

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Effects of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation on luminal alkalinisation and net fluid flux in rat duodenum

Olof Nylander¹, Markus Sjöblom¹, John Sedin, David Dahlgren¹ *

Division of Physiology, Department of Medical Cell Biology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

* These authors contributed equally to this work.

* david.dahlgren@farmbio.uu.se**OPEN ACCESS**

Citation: Nylander O, Sjöblom M, Sedin J, Dahlgren D (2022) Effects of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation on luminal alkalinisation and net fluid flux in rat duodenum. PLoS ONE 17(8): e0273208. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208>

Editor: Alexander G. Obukhov, Indiana University School of Medicine, UNITED STATES

Received: January 28, 2022

Accepted: August 3, 2022

Published: August 25, 2022

Peer Review History: PLOS recognizes the benefits of transparency in the peer review process; therefore, we enable the publication of all of the content of peer review and author responses alongside final, published articles. The editorial history of this article is available here: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208>

Copyright: © 2022 Nylander et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the paper and its [Supporting Information](#) files.

Funding: The author(s) received no specific funding for this work.

Abstract

The sympathetic nervous system is highly involved in the regulation of gastrointestinal functions such as luminal alkalinisation and fluid absorption. However, the exact mechanisms are not clear. This study aimed to delineate how α_2 -adrenergic receptor stimulation reduces duodenal luminal alkalinisation and induces net fluid absorption. This was tested by perfusing the duodenum of anesthetized rats with isotonic solutions devoid of Cl^- and/or Na^+ , in the absence and presence of the α_2 -adrenoceptor agonist clonidine. The clonidine was also studied in rats treated with dimethylamiloride (a Na^+/H^+ exchange inhibitor), vasoactive intestinal peptide, and the nicotinic receptor antagonist hexamethonium. Clonidine reduced luminal alkalinisation and induced net fluid absorption. The Cl^- -free solution decreased luminal alkalinisation and abolished net fluid absorption, but did not prevent clonidine from doing so. Both the Na^+ -free solution and luminal dimethylamiloride increased luminal alkalinisation and abolished net fluid absorption, effects counteracted by clonidine. The NaCl -free solution (D-mannitol) did not affect luminal alkalinisation, but reduced net fluid absorption. Clonidine reduced luminal alkalinisation and induced net fluid absorption in rats perfused luminally with mannitol. However, clonidine did not affect the vasoactive intestinal peptide-induced increase in luminal alkalinisation or fluid secretion. Pre-treatment with hexamethonium abolished the effects of clonidine on luminal alkalinisation and net fluid flux. In summary, our *in vivo* experiments showed that clonidine-induced reduction in luminal alkalinisation and induction of net fluid absorption was unrelated to luminal Na^+ and Cl^- , or to apical Na^+/H^+ or $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers. Instead, clonidine seems to exert its effects via suppression of nicotinic receptor-activated acetylcholine secretomotor neurons.

Introduction

Sympathetic postganglionic nerve fibers enter the intestinal wall along arteries. These fibers terminate primarily in the myenteric and submucosal plexuses, but some also penetrate into the submucosa and mucosa [1]. Upon activation of these neurons, noradrenalin is released, which binds to two main types of adrenergic receptors, α and β . This activation inhibits peristalsis, reduces blood flow, and increases fluid absorption.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Adrenergic enteric neurons induces net fluid absorption by stimulation of absorption and/or inhibition of fluid secretion via an α_2 -adrenoceptor mediated mechanism [2]. This may be attributed to α_2 -adrenoceptor-induced inhibition of cholinergic nerves in the myenteric plexus or via a direct action on epithelial cells, or both [3]. The antisecretory effect may be direct, or it may be indirect as a result of reduced gut motility [4]. The pro-absorptive effect may be related to activation of apical ion transporters in the villus epithelium or inhibition of cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator (CFTR, Abc35) or other Cl^- -channels in the crypt epithelium. However, despite extensive studies [5–13], the exact mechanism by which α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation affects electrolyte–fluid flux in the duodenum remains unclear.

The duodenal mucosa of several species, including humans, transports bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) into the luminal solution at a considerable rate. This is achieved via CFTR and apical $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers: downregulated in adenoma (DRA, Slc26a3), putative anion transporter 1 (PAT-1, Slc26a6), and anion exchanger isoform 4 (AE4, Slc4a9). Bicarbonate also enters the lumen, to a much lesser extent, by passive diffusion through paracellular pathways [14, 15]. To a small extent, secretion of H^+ by the apical Na^+/H^+ exchangers, mainly NHE3 (Slc9a3) reduces luminal alkalinisation in human [16], rat [17], and mouse duodenum [18]. The rate of duodenal luminal alkalinisation is regulated by the autonomic nervous system, including the enteric nervous system, paracrine factors, and hormones [19]. Previous *in vivo* experiments have shown that duodenal mucosal alkaline secretion is reduced by electrical stimulation of the sympathetic splanchnic nerves in rat [20] and cat [21], and following intravenous injection of clonidine, a potent α_2 -adrenoceptor agonist, in rats [22, 23], and humans [24]. Currently, the interplay between the above-mentioned transporters and α_2 -adrenoceptor inhibition has not been investigated *in vivo*.

The aim of the present investigation was to further delineate the mechanism by which α_2 -adrenergic receptor stimulation by clonidine reduces duodenal luminal alkalinisation and induces net fluid absorption in rats *in vivo*. More specifically, we wanted to answer if (i) the effects of clonidine on electrolyte and water transport were due to increased absorption or reduced secretion or a combination of both, (ii) if the effects of clonidine were sensitive to the removal of luminal Cl^- and/or Na^+ , and (iii) if clonidine exerted its effects via suppression of excitatory nicotinic receptor-activated secretomotor neurons.

The influence of ion transporter activity in the epithelial brush border membrane (i.e., the $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ and Na^+/H^+ exchangers, and CFTR) was evaluated by perfusing the duodenum with Cl^- or Na^+ free solutions, and with or without clonidine. We also investigated the effects of clonidine in animals pre-treated with the NHE-inhibitor dimethylamiloride (DMA), and the non-selective, nicotinic-acetylcholine receptor antagonist hexamethonium. The latter drug has been shown to reduce basal duodenal luminal alkalinisation and to abolish the increase in HCO_3^- secretion elicited by electrical stimulation of the vagal nerve, suggesting inhibition of enteric excitatory neurons [25, 26]. Finally, we evaluated whether clonidine affected the vaso-active intestinal peptide (VIP) induced stimulation of electrolyte fluid secretion. VIP-induced increase in luminal alkalinisation and fluid secretion is absent in CFTR-knockout mice, suggesting that VIP exerts its effect on secretion via activation of CFTR [27].

Materials and methods

Animals and surgery

The material in this study is in conformity with Good Publishing Practice in Physiology [28]. The study was approved by the local ethics committee for animal research (no: C250/12) in Uppsala, Sweden. Male Sprague Dawley rats ($n = 105$) weighing from 260–389 g (mean \pm SD: 316 ± 27 g) were purchased from Scanbur AB, Sollentuna, Sweden. The animals were

maintained under constant conditions (12:12 h light-dark cycles; 21 °C) with ad libitum access to food and water. Before the experiments, the rats were fasted (in pairs) overnight with free access to water. Thereafter they were anaesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of 125 mg kg⁻¹ thiobutabarbital sodium salt (Inactin, St. Louis, MO, USA). Body temperature was maintained at 37.5 ± 0.5 °C during the surgical procedure. The single-pass duodenal perfusion experiment was the same as described in [29]. At the end of the perfusion experiment, rats were sacrificed with a i.v. injection with saturated KCl solution.

Measurement of duodenal luminal alkalisation

The luminal alkalisation was assessed by back titration as described previously [30], and expressed as micromoles of base transported per cm² serosal surface area per hour ($\mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$).

Measurement of fluid flux

The method to assess transepithelial net fluid flux is detailed in [30]. In brief, the absolute flux was determined by subtracting the collected effluent volume from the peristaltic pump volume. The net change in fluid flux in response to the test solution was determined as follows. The mean of the effluent volumes sampled before the exposure to the test solution was subtracted from the mean value in response to the test solution, in relationship to the weight of the duodenum as determined after the experiment. Fluid flux was expressed in ml per g wet tissue weight per hour ($\text{ml g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$). The drift of the peristaltic pump over time was insignificant (<0.1%).

Experimental protocol

The single-pass intestinal perfusion setups with treatments and luminal conditions are shown in Fig 1. Mean arterial blood pressure (MABP), the rate of luminal alkalisation and the transepithelial net fluid flux were all assessed.

Clonidine with and without idazoxan

The duodenum was perfused luminally with a 155 mM NaCl solution throughout the 90-min experiment. Thirty min after the start of the experiment, clonidine was administered

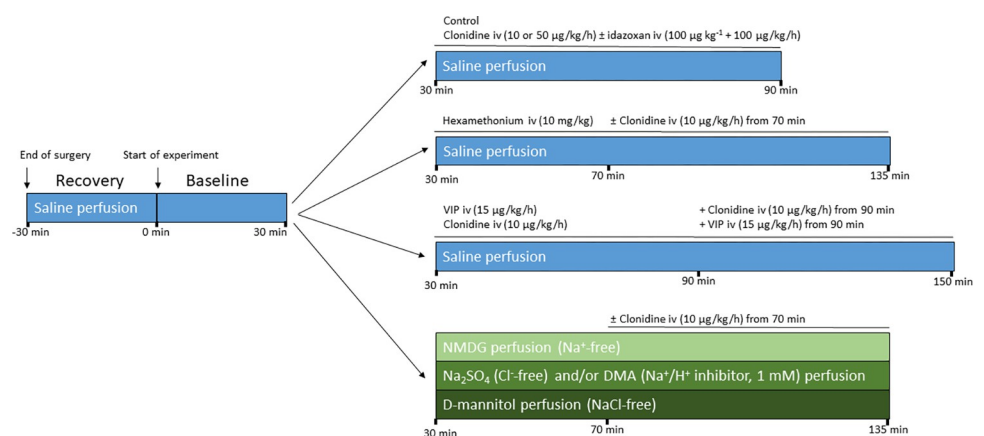


Fig 1. Experimental setups of the intestinal perfusion. In all rat groups, the duodenum was initially perfused (0.4 mL/min) with isotonic saline (blue) for 30 min (stabilization period) followed by a 30 min period to assess basal values of luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux. Each group was thereafter perfused with isotonic saline for 60, 105 or 120 min, or with a solution free from Na⁺ (light green), Cl⁻ (green), or NaCl (dark green). Each of these groups were tested alone, and after intravenous clonidine treatment. In one set of experiments, clonidine was also tested with or without intravenous VIP, and in another with or without luminal DMA, a Na⁺/H⁺ exchange inhibitor.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g001>

intravenously as a continuous infusion (1.0 ml h^{-1}) at a dose of 10 or $50 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. A third subgroup used the same protocol as the clonidine $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ except that idazoxan, an α_2 -adrenoceptor antagonist, was administered intravenously ($100 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ bolus + $100 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ infusion) starting 30-min before the start of the experiment.

Perfusion with a Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 solution

After the initial 30-minute isotonic NaCl perfusion, the duodenum was perfused with a Cl^- -free isotonic Na_2SO_4 solution (75 mM Na_2SO_4 with 60 mM D-mannitol) for 100 min. The protocol was the same for the second subgroup except that clonidine was given by an intravenous infusion (1 ml h^{-1}) at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, starting 40 min after commencement of the Na_2SO_4 perfusion and continued for 60 min.

Perfusion with a Na^+ -free NMDG solution

The experimental protocol was exactly the same as for the Cl^- -free perfusion (Na_2SO_4), except that the solution was a Na^+ -free isotonic N-methyl-D-glucamine chloride (NMDG-Cl; 155 mM; 285–291 mOsm $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{O}$).

Perfusion with a Na^+/H^+ exchange inhibitor, with and without luminal Cl^-

After the 30-min perfusion with isotonic NaCl, the duodenum was perfused for 100 min with the Na^+/H^+ exchange inhibitor DMA (1 mM) in either an isotonic NaCl solution or the Cl^- -free isotonic solution described above. The protocol for the third subgroup was the same except that clonidine was administered intravenously starting 40 min after commencement of the perfusion with the DMA or the Cl^- -free DMA solution and continued for 60 min.

Perfusion with a NaCl-free D-mannitol solution

After an initial 30-min period of isotonic NaCl perfusion, the duodenum was perfused with an isotonic D-mannitol solution (260 mM D-mannitol; 286–290 mOsm $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{O}$). In the second subgroup, clonidine was administered intravenously at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ starting 40 min after commencement of the mannitol perfusion and continued for 60 min.

Effects of vasoactive intestinal peptide

Animals were divided in two subgroups. In both groups, the duodenum was perfused with isotonic NaCl throughout the experiment. In the first subgroup, vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) was intravenously infused at a rate of $15 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ starting 30 min after commencement of effluent collection and continued for 120 min. Sixty min after the start of the VIP infusion, clonidine was continuously infused at $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ throughout the experiment. In the second subgroup, the clonidine was administered 30 min after start of effluent collection. Sixty min after commencement of the clonidine infusion, VIP was administered intravenously at $15 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ throughout the experiment.

Effects of hexamethonium

The duodenum was perfused with isotonic NaCl throughout the experiment. Thirty min after initiation of the perfusion, hexamethonium, a non-selective competitive nicotinic receptor antagonist, was administered intravenously as a bolus at 10 mg kg^{-1} followed by a continuous infusion at $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. In the second subgroup, clonidine was given by an intravenous infusion (1 ml h^{-1}) at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, starting 40 min after start of the hexamethonium infusion and continued for 60 min.

Chemicals

Bovine albumin, DMA, D-mannitol, idazoxan hydrochloride, Inactin, hexamethonium chloride and VIP were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Clonidine HCl was purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK). NaCl, Na₂SO₄, and NMDG were purchased from Merck, Darmstadt, Germany.

Statistical analyses

Values are expressed as means \pm SEM. The statistical significance of the data was tested by analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's Multiple Comparison test. To test differences within a group, i.e. comparing the results obtained before, during, and after perfusion with the different solutions, a one-factor repeated measures ANOVA was used. Differences between two groups of animals was tested by students *t*-test, and when multiple comparisons were needed an unpaired two-factor repeated measures ANOVA was used. All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism software. $P < 0.05$ was considered as significant (two-tailed test). The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Results

Basal luminal alkalisation and fluid flux

The duodenum in all groups was perfused with isotonic NaCl for 30 min. The mean basal rate of luminal alkalisation was $7.1 \pm 2.7 \mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ and the basal net fluid flux was $-0.81 \pm 1.18 \text{ ml g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (mean \pm SD, $n = 105$ for both). The net fluid flux was significantly below zero (i.e. net fluid absorption, $P < 0.001$), which is depicted with a minus sign in text and figures. There was no linear correlation ($r^2 = 0.02$, $P = 0.13$) between the basal absolute rate of luminal alkalisation and the basal net fluid flux.

Effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation on basal parameters

The effects of clonidine, a well-known α_2 -adrenoceptor agonist, was studied on duodenal fluid flux, duodenal luminal alkalisation and mean arterial blood pressure. Intravenous infusion of clonidine at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ significantly ($P < 0.001$) reduced the MABP and duodenal luminal alkalisation ($P < 0.001$), and induced net fluid absorption ($P < 0.001$) (Fig 1A–1C). Clonidine at $50 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ induced virtually the same results on luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux as did $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (Fig 1D and 1E), but the decrease in MABP was faster and less pronounced ($P < 0.05$) (Fig 2F). The magnitude of the clonidine-induced decrease in luminal alkalisation and the change in net fluid flux were both linearly correlated ($P < 0.001$) to basal luminal alkalisation ($y = 1.08 - 0.61x$, $r^2 = 0.74$, $n = 21$) and basal net fluid flux ($y = -1.49 - 0.52x$, $r^2 = 0.64$, $n = 21$), respectively (Fig 1G and 1H).

Effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor inhibition on basal parameters

To examine whether clonidine affected basal parameters by stimulation of α_2 -adrenoceptors, clonidine was tested in animals pretreated with the α_2 -adrenoceptor antagonist idazoxan. The decrease was significantly lower ($P < 0.05$) in idazoxan-treated animals ($-1.2 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, $n = 5$) than in controls ($-3.0 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{mol cm}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, $n = 13$). Idazoxan abolished the pro-absorptive action of clonidine on net fluid flux (the net change was 0.13 ± 0.51 as compared to $-1.48 \pm 0.37 \text{ ml g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ in animals treated with clonidine alone, $P < 0.05$). The clonidine-induced decrease in MABP was significantly ($P < 0.001$) lower in idazoxan-treated animals ($-10 \pm 2 \text{ mm Hg}$) than in the controls.

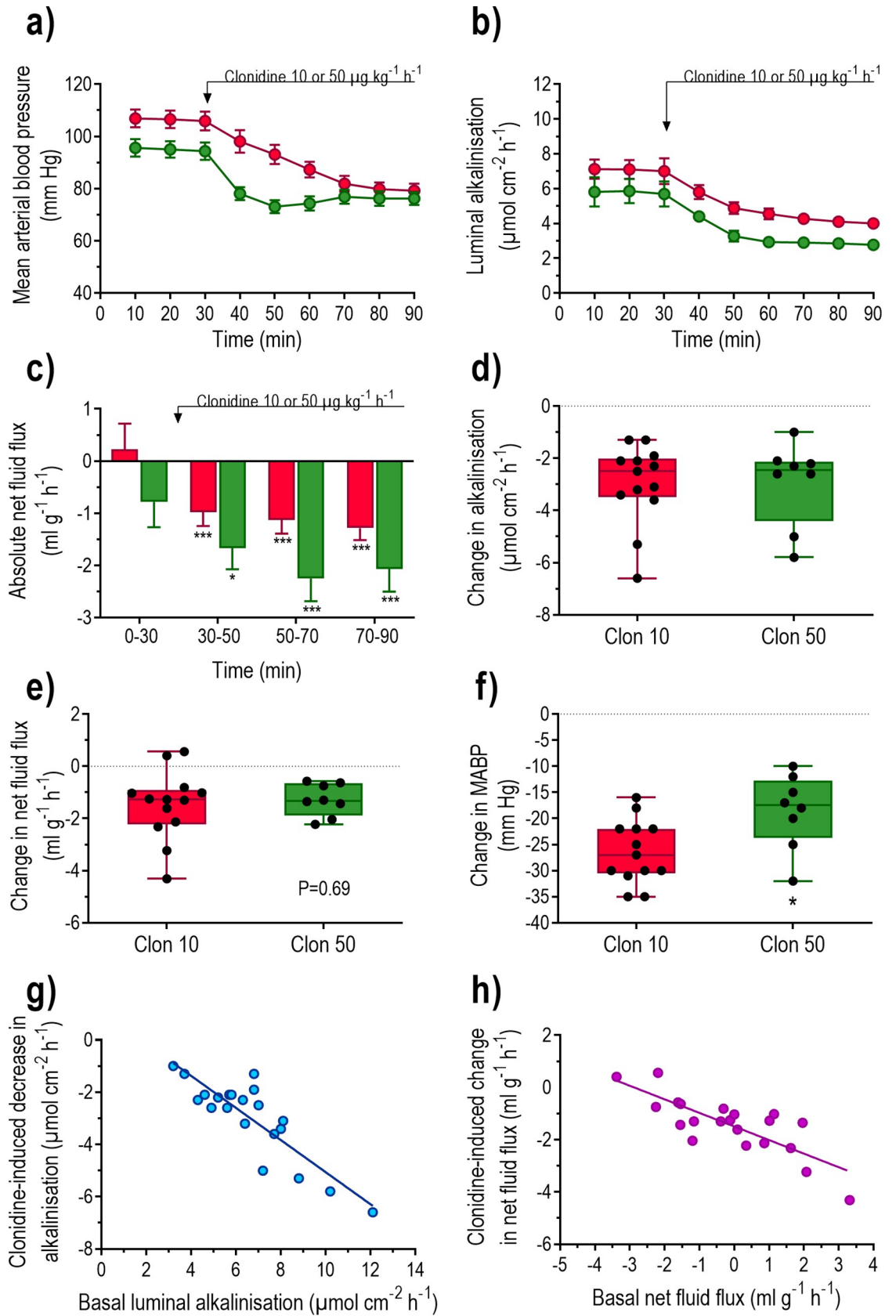


Fig 2. The effects of clonidine on mean arterial blood pressure, fluid flux and luminal alkalisation. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 90 min and clonidine was administered from 30 min as a constant i.v. infusion at a dose of 10 or 50 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ (Fig 1). Shown are the mean (a) arterial blood pressure (MABP), (b) rate of luminal alkalisation, (c) transepithelial net fluid flux, (d) net change in luminal alkalisation in response to clonidine, (e) net change in net fluid flux and (f) net change in MABP in response to clonidine. Relationship between the (g) basal luminal alkalisation and the clonidine-induced decrease in alkalisation ($y = -0.65x + 1.60$, $r^2 = 0.77$, $P < 0.001$), and (h) basal net fluid flux and the clonidine-induced change in net fluid flux ($y = -0.70x - 1.26$, $r^2 = 0.85$, $P < 0.001$). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points, $n = 12$. Changes are presented as the mean of values at 80 and 90 min minus the mean of the three control values. *** $P < 0.001$ compared with basal values.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g002>

Effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation in the absence of luminal Cl^-

The aim was to determine whether the effects of clonidine on luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux are dependent on apical chloride HCO_3^- exchange. To examine this, the duodenum was perfused with an isotonic Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 solution in the absence and presence of clonidine. The isotonic Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 solution decreased ($P < 0.01$) luminal alkalisation and changed ($P < 0.001$) net fluid flux from net absorption to values not different from zero (Fig 3A and 3B). Interestingly, the magnitude of the decrease in luminal alkalisation in response to the Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 solution varied greatly between the animals and was linearly correlated to basal luminal alkalisation ($y = 1.68 - 0.64x$, $r^2 = 0.70$, $P < 0.001$ and $n = 14$) (Fig 4A).

In animals perfused with the Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 solution clonidine decreased ($P < 0.01$) luminal alkalisation further (by 52%) and induced ($P < 0.001$) net fluid absorption (Fig 3C and 3D). The changes in luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux were both significantly greater in the animals treated with Na_2SO_4 and clonidine than with the Na_2SO_4 alone (Fig 3E and 3F).

Effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation in the absence of luminal Na^+

The objective was to determine whether the effects of clonidine on duodenal luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux are dependent on apical $\text{Na}^+ - \text{H}^+$ exchange. This was done by perfusion of the duodenum with an isotonic Na^+ -free NMDG chloride solution in the absence and presence of clonidine. This solution increased ($P < 0.05$) luminal alkalisation and changed ($P < 0.05$) basal net fluid flux from net absorption to zero (Fig 5A and 5B). No linear correlation was found between the basal luminal alkalisation and the NMDG-induced increase in luminal alkalisation ($r^2 = 0.19$, $P = 0.22$, $n = 10$) (Fig 4B).

In animals perfused with an isotonic Na^+ -free NMDG chloride solution clonidine decreased ($P < 0.001$) luminal alkalisation and changed ($P < 0.01$) net fluid flux from a value not different from zero to net fluid absorption (Fig 5C and 5D). The changes in luminal alkalisation and the net fluid flux were both significantly greater in NMDG plus clonidine treated animals than in those treated with NMDG alone (Fig 5E and 5F).

Effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation in the presence of luminal dimethylamiloride

The aim was to determine whether the effects of clonidine on luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux are affected by luminal dimethylamiloride (DMA), a non-specific inhibitor of Na^+ / H^+ exchange. DMA increased luminal alkalisation ($P < 0.05$), and changed ($P < 0.01$) net fluid flux from a basal value not different from zero towards net fluid secretion (Fig 6A and 6B). No linear correlation was found between the basal luminal alkalisation and the DMA-induced increase in luminal alkalisation ($r^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.25$, $n = 13$) (Fig 4C).

In animals perfused with DMA clonidine significantly decreased the rate of luminal alkalisation and induced net fluid absorption (Fig 6C and 6D). The changes in luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux were both significantly greater in DMA plus clonidine treated rats than in those treated with DMA alone (Fig 6E and 6F).

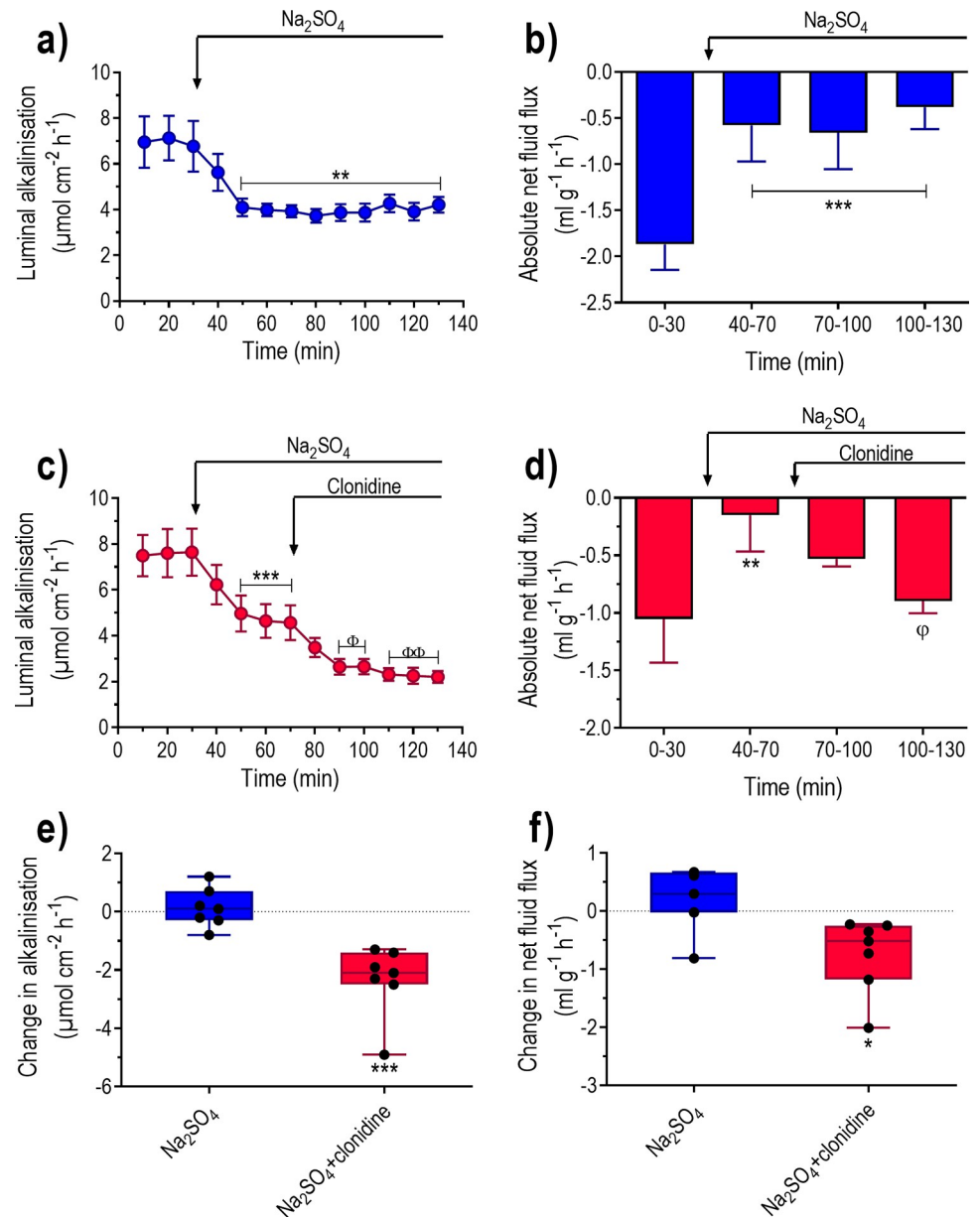


Fig 3. The effects clonidine on net fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in rat duodenum perfused with an isotonic Cl⁻ free solution. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 30 min and subsequently with an isotonic Cl⁻ free Na_2SO_4 solution for 100 min (Fig 1). Effects on luminal alkalisation (a and c) and transepithelial net fluid flux (b and d) in the absence and presence of i.v. infusion of clonidine at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. Net changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 110–130 min and 50–70 min (Na_2SO_4 plus clonidine vs. Na_2SO_4 alone). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with basal values. $\Phi P < 0.05$ and $\Phi\Phi P < 0.01$ compared with values at 40–70 min. Fig (e) and (f); * $P < 0.05$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with values in animals treated with Na_2SO_4 alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g003>

The effect of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation in the absence of luminal NaCl

The objective was to determine whether the effects of clonidine on luminal alkalisation and net fluid flux is affected by the lack of luminal NaCl. To achieve this, the duodenum was perfused with an isotonic NaCl-free solution, i.e., an isotonic D-mannitol solution. The isotonic D-mannitol solution had no significant effect on the mean luminal alkalisation (Fig 7a).

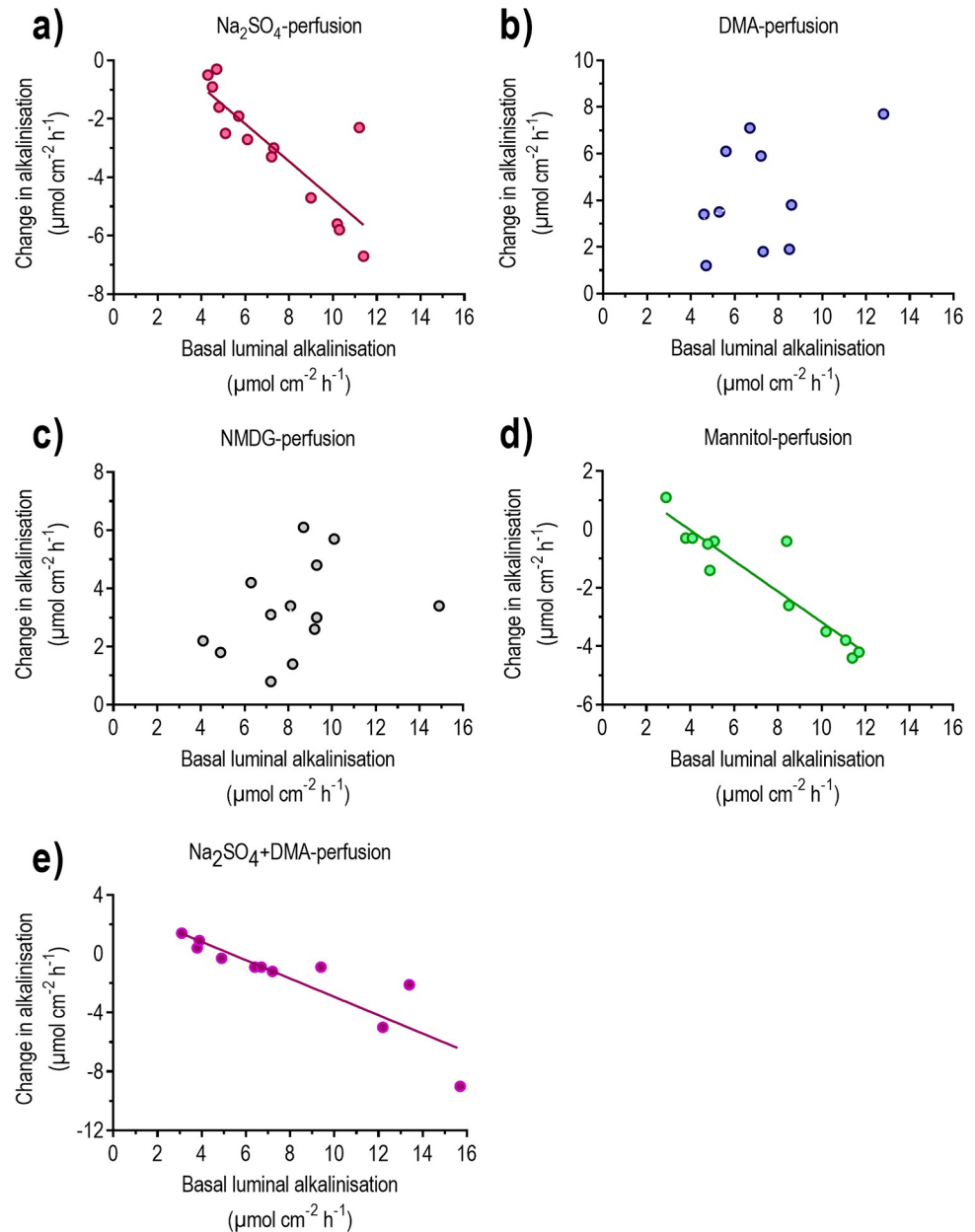


Fig 4. The relationship between the changes in luminal alkalisation in response to different luminal solutions and basal luminal alkalisation. The duodenum was perfused for 40 min with (a) Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 , (b) Na^+ -free NMDG, (c) dimethylamiloride (DMA), (d) NaCl -free D-mannitol, or (e) Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 plus DMA. Each x-y value is the mean of three basal values before treatment and the mean of the two last values in response to treatment.

Regression analysis: (a). $y = -0.64x + 1.68$, $r^2 = 0.70$, $P < 0.001$, $n = 14$. (b) $y = 0.21x + 1.55$, $r^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.25$, $n = 13$. (c). $y = 0.40x + 1.32$, $r^2 = 0.19$, $P = 0.21$, $n = 10$. (d). $y = -0.52x + 2.08$, $r^2 = 0.86$, $P < 0.001$, $n = 12$. (e). $y = -0.62x + 3.31$, $r^2 = 0.79$, $P = 0.001$, $n = 11$.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g004>

However, a very good ($P < 0.001$) linear correlation ($y = 2.08 - 0.52x$, $r^2 = 0.86$) was found between the basal luminal alkalisation and the mannitol-induced change in luminal alkalisation (Fig 4D). During the perfusion with isotonic NaCl there was a net fluid absorption, which decreased significantly in response to the isotonic mannitol solution (Fig 7B). The

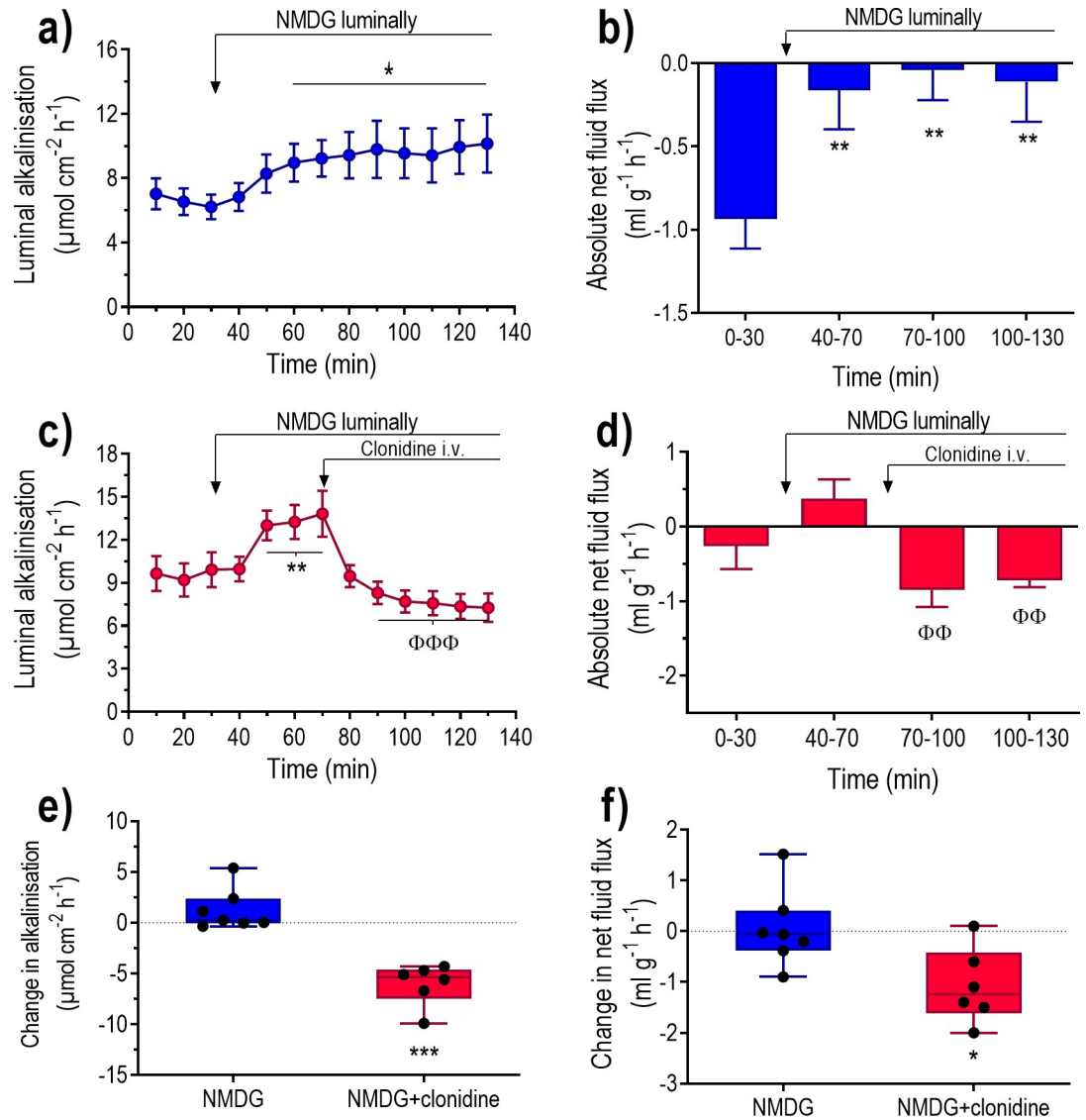


Fig 5. The effects of clonidine on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in rat duodenum perfused with an isotonic Na⁺-free solution. The duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 30 min, followed by an isotonic Na⁺-free NMDG chloride solution for 100 min (Fig 1). Effects on luminal alkalisation (a and c) and transepithelial net fluid flux (b and d) in the absence and presence of i.v. infusion of clonidine at a dose of 10 µg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹. Net changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 110–130 min and 50–70 min (NMDG plus clonidine vs. NMDG alone). Values are means ± SEM or box plots with all individual points. *P<0.05 and **P<0.01 compared with basal values. ^{ΦΦ}P<0.01 and ^{ΦΦΦ}P<0.001 compared with values at 40–70 min. Fig (e) and (f); *P<0.05 and ***P<0.001 compared with values in animals treated with NMDG alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g005>

absolute net fluid flux at 100–130 min was significantly below zero (P<0.02), i.e., net fluid absorption.

In animals perfused with the isotonic NaCl-free solution clonidine significantly decreased luminal alkalisation and increased net fluid absorption (Fig 7C and 7D). The changes in luminal alkalisation and the net fluid flux were both significantly greater in mannitol plus clonidine treated animals than in mannitol treated ones (Fig 7E and 7F).

The effects of α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation in the absence of luminal Cl⁻ and in the presence of dimethylamiloride. To further examine whether the effects induced by clonidine

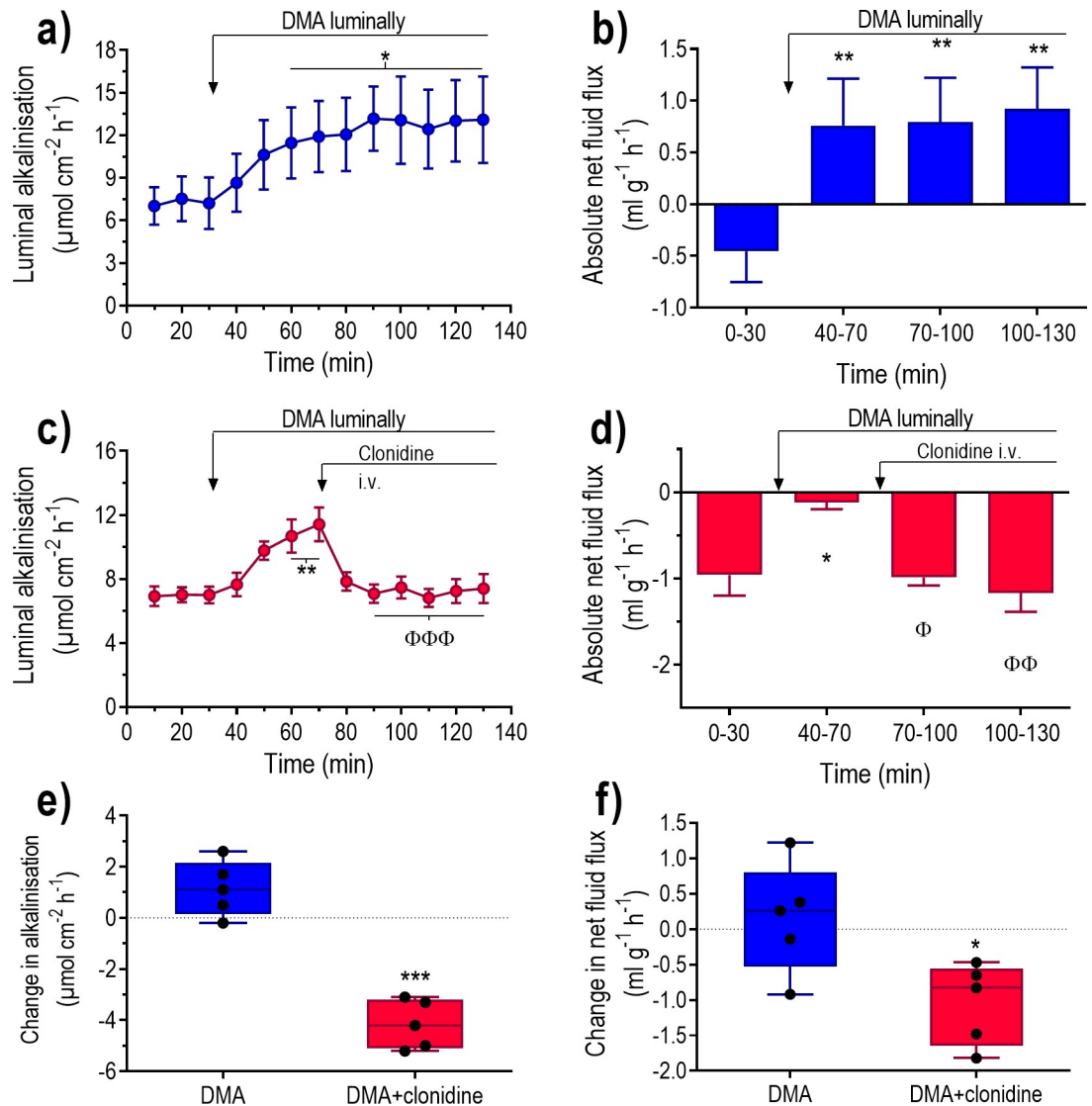


Fig 6. The effects of clonidine on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in the rat duodenum perfused with DMA. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 30 min and subsequently with isotonic dimethylamiloride (DMA) solution (10^{-3} M) for 100 min (Fig 1). Effects on luminal alkalisation (a and c) and transepithelial net fluid flux (b and d) in the absence and presence of i.v. infusion of clonidine at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. Net changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 110–130 min and 50–70 min (DMA plus clonidine vs DMA alone). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ compared with basal values. $\Phi P < 0.05$, $\Phi\Phi P < 0.01$ and $\Phi\Phi\Phi P < 0.001$ compared with values at 50–70 min. Fig (e) and (f); * $P < 0.05$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with values in animals treated with DMA alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g006>

involved the combination of the chloride HCO_3^- exchangers and the sodium hydrogen exchanger (NHE3), duodenum was perfused with an isotonic Cl^- -free solution together with DMA. Perfusion with isotonic Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 plus DMA did not affect the mean luminal alkalisation (Fig 8A). However, similar to the mannitol-perfusion experiments, a very good ($P < 0.001$) linear correlation ($y = 3.31 - 0.62x$, $r^2 = 0.79$, $n = 11$) was found between the basal luminal alkalisation and the Na_2SO_4 plus DMA-induced change in luminal alkalisation (Fig 4E). The Na_2SO_4 plus DMA solution changed ($P < 0.05$) net fluid flux from a value not different from zero to net fluid secretion (Fig 8B).

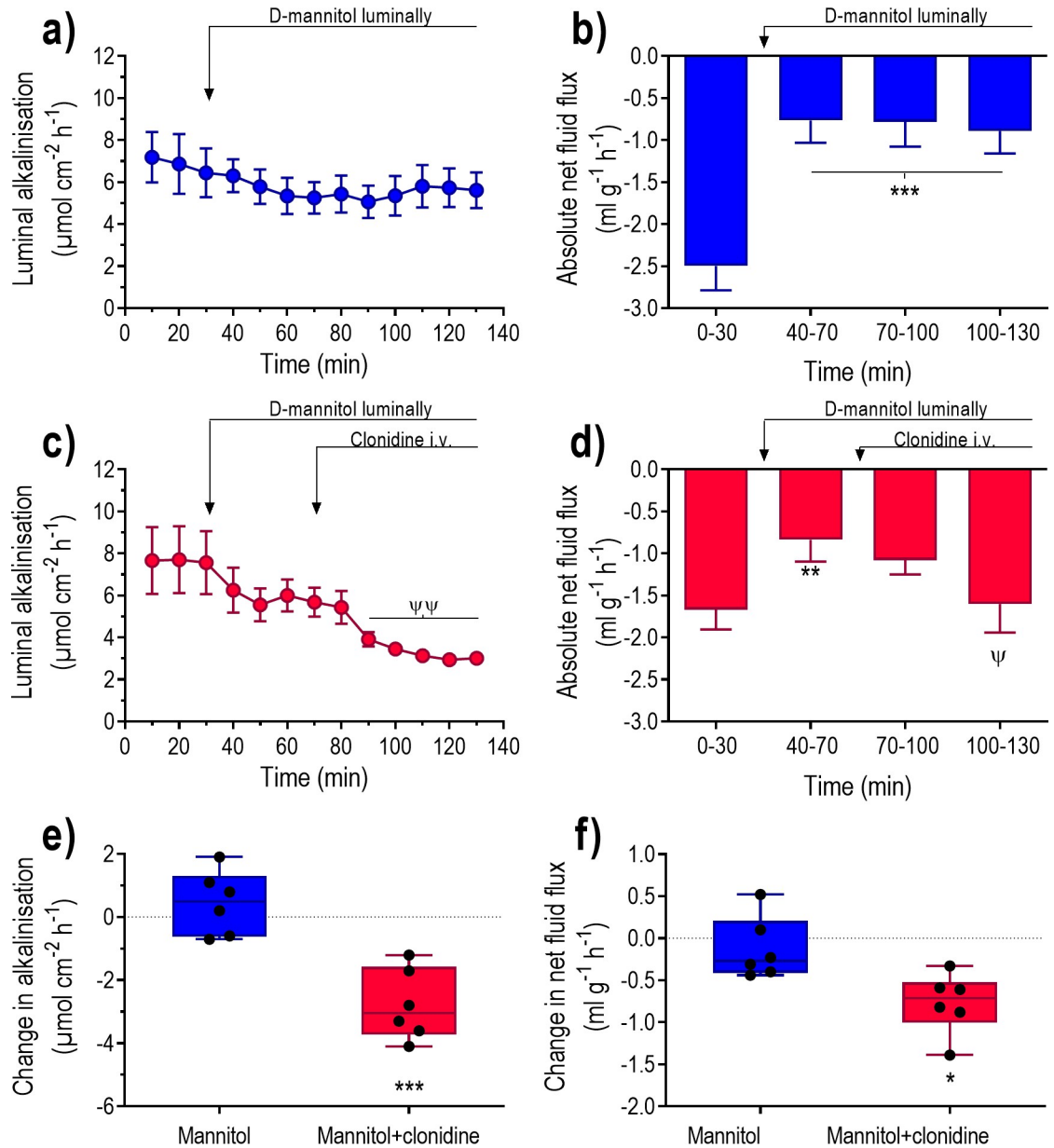


Fig 7. The effects of clonidine on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in rat duodenum perfused with a NaCl-free solution. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 30 min and then with an isotonic D-mannitol solution for 100 min (Fig 1). Effects on luminal alkalisation (a and c) and transepithelial net fluid flux (b and d) were determined in the absence and presence of i.v. infusion of clonidine at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. Net changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 110–130 min and 50–70 min (D-mannitol plus clonidine vs. D-mannitol alone). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with basal values. $\psi P < 0.05$, $\psi\psi P < 0.01$ compared with values at 50–70 min. Fig (e) and (f); * $P < 0.05$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with values in animals treated with D-mannitol alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g007>

In animals perfused with the Cl^- -free Na_2SO_4 plus DMA solution clonidine reduced luminal alkalisation and abolished the Na_2SO_4 plus DMA-induced net fluid secretion (Fig 8C and 8D). The changes in luminal alkalisation and the net fluid flux were both significantly greater in clonidine treated animals (Fig 8E and 8F).

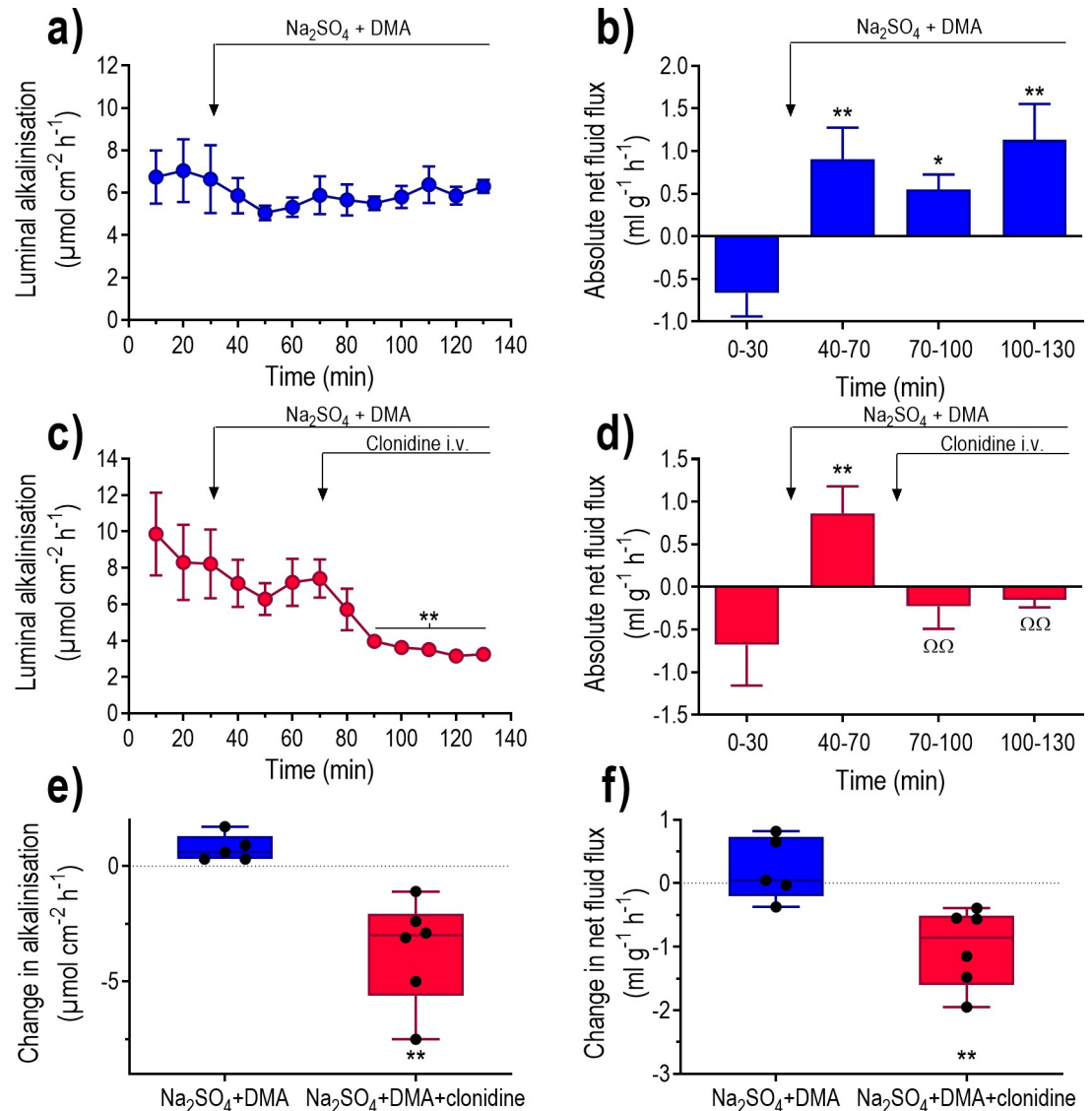


Fig 8. The effects of clonidine on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in rat duodenum perfused with a Cl^- -free + DMA solution. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 30 min and then an isotonic Na_2SO_4 plus dimethylamiloride (DMA) solution for 100 min (Fig 1). Effects on (a and c) luminal alkalisation and (b and d) transepithelial net fluid flux were determined in the absence and presence of i.v. infusion of clonidine at a dose of $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. Changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 110–130 min and 50–70 min (Na_2SO_4 plus DMA plus clonidine vs. Na_2SO_4 plus DMA alone). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. Fig (b) and (d) * $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ compared with values at 0–30 min. Fig (c) ** $P < 0.01$ compared with values at 40–70 min. Fig (c) $\Phi\Phi P < 0.01$ compared with values at 50–70 min. Fig (e) and (f) ** $P < 0.01$ compared with animals treated with Na_2SO_4 plus DMA alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g008>

Does α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation affect the VIP-induced stimulation of electrolyte-fluid secretion?

There were reasons to believe that clonidine reduces luminal alkalisation and induces net fluid absorption by inhibiting electrolyte fluid secretion. To investigate this possibility, we used vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), a well-recognised secretagogue, to stimulate electrolyte fluid secretion. In the first series of experiments we investigated the effects of clonidine in animals treated with VIP. VIP increased ($P < 0.001$) luminal alkalisation and induced

($P < 0.001$) net fluid secretion (Fig 9A and 9B). In VIP-treated animals clonidine decreased, but did not abolish, luminal alkalisation ($P < 0.05$) and reduced net fluid secretion ($P < 0.01$).

In a second series of experiments we examined whether VIP could increase electrolyte fluid secretion in the presence of clonidine. Indeed, VIP increased ($P < 0.001$) luminal alkalisation and changed ($P < 0.001$) net fluid flux from net fluid absorption to net secretion (Fig 9C and 9D). The net increase in luminal alkalisation and the change in net fluid flux in response to VIP were virtually the same in animals treated with VIP alone as in those pre-treated with clonidine (Fig 9E and 9F). The net decrease in luminal alkalisation and the change in net fluid flux in response to clonidine were virtually the same in animals treated with clonidine alone and in those pre-treated with VIP (Fig 9G and 9H).

Does α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation affect the nAChR-induced inhibition on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation?

Clonidine may indirectly inhibit electrolyte fluid secretion by suppressing nicotinic acetylcholine receptors-activated (nAChR) secretomotor neurons that innervate the epithelium. If this were the case, treatment with hexamethonium would prevent clonidine from inhibiting luminal alkalisation and inducing net fluid absorption. Administration of hexamethonium promptly and continuously reduced MABP (Fig 10A). Concomitantly, hexamethonium decreased luminal alkalisation and augmented net fluid absorption (Fig 10B and 10C). A very good correlation was found between the basal luminal alkalisation and the hexamethonium-induced decrease in luminal alkalisation ($y = 2.04 - 0.69x$, $r^2 = 0.77$, $P < 0.001$, $n = 15$), (Fig 10D). Intravenous infusion of clonidine to rats pre-treated with hexamethonium had no effect on MABP (Fig 10A), luminal alkalisation, or net fluid flux (Fig 10E and 10F).

Summary of treatment effects on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation

Interventions and their effects on fluid absorption and luminal alkalisation in the villi and crypt regions are summarized in Fig 11.

Discussion

The aim of the present investigation was to shed further light on the mechanism by which α_2 -adrenoceptor stimulation inhibits luminal alkalisation and induces net fluid absorption in the rat duodenum *in vivo*. More specifically, we wanted to answer if (i) the effects of clonidine on electrolyte and water transport were due to increased absorption or reduced secretion or a combination of both, (ii) if the effects of clonidine were sensitive to the removal of luminal Cl^- and/or Na^+ , and (iii) if clonidine exerted its effects via suppression of excitatory nicotinic receptor-activated secretomotor neurons [3].

Clonidine at two doses induced the same inhibition of luminal alkalisation and induction of net fluid absorption. The fact that the effects were markedly attenuated by the α_2 -adrenoceptor antagonist idazoxan, strongly suggests that clonidine exerts its effects via α_2 -adrenoceptors. An interesting observation was that clonidine was less effective in reducing luminal alkalisation and augmenting net fluid absorption in rats with a low basal rate of alkalisation or a high basal net fluid absorption, respectively, which most likely reflects a higher basal sympathetic tone to the duodenal segment in these rats.

Previous *in vivo* experiments in rodent duodenum have shown that ablation of $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers (Slc26a6 or Slc26a3) reduces basal duodenal mucosal HCO_3^- secretion, and that luminal perfusion with a Cl^- -free solution markedly reduces luminal alkalisation [18, 30]. This suggests that $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers play an important role in regulating duodenal mucosal HCO_3^- secretion. The results in our study clearly showed that the magnitude of the Cl^- -free

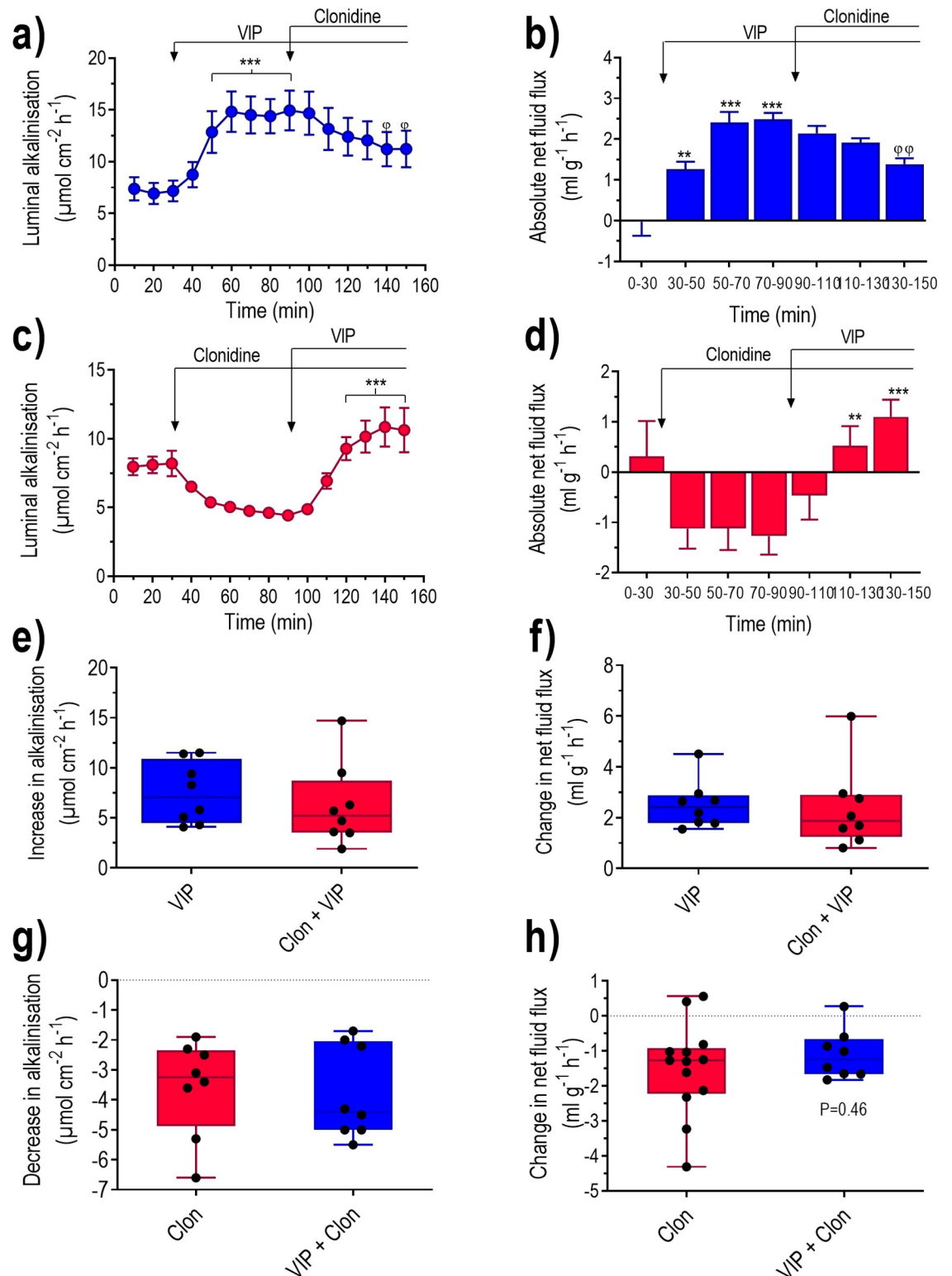


Fig 9. The effects of clonidine administered before and after treatment with vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) on fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in rat duodenum. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 150 min. Effects on (a and c) luminal alkalisation and (b and d) transepithelial net fluid flux determined with (a and b) VIP (i.v. $15 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) from 30 min and clonidine (i.v. $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) from 90 min, or with (c and d) clonidine from 30 min and VIP from 90 min. The (e) increase in luminal alkalisation and the (f) change in net fluid flux in response to VIP alone (mean 70–90 min minus 0–30 min) and in

response to clonidine (mean 130–150 min minus 70–90 min). The (e) decrease in luminal alkalisation and the (f) change in net fluid flux in response to clonidine alone (mean 70–90 min minus 0–30 min) and in response to VIP (mean 130–150 min minus 70–90 min). Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. Fig a-b. ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with basal values. $\Psi P < 0.05$ and $\Psi\Psi P < 0.01$ compared with values at time points 70–90 min. Fig c-d. ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with values at time point 70–90. Fig e. * $P < 0.05$ compared with VIP alone.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g009>

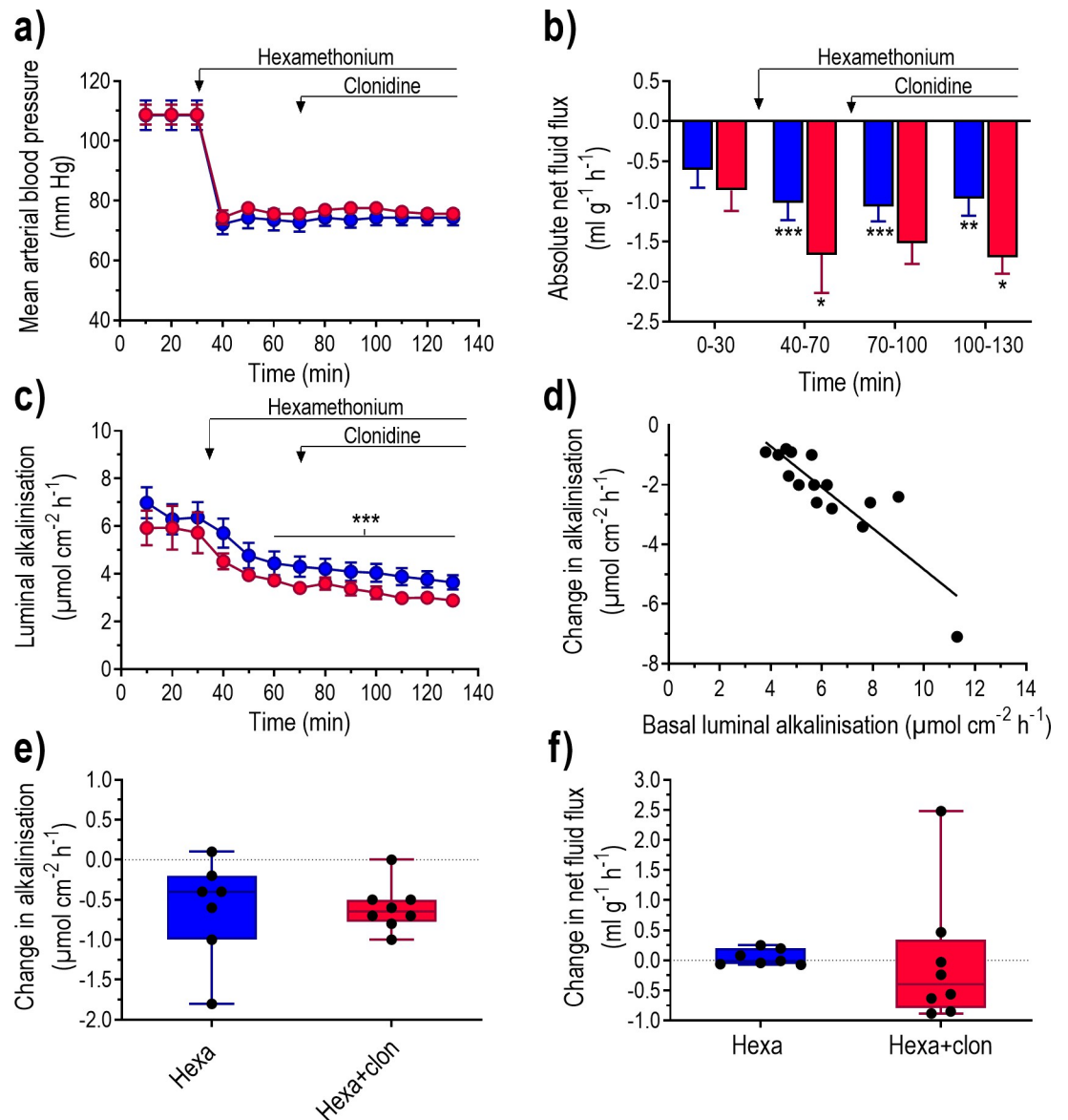


Fig 10. The effect of clonidine administered after treatment with a non-selective nicotinic receptor inhibitor (hexamethonium) on blood pressure, net fluid flux and luminal alkalisation in the rat duodenum. Duodenum was perfused with isotonic saline for 130 min with hexamethonium (i.v. $10 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) from 30 min followed by clonidine (i.v. $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) from 70 min (Fig 1). Effects on (a) mean arterial blood pressure, (b) transepithelial net fluid flux, and (c) luminal alkalisation with. The (d) relationship between the basal luminal alkalisation and the changes in luminal alkalisation in response to hexamethonium compared to baseline (0–30 min). Changes in (e) luminal alkalisation and (f) transepithelial net fluid flux between 100–130 and 40–70 min in animals treated with hexamethonium alone and hexamethonium plus clonidine. Values are means \pm SEM or box plots with all individual points. ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ compared with basal values. $\Psi P < 0.05$ and $\Psi\Psi P < 0.01$ compared with values at time point 70–90.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g010>

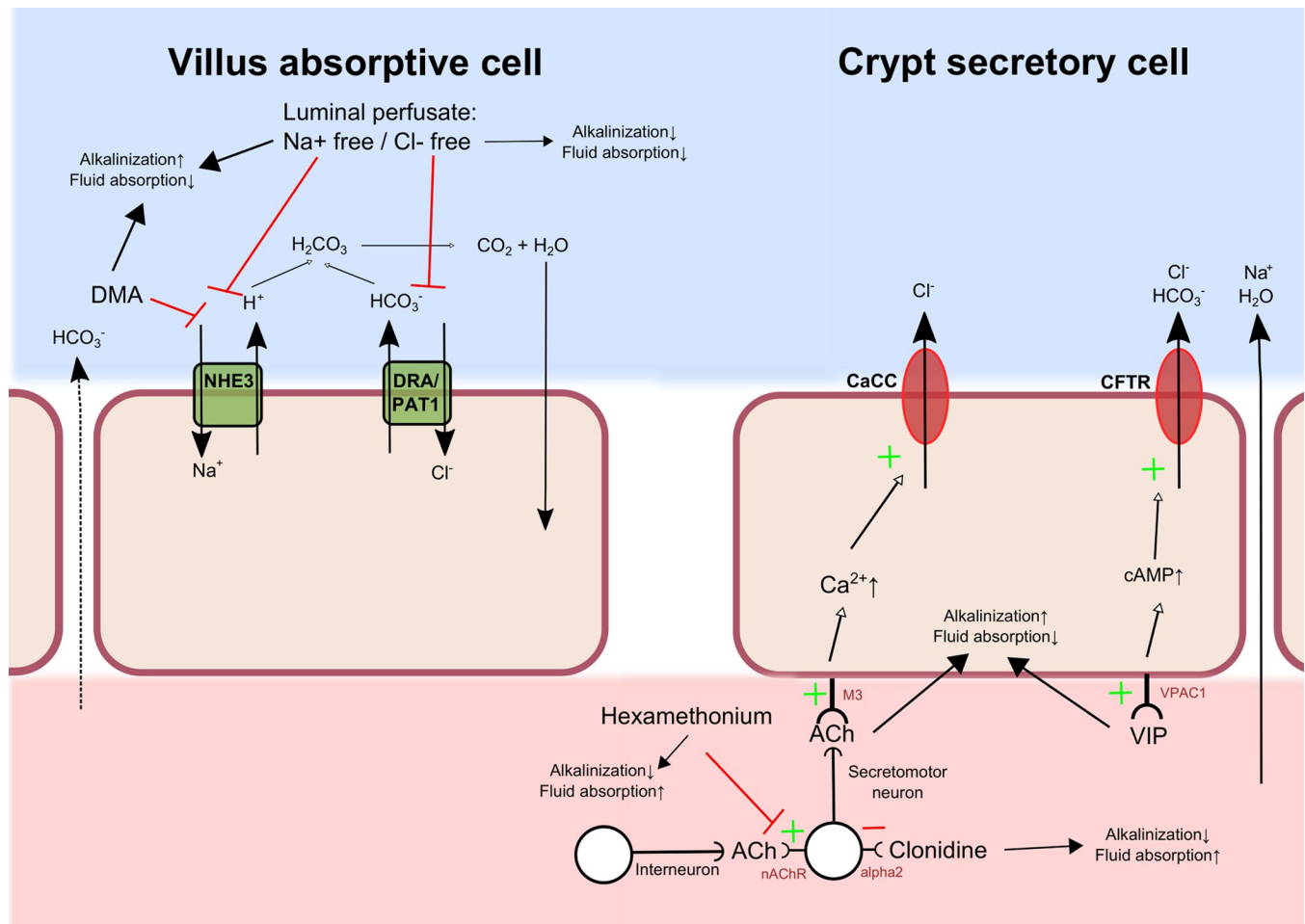


Fig 11. A summary of the effects on duodenal fluid absorption and luminal alkalisation in the villi and crypts. Effects on rat duodenal fluid absorption and luminal alkalisation of clonidine combined with sodium and/or chloride free luminal perfusates, luminal inhibition of the Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger (NHE3) with DMA, and intravenous administrations of the vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) or hexamethonium, a non-selective nicotinic receptor antagonist. DRA/PAT1—chloride anion exchanger, CaCC—calcium-activated chloride channels, CFTR—Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator, ACh—acetylcholine, cAMP—Cyclic adenosine monophosphate, nAChR—Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor, alpha2—Alpha-2 adrenoceptor, VPAC1—Vasoactive intestinal polypeptide receptor 1, M3—Muscarinic M3 receptor.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0273208.g011>

solution-induced decrease in luminal alkalisation correlated well with the basal rate of luminal alkalisation. In other words, the greater the basal rate, the greater the decrease in alkalisation. The great variation in basal duodenal luminal alkalisation among animals could thus reflect different activity of the apical Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchangers. This in turn hints that the apical Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchangers are regulated and dependent on neurotransmitters, hormones, and paracrine factors. In fact, Tuo *et al.* (2006) [31] found that the PGE₂- and the carbachol-stimulated duodenal HCO₃⁻ secretion was reduced in Slc26A6-deficient mice *in vitro*. Other experiments *in vivo* in the rat duodenum show that the motility-induced stimulation of duodenal luminal alkalisation is almost completely abolished by removal of luminal Cl⁻ [30].

The Cl⁻-free solution-induced decrease in luminal alkalisation was associated with abolishment of net fluid absorption. This confirms previous findings in humans and rodents that luminal Cl⁻ and the presence of functional Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchangers are required for a normal intestinal fluid absorption [32–34].

In the present study it is clearly shown that clonidine significantly reduced luminal alkalisation and induced net fluid absorption also rats perfused with a Cl^- -free solution, strongly suggesting a mechanism independent of luminal Cl^- .

Luminal perfusion of the duodenal segment with the Na^+ -free solution, or inhibition of Na^+/H^+ exchange (DMA), increased luminal alkalisation, confirming findings from rat and mouse [17, 18]. This probably occurs via inhibition of apical H^+ efflux, which then unmasks the activity of $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers and the CFTR channel. In contrast to the Cl^- -free solution, no linear correlation was found between the basal rate of luminal alkalisation and the Na^+ -free or DMA-induced increase in luminal alkalisation. One explanation may be a predominance of $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers over Na^+/H^+ exchangers in duodenum [35, 36]. Another explanation may be that the activity of apical Na^+/H^+ exchangers is less variable than that of the $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ exchangers in our *in vivo* duodenal-perfusion model.

Luminal perfusion with the Na^+ -free (NMDG) or the DMA solution abolished net fluid absorption, in agreement with findings that the lack of luminal Na^+ , NHE3-gene knockout [34], or NHE3 inhibition by S1611 [18], reduce fluid absorption in the mouse small intestine. Clonidine may induce net fluid absorption and inhibit luminal alkalisation by stimulation of basal NHE3, and/or by inhibiting the cAMP- and Ca^{2+} -induced decreases in apical NHE3 activity [37]. Our data showed that clonidine effectively reduced luminal alkalisation and induced net fluid absorption also in the absence of luminal Na^+ and in the presence of DMA, suggesting a mechanism independent of Na^+/H^+ exchange.

The fact that the Cl^- -free (Na_2SO_4) solution decreased luminal alkalisation, while the Na^+ -free one (NMDG) increased it made us curious what would happen in response to luminal perfusion with the NaCl -free mannitol solution, or the Cl^- -free plus DMA solution. It turned out that these two solutions had no significant effect on luminal alkalisation. However, the change in luminal alkalisation of the two treatments depended on the rate of basal luminal alkalisation. In rats with a spontaneously low basal alkalisation, the decrease in luminal alkalisation induced by the removal of Cl^- was probably counterbalanced by the increase in alkalisation brought about by the lack of luminal Na^+ , or by the inhibition of Na^+/H^+ exchange. Clonidine also decreased luminal alkalisation in the absence of luminal NaCl , and luminal Cl^- plus inhibition of Na^+/H^+ exchange. The mannitol solution markedly attenuated the net fluid absorption while the Cl^- -free plus DMA solution induced net fluid secretion. Clonidine augmented the net fluid absorption in mannitol-perfused animals and abolished the net fluid secretion in those perfused with Na_2SO_4 plus DMA. Taken together, these results further suggested that clonidine reduces luminal alkalisation and induces net fluid absorption by a mechanism independent of $\text{Cl}^-/\text{HCO}_3^-$ and Na^+/H^+ exchange.

How then does clonidine reduce luminal alkalisation and induce net fluid absorption? The most obvious explanation is that clonidine inhibits electrolyte fluid secretion. Most likely this occurs by inhibition of CFTR or other Cl^- channels in the crypt region of the epithelium, where α_2 -adrenoceptors are predominately expressed, both in rat jejunum and human duodenum [38, 39]. We tested this hypothesis by examining the ability of clonidine to inhibit the effects of VIP, which is normally found in nerve fibres in proximity to the duodenal epithelium [40, 41]. It has previously been shown that VIP stimulates duodenal mucosal HCO_3^- transport [42–44], as well as fluid secretion in animals with functional CFTR activity [27, 45]. In guinea pig jejunum *in vitro*, VIP appears to exert its stimulatory effect on secretion (short-circuit current), predominately via activation of VPAC1 receptors located in the mucosa and partly via an action on submucosal neurons [46].

If VIP and clonidine exert their actions on the same target cell, it seems reasonable to assume that clonidine would reduce the stimulatory effect of VIP, and that VIP would reduce the inhibitory action of clonidine. In the first series of experiments, clonidine reduced both the

VIP-induced increase in luminal alkalisation and the increase in net fluid secretion, in agreement with data from rat jejunum *in vivo* [47]. However, in animals pre-treated with clonidine, the VIP-induced increase in luminal alkalisation and net fluid secretion were not different from what was obtained with VIP alone. Furthermore, the net decrease in luminal alkalisation and the change in net fluid flux in response to clonidine were virtually the same in animals treated with clonidine alone as in those pre-treated with VIP. It thus appears that clonidine does not affect the VIP-induced stimulation of secretion but rather the basal secretion, which may be regulated by a different neural mechanism, at least in rat duodenum.

The modest, if any, inhibitory effect of clonidine on the VIP-induced stimulation of electrolyte fluid secretion raised the possibility that clonidine inhibits electrolyte fluid secretion indirectly, possibly via activation of α_2 -adrenoceptors on cholinergic enteric secretomotor neurons. We know from previous experiments that the non-selective nicotinic receptor antagonist, hexamethonium, reduces basal luminal alkalisation [25, 26], which was confirmed in the present study. The degree of inhibition of luminal alkalisation by hexamethonium highly correlated to basal rates of luminal alkalisation, which possibly reflects variation in secretomotor neuron activity to the epithelium. Furthermore, here we showed that hexamethonium augmented net fluid absorption by inhibiting secretion. If clonidine exerts its action solely by blocking the activity in these hexamethonium-sensitive nerves, it is reasonable to assume that it would have no effect in hexamethonium-treated rats. This turned out to be the case, which favours the notion that clonidine inhibits electrolyte-fluid secretion via suppression of the activity in excitatory secretomotor neurons, in line with findings in rat jejunum *in vivo* [48]. Furthermore, the data does not support a direct effect of clonidine on α_2 -adrenoceptors expressed on epithelial cells, as suggested from stripped ileal mucosa with the voltage clamp technique [49]. Most likely clonidine acts by reducing the release of acetylcholine by secretomotor neurons, which binds to muscarinic M3 receptors on the epithelial crypt cells (Fig 11). Acetylcholine causes intracellular Ca^{2+} to increase (while VIP increases cAMP), thereby stimulating apical Cl^- secretion via the calcium-dependent chloride channel, as well as basolateral K^+ secretion [50]. These effects on ion secretion (i.e., VIP and acetylcholine) act synergistically [51, 52], which may explain why clonidine was still active even at the high VIP doses used in this study. We currently have ongoing experiments including muscarinic receptor antagonist to verify this.

In conclusion, the potent α_2 -adrenoceptor agonist clonidine turned out to inhibit luminal alkalisation and to induce fluid absorption or inhibit secretion, in the absence of either luminal Cl^- or Na^+ or both, and in the presence of a Na^+/H^+ exchange inhibitor. Although clonidine slightly reduced the VIP-induced stimulation of luminal alkalisation and net fluid secretion, it did not affect the magnitude of the VIP-induced fluid secretion. The suppressive effect of clonidine on luminal alkalisation as well as its pro-absorptive action was abolished by nicotinic receptor blockade. Collectively, these *in vivo* results suggest that clonidine exerts its effects predominately via inhibition of fluid secretion due to suppression of excitatory nicotinic receptor-activated secretomotor acetylcholine neurons and probably not by direct action on epithelial cells, at least not in the rat duodenum *in vivo*.

Supporting information

S1 Data.
(XLSX)

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Olof Nylander.

Data curation: John Sedin.

Project administration: Olof Nylander, Markus Sjöblom, David Dahlgren.

Validation: David Dahlgren.

Writing – original draft: Olof Nylander.

Writing – review & editing: Markus Sjöblom, John Sedin, David Dahlgren.

References

1. Lomax A, Sharkey K, Furness J (2010) The participation of the sympathetic innervation of the gastrointestinal tract in disease states. *Neurogastroenterology & Motility* 22: 7–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2982.2009.01381.x> PMID: 19686308
2. Goyal RK, Hirano I (1996) The enteric nervous system. *New England Journal of Medicine* 334: 1106–1115. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199604253341707> PMID: 8598871
3. Fragkos KC, Zárate-Lopez N, Frangos CC (2016) What about clonidine for diarrhoea? A systematic review and meta-analysis of its effect in humans. *Therapeutic advances in gastroenterology* 9: 282–301. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1756283X15625586> PMID: 27134659
4. Schiller LR (2017) Antidiarrheal drug therapy. *Current gastroenterology reports* 19: 1–12.
5. Field M, McColl I (1973) Ion transport in rabbit ileal mucosa. 3. Effects of catecholamines. *American Journal of Physiology-Legacy Content* 225: 852–857. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajplegacy.1973.225.4.852> PMID: 4355176
6. Hubel KA (1976) Intestinal ion transport: effect of norepinephrine, pilocarpine, and atropine. *American Journal of Physiology-Legacy Content* 231: 252–257.
7. BRUNSSON I, EKLUND S, JODAL M, LUNDGREN O, SJÖVALL H (1979) The effect of vasodilatation and sympathetic nerve activation on net water absorption in the cat's small intestine. *Acta Physiologica Scandinavica* 106: 61–68. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1979.tb06370.x> PMID: 463580
8. Chang EB, Field M, Miller RJ (1982) alpha 2-Adrenergic receptor regulation of ion transport in rabbit ileum. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 242: G237–G242. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.1982.242.3.G237> PMID: 6278952
9. Chang EB, Field M, Miller RJ (1983) Enterocyte alpha 2-adrenergic receptors: yohimbine and p-aminoclonidine binding relative to ion transport. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 244: G76–G82. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.1983.244.1.G76> PMID: 6295186
10. Durbin T, Rosenthal L, McArthur K, Anderson D, Dharmasathaporn K (1982) Clonidine and lidamidine (WHR-1142) stimulate sodium and chloride absorption in the rabbit intestine. *Gastroenterology* 82: 1352–1358. PMID: 6121738
11. Sjövall H (1984) Evidence for separate sympathetic regulation of fluid absorption and blood flow in the feline jejunum. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 247: G510–G514. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.1984.247.5.G510> PMID: 6149695
12. Hemlin M, Butcher P, Sjövall H (1987) Electrogenic and electroneutral components of the sympathetic effect on fluid absorption in the rat jejunum. *Acta physiologica scandinavica* 131: 599–608. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1987.tb08281.x> PMID: 2894743
13. Sedin J, Dahlgren D, Sjöblom M, Nylander O (2021) The Impact of α -Adrenoceptors in the Regulation of the Hypotonicity-Induced Increase in Duodenal Mucosal Permeability In Vivo. *Pharmaceutics* 13: 2096. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics13122096> PMID: 34959377
14. Simpson JE, Schweinfest CW, Shull GE, Gawenis LR, Walker NM, et al. (2007) PAT-1 (Slc26a6) is the predominant apical membrane Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchanger in the upper villous epithelium of the murine duodenum. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 292: G1079–G1088. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.00354.2006> PMID: 17170027
15. Seidler U, Sjöblom M (2012) Gastroduodenal Bicarbonate Secretion In: Johnson LR, editor. *Physiology of the Gastrointestinal Tract*. London: Elsevier Inc.
16. Repishti M, Hogan DL, Pratha V, Davydova L, Donowitz M, et al. (2001) Human duodenal mucosal brush border Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers NHE2 and NHE3 alter net bicarbonate movement. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 281: G159–G163. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.2001.281.1.G159> PMID: 11408268
17. Furukawa O, Bi LC, Guth PH, Engel E, Hirokawa M, et al. (2004) NHE3 inhibition activates duodenal bicarbonate secretion in the rat. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 286: G102–G109. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.00092.2003> PMID: 12881227

18. Singh AK, Riederer B, Chen M, Xiao F, Krabbenhöft A, et al. (2010) The switch of intestinal Slc26 exchangers from anion absorptive to HCO₃⁻ secretory mode is dependent on CFTR anion channel function. *American Journal of Physiology-Cell Physiology* 298: C1057–C1065.
19. Allen A, Flemström G (2005) Gastroduodenal mucus bicarbonate barrier: protection against acid and pepsin. *American Journal of Physiology-Cell Physiology* 288: C1–C19. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpcell.00102.2004> PMID: 15591243
20. Jönson C, Fändriks L (1988) Splanchnic nerve stimulation inhibits duodenal HCO₃⁻ secretion in the rat. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 255: G709–G712.
21. Fändriks L, Jönson C, Hamlet A, Danielsen N, Johansson B (1995) Sympatho-adrenergic inhibition of basal and acid-induced changes in duodenal motility, mucosal net fluid and alkaline secretion in the anaesthetized cat. *Acta physiologica scandinavica* 153: 211–219. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1995.tb09856.x> PMID: 7625173
22. Nylander O, Flemström G (1986) Effects of alpha-adrenoceptor agonists and antagonists on duodenal surface epithelial HCO₃⁻ secretion in the rat in vivo. *Acta physiologica scandinavica* 126: 433–441. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1986.tb07838.x> PMID: 2870605
23. Jönson C, Johansson B, Fändriks L (1994) On the point of action for symptho-adrenergic inhibition of duodenal alkaline secretion in the rat. *Acta physiologica scandinavica* 151: 261–267. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1994.tb09745.x> PMID: 7942062
24. Knutson L, Flemström G (1989) Duodenal mucosal bicarbonate secretion in man. Stimulation by acid and inhibition by the alpha 2-adrenoceptor agonist clonidine. *Gut* 30: 1708–1715. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gut.30.12.1708> PMID: 2558985
25. Nylander O, Flemström G, Delbro D, Fändriks L (1987) Vagal influence on gastroduodenal HCO₃⁻ secretion in the cat in vivo. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 252: G522–G528. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.1987.252.4.G522> PMID: 2882690
26. Nylander O, Hallgren A, Holm L (1993) Duodenal mucosal alkaline secretion, permeability, and blood flow. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 265: G1029–G1038.
27. Hogan DL, Crombie DL, Isenberg J, Svendsen P, De Muckadell OS, et al. (1997) Acid-stimulated duodenal bicarbonate secretion involves a CFTR-mediated transport pathway in mice. *Gastroenterology* 113: 533–541. <https://doi.org/10.1053/gast.1997.v113.pm9247473> PMID: 9247473
28. Persson P, Henriksson J (2011) Good publication practise in physiology. WILEY-BLACKWELL COMMERCIAL PLACE, 350 MAIN ST, MALDEN 02148, MA USA.
29. Sedin J, Sjöblom M, Nylander O (2012) The selective cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitor parecoxib markedly improves the ability of the duodenum to regulate luminal hypertonicity in anaesthetized rats. *Acta Physiologica* 205: 433–451. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.2012.02411.x> PMID: 22251854
30. Pihl L, Sjöblom M, Seidler U, Sedin J, Nylander O (2010) Motility-induced but not vasoactive intestinal peptide-induced increase in luminal alkalization in rat duodenum is dependent on luminal Cl⁻. *Acta physiologica* 200: 181–191.
31. Tuo B, Riederer B, Wang Z, Colledge WH, Soleimani M, et al. (2006) Involvement of the anion exchanger SLC26A6 in prostaglandin E2-but not forskolin-stimulated duodenal HCO₃⁻ secretion. *Gastroenterology* 130: 349–358. <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2005.10.017> PMID: 16472591
32. Wedenoja S, Höglund P, Holmberg C (2010) the clinical management of congenital chloride diarrhoea. *Alimentary pharmacology & therapeutics* 31: 477–485.
33. Xia W, Yu Q, Riederer B, Singh AK, Engelhardt R, et al. (2014) The distinct roles of anion transporters Slc26a3 (DRA) and Slc26a6 (PAT-1) in fluid and electrolyte absorption in the murine small intestine. *Pflügers Archiv-European Journal of Physiology* 466: 1541–1556. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00424-013-1381-2> PMID: 24233434
34. Kato A, Romero MF (2011) Regulation of electroneutral NaCl absorption by the small intestine. *Annual review of physiology* 73: 261–281. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-physiol-012110-142244> PMID: 21054167
35. Gawenis LR, Stien X, Shull GE, Schultheis PJ, Woo AL, et al. (2002) Intestinal NaCl transport in NHE2 and NHE3 knockout mice. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 282: G776–G784. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.00297.2001> PMID: 11960774
36. Jacob P, Rossmann H, Lamprecht G, Kretz A, Neff C, et al. (2002) Down-regulated in adenoma mediates apical Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchange in rabbit, rat, and human duodenum. *Gastroenterology* 122: 709–724. <https://doi.org/10.1053/gast.2002.31875> PMID: 11875004
37. Musch MW, Arvans DL, Paris H, Chang EB (2009) α_2 -Adrenergic receptors attenuate secretagogue-induced endocytosis and promote exocytosis of intestinal NHE2 and NHE3. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* 330: 818–825.

38. Paris H, Voisin T, Remaury A, Rouyer-Fessard C, Daviaud D, et al. (1990) Alpha-2 adrenoceptor in rat jejunum epithelial cells: characterization with [³H] RX821002 and distribution along the villus-crypt axis. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* 254: 888–893. PMID: [1975626](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1975626/)
39. Valet P, Senard J-M, Devedjian J-C, Planat V, Salomon R, et al. (1993) Characterization and distribution of alpha 2-adrenergic receptors in the human intestinal mucosa. *The Journal of clinical investigation* 91: 2049–2057. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI116427> PMID: [8098045](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8098045/)
40. Kirkegaard P, Lundberg JM, Poulsen SS, Olsen PS, Fahrenkrug J, et al. (1981) Vasoactive intestinal polypeptidergic nerves and Brunner's gland secretion in the rat. *Gastroenterology* 81: 872–878. PMID: [6116642](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/6116642/)
41. Keast J, Furness J, Costa M (1985) Distribution of certain peptide-containing nerve fibres and endocrine cells in the gastrointestinal mucosa in five mammalian species. *Journal of Comparative Neurology* 236: 403–422. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902360308> PMID: [2414338](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2414338/)
42. Flemström G, Jedstedt G, Nylander O (1985) Effects of some opiates and vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) on duodenal surface epithelial bicarbonate secretion in the rat. *Scandinavian Journal of Gastroenterology* 20: 49–53. <https://doi.org/10.3109/00365528509095831> PMID: [3860926](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3860926/)
43. Wolosin J, Thomas F, Hogan D, Koss M, O'dorisio T, et al. (1989) The effect of vasoactive intestinal peptide, secretin, and glucagon on human duodenal bicarbonate secretion. *Scandinavian journal of gastroenterology* 24: 151–157. <https://doi.org/10.3109/00365528909093030> PMID: [2928730](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2928730/)
44. Ainsworth M, Fenger C, Svendsen P, De Muckadell OS (1993) Effect of stimulation of mucosal HCO₃⁻ secretion on acid-induced injury to porcine duodenal mucosa. *Scandinavian journal of gastroenterology* 28: 1091–1097.
45. Seidler U, Blumenstein I, Kretz A, Viellard-Baron D, Rossmann H, et al. (1997) A functional CFTR protein is required for mouse intestinal cAMP-, cGMP- and Ca²⁺-dependent HCO₃⁻ secretion. *The Journal of Physiology* 505: 411–423. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7793.1997.411bb.x> PMID: [9423183](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9423183/)
46. Fung C, Unterweger P, Parry LJ, Bornstein JC, Foong JP (2014) VPAC1 receptors regulate intestinal secretion and muscle contractility by activating cholinergic neurons in guinea pig jejunum. *American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 306: G748–G758. <https://doi.org/10.1152/ajpgi.00416.2013> PMID: [24578344](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24578344/)
47. Nakaki T, Nakadate T, Yamamoto S, Kato R (1982) Alpha-2 adrenergic inhibition of intestinal secretion induced by prostaglandin E1, vasoactive intestinal peptide and dibutyl cyclic AMP in rat jejunum. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* 220: 637–641. PMID: [6121049](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/6121049/)
48. Hemlin M (1989) Interaction between sympathetic nerve fibres and epithelial transport in the rat jejunal mucosa in vivo. *Acta physiologica scandinavica* 137: 365–374. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.1989.tb08765.x> PMID: [2574526](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2574526/)
49. Donowitz M, Cusolito S, Battisti L, Fogel R, Sharp GW (1982) Dopamine stimulation of active Na and Cl absorption in rabbit ileum: interaction with α 2-adrenergic and specific dopamine receptors. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation* 69: 1008–1016.
50. Hirota C, McKay D (2006) Cholinergic regulation of epithelial ion transport in the mammalian intestine. *British journal of pharmacology* 149: 463–479. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.bjp.0706889> PMID: [16981004](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16981004/)
51. Cartwright C, McRoberts J, Mandel K, Dharmasathaphorn K (1985) Synergistic action of cyclic adenosine monophosphate- and calcium-mediated chloride secretion in a colonic epithelial cell line. *The Journal of clinical investigation* 76: 1837–1842. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI112176> PMID: [2997291](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/2997291/)
52. Banks M, Golder M, Farthing M, Burleigh D (2004) Intracellular potentiation between two second messenger systems may contribute to cholera toxin induced intestinal secretion in humans. *Gut* 53: 50–57. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gut.53.1.50> PMID: [14684576](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/14684576/)