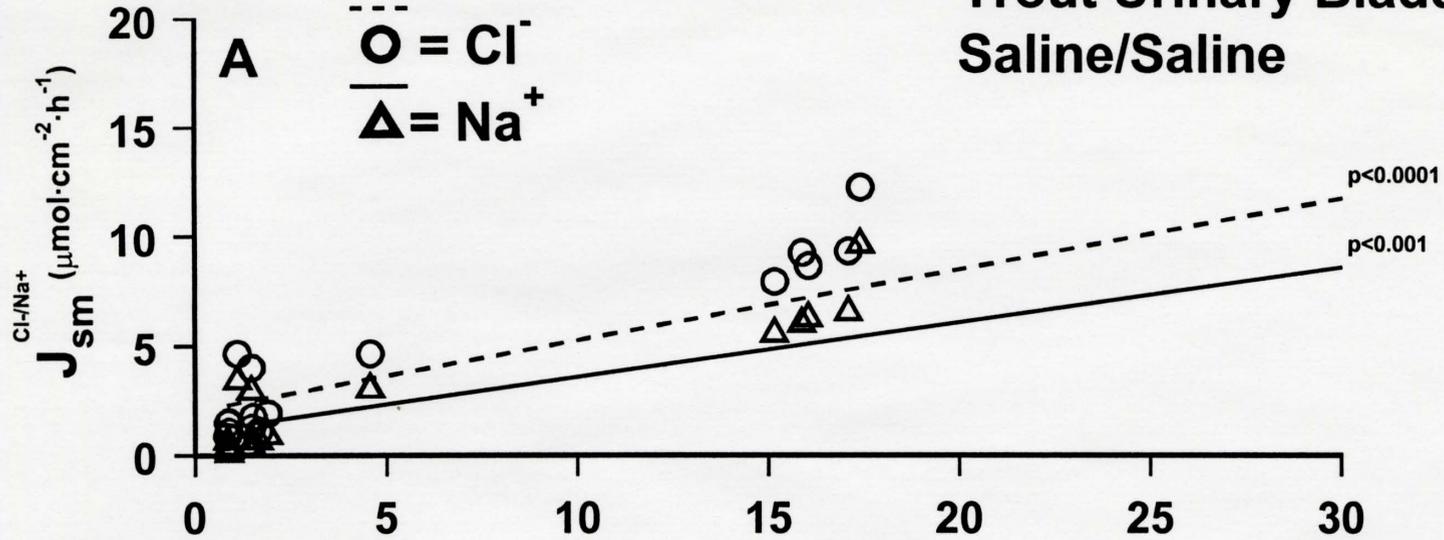


**Figure 3.8.** Relationship of mucosal to serosal  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux to the concentration (mM) of  $\text{Cl}^-$  in control solutions (closed squares) and low  $\text{Na}^+$  solutions (closed triangles). Serosal medium was Cortland's saline and mucosal medium was artificial urine with varying concentrations of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$ . Vertical and horizontal lines represent  $\pm$  the standard error of mean;  $n = 4-8$  for each concentration range of (0-5, 5-10, 40-50 and 110-150 mM, excluding 10-20 mM range for low  $\text{Na}^+$  artificial urine where no observations were recorded). Curves were best fit for Michaelis-Menten kinetics. Asterisk indicates significant difference between concentration range of each treatment ( $P < 0.05$ , un-paired t-test, two-tailed).

Control and low  $[\text{Na}^+]$  chloride influx (uptake) rates

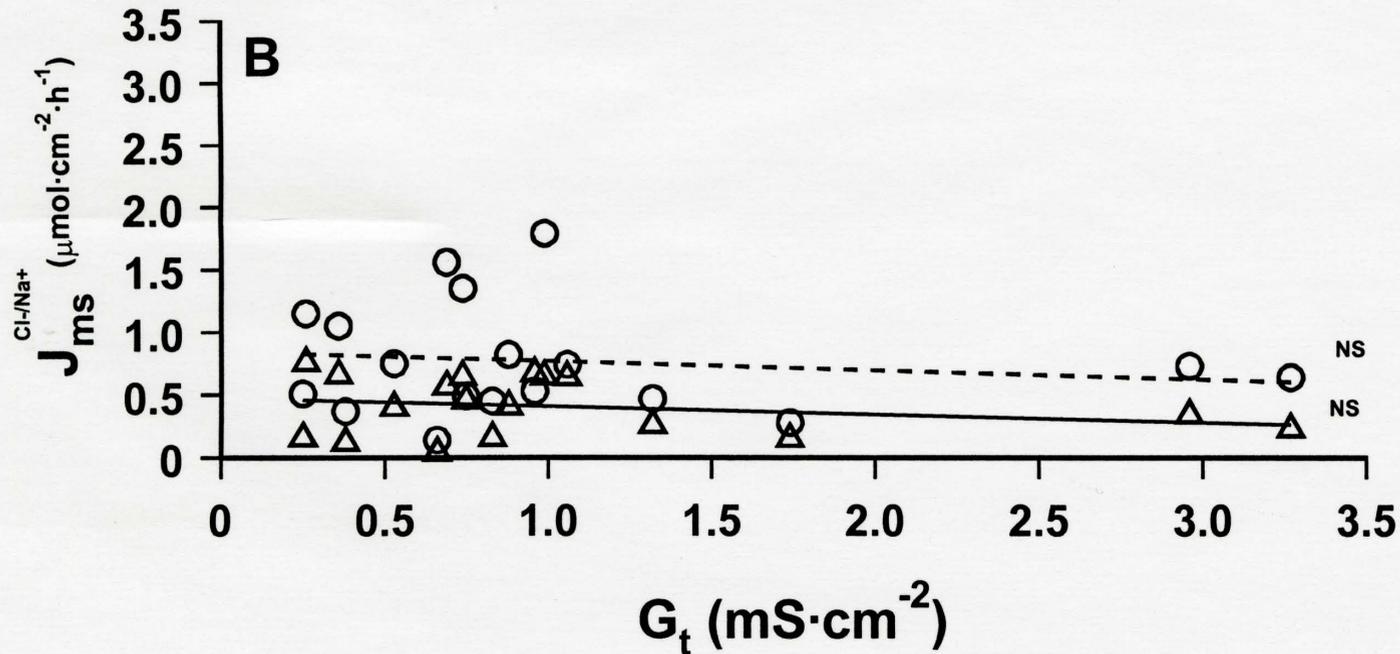
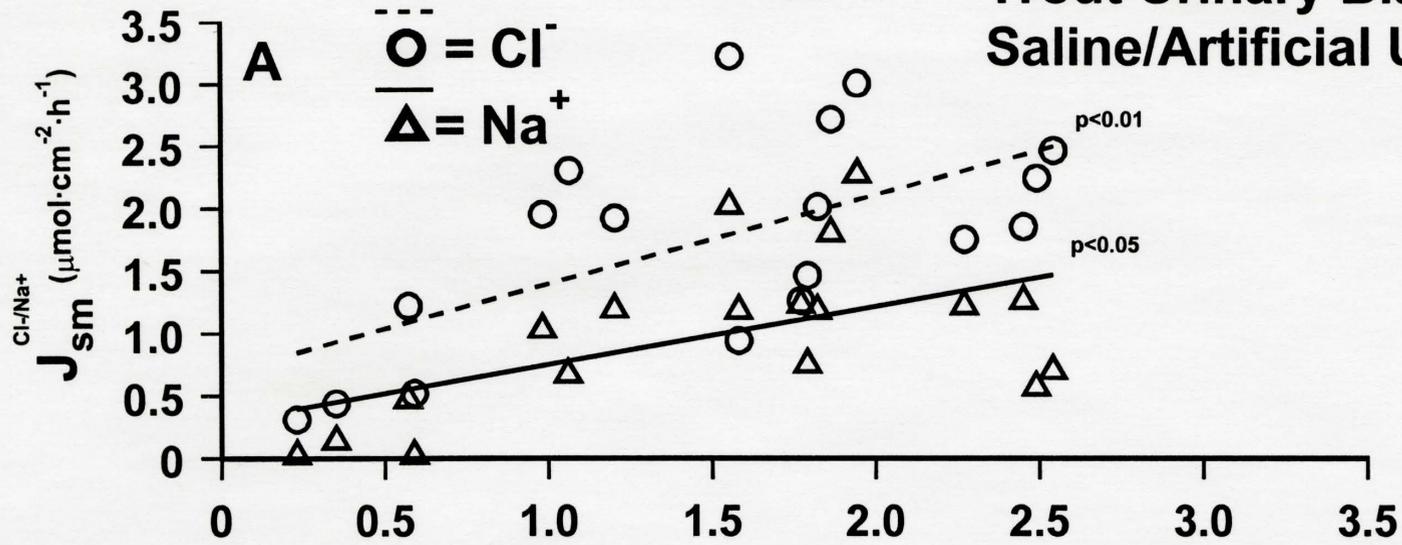
**Figure 3.9.** (A). Regression of serosal to mucosal  $\text{Na}^+$  (open triangles, solid line) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux (open circles, dashed line) (influx) and (B) mucosal to serosal  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux (efflux) in relation to total ionic conductance ( $G_t$ ,  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) under symmetrical saline conditions in urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*.

# Trout Urinary Bladder Saline/Saline

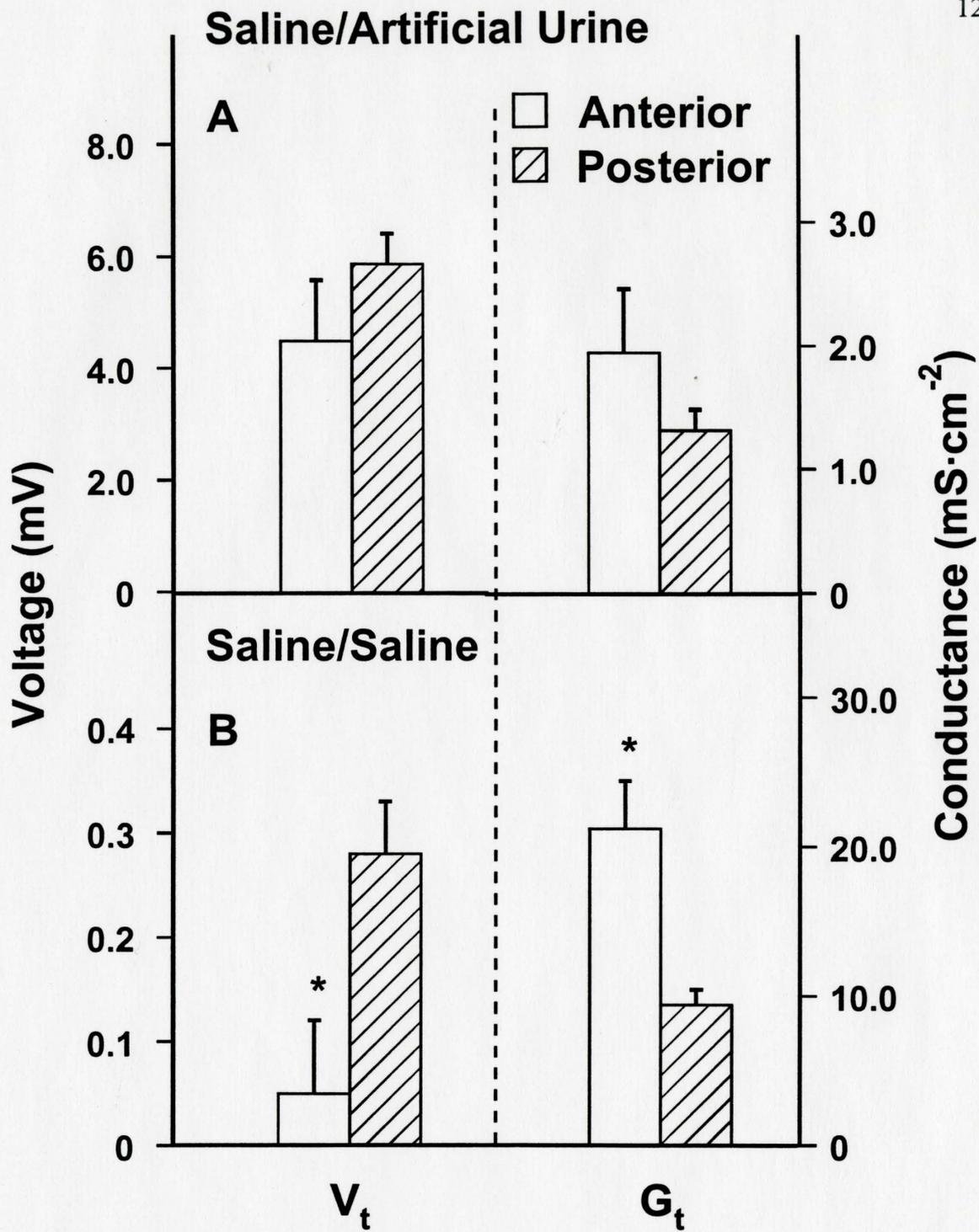


**Figure 3.10.** (A). Regression of serosal to mucosal  $\text{Na}^+$  (open triangles, solid line) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux (open circles, dashed line) and (B) mucosal to serosal  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  flux in relation to total ionic conductance ( $G_t$ ,  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface in urinary bladder epithelia of FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss*.

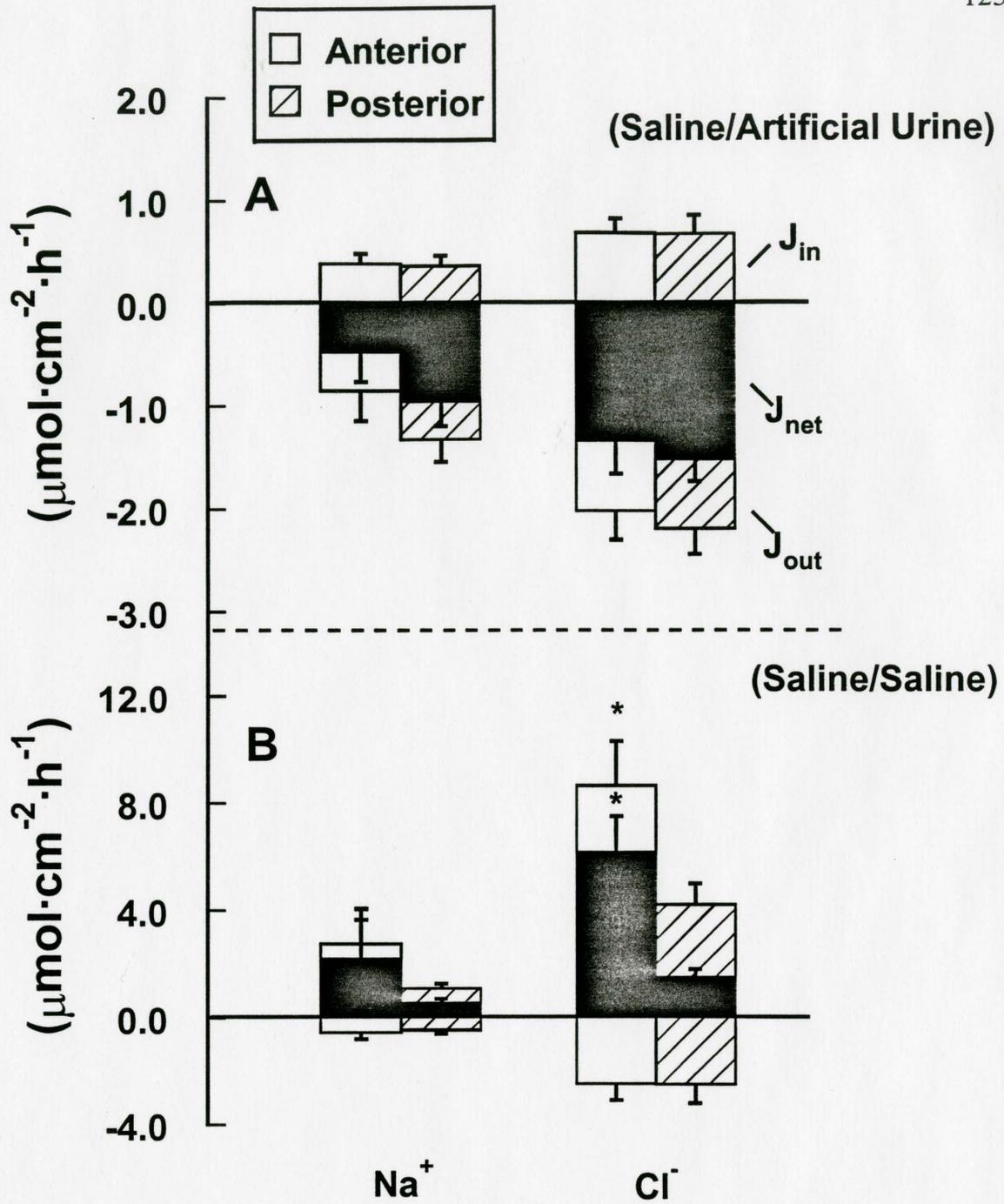
# Trout Urinary Bladder Saline/Artificial Urine



**Figure 3.11.** (A). Comparison of transepithelial voltage ( $V_t$ , mV) and total tissue conductance ( $G_t$ ,  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) in anterior and posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia from FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface. Open bars represent anterior portions, hatched bars represent posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia. (B). Comparison of transepithelial voltage ( $V_t$ , mV) and total tissue conductance ( $G_t$ ,  $\text{mS}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) in anterior and posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia from FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* under symmetrical saline conditions. Other details same as in (A). Means  $\pm$  1SEM ( $n = 36$ ). Asterisk indicates significant difference between  $V_t$  and  $G_t$  values of anterior and posterior portions of bladder epithelia ( $P < 0.05$ , un-paired t-test, two-tailed).



**Figure 3.12.** (A). Comparison of unidirectional influx ( $J_{in}$ ), efflux ( $J_{out}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{net}$ ) of  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  between anterior and posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia from FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* with artificial urine bathing the mucosal surface. Open bars represent anterior portions, hatched bars represent posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia. (B). Comparison of unidirectional influx ( $J_{in}$ ), efflux ( $J_{out}$ ) and net flux ( $J_{net}$ ) of  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  between anterior and posterior portions of urinary bladder epithelia from FW *Oncorhynchus mykiss* under symmetrical saline conditions. Other details same as in (A). Means  $\pm$  1SEM (n = 6-15). Asterisk indicates significant difference between unidirectional influx, efflux or net flux between anterior and posterior portions of bladder epithelia ( $P < 0.05$ , paired t-test, two-tailed).



## **Appendix: General Methodology**

### **Ussing Chambers**

The Ussing-style chambers used for this study were made in Antigonish, Nova Scotia. Figure A.1 is an over-head diagrammatic representation of two hemi-chambers resting on their platform. The three different preparations used in this thesis (opercular epithelia of both the *Fundulus* and *Oreochromis* and urinary bladder of *Oncorhynchus*) were dissected carefully from the animal and pinned down on a lucite adaptor that had an aperture area of 0.125 cm<sup>2</sup>. Subsequently, one matching adaptor (no pin-holes) would 'sandwich' the epithelia, and the completed sandwich was tightened into place between the two hemi-chambers.

The lucite adaptors were made using a lathe and a dremel tool was used to make holes for the pins, agar bridges and apertures. Following the making of the adaptors from lucite they were originally rough in appearance and to eliminate macroscopic scratches, a cotton tip (mixed with diatomaceous earth and water) was carefully dremelled over the surface of the lucite adaptors. The adaptors were then fitted with ~3mm stainless steel insect pins (000) (Fine Science Tools, Vancouver, B.C.) using epoxy resin and hardener.

### **Agar bridges**

Agar bridges were constructed from Clay-Adams poly-ethylene cannula: PE 90 for voltage measuring bridges and PE 260 for current passing bridges. The PE tubing was cut to a specified length, and a soldering iron was used to shape the bridges into a

functioning U-shape. The tips of the voltage and current agar bridges were cut to face the direction of the epithelium once in the Ussing chamber. To conduct voltage and current, the agar bridges were filled with 4% agar/Cortland's saline. A mixture of agar/saline/trypan blue was gently stirred in a beaker and brought to a boil for at least 5 minutes. The trypan blue (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) was used as a visual indicator to determine if any bubbles or breaks of agar/saline occurred once injected into the PE tubing. The agar/saline was injected into the bridge, using a well heated 10cc syringe and 21 gauge needle. Between injections the syringe was submerged in a beaker of hot water to ensure the agar/saline would not harden during the procedure.

### **Correction for junction potentials**

Junction potentials are caused when at any one point in a circuit a charge separation (liquid potential difference) occurs. In our case, corrections were made for junction potentials when the agar/saline voltage measuring bridges were immersed in dilute media such as freshwater or artificial urine.

To measure and eventually correct for the junction potential created by the bridge, the following procedure was (Fig. A.2). Initially, two separate beakers were filled with Cortland's saline and then the circuit was completed with one agar/saline bridge (Fig. A.2 A). One beaker contained a Hg/HgCl calomel half-cell and the other beaker contained a 3M KCl free flowing half-cell (see below). Using the DVC-1000 (WPI New Haven, CT) the potential was 'zeroed'. Once the test solution was introduced, the assumption was that there was no change in the composition of the test solution (freshwater, artificial urine) during junction potential measurements, and to ensure this a large volume (1000

ml) of test solution was used. Under well stirred conditions the agar/saline bridge and 3M KCl free flowing half-cell were inserted into the test solution and measurements were recorded on a dual channel chart recorder (Linear Instruments, Reno, NV) (Fig A.2 B).

The 3M KCl free flowing half-cell consisted of a glass microelectrode (no filament, 1 mm diameter; W.P.I. Inc., Sarasota, FL) and a Ag/AgCl electrode. By stretching and heating the middle of the glass microelectrode, an extremely fine tip was made (Narishige, Tokyo, Japan). Using a napkin, the tip of the glass microelectrode was carefully broken to yield an aperture (10-20  $\mu\text{m}$ ) which gradually leaks 3M KCl. To fill the glass microelectrode with 3M KCl, the tip of a 1 cc syringe was heated and stretched until the tip was able to insert into the glass microelectrode. The syringe was then used to inject 3M KCl into the glass microelectrode and the Ag/AgCl electrode. All air bubbles were removed from both electrodes. The glass microelectrode was inserted into the Ag/AgCl electrode to form a 3M KCl free flowing half-cell.

#### **“Cold” versus “hot” net fluxes**

Measurement of net fluxes of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  by chemical techniques was especially pertinent when the mucosal solution contained low levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  and/or  $\text{Cl}^-$  (e.g. freshwater or artificial urine). This was to determine the “rinse-off effect” of the epithelium over the duration of the flux period. Thus, net radio-labelled measurements tended to differ from the net “cold”, chemically made measurements.

“Cold” net fluxes were determined by a subtraction procedure ( $[\text{ion}]_i - [\text{ion}]_e$ ) and ionic concentrations for  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  were measured by colorimetric assay (Zall *et al.*,

1956) and by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (model AA-1275, Varian, Springvale, Australia) respectively. "Hot" net fluxes were determined by subtraction of unidirectional efflux from unidirectional influx ( $J_{\text{ion}}^{\text{ms}} - J_{\text{ion}}^{\text{sm}}$ ), measured by the use of  $^{22}\text{Na}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ . Radioactivities of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  were determined by counting on a Rackbeta 1217 liquid scintillation counter (LKB, Wallac, Turku, Finland), and  $^{22}\text{Na}$  radioactivity was counted on Minaxi Autogamma 5000 counter (Packard Instrument Co., Downers Grove, IL).  $^{22}\text{Na}$  emits both gamma and beta radiation, therefore scintillation counts collected from a  $^{22}\text{Na}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  dual flux experiment were from both  $^{22}\text{Na}$  and  $^{36}\text{Cl}$ .  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  counts were determined by a count subtraction procedure. This was accomplished by measuring the CPM of a known concentration of  $^{22}\text{Na}$  in both the scintillation and gamma counters and then determining the relative efficiency of the two counters for detecting  $^{22}\text{Na}$ . The CPM from the gamma counter was then multiplied by this ratio and subtracted from the CPM of the scintillation counter to yield the beta emission of  $^{36}\text{Cl}$  only.

### Flux equations

Specific activity was determined by:

$$\frac{\Sigma(\text{hot chamber CPM for all samples in period})}{(\#\text{hot samples in period}) \times (\text{hot sample volume (ml)}) \times ([\text{ion}] \text{ hot side (mM)})}$$

Unidirectional flux was determined by:

$$\frac{\{[\text{cCPM}' \times (\text{cold vol. (ml)} / \text{cold sam. vol. (ml)})] - \text{cCPM}[(\text{cold vol. (ml)} - \text{cold sam. vol. (ml)} / \text{cold sam. vol. (ml)})]\}}{(\text{time of sampling period (min)}) \times (\text{specific activity for period (CPM}/\mu\text{mol)}) \times (\text{aperture area (cm}^2\text{)})}$$

The above equation is multiplied by 60 min./hr to obtain a flux rate in  $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ . CPM is counts per minute (cCPM' = latest cold sample; cCPM = previous sample). Cold vol. represents the chamber volume where the appearance of isotope is being

monitored. Cold and hot sam. vol. denotes samples periodically taken from cold and hot chambers respectively.

### **Ohm's law**

Ohm's law was used to calculate the transepithelial potential ( $V_t$ ), transepithelial resistance ( $R_t$ ), conductance ( $G_t = R_t^{-1}$ ) or membrane current ( $I_m$ ) when two of the three variables were known. Ohm's law is as follows:

$$V_t = R_t \times I_m.$$

### **Activity measurements**

Ionic activity of a given ion is referred to as the concentration of ion available to the membrane for transport and not bound to another molecule (ie protein) or precipitated out of solution. The ionic activities of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in Cortland's saline and  $\text{Na}^+$  in 10% SW were taken from measurements with microelectrodes filled with the appropriate ionophore (Steiner et al., 1979), while  $\text{Cl}^-$  was predicted to have the same relative activity (on a % basis) as  $\text{Na}^+$  from theory for solutions of these ionic strengths (Lee, 1981). The FW and artificial urine ionic activities of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  were taken as equal to their measured concentrations because the activity coefficients of these ions are close to one at these lower concentrations.

For  $\text{Na}^+$  activity measurements, the electrodes were back-filled using 100 mM NaCl and then front-filled with the  $\text{Na}^+$  ionophore (Sodium Ionophore 11-Cocktail A, 71178, Fluka Chemical). The electrodes were calibrated using three different concentrations of solutions (0.1 mM, 1.0 mM and 10.0 mM NaCl).

For  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  activity measurements, the electrodes were back-filled using 100 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and then front-filled with the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ionophore (Calcium Ionophore I- Cocktail A, 21048, Fluka Chemical). The electrodes were calibrated using three different concentrations of solutions (0.1 mM, 1.0 mM and 10.0 mM NaCl).

### Ussing flux ratio criterion

The observed flux ratio ( $J^{\text{ms}}/J^{\text{sm}}$ ) was compared to the predicted flux ratio using the Ussing flux ratio equation (Ussing, 1949). Disagreement between the observed and predicted value indicated the presence of non-diffusive transport. The predicted flux ratio equation was as follows:

$$J_i^{\text{ms}}/J_i^{\text{sm}} = (a_i^{\text{m}}/a_i^{\text{s}})e^{(z_i F V_t / RT)}$$

The activities of ion  $i$  are  $a_i^{\text{s}}$  and  $a_i^{\text{m}}$  on the serosal and mucosal sides respectively; valency of the ion is  $z_i$ ,  $V_t$  is the transepithelial potential and  $F$ ,  $R$  and  $T$  have their usual thermodynamic meanings.

### Opercular epithelia dissection

The fish were killed by pithing and the opercular epithelia were immediately dissected carefully from its underlying opercular bone. The fish head was halved using bone-cutting scissors (Fine Science Tools, Vancouver, BC) and each half was gently stretched and pinned down. Pins (Grand and Toy, Toronto, ON) were inserted between the second and third brachio-stegal rays and through the ocular cavity. This way the preparation was held steady as the membrane was carefully teased off the opercular bone. Prior to dissection, mucus was removed from the surface of the opercular epithelium by

carefully pinching and then moving the mucus with the forceps over the surface of the membrane. The mucus was rather viscous and would collect quite readily. A scalpel was used to separate the membrane between the first and second branchio-stegal rays and also along the dorsal-anterior portion of the opercular bone. The first incision of the scalpel cut the pectoral fin muscle thereby enabling the use of ophthalmic forceps (Fine Science Tools, Vancouver, BC ) to hold onto the edge of the opercular epithelium throughout the dissection. As the membrane was gently teased from the opercular bone using #5 biologic forceps (Fine Science Tools, Vancouver, BC), the portion already removed was being held by the ophthalmic forceps. The opercular epithelium was removed in a ventral-anterior to a dorsal-posterior direction and each would yield an approximate area of 1-2 cm<sup>2</sup>. Throughout the dissection the preparation was kept moist by the addition of saline.

The Ussing membrane adaptors were prepared with stopcock grease (Dow Corning, Midland, MI) and a thin vinyl mesh was placed over each aperture's opening to support the tissue. The opercular epithelium was carefully pinned down to the adaptor mucosal side up and the second half of the adaptor then 'sandwiched' the epithelium. After mounting, the mucosal surfaces were rinsed with fresh water to remove the saline and any mucus that had accumulated during the dissection. The adaptor 'sandwich' was then placed between the two hemi-chambers and tightened into place.

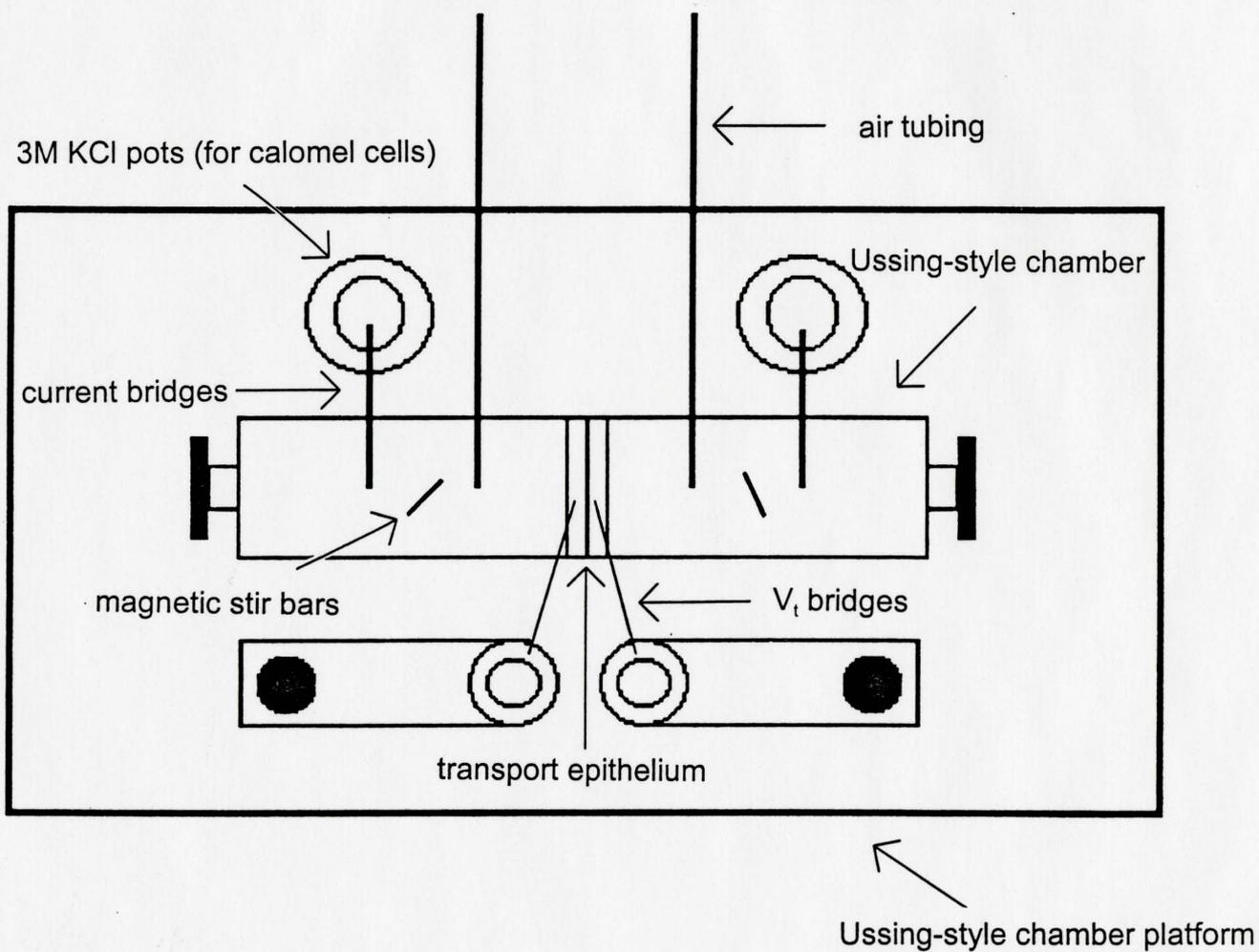
### **Urinary bladder dissection**

The fish were anaesthetized using 0.1 g MS-222/l FW and the gills were irrigated externally with this solution on an operating table. Prior to insertion of the catheter the

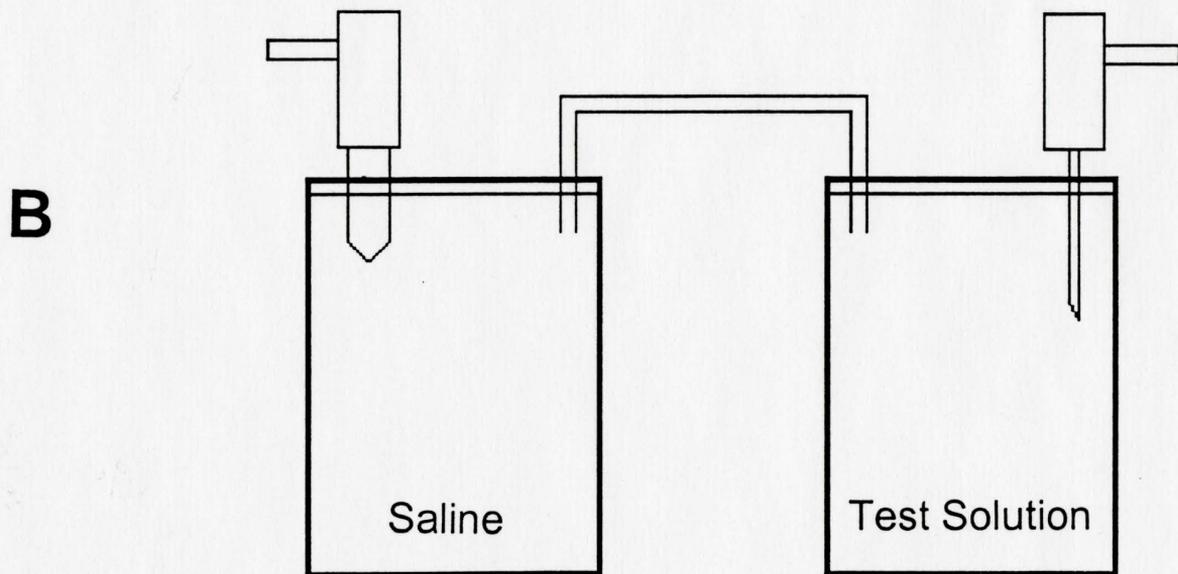
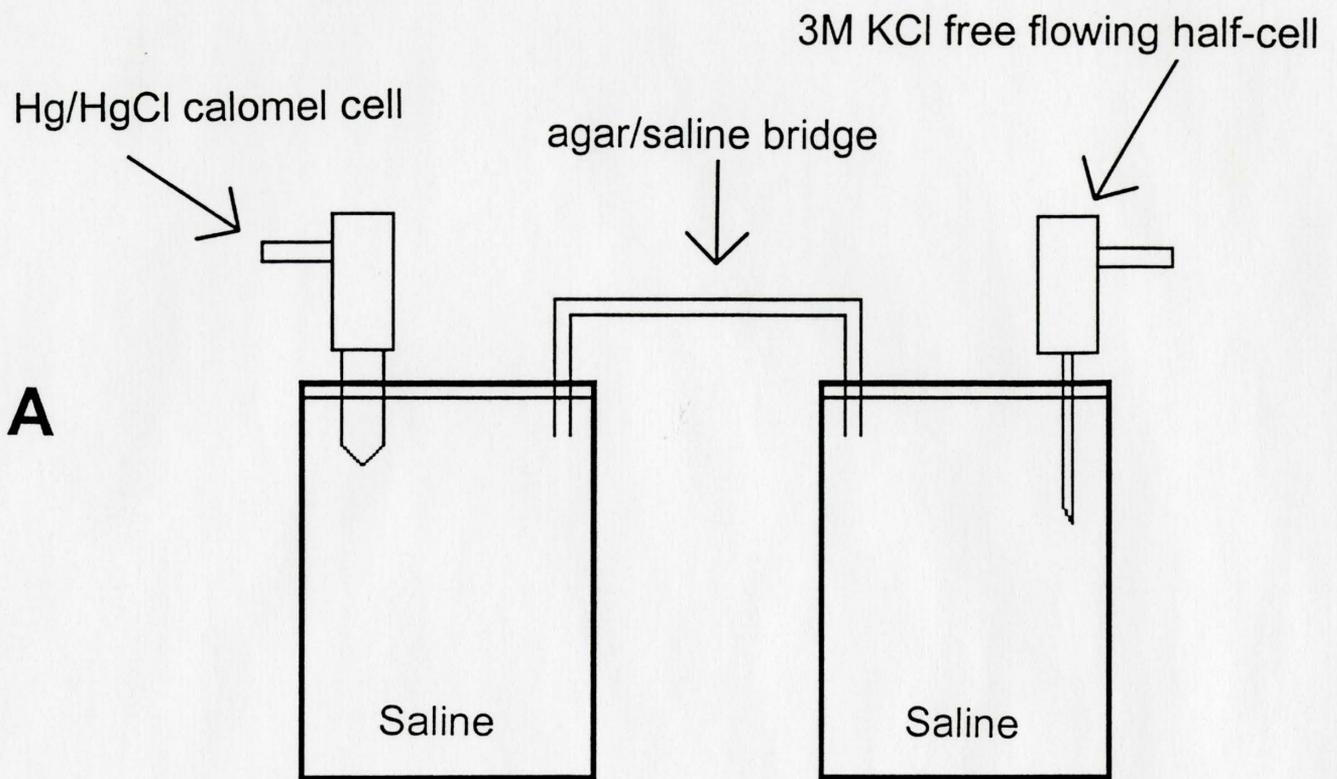
urinary papilla was dilated with a blunt probe. To ensure that the catheter would not catch the luminal border of the urinary bladder once inserted, a flanged PE-tubing (made by heating the tip and pressing it onto a hard surface) was inserted into the bladder and tied to the urinary papilla. The flanged PE-60 was connected to a 21 gauge needle and 1 cc syringe filled with Cortland's saline. The PE-tubing was also marked in 1 cm increments for reference points. To ensure the catheter passed the two sphincters located posterior to the urinary bladder and not the gonadal duct, the PE-tubing was initially inserted in a downward (vertical) direction. The bladder was also filled with Ringer's (~0.25 ml) to aid in differentiation of its structure from the peritoneum during dissection. A longitudinal cut beginning at the anal opening ended just below the pectoral fins. The large intestine and air bladder were removed, exposing the urinary bladder. Both ureters just anterior to the urinary bladder were ligated with surgical thread and the urinary bladder was separated from surrounding tissues. Connective tissue around the bladder was carefully teased away using blunt forceps working in a posterior direction towards the end of the body cavity without causing damage to the urinary bladder; at this point surgical thread was used to tie the bladder. Following careful removal of remaining fat and connective tissue under the dissecting microscope, the bladder was cut into equal anterior and posterior portions and then both portions were opened by a longitudinal cut with extra fine scissors (Fine Science Tools, North Vancouver, BC). Each portion of the bladder yielded an approximate area of 1-2 cm<sup>2</sup>. Throughout the dissection, the preparation was kept moist by the addition of saline. Using a dissection scope, the bladder epithelia were pinned mucosal side up to an adaptor. This adaptor eventually

formed a 'sandwich' with another adaptor and was placed between two hemi-chambers and tightened into place.

**Figure A.1** A schematic representation of the Ussing-style chamber (view from above).



**Figure A.2 Procedure used in the determination of junction potential corrections. A. Agar/saline bridge is initially zeroed in symmetrical saline. B. The tip of the 3M KCl free flowing half-cell is submerged in the test solution (e.g. freshwater or artificial urine) along with the tip of the saline/agar bridge. The junction potential is then observed on the voltmeter.**



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