Inhibition of Ca\(^{2+}\) Uptake in Freshwater Carp, *Cyprinus carpio*, During Short-Term Exposure to Aluminum

**PIETER M. VERBOST, FLORIS P.J.G. LAFEBER, FRANCISCUS A.T. SPANINGS, ELISABETH M. AARDEN, AND SJOERD E. WENDELAAR BONGA**

Department of Animal Physiology, Faculty of Science, University of Nijmegen, Toernooiveld, 6525 ED Nijmegen, The Netherlands

**ABSTRACT**

In carp exposed to pH 5.2 in fresh water, the Ca\(^{2+}\) influx from the water is reduced by 31% when compared to fish in water of neutral pH. At pH 5.2, the Ca\(^{2+}\) influx but not Na\(^{+}\) uptake is decreased by aluminum (Al). Al reduces Ca\(^{2+}\) influx dose-dependently: a maximum 55% reduction was observed after 1–2 h exposure to 200 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\) (7.4 \(\mu\)M) Al. Branchial Ca\(^{2+}\) efflux is less sensitive to Al and affected only by exposure for more than 1 h to high Al concentrations. Na\(^{+}\) influx is not affected by concentrations Al up to 400 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\). Na\(^{+}\) efflux, similarly to Ca\(^{2+}\) efflux, increased when fish were exposed for more than 1 h to 400 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\) Al. © 1992 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Inorganic aluminum (Al) forms, especially Al-hydroxide complexes, are more toxic to fish than organic Al complexes (Driscoll et al., '80). Regardless of other ligands that may be present, Al\(^{3+}\) interacts with water. In solutions more acidic than pH 5 Al\(^{3+}\) exists as the hexahydrate Al(H\(_2\)O)\(_6\)\(^{3+}\) ("free Al\(^{3+}\)). As a solution becomes less acid successive deprotonation of Al(H\(_2\)O)\(_6\)\(^{3+}\) yields Al(OH)\(^{2+}\) and Al(OH)\(^{+}\). Circumneutral solutions give an Al(OH)\(_3\) precipitate that dissolves in basic solutions due to formation of Al(OH)\(_4\)\(^{-}\) (MacDonald and Martin, '88). The principle soluble form at neutral pH is Al(OH)\(_4\)\(^{-}\) (Spry et al., '81). Aluminum toxicity to fish is pH-dependent and at pH 5.2, which is the most toxic pH for fish (Baker and Schofield, '82; Brown and Lynam, '82; Fjellheim et al., '85), Al(OH)\(_2\)\(^{+}\) and Al(OH)\(_3\)\(^{+}\) are the dominant species.

The aim of this study was to elucidate the effects of Al in acid water on Ca\(^{2+}\) and Na\(^{+}\) fluxes in freshwater fish. In these animals the primary site damaged by water-borne aluminum (Al) in acid water appears to be the branchial epithelium (Spry et al., '81), where most of the ion exchange with the environment takes place (Mayer-Gostan et al., '87; Fenwick, '89). So far only a few studies have been reported to show toxic effects of Al on branchial ion fluxes in aquatic species. In crayfish, Al at neutral pH had no effect on 45Ca uptake, but at pH 5.5 (200–1,000 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\), 7–37 \(\mu\)M) Al produced a small inhibition in addition to the inhibitory effect of low pH (Malley and Chang, '85). The lack of a dose-response relationship was ascribed to the limited solubility of Al salts, which would restrict an increase of the toxic monomeric species when the total Al concentration was increased. Short-term exposure of brown trout to 160 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\) Al had no effect on calcium fluxes at pH 4.5 (Reader and Morris, '88). In another study on brown trout, an Al concentration of 216 \(\mu\)g.L\(^{-1}\) at pH 4.5 reduced Na\(^{+}\) influx significantly, but Al addition at pH 5.4 (or pH 7.0) had no effect and Na\(^{+}\) efflux was not affected at any condition tested (Dalziel et al., '86).

In the studies mentioned above, only the nominal Al concentrations were reported; at the end of most experiments the Al concentrations measured were markedly lower than at the start, which is most likely accounted for by binding of Al to the tank and to the fish. Hence, to establish a dose-response curve for the effects of Al on Ca-balance in freshwater fish, an exposure system is required in which Al levels are adequately controlled. Studies that fulfill this criterion are unknown to us at present. Therefore, we developed an exposure system for carp in which the Al concentration and the H\(^{+}\) concentration were kept constant during the exposure period. The short duration of the exposure was chosen to prevent transformation of Al species since we are interested in the mechanism of Al toxicity in this study more than in the long-term adaptation to Al.

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Impaired ionoregulation has been proposed as a major cause of mortality (Neville, '85) and we employed an experimental setup in which this hypothesis could be tested. Branchial Ca$^{2+}$ and Na$^{+}$ fluxes were found to be affected differentially by Al exposure. We conclude that Al may specifically interfere with Ca$^{2+}$ transport sites in the branchial epithelium.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals
Carp (Cyprinus carpio), weighing 70–120 g (95 ± 16 g, n = 34) were held in Nijmegen city tapwater (0.78 mM Ca$^{2+}$, 3.15 mM HCO$_3$-, 0.61 mM Na$^+$, 0.05 mM K$^+$, 0.38 mM Mg$^{2+}$, 0.66 mM Cl$^-$, 0.32 mM SO$_4^{2-}$, pH ~7.4) at 23°C. At 18 h before the experiment, fish were placed individually in opaque boxes (vol = 1.75 l) with a flow (100 ml.min$^{-1}$ per box) of well-aerated and thermostatted recirculating acclimation water (total vol. 140 l). This acclimation water approached tapwater in ion composition (0.8 mM CaCl$_2$, 0.33 mM NaHCO$_3$, 3.8 mM NaCl, 0.06 mM KCl, 0.20 mM MgSO$_4$, pH 7.2; Verbost et al., '89a); the background level of inorganic Al was less than 2 µg.l$^{-1}$, as determined by Inductively Coupled Plasma emission (ICP) analysis (Instrumentation Laboratory, Plasma 2000; measured at 167.1 nm in a vacuum monochromator).

Analytical techniques
For the analysis of blood plasma Ca$^{2+}$, Na$^+$, or Al content, a blood sample was taken by puncture from the caudal vessels after 4 h or exposure to Al using a heparinized syringe with a 23-gauge needle. Blood cells were removed by centrifugation (1 min, 10,000 g), and the plasma was stored at −20°C until further analysis. Al concentration in water or plasma samples were determined as described above (ICP). All samples were acidified with 10 µl 1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ per ml to dissolve all Al. Water and plasma total Ca content were measured colorimetrically using a calcium kit (Sigma Diagnostics). Water and plasma total Na content was determined with a flame photometer (FLM3, Radiometer) coupled to an auto-analyzer (SA-20, Skalar). Plasma-free Ca$^{2+}$ was determined with an Ionized Calcium Analyzer (ICA1, Radiometer). $^{45}$Ca contents of water samples and tissue digests were determined by liquid scintillation analysis. Aqueous samples (0.5 ml) were mixed with 4.5 ml Aqualuma scintillation fluid. $^{24}$Na contents of water and tissue samples were determined directly by gamma counting and corrected for differences in counting efficiency resulting from volume differences. The protein concentration of membrane vesicles suspensions was determined with a Coomassie blue kit (Bio-Rad) using bovine serum albumine as standard.

Al exposure
Al, as an Al$_2$(SO$_4$)$_3$ stock solution, was continuously pumped (30 µl.min$^{-1}$) into the flux box using a roller pump. Concentrations of Al were empirically established such that the required Al concentrations were reached within one h and maintained at that level for at least another 3 h (Fig. 1). Water pH was maintained as described in following section.

Whole body Ca$^{2+}$ and Na$^+$ influx
One h prior to the start of the Al exposure, the water flow was stopped. The water in the flux boxes was slowly and stepwise acidified over a 45-min period with H$_2$SO$_4$/HAc (1 part 1 M H$_2$SO$_4$:1.3 parts 1 M HAc pH 5.0). Water pH was maintained between 5.1 and 5.3 and measured every 30 min throughout the experiment. The Ca$^{2+}$ or Na$^+$ influxes were determined over a 1-h period. By so doing we studied the effects of Al on the ion fluxes...
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after different exposure times (up to 4 h). The experiment was started by addition of tracer (⁴⁵Ca, 1.0 MBq·l⁻¹ or ⁴⁴Na, 0.5 MBq·l⁻¹). Instantaneous mixing of the tracer with the water was guaranteed by aeration. The water-specific activity was determined on samples taken at the beginning, and after 30 min and 60 min tracer exposure. Fish exposed to low pH plus Al were run simultaneously with those exposed to low pH alone. After 1 h tracer exposure fish were anaesthetized for 5 min by addition of 0.5 g MS₂₂₂ (neutralized with NaHCO₃) in acclimation water with 8 mM CaCl₂ (for ⁴⁵Ca uptake) or 40 mM NaCl (for ⁴⁴Na uptake) to remove tracer bound to the outside of the fish in ⁴⁵Ca and ⁴⁴Na uptake measurements, respectively. Fish bodies were microwave-cooked (3 min) and homogenized in a blender with demineralized water (water volume: 65% of body weight). Quadruple samples of the homogenate (~0.15 g weighed to the nearest 3 decimals) were processed for determination of radioactivity as described earlier (Verbost et al., '89a).

Whole body Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ efflux

Eighteen h before the experiment, the fish received an intraperitoneal injection of 1.8 MBq ⁴⁵Ca (⁴⁵CaCl₂ in 0.6% NaCl; 0.3 ml per fish) or 2 MBq ⁴⁴Na (⁴⁴Na₂CO₃ in 0.6% NaCl; 0.32 ml per fish) and were placed in the flux boxes. A continuous flow of thermostatted tapwater (100 ml·min⁻¹ to each fish) for 18 h secured that all activity released by the fish was removed from the box. In this period the specific activity of the blood stabilized to a virtually constant level (Lafeber et al., '88). One h before the addition of Al to the water, the water pH was brought to 5.2 as described for the influx experiments. At zero time the gradual addition of Al was started. Here, too, control fish were run concurrently with Al-exposed fish. Water samples were taken hourly. After 3 to 4 h the fish were anaesthetized as described above. Blood was taken as described above and plasma collected. Plasma radioactivity values were determined in duplicate. Plasma total Ca or Na concentrations were determined in triplicate. The plasma specific activities were corrected for the 65% water added and divided by the specific activity of the water, giving the whole body ion influx, also named the ion intake from the water (Fₐᵢ, see equation 1).

Preparation of membrane vesicles

Resealed inside-out membrane vesicles were prepared from freshly collected human blood, according to Sarkadi et al. ('80). Sodium-heparin was used as an anticoagulant (100 IU·ml⁻¹). The membranes were 90% resealed with 52 ± 10% inside-out and 39 ± 13% rightside-out orientated vesicles (Verbost et al., '89b).

In vitro Ca²⁺-transport assay

Plasma membrane vesicles were resuspended in 150 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM Hepes/Tris, pH 7.4 (or pH as indicated). ATP-dependent Ca²⁺-transport was determined using a rapid filtration technique (Van Heeswijk et al., '84). Incubation media contained 150 mM KCl, 20 mM Hepes/Tris, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM CDTA as metal-ion buffers, 3 mM ATP, 1.5 mM Mg²⁺, 0.4 µM Ca²⁺, and Al³⁺ as indicated. The free Al³⁺ concentration along with the Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentration was controlled in this metal-ion buffer system. In this medium Al³⁺ is bound in two ways. First, in aqueous solutions Al³⁺ forms hydroxide complexes. Regardless of the other ligands present equilibria 1-3 must be considered in all solutions containing Al³⁺:

1. Al³⁺ + H₂O → AlOH²⁺ + H⁺ pK₁ = 5.5
2. AlOH²⁺ + H₂O → Al(OH)²⁺ + H⁺ pK₂ = 5.6
3. Al(OH)²⁺ + 2H₂O → Al(OH)₄⁻ + 3 H⁺ pK₃ = 12.1.

Second, the ligands ATP, EDTA, and CDTA bind Al³⁺. We developed a computer program that first calculates the Al³⁺ mole fraction and uses this information for adaptation of the Kd's for Al of the ligands in the buffer system (Kd = log[Al³⁺]; Martin, '86).

Flux calculations

Influx of Ca²⁺ or Na⁺ was calculated from the total body radioactivity after exposure to ⁴⁵Ca or ⁴⁴Na, respectively, and the mean tracer specific activities of the water. The value for whole body activity, corrected for the 65% water added and divided by the specific activity of the water, gives the whole body ion influx, also named the ion intake from the water (Fᵢᵣ, see equation 1).

\[ Fᵢᵣ = \frac{qₙ·1.65}{SAₙw} \]

(1)
Fin is expressed in (\mu mol h^{-1} (100 g fish)^{-1}), where qg is the activity per g wet weight and SA_w is the water activity per mol Ca or Na.

Efflux of Ca^{2+} or Na^+, the ion loss to the water (F_{out}), was calculated from the tracer appearance rate (thus independent of binding of "effluxed" \textsuperscript{45}Ca) in the water (dq_w/dt) and the specific activity of the blood (see equation 2).

\[ F_{out} = \frac{dq'_w/dt}{SA_p} \times \frac{100}{W} \]

Fout is expressed in \mu mol h^{-1} (100 g fish)^{-1}, where dq_w/dt is the cumulative water activity per h, SA_p is the plasma radioactivity per mol Ca or Na, and W is the fish wet weight in g.

Results are presented as means ± SD (unless otherwise stated). For statistical evaluation the Mann-Whitney U-test was used. Significance was accepted for P < 0.05.

RESULTS

Effects of water acidification on Ca^{2+} balance

Net Ca^{2+} uptake (F_{net} = F_{in} - F_{out}, where F_{in} equals Ca^{2+} intake from the water and F_{out} equals the Ca^{2+} loss to the water) in freshwater at pH 7.2 was 5.3 \mu mol h^{-1} (100 g fish)^{-1}. At pH 5.2 the Ca^{2+} uptake was reduced by 39% as a result of a decreased influx of Ca^{2+}; Ca^{2+} efflux was not significantly affected (Fig. 2).

Effects of Al exposure on plasma Na, Ca, and Al

A 4-h treatment with 400 \mu g L^{-1} Al (or less) in the water did not result in a change in plasma total Na, Ca, or Ca^{2+}, nor did we observe an increase in total plasma Al concentration (Table 1).

Effects of Al on Ca^{2+}-balance (pH 5.2)

Figure 3 shows the effects of Al exposure (0, 30, 100, 200, or 400 \mu g L^{-1} Al in the water) on whole body Ca^{2+} intake and loss (hatched bars indicate calculated net uptake). Thirty \mu g L^{-1} Al had no effect on Ca^{2+} influx during a 4 h Al exposure. Exposure to 100 \mu g L^{-1} inhibited Ca^{2+} influx progressively with time. The inhibition was not significant for the first hour, but was at later times. In the second hour of exposure Ca^{2+} influx was reduced to 71\% and in the fourth h to 53\%. With 200 and 400 \mu g L^{-1} Al in the water Ca^{2+} influx was already significantly inhibited in the first hour of exposure (40–50\%); no difference in the degree of influx inhibition occurred between these two Al-concentrations. The average influx inhibition in the second and fourth hour was 55\%.

Table 1: Plasma Na, Ca, and Al of fish exposed to 400 \mu g L^{-1} Al for 4 h

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>400 \mu g L^{-1} Al</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Na (mM)</td>
<td>148 ± 6</td>
<td>138 ± 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca (mM)</td>
<td>2.67 ± 0.14</td>
<td>2.58 ± 0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca^{2+} (mM)</td>
<td>1.40 ± 0.07</td>
<td>1.35 ± 0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al (\mu g L^{-1})</td>
<td>283 ± 40</td>
<td>265 ± 35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values represent means of 5 to 6 animals (± S.D.). The Al exposure did not significantly change any of the parameters.
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Fig. 3. Effects of Al on carp whole body Ca2+-influx and efflux at pH 5.2 in artificial freshwater. Bars represent means ± SEM (n = 6). The hatched bars indicate the net Ca2+ uptake. Influx and efflux values that are significantly different from their respective controls are marked with an asterisk and a small closed circle, respectively.

in a cytosolic medium Al3+ concentrations higher than 3.2.10^{-12} M are unobtainable. By lowering the pH of the medium, it was possible to test the effect of higher concentrations of the metal. The decrease in pH on itself reduces the Ca2+ pump activity. However, Al3+ up to 2.10^{-11} had no additional effect.

DISCUSSION

The major conclusion from this study is that Al exposure at pH 5.2 has differential effects on net Ca2+ and net Na+ uptake from the water. Ca2+ uptake was inhibited by Al (100 μg.l^{-1} or more) mainly because of inhibitory effects on Ca2+ influx, although high doses of Al (400 μg.l^{-1} or more) also affect Ca2+ efflux. The influx inhibition was found to be dose-dependent. Conversely, Na+ influx was not affected: net Na+ uptake is reversed to a net Na+ loss by 400 μg.l^{-1} Al through an increase in Na+ efflux.

It is furthermore concluded that the ion fluxes prove a much more sensitive parameter for the toxic effect of Al than blood ion content. Whereas exposure for 4 h to 400 μg.l^{-1} Al had no effect on either plasma calcium or sodium, Ca2+ influx was already significantly inhibited after 2 h of exposure to 100 μg.l^{-1} Al. Concentrations of Al in natural fresh waters easily rise to 400 μg.l^{-1} in situations where acid leaching of aluminum from soils occurs (Driscoll et al., '80; Spry et al., '81).

Fig. 4. Effects of Al on carp whole body Na+ influx and efflux in artificial freshwater of pH 5.2. Bars represent means ± SEM (n = 6 for the first hour, n = 5 for the hours following). The hatched bars indicate the net Na+ uptake. Efflux values that are significantly different from their respective controls are marked with a small circle.

Na+ influx was not affected at the Al concentrations used demonstrates that the inhibition of the Ca2+ influx is not caused by a general damage inflicted upon the ion-transporting cells, but by a specific effect on the calcium uptake and transport route across these cells. The transcellular Ca2+ uptake route has been elucidated for several fish species. It comprises entrance of Ca2+ via voltage independent Ca2+ channels in the apical membrane, transfer of calcium through the cytoplasm to the basolateral membrane, and extrusion of the ions across this membrane in the blood, via high-affinity Ca2+-ATPase activity (Flik et al., '85a,b; Perry and Flik, '88). Al may cause inhibition of Ca2+ passage of the apical membrane by blockage of Ca2+ channels by Al3+ at the Ca2+ binding site within the channels appears unlikely to us because of the large dif-
TABLE 2. Effect of Al³⁺ on ATP-dependent Ca²⁺-transport in erythrocyte plasma membrane vesicles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pH medium</th>
<th>7.4</th>
<th>7.0</th>
<th>6.6</th>
<th>6.0</th>
<th>5.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Max. Al³⁺ sol.</td>
<td>3.2·10⁻¹²</td>
<td>5.0·10⁻¹¹</td>
<td>7.9·10⁻¹⁰</td>
<td>5.0·10⁻⁸</td>
<td>1.6·10⁻⁶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest [Al³⁺] tested (M)</td>
<td>0.8·10⁻¹⁰</td>
<td>0.8·10⁻¹²</td>
<td>1.9·10⁻¹²</td>
<td>5.7·10⁻¹²</td>
<td>1.6·10⁻¹¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca²⁺-transport</td>
<td>4.69 ± 0.58</td>
<td>3.72 ± 0.25</td>
<td>3.40 ± 0.20</td>
<td>2.91 ± 0.23</td>
<td>1.64 ± 0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Ca²⁺-transport</td>
<td>4.54 ± 0.32</td>
<td>3.60 ± 0.21</td>
<td>3.14 ± 0.89</td>
<td>2.65 ± 0.25</td>
<td>1.75 ± 0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹The erythrocyte membrane vesicles were preincubated 1 to 2 h at 4°C in KCl medium of the desired pH. Ca²⁺-transport was measured at 0.4 μM Ca²⁺.

²Calculated using the formula Ksol = [Al³⁺] / [H⁺]³ = 10¹⁰⁻⁷ (Martin, '86).

³Transport activity in nmol Ca²⁺·min⁻¹·mg prot⁻¹.

ferences in ion size. However, a reduction of Ca²⁺ influx could result from occupation of a regulatory site. The presence of a regulatory, high affinity Ca²⁺ binding site has been suggested in voltage dependent Ca²⁺ channels (Kostyuk et al., '83). Aluminium may also cause inhibition of transcellular movement of Ca²⁺ after it has accumulated in the chloride cells. The lagtime of inhibition (as seen with 100 μg.l⁻¹ Al) may be indicative of such an Al accumulation. Once in the cytosol, Al³⁺ could disturb the Ca²⁺ extrusion over the basolateral membrane or upset the Ca²⁺ channels in the apical membrane from the cytosolic side. In the in vitro studies with isolated plasma membranes showed no effect on the Ca²⁺ pump of Al³⁺ in concentrations even 10 times higher than maximally obtainable at cell-physiological pH. In these in vitro studies we used membrane vesicles prepared from human erythrocytes. The Ca²⁺ pump in these membranes has the same characteristics as the Ca²⁺ pump in the basolateral membrane from fish gills (Verbost et al., '89b), but the erythrocyte membrane preparation has some important advantages. It is not contaminated with intracellular membranes, it has a high specific activity for the Ca²⁺-transporting enzyme, and vesicles are easy to prepare. The effect of Al³⁺ ions was tested since for cellular enzymes this is the most clearly defined toxic species of Al (MacDonald and Martin, '88). The free Al³⁺ concentration was controlled with a metal-ion buffer, which is a necessity in such enzyme studies (Martin, '86). When Al³⁺ does not affect the basolateral Ca²⁺ pump, an indirect effect on the Ca²⁺ channels from Al³⁺ in the cytosol seems the most reasonable explanation. The Ca²⁺ channels are second messenger operated (Flik et al., '89) and Al³⁺ could have effects on the Ca²⁺ channels by acting on the second messenger(s) involved. Inhibition of adenylate cyclase and subsequently a decrease in cellular cAMP levels may be correlated with closing of Ca²⁺ channels in the apical membrane (Flik et al., '89). Since adenylate cyclase depends very much on Mg²⁺ for its activity (Bockaert et al., '84; Maguire, '84) and because Al³⁺ has a high affinity for Mg²⁺ binding sites, which may lead to Mg²⁺ substitution (Martin, '86), it is tempting to suggest that Al has a specific effect on Ca²⁺ influx by disturbing the cAMP branch in the second messenger controlled Ca²⁺ influx. An effect of Al in the blood plasma on the serosal Ca²⁺ extrusion pump seems unlikely to us. During the short-term experiments, no significant amounts of Al enter the blood (Table 1). The plasma Al concentration in nonexposed animals (around 10 μM = 0.27 mg.l⁻¹) may seem rather high. However, when taking into account the high natural total Al level in fish (2–5 mg/kg wet weight; Sidwell et al., '78), the value is not surprising.

Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ efflux

A possible explanation for the increased Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ effluxes during exposure to high Al concentrations may be that Al influences the junctional complexes of the epithelium. These junctions form a barrier for the paracellular movement of ions (i.e., Ca²⁺, Na⁺, and Cl⁻). Ca²⁺ is required for optimal functioning of junctional complexes (Alberts et al., '89). We hypothesize that high levels of Al affect the integrity of the junctional complexes by competition with Ca²⁺ for binding sites.

Al solubility

A further increase in the Al concentration from 200 to 400 μg.l⁻¹ had no additional effect on Ca²⁺ influx. This finding argues against an effect of extracellular Al on Ca²⁺ channels. Calculations based on solubility constants of Martin (‘86) show that under our conditions the maximum solubility of aluminium species (at pH 5.2: 340 μg.l⁻¹) was exceeded only with 400 μg.l⁻¹. Thus the inhibitory effects of Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ fluxes in our experiments cannot be explained by the suggestion of Playle et al. (’89) that disturbing effects of Al on ion fluxes in fish are caused by Al-precipitation at the gill surface.
At 400 μg·l⁻¹ the formation of a solid precipitate (microcrystalline gibbsite) was not observed. However, the precipitation of Al(OH)₃ (solid) is notoriously slow, particularly at low degrees of oversaturation and in the absence of suitable nuclei (Turner, '76).

In water of circumneutral pH, 400 μg·l⁻¹ Al did not affect Ca²⁺ influx from the water (results not shown). In neutral solutions of Al most Al occurs as Al(OH)₃ precipitate and Al(OH)₄⁻ is the only soluble Al species (Martin, '86). There are two possible explanations for the absence of effect of Al at pH 7.2. Either both Al(OH)₃ and Al(OH)₄⁻ are nontoxic or Al(OH)₃ is nontoxic and the Al(OH)₄⁻ concentration is too low to be toxic.

Our experiments are the first to show dose-dependent inhibition of transepithelial Ca²⁺ uptake by Al. In a study on crayfish in tapwater of pH 5.5 Ca²⁺ influx was inhibited for 35% by Al, irrespective of the dose in a range from 200 to 1,000 μg·l⁻¹ Al (Malley and Chang, '85). This discrepancy may be related to the high initial Al concentration peak in such experiments and further to background levels of Al in tapwater (20–30 μg·l⁻¹), and pH-dependent speciations of Al. In pilot studies we, too, found that the effects of Al were not dose-related when the metal was added at once at the beginning of the experiment. The present experiments performed with water of well-defined and controlled composition gave clear and reproducible results. Our results also seem incompatible with the finding of Reader and Morris ('88) that at low pH Al had no effect on calcium fluxes in brown trout. This could be caused by a difference in sensitivity between species but also by a difference in the pH adaptation. We adjusted the pH gradually, shortly before the flux experiment and this reduced the net influx of Ca²⁺ by 39%. Reader and Morris acclimated trout for 5 days to low pH and measured large net Ca²⁺ losses. During the first week of adaptation to pH 4.5, the iontransporting cells (chloride cells) in the gills are literally renewed and subsequently increase in amount (Wendelaar Bonga et al., '90). In tilapia kept at pH 4.5 for 7 days, mainly degenerated (apoptotic) and immature chloride cells were present. If trout have a similar adaptation to low pH as tilapia, the 5 days of acclimation to pH 4.5 might have obscured a possible effect of Al on the Ca²⁺-transporting cells.

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**LITERATURE CITED**


P.M. VERBOST ET AL.


