Cystic Fibrosis Is Associated with a Defect in Apical Receptor–Mediated Endocytosis in Mouse and Human Kidney

François Jouret,* Alfred Bernard,† Cédric Hermans,‡ Geneviève Dom,§ Sara Terryn,‖ Teresinha Leal,§ Patrick Lebecque,** Jean-Jacques Cassiman,†† Bob J. Scholte,‡‡ Hugo R. de Jonge,‡‡ Pierre J. Courtoy,§ and Olivier Devuyst*

*Division of Nephrology, †Department of Public Health, Unit of Industrial Toxicology and Occupational Medicine, ‡Haemostasis and Thrombosis Unit, §Christian de Duve Institute of Cellular Pathology, Cell Unit, †Department of Clinical Chemistry, and **Department of Pneumology–Paediatrics, Université catholique de Louvain, Brussels, ‖Laboratory of Cell Physiology, Centrum voor Milieukunde, Universiteit Hasselt, Diepenbeek, and ‡‡Center for Human Genetics, University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; and ‡‡Departments of Biochemistry/Cell Biology, Erasmus University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

Inactivation of the chloride channel cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) causes cystic fibrosis (CF). Although CFTR is expressed in the kidney, no overwhelming renal phenotype has been documented in patients with CF. This study investigated the expression, subcellular distribution, and processing of CFTR in the kidney; used various mouse models to assess the role of CFTR in proximal tubule (PT) endocytosis; and tested the relevance of these findings in patients with CF. The level of CFTR mRNA in mouse kidney approached that found in lung. CFTR was located in the apical area of PT cells, with a maximal intensity in the straight part (S3) of the PT. Fractionation showed that CFTR co-distributed with the chloride/proton exchanger ClC-5 in PT endosomes. Cftr<sup>−/−</sup> mice showed impaired <sup>125</sup>I-β<sub>2</sub>-microglobulin uptake, together with a decreased amount of the multiligand receptor cubilin in the S3 segment and a significant loss of cubilin and its low molecular weight (LMW) ligands into the urine. Defective receptor-mediated endocytosis was found less consistently in Cftr<sup>A/F</sup>/A<sup>F</sup> mice, characterized by a large phenotypic heterogeneity and moderate versus mice that lacked CIC-5. A significant LMW proteinuria (and particularly transferrinuria) was also documented in a cohort of patients with CF but not in patients with asthma and chronic lung inflammation. In conclusion, CFTR inactivation leads to a moderate defect in receptor-mediated PT endocytosis, associated with a cubilin defect and a significant LMW proteinuria in mouse and human. The magnitude of the endocytosis defect that is caused by CFTR versus CIC-5 loss likely reflects functional heterogeneity along the PT.


Cystic fibrosis (CF; MIM #219700), the most common autosomal recessive disease in white individuals, is caused by mutations in the CFTR gene that encodes the chloride channel cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) (1,2). CFTR is a 1480–amino acid protein that belongs to the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) family of integral membrane proteins. It is located mainly in the apical membrane area of secretory epithelia, where it functions as a cAMP-dependent chloride channel and as a conductance regulator via interactions with other ion channels (2). Mutations in CFTR are classified into five groups according to their structural or functional consequences on the protein. The deletion of three bases that encode a phenylalanine residue at position 508 (AF508), which occurs in approximately 70% of patients with CF, results in the misfolding and lack of maturation of the CFTR protein (3). Most of the clinical features that are observed in patients with CF and CF mouse models originate from mucosal obstruction of exocrine glands, such as the respiratory system, pancreas, intestine, gallbladder, and sweat glands (1–3).

Besides exocrine epithelia, CFTR has been located in the mammalian kidney, which primarily ensures reabsorptive functions (4). During human nephrogenesis, CFTR is expressed in the apical membrane of the branching ureteric bud and, later, in the apical pole of proximal tubule (PT) cells in the cortex, where it remains detected after birth (5,6). A functional truncated isoform also has been described in the kidney, with a distinct ontogeny pattern and a minor plasma membrane expression (7,8). Despite the high level of CFTR expression in the developing and mature kidney, no overwhelming renal phenotype has been associated with CF (4,9). Instead, a spectrum of renal diseases is apparent from the neonatal period to later in life. Microscopic nephrocalcinosis has been reported in an autopsy series of patients who had CF and ranged in age from birth to 36 yr (10), and the incidence of kidney stones in patients...
with CF also may be increased (11). However, the relative contribution of lithogenic factors, such as hypocitraturia, or impaired hydration remains elusive. A decreased capacity to dilute urine, together with reduced urinary sodium excretion, also has been reported in patients with CF (12). This could result from a primary defect in kidney function or simply reflect changes in the extracellular fluid volume that is caused by excessive losses of NaCl in sweat and feces. In addition, patients with CF show an enhanced renal clearance of many drugs, including aminoglycosides (13), and subtle abnormalities in kidney development, function, and/or morphology may appear in later stages of CF (6).

In addition to its location in the apical membrane, CFTR is distributed in intracellular organelles along the endocytic and secretory pathways (14,15). Inhibition of endocytic activity, as well as defective acidification in trans-Golgi and prelysosomal compartments, has been reported in CF cells (16). However, the exact role of CFTR in regulating organelle pH remains controversial, with hyper- rather than hypo-acidification suggested to occur in CF respiratory epithelial cells (17). Recent findings about the endosomal protein ClC-5, which belongs to the CLC family of Cl− channels/exchangers, have provided insights into the role of anion transporters in PT cells (18). In normal conditions, low molecular weight (LMW) proteins as well as albumin and transferrin in some species are ultrafiltered by the glomerular membrane but almost entirely reabsorbed by receptor-mediated endocytosis at the apical side of PT cells (19). The loss of CIC-5, which co-distributes with the vacuolar H+-AT-Pase (V-ATPase) in PT endosomes, causes a major defect in receptor-mediated endocytosis and an LMW proteinuria in Clcn5 knockout (KO) mice (20,21) as in patients with Dent’s disease, which is caused by inactivating mutations in CLCN5 (22). By analogy, other intracellular anionic transporters such as CFTR might play a role in the endocytic reabsorption of LMW proteins by the kidney (4,18).

In this study, we describe the segmental and subcellular distribution of CFTR in the kidney, at both the mRNA and protein levels. Taking advantage of Cfr−/− and CfrAF/AF mutant mice, we characterize the role of CFTR in PT apical endocytosis, in comparison with the Clcn5−/− mouse model. Finally, we evaluate the renal handling of LMW proteins in cohorts of patients who have CF and harbor the ΔF508 mutation and patients with chronic lung inflammation as a result of asthma, each compared with age- and gender-matched control subjects.

Materials and Methods
CF Mouse Models
Experiments were conducted on 12-wk-old, gender-matched Cfr+/+ and Cfr−/− mice (129/C57BL/6 background), generated by targeted deletion of exon 10 of Cfr (23), and gender-matched CfrΔF/ΔF and mutated CfrAF/AF mice (FVB background), generated by double homologous recombination (24). All mice had free access to appropriate standard diet (Carfil Quality, Oud-Turnhout, Belgium). Tap water of mice with CF was enriched with Kleanprep solution (Helsinn Birex, Merelbeke, Belgium), treated with DNase I (Invitrogen), and reversed-transcribed into cDNA using SuperScript II Rnase H (Invitrogen). Specific mouse primers were designed using Beacon Designer 2.0 (Premier Biosoft International, Palo Alto, CA; see Supplementary Table 1). Real-time reverse transcriptase–PCR (RT-PCR) analyses were performed in duplicate with 200 nM of both sense and antisense primers in a final volume of 25 μl of iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, Nazareth, Belgium). The PCR mixture contained 10 nM fluorescein for initial well-to-well fluorescence normalization. PCR conditions were settled as incubation at 94°C for 3 min followed by 40 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 61°C, and 1 min at 72°C. The melting temperature of PCR product was checked at the end of each PCR by recording SYBR green fluorescence increase upon slowly renaturing DNA. For each assay, standard curves were prepared by serial four-fold dilutions of mouse adult kidney cDNA, and primer efficiencies were calculated [efficiency = (10−1/Δcycle) − 1] (Supplementary Table 1). CFTR mRNA expression was investigated in four adult male lungs and kidneys, after normalization to HPRT1: Ratio = 2ΔΔCt (Lung − Kidney) CFTR/2ΔΔCt (Lung − Kidney)HPRT1. CFTR mRNA expression was quantified further in S1 versus S3 PT samples: Ratio = 2ΔCt (GAPDH − CFTR). Real-time PCR results were confirmed with two sets of primers for CFTR and CIC-5 and using two reporter genes, HPRT1 and GAPDH.

Antibodies
The following antibodies were used: Affinity-purified rabbit polyclonal antibodies (MD1314) against the C-terminus of rodent CFTR (27) (Dr. C.R. Marino, VA Medical Center, University of Tennessee, Memphis, TN), the N-terminus of human CIC-5 (21), aquaporin-1 (AQP1; Chemicon, Temecula, CA), cubilin (Dr. P. Verroust, INSERM, Paris, France), Rab5a (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), villin (Dr. D. Louvard and S. Robine, Institut Curie, Paris, France), and transferrin (Dako, Glostrup, Denmark); goat polyclonal antibodies against cathepsin D (Santa Cruz Biotechnology); sheep polyclonal antibodies against megalin (Dr. P. Verroust); mouse monoclonal antibodies (E11) against the E1 subunit of V-ATPase (Dr. S. Gluck, University of California, San Francisco, CA) and β-actin (Sigma, St Louis, MO).

Western Blotting and Deglycosylation Studies
Membrane extracts were prepared as described previously (28). Kidney samples were homogenized in ice-cold sucrose buffer that contained Complete protease inhibitors (Roche, Vilvoorde, Belgium) and centrifuged at 1000 × g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was
centrifuged at 100,000 \times g for 120 min at 4°C. The resulting pellet ("membrane" fraction) was suspended in ice-cold homogenization buffer and stored at −80°C. Protein concentrations were determined with the bicinchoninic acid protein assay using BSA as standard. Deglycosylation studies using N-glycosidase F and endoglycosidase H (Roche) were performed following the manufacturer's recommendations. Equal loading was verified by reprobing against β-actin. All immunoblots were performed at least in duplicate.

**Immunostaining**

Kidney samples were fixed in 4% formaldehyde (Boehringer Ingelheim, Heidelberg, Germany) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), before embedding in paraffin as described (28). Six-micrometer sections first were incubated in 0.01 M citrate buffer (pH 5.8) for 75 min in a water bath heated at 97°C before cooling and rinsing. After endogenous peroxidase was blocked for 30 min with 0.3% hydrogen peroxide, sections were incubated with 10% normal serum, then with the primary antibodies diluted in PBS that contained 2% BSA. After washing, sections were incubated successively with biotinylated secondary anti-IgG antibodies, avidin-biotin peroxidase, and aminoethylcarbazole (Vector Laboratories, Brussels, Belgium). For immunohistofluorescence, freshly collected kidneys were immersed in Tissue-Tek OCT compound (Sakura Finetek, Zoeterwoude, The Netherlands) and frozen at −80°C. Tissue sections (5 μm thick) were dried overnight at 37°C, fixed with ice-cold formaldehyde 4% for 10 min, washed with PBS, and processes for immunostaining. Secondary antibodies were goat anti-rabbit and donkey anti-sheep coupled to Alexa 488 (Molecular Probes, Merelbeke, Belgium). Sections were viewed under a Leica DMR coupled to a Leica DC300 digital camera (Leica, Heerbrugg, Switzerland).

**Analytical Subcellular Fractionation**

Kidneys were homogenized in 0.25 M sucrose and 3 mM imidazole buffer (pH 7.4) that contained Complete (Roche), in a Potter-Elvehjem tissue homogenizer (Thomas Scientific, Swedesboro, NJ) (29). A low-speed "nuclear" fraction was pelleted at 700 \(g\) for 10 min and extracted twice by resuspension/sedimentation; pooled postnuclear supernatants were sedimented further at 100,000 \(g\) for 60 min in a 50Ti fixed-angle rotor (Beckman, Palo Alto, CA). This high-speed pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of homogenization buffer, mixed with 7 ml of 16% (vol/vol) Percoll (average final density 1.048 g/ml), layered over a 250-μl Percoll cushion, and centrifuged at 60,000 \(g\) for 30 min in a 50Ti rotor into a self-generating gradient. Ten fractions (750 μl each) were collected from the bottom and numbered from 1 (light) to 10 (dense).

**Measurement of Endocytic Tracer Uptake**

Mice were anesthetized under anesketin (Eurovet, Brussels, Belgium) and rompun (Bayer, Brussels, Belgium) and injected intravenously with 620 ng/g body wt radiolabeled 125I-β2-microglobulin (Sigma). After 7 min, kidneys were exsanguinated in situ. One kidney was fixed for 6 h at 4°C in 4% formaldehyde for further investigations, such as immunostaining and autoradiography. The contralateral kidney and the liver were homogenized and analyzed biochemically as previously reported (25).

**Urine and Plasma Analyses**

Mice were kept in metabolic cages for 24 h with ad libitum access to food and drinking water. Urine was collected on ice-cold Complete (Roche). Blood was obtained by aorta puncture at the time of killing. Plasma and urine levels of electrolytes, urea, and creatinine were measured by standard methods (Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, NY), whereas CC16 concentration, a 16-kD marker for PT dysfunction, was determined in duplicate by latex immunoassay (21). Acid-base parameters in mouse urine and blood were determined using ABL 77 series apparatus (Radiometer, Copenhagen, Denmark).

**Cohorts of Patients and Control Subjects**

Two cohorts of patients were sampled for urinalyses. The first cohort included 30 patients with CF (range 3 to 39 yr of age) with their age- and gender-matched healthy control subjects. The diagnosis of CF was based on clinical characteristics and a positive sweat testing (3). Genotyping identified the ΔF508 mutation in all patients (homozygous in 25 of 30; heterozygous with N1303K, G542X, or 3849 10 kb CFI in three of 30; second mutation not identified in two of 30). The second cohort included 25 patients with chronic active asthma (range 3 to 49 yr of age) and age- and gender-matched healthy control subjects. First-morning (CF cohort) or second-morning (asthma cohort) urine samples were analyzed for creatinine, albumin, CC16, β2-microglobulin, transferrin (30,31), and calcium. Both cohorts were sampled during their routine follow-up at the St.-Luc Academic Hospital (Brussels, Belgium). The protocol was approved by the Université catholique de Louvain Ethical Review Board. All patients and control subjects gave informed consent.

**Statistical Analyses**

Unless specified otherwise, data are means ± SEM. Non-normally distributed parameters were compared after log transformation. Univariate analysis was performed using Pearson cross-product correlations. A multiple stepwise linear regression model was performed to assess the significant determinants of the urine protein ratios (age, gender, disease state, and previous aminoside treatment). All analyses were performed using SPSS V11.5.1 software (Chicago, IL).

**Results**

**Expression and Distribution of CFTR mRNA and Protein in Mouse Kidney**

Real-time RT-PCR analyses showed that the level of CFTR mRNA in adult mouse kidney reached approximately 60% of that found in lung, considered as reference organ (Figure 1A). The segmental distribution of CFTR mRNA in mouse nephron was investigated using tubular fractions that were obtained by microdissection. These fractions were characterized for segment-specific markers, such as podocin (glomeruli), AQP1 (PT), CIC-Kb (TAL), and AQP2 (IMCD; Figure 1B). The tissue-non-specific alkaline phosphatase (tnAP) was approximately eight-fold enriched in samples from the convoluted (S1 to S2) part of the PT, allowing them to be distinguished from the straight descending (S3) PT segment (Figure 1C) (32). In these tubular fractions, CFTR mRNA was approximately three-fold more expressed in the straight S3 than in S1 to S2 PT fragments, in contrast with stable ClC-5 mRNA abundance (Figure 1C). Note that RT-PCR using three different sets of primers did not detect CFTR in glomeruli, TAL, and IMCD.

Immunoblotting demonstrated a distinct pattern for CFTR in mouse kidney and lung (Figure 1D). In lung samples, both the partially glycosylated precursor (B band at approximately 150 kD) and the fully glycosylated (C band at approximately 180 kD) CFTR were distinguished clearly. In the kidney, CFTR was detected as a single, approximately 160-kD band. Deglycosylation studies demonstrated that the core CFTR was detected at approximately 150 kD in both tissues, suggesting that the N-glycosylation pattern of CFTR may be tissue specific (Figure
Figure 1. Expression of cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) in mouse kidney: mRNA and protein studies. (A) Comparative expression levels of CFTR mRNA in mouse lung and kidney by quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase–PCR (RT-PCR). The abundance of CFTR mRNA in kidney represents approximately 60% of that in lung, considered as the reference organ. Results are presented as ratios (×10^3) to the reporter gene HPRT1 (n = 4 kidneys/lungs from four different mice). (B and C) Differential expression of CFTR in microdissected nephron segments. (B) Semiquantitative RT-PCR for segment-specific markers show that podocin is expressed in glomeruli, aquaporin-1 (AQP1) in proximal tubule (PT), ClC-Kb in thick ascending limbs (TAL), and AQP2 in inner medullary collecting ducts (IMCD). RT-PCR products (20 μl per lane) were size-fractionated on 1.5% agarose gel. (C) Real-time RT-PCR quantification demonstrates that the abundance of tissue-nonspecific alkaline phosphatase mRNA (tnAP) is approximately eight-fold greater in S1 than in S3 PT segments. ClC-5 mRNA is equivalent in S1 and S3 samples, whereas CFTR expression is approximately three-fold more abundant in S3 than in S1 segments (n = 4). (D) Representative immunoblotting for CFTR in lung and kidney from Cftr+/+ and Cftr−/− mice. Membrane extracts (30 μg/lane) were run on 5% PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose. The blot was probed with MD1314 anti-CFTR antibodies (1:500) and, after stripping, β-actin (1:10,000). In lung, both B (150 kD) and C bands (180 kD) are present, whereas, in kidney, CFTR is detected as a single large band at approximately 160 kD (asterisk at right). In both tissues, immunoreactive bands for CFTR are absent in Cftr−/− extracts. (E) Differential glycosylation of CFTR in mouse lung and kidney. Samples were incubated with (+) or without (−) N-glycosidase F for 90 min at 37°C. Treatment with N-glycosidase F induces a shift of CFTR bands to a lower molecular weight, indicating the presence of Asn-linked glycan chains in both lung and kidney samples, with CFTR core protein at approximately 150 kD. (F) Representative immunoblotting for ΔF508-CFTR in lung and kidney. In CftrΔF+/ΔF lung, the fully glycosylated protein (C band) strongly decreases, whereas the B band increases. In the CftrΔF+/ΔF kidney, there is a strong reduction in the CFTR immunodetection signal at 160 kD (*), requiring longer film exposure (60 min versus 1 min) for visualization.
renal function was normal in both function in mouse. Plasma and urine analyses revealed that the or altered processing (kidney, we investigated whether its disruption (CF Mouse Models
Evaluation and Characterization of PT Apical Endocytosis

Having established the segmental distribution of CFTR in the kidney, we investigated further by fractionation in Percoll gradients (Figure 3). These gradients resolved a low-density peak (fractions 2 through 5), including the early endosomal marker Rab5α; an intermediate density peak (fractions 7 through 9), including the brush border marker villin; and a bottom peak enriched in lysosomes (cathepsin D marker). The bulk of CFTR was detected in the endosomal fractions 3 through 4, where it co-localized with the vacuolar proton pump V-ATPase (E1 subunit) and ClC-5.

Altogether, these data support that, in mouse kidney, CFTR is particulary abundant in the S3 PT cells, with a subcellular distribution similar to CIC-5 and the V-ATPase in endosomes. Despite a weaker expression, the segmental location of the ΔF508-CFTR was preserved in mouse kidney.

Evaluation and Characterization of PT Apical Endocytosis in CF Mouse Models

Having established the segmental distribution of CFTR in the kidney, we investigated whether its disruption (Cfrr−/− mice) or altered processing (CfrrAF/AF mice) influenced renal and PT function in mouse. Plasma and urine analyses revealed that the renal function was normal in both Cfrr−/− and CfrrAV/AF mice (Table 1), with similar plasma bicarbonate and urine pH levels (data not shown). However, the significant increase in the urinary excretion of the LMW Clara cell protein (CC16, 16 kD) in Cfrr−/− mice versus controls, contrasting with similar plasma levels, suggested a deficient PT handling of LMW proteins in Cfrr−/− mice. To test that hypothesis, we injected CF and control mice intravenously with 125I-β2-microglobulin, a LMW protein that is filtered freely by the glomerulus and taken up by receptor-mediated endocytosis in PT cells (25). After 7 min, renal uptake of 125I-β2-microglobulin was decreased significantly (up to 50%) in Cfrr−/− mice versus their matched controls (Figure 4A). Liver uptake of 125I-β2-microglobulin, which was
Comparison with Clcn5 of 125I-
Cftr
through 4.

The renal phenotype of 5A), although no deficit was found at the mRNA level (data not

sented by comparison with the initial concentration as C/Ci

Figure 3. Subcellular distribution of CFTR in mouse kidney: Percoll gradient analyses. Percoll gradients of total mouse Cftr

kidney resolve a low-density peak (fractions 2 through 4), including the early endosomal maker Rab5a; an intermediate density peak (fractions 7 through 9), including the brush border component villin; and a bottom peak enriched in lysosomes (cathepsin D). Distributions after centrifugation are presented by comparison with the initial concentration as C/Ci (values >1 reflect organelle enrichment, and values <1 reflect organelle depletion). Typical densities are indicated by a broken line in the lower panel. CFTR co-distributes with CIC-5 and the vacuolar H⁺-ATPase (E1 subunit) in endosomal fractions 3 through 4.

used as internal control because CFTR is not expressed in hepatocytes, was similar in both groups (data not shown). The Cftr

AF/ΔF population showed an approximately 30% decrease of 125I-β₂-microglobulin uptake, the phenotype heterogeneity probably reflecting the variable, residual expression of ΔF508-
Cftr in kidney (Figure 4B). Densitometry analyses estimated a 10-fold decrease (ranging from 5 to 20% of Cftr⁺/‐ level) of CFTR abundance in CftrAF/ΔF kidneys in comparison with controls. The renal phenotype of Cftr⁻/‐ mice was mild in comparison with Clcn5⁻/‐ mice, characterized by a major defect (approximately 85%) in 125I-β₂-microglobulin renal uptake (Figure 4A).

To assess the role of CFTR in the segmental reabsorption of LMW proteins in the PT, we correlated the distribution of CFTR (immunostaining) and 125I-β₂-microglobulin (autoradiography) on adjacent serial sections (Figure 4C). These studies showed that 125I-β₂-microglobulin uptake occurred mostly in S1 to S2 PT segments that expressed megalin and CIC-5, whereas only a residual reabsorption was observed in the S3 PT segments with high CFTR immunoreactivity (Figure 4C, arrowheads). We next evaluated the total content of endocytic actors (megalin, cubilin, and CIC-5) in CF versus control kidneys (Figure 5). No significant changes were observed in the kidneys from CftrAF/ΔF mice (data not shown). In contrast, a specific decrease of cubilin expression was observed in Cftr⁻/‐ kidneys (Figure 5A), although no deficit was found at the mRNA level (data not shown). Immunofluorescence staining showed that the intensity of cubilin staining in Cftr⁻/‐ PT cells was markedly weaker at the corticomedullary junction (S3 PT segment) than in the outer cortex, whereas no differences were observed in Cftr⁺/+ kidneys (Figure 5B). The differential immunoreactive pattern of cubilin in the Cftr⁻/‐ S3 PT cells was specific, because no similar modifications were observed for megalin (Figure 5B). Such cubilin defect was reflected further by the urinary loss of its ligand transferrin (76 kD) in the Cftr⁻/‐ mice (Figure 5C). To investigate further the biosynthesis and processing of cubilin, we performed deglycosylation assays in Cftr⁻/‐ versus Cftr⁺/+ kidney samples, showing that cubilin correctly matured into its endoglycosidase H-resistant, N-glycosidase F-sensitive form in both groups (Figure 6A). In contrast, the abundance of cubilin in Cftr⁻/‐ mouse urine was increased significantly in comparison with controls, with no change of megalin urinary excretion levels (Figure 6B).

These data suggest that in Cftr⁻/‐ mice, the complete loss of CFTR induces a significant decrease in the membrane stability and increased urinary excretion of cubilin, leading to a defective apical receptor-mediated endocytosis in PT cells, with urinary loss of LMW ligands (β₂-microglobulin, CC16, and transferrin). This phenotype is observed less consistently in CftrAF/ΔF mice, which may be explained by a variable residual expression and/or functionality of the mutated ΔF508-CFTR in the CftrAF/ΔF kidneys (24,33).

Evaluation of PT Endocytosis in Patients with CF or
Chronic Lung Inflammation

To substantiate the renal phenotype that was found in CF mouse models, we analyzed the urinary excretion of LMW proteins in a first series of stable patients with CF versus age- and gender-matched control subjects (n = 30 pairs). A second series of patients with chronic active asthma and their appropriate control subjects (n = 25 pairs) were investigated to rule out the potential interference of chronic lung inflammation with renal PT function. Figure 7 shows that, when normalized to the appropriate controls, there was a major, 30-fold increase in the transferrinuria, as well as a significant, two-fold increase in the urinary excretion of albumin, CC16, and β₂-microglobulin in patients with CF, whereas there were no significant changes in patients with asthma (Supplementary Table 2). No changes in the urinary concentration of calcium were observed. A multivariate model using stepwise regression showed that the four urinary protein ratios were associated significantly with CF, independent of gender, age, and previous treatment with aminosides, whereas no significant association existed with asthma. These data support that the PT dysfunction that was observed in the CF cohort likely is caused by CFTR dysfunction itself rather than a chronic state of lung inflammation.

Discussion

The spectrum of CF, which previously was considered as a respiratory and digestive disease associated with a rapidly fatal outcome, has broadened considerably in the past decade. The disease includes many milder cases, which are associated with a longer survival and a potential for developing complications in multiple organs (2,3). On the basis of recent insights into the
Table 1. Clinical and biological parameters in control and cystic fibrosis mouse models$^a$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>Weight (g)</th>
<th>Plasma</th>
<th>Urine</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creatinine</td>
<td>Urea (mg/dl)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cfr$^+$/+ (n = 5)</td>
<td>28 ± 5</td>
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<td>19.1 ± 1.8</td>
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<td>Cfr$^-$/- (n = 5)</td>
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<td>17.8 ± 1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cfr$^N$/N (n = 6)</td>
<td>25 ± 1</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.1</td>
<td>21.1 ± 0.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cfr$^{ΔF/ΔF}$ (n = 6)</td>
<td>24 ± 1</td>
<td>0.6 ± 0.1</td>
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$^a$Data are means ± SEM. Values were compared by nonparametric Mann-Whitney test. CC16, Clara cell 16-kD protein.

Figure 4. Investigation of PT apical endocytosis in CF and control kidneys. (A) Quantification of $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin uptake in Cfr$^-$/- and in Cfr$^{ΔF/ΔF}$ versus control kidneys. Seven minutes after intravenous injection, radioactivity was measured from bleached kidneys. Uptake of $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin in the Cfr$^-$/- kidneys is decreased significantly in comparison with age- and gender-matched kidneys ($^*P < 0.05$); the decrease is less consistent in the ΔF508 population, characterized by a large phenotypic heterogeneity. The severe reduction of $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin uptake in Clcn5$^-$/- kidneys ($^{***}P < 0.001$) is indicated for comparison. The latter values were computed from reference (22). (B) Representative immunoblotting for ΔF508-CFTR in Cfr$^{ΔF/ΔF}$ kidneys. Membrane extracts from four and five individual Cfr$^N$/N and Cfr$^{ΔF/ΔF}$ kidneys (40 μg/lane), respectively, were run on 5% PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose. The blots were probed with MD1314 anti-CFTR antibodies (1:500) and β-actin (1:10,000), respectively. Densitometry showed that residual expression of ΔF508-CFTR averages 10-fold, with high individual variability between Cfr$^{ΔF/ΔF}$ kidney samples. (C) Comparative localization of CFTR and endocytosed $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin (7 min) in mouse kidney. CFTR immunodetection and autoradiography were performed on serial kidney sections. CFTR is expressed preferentially in the inner cortex, whereas endocytosed $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin is detected in both inner and outer cortices. The CFTR-positive tubules that are positive for $^{125}$I-$\beta_2$-microglobulin (insets, arrowhead) provide a molecular explanation for the defect in receptor-mediated endocytosis. Bars = 500 μm; 100 μm (inset).

role of chloride transporters in the kidney (4,18), we analyzed the consequences of a functional loss of CFTR and showed it to be associated with an impaired cubilin-mediated endocytosis in renal PT cells, leading to LMW proteinuria in both mouse and human. Both CFTR and the renal chloride/proton exchanger CIC-5 preferentially associate with the endosomal marker
Rab5a and the V-ATPase in PT cells. The striking contrast between the severe PT dysfunction that is associated with ClC-5 loss and the mild renal phenotype of CF probably reflects the distribution of these transporters in specialized segments of the PT.

Although the role of CFTR in exocrine epithelia, including trachea and small intestine, has been studied extensively (2,3), the issues of CFTR distribution, processing, and function in the kidney remain debated (4–9). In rat kidney, immunostaining for CFTR was shown at the apical surface of both proximal and distal tubules but was not detected in the outer medullary CD (5). In the human kidney, CFTR protein expression was found in the PT, thin limbs of Henle’s loop, distal tubules, and collecting ducts (5–7). Our studies in mouse kidney (using antibodies of strict specificity) show that CFTR is expressed in the apical area of PT cells, with a maximal intensity in the S3 part of the PT. Furthermore, the electrophoretic mobility of N-glycosylated CFTR is slightly different in kidney versus lung, although CFTR core protein is detected at approximately 150 kD in both tissues. The established relationship between CFTR glycosylation and its stability/function at the plasma membrane (34) suggests that the distinct CFTR maturation in the kidney may reflect distinct trafficking/targeting and possibly different channel activity within tubular cells (35).

In parallel to its role in regulating chloride permeability across the apical membrane, CFTR also may facilitate the acidification of intracellular organelles along the endocytic pathway (15). Accordingly, an acidification defect was found in trans-Golgi and prelysosomal compartments in immortalized respiratory epithelial cells and nasal polyps from patients with CF (16). More recently, however, enhanced rather than decreased acidification was reported in endosomes of CF respiratory epithelial cells (17). Our fractionation data show that, in mouse kidney, CFTR co-distributes with ClC-5 and the V-ATPase in PT cells.
endosomes, pointing to a possible involvement in apical endocytosis. The endocytic uptake of LMW proteins is mediated by the multiligand receptors megalin and cubilin, which are particularly expressed at the apical surface of cells that line the S1 to S2 segments of the PT (19). Recently, the vesicular chloride/proton exchanger ClC-5 has been involved clearly in renal endocytosis (20–22). Mutations of the CLCN5 gene that encodes ClC-5 cause Dent’s disease, a tubulopathy that essentially is characterized by a generalized dysfunction of the PT associated with LMW proteinuria, hypercalciuria, and nephrolithiasis (22). Studies in Clcn5−/− mice demonstrated that the loss of CIC-5 induces a defect in intracellular trafficking and membrane recycling in PT cells (20,21,25), confirming the crucial role of vesicular chloride transporters along the endocytic pathway. Likewise, the moderate but significant alteration of LMW protein handling that was observed in Cftr−/− mice and patients with CF suggests that CFTR may play a role in PT endocytosis.

In contrast to megalin, which is a member of the LDL recep-

**Figure 6.** Processing of cubilin in Cftr−/− versus Cftr+/+ kidneys. (A) Glycosylation status of cubilin in Cftr−/− versus Cftr+/+ kidneys. Samples were incubated with (+) or without (−) N-glycosidase F for 90 min at 37°C or in endoglycosidase H (Endo H) overnight at 37°C. Treatment with N-glycosidase F induces a shift of cubilin immunoreactive band to a lower molecular weight, whereas no shift is observed after incubation with Endo H. The pattern is similar in both genotypes. (B) Excretion of cubilin in Cftr−/− versus Cftr+/+ mouse urine. Urine samples were loaded on 5% PAGE, blotted to nitrocellulose, and incubated with antibody anti-cubilin (1:10,000). Loading volume was normalized to urine creatinine concentration. Cubilin abundance is increased significantly in the urine of Cftr−/− mice, whereas megalin is unchanged.

**Figure 7.** Low molecular weight proteinuria and calciuria in patients with CF or chronic lung inflammation. The urinary protein ratios for albumin, Clara cell protein (CC16), β2-microglobulin (β2m), and transferrin, as well as the calciuria, were investigated in a first series of patients with CF and age- and gender-matched control subjects (n = 30 pairs) and a second series of patients with active asthma (chronic lung inflammation) and their age- and gender-matched control subjects (n = 25 pairs). The geometric mean (±SEM) normalized to the appropriate control (taken as 100%) is given for each parameter. *P < 0.05.
tor family, cubilin is a multiligand receptor with little structural homology to known endocytic receptors and is characterized by the absence of transmembrane domain (36). Limited information is available about the regulators of cubilin targeting and processing in the PT. However, it was demonstrated recently that the apical targeting of cubilin depends on the correct glycosylation of its extracellular domains, as well as on reciprocal interactions with the transmembrane protein amnionless (37). Our data support that CFTR is more abundant in the S3 segment of the PT and present in endosomes. Its functional loss is associated with a selective decrease of cubilin expression in the S3 segment (Figure 5), reflected by the increased urinary excretion of cubilin ligands. Further investigations revealed that the lack of CFTR is not associated with changes in the biosynthesis of cubilin, as evidenced by similar mRNA levels (real-time PCR), similar glycosylation pattern (Figure 6), and similar bimodal distribution in subcellular fractions (data not shown). However, there was a significant increase in the urinary loss of cubilin in the Cfr−/− mice, contrasting with a lack of change for urinary megalin (Figure 6). Taken together, these data suggest that the lack of CFTR in the S3 segment is reflected by an instability of cubilin in the apical membrane, leading to its accelerated shedding in the urine. Although the lack of suitable reagents prevented investigation of the specific role of amnionless in the process, it is tempting to hypothesize that such cubilin instability could be due to the improper processing or trafficking of one of its partners in relation with the lack of CFTR in that nephron segment (15,17). Of note, a decrease in cubilin has been observed in the small intestine of the CFTR null (Cfrtm1LINC) mouse, which may explain a reduced vitamin B12 absorption in patients with CF (38). Moreover, preliminary data showing a lower renal uptake of aminoglycosides in CF mice in comparison with controls (F.J. et al., unpublished observations) suggest that the defect in receptor-mediated endocytosis reported here also may explain why the renal clearance of aminosides is enhanced in patients with CF (13,39).

The patients with CF examined here, all harboring at least one ΔF508 mutation, showed a mild LMW proteinuria versus healthy control subjects, whereas no significant changes were observed in patients with chronic lung inflammation that was caused by active asthma. Of particular interest is the major, 30-fold increase in transferrinuria in the patients with CF, reflecting the cubilin defect and transferrinuria evidenced in the Cfr−/− mice. These findings may be clinically relevant, because LMW proteinuria can trigger tubulointerstitial injury (19,36). Moreover, the increased loss of transferrin in the urine could participate in the iron deficiency and lower circulating transferrin levels that are common in patients with CF (40,41). The endocytic defect was less consistent in the Cfr+/−/ΔF mice, which showed either unchanged or increased urinary excretion of LMW proteins. The mutant ΔF508-CFTR shows defective glycosylation and traffic (2,3). However, ΔF508-CFTR can function as a cAMP-regulated chloride channel, both in the plasma membrane and intracellularly (27). Previous studies demonstrated a residual chloride permeability in intestine and gall-bladder of the Cfr+/−/ΔF mice used here (24), and the electrolyte and water handling is preserved in the PT of Cfr+/−/ΔF mice (42). We documented an approximately two-fold reduction in ΔF508-CFTR mRNA abundance in Cfr+/−/ΔF versus Cfr+/−/ΔF kidneys (data not shown) and a large individual variability (ranging from 5 to 20% of the control level) in the residual expression of ΔF508-CFTR protein. The expression of ΔF508-CFTR in human is strikingly tissue specific, suggesting that the variable severity of CF in various organs reflects heterogeneity of residual expression (33,43). Taken together, these data suggest that, in mouse kidney, the ΔF508-CFTR is processed variably into its mature form, reaching the plasma membrane and ensuring correct function in some Cfr+/−/ΔF mice.

Several explanations may account for the milder renal phenotype that is observed in Cfr−/− mice and patients with CF in comparison with Clcn5 KO mice and patients with Dent’s disease (20–22). First, it could reflect the more distal distribution of CFTR as compared with CIC-5 along the PT. Indeed, although CIC-5 is distributed evenly in the S1 to S3 parts of the PT, CFTR seems to be most abundant in the S3 segment of the PT, which displays lower endocytic activity (44). Second, CFTR functions as a cAMP-regulated, ATP-dependent chloride channel, whereas the flux of chloride through CIC-5 depends constitutively on transmembrane Cl− and H+ concentration gradient, together with the membrane voltage (18). The number of active CFTR channels also is known to be regulated by cAMP-dependent vesicle trafficking, as well as by correct glycosylation (2,35). Third, the discrete nature of renal manifestations in CF might be due to tissue-specific protective mechanisms, such as the occurrence of functional CFTR splice variants (7,8), or alternative pathways for chloride (4). For instance, a Ca2+-activated Cl− channel is upregulated in the nasal mucosa of Cfrtm1LINC mice (45). Although CIC-5 might represent a CFTR surrogate, a comparative analysis that was performed on Cfr−/− versus Cfr+/+ kidneys did not show any changes in CIC-5 expression (Figure 5).

Conclusion

The functional loss of CFTR is associated with a moderate but significant defect in LMW protein handling in mouse and human, supporting a role of CFTR in the cubilin-mediated endocytic pathway in renal PT cells. These data give new insights into the tissue-specific processing of wild-type and mutant CFTR and the pathophysiology of chloride transporters in the kidney. The urinary loss of LMW proteins, including transferrin, should be integrated in the pathophysiology of multisystemic complications that increasingly are observed in patients with CF.

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Disclosures
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