Progressive polyuria without vasopressin neuron loss in a mouse model for familial neurohypophysial diabetes insipidus

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Hereditary disease; arginine vasopressin; endoplasmic reticulum; inclusion bodies

ARGININE VASOPRESSIN (AVP), an antidiuretic hormone, is synthesized in the magnocellular neurons of the supraoptic nucleus (SON) and paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the hypothalamus (4). The AVP gene consisting of three exons encodes the signal peptide, AVP, neurophysin II (NPII), and glycoprotein (42). After translation of the mRNA, the preproAVP is converted to proAVP by removal of its signal peptide within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) as well as in the nucleus of AVP neurons in 1-mo-old heterozygous mice. At 12 mo, dilated ER aggregates were found in the nucleus. Analyses with in situ hybridization revealed that expression of AVP mRNA was significantly decreased in the SON in the heterozygous mice compared with that in wild-type mice. Counting cells expressing AVP mRNA in the SON indicated that polyuria had progressed substantially in the absence of neuronal loss. These data suggest that cell death is not the primary cause of polyuria in FNDI. Here we analyzed knockin mice expressing mutant NPII that causes FNDI in humans. The heterozygous mice manifested progressive polyuria as do patients with FNDI. Immunohistochemical analyses revealed that inclusion bodies that were not immunostained with antibodies for mutant NPII, normal NPII, or AVP were present in the AVP cells in the supraoptic nucleus (SON), and that the size of inclusion bodies gradually increased in parallel with the increases in urinal volume. Electron microscopic analyses showed that aggregates existed in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) as well as in the nucleus of AVP neurons in 1-mo-old heterozygous mice. At 12 mo, dilated ER filled with aggregates occupied the cytoplasm of AVP cells, while few aggregates were found in the nucleus. Analyses with in situ hybridization revealed that expression of AVP mRNA was significantly decreased in the SON in the heterozygous mice compared with that in wild-type mice. Counting cells expressing AVP mRNA in the SON indicated that polyuria had progressed substantially in the absence of neuronal loss. These data suggest that cell death is not the primary cause of polyuria in FNDI, and that the aggregates accumulated in the ER might be involved in the dysfunction of AVP neurons that lead to the progressive polyuria.

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Familial neurohypophysial diabetes insipidus (FNDI) is a rare autosomal dominant disorder that manifests itself in early childhood due to a progressive reduction in AVP release (11). Although the carriers are normal at birth, the symptoms appear several months or years later, despite the existence of one normal allele. While >50 point mutations in FNDI have been reported in the AVP gene so far, most mutations exist in the domain of NPII, which functions as a carrier protein of AVP from the hypothalamus to the pituitary with axonal transport (11).

The mechanisms underlying progressive polyuria in FNDI have been explored both in cell lines (10, 18, 23–25) and animal models (9, 15, 40, 44). Since mutant AVP precursors reportedly aggregate within the ER (12, 13, 23, 25, 31, 32, 44, 45), one plausible hypothesis is that the aggregated mutant proteins are toxic and cause a progressive loss of AVP neurons (17, 23, 25, 30, 40). Russell et al. (40) demonstrated that the number of immunoreactive cells for normal NPII was progressively diminished in knockin mice in which a Cys residue at position 98 of AVP gene was replaced with a stop codon (Cys98stop; previously called Cys67stop), and suggested that cell death is the primary cause of progressive polyuria in FNDI. It should be noted, however, that decreases in the number of immunoreactive cells could also be caused by mechanisms other than neuronal loss, such as decreases in protein expression and misfolding of the protein.

To better understand the mechanisms of progressive polyuria in FNDI, we have made and analyzed knockin mice of a mutation of NPII (Cys98stop), which causes FNDI in humans in this study. Our data demonstrated that, although the loss (29), of AVP neurons was finally induced after an accumulation of aggregates in the ER, polyuria progressed substantially even in the absence of cell death.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

GENERATION OF KNOCKIN MICE OF MUTANT NPII. Targeting vectors were constructed with an 8.4-kb fragment of 129/SvJ mouse genomic DNA containing AVP and oxytocin regions (kindly provided by Dr. Harold Gainer, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). The PGK-neomycin resistance gene (PGK-neo) flanked by two loxP sequences was inserted into the second intron, and the Cys98stop nonsense mutation (TGC to TGA) was introduced by PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis. Negative selection was achieved through the diphtheria toxin A gene (DT-A) at the 5′ end of the construct. A novel Hinc-II site was also created at the second intron to distinguish the mutant gene (Fig. 1A). The targeting vector was linearized and electroporated into 129/SvJ R1
embryonic stem (ES) cells. After the homologous recombination, mutant AVP gene knockin ES cell lines were established by transiently introducing the Cre-expressed vector into ES cell lines, followed by removing the PGK-neomycin selection marker. Properly targeted ES cells were microinjected into C57BL/6J mouse blastocysts to generate chimeric mice. Male chimeras were then mated with female C57BL/6J mice (Chubu Science Materials, Nagoya, Japan) to obtain F1 offspring. F2 mice were obtained by intercrossing the F1 heterozygotes. All mice used in the study were backcrossed at least three generations into the C57BL/6J background. Mice were geno-

![Diagram](image_url)
typed using genomic DNA purified from tail fragments, and all genotype mice were housed three or four per plastic cage under controlled conditions (23.0 ± 0.5°C; lights on 0900–2100). All procedures were performed in accordance with the institutional guidelines for animal care at Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine and were approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee.

Measurements of urine volume and water intake. Mice were housed in metabolic cages, and urine volume and water intake were measured. Urine osmolality was measured by an osmometer (Advanced Medicine and were approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee. Procedures were performed in accordance with the institutional guidelines for animal care at Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine and were approved by the Animal Experimentation Committee.

Operation of ovariectomy and estrogen substitution. In separate experiments, female heterozygous mice were divided into three groups: those sham-operated (sham), those ovariectomized (OVX), and those OVX and given estrogen (OVX+E2). E2 replacement was performed by subcutaneously implanting a pellet containing 0.18 mg 17β-estradiol which is continuously released for 90 days (Innovative Research of America, Sarasota, FL). The operation was performed at the age of 1 mo, and changes in urine volume and urine osmolality were compared at the age of 3 mo.

Brain collection for immunohistochemistry and in situ hybridization. Mice were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (50 mg/kg, Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL) and transcardially perfused with heparinized saline followed by a cold fixative containing 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 mol/l phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). After fixation, brains were removed and immersed in the same fixative for 3 h at 4°C. The brains were kept in PBS containing 20% sucrose at 4°C for cryoprotection. They were embedded in Tissue-Tek (Sakura Finetechnical, Tokyo, Japan) and stored at −80°C until sectioning. Brains were cut at 14 μm on a cryostat at −20°C, thaw-mounted on Superfrost Plus microscope slides (Matsunami, Tokyo, Japan), and stored at −80°C until either in situ hybridization or immunohistochemistry.

Extraction and measurement of pituitary AVP. Pituitary glands were removed immediately after death and then kept in acetonitrile at −20°C. Each pituitary gland was homogenized and stirred in 0.1 N HCl at 4°C for 24 h. After centrifugation, the supernatants were diluted and assayed for AVP contents. AVP was measured with a highly sensitive radioimmunoassay kit (AVP-RIA kit, kindly provided by Mitsubishi Kagaku Iatron, Tokyo, Japan). The sensitivity of the assay for AVP was 0.063 pg/tube (0.17 pg/ml), with < 0.01% cross-reactivity with oxytocin (34).

Antibodies. Antibodies for normal NPII (PS41) and AVP (VA-4) were kindly provided by Dr. Harold Gainer. The epitopes of PS41 were reportedly the amino acid positions 75–86 of NPII (2, 3), and VA-4 reacts with normal as well as mutant AVP precursors. The numbers of cells in the lateral tip of the optic chiasma, which were defined as cells in SON and possibly included not only AVP but also oxytocin and glial cells, were also counted. The counting of cells on both sides of SON in each mouse was performed by two observers who were blinded as to whether the slices were wild-type or mutant mice, and the mean values were subject to statistical analyses.

Measurement of number and diameter of aggregates. The number and diameter of the aggregates in the SON were measured using an image analyzing system equipped with a computer-based charge-coupled device camera (model BX51, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Electromicroscopy. Animals were fixed with a mixture of 2% paraformaldehyde and 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 mol/l phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). After fixation, brains were removed and immersed in the same fixative for 3 h at 4°C. Frontal 100-μm sections were cut with a Vibratome (Lancer, Sherwood Medical, St. Louis, MO), and stored in 0.1 mol/l PBS, followed by postfixation with 2% osmium tetroxide in the same buffer. Each section was then dehydrated twice in 50, 70, 90, 95, and 100% ethanol, delipidated in chloroform, and ultrasonicated overnight at 55°C with 2 × 10 counts/min of 35S-labeled probes in 95 μl of hybridization buffer (50% formamide, 200 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM EDTA, 10% dextran sulfate, 250 μg/ml yeast tRNA, 50 mM DTT, and 1× Denhardt’s solution). After incubation, sections were subjected to consecutive washes in 4× standard saline citrate (SSC) for 15 min at room temperature and 50% formamide-250 mM NaCl containing DTT for 15 min at 60°C. After treatment with RNase A (20 μg/ml) for 30 min at 37°C, sections were washed with 2× SSC, 1× SSC, and 0.5× SSC for 5 min each at room temperature, followed by washes with 0.1× SSC to cool at room temperature and with 70% ethanol for 15 s. The slides were dipped in nuclear Kodak NTB2 emulsion (Kodak, Rochester, New York) and exposed for 12–24 h.

Counting cell numbers in SON. To assist cellular localization of the hybridized signals, the emulsion-dipped sections hybridized with AVP mRNA probes were stained with cresyl violet. The best-matched slice at −0.7 mm caudal from the bregma, according to the brain atlas (35), was chosen in each mouse for the analysis. Any neuronal cross sections with grains of more than threefold the background density were considered labeled. The number of cells located within 200 μm of the lateral tip of the optic chiasma, which were defined as cells in SON and possibly included not only AVP but also oxytocin and glial cells, were also counted. The counting of cells on both sides of SON in each mouse was performed by two observers who were blinded as to whether the slices were wild-type or mutant mice, and the mean values were subject to statistical analyses.

Measurement of number and diameter of aggregates. The number and diameter of the aggregates in the SON were measured using an image analyzing system equipped with a computer-based charge-coupled device camera (model BX51, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling assay. The DNA fragmentation characteristic of apoptosis was detected by terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling assay using the ApopTag Plus Peroxidase in situ Apoptosis Detection Kit (Chemicon, Billerica, MA).
Statistical analysis. Statistical significance of the differences between groups was calculated by one-way ANOVA followed by Fisher’s protected least significant difference test. Results are expressed as means ± SE, and differences were considered significant at \( P < 0.05 \).

RESULTS

Genotyping of knockin mice and analysis of NPII expression in SON. Southern blot analyses of the genomic DNA digested with \( Hinc II \) showed a 3.5-kb fragment in wild-type mice, a 2.4-kb fragment corresponding to the replaced gene in homozygous mutant mice, and both fragments in heterozygous mice (Fig. 1, \( A \) and \( B \)). The genotype distribution from the breeding of F2 heterozygous mice was 17 wild-type, 41 heterozygous, and 19 homozygous mutant mice, in agreement with the 1:2:1 Mendelian distribution expected in the absence of prenatal mortality. Although the homozygous mice appeared normal at birth, all of them died within 1 wk.

Immunohistochemical analyses with antibody for mutant NPII at the age of 1 mo for wild-type and heterozygous mice and at the age of 5 days for homozygous mice revealed that mutant protein is expressed in the SON (Fig. 1, \( G \) and \( J \)) as well as in the PVN and suprachiasmatic nuclei (data not shown) in both homozygous and heterozygous mice, but not in wild-type mice (Fig. 1D). Immunohistochemical analyses with antibody for normal NPII (PS41) showed that normal NPII is expressed in the SON (Fig. 1, \( C \) and \( F \)) as well as in the PVN and suprachiasmatic nuclei (data not shown) in both wild-type and heterozygous mice. The analysis also revealed that, while normal NPII is expressed in both the cell bodies and axons in wild-type mice, it is mainly expressed in the cell bodies with diminished axonal staining in heterozygous mice (Fig. 1, \( E \) and \( H \)). It is also confirmed that normal NPII was not expressed in homozygous mice (Fig. 1F). As the skin of homozygous mice appeared dry within a few days after birth, it is suggested that they could not survive probably due to severe dehydration at least among wild-type and heterozygous pups, although it was not possible to measure urine volume at this age. The following experiments were performed with wild-type and heterozygous mice.

Changes in urine volume, water intake, food intake, body weight, urine osmolality, and pituitary AVP content. Urine volume in heterozygous mice significantly increased at 1 mo of age (male: 2.1-fold; female: 2.1-fold the values in wild-type mice, Fig. 2A), and increased progressively until 12 mo (male: 5.9-fold; female: 9.3-fold the values in wild-type mice, Fig. 2A). The increases in urine volume were accompanied by increases in water intake (Fig. 2B). There were no differences in food intake or body weight between wild-type and heterozygous mice in both genders (data not shown). Urine osmolality was significantly reduced at 1 mo in heterozygous compared with wild-type mice, and it progressively declined until 12 mo in both male and female mice (Fig. 2C). Pituitary AVP content was significantly decreased at 1 mo in heterozygous mice compared with wild-type mice, and it also progressively declined until 12 mo (Fig. 2D). Of note, female heterozygous mice showed greater urine volume and water intake, lower urine osmolality, and less pituitary AVP content than their male counterparts at 3, 6, and 12 mo (Fig. 2).

Effects of OVX and E2 substitution on water balance. Urine volume and water intake decreased significantly and urine osmolality rose significantly in the OVX group compared with the sham-operated (sham) group at the age of 3 mo, while E2 substitution reversed the effects of OVX on urine volume and urine osmolality (Fig. 3).

Analysis of AVP cells in SON with immunohistochemistry. Due to the relatively weak staining of cell bodies with PS41 (normal NPII antibody, Fig. 1C) and VA-4 (AVP antibody, data not shown), cell counting with immunohistochemistry in wild-type mice was difficult. While cell counting with mutant NPII antibody was possible in heterozygous mice at 1 mo, it was also difficult at 6 or 12 mo since round inclusions, which were not immunostained with either VA-4, PS41, or mutant NPII antibody, appeared in the SON (Fig. 4, A–F) and PVN (data not shown). These inclusions were not immunostained even after the sections were subjected to microwaving (data not shown).
shown). The inclusion bodies were not detected in the supra-
chiasmatic nuclei (data not shown), indicating that they were
mainly expressed in the magnocellular neurons. Both the number
and size of the inclusions increased with age in male heterozygous
mice (Fig. 4, G and H). On the other hand, while their size
increased with age in the female mice as well (Fig. 4 H), there
were fewer at 12 mo than at 6 mo (Fig. 4 G).

**AVP mRNA expression in SON.** The analysis of cells
expressing AVP mRNA in the SON demonstrated that the num-
ber of AVP cells did not differ between genotypes in male mice
at any time point examined (Fig. 5 A). The histogram showing
the grain numbers per cell in the male mice at 12 mo is
demonstrated in Fig. 5 G. In female mice, however, while the
numbers of AVP cells did not differ between genotypes at 1
and 6 mo, they were significantly diminished at 12 mo in
heterozygous compared with wild-type mice (Fig. 5 B). The
neuronal loss in the SON of 12-mo-old female heterozygous
mice was confirmed by counting the cell numbers stained with
cresyl violet in the SON (wild-type female mice: 234 \pm 9,
heterozygous female mice: 193 \pm 14 cells/SON, \( P < 0.05 \)),
which possibly involve oxytocin and glial cells as well. The
number of AVP mRNA grains per cell was significantly
reduced in heterozygous compared with wild-type mice at all
time points examined (Fig. 5, C–F). The number of grains in
heterozygous mice were \( \sim 50\% \) of the values in the wild-type
mice at 1 and 6 mo, and there were no significant differences
between genders. At 12 mo, however, the percentage of the
grain numbers in the heterozygous mice was significantly
lower in the females (39.3 \( \pm 4.0\% \)) compared with that in the
males (58.1 \( \pm 3.7\% \)).

**Analysis of AVP cells in SON by electron microscopy.** To
create the inclusions in the AVP neurons in heterozygous
mice detected with immunohistochemistry, we performed an
electron microscopy analysis. In 1-mo-old heterozygous mice,
aggregates were present in the ER lumen (Fig. 6, A and B), which were not detected in wild-type mice. Some aggregates were surrounded by multiple membranes in the cytoplasm (Fig. 6C). Of note, aggregates were also found in the nucleus (Fig. 6D) in 36.6 ± 4.6% AVP cells (n = 10, total 44 cells were examined) of 1-mo-old heterozygous mice, when AVP cells were defined by the presence of aggregates in their cell bodies. In contrast, such aggregates were not observed in the SON of wild-type mice (data not shown). In 12-mo-old heterozygous mice, the lumens of ER in the AVP cells were almost entirely occupied by the aggregates (Fig. 6E). In some cells, there were massive aggregates surrounded by multiple membranes (Fig. 6F) that appeared to exist in an enlarged lumen of the ER (Fig. 6G). In others, round-shaped inclusions occupied the cytoplasm (Fig. 6H). In contrast to 1-mo-old mice, aggregates of 12-mo-old mice were found in the nucleus of only 2.6 ± 1.7% AVP cells (n = 8, total 46 cells were examined), and the statistical analysis revealed a significant difference in the ratio between 1-mo-old and 12-mo-old mice.

Cell death. Neither active caspase-3 nor terminal deoxy- nucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labeling-positive neurons were observed in 12-mo-old female heterozygous mice (data not shown). Furthermore, the morphological characteristics of apoptosis, including chromatin condensation or nuclear fragmentation (7), were not detected by the electron microscopy analysis (Fig. 6).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have made and analyzed knockin mice of the mutant NPII that causes FNDI in humans. The heterozygous mice demonstrated progressive polyuria accompanied by
current study, and reported that the loss of AVP neurons in the SON and PVN was the primary cause of progressive polyuria in the mice, based on counting the number of cells immunostained with normal NPII antibody in the SON and PVN. In this study, immunoreactivities for normal NPII, as well as mutant NPII and AVP, also seemed to diminish in the older heterozygous mice, but this was mainly due to the appearance of inclusions that were not immunostained with any antibody. We therefore employed in situ hybridization to count AVP cells in the present study, and clearly demonstrated that the number of AVP cells in the SON did not decrease until the mice showed substantial polyuria. The findings that polyuria progressed in the absence of neuronal loss indicated that cellular dysfunction rather than cell death is the primary cause of the disease. While it remains to be clarified whether such mechanisms are limited to FNDI due to Cys98stop, cellular dysfunction rather than cell death has also been implicated in diseases such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (6, 36), Huntington’s disease (48), and Alzheimer’s disease (21).

In this study, we demonstrated that female heterozygous mice had more apparent phenotypes than males, such as progressive polyuria and time course changes in AVP cell numbers as well as in AVP mRNA grains. As O VX resulted in a decrease in urine output and E2 replacement reversed it in OVX mice, it is suggested that E2 could accelerate the progression of polyuria in female mice. Although the effects of E2 on AVP release seem to depend on the experimental condition (14, 46, 49, 50), such studies have not been performed extensively in mice. Furthermore, while estrogen receptor-β is expressed in the SON in rats and humans (20, 22), it is not in mice, at least under ad libitum water intake conditions (43). Given that E2 could alter the effects of AVP on the renal water retention as well as osmoreceptor function (47), the effects of E2 on the progression of the phenotype in heterozygous mice may not reflect direct action on the AVP neurons. The accelerative effects of E2 on progression of polyuria also suggest that other than genetic factors could affect the phenotype in FNDI. This may explain why the ages of onset vary among patients even with the same mutations in FNDI (39, 41, 45). On the other hand, there are no studies showing the difference in the phenotype between genders in FNDI. This may be explained by the fact that polyuria in humans reportedly appeared before adolescence in most cases (16, 29, 30, 45), with some exceptions (39).

Our data also showed that AVP mRNA expression levels were decreased to ~50% at any time point examined in heterozygous mice compared with those in wild-type mice. Although it was not possible to distinguish normal AVP mRNA from mutant mRNA with in situ hybridization in this study, the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay system, which degrades transcripts containing premature termination codons, might be involved in the mechanism (26). Alternatively, mutant as well as normal AVP mRNA expression might be decreased by other mechanisms. While it is possible to consider decreasing AVP mRNA to be one of the cellular protective mechanisms as mutant AVP precursor accumulation would be decreased, the downregulation would be responsible for depletion of pituitary AVP content as well, which would lead to inability to maintain the required levels of plasma AVP levels in water balance. Further studies are required to clarify the significance of downregulation of AVP gene in FNDI as decreases in urine osmolality and pituitary AVP contents. While such phenotypes in our model are similar to previous studies using rodent models for FNDI (9, 15, 40, 44), our study clarified that 1) there were differences in the phenotype between genders; 2) AVP mRNA levels were decreased in heterozygous mice compared with that in wild-type mice; 3) inclusion bodies, which presumably consist of AVP mutant precursors, increased in the SON in parallel with increases in urine volume; and 4) although neuronal loss in the heterozygous mice was induced over time, polyuria progressed substantially even in the absence of AVP cell death.

In a previous study, Russell et al. (40) also analyzed knockin mice harboring Cys98stop, the same mutation used in the

Fig. 6. Electron microscopic analyses of AVP neurons in SON of heterozygous mice. Representative photographs of male heterozygous mice at 1 mo (A–D) and 12 mo (E–H) are shown. Aggregates were present in ER of 1-mo-old mice (A and B). Some aggregates were surrounded by multiple membranes in cytoplasm (C) or existed in nucleus (D). In 12-mo-old heterozygous mice, lumens of ER in AVP cells were almost entirely occupied with the aggregates (E). In some cells, there were massive aggregates surrounded by multiple membranes (F) that appeared to exist in an enlarged lumen of ER (G). In others, round-shaped inclusions occupied the cytoplasm (H). Higher magnification images of boxed areas in (A and F) are shown in (B and G), respectively. Arrowheads, rough ER having membrane structures studded with ribosomes; arrows, aggregates in the nucleus; Nu, nucleus. Scale bar = 1 μm in A, C–F; and H; 0.2 μm in B and G.
well as the mechanisms by which AVP mRNA expression is decreased.

As mutant AVP precursors were shown to be trapped in the ER in previous studies (12, 13, 23, 25, 31, 32, 44, 45), it is plausible that the aggregates in the ER shown in this study were formed by such precursors. However, the aggregates were not immunostained with antibody for mutant NPII, normal NPII, or AVP even after microwaving. These data suggest that misfolded AVP precursors with the epitopes masked were refractory even to this treatment or that the epitopes were degraded in the aggregates. Our data also demonstrated that the staining of normal NPII in the axons, as well as the pituitary AVP content, drastically decreased in the heterozygous mice; the pituitary AVP content was \(~21\%\) of that in wild-type at 1 mo, and progressively decreased until the 12th mo. These decreases cannot be explained by haploinsufficiency, and suggest that normal AVP precursors were also trapped in the ER, which could be the primary cause of polyuria of FNDI.

Our electron microscopic analysis demonstrated that aggregates existed not only in the ER but also in the nucleus of 1-mo-old heterozygous mice. The fact that such aggregates were not observed in wild-type mice would suggest that the formation of aggregates was related to the production of mutant AVP precursors. We also found multiple membrane structures that surrounded aggregates in the cytoplasm, suggesting preautophagic signs (27). Autophagy is a process that delivers regions of cytosol to lysosomes for degradation and has been implicated in neurodegenerative conditions such as Huntington’s (37, 38) and Alzheimer’s diseases (33, 51). The possible involvement of autophagy in FNDI was also suggested in previous studies in which transgenic rats expressing Cys98stop were analyzed (9, 15, 44). Thus, it is possible that some of the aggregates were sequestered from the ER and degraded in the aggregates. However, the aggregates were not observed in wild-type mice would suggest that the aggregates in the ER finally caused cell death remains to be elucidated.

**Perspectives and Significance**

We showed that polyuria progressed substantially in the absence of AVP neuronal loss in the knockin mice of mutant NPII that causes FNDI in humans, suggesting that cell death is not the primary cause of that disease. The aggregates accumulated in the ER might be involved in the dysfunction of AVP neurons that lead to progressive polyuria in FNDI. Further study of the mechanisms by which the aggregates are formed in the ER is important for the future.

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