

Effect of Age on the Conversion of 25-Hydroxyvitamin D₃ to 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ by Kidney of Rat

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ABSTRACT The decreased absorption of calcium by the small intestine of the adult may reflect changes in vitamin D metabolism with age. The purpose of this study was to compare the capacity of young (1.5 mo of age) and adult (12 mo of age) vitamin D-deficient rats to convert 25-hydroxyvitamin D to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, the physiologically active form of vitamin D. Young rats responded to an oral dose of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ with significantly increased intestinal absorption of calcium and a three-fold increase in the intestinal content of vitamin D-stimulated calcium-binding protein. Adult rats showed no significant increase in these parameters. The conversion of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ was measured in the whole animal by administering a dose of tritiated 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ and determining the appearance of tritiated metabolites in plasma and small intestine. In the adult rat, only $2.1 \pm 0.6\%$ of the plasma radioactivity was in the form of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ after 24 h compared with $20.8 \pm 3.0\%$ in the young. The conversion of tritiated 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ to its products was also measured directly in isolated slices of renal cortex. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ production by adult renal slices was found to be less than one-tenth that of slices from the young. These results indicate that there is a marked decrease in the capacity of the vitamin D-deficient adult rat to convert 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃. This is probably due to the decreased capacity of the adult kidney to 1-hydroxylate 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃. These studies also demonstrate the usefulness of renal slices in measuring changes in the renal conversion of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ in the mammal.

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INTRODUCTION

Several studies have shown that there is a decrease in the intestinal absorption of calcium with age in humans (1-3). The intestinal absorption of calcium is mediated by vitamin D and its metabolites in the young (4). Therefore, changes in calcium absorption with age may reflect changes in vitamin D metabolism with age. To stimulate calcium absorption by the intestine, vitamin D must first be hydroxylated by the liver to form 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25-OH-D).¹ 25-OH-D is further metabolized to either 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (1,25-[OH]₂-D) or 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D (24,25-[OH]₂-D) by the kidney. The 1,25-(OH)₂-D shows the greatest potency in stimulating intestinal absorption of calcium, and it is considered the major hormonal form of the vitamin (5). In young animals, the conversion of 25-OH-D to 1,25-(OH)₂-D by the kidney is enhanced by feeding a low calcium diet or a vitamin D-deficient diet (6).

There is circumstantial evidence that there are changes in vitamin D metabolism with age. It has been shown in humans that serum 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ levels decrease with age (7). The decrease in serum 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ levels is paralleled by a decrease in calcium absorption. In the same study, the serum 25-OH-D₃ levels were found to remain constant with age (7). The mechanism responsible for the decrease in the steady-state level of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ with age is not known. The decrease may be due to decreased 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ production by the kidney or increased 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ catabolism with age.

The first purpose of the present study was to compare the response of the young and adult rat to 25-OH-D₃ in terms of intestinal absorption of calcium. The second purpose of the study was to compare the conver-

¹ *Abbreviations used in this paper:* CaBP, calcium binding protein; 1,25-(OH)₂-D, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D; 24,25-(OH)₂-D, 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D; 25-OH-D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; HPLC, high-pressure liquid chromatography.

sion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ in the mammalian kidney of young and adult rats. The rat was used because the intestinal absorption of calcium (8), the plasma levels of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ (9), and the intestinal levels of the vitamin D-stimulated calcium-binding protein (CaBP) (8, 10) all decrease with age in the rat. The results of these experiments indicated that there was a marked decrease in the intestinal response of the vitamin D-deficient adult rat to 25-OH-D₃. The lack of intestinal response was due in large part to decreased 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ production by the adult rat. This was probably due to the decreased capacity of the adult kidney to convert 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃.

METHODS

Rats and diets. Male F344 rats aged 4 wk (young) or 12 mo (adult) were purchased from Charles River Breeding Laboratories, Wilmington, Mass. Rats were initially fed Purina rodent laboratory chow (Ralston Purina Co., St. Louis, Mo.). Their plasma 25-OH-D₃ levels on this diet were 15.5 ng/ml for the young (average of 11 rats) and 15.6 ng/ml for the adult (average of 9 rats). Plasma 25-OH-D₃ was measured using the technique of Shepard et al. (11). The lower limit of detectability for this assay was 3 ng/ml, and the estimated standard deviation of the assay was 3.1 ng/ml. Rats were made vitamin D-deficient by feeding a vitamin D-deficient diet (Teklad test diet 79093, Teklad Test Diets, Madison, Wis.) containing 0.02% calcium and 0.30% phosphorus for 6 wk. Rats were housed in the dark and allowed diet and deionized, distilled water ad lib. After 6 wk, no 25-OH-D₃ could be detected in the plasma of young or adult rats. Rats on this diet also exhibited low levels of active transport of calcium by the intestine, and they had only small amounts of vitamin D-stimulated CaBP in the intestine. Other studies have also reported residual amounts of CaBP in vitamin D-deficient rats (12, 13).

Measurement of intestinal calcium absorption and CaBP. To test the effect of 25-OH-D₃, vitamin D-deficient rats received 30 ng/g body weight 25-OH-D₃ in propylene glycol via stomach tube. At various times after dose, rats were killed by decapitation, and the intestinal absorption of calcium and the intestinal CaBP content were measured. Active transport of calcium was measured using the everted gut sac technique as described previously (8). In this method, the distribution of ⁴⁵Ca on the inside (serosal) and outside (mucosal) of the everted intestinal sac was measured after 1.5 h of incubation. The ratio of the serosal (S) to mucosal (M) radioactivity was calculated and called the S/M ratio. The CaBP content of the intestinal mucosa was assayed as previously described (8). After incubation, the mucosa was scraped from the everted sac and homogenized in 2 ml homogenizing buffer. The homogenate was centrifuged, and the supernate was assayed for CaBP by single radial immunodiffusion, using specific antisera to rat intestinal CaBP (12). A linear relationship was obtained between the area of the circular immunoprecipitate minus the area of the well and the CaBP concentration (5–37 μg/ml). In this assay, the average interassay variability of identical samples was 12.6%, and the lower limit of detection was 100 ng. Plasma calcium was measured by a fluorometric technique (14), and plasma phosphorus was measured by the method of Fiske and SubbaRow (15).

Measurement of 25-OH-D₃ metabolism in the intact rat. Vitamin D-deficient rats were injected intraperitoneally with tritium-labeled 25-OH-D₃ (25-OH-[26,27-³H]-D₃) purchased

from Amersham Corp. (Arlington Heights, Ill.) or New England Nuclear (Boston, Mass.). Purity of radioactive material was monitored by high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and found to be 98% or greater. Rats were injected with 0.30 μCi/100 g body wt in 0.1 ml ethanol. The specific activity of the tritiated 25-OH-D₃ was adjusted to 9 Ci/mmol using unlabeled 25-OH-D₃ obtained from Dr. J. C. Babcock (Upjohn Co., Kalamazoo, Mich.).

24 h after dosing, blood was drawn from the rats by heart puncture. Preliminary experiments showed that the conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ was maximal at this time in young rats. The 5 cm of the small intestine distal to the pylorus was also removed. The small intestine was everted, the mucosa scraped from the muscle layer and homogenized in 2 ml of saline. Plasma samples and the intestinal homogenate were extracted twice using 3.75 vol of methanol/methylene chloride (2:1, vol/vol) followed by 1.25 vol of methylene chloride to produce a phase separation (11). The combined methylene chloride extracts were evaporated under nitrogen, and the residues were solubilized in 1 ml hexane/chloroform/methanol (9:1:1).

The tritium-labeled vitamin D metabolites were isolated according to the general procedures of Shepard et al. (11). The lipid extracts were chromatographed on a column (0.6 × 12 cm) of Sephadex LH-20 in hexane/chloroform/methanol (9:1:1). The first 10 ml contained tritiated 25-OH-D₃, and the second 14 ml contained the tritiated 24,25-(OH)₂-D₃ and 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃. This second 14-ml fraction was evaporated, redissolved in 0.05 ml of 2-propanol/hexane (1:9), and rechromatographed using HPLC to separate the 24,25-(OH)₂-D₃ from the 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃. The rechromatography took place on a Zorbax-SIL column (E. I. Du Pont de Nemours & Co., Inc., Wilmington, Del.) equilibrated with 2-propanol/hexane (1:9) at a flow rate of 2.6 ml/min. 1-ml fractions were collected and evaporated, and the amount of radioactivity was determined by scintillation counting. Results were expressed as the percentage of radioactivity found in each metabolite compared with the total amount of radioactivity extracted from the sample.

Efficiency of extraction of the tritiated metabolites was measured in separate experiments and was found to be similar for each age group. The recovery of tritiated 25-OH-D₃ from the plasma was 78.4 ± 1.0% in the young and 74.4 ± 0.8% in the adult, and the recovery of tritiated 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ was 76.5 ± 0.6% and 72.7 ± 1.9% in young and adult rats, respectively. Intestinal recovery of 25-OH-D₃ was 81.6 ± 1.4% in young and 77.4 ± 1.7% in adult, and the recovery of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ was 68.5 ± 0.9% and 68.4 ± 1.0%, respectively.

Production of vitamin D metabolites by renal slices. Kidneys were removed from rats anesthetized with diethyl ether, and the kidneys were placed in ice-cold saline. The renal capsules were removed, and slices of cortex were prepared with a Stadie-Riggs microtome. Slices were stored in 30 ml of cold saline before incubation. They were then weighed and incubated in Krebs-Ringer bicarbonate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 1 mg/ml of glucose, 2.5 μM 25-OH-D₃, and tritiated 25-OH-D₃ (0.04–0.08 Ci/mmol). In a typical experiment, 150–250 mg of slices were incubated in 1 ml of buffer with 95% O₂, 5% CO₂ as the gas phase. After 1 h of incubation in a shaking water bath at 37°C, the slices were removed from the buffer and homogenized in 1 ml of deionized, distilled water. The whole homogenate was extracted and analyzed for tritiated vitamin D metabolites using HPLC. Preliminary experiments indicated that the vitamin D metabolites produced by the slices remained in them and were not released into the incubation media. Production of vitamin D metabolites by renal slices was expressed per milligram slice weight per hour. The production of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ by renal cortical slices was

found to be linear with tissue weight between 40–250 mg and with incubation time from 30 to 90 min.

The homogenates of renal slices were extracted twice using methanol/methylene chloride (1:1), and the extracts were prepared for HPLC chromatography by passing them through an LH-20 column (0.6 × 3 cm) equilibrated with hexane/chloroform/methanol (9:1:1). The eluent was evaporated and redissolved in 0.1 ml of the HPLC solvent system of hexane/methanol/methylene chloride (8:1:1). Extracts (0.05 ml) were then chromatographed on a Zorbax-SIL column (0.6 × 25 cm). The flow rate was 1.1 ml/min; and 1-min fractions were collected, evaporated, and assayed for radioactivity using scintillation counting. These extraction and chromatographic procedures resulted in the recovery of 79–84% of the tritiated 25-OH-D₃ and 70–74% of the tritiated 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ present in the original homogenate.

Statistics. The data from these experiments are reported as the mean ± SEM. Statistical analyses were performed using Student's two-tailed *t* test, and a confidence level of 95% or greater was considered significant (16).

RESULTS

The capacity of young and adult vitamin D-deficient rats to increase the active transport of calcium by the intestine and the intestinal content of CaBP in response to an oral dose of 25-OH-D₃ was compared. In the young rat, active transport was significantly elevated over the 0 h control at 12, 24, and 48 h after dosing (Fig. 1). The adult rats showed no significant increase in calcium transport at the same times after an equivalent dose (per gram body weight) of 25-OH-D₃. The intestinal CaBP content of the young rats was increased >threefold by 25-OH-D₃ at 48 h after dose (Fig. 2). However, 25-OH-D₃ produced only a slight increase in CaBP content in the adult after 48 h. In the same experiments, the capacity of 25-OH-D₃ to increase plasma calcium and phosphorus levels was measured. After 12

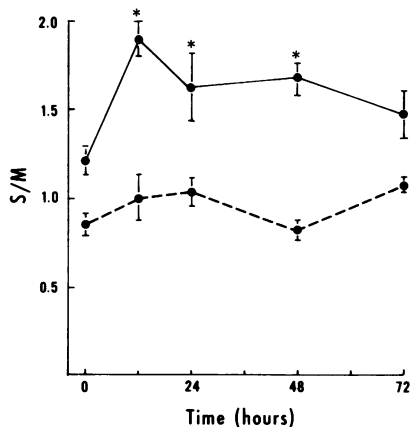


FIGURE 1 Changes in active transport of calcium serosal to mucosal ratio (S/M) with time after oral administration of 25-OH-D₃ (30 ng/g body wt) to young (●—●) and adult (●---●) vitamin D-deficient rats. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM of four to eight rats. An asterisk indicates that transport was significantly increased above zero hour control (propylene glycol only).

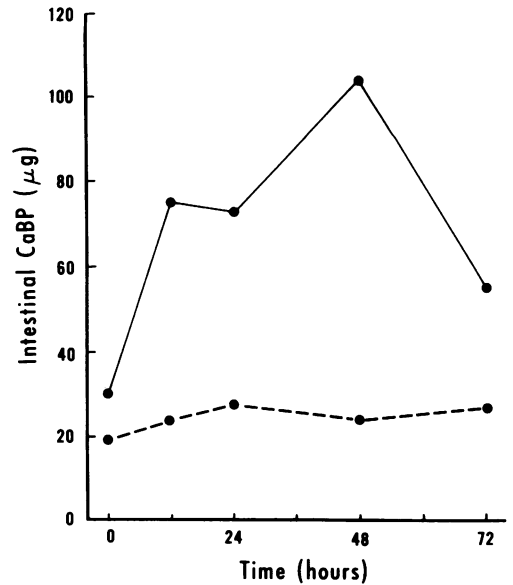


FIGURE 2 Changes in intestinal CaBP content with time after 25-OH-D₃ administration in young (●—●) and adult (●---●) vitamin D-deficient rats. Total CaBP content of the first 5 cm of duodenum was quantified using radial immunodiffusion. CaBP content was measured in pooled intestinal supernates from the same segments used to measure active calcium transport (Fig. 1). The wet weights of the duodenal segments were 540 ± 13 (*n* = 24) mg/5 cm for the young and 746 ± 10 (*n* = 19) mg/5 cm for the adult.

h, 25-OH-D₃ significantly increased plasma calcium by 0.8 mg/100 ml and plasma phosphorus by 1.8 mg/100 ml in young rats. However, no significant increase in plasma calcium and phosphorus was observed in adult rats.

Since the oral administration of 25-OH-D₃ had little effect in the adult compared with the young rat, a study was made of the metabolism of 25-OH-D₃ in young and adult rats. Vitamin D-deficient rats were injected intraperitoneally with tritiated 25-OH-D₃. 24 h after injection, tritiated vitamin D metabolites were isolated from plasma and intestine using LH-20 chromatography and HPLC. In the young rat, 20.8 ± 3.0% of the plasma radioactivity was recovered as 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ as compared with 2.1 ± 0.6% in the adult (Table I). There was no significant difference between young and adult in the percentage of radioactivity in the 24,25-(OH)₂-D₃ fraction. The intestine of the young rat contained 58.4% ± 4.1% of the radioactivity as 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ compared with only 2.2 ± 1.6% in the adult. In terms of radioactivity, the young rat intestine contained 816 ± 227 cpm as 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ per gram wet weight mucosa, but the adult intestine contained only 58.5 ± 29.9 cpm per gram mucosa as 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃.

The lack of appearance of tritiated 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ in the plasma and intestine of the adult was consistent with a decreased conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-

TABLE I
Effect of Age on Percentage of Radioactivity in Vitamin D Metabolites
after [^3H]25-OH- D_3 Injection*

	25-OH- D_3	24,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3	1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3	Other
Plasma				
Young	76.1 \pm 3.3	0.7 \pm 0.2	20.8 \pm 3.0	2.4 \pm 1.2
Adult	94.3 \pm 1.3†	2.1 \pm 0.6	2.1 \pm 0.6†	1.3 \pm 0.6
Intestine				
Young	37.5 \pm 5.1	0	58.4 \pm 4.1	4.6 \pm 1.9
Adult	86.6 \pm 10.1†	7.8 \pm 7.8	2.2 \pm 1.6†	3.6 \pm 1.5

* Numbers are percentage of radioactivity found in each metabolite 24 h after injection with [^3H]25-OH- D_3 . Percentage is based on total amount of radioactivity extracted from samples. Numbers are mean \pm SEM of four animals. Young (1.5 mo of age) and adult (12 mo of age) rats were placed on a vitamin D-deficient, low calcium diet for 6 wk before experiment.

† Significantly different from corresponding young value ($P < 0.05$).

(OH) $_2$ - D_3 by the adult kidney. Therefore, the capacity of isolated renal slices to convert 25-OH- D_3 to 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 was measured in slices from young and adult animals. Renal cortical slices were incubated with tritiated 25-OH- D_3 for 1 h, and the tritiated metabolites produced by the slices were isolated using HPLC. After a 1-h incubation, slices from young rats contained significant amounts of tritiated 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 in addition to the 25-OH- D_3 (Fig. 3, top). Slices from adult rats produced almost no detectable 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 when incubated under the same conditions (Fig. 3, bottom). Little 24,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 was seen in slices from either age group under these conditions. Because production of 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 was found to be linear with time and tissue weight, 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 production was quantitated on a per milligram wet weight per hour basis (Table II). The rate of 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 production was \sim 10-fold greater in vitamin D-deficient young rats compared with vitamin D-deficient adult rats. 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 production was markedly reduced when young rats were fed a vitamin D-replete, high Ca diet (3 IU vitamin D/g diet, 0.6% Ca) or when slices were heat-treated before incubation.

DISCUSSION

The present study demonstrated that there was a marked decrease in the capacity of the adult vitamin D-deficient rat to convert 25-OH- D_3 to 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 . It is possible that the decreased amount of 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 in the plasma of the adult could be attributed to more rapid catabolism of 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 by the adult. However, the measurement of 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 production by isolated renal slices demonstrated that there was a very low rate of conversion of 25-OH- D_3 to 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 by the adult kidney. This indicated that the decreased amount of plasma 1,25-(OH) $_2$ - D_3 in the adult was due,

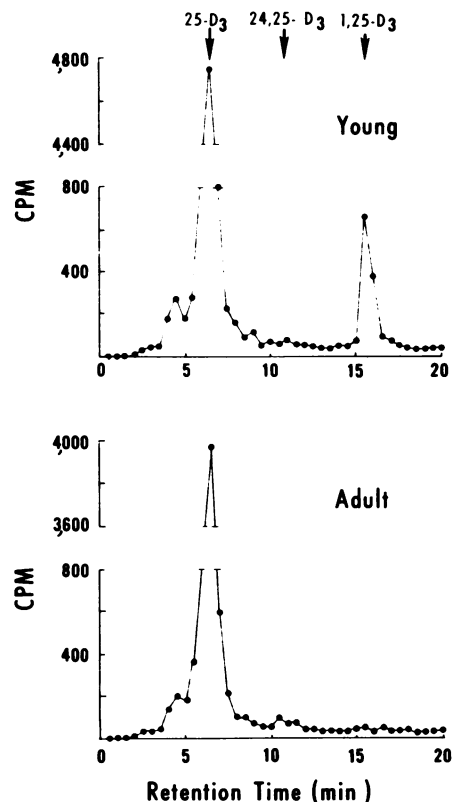


FIGURE 3 Distribution of tritiated vitamin D metabolites in renal cortical slices from young (A) and adult (B) vitamin D-deficient rats. Slices were incubated with tritiated 25-OH- D_3 for 1 h and extracted. Extracts, containing about 10,000 cpm each, were chromatographed on HPLC using a Zorbax-SIL column (0.6 \times 25 cm) equilibrated with hexane/methanol/methylene chloride (8:1:1) at a flow rate of 1.1 ml/min. 0.5-min fractions were collected and analyzed for radioactivity. The position of the absorbance maxima (measured at 254 nm) of standard vitamin D compounds chromatographed under identical conditions is indicated at the top of the figure.

TABLE II
Effect of Age and Diet on 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ Production by Renal Slices*

Diet	Age	1,25-(OH) ₂ D ₃ Production pg/mg tissue/h
D-deficient, low Ca	Young	244 ± 12 (4)
D-deficient, low Ca	Adult	23.4 ± 1.2(4)
D-replete, high Ca	Young	34.2 ± 7.8(3)
D-deficient, low Ca (heated)†	Young	9.1 ± 0.7(3)

* Values are mean ± SEM of number of animals indicated in parentheses. 150–250-mg wet wt slices were incubated 1 h.

† Slices were heated for 5 min at 100°C before incubation.

at least in part, to the reduced production of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ by the adult kidney. It may be that the factors that regulate the renal conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ (5) change with age, or it may be that the response of the kidney to these regulators decreases with age.

The present study demonstrated the usefulness of using isolated renal slices to study the conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ and its regulation in the mammal. Although it has been possible to measure this conversion in the chick kidney using tissue homogenates (6) or isolated mitochondria (17), these preparations had not been successfully applied to the mammalian kidney in the past. This has been attributed to the presence of the plasma binding protein for 25-OH-D₃ in these preparations (18). Therefore, the renal slice technique was developed to study this key enzyme system in the metabolic pathway of vitamin D in the mammal. Apparently, the 25-OH-D₃ plasma binding protein was washed away during the slice preparation, allowing the measurement of the conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃. Recently, a technique for measuring this conversion in mammalian renal mitochondria has been reported. This technique uses high substrate concentrations and an incubation temperature of 25°C (19). However, the slice preparation does not involve the isolation of subcellular organelles, and it may be useful in studying the cytoplasmic components involved in the regulation of the conversion of 25-OH-D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ by the mitochondria.

The present studies also demonstrated that vitamin D-deficient adult animals do not respond to exogenous 25-OH-D₃ with increased calcium absorption by the intestine (Fig. 1) or increased CaBP content in the intestine (Fig. 2). However, 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ has been shown to significantly increase calcium absorption and CaBP levels in adult rats (20). Therefore, the lack of adult response to 25-OH-D₃ is not due to a lack of intestinal response to the 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ product. Rather, the lack of response is due to the fact that only a very small amount of labeled 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ is found in the blood and, therefore, in the intestine of the adult after

dosing with labeled 25-OH-D₃ (Table I). This is consistent with a previous study in vitamin D-replete rats that reported that there was a decrease in the accumulation of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ by the intestine that correlated with the decrease in calcium absorption with age (21). The fact that 25-OH-D₃ did not increase intestinal absorption of calcium in adult rats, but that 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ did is consistent with the results of human studies. 1 α -Hydroxyvitamin D₃ administration has been shown to increase intestinal absorption in older adults (22). Moderate doses of 25-OH-D₃, however, result in no increase in the intestinal absorption of older adults, although plasma 25-OH-D₃ levels are increased (23).

The lack of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃ production in the adult and the subsequent lack of intestinal absorption of calcium may be of nutritional importance. Adult F344 rats fed a low calcium diet for 14 d demonstrate a negative calcium balance due to loss of calcium in the feces (data not shown). It has been reported that patients suffering from osteoporosis have decreased calcium absorption compared with age-matched controls (7). Osteoporotic patients may also exhibit negative calcium balance (5). Both calcium absorption and calcium balance are improved by administration of 1,25-(OH)₂-D₃. The nutritional consequences of decreased calcium absorption by the adult may be compounded by the fact that a high percentage of the elderly consume less than two-thirds of the recommended daily allowance of calcium (24).

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