Autosomal Dominant Hypercalciuria in a Mouse Model Due to a Mutation of the Epithelial Calcium Channel, TRPV5

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Abstract

Hypercalciuria is a major cause of nephrolithiasis, and is a common and complex disorder involving genetic and environmental factors. Identification of genetic factors for monogenic forms of hypercalciuria is hampered by the limited availability of large families, and to facilitate such studies, we screened for hypercalciuria in mice from an N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea mutagenesis programme. We identified a mouse with autosomal dominant hypercalciuria (HCALC1). Linkage studies mapped the Hcalc1 locus to a 11.94 Mb region on chromosome 6 containing the transient receptor potential cation channel, subfamily V, members 5 (Trpv5) and 6 (Trpv6) genes. DNA sequence analysis of coding regions, intron-exon boundaries and promoters of Trpv5 and Trpv6 identified a novel T to C transition in codon 682 of TRPV5, mutating a conserved serine to a proline (5682P). Compared to wild-type littermates, heterozygous (Trpv5682P/682P) and homozygous (Trpv5682P/682P) mutant mice had hypercalciuria, polyuria, hyperphosphaturia and a more acidic urine, and ~10% of males developed tubulointerstitial nephritis. Trpv5682P/682P mice also had normal plasma parathyroid hormone but increased 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 concentrations without increased bone resorption, consistent with a renal defect for the hypercalciuria. Expression of the 5682P mutation in human embryonic kidney cells revealed that TRPV5-S682P-expressing cells had a lower baseline intracellular calcium concentration than wild-type TRPV5-expressing cells, suggesting an altered calcium permeability. Immunohistological studies revealed a selective decrease in TRPV5-expression from the renal distal convoluted tubules of Trpv5682P/682P and Trpv6582P/682P mice consistent with a trafficking defect. In addition, Trpv5682P/682P mice had a reduction in renal expression of the intracellular calcium-binding protein, calbindin-D28k, consistent with a specific defect in TRPV5-mediated renal calcium reabsorption. Thus, our findings indicate that the TRPV5 S682P mutant is functionally significant and study of HCALC1, a novel model for autosomal dominant hypercalciuria, may help further our understanding of renal calcium reabsorption and hypercalciuria.

Introduction

Kidney stone disease (nephrolithiasis) affects 12% of men and 5% of women by the seventh decade of life and has a recurrence rate of ~10% per annum [1]. Approximately 80% of kidney stones contain calcium as calcium oxalate and/or calcium phosphate, and hypercalciuria is the most common metabolic abnormality found in such calcium stone formers [1,2]. The aetiology of hypercalciuria may involve absorptive, renal, or resorptive mechanisms, depending on the site of the primary defect, resulting in intestinal hyperabsorption, impaired renal tubular reabsorption, or increased bone resorption, respectively [3]. In addition, hypercalciuria and nephrolithiasis may have a genetic aetiology, as 35–65% of patients with hypercalciuric nephrolithiasis have affected family members [2]. Moreover, twin studies have estimated the heritability of nephrolithiasis and hypercalciuria as 56% [4] and 52%, [5] respectively, and both

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may occur as polygenic quantitative traits, or as monogenic traits inherited as autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive or X-linked disorders [2,6], a situation that is similar to that for many common clinical disorders, e.g. hypertension and diabetes mellitus [7,8]. However, it is important to note that the polygenic forms of these diseases including hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis are more common, whereas the familial monogenic forms are rare [9], and that the study of both forms has yielded important and novel insights of homeostatic mechanisms and their roles in disease processes. This is well illustrated by studies of the different forms of hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis. Thus, genome-wide association studies, aiming to reveal gene variants contributing to polygenic traits, in Icelandic and Dutch populations identified susceptibility risk variants in the claudin 14 (CLDN14) gene for hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis, [10] and a study of Swiss renal calcium stone formers has reported an association between an ancestral haplotype defined by the non-synonymous polymorphisms of the transient receptor potential channel, subfamily V, member 6 (TRPV6), which resulted in a gain-of-function and absorptive hypercalcemia [11]. In addition, studies of monogenic (i.e. familial) forms of hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis have identified: an association between the human soluble adenylyl cyclase and an autosomal dominant form of absorptive hypercalcemia [12,13]; gain-of-function mutations of the calcium-sensing receptor in autosomal dominant hypercalcaemia with hypercalcemia [2,14]; mutations of the sodium-phosphate co-transporter solute family 13 member 5 (SLC13A5), in an autosomal recessive form of nephrocalcinosis [15]; mutations of the chloride/proton antiporter, CLC-Kb, in Dent’s disease, an X-linked recessive form of hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis [16]; and mutations of the bumetanide-sensitive sodium-potassium-chloride cotransporter (NKCC2), the renal outer-medullary potassium channel (ROMK), and the voltage-gated chloride channel, CLC-Kb in autosomal recessive forms of Bartter’s syndrome type I, II, and III, respectively, which are associated with hypercalcemia [13]. These latter studies have been successful as large families with the disorder were available. However, such families with monogenic forms of hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis are frequently unavailable, as this form of the disorder is rare and because hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis is a late-onset disorder, and therefore at the time of presentation of a kidney stone the parents of a proband may be deceased and younger family members may not have developed any manifestations of the disorder [17]. To overcome these difficulties and facilitate the identification of genetic abnormalities causing hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis, we embarked on studies to establish mouse models generated using N-ethyl-N-nitrosoureac (ENU), a chemical mutagen that causes point mutations by alkylation of nucleic acids leading to mispairing and subsequent single base substitutions during DNA replication [18]. ENU mouse mutants, which can be associated with loss-of-function, hypomorph, hypomorphic or dominant-negative effects [18], have been successfully derived for metabolic and renal disorders including a mouse model with obesity and hyperinsulinaemia caused by a V145E substitution in the leptin gene [19], and a mouse model for renal failure due to a C277S substitution in aquaporin-11 [20]. We now report the identification of an ENU-induced mouse mutant model for autosomal dominant hypercalcaemia, HCALC1, due to mutation of the transient receptor potential cation channel, subfamily V, member 5 (TRPV5) gene.

Results

Identification of HCALC1 mice and Trpv5 mutation

The HCALC1 founder mouse was identified from plasma and urinary biochemical analysis of F1 male offspring of ENU-mutagenised C57BL/6J male mice and wild-type C3H/HeH (C3H) female mice. The founder mouse, who was normocalcaemic, was found to have a urine calcium/creatinine ratio >10 SD above the mean of age-matched control males (2.49 vs 0.25±0.20, respectively at age 16 weeks, 3.93 vs 0.28±0.21, respectively at age 24 weeks), consistent with idiopathic hypercalcemia [21]. ENU-REF_17 The HCALC1 founder male was mated with normal C3H females and plasma and urinary analysis of the second-generation (G2) progeny revealed 10 of 23 offspring were normocalcaemic but had urine calcium/creatinine ratios >2 to 9-fold above the mean of age-matched control littersmates. The occurrence of hypercalcemia in 43% of the progeny is consistent with an autosomal dominant phenotype (Figure 1A). The presence of hypercalcemia in the HCALC1 mice was not associated with nephrocalcinosis, as renal histology using von Kossa staining to detect calcium deposits, revealed that the frequency of interstitial renal cortical calcification (one or more calcified foci/renal cross-section) in HCALC1 and wild-type (unaffected) mice was similar (26% and 24%, respectively).

A genome-wide search using chromosome-specific single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), at 20–30 cM intervals and DNA from 13 mice (10 hypercalciuric mice and 3 normocalciuric littersmates) revealed co-segregation of the Hcalc1 locus with chromosome 6 (LOD score = 3.91, 0% recombination). Analysis using additional chromosome 6 SNPs in 89 G2 mice (39 hypercalcemic and 50 normocalciuric) demonstrated co-segregation of the Hcalc1 locus with chromosome 6B1/B2, with a peak LOD score = 26.8 at 0% recombination (Figure 1B). An analysis of the recombinants observed in the hypercalcemic mice revealed a 17.38 Mb interval flanked by rs13478688 and rs30110406, and additional analysis including the normocalciuric mice indicated the critical interval containing the Hcalc1 locus was between rs13478699 and rs30110406, which is 11.94 Mb in size and contains 176 genes, including those for Trpv5 and Trpv6.

Sequence analysis of the coding regions, intron-exon boundaries and promoter sequences of Trpv5 and Trpv6 [22,23] using DNA from a hypercalcemic G2 mouse and wild-type C57BL/6J and C3H mice, did not identify a mutation in Trpv6. However, a heterozygous T to C transition in codon 682 of Trpv5, predicted to alter a wild-type serine (S) to a mutant proline (P), was identified in the hypercalcemic mouse (Figure 1C), resulting in gain of a BsaI restriction enzyme site, which was used to confirm the heterozygous mutation in all hypercalciuric mice, consistent with an autosomal dominant trait. The S682P mutation was absent in all normocalciuric mice (Figure 1C). The S682 residue, located in the cytoplasmic C-terminus of TRPV5, is evolutionarily conserved in human soluble adenylyl cyclase and an autosomal dominant form of normocalciuric nephrolithiasis have identified: an association between an ancestral haplotype defined by the nonsynonymous mutation in all hypercalciuric mice, consistent with an autosomal recessive form of Bartter’s syndrome type I-III, respectively, (NKCC2), the renal outer-medullary potassium channel (ROMK), and the voltage-gated chloride channel, CLC-Kb in autosomal recessive forms of Bartter’s syndrome type I-II, respectively, which are associated with hypercalcemia [13]. These latter studies have been successful as large families with the disorder were available. However, such families with monogenic forms of hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis are frequently unavailable, as this form of the disorder is rare and because hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis is a late-onset disorder, and therefore at the time of presentation of a kidney stone the parents of a proband may be deceased and younger family members may not have developed any manifestations of the disorder [17]. To overcome these difficulties and facilitate the identification of genetic abnormalities causing hypercalcemic nephrolithiasis, we embarked on studies to establish mouse models generated using N-ethyl-N-nitrosoureac (ENU), a chemical mutagen that causes point mutations by alkylation of nucleic acids leading to mispairing and subsequent single base substitutions during DNA replication [18]. ENU mouse mutants, which can be associated with loss-of-function, hypomorph, hypomorphic or dominant-negative effects [18], have been successfully derived for metabolic and renal disorders including a mouse model with obesity and hyperinsulinaemia caused by a V145E substitution in the leptin gene [19], and a mouse model for renal failure due to a C277S substitution in aquaporin-11 [20]. We now report the identification of an ENU-induced mouse mutant model for autosomal dominant hypercalcaemia, HCALC1, due to mutation of the transient receptor potential cation channel, subfamily V, member 5 (Trpv5) gene.

In vitro effects of TRPV5 mutation in HCALC1 mice

TRPV5 is an epithelial calcium channel which functions as a tetramer, is predominantly expressed in the renal distal convoluted tubule (DCT) and connecting tubule (CNT), and is involved in vitamin D-regulated renal calcium reabsorption [24,25]. The effect of the mutation on TRPV5 channel characteristics was investigated by electrophysiological recordings in Xenopus oocytes (Figure 2A–D). These revealed no differences between wild-type
and TRPV5-S682P channel properties, thereby indicating that either the S682P alteration was not a pathogenic mutation or that the S682P mutation may be having an effect through different mechanisms, such as impaired trafficking of the channel to the plasma membrane, which may not be detected in Xenopus oocytes; either because the ion channel protein is overexpressed in the heterologous expression system, or because the cellular machinery that regulates channel trafficking in Xenopus oocytes may differ from that of mammalian cells. We therefore assessed the effect of the mutation on TRPV5 channel characteristics in Human Embryonic Kidney (HEK)-293 cells. Similarly, to the Xenopus oocyte measurements, whole-cell patch clamp recordings in HEK293 cells did not reveal differences in current density carried by Na\(^+\) or Ca\(^{2+}\) between TRPV5-WT and TRPV5-S682P (Figure S1A–D). In addition, Ca\(^{2+}\) dependent inhibition of Na\(^+\) currents was similar between TRPV5-WT and TRPV5-S682P (Figure S1E and F). The absence of any effect by the mutant may again be due to overexpression of ion channel proteins in the heterologous system. Moreover, it is important to note that the whole-cell patch clamp technique results in a dilution of the intracellular environment, and that this may reduce the effects of intracellular factors, which may be involved in channel trafficking. We therefore carried out further studies of the intracellular effects of the S682P mutation on calcium flux, using the calcium-responsive dye, Fura-2, as follows. HEK293 cells were transiently transfected with constructs encoding enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP)-tagged wild-type mouse TRPV5 (TRPV5-wt), mouse TRPV5 with the S682P mutation (TRPV5-S682P).

Figure 1. Hypercalciuria in HCALC1 ENU mutant mice and identification of a Trpv5 mutation. (A) Urine calcium/creatinine ratios in 23 G2 offspring of the HCALC1 founder male revealed that 10 of the 23 mice were hypercalcuiuric, consistent with an autosomal dominant inheritance. Bar, mean calcium/creatinine values. (B) Haplotype analysis of 89 G2 mice (39 hypercalcuiuric and 50 normocalciuric) was initially undertaken separately in the hypercalcuiuric and normocalciuric mice, as the penetrance of HCALC1 was unknown. Haplotype analysis of the hypercalcuiuric mice localised Hcalc1 to a 17.38 Mb interval on chromosome 6, flanked by rs13478688 and rs30110406 (broken double-headed arrow). Haplotype analysis using combined data for the hypercalcuiuric and normocalciuric mice identified the smaller interval, 11.94 Mb, flanked by rs13478709 and rs30110406 (solid double-headed arrow). The Hcalc1 locus is inherited with the C57BL/6J haplotype from the F1 founder male. Filled box, C57BL/6J allele; and open box, C3H/HeH allele. Number of mice observed for each haplotype is shown beneath each column. (C) DNA sequence analysis of Trpv5 identified a heterozygous T to C transition in codon 682 in hypercalcuiuric mice predicted to alter a wild-type serine (Ser) to a mutant proline (Pro). This mutation resulted in gain of a BsaI restriction enzyme site that was used to confirm the presence of the mutation in the 39 hypercalcuiuric mice (n = 3 shown) and its absence in the 50 normocalciuric mice (n = 3 shown). wt, wild-type; m, mutant. (D) Amino acid sequence alignment revealed evolutionary conservation of the wild-type mouse TRPV5 serine (S) residue at codon 682 (arrowed) in 5 species, as well as in mouse TRPV6 (mTrpv6). Identical residues are shaded black and conservative changes are shaded grey.

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S682P, or empty (mock) EGFP vector. EGFP positive cells were monitored for changes in intracellular calcium ([Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}) in response to extracellular calcium ([Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{o}) changes using the Ca\textsuperscript{2+}-sensing dye, Fura-2 (Figure 2E). Transient expression of TRPV5-wt resulted in an elevated basal [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}, level compared to mock-transfected cells, due to increased calcium permeability of the cell. When the cells were superfused with calcium-free medium, [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{e} in TRPV5-expressing cells decreased to levels similar to mock-transfected cells. Re-application of 1.4 mM Ca\textsubscript{2+} solution induced a rapid increase of [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}, followed by a gradual decrease back to basal levels (Figure 2E). No significant changes in [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}, were observed in mock-transfected cells in response to Ca\textsubscript{2+} elevation and Ca\textsubscript{2+} re-application (Figure 2F). By comparison, cells transfected with TRPV5-S682P showed a lower basal [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}, than TRPV5-wt-transfected cells (N = 24/group, p<0.001, Figure 2E-F). The TRPV5-S682P-transfected cells had a similar response in [Ca\textsubscript{2+}]\text{i}, to Ca\textsubscript{2+} depletion and Ca\textsubscript{2+} re-application as that observed in TRPV5-wt-transfected cells. These data suggest that the S682P mutation in TRPV5 affects baseline calcium permeability of the channel rather than calcium-induced channel inactivation, a feature consistent with the hypercalciuric phenotype observed in HCALC1 mice (Figure 1A). Renal excretion and histology were therefore further investigated in the HCALC1 mice.

In vivo effects of TRPV5 mutation in HCALC1 mice

HCALC1 mice were interbred to generate wild-type (Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/+}), heterozygous (Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−}) and homozygous mutant (Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−}) mice. Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice, were found to be viable, fertile and morphologically indistinguishable from their Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/+} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} littermates. Mice between 12-20 weeks of age were housed in metabolic cages for 24 hours and urine samples collected for biochemical analysis [26]. Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice were polydipsic and polyuric compared to Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/+} mice (p<0.02, Table 1). In addition, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice were hypercalciuric, hyperphosphaturic, and had an acidic urine (p<0.02, Table 1). Plasma calcium and phosphate concentrations were similar in Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/+} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice, but Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} male and female mice had significantly lower plasma calcium concentrations (p<0.02), whereas only the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} female mice were hypophosphataemic (p<0.02, Table 1). The lower plasma calcium concentrations in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice were not observed to be associated with symptoms of neuromuscular irritability or seizures, presumably because they had mild hypocalcaemia. Indeed, plasma PTH concentrations in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/+}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice were not significantly different (Table 1), but the plasma 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D\textsubscript{3} D\textsubscript{3} concentrations were significantly elevated in male and female Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} male and female mice (p<0.05 and p<0.02, respectively) (Table 1). The elevated circulating 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D\textsubscript{3} concentrations observed in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice indicate that the mild asymptomatic hypocalcaemia, despite the severe renal loss of calcium in these mutant mice, is being maintained via a compensatory, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D\textsubscript{3} mediated increase in intestinal calcium absorption, as reported in Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice [25].

Despite the frequency of interstitial renal cortical calcification being similar in the HCALC1 and Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice, ~10% of Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} male mice had unilateral or bilateral smaller kidneys (Figure S2) associated with scarring, whereas 0% of Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} males had such abnormalities. Histological examination revealed the presence of interstitial renal fibrosis, associated with inflammatory cell infiltrates, tubular dilatation, flattening of tubular epithelia and the presence of numerous cells and/or cell debris within the diluted lumen of some cortical tubules in kidneys of ~10% of Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} genotype mice (Figure 3A). Immunohistochemical staining with antibodies against CD3, part of the T-cell receptor complex, confirmed an infiltration of T-cells within the interstitial regions of the renal cortex of affected kidneys from the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} male mice, which was absent in Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} kidneys (Figure 3B). In addition, TUNEL-staining showed apoptosis of renal tubular cells in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} male mice, not observed in Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} kidneys (Figure 3C). These features are consistent with tubulointerstitial nephritis [27,28].

Hypercalciuria may be associated with increased bone resorption leading to lower bone mineral density (BMD) and osteoporosis. We therefore assessed for bone abnormalities in the HCALC1 mice using dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA), micro-computed tomography (microCT) scanning and histology. DEXA analysis of the femurs of 19-22 week-old Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice (n=8-22/group) did not reveal any significant differences (in g/cm\textsuperscript{2}: 0.075±0.001, 0.075±0.001, and 0.071±0.002 for Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and female mice, respectively; 0.071±0.001, 0.070±0.001, and 0.066±0.002 for Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and male mice, respectively). In addition, histological analysis of the femora from males and females did not reveal any morphological abnormalities in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} or Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice when compared to Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice (Figure S3). Furthermore, microCT scanning did not reveal any of the major abnormalities associated with osteoporosis, such as a reduction in trabecular bone volume [29], in the Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice when compared to Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice (Table S1); however, female Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice were found to have a significantly elevated bone surface/volume ratio and reduced trabecular thickness which may be consistent with a deterioration in the microarchitecture of the bone.

Effects of TRPV5-S682P mutation on TRPV5 and Calbindin-D\textsubscript{28k} renal expression

The effects of the S682P mutation on TRPV5 renal expression, were assessed using kidney cryosections from Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice and anti-TRPV5 antibodies. Co-staining with antibodies against the thiazide-sensitive sodium/chloride co-transporter (NCC) or aquaporin-2 (AQP2) was performed to distinguish TRPV5-expression in the DCT and CNT, respectively, as NCC is expressed at the apical regions of DCT cells, with a decrease in expression towards the most distal part of the DCT segment, [24/ENREF_18 whilst AQP2-expression commences at the CNT and extends throughout the collecting ducts [30,31]. In Trpv5\textsuperscript{+/−} mice, TRPV5-immunostaining was observed in the apical regions of the second half of the DCT (DCT2), and in the cytoplasmic regions of CNT cells (Figure 3D–E). By contrast, in Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice, TRPV5-immunofluorescence was reduced, especially in NCC-positive tubular cells where TRPV5-staining was absent or appeared diffusely cytoplasmic (Figure 3D–E). Examination of TRPV5-NCC co-stained sections revealed that in Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} kidneys, TRPV5-expression appeared confined to the DCT2 distal portion where NCC-immunostaining was weakest (Figure 3D). The number of TRPV5-NCC co-positive cells in the kidneys of Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice were significantly reduced (p<0.05) in comparison to Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} kidneys (100±13%, 56±6%, and 27±5% for Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice, respectively, n=5 mice/group, ≥3 different fields/kidney section). These differences in protein expression were not due to differences in transcription, as quantitative PCR analysis demonstrated that renal Trpv5 mRNA levels in Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−}, Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} and Trpv5\textsuperscript{−/−} mice were similar (Figure 4A). Thus, these findings
Figure 2. Channel characteristics of wild-type and mutant TRPV5. (A) Whole-cell currents in TRPV5-WT (V5-WT) and TRPV5-682P (V5-S682P) injected Xenopus oocytes recorded in response to 300 ms test pulses to various potentials (from −100 to +60 mV in 10 mV increments). Holding potential, 0 mV (N = 5). (B) Mean current-voltage relationships for TRPV5-WT and TRPV5-682P channels (N = 5). These current-voltage relationships are similar to those reported for TRPV5 channels [62]. (C) Mean whole-cell tail currents measured in TRPV5-WT and TRPV5-682P injected Xenopus oocytes during test potentials applied in 10 mV increments from −70 to +40 mV after a pre-pulse to −100 mV in TRPV5-WT and TRPV5-682P channels (N = 5). (D) Time-dependent inhibition of TRPV-WT and TRPV5-682P whole-cell currents. Oocytes were stimulated every 1 s. The peak current amplitude was normalised to that recorded during the first pulse (N = 4). (E) Representative trace of Fura-2 ratio in HEK293 cells transiently transfected with an empty EGFP vector (mock), or EGFP-tagged TRPV5-WT or TRPV5-S682P. Cells expressing EGFP were selected and monitored for changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} levels when extracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations were varied from 1.4 mM Ca^{2+} to 0 mM Ca^{2+} (2 mM EDTA) and 1.4 mM Ca^{2+} which was facilitated by superfusion. (F) Fura-2 levels under resting conditions (t(0)), minimal Fura-2 ratio after EDTA treatment (t(min)) and peak level (t(max)) upon administration of 1.4 mM Ca^{2+} after EDTA treatment. Average data of cells transfected with the empty vector (n = 7), TRPV5-wt (n = 24) and TRPV5-
are consistent with the mutant TRPV5 channel resulting in a probable intracellular trafficking defect. Interestingly, renal *Trpv6* expression was significantly increased in *Trpv5*+/−/+ mice compared to *Trpv5*+/−/− mice (Figure 4B), thereby suggesting a possible compensatory mechanism. Furthermore, expression of *Olp24d1*, which encodes the 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ 24-hydroxylase, the enzyme that inactivates 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃, was significantly decreased in *Trpv5*+/−/+ mice compared to *Trpv5*+/−/− mice (Figure 4C) and Western blot analysis (Figure 4D, E), consistent with the hypervitaminosis D observed in *Trpv5*+/−/+ mice (Table 1). Semi-quantitative analysis of CY24A1 and TRPV5 protein using whole kidney lysates confirmed the results obtained by qPCR, and revealed that CYP24A1 expression was reduced in *Trpv5*+/−/+ and *Trpv5*+/−/− mice. Semi-quantitative analysis of CY24A1 and TRPV5 protein (data not shown) did not confirm the observed upregulation of mRNA levels (Figure 4B), although it should be noted that Western blot and densitometric analysis is less sensitive than quantitative PCR.

Expression of the intracellular vitamin D-regulated calcium-binding protein calbindin-D₂₈K, which is co-expressed with TRPV5 and this suggests the possibility that TRPV5 mutations may make a minor contribution and occur in <3% of patients with substitution in codon 682 of mouse TRPV5 results in substitution of a highly conserved serine residue, making it unlikely to be a silent polymorphism (Figure 1); (i) the serine to proline change results in reduced basal [Ca²⁺]i level in HEK293 cells expressing TRPV5-S682P, indicating a defect in the TRPV5-mediated calcium permeability of the cell (Figure 2); (ii) expression of TRPV5 in *Trpv5*+/−/+ and *Trpv5*−/−/+ mouse kidneys was altered, particularly in the DCT2 (Figure 3D), consistent with a trafficking defect of the mutant TRPV5; and (iii) renal calbindin-D₂₈K expression in *Trpv5*+/−/+ mice kidneys was reduced, further supporting a specific defect in TRPV5-mediated calcium reabsorption (Figure 4).

Moreover, these findings reporting a role for the TRPV5-S682P mutation in the aetiology of the hypercalciuric phenotype are in agreement with the observations previously reported from mice that are null for TRPV5 (*Trpv5−/−*) [25]. Thus, inactivation of TRPV5, in these null mice resulted in a decrease in renal calcium reabsorption, leading to severe urinary calcium loss, and normocalcaemia was maintained by a compensatory 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃-mediated increase in intestinal calcium absorption. Furthermore, in the *Trpv5−/−* mice the increased plasma 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ concentrations were not associated with increased bone resorption because of TRPV5 inactivation in osteoclasts, and this situation is also observed in both *Trpv5*+/−/+ and *Trpv5*−/−/+ mice (Table 1 and Table S1), thereby indicating that TRPV5 exerts its effects on extracellular calcium homeostasis principally by regulating renal calcium reabsorption. Interestingly, these patterns of calcium handling in mice bearing dominant null alleles have also been found in many patients with idiopathic hypercalciuria, who have renal hypercalciuria in association with elevated concentrations of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃, but with normal or suppressed plasma PTH concentrations [14, 21]

TRPV5 is a major protein involved in renal active calcium reabsorption, although to date, no TRPV5 mutations have been identified in patients with hypercalciuric kidney stone disease [33, 34]. However, only 29 unrelated patients have been studied, and this suggests the possibility that TRPV5 mutations may make a minor contribution and occur in <3% of patients with

### Table 1. Phenotypic characterisation of HCALC1 mice.

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<td>Water intake (ml/24 hr)</td>
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<td>Urine Phos/Cr</td>
<td>11.7±0.05</td>
<td>14.4±0.6⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urine pH</td>
<td>6.92±0.07</td>
<td>6.43±0.06*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma calcium (mmol/l)</td>
<td>2.82±0.04</td>
<td>2.74±0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma phosphat (mmol/l)</td>
<td>4.74±0.18</td>
<td>4.30±0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma PTH (pmol/l)</td>
<td>44.3±6.5</td>
<td>40.3±5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.25 vitamin D3 (pmol/l)</td>
<td>46.5±12.7</td>
<td>77.2±6.0</td>
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</table>

Metabolic cage analysis of *Trpv5+/−* (wt), *Trpv5+/−/+* (het) and *Trpv5−/−/+* (hom) mice for 24 hours (N = 15–72 mice/group). All data are presented as means±SEM. *p<0.05 compared to *Trpv5+/−*, **p<0.02 compared to *Trpv5+/−*, ***p<0.02 compared to *Trpv5+/−/+* mice, with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

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hypercalciuric renal stone disease. Indeed, it seems likely that in a highly heterogenous disorder such as hypercalciuric renal stone disease, that multiple genes may be involved with each giving rise to an autosomal inherited disorder and/or making a contribution to a polygenic trait, which is the likely situation for hypercalciuric renal stone disease [17]. Moreover, two TRPV5 SNPs, A563T and L712F, which have been reported to exhibit an increased calcium influx in Xenopus oocyte assays when compared with the reference TRPV5 may potentially explain the lower urine calcium excretion and reduced risk of kidney stones in African-Americans in whom these SNPs occur more frequently [35].

This increase in TRPV5 calcium uptake in the A563T variant was also observed under experimental conditions that mimicked the compound heterozygous state, or in combination with other TRPV5 non-synonymous SNP variations [35]. Our study, which further establishes the role of TRPV5 in hypercalciuria, indicates that mutational analysis of larger cohorts of hypercalciuric patients is warranted to assess if TRPV5 mutations may contribute to 3% (or less), of hypercalciuric renal stone disease. In addition, the HCALC1 mouse established by this study provides a pre-clinical model to evaluate treatments (e.g. diet or drugs) for hypercalciuria as well as facilitating studies of the physiological role of TRPV5 in renal calcium excretion.

HCALC1 mice are hypercalciuric, hyperphosphaturic, polyuric, polydipsic and have low urine pH. However, renal calcification in HCALC1 mice was not different from wild-type despite extreme calciuresis. These features are similar to the reported phenotype in Trpv5-/- mice [25]. It has been postulated that polyuria and low urine pH reduce the risk of calcium phosphate precipitation in hypercalciuric mice [25,34]. Studies in Trpv5-/- mice have shown that increased luminal calcium activates the apical calcium-sensing receptor in collecting duct cells leading to AQP2 downregulation and increased activity of the proton pump H^+ -ATPase, resulting in polyuria and increased acid secretion into the urine, respectively [34]. Abolition of this compensatory urinary acidification in Trpv5-/- mice by genetic ablation...
of the H\(^+\)-ATPase B1 subunit resulted in severe calcium phosphate precipitation in the renal medulla [34]. Similar mechanisms may also contribute to reducing the risk of calcium precipitation in the presence of hypercalcuria in HCALC1 mice. The extent of hypercalcuria in _Trpv5_^-/- (mice (~10-fold above wild-type) was similar to that reported for _Trpv5_^-/- mice (~6-fold above wild-type)[25], and in _Trpv5_682P/682P mice, this was significantly higher than both _Trpv5_682P/+ and _Trpv5_5+/+ (~20-fold above wild-type), despite _Trpv5_682P/682P causing only an ~40% decrease in basal calcium influx in HEK293 cells (Table 1, Figure 2E–F). It could be expected that complete loss of _TRPV5_ in _Trpv5_^-/- mice would cause a greater degree of hypercalcuria than the S682P mutation of _TRPV5_, which retains some calcium permeability. However, there was a decrease in _TRPV5_ protein expression specifically in the DCT (Figure 4E), suggesting that the S682P mutation may affect _TRPV5_ trafficking or regulation, for example by changing the conformation of the cytoplasmic C-terminal domain, which contains several protein-binding and regulatory motifs that regulate the subcellular localisation and trafficking of _TRPV5_ [36,37,38,39]. Such a trafficking defect of mutant _TRPV5_ would not be detected by the _Xenopus_ oocyte or HEK293 cells heterologous expression systems (Figure 2 and Figure S1) as these over-express the ion channel proteins, but may be detected by immunohistochemistry experiments of the renal tubules, as these utilise the native expression of proteins and are therefore more relevant to the physiological state. Indeed, the results of the immunohistochemistry studies (Figure 3D–E) are therefore more relevant to the physiological state. Histological analysis of the kidneys of HCALC1 mice demonstrated an increase in inflammatory infiltrates and tubular damage in ~10% of male HCALC1 mice, consistent with interstitial nephritis. We hypothesise that this is a consequence of a combination of several factors within the HCALC1 mice. HCALC1 mice are polyuric, resulting in an increased hydrostatic pressure within tubules that could lead to cell damage. This cellular damage may lead to increased uric acid release from the cells [43] and increased inflammatory cell infiltration (Figure 3A–B). A consequence of cellular damage and the inflammatory response may be apoptosis of cells as demonstrated by TUNEL staining within the HCALC1 mouse kidneys (Figure 3C).

Our investigations for bone abnormalities in the _Trpv5_ mutant mice did not reveal any significant abnormalities other than a decrease in trabecular thickness and an increase in the bone surface/volume in female _Trpv5_682P/682P mice (Table S1). Our finding of a decrease in trabecular thickness in the female _Trpv5_682P/682P mice is in agreement with the reported observations in the _Trpv5_5/5 mice [25]. However, male _Trpv5_5/5 mice, unlike male _Trpv5_682P/682P mice, also had a decrease in trabecular thickness, and _Trpv5_5/5 male and female mice, unlike _Trpv5_682P/682P male and female mice, also had a reduction in cortical bone thickness [25]. The basis for these differences between the _Trpv5_5/5 and _Trpv5_682P/682P mutant mice may involve at least three possibilities, which include: differences in the backgrounds of the strains; the ages at which the mice were investigated; and the severity of the mutation. Differences in strain background have been reported to profoundly alter expression of mutant phenotypes [44], and it is important to note that the _Trpv5_682P/682P mutant mice were on a C57BL/6j.C3H background, whereas the _Trpv5_5/5 mice were on a 129.B6 background [25]; thus it seems likely these differences in strain background may contribute to the observed differences in trabecular thickness between the _Trpv5_682P/682P and _Trpv5_5/5 males. In addition, the _Trpv5_682P/682P mice were signifi-
candy older than the Tipos−/− male mice (19 to 22 weeks versus 8 to 9 weeks of age) [25] at the time of the study; thus the greater maturity and longer duration of androgen exposure of the Tipos5682P/682P male mice may have ameliorated any reduction in trabecular and cortical bone thickness. Finally, it seems likely that TRPV5-682P represents a less severe mutation than the Trpv5 deletion of the knockout mice, as indicated by the lack of any significant effect of the TRPV5-682P mutant channel properties (Figure 2A–2D). The in vivo role of TRPV5 in bone metabolism is not fully understood and the availability of two mutant mouse models for TRPV5, with differences in bone phenotypes, will help such future investigations. TRPV5 is expressed in osteoblasts at the ruffled border and contributes to bone resorption but it is not expressed in osteoblasts; in contrast TRPV6 is expressed in both osteoblasts and osteoclasts but at very low levels, which are ~1% of those in the intestine, and TRPV6 is not involved in osteoblast Ca\textsuperscript{2+} uptake [31,45,46]. Tipos5+/− mice have been reported to have increased numbers of osteoclasts, due to stimulation of osteoclast precursors by the high circulating 1,25(OH)\textsubscript{2}D concentrations, but have reduced bone reabsorption due to a lack of TRPV5 activity [25,46]. However, the basis of the observed in vivo reduction in cortical bone mass in the Tipos−/− mice remains to be elucidated and it has been proposed that TRPV5 may directly regulate osteoclast differentiation and/or RANKL-induced Ca\textsuperscript{2+} signaling [47]. Investigation of the Tipos5682P/682P and Tipos−/− mouse models, which represent hypomorph and null models, respectively may help to further elucidate the in vivo roles of TRPV5 in skeletal biology.

In summary, HCALC1 represents the first mouse model reported to have dominant hypercalcuria due to a missense mutation in Tipos. In contrast to the Tipos5−/− model for hypercalcuria, the presence of TRPV5 with a point mutation in HCALC1 mice may help elucidate roles for the TRPV5 C-terminus in the regulation of TRPV5 activity and trafficking, and the role of TRPV5 in renal mechanisms of calcium homeostasis and in hypercalcuria.

Methods

Ethics Statement

All animal studies were carried out using guidelines issued by the Medical Research Council in ‘Responsibility in the Use of Animals for Medical Research’ [July 1993] and Home Office Project License Numbers 30/2250 and 30/2752. Experiments were approved by the Medical Research Council Harwell ethics committee, and all efforts were made to minimize suffering.

Experimental Animals

Studies were performed in accordance with guidelines issued under the UK Home Office Project licence. Animals were maintained in specific pathogen-free facilities, in individual ventilated cages and a 12-hour light-dark cycle, with free access to food and water. Mice were fed on Rat and Mouse No. 3 diet containing 1.15% calcium, 0.82% total phosphorus and 4088.68 units/kg of vitamin D (Special Diets Services, Wytham, Essex, UK).

Generation of mutant mice

ENU-mutagenesis of C57BL/6J male mice was performed as previously described [48]. Tipos5−/− male mice were obtained by crossing ENU-mutagenised C57BL/6J/HeJ (C3H) female mice. G2 mice for inheritance testing and mapping studies were derived by mating the founder male mouse with C3H female mice, or by in vitro fertilisation of C3H eggs using sperm from the founder male. Homozygous mutant mice (Tipos5682P/682P) were generated by intercrossing heterozygous mutant (Tipos5682P/+) male and female mice.

Phenotype screen

Sixteen-week old F1 male mice were kept in metabolic cages (Techniplast, Kettering, UK) for 24-hours with free access to food and water [26]. Mice were weighed before and after, and food and water intake was monitored. 24-hour urine samples were collected in the presence of sodium azide and blood samples were collected from lateral tail vein or the internal jugular vein in lithium heparin Microvette tubes (Sarstedt, Leicester, UK) following terminal anaesthesia as previously described [26]. Urine and plasma chemistry were measured using an Olympus AU400 multi-channel analyser [26,49]. Urine parameters were calculated as a ratio of sample creatinine, and plasma calcium was adjusted for plasma albumin concentration as described previously [26]. Urine were weighed before and after, and food and water intake was monitored. 24-hour urine samples were collected in the presence of sodium azide and blood samples were collected from lateral tail vein or the internal jugular vein in lithium heparin Microvette tubes (Sarstedt, Leicester, UK) following terminal anaesthesia as previously described [26]. Urine and plasma chemistry were measured using an Olympus AU400 semi-automated clinical chemistry analyser [26,49]. Serum parathyroid hormone (PTH) concentration was measured using an ELISA specific for mouse intact PTH (Immutopics, San Clemente, CA, USA) as previously described [50]. Urine parameters were calculated as a ratio of sample creatinine, and plasma calcium was adjusted for plasma albumin concentration as described previously [26]. Mice with a urine or plasma parameter that was 2SD above or below the population mean were retested at 24 weeks of age.

Genetic mapping and DNA Sequence Analysis

DNA was isolated from ear or tail biopsies using the Gentra PureGene DNA isolation kit (QIAGEN, Crawley, UK). A genome wide scan was performed on 13 mice by Pyrosequencing on the PSQ HS 96A Instrument (QIAGEN), using a panel of ~60 informative SNPs, distributed at 20–30cM intervals across 19 autosomes. Further mapping was carried out using more mice and additional informative SNPs across the candidate interval. The exons, corresponding intron-exon boundaries and promoters of mouse Tipos and Tipo6 genes [22,23] were PCR-amplified using gene specific primers (sequences provided on request). DNA sequences were determined by semi-automated DNA sequencing and the DNA sequence abnormality confirmed by restriction enzyme digest of PCR products, using methods previously described [16]. Mice were generated by intercrossing heterozygous mutant (Tipos5682P+/+) male and female mice.

Bone Analysis

Dissected formalin-fixed femora from 19–22 week-old Tipos5−/+, Tipos5682P+/+ and Tipo6−/− mice (n = 7–22 per group) were examined by DEXA and microCT. DEXA was carried out using a PIXIImus X-ray densitometer (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK). The acquired images were processed using the PIXIImus v2.1 software. MicroCT analysis was carried out using a Skyscan microCT scanner (model 1172a, Skyscan, Belgium) at 50 kV and 200 μA using a 0.5 aluminium filter and a detection pixel size of 4.3 μm². Images were captured every 0.7° through 180° rotation of each bone. Scanned images were reconstructed using Skyscan NRecon software and analysed using the Skyscan CT analysis software. Trabecular bone was measured over a 1 mm² volume, 0.2 mm from the growth plate. Trabecular bone volume as proportion of tissue volume (BV/TV,%) trabecular thickness.
sections were mounted in mounting medium containing DAPI anti-rabbit (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK). Stained secondary detection using Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The presence of T-lymphocytes was detected using rabbit anti-CD3 monoclonal antibodies (ab16669, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The presence of T-lymphocytes was detected using rabbit anti-CD3 monoclonal antibodies (ab16669, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) followed by secondary detection using Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Paisley, UK). Stained sections were mounted in mounting medium containing DAPI (Vector Labs, Peterborough, UK).

For TRPV5 immuno-detection, 8-μm kidney cryosections were processed for immunofluorescence labelling as previously described [53]. Kidney cryosections were co-stained with rabbit anti-TRPV5 (ACC-035, Alomone Labs, Jerusalem, Israel) and goat anti-AQP1 (sc-9882, Santa Cruz, Insight Biotechnology, Wembley, UK) polyclonal antibodies, or with goat anti-TRPV5 (sc-23779, Santa Cruz) and rabbit anti-NCC polyclonal antibodies, followed by the appropriate Alexa Fluor 488- or 594-conjugated secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes). Images were collected on a Nikon Eclipse E400 microscope, equipped with a Nikon DXM1200C digital camera. For comparison of fluorescence intensity, kidney sections stained for each antibody were photographed under identical exposure conditions for all mice and NIS-Elements BR 3.0 software used to count the number of TRPV5-positive and TRPV5-NCC co-positive cells.

For calbindin-D28K detection, kidneys were fixed in 2% (w/v) periodate-lysine-paraformaldehyde (PLP), followed by overnight incubation in 15% (w/v) sucrose. Seven-μm cryosections were prepared and stained with rabbit anti-calbindin-D28K, and images taken using a 10x objective on a Zeiss fluorescence microscope (Sliedrecht, The Netherlands) and a Nikon DMX1200 digital camera. Semi-quantitative determination of calbindin-D28K protein expression was performed using Image J (image processing program, NIH, USA), similar to previous publications [54].

Western blot analysis

For quantification of renal expression, of TRPV5, TRPV6, CYP24a1 and Calbindin-D28K proteins, mouse total kidney lysates were prepared and analysed as described previously [53]. Proteins were separated using SDS-PAGE and electrotransferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes (Immobilon-P, Millipore Corporation, Bedford, MA, USA). Blots were incubated overnight with rabbit anti-TRPV5, anti-TRPV6, anti-CYP24a1 (all from Santa Cruz, Insight Biotechnology, Wembley, UK), anti-calbindin-D28K polyclonal antibodies or mouse anti-Na/K-ATPase α1-subunit monoclonal antibodies (generously provided by Professor Michael J. Caplan, Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, CT, USA). Subsequently, the blots were incubated with Alexa Fluor 680-conjugated goat anti-rabbit (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) and IRDye 800 CW conjugated goat anti-mouse (LI-COR Biosciences GmbH, Bad Homburg, Germany) secondary antibodies or with HRP-conjugated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (Biorad Laboratories, UK). Immunoreactive protein was detected using the Odyssey infrared detection system (Westburg, Leusden, The Netherlands) or visualized using Pierce ECL Western blotting substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific) on a BioRad Chemidoc XRS system [56] and densitometric analysis performed using Image J.

Cell Culture and transfection

Human embryonic kidney (HEK293) cells were grown in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM, Bio Whittaker Europe, Vervier, Belgium) containing 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (PAA, Linz, Austria), 13 mM NaHCO3, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 0.01 mg/ml ciproxin at 37 °C in a humidity controlled incubator with 5% CO2. Cells were transiently transfected with the appropriate plasmids using polyethylenimine (PEI, Braunswig/PolSciences Inc) with a DNA:PEI ratio of 6:1. After 24 h, transfected cells were used for live-cell imaging experiments.

Electrophysiology

Xenopus oocytes were prepared as previously described [57]. Oocytes were injected with ~0.8 ng wild-type or mutant TRPV5 cRNA. The final injection volume was 50 nl per oocyte. Isolated oocytes were used 2 days after injection. For each batch of oocytes, both wild-type and mutant mRNA were injected, to enable direct comparison of their effects. Whole-cell currents were recorded from intact oocytes using the two-electrode voltage-clamp method, filtered at 1 kHz and digitized at 4 kHz. Oocytes were constantly perfused at 20–22°C with a solution containing 2.5 mM KCl, 87.5 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl2, 1.8 mM CaCl2 and 5 HEPES (pH 7.4 with KOH). Whole-cell currents were recorded in response to 400 ms test pulses to various potentials (from −100 to +60 mV in 10 mV increments) from a holding potential of 0 mV. Current versus voltage relationships were constructed by measuring the current at the end of each pulse and plotting it against the test pulse potential. Data was plotted using Origin 7 (OriginLab, Northampton, MA, USA).

Recordings in HEK293 cells were performed as described in detail previously [58]. Briefly, cells were placed in an extracellular bath solution (150 mM NaCl, 6 mM CsCl, 10 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES/NaOH, pH 7.4). Currents were determined in the tight seal whole-cell configuration using a patch clamp amplifier controlled by Patchmaster software (HEKA, Lambrecht, Germany). Cells were kept in nominal divalent free solution to prevent calcium overload. Patch pipettes had resistances between 1 and 4 MΩ after filling with standard pipette solution (20 mM CsCl, 100 mM Cs-aspartate, 1 mM MgCl2, 4 mM NaN3ATP, 10 mM BAPTA, 10 mM HEPES/CsOH, pH 7.2). Access resistances and capacitance were continuously monitored using the automatic capacitance compensation of the Patchmaster software. A linear voltage ramp protocol from -100 mV to +100 mV (within 450 ms) was applied every 2 s from a holding potential of 20 mV to measure current-voltage (I/V) relations. Ca2+ currents were measured for 2.5 s at 0 mV and at 80 mV during the ramp protocols (by normalizing the current amplitude to the cell membrane capacitance). All experiments were performed at room temperature. The analysis and display of patch clamp data were performed using Igor Pro software (WaveMetrics, Lake Oswego, USA).

For whole-cell patch clamp measurements, nominal divalent free solution contained in mM: 150 NaCl, 6 CsCl, 10 Glucose and

TRPV5 and Dominant Hypercalciuria

(Tb.Th, mm) and trabecular number (Tb. N, mm-1) were assessed in this region using the CT analysis software [52]. Histological analysis was performed using 5 μm sections of femora that were stained with H&E [49]. Images were collected on a Nikon Eclipse E400 microscope, equipped with a Nikon DXM1200C digital camera.
10 HEPES/NaOH, pH 7.4. To measure Na\(^{+}\)-current density, 50 
µM EDTA was added to the nominal divalent free solution to 
chelate divalent cations. 10 mM CaCl\(_2\) to the nominal divalent 
fraction to measure Ca\(^{2+}\)-current density. The standard 
intracellular (pipette) solution contained in mM: 100 Cs-aspartate, 
20 CsCl, 1 MgCl\(_2\), 10 BAPTA, 4 Na\(_2\)ATP, 10 HEPES/NaOH 
pH 7.2. To adjust the intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) concentration, the 
appropriate amount of CaCl\(_2\) was added in the presence of 
10 mM BAPTA, as determined by the CaBuf program (ftp://ftp. 

**Video imaging of [Ca\(^{2+}\)]\(_i\) using Fura-2-AM**

Functional studies were performed using pEGFP vectors 
containing full-length wild-type (wt) and mutant (S682P) mouse 
*Gapdh* cDNA. HEK293 cells were seeded on fibronectin-coated 
coverslips (Ø 25 mm) and transfected with the appropriate 
pCIneo/IRE-EGFP vector. After 24 hr, cells were loaded with 
3 µM Fura-2-AM (Molecular Probes) and 0.01% (v/v) Pluronic F- 
129 (Molecular Probes) in DMEM medium at 37°C for 20 min. 
After loading, cells were PBS-washed and allowed to equilibrate at 
37°C in HEPES-Tris buffer (in mM: 132.0 NaCl, 4.2 KCl, 1.4 
CaCl\(_2\), 1.0 MgCl\(_2\), 5.5 D-glucose and 10 HEPES, titrated to 
pH 7.4 with Tris). For Ca\(^{2+}\) free conditions, a similar buffer 
composition was used in which Ca\(^{2+}\) was substituted with 2 mM 
EDTA. After Fura-2 loading, cells were placed in an incubation 
chamber and attached to the stage of an inverted microscope 
(Axiovert 200 M, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Extracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) 
was changed using a perfusion system and resulting changes in 
cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels were monitored with Fura-2 excited at 
340 nm and 380 nm using a monochromator (Polychrome IV, 
Universal Imaging Corporation, Downingtown, PA, USA). Quantitative image analysis was performed with Meta 
software (Universal Imaging Corporation, Downingtown, PA, USA). Quantitative PCR Analysis

RNA was extracted from whole mouse kidney using Trizol 
(Invitrogen Life Technologies) as per manufacturers instructions 
[59]. cDNA was prepared from 1 µg of RNA using the Quantitect 
Reverse Transcription Kit (Qiagen). qPCR reactions were carried 
out using the Rotorgene Sybr Green Kit (Qiagen) in six 
independent samples on a Rotorgene 5 (Qiagen) as described 
previously [60]. All qPCR test samples were normalized to levels of 
the reference gene *Gapdh*. Threshold cycle \(C_T\) values were 

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