

# Exceptional CO<sub>2</sub> Tolerance in White Sturgeon (*Acipenser transmontanus*) Is Associated with Protection of Maximum Cardiac Performance during Hypercapnia In Situ

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## ABSTRACT

White sturgeon rank among the most CO<sub>2</sub>-tolerant fish species examined to date. We investigated whether this exceptional CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance extended to the heart, an organ generally viewed as acidosis intolerant. Maximum cardiac output ( $Q_{\max}$ ) and maximum cardiac power output ( $PO_{\max}$ ) were assessed using a working, perfused, in situ heart preparation. Exposure to a  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  of 3 kPa for 20 min had no significant effect on maximum cardiac performance, while exposure to 6-kPa  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  reduced heart rate,  $Q_{\max}$ ,  $PO_{\max}$ , and rate of ventricular force generation ( $F_0$ ) by 23%, 28%, 26%, and 18%, respectively; however, full recovery was observed in all these parameters upon return to control conditions. These modest impairments during exposure to 6-kPa  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  were associated with partially compensated intracellular ventricular acidosis. Maximum adrenergic stimulation (500 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> adrenaline) during 6-kPa  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  protected maximum cardiac performance via increased inotropy (force of contraction) without affecting heart rate. Exposure to higher CO<sub>2</sub> levels associated with morbidity in vivo (i.e., 8-kPa  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$ ) induced arrhythmia and a reduction in stroke volume during power assessment. Clearly, white sturgeon hearts are able to increase cardiac performance during severe hypercapnia that is lethal to other fishes. Future work focusing on atypical aspects of sturgeon cardiac function, including the lack of chronotropic

response to adrenergic stimulation during hypercapnia, is warranted.

## Introduction

Aquatic hypercarbia (elevated water carbon dioxide partial pressure;  $P_{\text{wCO}_2}$ ) is a common environmental challenge in ecosystems such as estuaries and seasonal ponds (Heisler et al. 1982; Ultsch 1996) that has adverse effects on fishes (e.g., Graham et al. 1990; Wood et al. 1990; Wood and LeMoigne 1991; Hayashi et al. 2004). For most fishes, short-term exposure to a  $P_{\text{wCO}_2}$  of more than 2 kPa results in uncompensated acidosis (see Brauner and Baker 2009) that can be lethal, although the exact mechanism(s) of CO<sub>2</sub> toxicity are unknown (Putnam and Roos 1997). In contrast, white sturgeon *Acipenser transmontanus* are remarkably tolerant of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and the associated blood acidosis, exhibiting morbidity only when exposed to  $\geq 8$ -kPa  $P_{\text{wCO}_2}$  (D. W. Baker and C. J. Brauner, unpublished observations). An exceptional capacity for intracellular pH (pHi) regulation during hypercarbia is thought to contribute to this tolerance (Baker et al. 2009a).

The fish heart is particularly sensitive to hypercapnia and the associated acidosis. The routine heart rate ( $f_H$ ) of rainbow trout *Oncorhynchus mykiss* decreased by 19% within minutes of exposure to 1.2-kPa  $P_{\text{wCO}_2}$  (Perry et al. 1999). Likewise, both routine cardiac output ( $Q$ ) and  $f_H$  in both Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* and dogfish *Squalus acanthias* decreased ( $>20\%$ ) rapidly during exposure to more severe hypercarbia (4–5-kPa  $P_{\text{wCO}_2}$  Kent and Peirce 1978; Perry and McKendry 2001). In addition, hypercapnia decreases maximum cardiac performance as assessed in working, perfused fish heart preparations. For example, perfused sea raven (*Hemitripterus americanus*) hearts exposed to  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  of just 1.8 kPa significantly decreased maximum cardiac output ( $Q_{\max}$ ) and maximum cardiac power output ( $PO_{\max}$ ) as well as  $f_H$  (Farrell et al. 1984). Also, perfused hearts of rainbow trout (Farrell et al. 1986) and ocean pout (*Macrozoarces americanus*; Farrell et al. 1983) exhibited reductions in  $Q_{\max}$  (29% and 18%, respectively) and  $PO_{\max}$  (29% and 22%, respectively) during equilibration with  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  of only 2 kPa.

Nevertheless, not all fish hearts are so sensitive to hypercapnia. CO<sub>2</sub>-tolerant fish species include the armored catfish *Pterygoplichthys pardalis* and the European eel *Anguilla anguilla*, both of which can tolerate direct transfer to CO<sub>2</sub> tensions of  $\sim 5$  kPa

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for days (McKenzie et al. 2003; Brauner et al. 2004). Correspondingly, ventricular strips from the eel recover contractility within 20 min after exposure to sustained severe hypercapnia (10-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ ; Gesser et al. 1982), while a similar treatment in rainbow trout results in a 20%–60% reduction in isometric force generation (Gesser et al. 1982). The armored catfish heart also stands out for its high  $CO_2$  tolerance, since a 6.5-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  increase above control levels was required to decrease  $PO_{max}$  and  $Q_{max}$  by ~50% in an isolated perfused (pericardium intact) heart preparation (Hanson et al. 2009).

Still unclear, however, are the potential roles of both pH<sub>i</sub> and circulating catecholamines in protecting cardiac performance during elevated  $CO_2$ . For example, some  $CO_2$ -sensitive hearts show adrenergic cardiac protection (Gesser et al. 1982; Farrell 1985) but not ventricular pH<sub>i</sub> regulation (Farrell and Milligan 1986). In contrast, armored catfish hearts at a higher  $P_{CO_2}$  and saturating levels of exogenous adrenaline exhibited reduced cardiac performance in situ, suggesting less cardiac protection through adrenergic pathways in  $CO_2$ -tolerant fishes (Hanson et al. 2009). These reductions were observed despite complete ventricular pH<sub>i</sub> compensation (Hanson et al. 2009). White sturgeon hearts may also be  $CO_2$  tolerant, as routine cardiac output was unchanged in vivo during short-term hypercapnia ( $P_{CO_2}$  of 22.5 mm Hg; Crocker et al. 2000). White sturgeon also regulate heart pH<sub>i</sub> during hypercapnia in vivo (Baker et al. 2009a), but whether the protection of in vivo resting cardiac function during hypercapnia extends to maximum cardiac performance or is dependent on pH<sub>i</sub> regulation or adrenergic stimulation remains unknown.

The objective of this study was to investigate the effect of hypercapnia on maximum cardiac performance in perfused white sturgeon hearts, a preparation free of potentially confounding effects, such as changes in vagal and endocrine influence not controlled experimentally. Specifically, the aims of this study were (1) to quantify changes in maximum cardiac performance at  $CO_2$  tensions approaching the limit of white sturgeon  $CO_2$  tolerance in vivo ( $P_{CO_2} \leq 8$  kPa), (2) to determine whether cardiac recovery occurs after a decrease in maximum cardiac performance associated with short-term exposure to hypercapnia, (3) to determine whether high levels of exogenous adrenaline protect maximum cardiac performance during hypercapnia, and (4) to identify whether the ventricular pH<sub>i</sub> of perfused hearts is protected during hypercapnia, as has been observed in vivo.

## Material and Methods

### Experimental Animals

Juvenile hatchery-reared white sturgeon *Acipenser transmontanus* were provided by the Upper Columbia White Sturgeon Recovery Initiative's white sturgeon hatchery in Wardner, British Columbia. They were transported by tanker truck to the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, and maintained in holding tanks supplied with dechlorinated flow-through city water (in mmol L<sup>-1</sup>: Na<sup>+</sup>, 0.06; Cl<sup>-</sup>, 0.05; Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 0.03; Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 0.007; K<sup>+</sup>, 0.004; alkalinity, 3.3 mg as CaCO<sub>3</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>; hardness,

3.55 mg as CaCO<sub>3</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> [Fu et al. 2010]; temperature, 10°–11°C; pH, ~6.7–6.9) under a natural photoperiod at densities no greater than 15 kg m<sup>-3</sup>. Fish were fed to satiation three times per week with a Moore-Clark trout chow, but food was withheld for 24 h before experimental use.

### Surgical Procedures

The in situ heart preparation used in this study has been described in detail for different species, with a variety of minor modifications (Farrell et al. 1983; Farrell and Milligan 1986; Hanson et al. 2006, 2009). In brief, white sturgeon (300–1,300 g; relative ventricular weight 0.096% ± 0.003%) were anesthetized in buffered tricaine methane sulfonate (0.3 g L<sup>-1</sup> of both MS-222 and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>), weighed, and transferred to an operating table. A solution of heparinized saline (1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, 150 IU mL<sup>-1</sup> heparin) was injected into the caudal vessel, and the spinal cord was severed and the brain destroyed, eliminating vagal input to the heart. Within 2–3 min, a shallow lengthwise incision was made along the ventral surface of the abdominal cavity of the fish, from the anal opening to the pectoral girdle. The abdominal wall was then excised to expose the liver, which varied in size, location, and appearance. It was typically flat, thin, and delicate, wrapping around other organs and having connective adhesions with many tissues, especially the gastrointestinal tract. The right hepatic vein (consistently the largest) was used for cannula insertion, and all other major hepatic veins were tied off, including vessels along the gastrointestinal tract. A small incision was made in the right hepatic vein, and a beveled stainless steel input cannula was inserted into the vein (and advanced into the sinus venosus) and secured with silk suture. The heart was immediately (and continuously) perfused with saline (composition below) containing 10 IU mL<sup>-1</sup> sodium heparin and a tonic level of adrenaline (5–10 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> adrenaline bitartrate salt; AD). Then the gills were removed, and a stainless steel output cannula was inserted into the bulbus arteriosus (which in sturgeon is distal to the conus arteriosus; Guerrero et al. 2004; Icardo et al. 2004) via the ventral aorta and secured with silk suture. These surgical procedures were completed within 10–15 min. The fish was transected (approximately midabdomen) to allow for easier handling, and the large venous sinus that was severed as a result of transection was sutured to the trunk. After surgery, fish were transferred to a temperature-controlled saline bath (0.7% NaCl), the input cannula was connected to an adjustable, constant-pressure reservoir, and the output cannula was connected to a separate constant-pressure head set at 2.0 kPa to simulate resting in vivo ventral aortic diastolic blood pressure. The input pressure head was in turn connected to a set of isolated, water-jacketed glass reservoirs containing aerated perfusate. All experiments were conducted at 10°C.

Input ( $P_{in}$ ) and output ( $P_{out}$ ) pressures were measured through saline-filled side arms (PE50 tubing) connected to disposable pressure transducers (DPT 6100; Smiths Medical, Kirchseon, Germany), and cardiac outflow was measured through the output line with a previously calibrated, in-line

electromagnetic flow probe (SWF-4; Zepeda Instruments, Seattle, WA). The height of the input pressure reservoir was adjusted to set  $Q$  at  $\sim 17 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , a rate derived from in vivo cardiac output estimates for white sturgeon (Crocker et al. 2000) and adjusted for differences in ambient temperature using a  $Q_{10}$  value of 2 (Lillywhite et al. 1999). Mean  $P_{in}$  during routine cardiac output ranged from 0.04 to 0.16 kPa. Heart rate was independent of filling and output pressures, as has been observed in isolated perfused ventricles of *Acipenser naccarii* (Agnisola et al. 1999). While sturgeon possess coronary circulation (Icardo et al. 2004), the coronary arteries were not perfused in this preparation, which can result in reduced ventricular contractility in some fishes (Farrell 1987; Davie et al. 1992). After surgery, hearts were allowed to recover at routine workloads for 20 min at control (i.e., normocapnic)  $\text{CO}_2$  tension (0.5 kPa) before the first maximum-cardiac-performance test.

#### Perfusate Composition

For all experiments, a freshwater fish perfusate (in  $\text{mmol L}^{-1}$ : NaCl, 125; KCl, 3.0;  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 1.0;  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 2.5; D-glucose, 5.6;  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , 11.9; all chemicals from Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, Ontario) was used. Depending on the experimental protocol (see below), the perfusate was gassed with 0.5- (control), 3.0-, 6.0-, or 8.0-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  prepared gas mixtures (Praxair, Vancouver, British Columbia; certified to be within 0.1 kPa but reported nominally [or by relative in vivo challenge] as 0.5 [control], 3 [moderate], 6 [severe], and 8 [lethal] kPa hereafter) containing 21.2-kPa  $\text{PO}_2$  balance  $\text{N}_2$ . When aerated with the control  $\text{CO}_2$  mixture ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ), the equilibrated perfusate had a pH of 7.80. As  $\text{CO}_2$  tension in the perfusate was increased progressively to 3.0, 6.0, and 8.0 kPa, perfusate pH decreased to 7.25, 6.85, and 6.70, respectively. These perfusate pH values corresponded closely to blood pH values measured in vivo during exposure to similar water  $\text{CO}_2$  tensions (Baker et al. 2009a). As routine heart rate in sturgeon is under modest  $\beta$ -adrenergic tone (McKenzie et al. 1995), all perfusates were supplemented with a tonic level of adrenaline (see "Experimental Protocols" for concentrations); preliminary investigation supported the need for adrenaline to ensure routine cardiac function.

#### Experimental Protocols

Maximum cardiac performance ( $Q_{\max}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\max}$ ) was assessed first under control  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ) and then during each treatment condition, as described below for each series of experiments. Because of this sequence, each heart acted as its own control. To assess  $Q_{\max}$ ,  $P_{in}$  was raised in a stepwise manner ( $\sim 0.05\text{-kPa}$  steps) over 3–5 min until  $Q$  reached a plateau; this was recorded as  $Q_{\max}$ . Similarly, with input pressure remaining at its maximum,  $P_{out}$  was raised incrementally until cardiac  $\text{PO}_{\max}$  was reached. After the maximum-performance tests,  $P_{out}$  and then  $P_{in}$  were returned to routine levels, and the heart was allowed to recover for  $\sim 5$  min before being subjected

to the next experimental saline. Preliminary investigation showed that under normocapnic conditions, maximum cardiac performance could be repeatedly assessed at least four times with no loss of performance (with a 15–20-min rest period between each test) and that no change in maximum cardiac performance occurred over a 3-h period, which was 1 h longer than any experimental protocol used in this study. For each hypercapnic condition, hearts were allowed to equilibrate for 10–20 min at routine workloads before their maximum cardiac performance was assessed.

#### Series 1: Maximum Cardiac Performance during Hypercapnia (3-, 6-, and 8-kPa $\text{PCO}_2$ )

This series determined the  $\text{CO}_2$  tension at which  $Q_{\max}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\max}$  became impaired in white sturgeon (body mass:  $374 \pm 14 \text{ g}$ ; ventricular mass:  $366 \pm 18 \text{ mg}$ ). Maximum cardiac performance was assessed under control conditions and then, after a 20-min equilibration period, at one of the following  $\text{CO}_2$  tensions: 3 ( $n = 4$ ), 6 ( $n = 4$ ), or 8 kPa ( $n = 4$ ). To reduce fish usage, three hearts were assessed under two  $\text{CO}_2$  tensions, first at 3 kPa and then at either 6 ( $n = 1$ ) or 8 ( $n = 2$ ) kPa. No differences in performance were seen between hearts exposed to 3-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  before exposure to a higher level of hypercapnia and those exposed directly to a higher level of hypercapnia. Consequently, data from hearts tested at a given  $\text{CO}_2$  were pooled for all analyses. Multistep protocols have been used to assess maximum cardiac performance in other  $\text{CO}_2$ -tolerant fishes (Hanson et al. 2009). All perfusates contained  $10 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD].

#### Series 2: Recovery of Maximum Cardiac Performance after Severe Hypercapnia (6-kPa $\text{PCO}_2$ )

This series determined whether the sturgeon heart could recover after exposure to 6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ . Maximum cardiac performance was assessed in 6 fish (body mass:  $382 \pm 15 \text{ g}$ ; ventricular mass:  $364 \pm 42 \text{ mg}$ ) after 20-min equilibration periods under (1) control  $\text{CO}_2$  tension ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ), (2) hypercapnia ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 6 \text{ kPa}$ ), and then (3) posthypercapnic recovery ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ). All perfusates contained  $10 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD].

#### Series 3: Maximum Cardiac Performance during Severe Hypercapnia (6-kPa $\text{PCO}_2$ ) with Maximal Exogenous Stimulation by Adrenaline ( $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$ [AD])

This series determined whether maximum adrenergic stimulation may alleviate declines in  $Q_{\max}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\max}$  during severe hypercapnia in 8 fish (body mass:  $991 \pm 82 \text{ g}$ ; ventricular mass:  $943 \pm 88 \text{ mg}$ ). Each heart was exposed to the following sequence of perfusates: (1) control  $\text{CO}_2$  tension ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ), with  $5 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD], (2) hypercapnia ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 6 \text{ kPa}$ ), with  $5 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD], and (3) hypercapnia with  $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD]. This level of adrenaline was selected to allow for comparison with other studies (e.g., Hanson et al. 2009), and similar levels have been measured in vivo (Burggren and Randall 1978).

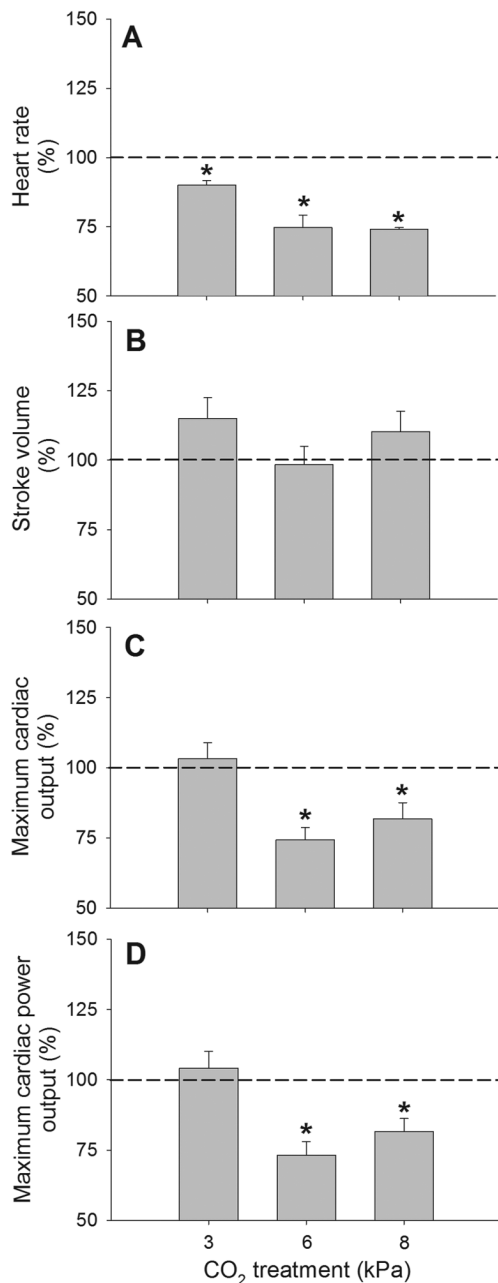


Figure 1. Effect of hypercapnia ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 3, 6, \text{ or } 8 \text{ kPa}$ ) on heart rate (A), stroke volume (B), maximum cardiac output (C), and maximum cardiac power output (D), expressed as a percentage of control values assessed on perfused white sturgeon hearts in situ. Values are means  $\pm$  SEM. An asterisk indicates a statistically significant change from control values within that  $\text{CO}_2$  tension. Dotted line represents control values (i.e., 100%) for comparative purposes.

Before the addition of AD ( $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$ ), perfusates used in this series of experiments contained  $5 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD] (as opposed to  $10 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$ , as in series 1 and 2) to reduce the possibility of prematurely saturating adrenergic receptors, as little is known about the adrenergic sensitivity of sturgeon.

#### Tissue pHi Determination

The ventricle was rapidly excised and weighed after hearts were exposed to control  $\text{CO}_2$  levels ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ,  $n = 2$ ;  $\text{CO}_2$ -unexposed hearts,  $n = 8$ ), hypercapnia (series 1;  $\text{PCO}_2 = 6 \text{ kPa}$ ,  $n = 4$ ), or hypercapnia with saturating levels of adrenaline (series 3;  $\text{PCO}_2 = 6 \text{ kPa}$  with the addition of  $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD],  $n = 8$ ) and then flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen for later analysis of pHi. In addition, as a limited number of ventricles ( $n = 2$ ) were sampled during exposure to control  $\text{CO}_2$  tension ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ), pHi was also measured in ventricles from hearts excised from resting normocarbic fish (as listed above;  $n = 8$ ). Ventricular pHi was measured with the metabolic-inhibitor tissue homogenate method (Pörtner et al. 1990), which has been validated for use in tissues exposed to large changes in  $\text{CO}_2$  tension (Baker et al. 2009b). In brief, freeze-clamped ventricles were ground under liquid nitrogen and added to a precooled centrifuge tube ( $2.0 \text{ mL}$ ) with a precooled scoop. A  $1\text{-mL}$  aliquot of a metabolism-inhibiting solution ( $150 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$  potassium fluoride and  $5 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$  nitrilotriacetic acid disodium salt; Sigma Aldrich) was then added, and the mixture was placed on ice. The pH of the resulting supernatant was measured via a thermostatted capillary electrode (BMS 2, Radiometer, London, Ontario) attached to a pH meter (PMS 83, Radiometer).

#### Calculations and Statistical Analyses

All cardiac measurements were recorded in real time with data acquisition software (Labview, ver. 5.1, National Instruments, Austin, TX). The  $P_{\text{in}}$ ,  $P_{\text{out}}$ ,  $f_{\text{H}}$ ,  $Q$ , and cardiac power output (PO) were recorded simultaneously at a sampling rate of  $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Rate of cardiac outflow force generation ( $F_{\text{O}}$ ), a surrogate for ventricular force generation, was calculated from raw data as the average maximum change in  $P_{\text{out}}$  ( $\Delta P_{\text{out}}/\Delta t$ , in  $\text{kPa s}^{-1}$ ) when the heart was performing at  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$ . In series 1, statistically significant differences were determined by paired  $t$ -tests and data were reported as relative changes, while in series 2 and 3 differences were determined by one-way repeated-measures ANOVA. Comparisons of ventricular pHi were made with one-way ANOVA. Where differences were indicated by ANOVA, a Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test was used to determine homogenous subsets. For comparisons,  $\alpha = 0.05$  was determined to be appropriate for detecting statistical differences. All values are reported as means  $\pm$  SEM, unless otherwise indicated.

#### Results

##### Series 1: Maximum Cardiac Performance during Hypercapnia (3-, 6-, and 8-kPa $\text{PCO}_2$ )

Relative to their levels under control conditions ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ ),  $Q_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$  were unaffected by 3-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  but were significantly reduced by severe hypercapnia (both 6- and 8-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ ; Fig. 1C, 1D). Hypercapnia significantly slowed  $f_{\text{H}}$  during  $Q_{\text{max}}$  measurements (by 10%, 25%, and 25% at 3-, 6-, and 8-

kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ , respectively; Fig. 1A) and produced arrhythmia at 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (Fig. 2) but had no significant effect on stroke volume ( $V_s$ ) during  $Q_{max}$  at any  $CO_2$  tension (Fig. 1B). In contrast, at 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ ,  $V_s$  during  $PO_{max}$  measurement was significantly reduced ( $53\% \pm 3\%$ ). When assessed at  $PO_{max}$ ,  $F_O$  was reduced at 6- and 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ , but not at 3-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (Table 1).

*Series 2: Recovery of Maximum Cardiac Performance after Severe Hypercapnia (6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ )*

As in series 1, 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  significantly decreased  $Q_{max}$ ,  $PO_{max}$ , and  $f_H$  but did not affect  $V_s$  (Fig. 2). Control performance was completely restored after a 20-min recovery at 0.5-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (Fig. 3).

Attempts to similarly recover hearts from 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  at 0.5-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  ( $n = 4$ , data not shown) were abandoned because this level of severe hypercapnia induced arrhythmia (Fig. 2) and, in some hearts, cessation of cardiac rhythm entirely. As a result, two hearts were unable to maintain  $V_s$  when  $P_{out}$  was increased. The two hearts that continued to work during exposure to 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  did not recover maximum cardiac performance upon return to control conditions, suggesting permanent cardiac damage.

*Series 3: Maximum Cardiac Performance during Severe Hypercapnia (6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ ) with Maximal Exogenous Stimulation by Adrenaline (500 nmol  $L^{-1}$  [AD])*

Hearts exposed to 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  exhibited significant decreases in  $Q_{max}$ ,  $PO_{max}$ ,  $F_O$ , and  $f_H$  but not  $V_s$  (Table 1; Fig. 4), as in series 1 and 2. Addition of 500 nmol  $L^{-1}$  [AD] during severe hypercapnia fully restored  $Q_{max}$  and  $PO_{max}$ , protecting  $F_O$  and enhancing  $V_s$  but without recovery of  $f_H$  (Fig. 4; Table 1). Therefore, maximal adrenergic stimulation protected against the negative inotropy but not the negative chronotropy of severe hypercapnia.

*Tissue pHi Determination*

Given the negative effects of severe hypercapnia and the protective effect of adrenaline during severe hypercapnia, it was anticipated that intracellular ventricular acidosis would be ameliorated by maximum adrenergic stimulation. Relative to that of control hearts sampled either in situ or in vivo (Table 2), mean ventricular pHi was significantly reduced by exposure to 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ . Mean ventricular pHi in the presence of 500 nmol  $L^{-1}$  [AD] at 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  was significantly higher than that without maximum adrenergic stimulation. Even so, ventricular pHi still remained significantly lower than ventricular pHi measured under control conditions both in situ and in vivo (Table 2).

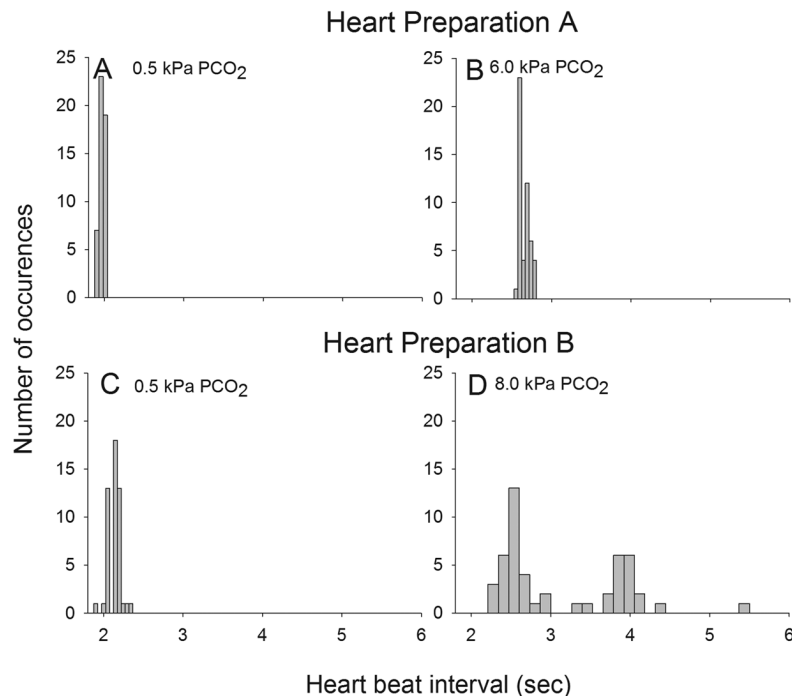


Figure 2. Effect of hypercapnia ( $P_{CO_2} = 6$  or 8 kPa) on heartbeat interval (time in seconds between beats) during cardiac-performance testing. A, B, Data from an in situ perfused heart sequentially exposed to 0.5-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (A) and 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (B). C, D, Data from an in situ perfused heart sequentially exposed to 0.5-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (C) and 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  (D). Note the bimodal distribution of long and short heartbeat intervals in D.

Table 1: Effect of hypercapnia (3-, 6-, or 8-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$ ) and maximal adrenergic stimulation (6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  with 500 nmol  $L^{-1}$  [AD]) on the rate of ventricular force generation ( $F_O$ ) in perfused white sturgeon hearts in situ

Hypercapnic $P_{CO_2}$ (kPa)	No. hearts ( <i>n</i> )	Rate of cardiac output force generation ( $F_O$ ; kPa $s^{-1}$ )		
		Normocapnia	Hypercapnia	Hypercapnia + AD
3	4 <sup>a</sup>	6.5 ± .3	7.0 ± .2	...
6	7 <sup>b</sup>	9.3 ± .6	7.7 ± .4 <sup>c</sup>	8.8 ± .6
8	4 <sup>a</sup>	6.1 ± .2	5.2 ± .3 <sup>c</sup>	...

Note. Values are means ± SEM.

<sup>a</sup>Assessed in hearts from series 1.

<sup>b</sup>Assessed in hearts from series 3.

<sup>c</sup>Statistically significant ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) difference from normocapnia-exposed hearts within a given  $P_{CO_2}$  treatment.

## Discussion

The exceptional  $CO_2$  tolerance of white sturgeon exposed to hypercarbia clearly extends to perfused cardiac tissue working at maximal rates of performance. In situ perfused white sturgeon hearts maintained maximum cardiac performance during exposure to a  $P_{CO_2}$  of 3 kPa (Fig. 1A), a level of hypercapnia known to impair performance of less  $CO_2$ -tolerant fish. Exposure to severe hypercapnia ( $P_{CO_2} = 6$  kPa) significantly reduced  $Q_{max}$  and  $PO_{max}$  (both by ~25%) of working hearts through changes in  $f_H$ . These reductions were associated with an intracellular ventricular acidosis and a reduction in  $F_O$  yet still represented cardiac impairment that was extremely modest compared to that in other fishes (Farrell et al. 1983, 1986).

Furthermore, the decrease in maximum cardiac performance at 6-kPa  $P_{CO_2}$  was not permanent (complete recovery was observed in subsequent normocapnia) and could be fully reversed by addition of exogenous adrenaline to provide maximum adrenergic stimulation, illustrating the remarkable  $CO_2$  tolerance of the sturgeon heart. An increase in  $P_{CO_2}$  to 8 kPa reduced  $Q_{max}$  and  $PO_{max}$  to a degree similar to that observed at 6 kPa but also resulted in arrhythmia without recovery in subsequent normocapnia. These data imply that cardiac damage, or at the very least temporary myocardial dysfunction (e.g., Hanson et al. 2006), occurs at 8-kPa  $CO_2$ , a level of hypercarbia known to induce morbidity in vivo (D. W. Baker and C. J. Brauner, unpublished observations).

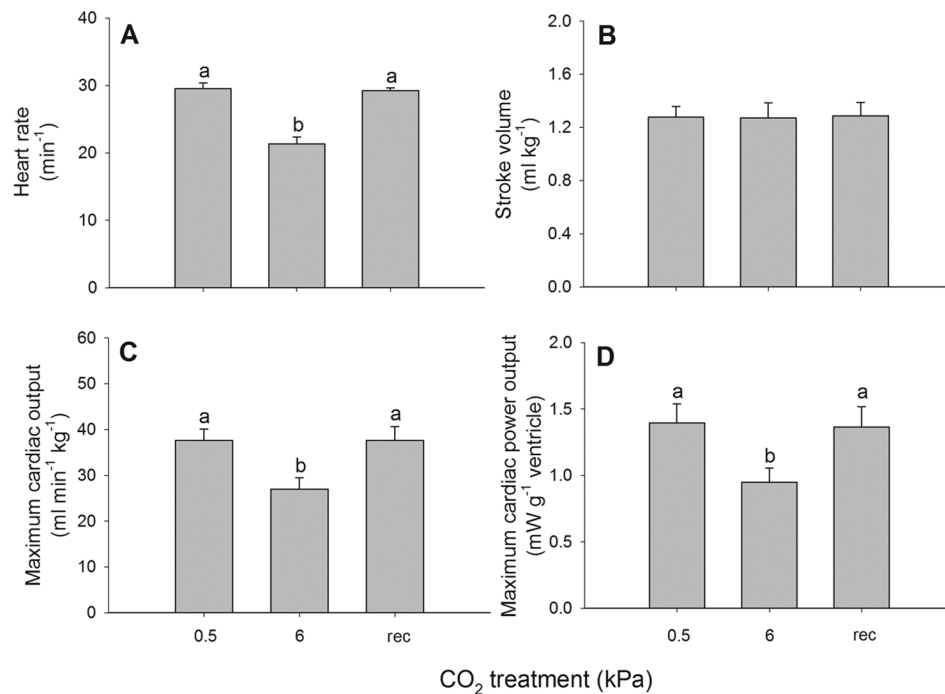


Figure 3. Effect of hypercapnia ( $P_{CO_2} = 6$  kPa) and return to control  $CO_2$  tension ( $P_{CO_2} = 0.5$  kPa; *rec*) on heart rate (A), stroke volume (B), maximum cardiac output (C), and maximum cardiac power output (D), assessed in perfused white sturgeon hearts in situ. Values are means + SEM. ( $n = 6$ ). Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatment groups.

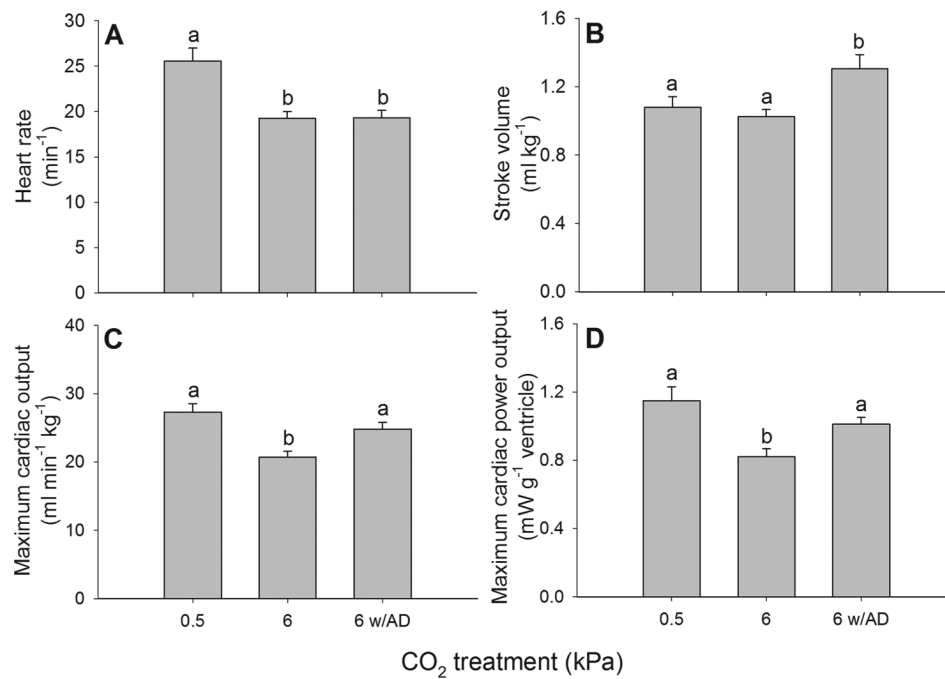


Figure 4. Effect of hypercapnia ( $\text{PCO}_2 = 6 \text{ kPa}$ ) in the absence and presence of adrenaline ( $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} [\text{AD}]$ ; 6 w/AD indicates the latter) on heart rate (A), stroke volume (B), maximum cardiac output (C), and maximum cardiac power output (D), assessed in perfused white sturgeon hearts in situ. Values are means  $\pm$  SEM ( $n = 8$ ). Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatment groups.

#### Maximum Cardiac Performance during Hypercapnia

White sturgeon lack the aerobic scope of pelagic fishes, such as salmonids (Peake 2004), and are often described as benthic cruisers because of their tendency to cover vast distances in search of prey and spawning sites. Maximum cardiac performance of white sturgeon heart has not been previously assessed in situ, but it would be expected to be lower than that of a pelagic predator such as rainbow trout. Relative to those of rainbow trout, white sturgeon hearts exhibited a 50% lower intrinsic  $f_H$  (at  $10^\circ\text{C}$ ; Arthur et al. 1992; Hanson et al. 2006), a 20%–40% lower  $Q_{\max}$  (Hanson et al. 2006), and a 75% lower  $\text{PO}_{\max}$  (Hanson et al. 2006). The lower power output of white sturgeon hearts ( $\sim 1.2$ – $1.5 \text{ mW g ventricle}^{-1}$ ) may reflect their limited athletic prowess.

Hypercapnia-induced reductions in cardiac performance are typically due to both negative chronotropic (frequency of con-

traction) and inotropic (force of contraction) effects on fish hearts. Hearts of rainbow trout (Farrell et al. 1986), sea raven (Farrell et al. 1983), and ocean pout (Farrell et al. 1983) all exhibited reductions in both  $f_H$  (10%–15%) and  $V_s$  (5%–10%) during exposure to 1.8–2.0-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ . Perfused hearts of the  $\text{CO}_2$ -tolerant armored catfish *Pterygoplichthys pardalis* exhibited no change in  $f_H$  or  $V_s$  at 2.5-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ , but  $f_H$  and  $V_s$  decreased significantly (by  $\sim 30\%$  and  $\sim 35\%$ , respectively) at 7.5-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  (Hanson et al. 2009). Like catfish hearts, sturgeon hearts exhibited no decrease in  $V_s$  (12% above control;  $P = .058$ ) or  $F_O$  (11% above control;  $P = .143$ ) at 3-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ , although  $f_H$  was significantly lower (8% below control). Furthermore, the  $V_s$  of white sturgeon hearts was unchanged at  $\text{PCO}_2 = 6$  or 8 kPa, even though  $F_O$  decreased slightly ( $\sim 18\%$ ), indicating that the decreased  $Q_{\max}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\max}$  ( $\sim 25\%$  each) reflected negative chronotropic effects (with  $f_H$  decreasing by  $\sim 25\%$  at 6-kPa

Table 2: The effect of hypercapnia (6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ ) and maximal adrenergic stimulation ( $500 \text{ nmol L}^{-1} [\text{AD}]$ ) on white sturgeon ventricular intracellular pH (pHi)

$\text{CO}_2$ tension (kPa)	Fish ( $n$ )	$[\text{AD}]$ ( $\text{nmol L}^{-1}$ )	Perfusate pH (pHe)	Ventricular pH (pHi)
In vivo	8	In vivo	$7.80 \pm .01$	$6.91 \pm .013^A$
.5 (control)	2	10	7.80	$6.95 \pm .050^A$
6	4	10	6.85	$6.77 \pm .015^B$
6	8	500	6.85	$6.83 \pm .011^C$

Note. In vivo values were obtained from ventricles excised from white sturgeons under resting conditions. Control group represents ventricles sampled during 0.5-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ . Values are means  $\pm$  SEM. Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatment groups. pHe = extracellular pH.

$\text{PCO}_2$ ). Thus, the remarkable  $\text{CO}_2$  tolerance of white sturgeon hearts appears to be associated more with a protection of inotropy than with protection of chronotropy.

In vertebrate hearts, high  $\text{CO}_2$  can induce chronotropic effects by, for example, alterations in the activity of hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated (HCN) channels in pacemaker cells, which set the intrinsic rate of the heart (Bers 2001). HCN channel activity can be reduced during acidosis by a concurrent reduction in cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), resulting in a subsequent bradycardia. However, whether similar mechanisms are responsible for the hypercapnic bradycardia displayed in white sturgeon awaits further experimentation.

Previous work with  $\text{CO}_2$ -sensitive species has shown that myocardial acidosis exerts a negative inotropic effect through  $\text{H}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$  competition for binding sites on troponin (Williamson et al. 1976; Gesser and Jørgensen 1982). White sturgeon have demonstrated an exceptional capacity for pHi regulation during short-term hypercapnia in vivo (Baker et al. 2009a), and this could explain preservation of inotropy. Here, the magnitude of the acidosis measured in white sturgeon ventricles exposed to 6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  ( $\sim 0.18$  pH units; Table 2) was less than half that predicted from its intrinsic buffer capacity ( $\sim 0.4$  pH units; Baker et al. 2009a). Thus, we suggest that some of the protection of cardiac performance in situ may be the result of the exceptional pH regulatory response of white sturgeon. While *P. pardalis* better maintained ventricular pHi in situ (Hanson et al. 2009), inotropy during severe hypercapnia was still better protected in white sturgeon hearts, suggesting greater insensitivity to intracellular acidosis in the white sturgeon. Inotropic effects due to acidosis in cardiac muscle tissue have generally been attributed to changes in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  affinity and transport (Williamson et al. 1976; Gesser and Jørgensen 1982; Shiels et al. 2010), and therefore further research using ventricular strip preparations to examine, for example,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  affinity is warranted.

#### *Protective Effects of Adrenergic Stimulation on Cardiac Performance during Hypercapnia*

White sturgeon hearts are under some degree of adrenergic tone during normocapnic conditions in vivo (Crocker et al. 2000), but relatively little is known about their adrenergic sensitivity. Even so, differences in control cardiac performance between series 2 and 3 (a 20% lower  $\text{Q}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$  in the latter; Figs. 3C, 3D, 4C, 4D) are unlikely to be related to tonic levels of perfusate adrenaline used (10 and 5  $\text{nmol L}^{-1}$  [AD], respectively), as the relative effects of 6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  were almost identical. Instead, these differences between control values for  $\text{Q}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$  may be related to size (2.5-fold larger hearts in series 3), as larger hearts may lack coronary perfusion and thus potential limitations in oxygen diffusion in a thicker compact myocardium (Lillywhite et al. 1999). Further studies are needed to describe dose-response effects of adrenaline on cardiac function in sturgeon.

Hypercapnia (3-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ ) induces a persistent (96-h) ele-

vation of plasma adrenaline in white sturgeon ( $\sim 5$  times resting levels; Crocker and Cech 1998), suggesting an important role for this hormone in ameliorating the negative effects of hypercapnia on cardiorespiratory function. Increased AD can, for example, stimulate transsarcolemmal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx and sarcoplasmic reticulum  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  uptake, thus increasing cardiac contractility and accelerating relaxation (Bers 2001). Adrenergic protection of cardiac performance during hypercapnia is commonly observed in fish hearts; high [AD] has been demonstrated to increase inotropy in ventricular strips of both rainbow trout and eel during hypercapnia. Likewise, increasing [AD] (from 5 to 500  $\text{nmol L}^{-1}$ ) during 6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  in our study restored  $\text{Q}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$  to control levels by increasing  $F_0$  (Table 1) and  $V_s$  (Fig. 4B). Although addition of high concentrations of adrenaline completely protected cardiac performance during hypercapnia, heart rate remained depressed (Fig. 4A). Thus, although  $\text{Q}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$  were maintained at control levels during 6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ , heart function was qualitatively very different from that during control conditions.

A lack of effect of adrenaline on  $f_H$  was unexpected, as AD is known to stimulate HCN channel activity in pacemaker cells, and increase  $f_H$  in vertebrate hearts. In addition, in most fishes examined, adrenergic protection is attributable to increases in both  $f_H$  and contractile force. Only rainbow trout hearts working routinely exhibited no increase in  $f_H$  in the presence of high adrenaline levels (Farrell 1985), albeit at a much lower  $\text{CO}_2$  tension. We speculate that this absence of an effect on  $f_H$  may be a direct effect of perfusate pH (6.85 at  $\text{PCO}_2 = 6$  kPa) on pacemaker cells rather than of pHi effects, because pHi increased in response to elevated AD. This possibility might also explain why hearts exposed to 8-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$  (perfusate pH = 6.7) exhibited arrhythmia. Thus, while cardiac inotropy may be  $\text{CO}_2$  tolerant, negative chronotropic effects may be unavoidable, because no blood pH compensation occurs during exposure to severe hypercarbia ( $>6\text{--}8$  kPa). Unfortunately, little is known about the effects of severe blood acidosis (blood pH decreases of  $>0.7$ ) on intrinsic heart rate, as few other vertebrates can tolerate this condition. Cardiac failure as a mechanism of  $\text{CO}_2$  toxicity in white sturgeon remains a possibility, particularly considering the absence of sustained, severe intracellular acidosis.

#### *Conclusions*

To place our study in a broader perspective, various authors (Heisler 1986; Ultsch 1996; Brauner and Baker 2009) have suggested that aquatic hypercarbia has been underestimated as a selective pressure associated with a number of important vertebrate adaptations. Among fishes, white sturgeon display an exceptional tolerance to hypercapnia, and this tolerance extends to cardiac performance. Severe hypercapnia (6-kPa  $\text{PCO}_2$ ) only modestly reduced  $\text{Q}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\text{PO}_{\text{max}}$ , and both were restored with adrenergic stimulation or upon return to control  $\text{CO}_2$  tensions. Furthermore, this loss of performance was observed in an in situ heart preparation, devoid of other possible mediating responses, such as alterations in vagal tone or vascular resistance.



The combination of an emergent coordinated response (Baker et al. 2009a) and inherent CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance of cardiac tissue strongly support the hypothesis that CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance is an adaptive response to a selective pressure (i.e., aquatic hypercarbia). As white sturgeon are phylogenetically positioned between elasmobranchs and teleosts, these findings can provide important insight into the evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance in fish hearts. Research identifying mechanisms associated with protection of cardiac function during hypercapnia remains an exciting future direction.

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