Acceleration of Plasma Bicarbonate Conversion to Carbon Dioxide by Pulmonary Carbonic Anhydrase

Abstract. In isolated rabbit lungs perfused with solutions containing little or no carbonic anhydrase activity, nearly complete equilibration between $H^{14}CO_3^-$ and $^{14}CO_2$ occurs during a single circulation. This equilibration can be inhibited by block-ing pulmonary carbonic anhydrase with acetazolamide.

Much of the carbon dioxide produced by the tissues of the body is buffered by the blood and delivered to the lungs in the form of plasma bicarbonate. Reconversion of bicarbonate to carbon dioxide in the pulmonary capillaries is accelerated by carbonic anhydrase (E.C. 4.2.1.1), an enzyme which is present within red cells but not plasma (1). Recent reports indicate that although the carbonic anhydrase promotes rapid formation of carbon dioxide from bicarbonate entering red cells, the absence of enzyme in the plasma is responsible for a slow decline in plasma hydrogen ion concentration which may require 20 seconds to reach 90 percent of completion (2, 3). It has been suggested that equilibrium is never reached in the body and that values of P_{CO_2} , pH, HCO₃⁻, and P_{O_2} obtained in collected blood may be misleading (2-4). The present study indicates that release of carbon dioxide from plasma bicarbonate stores is accelerated by pulmonary tissue carbonic anhydrase in a manner which may diminish the suggested disequilibrium.

Five White New Zealand rabbits (weighing 2 to 3 kg) were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (90 to 120 mg), ventilated, heparinized, and exsanguinated. Catheters were placed in the pulmonary artery and vein and the lungs were mounted in a box at 37°C. The lungs were ventilated 15 times per minute with 5 percent CO_2 in air at an inspiratory pressure of 10 cm-H₂O and an end-expiratory pressure of 4 cm-H₂O. The first four lungs were perfused at a rate of 4 ml/sec with a solution which contained in each liter: 50 g of bovine serum albumin (fraction V, 96 to 99 percent pure, Sigma), 140 meq of Na⁺, 2.5 mmole of Ca2+, 1.8 mmole of Mg2+, 120 meq of Cl⁻, and 30 meq of HCO₃⁻. The solution was adjusted to pH 7.4. By means of the radioactive bicarbonate procedure of Hodgen and Falk (5), it was possible to show that the carbonic anhydrase activity of this solution was less than a 5 \times 10⁴ dilution of rabbit red cells. The amount of enzyme in this concentration of red cells should not accelerate the uncatalyzed conversion of H¹⁴CO₃ to $^{14}CO_2$ by more than 30 percent (1). During the 1-second transit time through the pulmonary capillaries (6) less than 1 per-

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cent of HCO3⁻ entering the capillaries (and a similar fraction of H14CO3-) would be converted to CO₂ by this amount of enzyme. Enzyme concentration in the pulmonary venous outflow was also less than a 5 \times 10⁴ dilution of rabbit red cells. To be certain that enzyme activity within the perfusion fluid was not confused with tissue activity, we used a protein-free solution in the fifth study: each liter of solution contained 50 grams of polyvinylpyrrolidinone (molecular weight, 40,000, Matheson, Coleman and Bell), 1 g of glucose, 25 mmole of tris buffer, 140 meq of Na⁺, 4 meq of K⁺, 0.1 mmole of Ca²⁺, 0.1 mmole of Mg²⁺, 110 meg of Cl-, and 30 meq of HCO3- adjusted to pH 7.4.

The lungs were initially flushed with several hundred milliliters of perfusion fluid to diminish their red cell content. Recirculation of fluid to the lung was permitted only after carbonic anhydrase had been inhibited.

The experiment was conducted by simultaneously injecting 0.6 ml of acidified perfusion solution (pH 4.0) and 0.6 ml of dilute NaOH (adjusted so that the mixture would yield a pH of 7.4) within 1 second through a small Y-tube into the pulmonary artery line. The mixing of these solutions and the perfusion fluid was encouraged by a short irregular tube in the arterial line designed to promote turbulence. The delay required for arrival of the injected material at the pulmonary artery averaged 0.5 second. The NaH¹⁴CO₃⁻ (10 μ c/ml) was anaerobically incorporated in either the acid solution

Table 1. Extravascular distribution (*r*) and recovery (*R*) of ¹⁴CO₂ and H¹⁴CO₃⁻. Means and standard errors of the mean are provided. The control and acetazolamide studies were performed in each of five lungs. Paired *t*-tests showed that the *r* values obtained for each condition differed from one another at the P < .001 level. The recovery of ¹⁴CO₂ with acetazolamide was significantly less at the P < .001 level than recovery of ¹⁴C under each of the other conditions.

Condition	r	R
Control		
¹⁴ CO ₂	$1.16 \pm .10$	$0.99 \pm .02$
H ¹⁴ CO ₃ ⁻	$0.92 \pm .11$	$0.97 \pm .01$
Acetazolamide		
¹⁴ CO ₂	$2.28 \pm .28$	$0.78 \pm .03$
H ¹⁴ CO ₃ ⁻	$0.18 \pm .06$	$0.97 \pm .04$

(yielding ¹⁴CO₂) or the alkaline solution (yielding $H^{14}CO_3^{-}$) during preparation at least 30 minutes prior to the study. Tritiated water (10 μ c/ml; used to estimate the transit time of water molecules) was added with the H14CO3⁻, and 125I-labeled albumin (2 μ c/ml; a vascular indicator) was always placed in the acid injection solution of each study in order to avoid denaturation by the alkali. In the last study and three additional control studies, ²²Na⁺ was used as the vascular indicator to ensure that there was no chance of introducing carbonic anhydrase activity. Previous studies have shown that the mean transit time of ²²Na⁺ is similar to that of ¹²⁵I-labeled albumin (7).

Fluid was pumped from the outflow into a series of 40 glass syringes at 0.5- to 1.5-second intervals depending upon the flow rate through the lung. The mean transit time between the lung and syringes was 1.9 seconds. A custom-made anaerobic collector was used for this purpose (Altex). Portions of sample fluid (0.1 ml) were diluted in 1 ml of 0.1M tris buffer and mixed with 10 ml of Aquasol (New England Nuclear) in scintillation vials. The vials were than counted in gamma and beta counters. Crossover corrections of counts were calculated and indicator concentrations divided by the dose of each in the injection bolus, yielding fractional concentrations. Fractional concentrations were plotted on a logarithmic coordinate against time and extrapolated as indicated in Fig. 1, which shows a typical study. The relative recoveries (R) of ${}^{14}CO_2$ and $H^{14}CO_3^{-}$ were calculated from the ratio of the areas under the respective curves divided by that under the ³H₂O curve rather than that of ¹²⁵I-labeled albumin, because the former was always incorporated with the solution containing the 14C-labeled compound. Mean transit times (t) were calculated as indicated elsewhere (8). The ratio $r = (\bar{t}_{14_{\rm C}} - \bar{t}_{125_{\rm I}})/(\bar{t}_{3_{\rm H_2O}} - \bar{t}_{125_{\rm I}})$ was used to predict the distribution of ¹⁴C and ³H₂O that would prevail if the lung were perfused at a constant rate with these two indicators: $r = m_{14_{\rm C}}/(am_{3_{\rm H_2O}})$, where $m_{14_{\rm C}}$ and $m_{3_{\rm H_{20}}}$ represent the total activity of these indicators in the extravascular space of the lung at steady state and a is the ratio of activity of ¹⁴C to activity of ³H₂O in each milliliter of the perfusion fluid (9). Slow entry of ¹⁴C into the tissue would decrease values of \bar{t}_{14_c} calculated from single passage data, and the values calculated for r would underestimate the steady-state distribution of ¹⁴C in the tissue. In those studies in which ²²Na⁺ was used, \bar{t}_{125_1} was calculated on the basis of the previous observation that the extra-

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vascular volume of ${}^{22}Na^+$ averages 12 percent that of ${}^{3}H_2O$ in a single circulation (7).

As shown in Fig. 1A and Table 1, injections of ¹⁴CO₂ and H¹⁴CO₃⁻ in the control studies yielded rather similar indicator dilution curves which are also similar to those of ³H₂O. Nevertheless the mean transit times of ¹⁴CO₂ were consistently somewhat greater than those of H¹⁴CO₃⁻. This indicates that the apparent volume of distribution available to ¹⁴CO₂ was larger than that accessible to H¹⁴CO₃⁻. This is more precisely indicated by values of r for ${}^{14}CO_2$ which in each study exceeded those of H14CO3by an average of 29 percent. The inequality of r values indicates that complete equilibration was not attained between the two forms of CO₂ during transit through the lungs. However, when carbonic anhydrase was inhibited with acetazolamide (20 mg per liter of perfusion solution) the differences between the $H^{14}CO_3$ and $^{14}CO_2$ curves and r values became much more marked (Fig. 1B and Table 1). The ${\rm ^{14}CO_2}$ curve became considerably prolonged compared to that of water, whereas the H¹⁴CO₃⁻ curve much more closely resembled that of the vascular indicator. After enzyme inhibition, ¹⁴CO₂ had access to a volume which exceeded that of ³H₂O and presumably included alveolar gas. Indeed, 14CO2 loss appeared to increase after administration of acetazolamide. Under the same conditions, H¹⁴CO₃⁻ was confined to a very small extravascular compartment, only slightly larger than the volume accessible to ¹²⁵I-labeled albumin. In the acetazolamide studies (Fig. 1B), the extravascular volume available to ¹⁴CO₂ ranged from 5



Fig. 1. (A) Control studies. The solid line in each graph represents the ¹⁴C-labeled compound. Although the curves are somewhat similar, the downslope of ¹⁴CO₂ follows, whereas that of H¹⁴CO₃⁻ precedes, the downslope of ³H₂O. There was no recirculation in these studies but some scatter occurred in the data for ¹²⁵I-labeled albumin at very low activities. (B) Acetazolamide studies. The peak of the ¹⁴CO₃⁻ exceeds that of ³H₂O and the downslope is prolonged. In contrast, the peak of H¹⁴CO₃⁻ exceeds that of ³H₂O and the curve resembles that of ¹²⁵I-labeled albumin. Recirculation is evident in this study but is attenuated by the large amount of perfusion fluid. Choice of alternative downslopes had little effect on calculated *r* and *R* values. Recirculation during the collection interval was eliminated in subsequent studies.

to 70 times as great as that available to $H^{14}CO_3^{-}$.

Since carbonic anhydrase activity of the perfusion fluid was either negligible or absent and since none was added to the pulmonary outflow, the observed enzvme activity was presumably associated with the lung itself. It is improbable that the enzyme activity was attributable to trapped intact red cells since the present studies indicate that enzyme is accessible to most of the exchange surface (10). It would be necessary for red cells to remain in the majority of capillaries even after the blood volume of the lung had been washed out with approximately 50 times as much perfusion fluid. In addition, the trapped red cells would have to be accessible to the perfusion fluid without obstructing its flow. Microscopic examination of these lungs revealed only occasional red cells.

Convincing evidence has been obtained that the pulmonary parenchyma contains carbonic anhydrase, but the location and function of the enzyme remain uncertain (11). Chinard et al. (12) and Feisal et al. (13) showed that there is at least some equilibration between HCO_3^- and CO_2 in the lungs of anesthetized dogs, but this could represent the action of red cell carbonic anhydrase. The present study indicates that in the absence of red cells, HCO₃⁻ reaching the lung is rapidly converted into CO₂ which readily diffuses into the tissue. When the enzyme is inhibited, HCO₃⁻, like Na⁺, Cl⁻, and other ions, remains confined to a volume only slightly greater than that of albumin during the 1-second transit time through the pulmonary capillaries (6, 14). The observation that ionic indicators do not have access to a large portion of the extravascular water of the lung during a single transit suggests that they remain largely extracellular during this brief interval. Conversion of HCO3to CO₂ may therefore reflect extracellular enzyme activity, perhaps because of carbonic anhydrase bound to cellular membranes. If the reaction is extracellular, hydrogen ions in the plasma will be rapidly consumed and plasma pH will promptly stabilize. Tissue carbonic anhydrase activity may therefore serve to diminish the slow changes in pH which have been documented in red cell suspensions by Forster and Crandall (3).

Fain and Rosen (15) have recently reported the presence of carbonic anhydrase in the pulmonary endothelium of frogs, toads, and turtles, but the specificity of the histochemical procedures has been challenged (16) and the accessibility of enzyme to plasma HCO_3^- could not be determined. The pulmonary endo-SCIENCE, VOL. 199

thelium has been implicated in the rapid uptake and degradation of a variety of metabolites, and angiotensin-converting enzyme has been found in vesicles lining the plasma surface of the endothelium (17). It is possible that carbonic anhydrase is also associated with the plasma surface of the endothelial cells. The presence of additional enzyme within the cells or interstitium is suggested by the finding that ¹⁴CO₂ tends to be lost following enzyme inhibition. Presumably, once ¹⁴CO₂ has entered the tissue, enzyme inhibition hinders equilibration with tissue HCO₃⁻ and the gas escapes into the alveoli.

The relatively small differences found between the ¹⁴CO₂ and H¹⁴CO₃⁻ curves under control conditions appear to be due in part to failure of some of the perfusion fluid to be adequately exposed to tissue carbonic anhydrase. Evidence for this was obtained in three additional studies in which bovine erythrocyte carbonic anhydrase (5 mg/100 ml, 4000 Wilbur-Anderson units per milligram; Sigma) was added to the perfusion fluid after the control runs. This served to reduce r value differences by 22 to 73 percent. Residual differences after addition of enzyme may be related to incomplete mixing of the injection solutions. A simple model calculation suggests that no less than 86 percent of the plasma flow through the pulmonary vasculature has access to carbonic anhydrase (18).

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- 10. If exposure of the ¹⁴C-labeled compound to car-
- bonic anhydrase only occurred before it arrived at the capillaries, 95 percent would be in the form of HCO_3^- at the exchange site and the con-trol curves would resemble those of HCO_3^- after the administration of acetazolamide. Exposure

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to enzyme beyond the exchange surface (in the pulmonary veins) would have no effect on tissue distribution.

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 Both ²²Na⁺ and ³⁸Cl⁻ have access to a small portion of the extravascular volume accessible to
- from of the extravacular volume accessible to ${}^{3}\text{H}_{2}\text{O}$ during a single transit through the lung: $r_{22_{Na}+}$ 0.10 ± .02 (standard error of the mean)

and $r_{36_{Cl}}$ 0.11 ± .02 in a series of five runs in five lungs in which both isotopes were incorpo-

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 It was assumed that a fraction of the capillaries
- have no carbonic anhydrase and therefore have r values for ¹⁴CO₂ and H¹⁴CO₃⁻ corresponding to these r values after the administration of acetacolumber values and the administration of accuracy solamide. The remainder of capillaries have rvalues equal to the average of control values for ¹⁴CO₂ and H¹⁴CO₃⁻.
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Inherited Medullary Thyroid Carcinoma: A Final Monoclonal Mutation in One of Multiple Clones of Susceptible Cells

Abstract. Inherited medullary thyroid carcinomas contain one form of glucose-6phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) in black female patients who are mosaic in normal tissues for G6PD types A and B. The same individual may have several tumors each containing either G6PD A or G6PD B. The data suggest that the inherited defect is an initial mutation producing multiple clones of defective cells; each tumor then arises as a final mutation in one clone of these cells.

Recently we reported that medullary thyroid carcinoma and pheochromocytoma tissue obtained from a black female patient heterozygous for glucose-6-phosphate dehvdrogenase (E.C. 1.1.1.49; G6PD) forms A and B contained only the B form of the enzyme (1). These data gave biochemical evidence that the final mutation in formation of these inherited tumors was a clonal event. In Knudson's theory of genetic tumor formation (2) at least two mutational events must occur; the first mutation is the inherited defect which renders the involved cells susceptible to neoplastic change. The second event is a somatic mutational change which completes tumor formation. Our above data for G6PD types define only the nature of the final mutational event for inherited medullary thyroid carcinoma. In the present report, we give biochemical evidence that the initial inherited mutation in this disease produces multiple clones of cells susceptible to neoplastic change; each tumor formed is then the result of one or more mutational changes in one clone of the susceptible cells.

To continue our studies of the A and B forms of G6PD in black female patients with inherited medullary thyroid carcinoma we have used electrophoresis as in (1) according to the method of Ellis and Alperin (3) with the following modifications. The normal and tumor tissues were homogenized in 0.1M tris-HCl buffer (pH .8) containing 2 mM NADP (4) and centrifuged at 4°C, 2000 rev/min; the supernatant was centrifuged again. The final clear supernatant gave discrete bands of G6PD types A and B with a minimum of trailing during electrophoresis. Tissues obtained at surgery were either used immediately or stored at -70° C for no longer than 1 month.

Four patients have now been studied for the clonal origin of inherited medullary thyroid carcinoma. The first patient was described previously (1) and the three others are from another black kindred. In patients 1, 2, and 3 (Fig. 1), the normal tissues studied (red blood cells in all patients and thyroid in two) contained equal amounts of both forms of G6PD while all the tumor tissues sampled contained either the A or B G6PD. In two of these three patients, only one thyroid tumor was available for study while patient 3 had small lesions in both lobes of the thyroid gland. In each case, the entire available tumor tissue was used for the analysis of G6PD forms. The data confirm our earlier suggestion that the final mutation in the formation of inherited medullary thyroid carcinoma occurs as a clonal event (1).

In patient 4 (Fig. 2), larger amounts of tumor tissue from both sides of the thyroid gland were available for study. This patient was also important because studies of her red cells (Fig. 2) indicated an unequal heterozygosity for the A and B forms of G6PD, with a predominance of the B form. This type of the hetero-

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