



Phloretin differentially inhibits volume-sensitive and cyclic AMP-activated, but not Ca-activated, Cl[−] channels

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1 Some phenol derivatives are known to block volume-sensitive Cl[−] channels. However, effects on the channel of the bisphenol phloretin, which is a known blocker of glucose uniport and anion antiport, have not been examined. In the present study, we investigated the effects of phloretin on volume-sensitive Cl[−] channels in comparison with cyclic AMP-activated CFTR Cl[−] channels and Ca²⁺-activated Cl[−] channels using the whole-cell patch-clamp technique.

2 Extracellular application of phloretin (over 10 μM) voltage-independently, and in a concentration-dependent manner (IC₅₀ ~ 30 μM), inhibited the Cl[−] current activated by a hypotonic challenge in human epithelial T84, Intestine 407 cells and mouse mammary C127/CFTR cells.

3 In contrast, at 30 μM phloretin failed to inhibit cyclic AMP-activated Cl[−] currents in T84 and C127/CFTR cells. Higher concentrations (over 100 μM) of phloretin, however, partially inhibited the CFTR Cl[−] currents in a voltage-dependent manner.

4 At 30 and 300 μM, phloretin showed no inhibitory effect on Ca²⁺-dependent Cl[−] currents induced by ionomycin in T84 cells.

5 It is concluded that phloretin preferentially blocks volume-sensitive Cl[−] channels at low concentrations (below 100 μM) and also inhibits cyclic AMP-activated Cl[−] channels at higher concentrations, whereas phloretin does not inhibit Ca²⁺-activated Cl[−] channels in epithelial cells.

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Abbreviations: AQP, aquaporin; CFTR, cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator; dbcAMP, N⁶,2'-O-dibutyryl-adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate; DIDS, dihydro-4,4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; EDTA, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; EGTA, ethylene glycol-bis(β-aminoethylether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid; HEPES, N-(hydroxyethyl)piperazine-N'-(2-ethanesulphonic acid); IBMX, 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine; NMDG, N-methyl-D-glucamine; RVD, regulatory volume decrease; SITS, 4-acetamido-4'-isothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulphonic acid; TRIS, tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane

Introduction

Cell volume regulation is of fundamental importance to mammalian cells under anisotonic conditions, in maintaining cell structural integrity and a variety of other cellular functions (see Lang, 1998; Okada, 1998). In response to a hypotonic challenge, cells swell and then gradually recover their original volume. This process, known as regulatory volume decrease (RVD), involves the efflux of K⁺ and Cl[−] as well as organic solutes including some amino acids (Strange *et al.*, 1996; Okada, 1997). As intracellular solutes are lost, water egress follows passively according to the osmotic gradient across the cell membrane. Different pathways have been known to be involved in the volume-regulatory efflux of KCl in different cell types (Hoffmann & Simonsen, 1989; Okada,

1997). Over the past 10 years a volume-sensitive Cl[−] channel, thought to be the principal anion channel involved in RVD, has been extensively studied, and its electrophysiological characteristics (such as outward rectification and voltage-dependent inactivation), thoroughly described (Strange *et al.*, 1996; Nilius *et al.*, 1997; Okada, 1997). However, its molecular identity and activation mechanism remain unclear (Okada, 1997; Okada *et al.*, 1998), although the ClC-3 gene of the ClC family of Cl[−] channels was reported to encode a type of swelling-activated Cl[−] channel (Duan *et al.*, 1997). Cloning of the gene encoding the volume-sensitive Cl[−] channel has been quite difficult, because most cell types express this channel endogenously, thereby hindering the expression cloning. Moreover, overexpression of candidate genes or proteins often upregulates the activity of endogenous anion channels (Voets *et al.*, 1996; Okada, 1997). Therefore, it is very important to search for a highly specific blocker useful for the protein purification.

In epithelial cells, there exist at least three major types of anion channel: volume-sensitive, cyclic AMP-activated and

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Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channels. The cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR), which is the product of the cystic fibrosis gene, is known to be a multifunctional protein that functions not only as a cyclic AMP-activated epithelial Cl⁻ channel but also as a regulator of other channels and transporters (Kunzelmann & Schreiber, 1999; Schwiebert *et al.*, 1999). In cardiac myocytes, activation of CFTR under stimulation of β -adrenergic receptors was reported to be responsible for Cl⁻ efflux during the RVD (Wang *et al.*, 1997). However, it has not been precisely determined which is the main anionic pathway for RVD under physiological conditions in CFTR-expressing epithelial cells, CFTR or the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel. In many cell types, an increase in intracellular free Ca²⁺ has been observed under hypotonic conditions (Hazama & Okada, 1990; McCarty & O'Neil, 1992). Although it is well known that strongly outward-rectifying Cl⁻ currents can be activated by elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration in many cell types to date, little is known about the involvement of the Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channel in RVD. In Cl⁻-secreting epithelial cells both CFTR and Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channels are known to operate in concert for Cl⁻ and fluid secretion, and a Ca²⁺-activated secretory pathway for Cl⁻ was shown to substitute for CFTR in various tissues of cystic fibrosis patients and CFTR-knockout mice (Wagner *et al.*, 1992; Rozmahel *et al.*, 1996). However, it is not known whether volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels are involved in epithelial anion secretion under physiological or pathological conditions. Thus, the discovery of selective blockers would make available pharmacological tools that would significantly enhance the investigation of the function and molecular basis of Cl⁻ channels.

A wide variety of Cl⁻ channel blockers are known to block volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels, but no specific blocker for volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels has been found so far (Nilius *et al.*, 1997; Okada, 1997). Among them, some phenol-derivatives, including gossypol (Gschwentner *et al.*, 1996; Szűcs *et al.*, 1996), 2-aminomethyl-4-t-butyl-6-iodophenol hydrochloride (Simchowicz *et al.*, 1993), niflumic acid or flufenamic acid (see Nilius *et al.*, 1997; Okada, 1997), and nordihydroguaiaretic acid (Doroshenko & Neher, 1992; Fatherazi *et al.*, 1994), were found to be the members of a family of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel blockers (Roy *et al.*, 1998). Also, not only gossypol (Strange *et al.*, 1993; McManus *et al.*, 1994) but also a bisphenol derivative phloretin (Reeves & Cammarata, 1996) were found to block swelling-induced efflux of inositol or myo-inositol. Although there is some debate whether volume-sensitive organic osmolyte transport is mediated by volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels or separate channels (Lambert & Hoffmann, 1994; Morán *et al.*, 1997; Stutzin *et al.*, 1999; Shennan & Thomson, 2000; Stegen *et al.*, 2000), there exists a possibility that phloretin is a potent blocker of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels. Phloretin was shown to have no effect on the Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ conductance in T84 cells at 50 μ M (Worrell & Frizzell, 1991) and on the cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ current in CFTR-expressing *Xenopus* oocytes at 350 μ M (Schreiber *et al.*, 1997). However, whether phloretin inhibits the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel has not been examined.

In the present study, we investigated the effects of phloretin on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels as well as cyclic AMP-activated and Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channels in human colonic

T84 cells, which are known to express these three types of Cl⁻ channels (Worrell *et al.*, 1989; Cliff & Frizzell, 1990; Chang *et al.*, 1992; Merlin *et al.*, 1998), using the whole-cell patch-clamp technique. Since there is the possibility that phloretin exhibits different effects on these channels in different cell types, two additional cell lines were employed: human epithelial Intestine 407 cells, in which properties of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels have been well characterized (Okada, 1997), and mouse mammary C127 cells stably transfected with cDNA for CFTR (C127/CFTR cells), which express not only cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ channels but also volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels (Hazama *et al.*, 2000). Here, phloretin was found to block preferentially volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels at low concentrations. A preliminary account of these results has appeared in abstract form (Fan *et al.*, 1999).

Methods

Cell culture

T84 cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC No. CCL-248, Rockville, MD, U.S.A.) and grown at 37°C in a 25 cm² flask gassed with 95% air and 5% CO₂. The monolayers were cultured in a medium composed of a 95% 1:1 mixture of Ham's F12 medium and Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 2.5 mM L-glutamine and 5% foetal bovine serum, as reported previously (Arreola *et al.*, 1995). For patch-clamp studies, cells on glass slips were provided 1–3 days after plating.

A human epithelial cell line, Intestine 407, was cultured in monolayer in Fischer medium supplemented with 10% newborn calf serum under a 95% air–5% CO₂ atmosphere, as described previously (Kubo & Okada, 1992). Before patch-clamp experiments, the monolayer of cells was isolated to single spherical cells by pipetting and was cultured in suspension with agitation for 15–240 min.

A stable transfectant of the mouse mammary tumour cell line, C127i, with the cDNA for human CFTR (C127/CFTR) was the kind gift of Dr M.J. Welsh (University of Iowa). C127/CFTR cells were cultured in monolayer in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, High Glucose) with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS) and 200 μ g ml⁻¹ geneticin. Single cells were prepared by washing the monolayer with Ca²⁺- and Mg²⁺-free Hanks' balanced salt solution (Ca²⁺-, Mg²⁺-free HBSS) twice then incubating with 0.25% trypsin-EDTA solution, and cultured in suspension with agitation for 10–180 min before use in patch-clamp experiments.

Patch-clamp whole-cell recordings

Whole-cell recordings were performed, as reported previously (Kubo & Okada, 1992; Zhou *et al.*, 1998). Wide-tipped electrodes (around 2 M Ω) were fabricated from borosilicate glass capillaries using a Brown-Flaming Micropipette Puller (Model P-97, Sutter Instrument Co., Novato, CA, U.S.A.). The series resistance (≤ 5 M Ω) was compensated (about 75%) to minimize voltage errors in experiments on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents. A variety of voltage-pulse protocols, using both square-shaped and ramped voltage pulses, were used to examine the Cl⁻ currents. Details of the voltage-pulse protocols are provided in the appropriate figure legends.

Currents were recorded using an Axopatch 200A amplifier (Axon Instruments, Foster, CA, U.S.A.). Current signals were filtered at 0.5–1 kHz using a 4-pole Bessel-filter and digitized at 2–4 kHz. pCLAMP software (version 6.0.2; Axon Instruments) and Origin 5.0 (Microcal Software Inc., Northampton, MA, U.S.A.) were used for command control, data acquisition and analysis. The amplitude of instantaneous current was measured at 2 ms after the step pulse onset. By fitting the time course of inactivation to a double exponential function, the steady-state current was evaluated, and the inactivation kinetics was analysed.

Bath solution was maintained at 37°C in experiments on cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells. All other experiments were carried out at room temperature (23–26°C). Data are given as the mean \pm s.e.mean. Statistical differences of the data were evaluated by Student's *t*-test and were considered significant at *P* < 0.05.

Solutions and chemicals

For experiments on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents, isotonic bath solution (osmolality 330 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹) contained (in mM) CsCl 110, MgSO₄ 5, mannitol 100, HEPES 12, and

TRIS 8 (adjusted to pH 7.4 with H₂SO₄). Hypotonic bath solution (osmolality 270 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹) was prepared by reducing mannitol to 40 mM. In some experiments, the CsCl concentration was reduced to 11 mM by replacing with mannitol. Pipette solution (osmolality 300 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹) contained (in mM) CsCl 110, MgSO₄ 2, EGTA 1, Na₂-ATP 1, mannitol 50, and Na-HEPES 15 (adjusted to pH 7.4 with H₂SO₄). For the experiments on cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents in C127/CFTR cells, the osmolality of isotonic bath solution was adjusted to 310 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹ by reducing mannitol to 80 mM, and the concentrations of Na₂-ATP and mannitol in the pipette solution were changed to 2 mM and 47 mM, respectively.

The solutions employed in experiments on cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells were as those described previously (Cliff & Frizzell, 1990). Bath solution contained (in mM): NaCl 115, *N*-methyl-D-glucamine (NMDG) glutamate 40, potassium glutamate 5, MgCl₂ 2, CaCl₂ 1, and HEPES/NaOH 5 (pH 7.3, osmolality 330 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹). Pipette solution (osmolality 300 mosmol kg⁻¹ H₂O⁻¹) contained (in mM): KCl 115, NMDG glutamate 25, EGTA 0.5, CaCl₂ 0.19, MgCl₂ 2, Na₂ATP 2, Na₃GTP 0.05, and HEPES/KOH 5 (pH 7.3). Na⁺- and K⁺-free

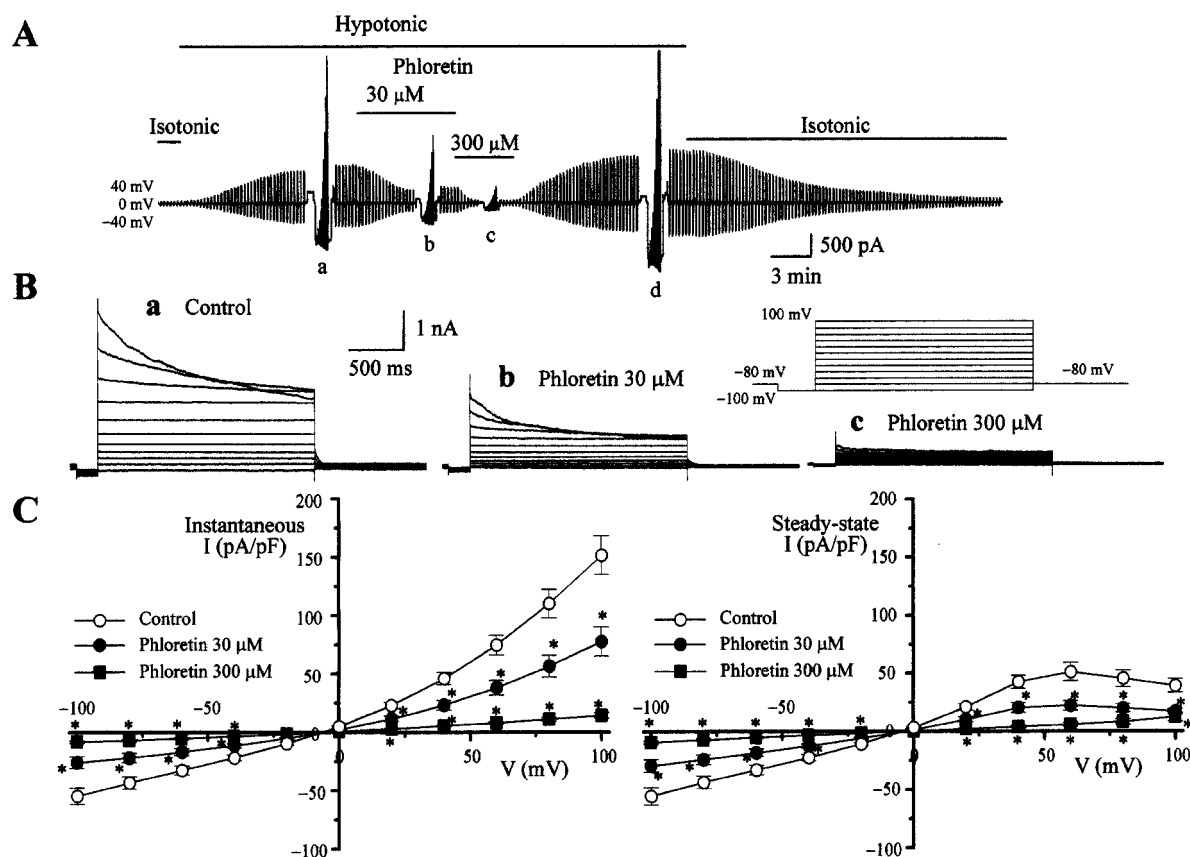


Figure 1 Effects of extracellular phloretin on volume-sensitive whole-cell Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells. (A) typical record before and after osmotic cell swelling in the absence or presence of phloretin at different concentrations (indicated by horizontal lines) in bath solution during application of alternating pulses (2-s duration, every 15 s) from 0 mV to ± 40 mV or of step pulses (2-s duration) from a pre-potential at -100 mV (0.2-s duration) to test potentials of -100 mV to $+100$ mV in 20-mV increments (at a, b, c & d). (B) expanded traces of current responses (a, b & c in A) to step pulses in the absence (a) or presence of phloretin at 30 μ M (b) or 300 μ M (c). Inset: the step pulse protocol. (C) The instantaneous (left) and steady-state (right) current-voltage relationships of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in the absence (control) or presence of phloretin at 30 μ M or 300 μ M. Each symbol represents the mean current (with the s.e.mean: vertical bars) of 8 to 12 experiments. *Significantly different from control values.

solutions containing NMDG⁺ were prepared by replacing NaCl and KCl with NMDG-Cl in the above bath and pipette solutions, respectively, and were used for the experiments on Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells. In some experiments, a part of the Cl⁻ content was replaced with glutamate to change the equilibrium potential for Cl⁻ ions and details are provided in the Results section.

The composition of Ca²⁺-, Mg²⁺-free HBSS was (in mM): KCl 5.36, KH₂PO₄ 0.441, NaCl 136.7, NaHCO₃ 4.17, Na₂HPO₄ 0.385, and D-glucose 5.55 (pH 7.3). Trypsin-EDTA solution was: 113 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.69 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.2% EDTA, and 0.25% trypsin (pH 7.3).

Forskolin, N⁶,2'-O-dibutyryl-adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate sodium salt (dbcAMP) and calphostin C were obtained from Wako Chemicals (Osaka, Japan), and other chemicals were from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). Stock solutions of phloretin, calphostin C and 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX) in dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) and those of forskolin, ionomycin and phloridzin in ethanol were diluted to the desired final concentrations just before use. The concentration of DMSO or ethanol never exceeded 0.1% and had no effect on whole-cell currents.

Results

Effects of phloretin and phloridzin on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents

Basal whole-cell currents recorded in T84 cells under isotonic conditions were extremely small and never affected by extracellular application of phloretin (data not shown, *n*=4). Upon exposure to 82% hypotonic bath solution, activation of outwardly rectifying currents (Figure 1A) that exhibited time-dependent inactivation at large positive potentials (Figure 1B), was observed in T84 cells, as reported originally by Worrell *et al.* (1989). When the bath Cl⁻ concentration was reduced from 110 mM to 11 mM, the reversal potential (*E*_{rev}) was shifted by 41.4 ± 3.6 mV (*n*=4), confirming that these currents were largely anion-selective. The volume-sensitive Cl⁻ current was markedly suppressed by 30 μ M phloretin and almost completely by 300 μ M phloretin (Figure 1A). The effect of phloretin was rapid in onset and reversible. The current-voltage (*I*-*V*) curves for instantaneous (left panel) and steady-state currents (right panel) are shown in Figure 1C. There was no obvious voltage dependence of the inhibitory effect of phloretin over the entire voltage range examined.

The time course of inactivation of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents observed upon large depolarization could be fitted by a double exponential function in T84 cells (Figure 2A), as reported previously (Levitan & Garber, 1995). Neither the fast (τ_f) nor slow time constant (τ_s) was significantly affected by 30 μ M phloretin (Figure 2B).

The inhibitory effect of phloretin was further investigated in Intestine 407 cells, which lack CFTR mRNA (Hazama *et al.*, 1998) and a Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ conductance (Hazama & Okada, 1988; Tilly *et al.*, 1994). Extracellular phloretin similarly suppressed the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ current in Intestine 407 cells in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 3A). As observed in T84 cells, inactivation kinetics at large positive potentials were not affected by phloretin

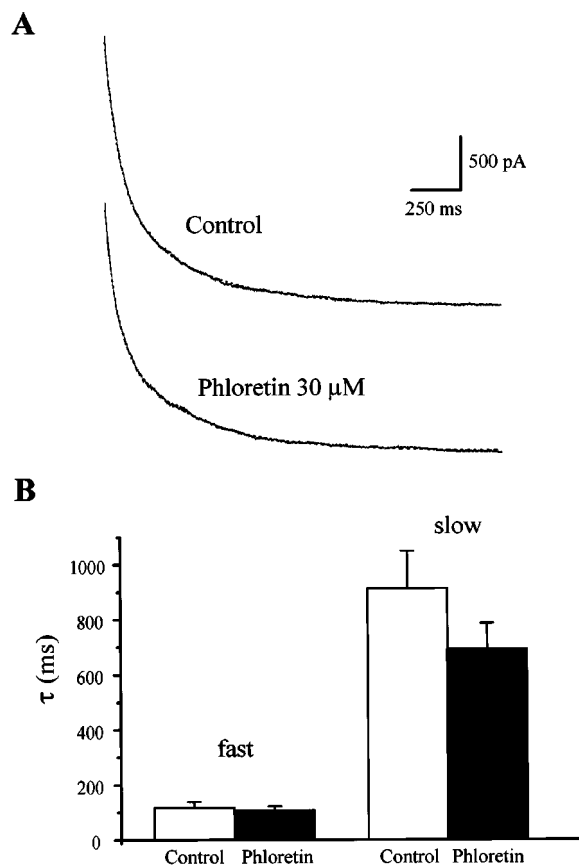


Figure 2 Effects of phloretin on depolarization-induced inactivation kinetics of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells. (A) inactivation time courses during application of steps (2-s duration) to +100 mV in the absence (control) or presence of 30 μ M phloretin. Dotted curves are biexponential fits. (B) fast (τ_f) and slow (τ_s) time constants for inactivation of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in the absence (control) or presence of 30 μ M phloretin at +100 mV (means \pm s.e. mean, *n*=8). Differences between values of control experiments and those with phloretin are not statistically significant.

(data not shown, *n*=11). Inhibiting effects on both instantaneous and steady-state currents were also voltage-independent in Intestine 407 cells (Figure 3A).

Outwardly rectifying Cl⁻ currents could also be activated by hypotonic stress in C127/CFTR cells, as reported previously (Krouse *et al.*, 1994; Xia *et al.*, 1996; Hazama *et al.*, 2000). Reduction of bath Cl⁻ from 110 mM to 11 mM induced a shift of *E*_{rev} by 40.1 ± 3.2 mV (*n*=3). A reversible inhibitory effect of extracellular phloretin on the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ current was also observed in C127/CFTR cells (Figure 3B). The inactivation kinetics at large positive potentials were not affected by phloretin (data not shown, *n*=10). The *I*-*V* relationships show that the effects of phloretin on instantaneous and steady-state currents were also voltage-independent (Figure 3B).

Figure 4 shows concentration-inhibition curves for phloretin effects on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents recorded at -60 mV (A) and +60 mV (B) in the three cell lines. The IC₅₀ values estimated by curve-fitting were 26.1 ± 6.0 and 31.2 ± 3.4 μ M (*n*=7-11) in Intestine 407 cells, 24.9 ± 2.3 and 27.8 ± 2.3 μ M (*n*=6-8) in C127/CFTR cells, and 36.4 ± 6.0

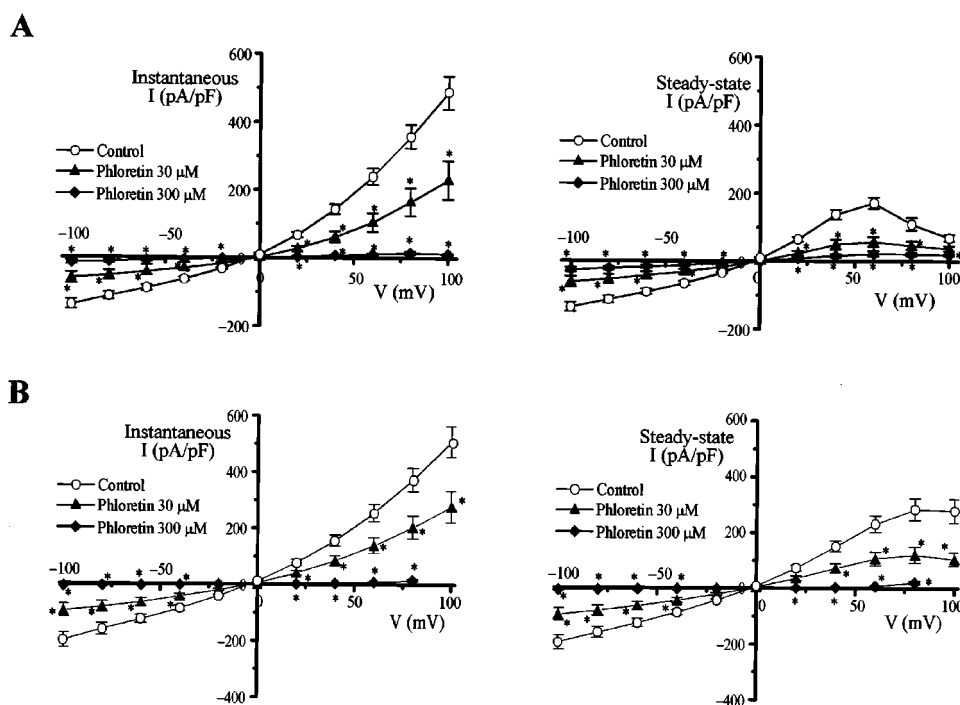


Figure 3 Effects of extracellular phloretin on volume-sensitive whole-cell Cl⁻ currents in Intestine 407 (A) and C127/CFTR cells (B). The instantaneous (left) and steady-state (right) current-voltage relationships were observed by applying step pulses (the protocol given in Figure 1B; inset) in the absence (control) or presence of phloretin at 30 μ M or 300 μ M. Each symbol represents the mean current (with the s.e. mean: vertical bars) of seven to 11 experiments. *Significantly different from control values.

and $42.3 \pm 7.6 \mu$ M ($n=6-16$) in T84 cells at -60 and $+60$ mV, respectively. There was no significant difference between the three cell lines in the IC₅₀ values at either voltage. Neither was there any significant difference between the voltages in the IC₅₀ values obtained in any of the cell lines.

In contrast to phloretin, extracellular phloridzin (100 μ M), a glucoside of phloretin, showed no effect on the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ current in Intestine 407 cells (Figure 5A). Inactivation kinetics (B) and I–V relations (C) were not affected by phloridzin. No significant effect of phloridzin was observed even at a concentration as high as 1 mM; either in Intestine 407 or T84 cells (data not shown, $n=3$ each).

When incorporated in the pipette (intracellular) solution, phloretin failed to inhibit the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ current in T84, Intestine 407 and C127/CFTR cells even at a high concentration (300 μ M) (data not shown, $n=5-24$). Both instantaneous and steady-state currents were little affected by 300 μ M phloretin, when applied from the intracellular side. Thus, it is likely that the action site of phloretin is located on the extracellular side. Protein kinase C (PKC) is known to be inhibited not only by phloretin (Gschwendt *et al.*, 1984) but also by phloridzin (Shoji *et al.*, 1997). Therefore, it is unlikely that the phloretin effect on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents was mediated by inhibition of PKC. Actually, extracellular application of calphostin C (500 nM), which is a specific inhibitor of PKC with an IC₅₀ of 50 nM (Kobayashi *et al.*, 1989), did not affect the amplitude, the inactivation kinetics and the I–V relations of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in Intestine 407 cells (data not shown, $n=7$).

Effects of phloretin on Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents

Outwardly rectifying whole-cell currents were activated transiently by adding the Ca²⁺ ionophore, ionomycin (1–2.5 μ M), to isotonic bath solution containing 1 mM Ca²⁺ in T84 cells (Figure 6A), as reported previously (Cliff & Frizzell, 1990; Merlin *et al.*, 1998). However, neither Intestine 407 nor C127/CFTR cells responded with current activation to ionomycin under the experimental conditions (data not shown, $n=12$ or 5). In T84 cells, the current responses to step pulses exhibited time-dependent activation at positive potentials and inactivation at negative potentials (Figure 6Ba). When the bath Cl⁻ concentration was reduced from 121 mM to 19 mM, the reversal potential was shifted by 31.1 ± 0.9 mV ($n=5$), demonstrating the anion selective nature of the current. After reaching the peak response, ionomycin-activated currents gradually decreased and soon reached either a basal level (Figure 6A, left trace) or a plateau level larger than the basal level (Figure 6A, right trace; Figure 6Bb). When 30 μ M phloretin was applied to the bath solution after ionomycin-induced currents had attained the steady-state level, the current was never suppressed but consistently increased (Figure 6A, right trace). The reactivated current also exhibited outward rectification as well as voltage-dependent inactivation and activation kinetics (Figure 6Bc). Reduction of the bath Cl⁻ concentration from 121 mM to 19 mM caused a shift of the reversal potential by 31.1 ± 0.8 mV ($n=6$) in the presence of 30 μ M phloretin. Essentially the same results were obtained with 300 μ M phloretin (data not shown, $n=2$).

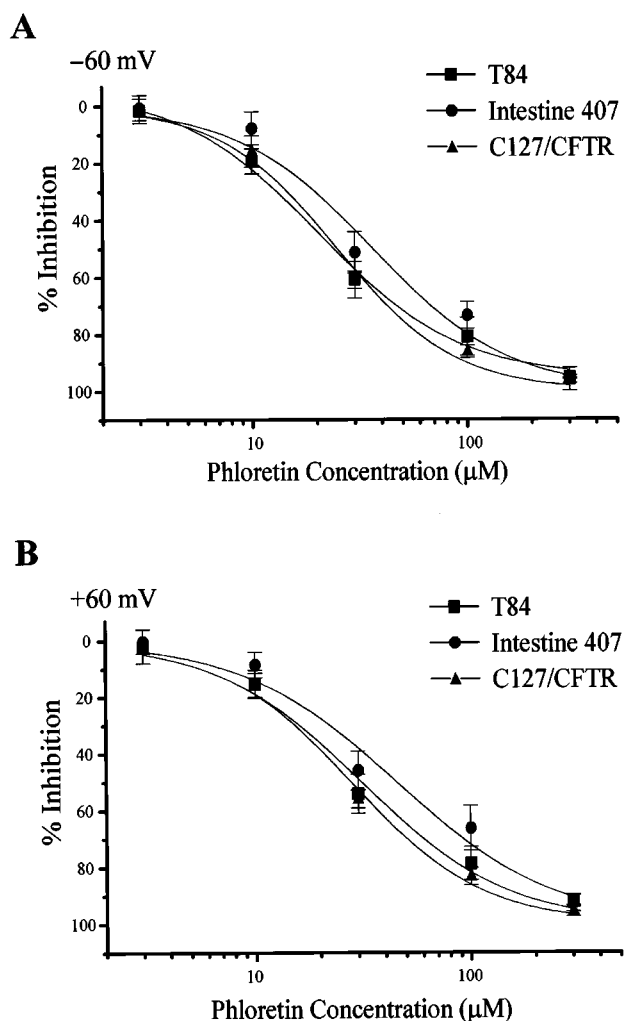


Figure 4 Concentration-inhibition curves for phloretin-induced inhibition of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents recorded at -60 mV (A) and +60 mV (B) in T84, Intestine 407 and C127/CFTR cells. Each symbol represents the mean \pm s.e.mean ($n=6-16$). Data were fitted to a sigmoidal relation with the IC₅₀ values given in the text and with a Hill coefficient (h) of 1.4, 1.4 and 1.6 at -60 mV as well as 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4 at +60 mV for T84, Intestine 407 and C127/CFTR cells, respectively.

In the absence of ionomycin, no current was activated by 30 μ M phloretin added to the bath solution containing 1 mM Ca²⁺ in T84 cells, but prominent current activation was induced by ionomycin in the presence of phloretin (Figure 6C). Ionomycin-induced currents were sustained for a longer time in the presence of phloretin (Figure 6C) than in its absence (Figure 6A). However, the peak amplitude of ionomycin-induced currents in the presence of 30 μ M phloretin was not different from that in its absence (Figure 6D).

Effects of phloretin on cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents

A cocktail of forskolin (10 μ M), dbcAMP (500 μ M) and IBMX (400 μ M) failed to induce activation of Cl⁻ currents in Intestine 407 cells (data not shown, $n=5$). However, the cyclic AMP stimulation induced activation of currents in a

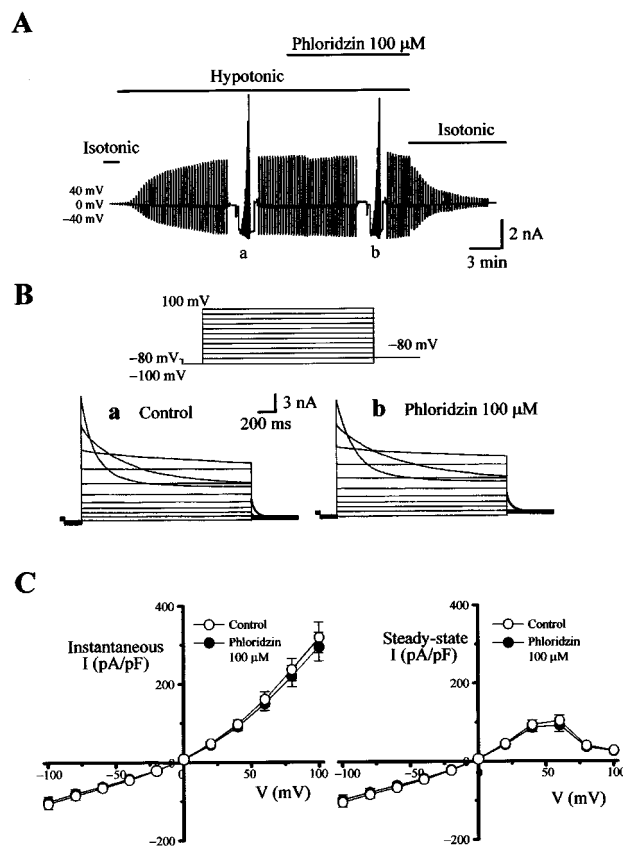


Figure 5 Effects of extracellular phloretin on whole-cell volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in Intestine 407 cells. (A) typical record before and after osmotic cell swelling in the absence or presence of 100 μ M phloretin (indicated by horizontal lines) in bath solution during the application of alternating pulses from 0 mV to \pm 40 mV or of step pulses from -100 mV to +100 mV in 20-mV increments. Gain of chart recorder was changed by one-half during applying step pulses at a and b. (B) expanded traces of current responses (a & b in A) to step pulses in the absence (a) or presence of phloretin at 100 μ M (b). Inset: the step pulse protocol. (C) Instantaneous and steady-state current-voltage curves measured in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μ M phloretin. Differences between values of control experiments and those with phloretin are not statistically significant.

reversible manner in T84 cells (Figure 7A), as reported previously (Cliff & Frizzell, 1990; Chang *et al.*, 1992; Merlin *et al.*, 1998). The current was activated at the equilibrium potential to K⁺ ($E_K = -84$ mV), whereas no current activation was observed at E_{Cl} (=0 mV). Current responses to step pulses exhibited little time-dependent activation and inactivation (Figure 7Bb). The I-V curve showed a nearly linear relationship in the voltage range between -100 and +100 mV, and the reversal potential was close to E_{Cl} (0 mV) (Figure 7C: open circles). The reversal potential was shifted by 45.8 ± 4.4 mV ($n=4$), when the bath Cl⁻ concentration was reduced from 110 mM to 11 mM.

No effect of phloretin was observed at 30 μ M on the cyclic AMP-activated CFTR current (see Figure 7D). However, when the phloretin concentration was increased to 300 μ M, the inward component of cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents was partially inhibited, without producing significant inhibition of the outward component (Figure 7Bb; Figure 7C: filled circles).

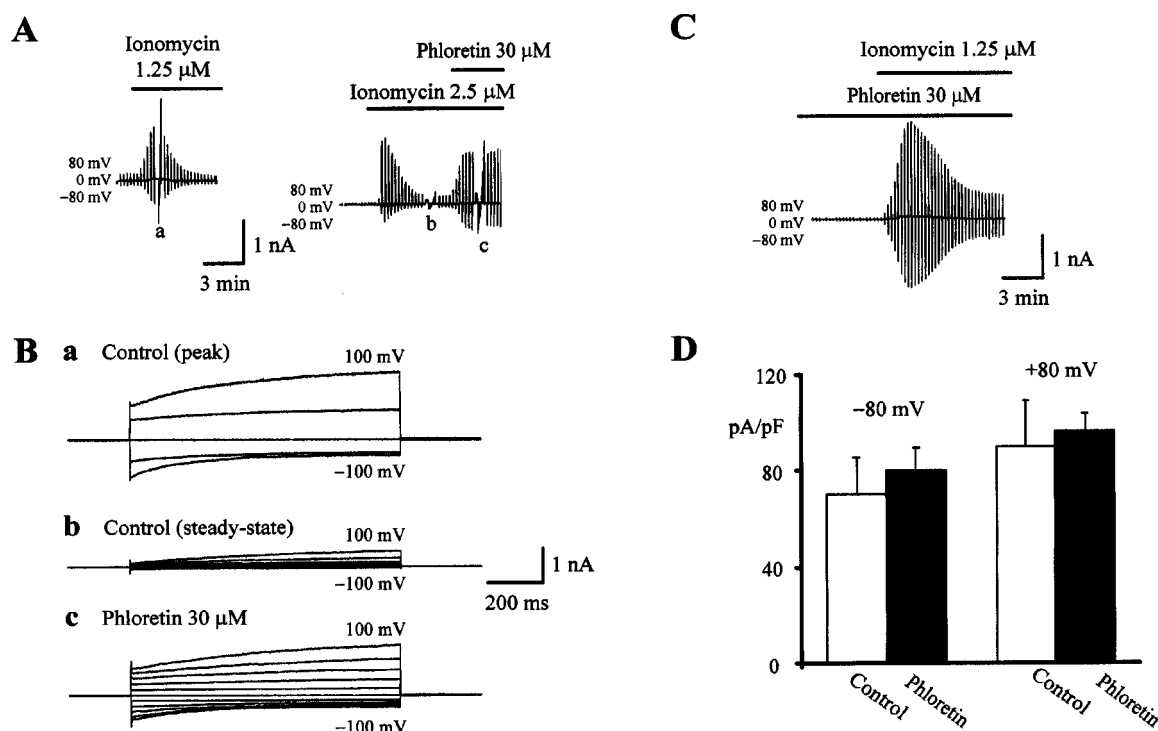


Figure 6 Effects of extracellular phloretin on Ca^{2+} -activated whole-cell Cl^- currents in T84 cells. (A) Typical record of the ionomycin-induced whole-cell Cl^- currents in the absence or presence of $30 \mu\text{M}$ phloretin (indicated by horizontal lines) in bath solution during application of ramp pulses from 0 mV to $\pm 80 \text{ mV}$ or of step pulses (1-s duration) from -100 mV to $+100 \text{ mV}$ in 20- or 50-mV increments (at a, b & c). (B) Expanded traces of current responses (a, b & c in A) to step pulses in the absence (a, b) or presence of phloretin at $30 \mu\text{M}$ (c). (C) Representative record of ionomycin-induced activation of Ca^{2+} -dependent whole-cell Cl^- currents after preincubating with $30 \mu\text{M}$ phloretin during application of ramp pulses from 0 mV to $\pm 80 \text{ mV}$. (D) Effects of phloretin on the current density at -80 mV or $+80 \text{ mV}$. Data were shown by the mean \pm s.e. mean ($n=7-8$). Differences between values of control and those with phloretin are statistically insignificant.

Figure 7D shows concentration-inhibition curves for phloretin effects on cyclic AMP-activated Cl^- currents in T84 cells. At -60 mV and $+60 \text{ mV}$, respectively, the IC_{50} values were $252.0 \pm 20.7 \mu\text{M}$ and $474.7 \pm 24.5 \mu\text{M}$ ($n=7-13$) in T84 cells. A similar voltage-dependent effect of phloretin was also observed in C127/CFTR cells, and the IC_{50} values were $194.7 \pm 37.3 \mu\text{M}$ and $355.1 \pm 37.1 \mu\text{M}$ ($n=8-10$). The values at -60 mV are significantly smaller than those at $+60 \text{ mV}$. All these IC_{50} values for CFTR Cl^- currents were one order of magnitude greater than those for volume-sensitive Cl^- currents (Figure 4).

On the other hand, no effect on cyclic AMP-activated currents was induced by intracellular application of $300 \mu\text{M}$ phloretin in T84 cells (data not shown, $n=9$).

In C127/CFTR cells, whole-cell CFTR Cl^- currents could also be activated by the cocktail of forskolin ($10 \mu\text{M}$), dbcAMP ($500 \mu\text{M}$) and IBMX ($400 \mu\text{M}$), as reported previously (Hazama *et al.*, 2000). Extracellular application of $30 \mu\text{M}$ phloretin showed no effect on either the inward or outward components of cyclic AMP-activated Cl^- currents at -100 and $+100 \text{ mV}$ (data not shown, $n=8$). However, $300 \mu\text{M}$ phloretin, although only in part, suppressed preferentially the outward component of cyclic AMP-activated Cl^- currents in C127/CFTR cells (data not shown, $n=9$).

In contrast, extracellular application of a PKC inhibitor, calphostin C (500 nM), failed to affect cyclic AMP-induced currents in C127/CFTR cells (data not shown, $n=5$).

Discussion

Phloretin is the aglucon of phloridzin, a sap-soluble pigment extracted from the root bark of apple trees (Seshadri, 1951), which is known to inhibit the Na^+ -independent glucose transporter (glucose uniporter: GLUT) (Sahagian, 1965; Betz *et al.*, 1975) with an IC_{50} of $50-60 \mu\text{M}$ (Kasahara & Kasahara, 1996) as well as protein kinase C (Gschwendt *et al.*, 1984). Moreover, this compound is known to inhibit anion exchange in human red blood cells at $1-3 \mu\text{M}$ (Fröhlich & Gunn, 1987), the aquaporin-3 (AQP3) water channel and urea transporter at $100-350 \mu\text{M}$ (Ishibashi *et al.*, 1994; Echevarria *et al.*, 1996), promiscuous solute channel, AQP9, at $100 \mu\text{M}$ (Tsukaguchi *et al.*, 1998), Na^+ -dependent dicarboxylate transporter, SDCT1, at $500 \mu\text{M}$ (Chen *et al.*, 1998) and swelling-induced taurine release at $100 \mu\text{M}$ (Hall, 1995) as well as myo-inositol release at $200 \mu\text{M}$ (Reeves & Cammarata, 1996). Phloretin was also found to suppress several types of voltage-gated cation channels: Ca^{2+} channels in pituitary adenoma cells at $250-300 \mu\text{M}$ (Prevorskaya *et al.*, 1994), K^+ channels in nerve fibers at $10-100 \mu\text{M}$ (Strichartz *et al.*, 1980; Klusemann & Meves, 1991; 1992) and Na^+ channels in PC12 cells at $300 \mu\text{M}$ (S. Morishima & Y. Okada, 2001, unpublished observations). In contrast, phloretin ($10-200 \mu\text{M}$) is known to enhance endogenous Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels in several cell types (Koh *et al.*, 1994; Shin *et al.*, 1996; Bringmann & Reichenbach, 1997) and the cloned *Slo*

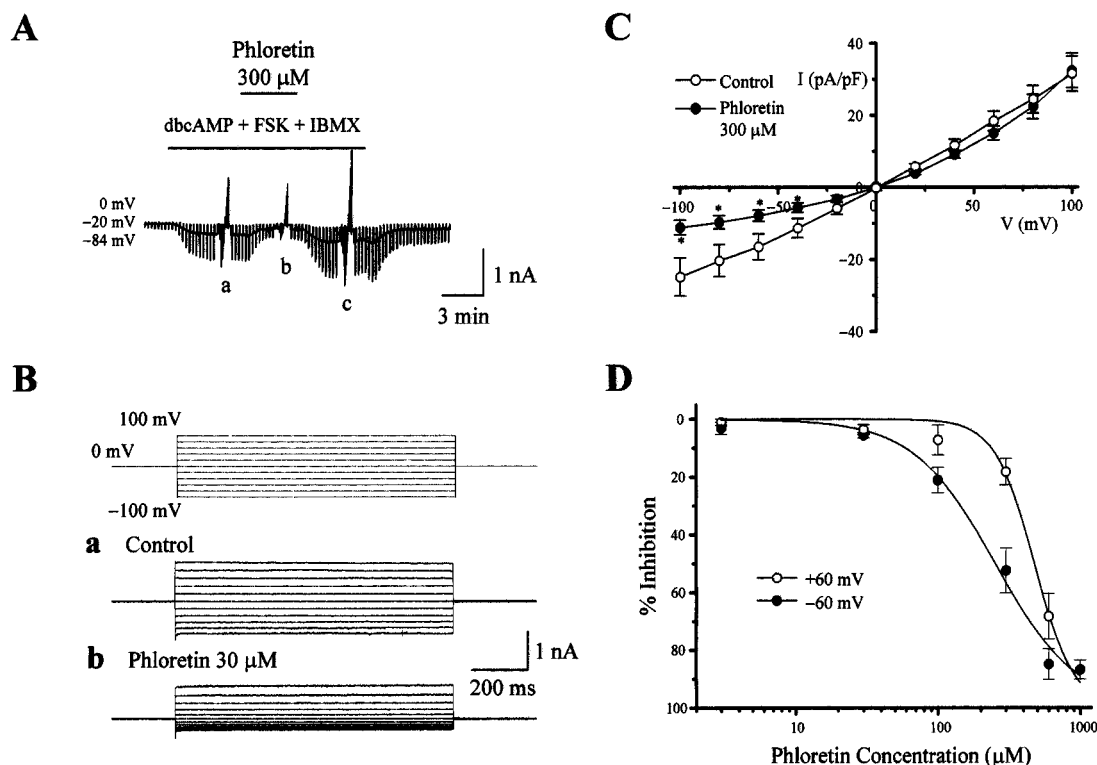


Figure 7 Effects of extracellular 300 μM phloretin on cyclic AMP-activated whole-cell Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells. (A) Typical record before and after application of a cocktail of forskolin (10 μM), dbcAMP (500 μM) and IBMX (400 μM) in the absence or presence of 300 μM phloretin (indicated by horizontal lines) in bath solution during application of alternating pulses between 0 mV and -84 mV from a holding potential of -20 mV or of step pulses (1-s duration) from -100 mV to +100 mV in 20-mV increments (at a, b & c). (B) Expanded traces of current responses (a & b in A) to step pulses in the absence (a) or presence of 300 μM phloretin (b). Inset: the step pulse protocol. (C) Current-voltage curves measured in the absence (control) or presence of 300 μM phloretin. Each symbol represents the mean current (with the s.e.mean: vertical bars) of eight experiments. *Significantly different from control experiments. (D) Concentration-inhibition curves for phloretin-induced inhibition of cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents at -60 mV and +60 mV. Each symbol represents the mean \pm s.e.mean ($n=7-13$). Data were fitted to a sigmoidal relation with the IC₅₀ values given in the text and with h of 3.2 at +60 mV and 1.5 at -60 mV.

channels (Gribkoff *et al.*, 1996). Activation of Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺ channels is known to be one of the causal factors leading to RVD in many epithelial cells (Okada & Hazama, 1989; Okada, 1997), as originally demonstrated in Intestine 407 cells (Hazama & Okada, 1988). Our recent study (Fan *et al.*, 2000) using a high-speed automatic image analysing technique (Morishima *et al.*, 1998), however, showed that phloretin (300 μM) completely inhibited the RVD of Intestine 407 cells under hypotonic conditions. Thus, there is a possibility that phloretin inhibits the RVD by impairing some other volume-regulatory ionic pathway. The present study demonstrated that phloretin, but not a glucoside of phloretin (phloridzin), can inhibit volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels at concentrations over 10 μM .

Phloretin does not inhibit Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channels

At 30–300 μM , phloretin never inhibited Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents in T84 cells (Figure 6). These results are in good agreement with previous observations with 50 μM phloretin in T84 cells (Worrell & Frizzell, 1991). Ionomycin-induced activation of Ca²⁺-dependent Cl⁻ currents persisted only for a short time and subsequently decayed rapidly despite persistent stimulation with ionomycin. A similar decay of Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents was observed before the cytosolic

Ca²⁺ decline in equine tracheal smooth muscle cells and reported to be due to phosphorylation mediated by Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent kinase II (Wang & Kotlikoff, 1997). The present study showed that Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ currents became reactivated when phloretin was applied after inactivation or rundown of the current (Figure 6). The exact mechanism of phloretin-induced reactivation of the Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ current remains unknown. However, it is noted that phloretin enhanced the ionomycin-induced rise of intracellular Ca²⁺ level, although phloretin alone never affected the cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration in T84 cells (K. Dezaki, H.-T. Fan & Y. Okada, 2001, unpublished observations).

Phloretin suppresses voltage-dependently cAMP-activated Cl⁻ channels at high concentrations

Phloretin preferentially suppressed the inward components of cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents at high concentrations (over 100 μM) in both T84 (Figure 7) and C127/CFTR cells with IC₅₀ of 195 to 252 μM at -60 mV and of 355 to 475 μM at +60 mV. These results are in contrast to the previous observations of lack of detectable effect of 350 μM phloretin on CFTR Cl⁻ currents expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (Schreiber *et al.*, 1997). The activity of CFTR Cl⁻ channel is known to be dependent on phosphorylation by PKC

(Tabcharani *et al.*, 1991; Winpenny *et al.*, 1995; Jia *et al.*, 1997). Although phloretin was reported to inhibit PKC (Gschwendt *et al.*, 1984), an involvement of PKC in phloretin-induced suppression of cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents is unlikely because: (1) the phloretin effect was voltage-dependent (Figure 7), (2) phloretin was ineffective when applied from the intracellular side, and (3) a PKC inhibitor, calphostin C, failed to inhibit cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents.

Phloretin inhibits voltage-independently volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels at low concentrations

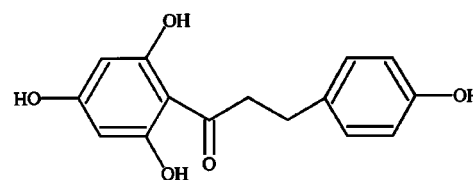
At much lower concentrations (with IC₅₀ of around 30 μ M), phloretin inhibited volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in three different cell types in a voltage-independent manner. This effect should also be independent of PKC for the following reasons: (1) Phloretin failed to exert an inhibitory action when added to the intracellular solution in T84, Intestine 407 and C127/CFTR cells. (2) Volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents were never affected by phloridzin, which is known to act as a PKC inhibitor (Shoji *et al.*, 1997), in Intestine 407 cells (Figure 5) and T84 cells. (3) In Intestine 407 cells, the activity of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel was found to be insensitive to non-specific PKC blockers, polymixin B (Kubo & Okada, 1992) and H-7 (Okada *et al.*, 1994). (4) A PKC-specific inhibitor, calphostin C, also never exhibited any inhibitory effect on volume-sensitive Cl⁻ currents in Intestine 407 cells.

Part of the chemical structure of the phloretin molecule resembles a stilbene-derivative Cl⁻ channel blocker (DIDS or SITS), especially in the two benzene rings (see Figure 8). However, the blocking mechanism of phloretin was distinct from that of DIDS or SITS which shows voltage-dependent (open-channel block-like) inhibition for volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels in many cell types (Okada, 1997). Since phloridzin was totally ineffective, the hydroxyl residue, at which D-glucose binds to a benzene ring of phloridzin, might play an essential role in the phloretin-induced blocking action.

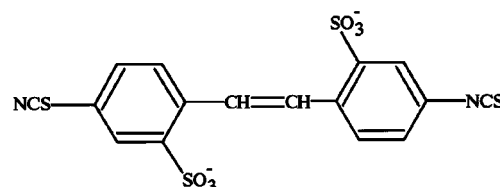
Although phloretin was also shown to inhibit partially cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ currents (preferentially the inward component), much higher concentrations (over 100 μ M; Figure 6D) were required. In contrast, phloretin is known to block anion exchanger (Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ antiporter: AE) at micromolar concentrations (Fröhlich & Gunn, 1987). Thus, at concentrations lower than 100 μ M, phloretin may serve as a blocker of anion transport not only *via* electroneutral AE but also *via* volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels, and thus as a useful tool to discriminate the contribution of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels in the electroconductive anion transport from that of Ca²⁺ - or cyclic AMP-activated Cl⁻ channels. However, it must be noted that phloretin can also suppress several types of voltage-gated cation channels (Strichartz *et al.*, 1980; Klusemann & Meves, 1991; 1992; Prevarskaya *et al.*, 1994). Thus, it is expected that a more selective derivative of phloretin, if it were discovered, might offer a promising tool for purification of the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel protein, the gene of which has not been precisely identified as yet (Okada, 1997; Okada *et al.*, 1998).

Phloretin was shown to inhibit the RVD of Intestine 407 cells (Fan *et al.*, 2000). In this cell line, the RVD is known to be attained by operation of the following ion channels in concert: volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels (Kubo & Okada,

Phloretin



DIDS



SITS

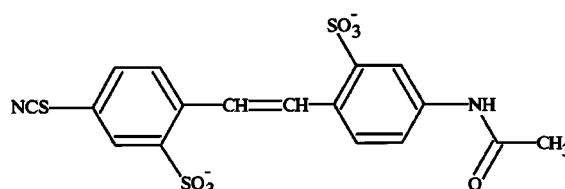


Figure 8 Structures of phloretin, SITS and DIDS.

1992), Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels (Hazama & Okada, 1988), and Ca²⁺-permeable non-selective cation channels (Okada *et al.*, 1990). However, phloretin has been reported to enhance, but not suppress, Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels in other cell types (Koh *et al.*, 1994; Gribkoff *et al.*, 1996; Shin *et al.*, 1996; Bringmann & Reichenbach, 1997). Since a swelling-induced increase in cytosolic Ca²⁺, which is known to be triggered by Ca²⁺ influx through non-selective cation channels in Intestine 407 cells (Okada *et al.*, 1990), was still observed in the presence of phloretin in our preliminary fura-2 study in T84 cells (K. Dezaki, H.-T. Fan & Y. Okada, 2001, unpublished observations), it is unlikely that phloretin inhibits swelling-induced activation of Ca²⁺-permeable non-selective cation channels. Thus, inhibition of volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel by phloretin may mainly explain how this chemical inhibits RVD.

Conclusion

Phloretin, which is a well-known inhibitor of glucose uniporter and anion anionporter and known to affect voltage-gated cation channels, inhibits volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channels in a voltage-independent manner at low concentrations (over 10 μ M) in epithelial cells. In addition, the drug partially inhibited cyclic AMP-activated CFTR Cl⁻ channels in a voltage-dependent manner at higher concentrations (over 100 μ M). In contrast, phloretin never inhibited Ca²⁺-activated Cl⁻ channels. It is concluded that phloretin is a potent Cl⁻ channel blocker in epithelial cells, preferentially blocking the volume-sensitive Cl⁻ channel at concentrations below 100 μ M.

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