

ClC-K chloride channels: emerging pathophysiology of Bartter syndrome type 3

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2	CIC-K chloride channels: Emerging pathophysiology of Bartter syndrome type 3
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Abstract

The mutations in *CLCNKB* gene encoding the CIC-Kb chloride channel are responsible for Bartter syndrome type 3, one of the 4 variants of Bartter syndrome in the genetically-based nomenclature. All forms of Bartter syndrome are characterized by hypokalaemia, metabolic alkalosis and secondary hyperaldosteronism but Bartter syndrome type 3 has the most heterogeneous presentation, extending from severe to very mild. A relatively large number of *CLCNKB* mutations have been reported, including gene deletions and nonsense or missense mutations. However, only 20 *CLCNKB* mutations have been functionally analyzed, due to technical difficulties regarding CIC-Kb functional expression in heterologous systems. This review provides an overview of recent progress in the functional consequences of *CLCNKB* mutations on CIC-Kb chloride channel activity. It has been observed that: 1) all CIC-Kb mutants have an impaired expression at the membrane; and 2) a minority of the mutants combines reduced membrane expression with altered pH-dependent channel gating. Although further investigation is needed to fully characterize disease pathogenesis, Bartter syndrome type 3 probably belongs to the large family of conformational diseases, in which the mutations destabilize channel structure, inducing CIC-Kb retention in the endoplasmic reticulum and accelerated channel degradation.

Keywords: Bartter syndrome, CLC family of chloride transporters and channels, chloride channel.

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Bartter syndrome

Bartter syndrome is an autosomal recessive salt wasting tubulopathy, characterized by hypokalaemia, metabolic alkalosis and secondary hyperaldosteronism with normal-to-low blood pressure. Clinically, two variants are distinguished: antenatal Bartter syndrome (aBS) and classic Bartter syndrome (cBS)(8, 39, 48, 80, 81, 97). The aBS is a severe form leading to polyhydramnios due to polyuria in utero, and premature birth. It is often complicated by dehydration episodes in the neonatal period and growth retardation. Nearly all patients present with hypercalciuria and medullary nephrocalcinosis. An elevated PGE2 production contributes to aggravate the course of the disease, a fact which prompted the alternate denomination of hyperprostaglandin E syndrome (81). The aBS derives from mutations of the genes encoding the Na⁺-K⁺-2Cl⁻ cotransporter and the Kir1.1 K⁺ channel (ROMK), SLC12A1 and KCNJ1, respectively (84-86). In the genetically-based nomenclature they correspond to Bartter syndrome type 1 (OMIM #601678) and 2 (OMIM #241200). The cBS is usually diagnosed in early childhood. Failure to thrive is usually accompanied by low chloremia and severe hypokalemic alkalosis (8, 39, 81), polyuria and hypercalciuria being less frequent. The cBS is due to mutations of the CLCNKB gene encoding CIC-Kb Cl channel (83). This corresponds to Bartter syndrome type 3 in the genetically-based nomenclature (OMIM #607364). There is a large heterogeneity in Bartter syndrome type 3 presentation, extending from aBS to Gitelman syndrome (8, 38, 48). Gitelman syndrome is classically a defect in distal convoluted tubule (DCT) transport due to mutations in the SLC12A3 encoding the Na⁺-Cl⁻ cotransporter (37, 97), but some patients carrying CLCNKB mutations have quite a similar phenotype, exhibiting hypomagnesemia, hypo- or normocalciuria, insensitivity to thiazide administration and absence of polyuria (8, 38).

The population of chloride channels in the renal tubule includes two additional players: CIC-Ka, a Cl⁻ channel α -subunit of the same family as CIC-Kb, which is encoded by the *CLCNKA* gene, and the regulatory β -subunit Barttin encoded by the *BSND* gene. A fourth variant of the Bartter syndrome, the aBS with sensorineural hearing loss (SNHL) is caused either by *BSND* mutations [OMIM

#602522 (7)(see (21) for review)], or by simultaneous mutations in the *CLCNKB* and *CLCNKA* genes [OMIM#613090, (69, 77)].

CIC-K chloride channels

CIC-Ka and CIC-Kb (CIC-K1 and CIC-K2 in rat and mouse) chloride channels were cloned in the 90s by the groups of Uchida and Jentsch (44, 90, 95). They comprise 687 amino acids and are probably present as homodimers at the plasma membrane. Except for the rat CIC-K1 (95), functional expression of the CIC-Ks was unsuccessful until the cloning of Barttin in 2001(7) when functional studies established that Barttin was a CIC-K regulatory subunit (19, 100). The electrophysiological properties of the CIC-Ks remain imperfectly known. CIC-Ka and rat and mouse CIC-K1 have been studied at the single-channel level and show conductances of 25 to 45 pS (3, 24, 43, 74) while it has not been possible until now to measure the unit conductance of CIC-Kb / CIC-K2. The only regulatory properties identified so far are the inhibition at acid extracellular pH and the activation at high extracellular calcium (19, 30, 31, 100). In addition, a block at very basic 9-11 pH has also been reported (32). The physiological impact of these regulations remains uncertain. On the one hand, CIC-Ka and CIC-Kb are relatively insensitive to calcium between 0.5 and 2 mM (3, 33, 43), which makes it unlikely that calcium variations in the physiological range affect channel activity. On the other hand, pH changes such as those experienced during acidosis or alkalosis might affect CIC-Kb (pKa=7.9, (3)) and CIC-Ka (pKa = 7.3, (33)).

At the protein level, the degree of identity between the two isoforms is slightly higher within (about 80-90%) than across (human *vs.* rodent) species (44, 89, 94). This makes it impossible to determine homologs between species on the basis of sequence comparison. However, the diverse available data have led to the consensus that rodent CIC-K1 and human CIC-Ka, on the one hand, and rodent CIC-K2 and human CIC-Kb, on the other hand, are functional orthologs (89, 94).

Collectively, the two CIC-K proteins are present all along the distal nephron, from the thin ascending limb to the collecting duct (in the intercalated cells), but not in the proximal tubule (19). This is confirmed by Barttin antibody staining the same segments of the renal tubule (19).

expression is restricted to the basolateral membrane (19, 89) except for the thin ascending limb (tAL) where CIC-K is present on both apical and basolateral membranes (96). The differential distribution of the two channels along the renal tubule has been difficult to ascertain in the absence of isoform-specific antibodies. However, immunocytochemistry performed on the kidneys of CIC-K1 ^{-/-} mice demonstrated that CIC-K1 was the only isoform present in the tAL (45) and that CIC-K2 was present in the thick ascending limb (TAL), DCT and the intercalated cells of cortical collecting duct (CCD) (45). Patch-clamp experiments have also given some insight into the localization of the two channels: a recent study has demonstrated the correspondence between 45-pS chloride channel in the mouse TAL (70) and recombinant mouse CIC-K1 (50). Thus, a second 10-pS channel, activated by external calcium and at alkaline pH, which is expressed in the DCT and intercalated cells of the CNT and CCD, probably represents CIC-K2 (56, 66, 67, 70, 91). Together with results obtained with RT-PCR on rat renal segments (19, 44-46, 49, 96, 100), a consensus pattern emerges, which places CIC-K1 in the tAL and TAL, and CIC-K2 in the TAL, DCT and the intercalated cells of the CNT and CD (Fig. 1a).

A major insight in CIC-Ka function was provided by Uchida and associates (1, 54, 61) who analyzed the consequences of CLCNK1 deletion in the mouse. Matsumura et al (61) observed no hypokalaemic alkalosis in $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ mice, which would have been suggestive of Bartter syndrome, but polyuria (x5 compared to wild type), associated with low urine osmolality (3-fold lower than WT), was dramatic. Furthermore, $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ mice failed to concentrate urine after 24-h water deprivation or intraperitoneal injection of dDAVP (~2500 mOsm/kg H₂O in WTmice vs. ~850 mOsm/kg H₂O in $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ mice) (61). A follow-up study showed that the fractional excretion of sodium, chloride and urea, as well as the total osmolar clearance, were not altered in $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ mice (1). Thus, polyuria is due to water diuresis, not osmotic diuresis. In addition, the urea and NaCl contents in the interstitium of the inner medulla were decreased by a factor 2 in $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ as compared to $Clcnk1^{-f-}$ mice (1). Furthermore, no Cl^- conductance was detected in microperfused tALs of $ClC-K1^{-f-}$ mice (54, 61). Thus, the loss-of-function of ClC-K1 causes nephrogenic diabetes insipidus by impairing the countercurrent system in the inner medulla (1). As pointed out by Matsumura et al (61), it is doubtful

that CLCNKA deletion would cause a similar pathology in humans, who have a less developed inner medulla.

The results of Uchida's group confirm that CIC-K1 is mostly present in the thin ascending limb. Thus, although no Clcnk2^{-/-} mouse line is yet available, we may speculate that ClC-K2 has a predominant role in the other parts of the mouse renal tubule. Ion transport models for the TAL and DCT (Fig 1b, c) involve two distinct Na⁺-Cl⁻ cotransporters, NKCC2 and NCC, respectively, at the apical membrane. The exit of chloride on the basolateral side is dependent on Cl channels (18, 39, 79). Basolateral Cl channels are also important for ion transport in the intercalated cells (18, 79, 88) (Fig1d). Classically, the β intercalated cells participate in bicarbonate secretion but Eladari and Chambrey (11, 18, 52) recently discovered a novel, neutral pathway for NaCl absorption in these cells (Fig 1d), which includes a Cl conductance at the basolateral side (18, 79, 88). The α intercalated cells (Fig 1d) participate in acid-base balance by secreting protons via the V-type H⁺ ATPase at the apical membrane and the AE1 HCO₃ /Cl exchanger at the basolateral membrane. Basolateral Cl channels optimize H⁺ secretion by recycling Cl⁻, thus facilitating the functioning of the AE1 exchanger (88). In summary, CIC-K2 is expected to play a key role in Cl absorption in the DCT, CNT/CCD and to a lower extent in the TAL, where CIC-K1 is present (50, 70). There has been yet no patch-clamp study of CIC-K chloride channels in the α intercalated cells, letting open the possibility that the two channels cooperate at this site.

Structure of the CIC-K chloride channels

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Renal chloride channels belong to the channel subgroup of the CIC family of chloride channels and transporters, which also includes CIC-1 and CIC-2 (21, 42, 93). The structure of this protein family was revealed in 2002 with the crystallization of two bacterial Cl $^{-}$ /H $^{+}$ exchangers from *S. typhimurium* and the *E. coli (16)*. Each monomer is defined by 18 α -helices (from A to R) with an antiparallel structure, meaning that two structurally related halves (α -helices A to I and J to R, respectively) span the membrane with an opposite orientation (16). The CIC proteins are functional dimers constituted by two independent permeation pathways called protopores (see Fig. 2). The protopore, localized

between the two structurally related halves of the CIC monomer, is formed by an anion-selective filter between two aqueous vestibules comprising three CI⁻-binding sites. The binding sites are located close to the extracellular side (S_{ext}), in the central region of the protein (S_{cen}) and close to the intracellular side (S_{in}) (17). These are formed by the N-termini of α -helices D and F in the first half of the monomer and the N-termini of α -helices N and R in the second half of the monomer. In CIC-0, CIC-1 and CIC-2 but not CIC-K, the access to each protopore is regulated *via* one opening / closing mechanism called *fast*, or "glutamate" gate. The structural determinant of this gating consists of an external glutamate (E148 in *E. coli*, ec-CIC), the protonation/deprotonation of which is directly implicated in gating (17, 64). In addition, the two protopores can be opened / closed simultaneously by the so called *common*, or *slow* gate (12, 72). This second mechanism is particularly important for the renal CIC-Ks that lack the characteristic "glutamate" responsible for protopore gating in the others CIC proteins (17).

Eukaryotic CIC proteins, including CIC-Ks, have a large cytoplasmic C-terminus domain constituted by a linker sequence connecting α -helix R to two cystathione- β -syntase domains (CBSs) [see Fig. 2]. The crystal structure of human CBS of CIC-5 (63) and CIC-Ka (58) reveals a dimeric interaction between two CIC protein C-terminal domains (59), likely to be conserved among the eukaryotic CIC (62). Several studies reported a regulatory role of binding of adenine nucleotides to CBS domains in CIC-1, CIC-2 and CIC-5 (65, 92, 105). This part of the protein is known to be involved in the regulation of the common gating (9, 20). A similar role has yet to be demonstrated for the CIC-Ks.

As noted above, the CIC-K currents recorded in over-expression systems are inhibited at acid pH and activated by an increase of $[Ca^{2+}]_{ext}$ (19, 30, 31, 100). A detailed screening of acidic amino-acid residues led to the identification of two critical amino-acids (E261 and D278, localized in the extracellular loop between α -helices I and J), which form the putative extracellular Ca^{2+} -binding site (31). A histidine residue on position 497 at the beginning of α -helix Q is responsible for the H⁺-induced block (30) [Fig. 2].

CLCNKB mutations in Bartter syndrome

Since the pioneering work of Simon et al. identifying mutations in the *CICNKB* gene as a cause of Bartter syndrome type 3 (83), a number of publications have reported pathogenic mutations (3, 8, 26, 43, 48, 51, 76, 83, 102, 103). As a whole, according to the Human Gene Mutation Database (free access HGMD database, Biobase International, www.hgmd.cf.ac.uk), more than 54 mutations have been described, including complex rearrangements, large and small deletions, small insertions, nonsense or missense mutations and splice site mutations. One characteristic feature of the disease is the frequent occurrence of total *CLCNKB* gene deletion (8, 29, 38, 48, 83).

The 50 point mutations (missense and nonsense) illustrated in Fig. 1 and summarized in Table 1 are distributed all along the protein with no clear hotspots. Several mutations are located close to several parts of the selectivity filter, in C-D linker and α -helix D (3 mutations), E-F linker and α -helix F (2mutations) and α -helix N (8 mutations), respectively. By contrast, no mutations were reported in the vicinity of H⁺ and Ca²⁺ binding sites. Altogether, 60% mutations are located on α -helices, 20% in helix linkers and 20% in the cytoplasmic part of the protein. About 16 homozygous mutations have been found in patients (A77P, L81P, T115P, P124L, G164C, V170M, A204T, G246R, S297R, R351W, H357Q, G424E, R438H, K560M, R595X, W610X). A few mutations such as A204T (29, 76, 83), P124L (3, 5, 43, 48, 83), R438H (3, 5, 43, 48, 83) and W610X (14, 51, 68) have been reported independently by several authors. In particular, A204T, a founder mutation in Spain, is the prevalent mutation in this country (28). W610X is the most common mutations in Korea (51).

Functional consequences of CLCNKB mutations

Only 20 *CLCNKB* mutations have been functionally analyzed. This low figure is mainly due to technical problems regarding CIC-Kb functional expression. Current recording of CIC-Kb in *X. laevis* oocytes or cultured cells has remained difficult even after the discovery of the Barttin regulatory subunit: CIC-Kb levels of current are 5-fold lower than those elicited by CIC-Ka (36, 43). An additional, specific problem concerns Western blotting of the CIC-K protein: over-expressed CIC-K proteins tend

to form stable aggregates so that the band corresponding to the monomeric protein is often hardly visible [(10, 43, 100, 101) but see (36)].

Before the discovery of Barttin, Waldegger et al. (101) succeeded in recording chloride currents from a chimeric human CIC-Kb/rat CIC-K1 construct [CIC-Kb (c)] and analyzed a selection of mutations reported by Simon et al. (83) in *X. laevis* oocytes using two-electrode voltage-clamp: P124L, A204T, A349D and R438C abolished CIC-Kb (c) current while Y432H dramatically reduced it, by at least 4 fold. Obviously, a limit of this interesting study lies in the use of chimeric channels, as it is difficult to anticipate how the presence of rat CIC-K1 stretches in the CIC-Kb protein might influence the observed effects. Soon afterwards, Estevez et al. (19) recorded for the first time CIC-K/Barttin complexes in *X. laevis* oocytes. They tested several of the mutations reported by Simon et al and Konrad et al (48, 83) by co-injecting mRNA for several CIC-Kb mutants with Y98A-mutant Barttin in order to increase surface expression of the channel complex. Overall A349D and R438C mutations totally abolished currents, as in the abovementioned study, while P124L, A204T, R538P and K560M mutations decreased the currents by 60-80%. More recently, Yu et al (102) analyzed R30X, A210V and R351W mutations by the same methods. As expected, R30X mutant generated no current; A210V and R351W currents were reduced by 53 and 39%, respectively. Overall, all these mutations (except A210V and R351W) reduced channel currents by more than 60% (19, 102).

Our group has recently investigated 8 novel *CLCNKB* mutations (L81P, R92W, G120R, V170M, G246R, R351P, G424E and L439P) (3, 43). We also selected some published mutations to gain a deeper understanding of the molecular defect behind the development of Bartter syndrome type III (T115P, P124L, L139P and R438H) (8, 48, 83, 103). In these studies, we co-expressed mutant CIC-Kb proteins with wild-type Barttin in *X. laevis* oocytes or HEK293 cells. The currents carried by the CIC-Kb mutants were reduced to different extents. For nearly half of the mutants (3, 43), no current was detected (T115P, G246R, G424E, R438H and L439P). Four mutants showed 50-70% residual activity (R92W, P124L, V170M, R351P), and two had a low activity around 20-40% (L81P, G120R) (3, 43).

Note that in our hands, P124L generated a noticeable current (40%) while lower currents (0-20%) were detected in previous studies (48, 85).

Surface expression varied from 0 to 85% when compared to WT CIC-Kb and was proportional to current level, indicating that the primary defect shown by mutants concerns the number of channel units in the membrane (3, 43). For mutants generating sufficient current, we evaluated unit conductance (R92W, R351P), anion selectivity (L81P, R92W, V170M and R351P), and pH- and Ca²⁺-sensitivity (L80P, R92W, R351P, P124L and V170M) (3, 43). There was no change in conductance, selectivity or regulation except for two mutants (P124L, V170M) that displayed dramatic alteration in pH-sensitivity (see below). These results go along with the hypothesis that the primary defect induced by mutations is generally an alteration in surface expression of the channel.

Altogether, among the 20 mutations analyzed for the total current, 40% do not show any detectable activity (T115P, G246R, A349D, G424E, G424R, R438C, R438H and L439P), 40% maintain more than 50% activity (R92W, G120R, P124L, V170M, A210V, R351P, R351W and K560M) and 20% have a smaller activity around 20-30% (L81P, L139P, A204T and R538P). Total protein abundance (considering bands corresponding to monomeric and dimeric proteins) was assayed in HEK293 cells for a minority of mutants (43). Protein abundance was clearly reduced for those mutants that showed no current and no surface expression (G246R, G424E, R438H and L439P). This strongly suggests that the produced transcript is not stable in the expression system. Protein abundance was not reduced for mutants showing more than 50% activity (R92W and R351P) nor for one mutant with 20-30% activity (L81P). This suggests that the stability of the protein (for instance, accelerated retrieval from the membrane) in the membrane could be decreased.

Mutations that alter regulation/conduction appear to be predominant in myotonia caused by mutations in the *CLCN1* gene: ClC-1 is a voltage-dependent channel, which is activated by depolarization; many mutations profoundly shift voltage dependence towards more positive voltages (71, 73) or even convert ClC-1 to an inwardly-rectifying channel (22, 104). By contrast, mutations altering channel gating are not frequent in Bartter disease type 3. We have evaluated pH- and Ca²⁺-

sensitivity for 6 CIC-Kb mutants and found alterations in only 2 (3, 43), while studies by others detected 2 additional mutants showing some kind of altered regulation. Maduke et al (59) reported that R538P mutation totally abolished sensitivity to Ca²⁺. This is associated with a clear reduction in current (19). According to the authors, the arginine 538 being located in the cytoplasm after helix R, the lack of sensitivity to Ca²⁺ implies a long distance effect from the cytoplasmic side of the protein to its extracellular side (59). Similar Ca²⁺-independence was reported by Yu et al (102) for R351W mutation (at the outer aspect of the protein in K-L linker), which was also associated with 60% decrease in current.

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In our hands, two mutations (V170M and P124L) dramatically altered pH and Ca²⁺ sensitivity (3). The curve of H⁺-dependent inhibition shifted by about 1.5 pH units towards more acid values for V170M and P124L mutants as compared to WT CIC-Kb (pK_H: 6.0 for V170M and 6.1 for P124L vs. 7.6 for WT). Our results suggest that these mutations do not alter directly the binding-site of H⁺ but disrupt the gating function of the channel, thus indirectly affecting the sensitivity to pHext (3). As a direct consequence, the mutant CIC-Kb channels are maximally active at pH 7.4 while the activity of WT CIC-Kb at this pH is only 20% of its maximal activity. In addition, we observed that the mutants were completely independent of Ca²⁺ at pH 7.4, perhaps because they are maximally active at this pH (3). In parallel, there was a clear reduction in current and surface expression in the two mutants (3). Therefore, these mutations result in hyperactive channels, which tend to offset the functional impact of reduced expression at the membrane. The opposite mechanism might operate in the case of T481S CIC-Kb, a CLCNKB single-nucleotide polymorphism that has been linked to essential hypertension (41, 82). Jeck et al (40) showed that the 5-20-fold increase in CIC-Kb current induced by T481S mutation was associated with higher sensitivity to pH (lower activity at pH 7.4) and an increase in membrane channel expression, a mirror image of what is observed in Bartter syndrome for CIC-Kb mutants.

Alteration of functional motifs as a cause of Bartter syndrome

Several of the mutations that have been functionally analyzed are located around the selectivity filter. Three mutations in α-helix N (R438C, R438H, L439P) and one close to it (G424E) are associated with reduction in total protein abundance, absence of expression at the membrane and absence of current. Two mutations (P124L and V170M) alter channel regulation. These results strongly suggest that the selectivity filter is of paramount importance for structure stability and gating. The hyperactivity of P124L and V170M is puzzling when considered in the context of disease pathophysiology. As already mentioned, mutations of the *CLCN1* gene causing myotonia often result in gating alterations. However, these alterations always render the channel less active (71). Thus, it is currently difficult to appreciate whether the uncoupling of channel activity from pH- and Ca²⁺-dependent gating is a co-incidental side-effect of the mutations or whether these mutations alter yet unidentified regulators of channel activity.

By contrast, the available data provides little information about the functional effects of *CLCNKB* mutations in two other regions: α -helices B and J (8 mutations), which interact with Barttin, and CBS domains (7 mutations). The CBS domains might be particularly critical for channel function. They participate in CIC *common* gating (20, 25), likely *by* sensing intracellular metabolites (35). They also participate in channel trafficking and targeting to the plasma membrane. The partial deletion of the cytoplasmic domain leads to a retention of CIC-0 and CIC-1 proteins into the ER (20, 34, 57, 78). The only CBS1-located mutation that has been functionally characterized in over-expression systems (K560M) reduces CIC-Kb current to 25% of control (19).

The interface between the two monomers, mainly composed of α -helices H, I, P and Q, is potentially another critical region. In the case of Dent's disease, an X-linked hereditary disease due to mutations in the *CLCN5* gene encoding the Cl⁻/H⁺ exchanger ClC-5, about 60% of the mutations are located at the dimer interface (55). These mutations either result in ER retention or channel dysfunction (55). Mutations at the same location are also frequent in *CLCN7* gene causing osteopetrosis, or in *CLCN1* gene, where they modify channel gating (71). Unexpectedly, only 3 mutations have been found at the dimer interface in Bartter disease: P216L (51) and A242E (5),

which have not been functionally investigated and G246R which shows no current, no surface expression and reduced protein abundance (43). The latter result suggests a destabilization of the protein.

Obviously, further experiments focusing on surface channel expression and sub-cellular distribution would be necessary in the future to investigate the functional consequences of mutations in the CBS region, in the α -helices interacting with Barttin and at the dimer interface.

Phenotype-genotype relationship

The first papers reporting mutations in the *CLCNKB* gene causing Bartter syndrome type 3 already mentioned that the severity of the disease was highly variable (38, 48, 83). In particular, whole gene deletion, which is frequent in this disease, may cause aBS or cBS (38, 48, 83). This is also the case for A204T and R438H mutations (29, 76, 103). R438H mutation results in a non-functioning channel (43), A204T reduces current to 0-25% of control (48, 83). In particular, Zelikovic et al (103) showed that patients carrying the mutation R438H within one same large family could present with mild or severe symptoms. Especially in the case of *CLCNKB* gene deletion, the variable severity of the disease suggests that CIC-Ka CI⁻ channel, K⁺-CI⁻ cotransporter (8) or additional CI⁻ channels (60) might be expressed in the TAL in a variable fashion and compensate for the loss of function of CIC-Kb in some patients. In the case of point mutations, one alternative possibility would be that the defect being due to conformational destabilization has variable impact depending on the individual.

The 8 patients homozygous for V170M, or compound heterozygous with another mutation (whole gene deletion or mutations resulting in the production of unstable mRNAs or truncated proteins) have a mild phenotype (3). It is likely that these patients mainly express V170M homodimers of this hyperactive channel with reduced expression at the membrane. This is also the case for one patient homozygous for P124L, but not for 2 other patients compound heterozygous for P124L and G465R (3). It will be interesting to observe whether more mutations of this type are detected in the future and whether they are associated with a mild presentation.

Conclusion

Overall, currently available data suggests that *CLCNKB* mutations might be arranged in two main classes: (i) mutations causing fully impaired (about 40% of the mutations) or reduced (about 60% of the mutations) channel expression at the membrane; (ii) mutations combining reduced channel surface expression with altered channel properties (about 20% of the total number of mutations analyzed).

It is clear that further investigation is needed to fully characterize the pathogenesis of Bartter disease type 3, which has been hampered by technical difficulties in the expression of this particular chloride channel. However, Bartter disease type 3 probably belongs to the large family of conformational diseases, in which the mutations destabilize channel structure, inducing retention in the endoplasmic reticulum and accelerated channel degradation. Accordingly, a classical approach to treatment would be to test the efficacy of adapted chaperons for enhancing CIC-Kb surface expression. An approach of this type has been recently performed with some success on W610X CIC-Kb mutants in MDCK cells using an aminoglycoside derivative (14). This long-term strategy might be helpful for those patients who present with a severe form of Bartter syndrome type 3.

At the end of this review dedicated to the pathophysiology of Bartter syndrome, it is worth reminding that one *CLCNKB* single-nucleotide polymorphism (T481S) has been linked to essential hypertension (41, 82). Although the association with hypertension was not replicated by some studies (23, 47, 87), the idea that CIC-Kb might be functionally important for long-term control of blood pressure remains attractive, and keeps in line with recent findings pointing out the importance of chloride in blood pressure regulation (18). In addition, several *CLCNKA* single-nucleotide polymorphisms have been associated with salt-sensitive hypertension (4) or heart failure (10). Altogether, these various reports suggest that the pathophysiological impact of CIC-Kb and CIC-Ka on NaCl balance might be not restricted to Bartter syndrome.

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FIGURE LEGEND

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Figure 1. Localization of the two CIC-K channels along the rodent renal tubule and ion transport systems in various parts of the distal nephron. A) Localization of CIC-K1 (blue) and CIC-K2 (orange) along the nephron. The localization is based on RTPCR on rat isolated renal segments (49, 66, 100), immunochemistry (19, 45) and patch-clamp studies on the mouse renal tubule (50, 56, 66, 67, 70). The distribution pattern remains incomplete: 1) in the absence of a dedicated patch-clamp study, it is not known whether CIC-K1 is present in the α intercalated cells together with CIC-K2; 2) Although, CIC-K1 messenger RNA is present in the late distal tubule and the collecting duct, CIC-K1 has not been detected in these two renal segments using the patch-clamp technique (50, 56, 66, 67, 70). CIC-K1 might be active only during specific physiologic conditions. B) NaCl absorption in the thick ascending limb involves NKCC2 Na⁺-K⁺-2Cl⁻ cotransport in the apical membrane and ClC-K2 and ClC-K1 in the basolateral membrane. C) NaCl absorption in the distal convoluted tubule involves NCC Na⁺-Cl⁻ cotransport in the basolateral membrane and CIC-K2 in the basolateral membrane. D) The β intercalated cells (β ic) absorb NaCl (18) and the α intercalated cells (α ic) secrete protons. NaCl absorption involves the Pendrin Cl/HCO₃ exchanger and NDCBE Na⁺-driven Cl/HCO₃ exchanger in the apical membrane, and AE4 Cl/HCO₃ exchanger and ClC-K2 in the basolateral membrane. The KCC4 K $^{+}$ -Cl $^{-}$ cotransporter might also allow Cl $^{-}$ exit. The α intercalated cells secrete H $^{+}$ by the operation of the V-type H⁺ ATPase in the apical membrane and AE1 Cl/HCO₃ exchanger in the basolateral membrane. CIC-K2 with or without CIC-K1 is present in the basolateral membrane and might optimize the turnover rate of the exchanger. Figure 2. Homology model of the CIC-Kb Cl channel based on the Eukaryotic CIC of Cyanidioschyzon merolae (PDB id. 3ORG) that includes the cystathione-β-syntase domains. A sideview of the dimeric structure is shown in cartoon representation, where the membrane is delimited by dotted lines. The monomers are colored orange and blue. The permeation pore in the left-hand side monomer is shown as a continuous series of white spheres, and amino acids participating in the

selectivity filter are shown in sticks in both monomers. On the extracellular side, green and purple spheres show the putative location of Ca²⁺ and H⁺ binding sites, respectively, as inferred from comparison with prokaryotic *Escherichia coli* (PDB id. 1KPK) and eukaryotic *Cyanidioschyzon merolae* CICs using using Multalin software for multiple sequence alignments (15), plus manual adjustements. The location of the binding sites slightly depends on the homology model, especially for the Ca²⁺ binding site. As a result, the number of spheres is larger than the number of involved amino acids. Pymol software (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.7, Schrödinger, LLC) was used to render figure.

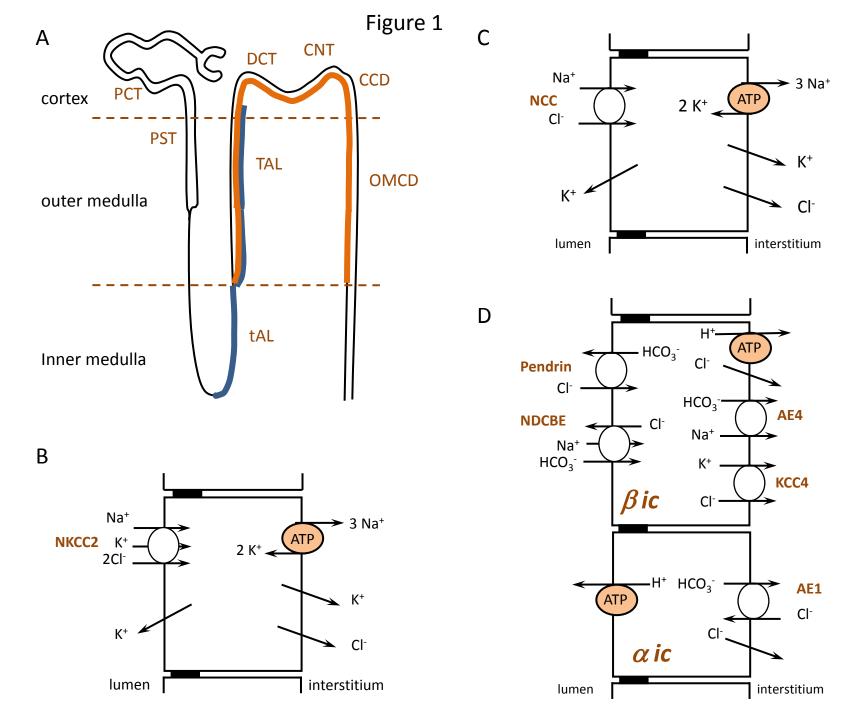
Figure 3. Mutations in the CIC-Kb CI channel associated with Bartter disease. The location of mutations is illustrated on a topological model of CIC-Kb where rectangles represent α -helices. The plasma membrane is not shown; the lower part of the model is intracellular, the upper part extracellular. The letters indicate the corresponding α -helices and CBS1 and CBS2 the two cystathione-β-syntase domains. The α -helices participating in the selectivity filter, those interacting with Barttin and those located at the dimer interface are colored in green, yellow and purple, respectively. Each symbol gives the position and the type of a single mutation, the number referring to mutations in Table 1.

Table 1. CLCNKB mutations and corresponding changes in amino acid sequence of the CIC-Kb chloride channel.

Mutat		Amino					_
ion	Nucleotide change	acid	Protein	Remaining	Sensitivity to	Surface	Total ClC-
numb		change	domain	current	H ⁺ and Ca ²⁺	expression	Kb protein
er							

1	c.88C>T (102)	R30X	α helix A				
2	c.216C>A (6)	A61D	α helix B				
3	c.226C>T (68)	R76X	α helix B				
4	c.229G>C (75)	A77P	α helix B				
5	c.229G>A (48)	A77T	α helix B				
6	c.242T>C (36)	L81P	α helix B	35% (43)	=(43)	30% (43)	=(43)
7	c.274C>T (43)	R92W	α helix C	67% (43)	= (43)	85% (43)	= (43)
8	c.343A>C (43)	T115P	α helix C	18% (3)	(.5)	00,0(.5)	(.5)
9	c.358G>C (3)	G120R	C-D linker	60% (3)	=(3)		
10	c.359G>T (51)	G120V	C-D linker	****(*)	(-)		
11	c.371C>T (48, 83)	P124L	α helix D	0% (101);			
				45% (19);	Altered (3)	=(101)	=(101)
				73% (3)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,	,
12	c.451T>C (83)	L139P	D-E linker	27% (3)			
13	c.480T>A (6)	V149E	α helix E	· /			
14	c.490G>T(2)	G164C	E-F linker				
15	c.508G>A(3)	V170M	α helix F	60% (3)	Altered (3)	60% (3)	
16	c.610G>A (76, 83)	A204T	α helix G	25% (19); 0%			- (77)
	. , ,			(101)		=(101)	=(77)
17	c.629C>T (102)	A210V	α helix G	~50% (102)	=(102)		
18	c.647C>T (51)	P216L	G-H linker				
19	c.708C>A(3)	Y236X	H-I linker				
20	c.725C>A(5)	A242E	α helix I				
21	c.736G>C (43)	G246R	α helix I	10%* (43)		None (43)	↓ (43)
22	c.887G>A (99)	G296D	α helix J			, ,	
23	c.927G>A (48)	S297R	α helix J				
24	908A>C (98)	Q303P	α helix J				
25	c.1004T>C (13)	L335P	α helix K				
26	c.1045T>C (83)	S337F	α helix K				
27	c.1046G>A (83)	A349D	K-L linker	0% (101); 10% (19)		↓ (101)	↓(101)
28	c.1052G>C (43)	R351P	K-L linker	63% (43)	=(43)	65%(43)	=(43)
29	c.1051C>T (102)	R351W	K-L linker		Ca ²⁺ altered	03/0(43)	- (4 3)
2)	0.10310-1 (102)	10331 **	IC-L' IIIICI	~60% (102)	(102)		
30	c.1107T>A (48)	H357Q	α helix L				
31	c.1172G>A (68)	A391X	L-M linker				
32	c.1270G>A (51)	G424R	M-N linker				
33	c.1270G>A (43)	G424E	M-N linker	10%* (43)		None (43)	↓ (43)
34	c.1294T>C (83)	Y432H	α helix N	~20% (101)		↓ (101)	=(101)
35	c.1309G>A (51)	G437C	α helix N				
36	c.1312C>T (83)	R438C	α helix N	0% (101);		(101)	- (101)
				10%* (43)		↓ (101)	=(101)
37	c.1313G>A (48,	R438H	α helix N	100/* (42)		None (42)	1 (42)
	103)			18%* (43)		None (43)	↓ (43)
38	c.1316T>C (43)	L439P	α helix N	15%* (43)		None (43)	↓ (43)
39	c.1325A>G (29)	E442G	α helix N				
40	c.1340T>C (99)	I447T	N-O linker				
41	c.1409G>A (53)	G470E	α helix O				
42	c.1537C>T (83)	Q513X	α helix Q				
43	c.1648G>C 31)	R538P	Linker R-	25% (19)	Ca2+ altered		
			CBS1		(59)		
44	c.1714A>T 31)	K560M	CBS1	50% (19)			
45	c.1685C>T (27)	M562T	CBS1				
46	c.1753T>A (48)	S573Y	CBS1				
47	c.1732G>A (27)	K578E	CBS1				
48	c.1783C>T (6)	R595X	CBS1				
49	c.1830G>A (26, 51)	W610X	CBS1				
50	c.1877G>A (99)	C626Y	CBS2				

^{*}Residual current not statistically different from measured current in noninjected oocytes (36). Numbers between parentheses indicate references.



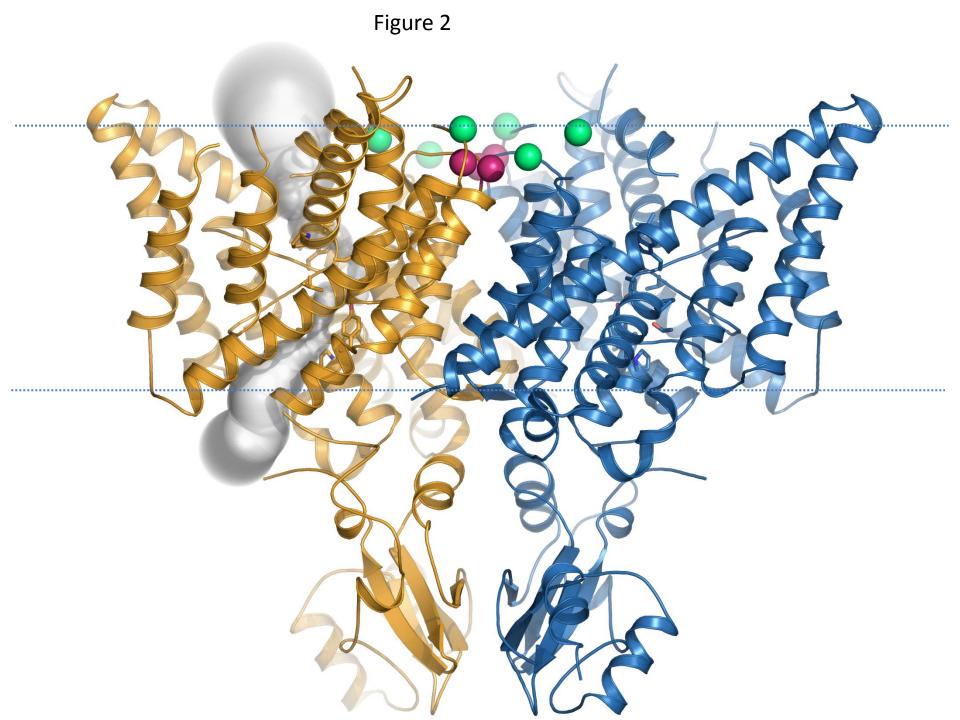


Figure 3

