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in the mouse brain. *Brain Res.* **1531**:75-83
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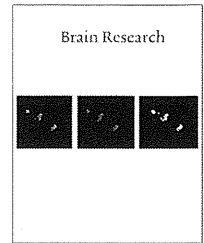
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Research Report

Localization of type-III sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 2 in the mouse brain



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ABSTRACT

Type-III sodium-dependent phosphate transporters 1 and 2 (PiT-1 and PiT-2, respectively) are proteins encoded by *SLC20A1* and *SLC20A2*, respectively. The ubiquitous distribution of PiT-1 and PiT-2 mRNAs in mammalian tissues is in agreement with the housekeeping maintenance of homeostasis of intracellular inorganic phosphate (P_i), which is absorbed from interstitial fluid for normal cellular functions. Recently, mutations of *SLC20A2* have been found in patients with idiopathic basal ganglia calcification (IBGC), also known as Fahr's disease. However, the localization of PiT-2 in the brain has not been clarified yet. Therefore, the aim of this study is to clarify the distribution of PiT-2 expression in the mouse brain. Our biochemical and immunohistochemical analyses using a polyclonal antibody (Ab) and a monoclonal Ab showed that PiT-2 was ubiquitously expressed throughout the brain. In terms of the cellular type, PiT-2 was predominantly detected in neurons; it colocalized with β -tubulin III in the cerebral cortex and with calbindin D-28K in Purkinje cells. Additionally, PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in the microtubule-associated protein 2-positive neuronal dendrites in the cerebral cortex. However, colocalization with PiT-2 immunopositivity was not observed in the synaptophysin-positive nerve terminals. PiT-2 was also expressed in astrocytes and vascular endothelial cells. Our results indicate that PiT-2 plays an important role in the maintenance of cellular P_i homeostasis in neurons, astrocytes, and endothelial cells. This finding is a milestone in the study of the function of PiT-2 in the normal mouse brain and particularly in the brains of patients with Fahr's disease.

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1. Introduction

Inorganic phosphate (P_i) has a structural role in phospholipids of cell membranes, nucleoproteins, and nucleic acids. P_i and organic phosphates are essential for vital functions such as storage and liberation of metabolic energy, electrolyte

transporter, mineralization, nucleic acid synthesis, and neurological functions. P_i forms high energy ester bonds and phosphates play a pivotal role in cellular metabolic pathways and signal transduction. P_i combines with calcium in the form of hydroxyapatite, which is a structurally important component in bones and teeth (Berndt and Kumar, 2007;

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Gonzalez et al., 2009; Miyamoto et al., 2011; Murer et al., 2000). The maintenance of a constant circulating level of P_i depends on the coordinated activities of 3 families of sodium-dependent phosphate cotransporters (NaPiTs) (Gonzalez et al., 2009; Miyamoto et al., 2011).

Three families of NaPiTs are type-I (Npt-1 and Npt-4), type-II (Npt-2a, Npt-2b and Npt-2c), and type-III (PiT-1 and PiT-2) (Lederer and Miyamoto, 2012). PiT-1 and PiT-2 are encoded by SLC20A1 (2q13) and SLC20A2 (8q11.21), respectively. They play a lesser role in phosphate homeostasis than other type-I and type-II transporters in the human body, but contribute to cellular uptake, intracellular homeostasis, and mineralization (Beck et al., 2009; Chien et al., 1998; Lederer and Miyamoto, 2012; Sugita et al., 2011). Both PiT-1 and PiT-2 were first identified as retrovirus receptors before being recognized as NaPiTs (Collins et al., 2004; Kavanaugh et al., 1994; Miller et al., 1994; O'Hara et al., 1990). The broad mRNA distribution of PiT-1 and PiT-2 in mammalian tissues and organs has led to the proposal that PiT-1 and PiT-2 have a housekeeping role in P_i homeostasis and provide cells with

their basic P_i requirements (Kavanaugh et al., 1994; Salatin et al., 2002; Uckert et al., 1998). Despite the essential role of P_i in life processes and the specific role of PiT-1 and PiT-2 in supplying mammalian cells with their basic P_i requirements, as well as the increasing evidence for the role of PiT-1 and PiT-2 in normal and pathological calcification, little is known about the basic function and distribution of these proteins in the central nervous system (CNS) in particular.

On the other hand, basal ganglia calcification was first noted in the 1850s and is now a frequent finding in clinical neuroimaging. Familial idiopathic basal ganglia calcification (IBGC), also known as Fahr's disease, is a rare genetic condition characterized by symmetric calcification in the basal ganglia and other brain regions, a wide spectrum of neuropsychiatric symptoms and normal levels of serum calcium, P_i , alkaline phosphatase and parathyroid hormone (Manyam, 2005). Recently, Wang et al. have found the first causative gene linked to IBGC by identifying seven IBGC families with mutations in PiT-2 (Wang et al., 2012). Mutations in PiT-2 account for as many as approximately 40% of familial IBGC

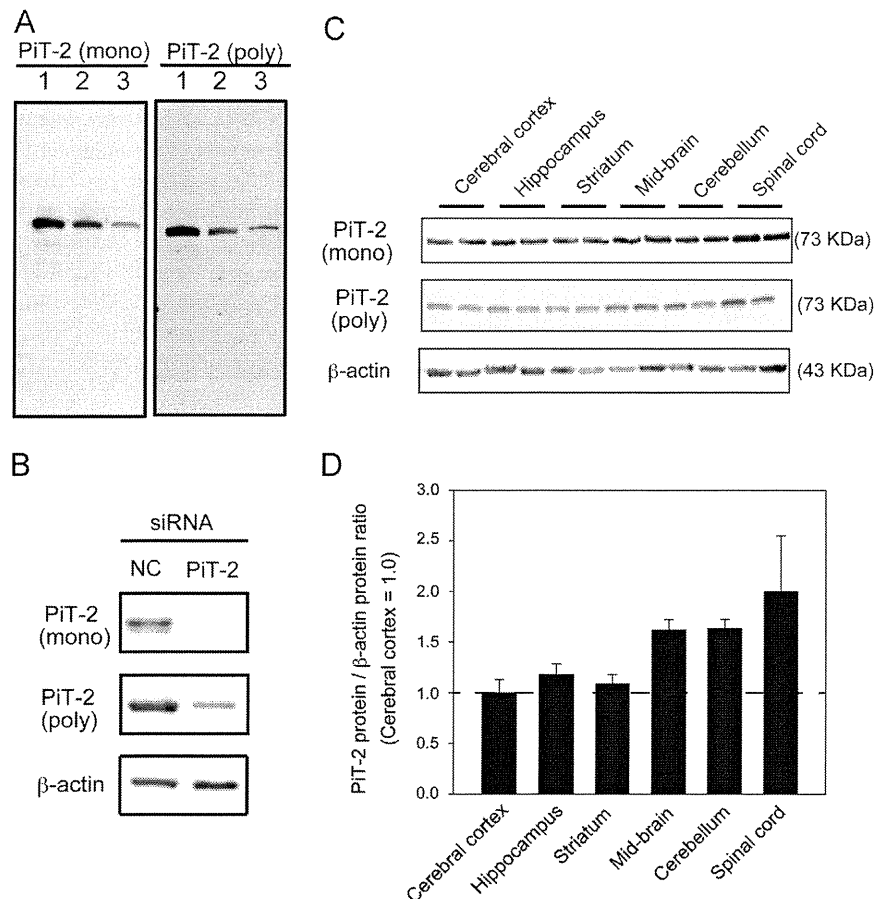


Fig. 1 – Detection of PiT-2 in the brain by biochemical analysis. (A): total homogenates (7.5 μ g) from samples of the liver (1), kidney (2), and cerebral cortex (3) were applied to the gel and then performed western blotting using a mouse monoclonal (mono) or rabbit polyclonal (poly) Ab against PiT-2 (73 kDa). **(B):** SH-SY5Y cells were transiently transfected with NC or PiT-2 siRNA. The total cell lysate was analyzed by western blotting using the PiT-2 Abs. **(C):** total homogenate (10 μ g) from samples of the various regions of the mouse brain including the cerebral cortex, hippocampus, striatum, mid-brain, cerebellum, and spinal cord was applied to the gel and then performed western blotting using primary mouse monoclonal anti-PiT-2 (73 kDa), mouse monoclonal anti- β -actin (43 kDa) and rabbit polyclonal anti-PiT-2 (73 kDa) Abs. **(D):** Semi-quantitative data were obtained by measuring the optical density of each band using computerized image analysis. The results are shown as the mean \pm SEM (%) of four mice.

cases (Hsu et al., 2013). Thus, PiT-2 has now become the focus of IBGC studies. However, the localization and functions of PiT-2 in the normal brain have not been fully clarified yet. The aim of this study was to clarify the distribution of PiT-2 expression in the mouse brain.

2. Results

A single band was clearly detected in each of the lanes of the liver, kidney, and brain (cerebral cortex) samples at the level compatible with the molecular weight of PiT-2 (73 kDa) with the monoclonal and polyclonal antibodies (Abs). This findings of the liver and kidney are consistent with those of a previous study (Lederer and Miyamoto, 2012) and the immunoreactive band corresponding to PiT-2 was also detected in the cerebral cortex (Fig. 1A). To confirm the validity of PiT-2 Abs, we also performed a knockdown experiment using siRNA against PiT-2 in SH-SY5Y cells. The amount of PiT-2 was obviously decreased by the suppression of PiT-2 expression compared to non-targeted siRNA controls (NC) (Fig. 1B). Therefore, the expression of PiT-2 in various regions of the mouse brain was examined using the two Abs. The bands immunoreactive to the anti-PiT-2 Abs were detected in all the regions of the brain (Fig. 1C). In addition, the regions of mid-brain and the cerebellum showed higher level of PiT-2 than those of the other brain regions, but they were not significant (Fig. 1D). Although the spinal cord indicates the highest level of PiT-2, there was wide variation among samples. The results indicated that PiT-2 was ubiquitously expressed all throughout the brain.

Immunohistochemical analyses were performed and results were confirmed by both 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) staining (hereafter, DAB staining) and immunofluorescence (IF) staining. The results showed no significant differences between the two staining methods (Figs. 2–4). DAB staining showed that the PiT-2 immunopositivity was ubiquitously observed throughout the brain (Fig. 2A). The negative control showed no signals in the immunostaining. (data not shown). PiT-2 immunopositivity was predominantly detected in neuron-like cells, whereas PiT-2 was weakly expressed in glia-like cells (Fig. 2).

In the cerebral cortex, PiT-2 was predominantly immunostained in layers II/III (Fig. 2B). In IF staining using the monoclonal anti-PiT-2 Ab and the polyclonal anti- β -tubulin III Ab, PiT-2 immunopositivity was associated with β -tubulin III-positive neurons (Fig. 3A–C). In addition, PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in the microtubule-associated protein 2 (MAP-2)-positive neuronal dendrites in the cerebral cortex (Fig. 3D–F). However, colocalization with PiT-2 immunopositivity was not observed in the synaptophysin-positive nerve terminals (Fig. 3G–I). While PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in the dentate granule cells (DG), in the CA1 and CA3 pyramidal cell layers of the hippocampus (Fig. 2C–E), the signal of PiT-2 immunopositivity in the DG and CA1 regions was weaker than that in the CA3 and other brain regions (Fig. 2C–E). In the striatum, PiT-2 immunopositivity was ubiquitously detected, although the signal of PiT-2 was weak (Fig. 2F). The striatum consists of heterogeneous neurons. The medium spiny neurons are the main type of inhibitory

cells representing approximately 90% of the neurons within the striatum. Calbindin D-28K is a marker of medium spiny neurons (Bennett and Bolam, 1993; Côté et al., 1991). IF staining using the monoclonal anti-PiT-2 and anti-calbindin D-28K Ab showed that PiT-2 was detected in the calbindin D-28K-positive neurons (Fig. 3J–L).

The PiT-2 immunopositivity was clearly detected in the neuron-like cells in the substantia nigra (Fig. 2G). The nigral dopaminergic input to the striatum via the nigrostriatal pathway is intimately linked with the function of the striatum. PiT-2 immunopositivity was also detected in the tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive neurons in the striatum (Fig. 3M–O). In the cerebellum, PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in Purkinje cells (Fig. 2H). It was also detected in the cerebellar granule cell layer and the dentate nucleus of the cerebellum. IF staining using the anti-PiT-2 and anti-calbindin D-28K Abs showed that PiT-2 was expressed in the calbindin D-28K-positive neurons, namely, Purkinje cells (Fig. 3P–R).

On the other hand, DAB staining showed that PiT-2 was weakly expressed in glial cells (Fig. 2I) and in the endothelial cells in blood vessels (Fig. 2J). In the callosum, glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)-positive astrocytes coexpressed PiT-2 (Fig. 4A–C). In addition, GFAP-positive astrocytes in the wall of blood vessels highly coexpressed PiT-2 (Fig. 4D–F). Moreover, IF staining using the anti-PiT-2 and anti-von Willebrand factor (vWF) Abs showed that PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in the vWF-positive endothelial cells (Fig. 4G–I). In the examination of whether PiT-2 is expressed in ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1 (iba1)-positive microglia and 2',3'-cyclic nucleotide 3'-phosphodiesterase (CNase)-positive oligodendrocytes, colocalizations of PiT-2 were not observed in these cells under our experimental conditions (data not shown).

3. Discussion

In this study, we showed that PiT-2 was ubiquitously expressed throughout the brain by biochemical and immunohistochemical analyses using the monoclonal and polyclonal Abs. In biochemical analysis, the expression of PiT-2 was comparatively high in the mid-brain and cerebellum. Both DAB staining and IF staining showed that PiT-2 immunopositivity was clearly located in neurons in various regions of the brain. Briefly, PiT-2 colocalized with β -tubulin III-positive neurons in the cerebral cortex, calbindin D-28K-positive Purkinje cells in the cerebellum and medium spiny neurons in the striatum, and TH-positive neurons in the substantia nigra. In addition, PiT-2 immunopositivity was detected in the MAP-2-positive neuronal dendrites in the cerebral cortex. However, colocalization with PiT-2 was not observed in the synaptophysin-positive nerve terminals. Interestingly, PiT-2 was expressed in GFAP-positive astrocytes in the wall of blood vessels, and vWF-positive endothelial cells. It was most weakly expressed in microglia, as detected using anti-iba1 Ab, and in oligodendrocytes, as detected using anti-CNase Ab. The results indicate that PiT-2 is expressed in various types of neuron and in the sites prone to pathologic calcium deposition including the basal ganglia and cerebellum.

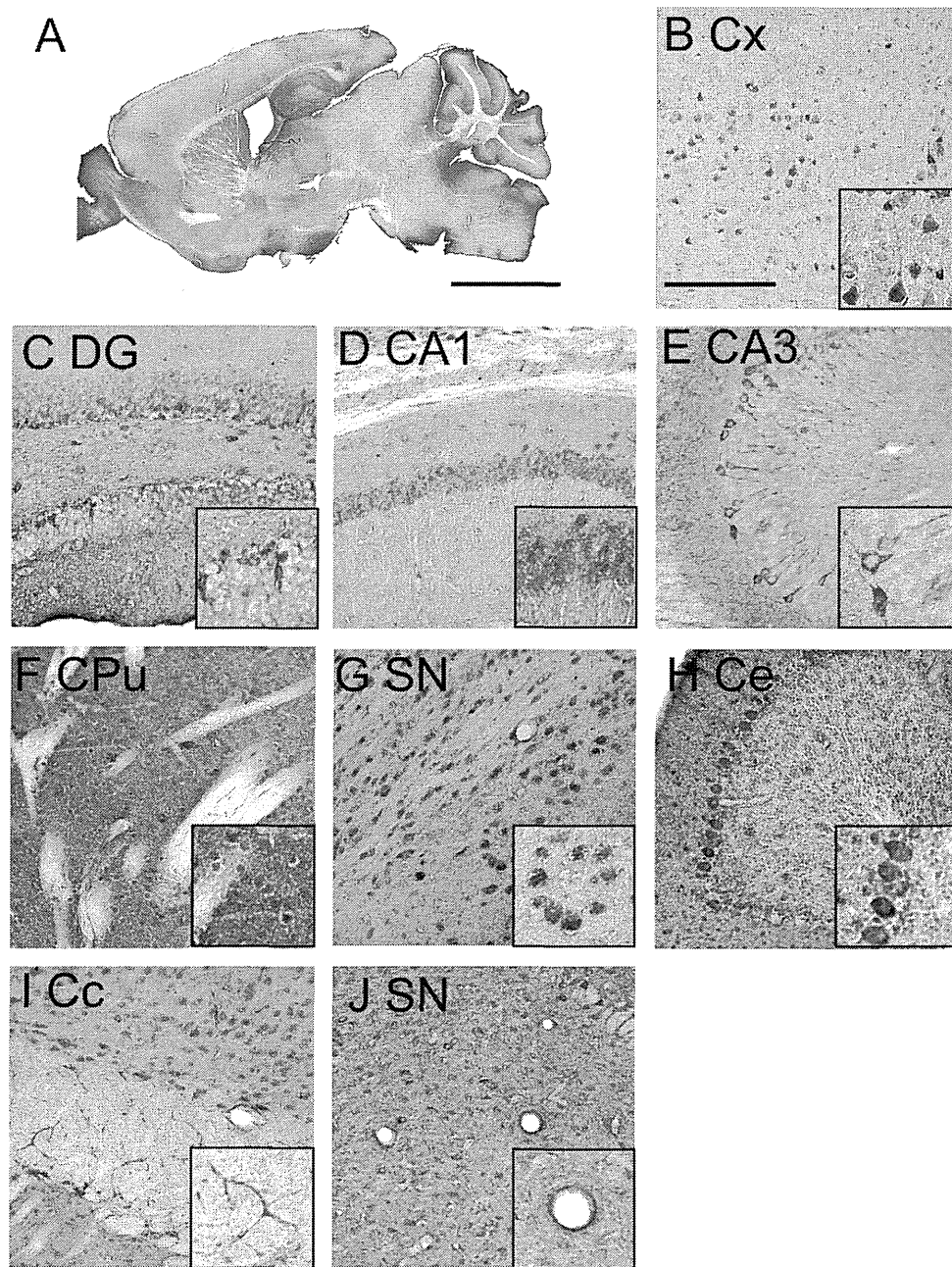


Fig. 2 – Representative photomicrographs of PiT-2 in the mouse brain. Mice were sacrificed and the brains were quickly removed for immunohistochemical analysis. Sagittal sections (A) were immunohistochemically analyzed using anti-PiT-2 antibody in the cerebral cortex (B), hippocampus ((C); DG, (D); CA1, (E); CA3), striatum (F), substantia nigra (G), cerebellum (H), corpus callosum (H) and mid-brain (I). Scale bar, 500 µm in A; 100 µm in B. Abbreviation: Cx, cerebral cortex; DG, dentate gyrus; CPU, caudate-putamen; SN, substantia nigra; Ce, cerebellum; Cc, corpus callosum.

In mammals, type-III NaPiTs have only two members, PiT-1 and PiT-2, which were initially identified as receptors of retroviruses and subsequently found to possess sodium-dependent phosphate symporter activity (Collins et al., 2004; Kavanaugh et al., 1994; Miller et al., 1994; O'Hara et al., 1990). Type-III NaPiTs are ubiquitously expressed in mammals, although their mRNA expression levels differ depending on the tissue (Lederer and Miyamoto, 2012). The expression of PiT-2 mRNA in the mouse brain was

investigated and showed a high level in the cerebellum (the Allen brain atlas, <http://www.brain-map.org>). It corresponds well to our biochemical data. On the other hand, previous transcriptome database indicated that SLC20A2 was shown to be astrocyte-enriched genes (Cahoy et al., 2008). However, interestingly, we found that PiT-2 immunopositivity was expressed in neurons rather than in astrocytes. Therefore, PiT-2 may play a major role in neurons rather than in glial cells under normal condition.

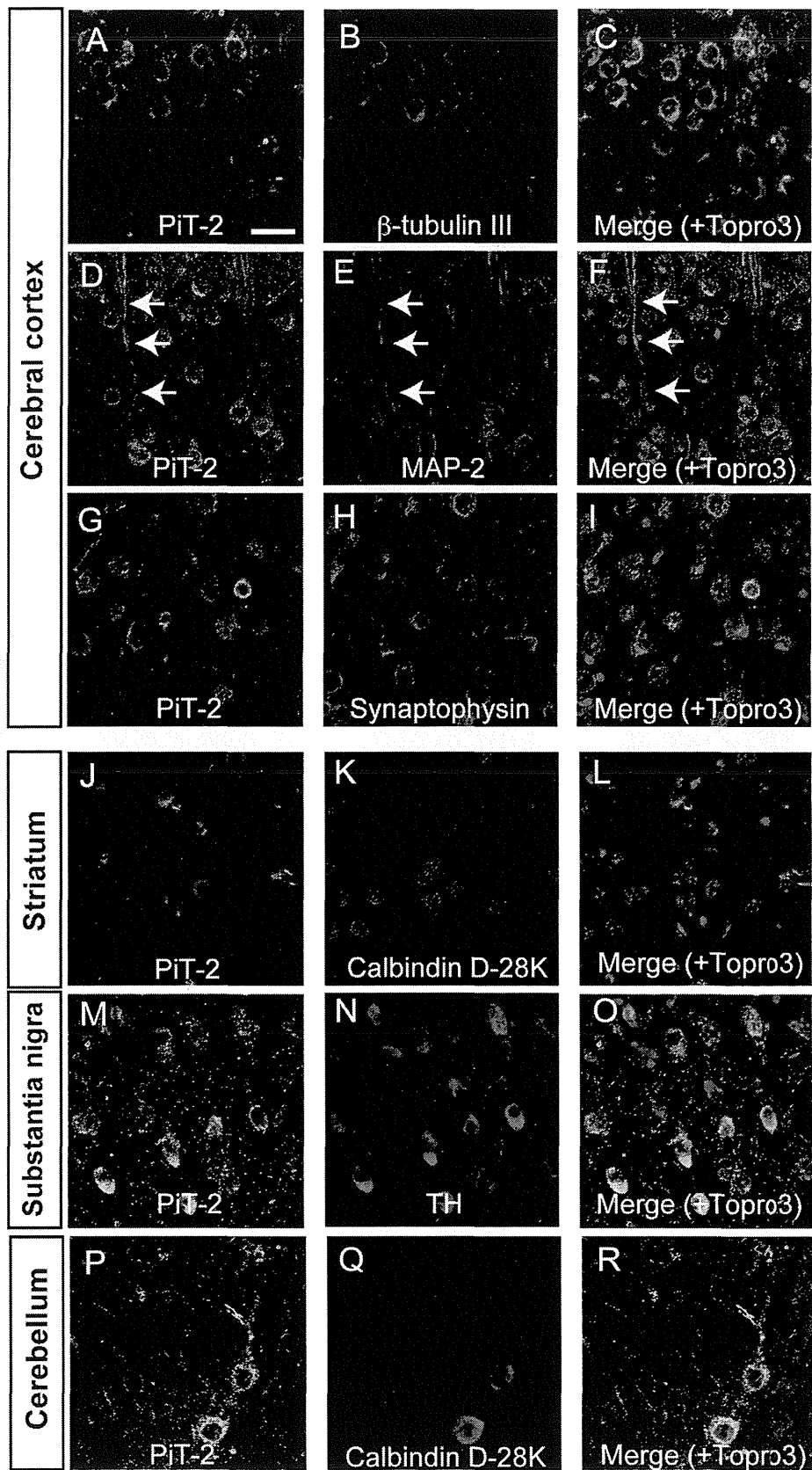


Fig. 3 – Double-immunofluorescence analysis using Abs against PiT-2 and neuronal makers. The sections obtained from the cerebral cortex (A–I), striatum (J–L), substantia nigra (M–O) and cerebellum (P–R) were coincubated with Abs against PiT-2 (green) and β -tubulin III (A–C), MAP-2 (D–F), synaptophysin (G–I), calbindin D-28K (J–L, P–R) or TH (M–O) (red), and then analyzed by laser scanning confocal microscopy. For nuclear staining, Topro3 was used (blue in merge). Scale bars, 20 μ m in A.

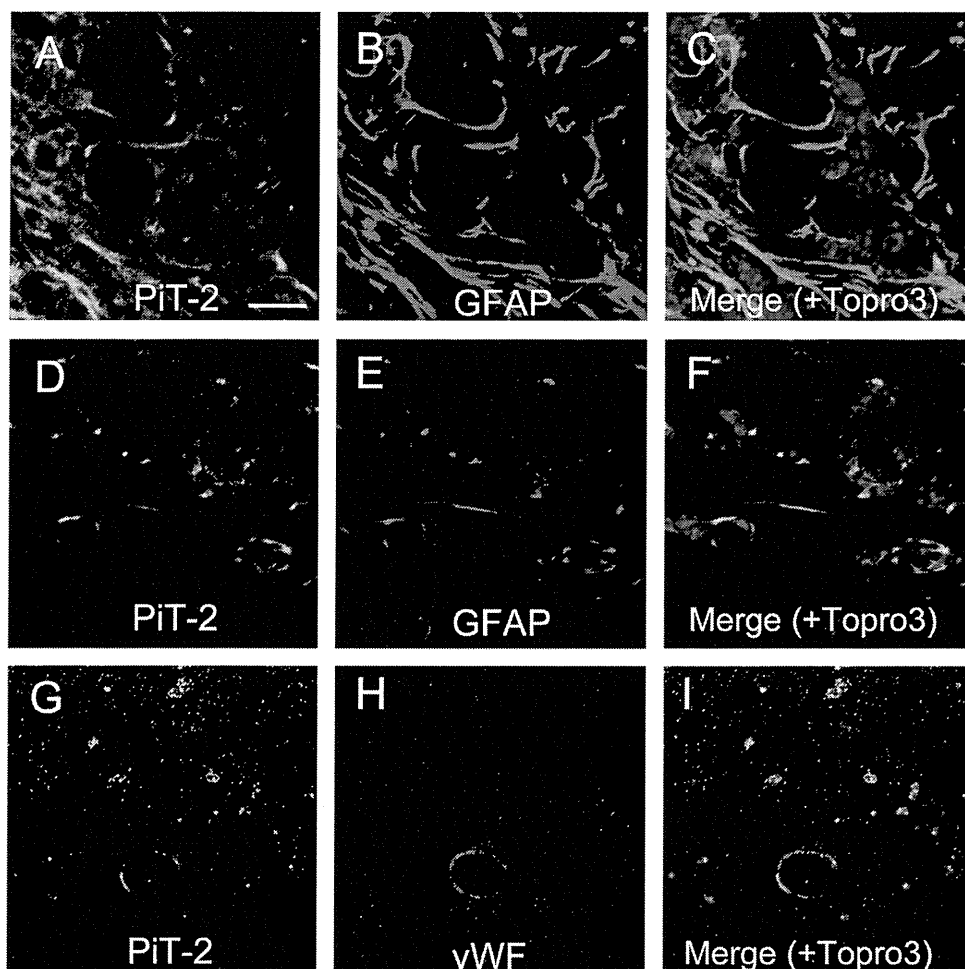


Fig. 4 – Double-immunofluorescence analysis using Abs against PiT-2 and GFAP or vWF. Brain slices of the striatum were coincubated with Abs against PiT-2 (green) and GFAP (A–F) or vWF (G–I) (red), and then analyzed by laser scanning confocal microscopy. For nuclear staining, Topro3 was used (blue in merge). Scale bars, 20 μ m in A.

In addition, recent studies have shown IBGC-associated mutations in PiT-2, but not in PiT-1 (Hsu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012). The PiT-2 mutations most likely have an effect through haploinsufficiency rather than through encodement of dominant negative activities (Wang et al., 2012). Another previous study showed that the expression level of PiT-2 was not affected by BMP-2 in MC3T3-E1 cells, an osteogenic cell line, although northern blot analysis showed a time-dependent increase in the expression of PiT-1 in response to BMP-2 (Suzuki et al., 2006). A similar report has been showed in ATDC5 chondrocytic cells, other osteogenic cell line, with TGF- β (Palmer et al., 2000). The results suggest that P_i homeostasis may be controlled by each mechanism for activation of PiT-1 and PiT-2, respectively.

P_i represents a key molecule in cellular energy metabolism. Energy stress appears to be the common and early pathogenic pathway in several neurodegenerative disorders (Mattson et al., 2008). Among all cell types, neurons show a specific vulnerability to energy stress as they require high energy and are largely dependent on glucose and P_i . The importance of failure of energy metabolism has been well established in several neurodegenerative disorders such as Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, Huntington's

disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Mattson et al., 2008). In the present study, PiT-2 was clearly expressed in various neuronal types. Previously, type-III NaPiTs were reported to be critical for cell proliferation, although PiT-1 and PiT-2 might have different cellular functions (Beck et al., 2009; Chien et al., 1998; Virkki et al., 2007). Therefore, this finding suggests that Fahr's disease is primarily caused by the neuronal dysfunctions, as in the case of other neurodegenerative disorders.

Idiopathic calcification in the brain usually occurs bilaterally and is commonly detected in the basal ganglia, dentate nucleus, thalamus, and centrum semiovale (Kiroglu et al., 2010). Pathological calcification in these areas has been detected in various disorders including IBGC, known as Fahr's disease (Manyam, 2005; Yamada et al., 2013). Pathological analysis of IBGC also showed that the calcification involved the media and intima of vessels, including small arteries, small veins and capillaries (Tsuchiya et al., 2011). The mechanism underlying pathological calcification remains unclear. In addition, the reason why the basal ganglia and/or cerebellar dentate nucleus are the sites associated with pathologic calcium deposition remains to be elucidated (Yamada et al., 2013). In the present study, PiT-2

immunopositivity was found in various regions of the brain including the basal ganglia and cerebellum; moreover, neurons and endothelial cells expressed PiT-2. As mentioned above, PiT-2 mutations are linked to Fahr's disease. PiT-2 mutations most likely have an effect through haploinsufficiency (Wang et al., 2012). The results indicate that PiT-2 plays a pivotal role in the maintenance of cellular P_i homeostasis in neurons and endothelial cells, and that PiT-2 dysfunction induces pathologic calcium deposition and onset of Fahr's disease. Also, PiT-1 expressed in the brain (Kavanaugh et al., 1994; Salaün et al., 2002; Uckert et al., 1998). Therefore, the reciprocal relationship between PiT-1 and PiT-2 may play important roles in the brain under pathological conditions, although the function and distribution of PiT-1 in the brain are unclear at present. Further studies are needed to elucidate the relationship between PiT-1 and PiT-2 in the brain.

In conclusion, we have found in this study that PiT-2 was widely expressed throughout the brain by biochemical and immunohistochemical analyses. In terms of the cellular types, PiT-2 immunopositivity was clearly detected in neurons, astrocytes, and vascular endothelial cells. We believe that these findings should provide us with a novel concept to study the pathophysiology of Fahr's disease via type-III NaPiTs.

4. Experimental procedures

4.1. Animals

Six-week-old male C57BL/6N mice (20–25 g) were purchased from Japan SLC, Inc. (Hamamatsu, Japan). The animals were acclimated to and maintained at 23 °C in a 12-h light/dark cycle. The mice were housed in standard laboratory cages and had free access to food and water. All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the National Institutes of Health *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals*, and the protocols were approved by the Committee for Animal Research of Gifu Pharmaceutical University.

4.2. Tissue preparation and immunoblotting

The tissue in mice was rapidly removed and homogenized with 10 volumes of 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5) containing 240 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 µg/ml aprotinin, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and 1% NP-40, as described previously (Yanagida et al., 2006). After centrifugation at 20,000 × *g* for 30 min, the supernatant was used as the immunoblotting sample. Aliquots of the sample were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and then immunoblotting using a mouse monoclonal Ab against SLC20A2 (clone 4B1, diluted 1:1000, Abnova, Taipei, Taiwan), β-actin (1:2000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) or rabbit polyclonal Abs against PiT-2 (1:1000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Subsequently, the bands were detected using Ig-horseradish peroxidase-conjugated Ab and an enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) detection system and then analyzed using a LAS-3000 mini luminescent image analyzer (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

Semi-quantitative analysis was performed using Multi Gauge (Fujifilm).

4.3. Cell culture and siRNA transfection

The human neuroblastoma cell line SH-SY5Y was cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum and kept at 37 °C in humidified 5% CO₂/95% air. For the knockdown experiments of PiT-2, SH-SY5Y cells were transfected with ON-TARGET plus SMART pool targeted against SLC20A2 (L-007433-02-0005, Dharmacon Research, Chicago, IL, USA) or ON-TARGET plus Non-targeting siRNA #1 (NC), using LipofectAMINE RNAiMAX reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), and incubated for 48 h.

4.4. Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemical analyses were performed by the combination of an enzyme-labeled antibody method and DAB staining, and by IF staining. Briefly, mice were perfused through the aorta with 50 mL of 10 mM PBS, followed by 150 mL of a cold fixative consisting of 4% paraformaldehyde in 100 mM phosphate buffer (PB) under deep anesthesia with pentobarbital (100 mg/kg, i.p.) as described previously (Kitamura et al., 2010). After perfusion, the brain was quickly removed and postfixed for two days with paraformaldehyde in 100 mM PB and then transferred to 15% sucrose solution in 100 mM PB containing 0.1% sodium azide at 4 °C. The cryoprotected brain blocks were cut into 30-µm-thick slices on a cryostat, and the slices were mounted on slides. After blocking with 10% normal goat serum, brain slices were incubated with primary rabbit polyclonal anti-PiT-2 Ab (1:100; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) for overnight at 4 °C. Slices incubated with PBS were used as the negative control. After several washes, the slices were treated with biotinylated goat anti-rabbit secondary Ab (Histofine SAB-PO kit; Nichirei Co., Tokyo, Japan). Products of the streptavidin-biotin peroxidase complex were visualized using DAB (Nichirei Co.).

4.5. Double-immunofluorescence staining

For the double-immunofluorescence staining, brain slices were incubated with mouse monoclonal anti-PiT-2 Ab (1:100, Abnova) and rabbit polyclonal Ab against β-tubulin III (1:100, Covance, Emeryville, CA, USA) as a marker of neurons, calbindin D-28K (1:200, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) as a marker of both medium spiny neurons in the stratum and Purkinje cells in the cerebellum (Bennett and Bolam, 1993; Côté et al., 1991), TH (1:1000, Chemicon, Temecula, CA, USA) as a marker of dopaminergic neurons, GFAP (1:200, DAKO, Denmark) as a marker of astrocytes, vWF as a marker of endothelial cells, (1:200, Chemicon), iba1 as a marker of microglia (1:200, Wako Pure Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan), or CNPase as a marker of oligodendrocytes, (1:500, Sigma). The sections of the brain were also incubated with rabbit polyclonal anti-PiT-2 Ab (1:25; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and MAP-2 (1:500, Sigma) as a marker of neuronal dendrites, and MAP-2 and synaptophysin (1:5,000, Millipore, Temecula, CA, USA) as a marker of nerve terminals, respectively. The primary Abs were detected using anti-rabbit conjugated with Alexa 546 and anti-mouse

conjugated with Alexa 488 (1:200, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). For nuclear staining, Topro3 was used (Invitrogen). Fluorescence was observed using a laser scanning confocal microscope (LSM700, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

4.6. Statistical evaluation

Data are given as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). The significance of differences was determined by an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Further statistical analysis for post hoc comparisons was performed using the Bonferroni/Dunn test (SigmaPlot 11, Systat Software, San Jose, CA, USA).

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Evaluation of *SLC20A2* mutations that cause idiopathic basal ganglia calcification in Japan

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ABSTRACT

Objective: To investigate the clinical, genetic, and neuroradiologic presentations of idiopathic basal ganglia calcification (IBGC) in a nationwide study in Japan.

Methods: We documented clinical and neuroimaging data of a total of 69 subjects including 23 subjects from 10 families and 46 subjects in sporadic cases of IBGC in Japan. Mutational analysis of *SLC20A2* was performed.

Results: Six new mutations in *SLC20A2* were found in patients with IBGC: 4 missense mutations, 1 nonsense mutation, and 1 frameshift mutation. Four of them were familial cases and 2 were sporadic cases in our survey. The frequency of families with mutations in *SLC20A2* in Japan was 50%, which was as high as in a previous report on other regions. The clinical features varied widely among the patients with *SLC20A2* mutations. However, 2 distinct families have the same mutation of S637R in *SLC20A2* and they have similar characteristics in the clinical course, symptoms, neurologic findings, and neuroimaging. In our study, all the patients with *SLC20A2* mutations showed calcification. In familial cases, there were symptomatic and asymptomatic patients in the same family.

Conclusion: *SLC20A2* mutations are a major cause of familial IBGC in Japan. The members in the families with the same mutation had similar patterns of calcification in the brain and the affected members showed similar clinical manifestations. *Neurology*® 2014;82:705-712

GLOSSARY

DNTC = diffuse neurofibrillary tangles with calcification; **FIBGC** = familial idiopathic basal ganglia calcification; **IBGC** = idiopathic basal ganglia calcification; **MMSE** = Mini-Mental State Examination; **PDGF** = platelet-derived growth factor; **PDGFRB** = platelet-derived growth factor receptor- β ; **Pi** = inorganic phosphate; **PIB** = Pittsburgh compound B; **PIT** = type III sodium-dependent phosphate transporter; **PKC** = paroxysmal kinesigenic choreoathetosis.

Idiopathic basal ganglia calcification (IBGC), also known as Fahr disease, is thought to be a rare neuropsychiatric disorder characterized by symmetrical calcification in the basal ganglia and other brain regions. Clinical manifestations range widely from asymptomatic to variable symptoms including headaches, psychosis, and dementia.¹ The diagnosis of IBGC generally relies on the visualization of bilateral calcification mainly in the basal ganglia by neuroimaging and the absence of metabolic, infectious, toxic, or traumatic causes.^{2,3}

The mode of inheritance of familial IBGC (FIBGC) has been thought to be autosomal dominant and, to date, 4 responsible chromosomal regions have been identified, namely 14q (IBGC1), 2q37 (IBGC2), 8p11.21 (IBGC3), and 5q32 (IBGC4).³⁻¹⁴ The causative gene at the IBGC3 locus was identified as *SLC20A2* encoding type III sodium-dependent phosphate transporter 2 (PIT-2). Screening of a large series of patients with IBGC revealed that mutations in *SLC20A2* are a major cause of FIBGC¹⁰; moreover, other mutations in *SLC20A2* have recently been reported in China and Brazil.¹¹⁻¹³ The mutations of *PDGFRB* encoding platelet-derived growth factor

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(PDGF) receptor- β (PDGFRB) and *PDGFB* have recently been reported to cause calcification in the brain.^{14,15}

We have collected clinical information of patients with IBGC in a nationwide survey in Japan. Here, on the basis of a mutational analysis of *SLC20A2*, we aim to establish the molecular epidemiology of IBGC3 and evaluate clinically and genetically *SLC20A2* mutations in Japan.

METHODS Subjects and samples. We collected clinical information on patients with IBGC in a nationwide study. The criteria for the selection of patients in the initial survey were as follows: 1) conspicuous calcification is observed in the basal ganglia and/or dentate nucleus by CT scan; 2) calcification is bilateral and symmetrical; and 3) idiopathic (absence of biochemical abnormalities, and an infectious, toxic, or traumatic cause).^{2,3} Neurologists enrolled patients in the survey. They examined the medical charts and performed the neurologic examinations again if necessary. The survey was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Gifu University Graduate School of Medicine. During the survey, some patients were found to have hypoparathyroidism, Aicardi-Goutières syndrome, and Cockayne syndrome, and these patients were excluded. For the genetic study, a total of 69 subjects from 41 hospitals provided written informed consent and were enrolled in the project. Of these patients, 46 came from families with a single affected member, and the other 23 came from 10 families with multiple affected members. We defined the former as sporadic patients and the latter as familial patients. The patients' mean age \pm SD was 41.3 \pm 23.6 years at registration. The patients comprised 32 males and 37 females.

Standard protocol approvals, registrations, and patient consents. All experiments on human DNA were approved by the Ethics Committees of both Gifu University and the University of Tokyo. After written informed consent was obtained, peripheral blood samples were collected.

Mutational analysis. Genomic DNA was extracted from the whole blood samples. *SLC20A2* analysis was performed by Sanger sequencing of all coding regions, as described in detail in e-Methods and table e-1, A and B, on the *Neurology*[®] Web site at www.

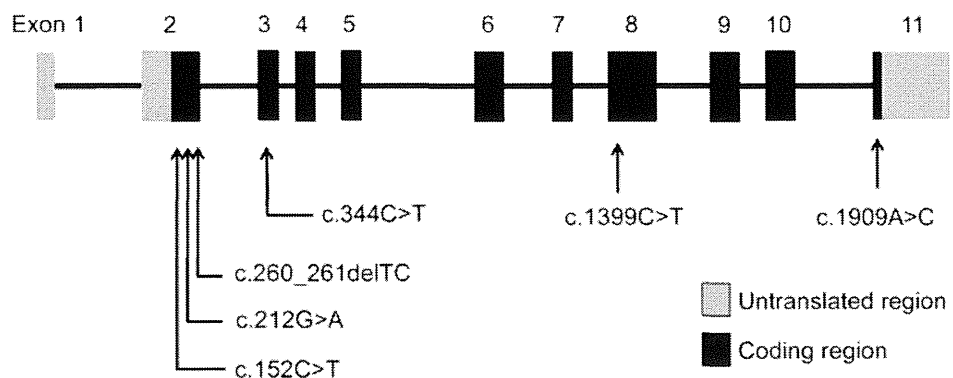
neurology.org. The pathologic potential of the identified variants was predicted using PolyPhen-2 (<http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph/>).¹⁶

RESULTS Mutational analysis. We screened a total of 69 subjects including 23 subjects from 10 families in which multiple affected subjects were observed and 46 subjects in sporadic cases, all of whom were Japanese. Six new mutations in *SLC20A2* were found: 4 missense mutations, 1 nonsense mutation, and 1 frameshift mutation (figure 1). Electropherograms showed the individual heterozygous mutations (figure e-1). None of them were present in an in-house exome sequencing data set (358 Japanese control subjects), dbSNP 137 (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/snp/), or the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute "Grand Opportunity" Exome Sequencing Project (ESP6500SI-V2). In silico analysis predicted deleterious consequences, as determined from the residue changes in figures 1 and e-1. When confined to the IBGC patients, 5 of the 10 families (50.0%) showed mutations in *SLC20A2*. In contrast, 2 of the 46 patients (4.3%) with sporadic IBGC carried mutations in *SLC20A2* in this study.

Clinical manifestations. The clinical manifestations are summarized in table 1. A positive family history of IBGC was present in 5 families. Families 1 and 2 had the same mutation.

Familial cases. Case 1 (in family 1). The proband in family 1 was a 64-year-old woman who had dysarthria and gait disturbance for 5 years. She showed no dementia. Her neurologic examination revealed dysarthria, small steppage gait, rigidity at bilateral wrist joints, bradykinesia, and a pyramidal sign. Her CT images revealed severe calcification at the bilateral globus pallidus, caudate nuclei, thalamus, subcortical white matter, and dentate nuclei (figure 2C). Her son's CT showed similar brain calcification (figure 2D), although he was clinically asymptomatic. His DNA study revealed the

Figure 1 Schematic representation of causative mutations in *SLC20A2* in idiopathic basal ganglia calcification



Six new causative mutations in exon 2 (c.152C>T, c.212 G>A, c.260_261delTC), exon 3 (c.344C>T), exon 8 (c.1399C>T), and exon 11 (c.1909A>C) were found in this study.

Table 1 Clinical features of 6 individuals (probands) with *SLC20A2* mutations

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7
Mutation	c.1909A>C	c.1909A>C	c.344C>T	c.212G>A	c.1399C>T	c.152C>T	c.260,261delTC
	S637R	S637R	T115M	R71H	R467X	A51V	L87Hfs*6
Zygoty	Hetero	Hetero	Hetero	Hetero	Hetero	Hetero	Hetero
Exon	11	11	3	2	8	2	2
Proband information							
Age at detection of calcification, y	60	51	60	73	23	71	74
Age at onset, y	58	50	60	71	15	71	57
Onset symptom	Dysarthria	Dysarthria	Dementia	Parkinsonism	PKC	Dementia	Athetosis
Neurologic findings							
Cognitive impairment (MMSE)	27	24	20	16	30	22	22
Pyramidal sign	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
Extrapyramidal sign	+	+	-	+	-	-	+
Family information (except the proband)							
No. of other individuals with calcification	1	2	5	1	1	0 ^a	0 ^a
No. of other individuals with confirmed mutations	1	NE	5	NE	1	NA	NA
No. of other symptomatic individuals	0	0	2	0	0	NA	NA
Other symptoms (no.) in the family	—	—	Mental disorder (1), alcoholism (1)	—	—	NA	NA

Abbreviations: MMSE = Mini-Mental State Examination; NA = not applicable; NE = not examined; PKC = paroxysmal kinesigenic choreoathetosis.

^aBecause there was no other family member who had any neurologic symptoms, brain CT screening of other family members was not performed.

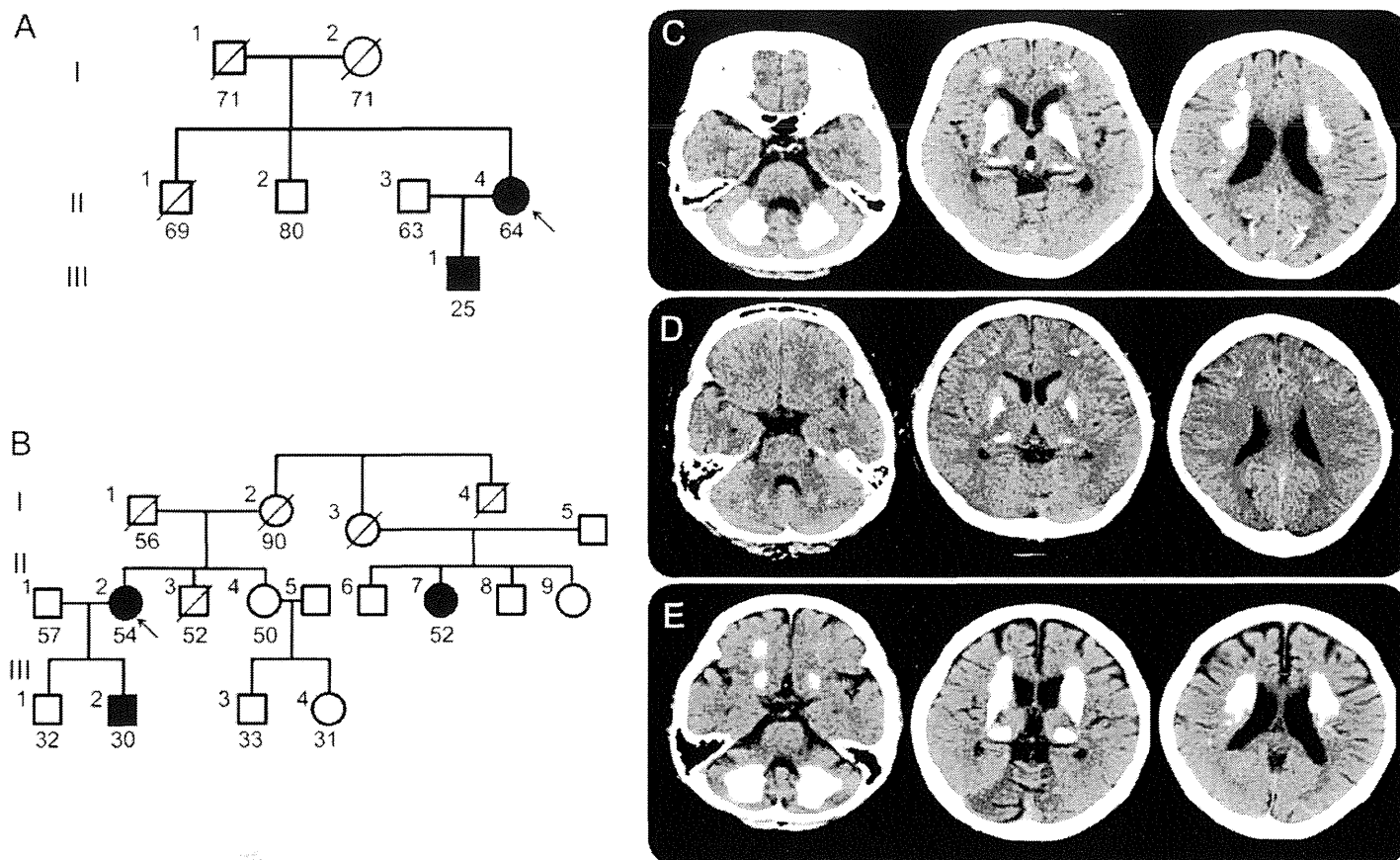
same mutation in exon 11 that had been found in his mother.

Case 2 (in family 2). The proband in family 2 was a 54-year-old woman who had dysarthria and gait disturbance for 4 years. She showed mild mental deterioration in Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) score of 24 points, frontal signs, dysarthria, mild parkinsonism (rigidity of bilateral wrist joints and bradykinesia), adiadochokinesis, spasticity, and small steppage gait. Her CT images revealed severe calcification at the bilateral globus pallidus, caudate nuclei, thalamus, subcortical white matter, and dentate nuclei (figure 2E). Although her son and cousin also showed calcification in CT images, they were asymptomatic. Her DNA analysis revealed the same mutation as that in family 1.

Case 3 and other symptomatic individuals (in family 3). The proband was a 69-year-old woman (II-1 in the pedigree in figure 3). She was admitted to a hospital at the age of 65 because of forgetfulness since the age of 60 years. Her MMSE score was 20, which indicated a possibility of dementia (MMSE score below 22). Decreased blood flow was detected in the bilateral basal ganglia and thalamus and the right frontal lobe in particular by SPECT. She had a positive family history of brain calcification, as shown in figure 3A. The initial clinical diagnosis had been diffuse neurofibrillary tangles with calcification (DNTC),¹⁷

although to our knowledge familial cases of DNTC have not been reported. Her son had psychological disorders including violent behavior; unfortunately, no brain CT had yet been performed on him. In the patients in family 3, the degree of calcification was mild compared with that observed in the other families (figure 3, B–G). Her brother with calcification in the brain (II-7) had a mental disorder and another (II-8) presented with alcoholism. The 3 other relatives with calcification were asymptomatic (II-5, II-9, and III-3). The symptomatic patients (II-1, II-7, and II-8) showed more apparent brain atrophy than the others (figure 3, B, D, and E, respectively). The individuals with calcification on the CT images (II-1, II-5, II-7, II-8, II-9, and III-3) had the same mutation in exon 3 in *SLC20A2*. However, the individuals with no calcification (III-2, III-5, and IV-1) revealed no mutation in *SLC20A2*. In summary, 6 patients had calcification among the 10 individuals examined by CT scan in family 3 and all of them carrying the *SLC20A2* mutation exhibited similar calcification on CT images. However, persons without the mutation did not show calcification.

Case 4 (in family 4). Family 4 had a mutation in exon 2. The proband developed clumsiness of her hands and gait unsteadiness at the age of 71 years, and she was diagnosed as having Parkinson disease. Visual



A) Family tree of family 1. (B) Family tree of family 2. The arrow indicates the index subject. Filled symbols represent patients affected by brain calcification. We show the ages of persons under symbols in the family tree for those we could obtain. (C) CT images of proband (II-4 in pedigree of family 1, part A). (D) CT images of the proband's son (III-1 in pedigree of family 1, part A). (E) CT images of the proband (II-2 in pedigree of family 2, part B). All have mutation of S637R.

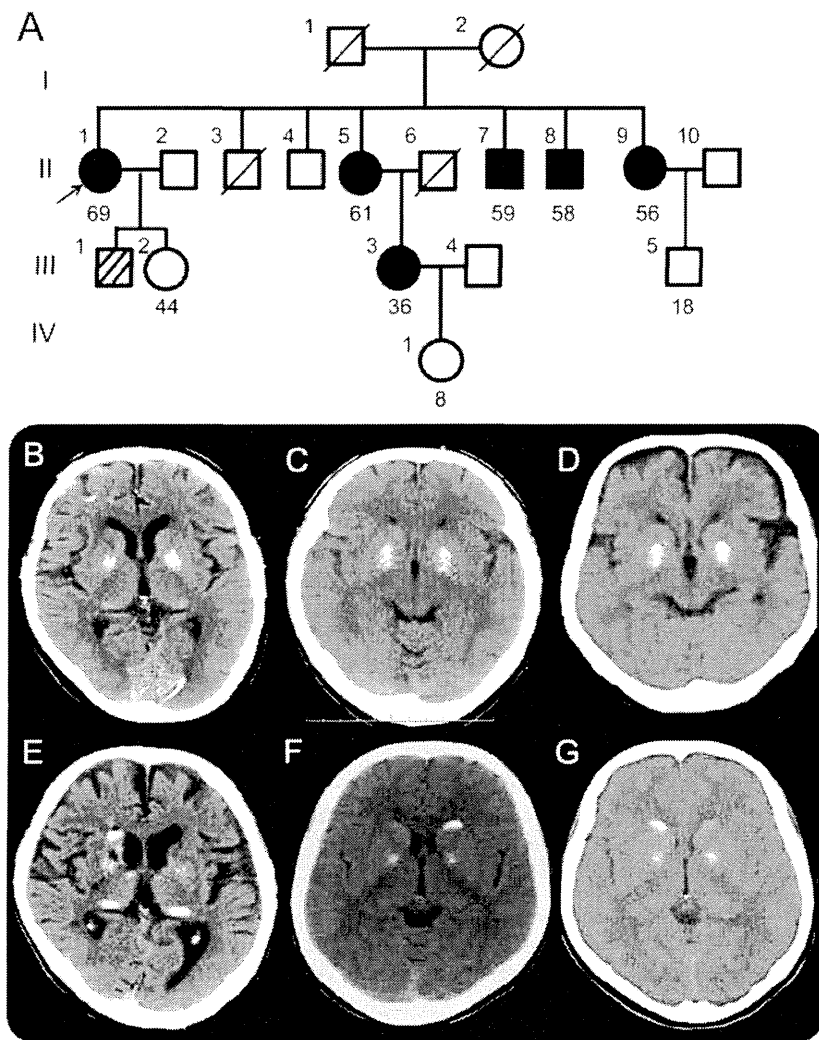
hallucinations started with the initiation of medication. She showed parkinsonism (rigidity, bradykinesia, and postural instability), which responded to levodopa. Her MMSE score was 16. Her brain CT images revealed calcification at the globus pallidus, caudate nuclei, and dentate nuclei, and her daughter, who was asymptomatic, also had intracranial calcification (figure e-2C). Brain CT was not performed in her other children. Her SPECT images showed decreased perfusion in the bilateral frontal, temporal, and parietal regions of the brain. She died of pneumonia at the age of 79. Neuropathologic examination revealed neuronal loss and Lewy bodies in the substantia nigra, locus ceruleus, amygdala, and parahippocampal gyrus indicative of Parkinson disease, and prominent deposition of calcium in the parenchyma and the wall of arteries in the globus pallidum and dentate nuclei compatible with the pathologic findings of IBGC.

Case 5 (in family 5). The proband was a 24-year-old man who had paroxysmal kinesigenic choreoathetosis (PKC). His laboratory data were normal except for CT findings. He presented with an attack of PKC after exercise and his symptom responded well to carbamazepine. His CT images revealed calcification at

the globus pallidus, thalamus, subcortical white matter, and dentate nuclei (figure e-2B [A]). We had an opportunity to examine his parents, who had no symptoms or signs. Mutational analysis of *SLC20A2* of his parents with their informed consent revealed the same mutation in exon 8 in his mother as he had. Brain CT scan of his mother confirmed calcification at the globus pallidus, subcortical white matter, and dentate nuclei.

Sporadic cases. Case 6. The patient had a mutation in exon 2. She was a 72-year-old woman who noticed forgetfulness at the age of 71. She had no motor deficits. Her MMSE score was 22, and her score on the revised Hasegawa Dementia Scale was 24. Her Frontal Assessment Battery score at bedside was 5, indicating a frontal lobe deficit (cutoff score, 11/12). The index scores of the revised Wechsler Memory Scale were as follows: attention and concentration, 86; verbal memory, 89; general memory, 85; attention/concentration, 71; and delayed recall, 75. Her brain CT images revealed calcification at the globus pallidus, caudate nuclei, thalamus, subcortical and periventricular white matter, and dentate nuclei (figure e-2B [B]). Her SPECT images showed decreased perfusion in the left frontal,

Figure 3 Pedigree and CT images of family 3



(A) Pedigree of family 3. The arrow indicates the index subject. Filled symbols represent patients affected by brain calcification. We show the ages of persons under symbols in the family tree for those we could obtain. The striped symbol represents a symptomatic patient, although his CT image and DNA sample were not available for the study. (B) CT image of the proband (II-1 in pedigree of family 3). (C) CT image of asymptomatic II-5. (D) CT image of symptomatic II-7. (E) CT image of symptomatic II-8. (F) CT image of asymptomatic II-9. (G) CT image of asymptomatic III-3. All have mutation of T115M.

temporal, and parietal regions of the cerebrum and bilateral cerebellum. [^{11}C] Pittsburgh compound B (PiB) retention was not observed by [^{11}C]PiB PET. There were no other family members presenting with similar neurologic symptoms. CT scan was not performed for other individuals in the family.

Case 7. The patient was a 78-year-old man who had a frameshift in exon 2. Involuntary movement of the left thumb and index finger like “pill-rolling” began in his sixth decade. His family first noticed memory impairment at the age of 75. Gait disturbance appeared at the age of 77 and oral dyskinesia and left shoulder shrugging appeared at the age of 78. His scores on the MMSE and Frontal Assessment Battery were 22 and 10, respectively. His brain CT images showed calcification at the globus pallidus, thalamus,

subcortical and periventricular white matter, and dentate nuclei (figure e-2B [C]). His SPECT images showed decreased perfusion in the bilateral (predominantly in the left) frontal and temporal regions of the cerebrum and bilateral cerebellum. [^{11}C]PiB retention was not observed by [^{11}C]PiB PET, which was performed at the age of 81. There were no other family members presenting with similar neurologic symptoms. CT scan was not performed for other individuals in the family.

DISCUSSION We have obtained clinical information of 161 patients with brain calcification in a nationwide study. We discovered that 3 patients had hypoparathyroidism, Aicardi-Goutières syndrome, and Cockayne syndrome during the survey. CT images revealed varying degrees of calcification, from marked calcification in the basal ganglia to patchy calcification in various regions, suggesting diversity in the etiologies. Some patients were incidentally found to have calcification by CT performed for head injury caused by accidents. Because our previous survey revealed a considerable frequency (1%–2%) of patchy calcification in the CT images of all patients in 2 university hospitals in Japan,¹⁸ more asymptomatic IBGC patients with patchy calcification may exist than the number that we had previously assumed to be present in the population in Japan. After the examination by neurologists, we collected 69 DNA samples from patients who met the criteria for IBGC.^{2,3} Symptoms and neurologic findings varied widely from asymptomatic to variable symptoms including headaches, psychosis, and dementia.

In this study, we investigated mutations in *SLC20A2* in 69 patients with IBGC in Japan and identified 4 new mutations in 10 familial cases (the same mutation in 2 families) and 2 other new mutations in 46 sporadic cases. The frequency of families with mutations in *SLC20A2* was 50% (5 of the 10 families), and that of sporadic patients was 4.3% (2 of the 46 patients). The frequency of the mutations in *SLC20A2* in FIBGC in Japan was as high as in other countries in a previous report.¹⁰ Case 5 indicates that it is difficult to reliably determine sporadic cases without brain CT scans and genetic studies of all members in the family.

The mutations in our study existed in exons 2, 3, 8, and 11. One of these mutations (R467X) in exon 8 resulted in a substitution to a TGA stop codon, and the other (c.260_261delTC) in exon 2 was a frameshift. None of the mutations were reported previously, indicating heterogeneities of the mutations in *SLC20A2*. Taken together with other reports, causative mutations identified in *SLC20A2* include 6 mutations in exon 2, 1 in exon 3, 3 in exon 4, 1 in exon 5, 1 in exon 7, 10 in exon 8, 2 in exon 9, 4 in exon 10, and 4 in exon 11.^{9–12} It does not seem that there

are mutation hot spots in *SLC20A2*. The in silico analysis using PolyPhen-2 for the missense mutations predicted all to be likely damaging, as determined from the residue changes. We drew the structure model of the PiT-2 protein using the TOPO2 software (<http://www.sacs.ucsf.edu/TOPO/top.html>). The schematic structure of the PiT-2 protein with the mutations is shown in figure 4.

Although the clinical features varied widely among the families with IBGC with *SLC20A2* mutations, the patients in families 1 and 2 with the same *SLC20A2* mutation exhibited similar clinical manifestations including dysarthria, mild cognitive decline, pyramidal signs, and extrapyramidal signs as well as similar ages at detection of calcification and onset of symptoms. Of note, the CT images among the affected individuals in the 2 families are similar (figure 2). In family 3, in contrast, 3 symptomatic patients presented with dementia, psychological disorder, and alcoholism, accompanied with brain atrophy in CT images. None of them showed movement disorders such as those in families 1 and 2.

Although mutational analysis and CT scan were not performed in other familial members of cases 6 and 7, concordance of the presence of mutations of *SLC20A2* and brain calcification were confirmed in 15 individuals, and we did not observe any individuals who carried the mutation and did not show brain calcification. These observations strongly support a high penetrance of the *SLC20A2* mutations regarding brain calcification.

Correlations of genotypes and neurologic phenotypes, however, have been controversial. *SLC20A2* mutations in patients with FIBGC have been

described to show variability in clinical manifestations among the families. In the present study, the 2 affected individuals in families 1 and 2, who carried the same mutation, exhibited quite similar neurologic manifestations and clinical courses, suggesting a genotype-phenotype correlation of the S637R mutation. Of note, 2 individuals aged 56 and 61 years in family 3 did not exhibit any neurologic manifestations despite carrying the mutation and having brain calcification, indicating that penetrance regarding the neurologic manifestations is incomplete.

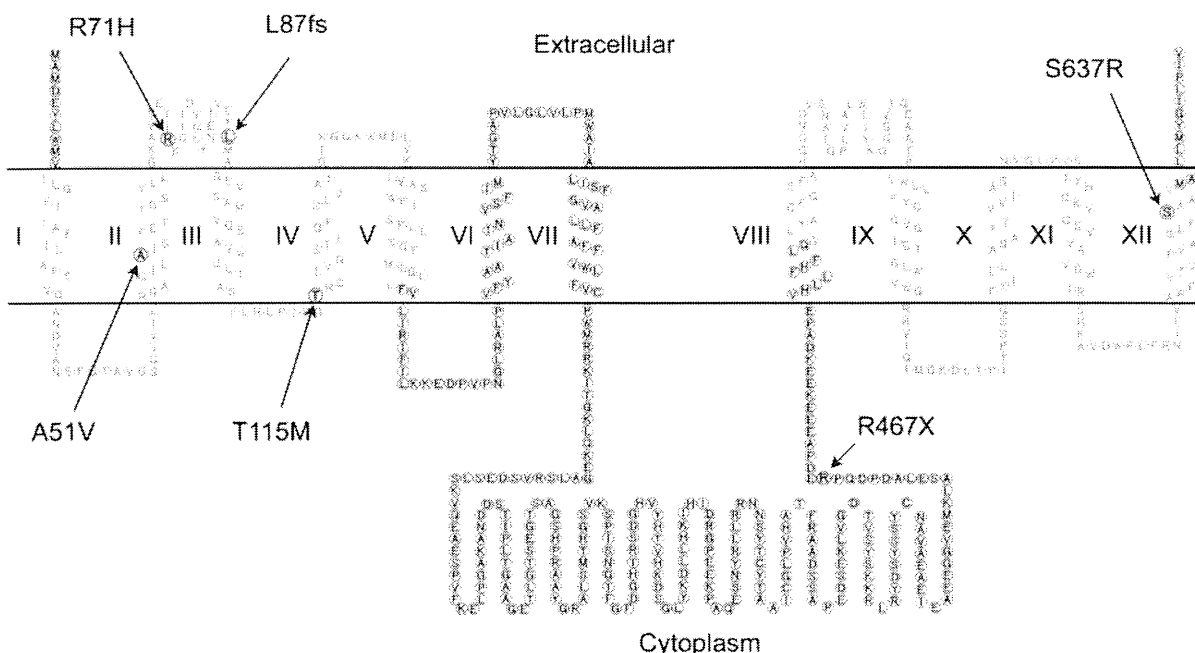
In case 4, interestingly, the proband showed pathologic findings of both IBGC and Parkinson disease. Because Parkinson disease is a common disorder in aged people, there remains a possibility that the presence of IBGC and Parkinson disease is coincidental.

Case 5 had a mutation that leads to a premature stop codon, making an incomplete structure of PiT-2. His neurologic symptom was PKC controllable by carbamazepine. Intriguingly, several patients with IBGC have been reported to present with PKC or paroxysmal nonkinesigenic dyskinesia.^{19,20} For these cases of PKC or paroxysmal nonkinesigenic dyskinesia, mutational analyses of not only *SLC20A2* but also *PRRT2* and MRI will be indispensable.^{21,22}

Herein, we have reported 5 cases of FIBGC and 2 cases of IBGC with *SLC20A2* mutations in Japan. We could not find any characteristic features of Japanese patients, although we had discovered that each case has a new mutation in *SLC20A2*, respectively.

The mechanisms of calcification and cell damage remain to be elucidated. Despite that the expression of PiT-2 encoded by *SLC20A2* is distributed widely in the human body,²³ mutations in *SLC20A2* cause

Figure 4 Schematic structure of PiT-2 (type III sodium-dependent phosphate transporter) with the mutations



calcification only in the brain. Mutations in *SLC34A2* have been reported to cause pulmonary alveolar micro-lithiasis.²⁴ Because Npt2b encoded by *SLC34A2* is the only phosphate transporter that is highly expressed in the lungs,²⁵ the mutations in *SLC34A2* are compatible with the lesion of the alveolar type II cells in the lungs.²⁴ Because the limitation of calcification to the brain cannot be explained by only the mutation in *SLC20A2* followed by abnormalities of inorganic phosphate (Pi) transport via PiT-2, there might be some other genes responsible for calcification in the brain, or the mutations in *SLC20A2* may take some toxic gain of function. The dysfunction of Pi transport can explain the accumulation of various metals in regions of the brain and the abnormal distribution of metals, which we observed in CSF²⁶ and hair in the patients with IBGC.²⁷ We have recently shown that PiT-2 immunopositivity was expressed predominantly in neurons, astrocytes, and vascular endothelial cells in the mouse brain.²⁸ PDGF-B is expressed in endothelial cells and neurons.²⁹ PDGF-B homodimer (PDGF-BB) enhanced the expression of PiT-1 mRNA encoded by *SLC20A1* in human aortic smooth muscle cells.³⁰ The hypomorph of PDGF-B in mice has recently been revealed to cause brain calcification through pericyte and blood-brain barrier impairment.¹⁵ Recently, simple knockout of *SLC20A2* has also been shown to lead to calcification in the mouse brain.³¹ PiT-2, PDGF, and as yet undetermined other molecules are considered to have pivotal roles in blood vessel-associated calcification and neuronal death in patients with IBGC. Elucidation of the molecular basis underlying IBGC will contribute to the development of therapeutic measures for patients with calcification in the brain.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Principal investigator: Isao Hozumi. Study supervision: Shoji Tsuji, Gen Sobue, Takashi Inuzuka, and Kortaro Tanaka. Manuscript draft preparation: Megumi Yamada and Masaki Tanaka. Acquisition and collection of data: Seiju Kobayashi, Yoshiharu Taguchi, Shutaro Takashima, Tetsuo Touge, Hiroyuki Hatsuta, and Shigeo Murayama. Analysis and interpretation: Megumi Yamada, Masaki Tanaka, Mari Takagi, Yuichi Hayashi, Masayuki Kaneko, Naoki Atsuta, Nobuyuki Shimozawa, Hiroyuki Ishiura, and Jun Mitsui.

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