Aromatase Deficiency Causes Altered Expression of Molecules Critical for Calcium Reabsorption in the Kidneys of Female Mice*

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ABSTRACT: Kidney stones increase after menopause, suggesting a role for estrogen deficiency. ArKO mice have hypercalciuria and lower levels of calcium transport proteins, whereas levels of the klotho protein are elevated. Thus, estrogen deficiency is sufficient to cause altered renal calcium handling.

Introduction: The incidence of renal stones increases in women after menopause, implicating a possible role for estrogen deficiency. We used the aromatase deficient (ArKO) mouse, a model of estrogen deficiency, to test the hypothesis that estrogen deficiency would increase urinary calcium excretion and alter the expression of molecular regulators of renal calcium reabsorption.

Materials and Methods: Adult female wildtype (WT), ArKO, and estradiol-treated ArKO mice (n = 5–12/group) were used to measure urinary calcium in the fed and fasting states, relative expression level of some genes involved in calcium reabsorption in the distal convoluted tubule by real-time PCR, and protein expression by Western blotting or immunohistochemistry. Plasma membrane calcium ATPase (PMCA) activity was measured in kidney membrane preparations. ANOVA was used to test for differences between groups followed by posthoc analysis with Dunnett’s test.

Results: Compared with WT, urinary Ca:Cr ratios were elevated in ArKO mice, renal mRNA levels of transient receptor potential cation channel vallinoid subfamily member 5 (TRPV5), TRPV6, calbindin-D28k, the Na+/Ca+ exchanger (NCX1), and the PMCA1b were significantly decreased, and klotho mRNA and protein levels were elevated. Estradiol treatment of ArKO mice normalized urinary calcium excretion, renal mRNA levels of TRPV5, calbindin-D28k, PMCA1b, and klotho, as well as protein levels of calbindin-D28k and Klotho. ArKO mice treated with estradiol had significantly greater PMCA activity than either untreated ArKO mice or WT mice.

Conclusions: Estrogen deficiency caused by aromatase inactivation is sufficient for renal calcium loss. Changes in estradiol levels are associated with coordinated changes in expression of many proteins involved in distal tubule calcium reabsorption. Estradiol treatment of ArKO mice normalized urinary calcium excretion, renal mRNA levels of TRPV5, calbindin-D28k, PMCA1b, and klotho, as well as protein levels of calbindin-D28k and Klotho. ArKO mice treated with estradiol had significantly greater PMCA activity than either untreated ArKO mice or WT mice.

Key words: aromatase, calcium transport proteins, estrogen, kidney, klotho

INTRODUCTION

T HE INCIDENCE of kidney stones in women is lower than in men throughout adult life. Premenopausal women have one half the prevalence of calcium stone disease than men of comparable age.(1,2) However, this sex difference disappears rapidly after the onset of menopause.(3–5) By 55–60 yr of age, the prevalence of calcium stone disease is equal in men and women and remains equal henceforth.(5) Several studies have provided evidence that urinary calcium excretion increases at menopause,(6–9) thereby increasing the risk for calcium-containing stones. However, additional changes in urinary composition (e.g., hypocitraturia, hyperoxaluria, hyperuricosuria) could also contribute


The authors state that they have no conflicts of interest.

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to an increased risk for renal stones. We recently undertook a retrospective analysis of the database from our large kidney stone patient registry and identified a major role for the increased urinary calcium excretion in postmenopausal women with kidney stones.(6)

Nordin and Polley(7) compared urinary calcium excretion in matched pairs of normal pre- and postmenopausal women who had not received hormone replacement therapy. Urine calcium/creatinine was significantly greater in the postmenopausal women. This rise in calcium excretion at the menopause could not be accounted for by the associated rise in plasma calcium or its fractions because it remained significant even when pre- and postmenopausal women were matched for total, ultrafilterable, ionized, or complexed calcium. The authors suggested that estrogens promote tubular reabsorption of calcium, an observation that was subsequently confirmed in a second study by the same investigators.(8) McKane et al.(9) also examined the effect of estrogen replacement therapy (ERT) on renal tubular calcium reabsorption before and after 6 mo of therapy in early postmenopausal women (median age, 51 yr). Their study is significant in that they directly measured serum ultrafilterable calcium and tubular reabsorption of calcium before and during PTH clamp. Before PTH administration, ERT had no effect on serum ultrafilterable calcium. ERT increased the tubular reabsorption of calcium, an effect ascribed to a commensurate increase in PTH and consistent with an effect of ERT in reducing bone resorption. However, after PTH clamp, the tubular reabsorption of calcium was greater after ERT than at baseline, suggesting a direct effect of ERT in promoting increased tubular reabsorption of calcium independent of PTH’s action. Taken together, these observations are consistent with the hypothesis that impaired tubular reabsorption of calcium and renal calcium loss from estrogen deficiency could be one factor contributing to increased stone formation in postmenopausal women.

The mechanism by which estrogens might regulate calcium reabsorption is incompletely understood. The major part of renal tubular reabsorption of calcium occurs along the proximal tubule and thick ascending limb by passive paracellular flux. The remaining calcium reabsorption occurs in the distal part of the nephron and is hormonally regulated. This process can be envisaged as a three-step process consisting of facilitated entry across the apical membrane mediated by an epithelial calcium channel (TRPV5), cytosolic diffusion of calcium bound to calcium binding proteins such as calbindin-D28k, and active extrusion of calcium across the basolateral membrane mediated by PMCA and NCX1. Thus, decreased expression or function of any of these components could impair calcium reabsorption.

The aromatase-deficient mouse is a model of estrogen deficiency caused by inactivation of the gene responsible for biosynthesis of estrogens.(11) In this study, we used the ArKO mouse model to determine whether estrogen deficiency, as opposed to complete gonadal failure of ovariectomy models or surgically induced menopause, is sufficient to alter renal calcium reabsorption and investigate potential underlying mechanisms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

The inactivated aromatase gene was maintained on the hybrid 129SvEV/C57Bl6. Female ArKO mice were produced by breeding heterozygotes. In some studies, 10-wk-old animals were treated three times per week with 20 μg estradiol/mouse, or sesame oil only (placebo) for 3 wk. All procedures were approved by the UT Southwestern IA-CUC.

Analytical studies

Urine was collected from wildtype (WT) and ArKO age-matched mice (10–13 wk old) as single spontaneous voids between 1:00 p.m. and 3:00 p.m. or in metabolic cages during an 18-h fast. Urinary calcium was determined by atomic absorption spectroscopy. Urinary creatinine and phosphorus were determined on an automated clinical system, the Roche Mira System. Blood was harvested by closed cardiac puncture at the time of death. Serum 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D was determined by radioimmunoassay (RIA; Gamma-B 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D assay; Immunodiagnostic Systems, Fountain Hills, AZ, USA). This assay measures both D₁ and D₂ forms of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D. It has a sensitivity of 8 pM, and intra- and interassay CVs of 8% and 14%, respectively. Mouse serum intact PTH(1-84) was measured by enzyme immunoassay (Elisa; Intact Mouse PTH; Alpco Diagnostics, Salem, NH, USA). The assay has a sensitivity of 4 pg/ml and intra- and interassay CVs of 3.5% and 8.5%, respectively.

RT and quantitative PCR

Kidneys were powdered under liquid nitrogen (WT, n = 12; ArKO, n = 9; ArKO + E, n = 6; independent samples). The powder was homogenized in TriReagent (Sigma-Aldrich), according to the manufacturer’s instructions, to obtain protein, DNA, and RNA in three different phases. Total RNA was treated with DNase to prevent contamination of genomic DNA and finally resuspended in diethylpyrocarbonate-treated milliQ water. Thereafter, 2 μg of total RNA was subjected to reverse transcription using Moloney murine leukemia virus RT (Gibco BRL) as described previously.(12) Expression levels of TRPV5, TRPV6, calbindin-D₂₈k, calbindin-D₉k, plasma membrane calcium ATPase 1b (PMCA-1b), and NCX1 mRNA were analyzed by quantitative real-time PCR, using the ABI Prism 7700 Sequence Detection System (PE Biosystems). With the use of standard curves, the amount of copy numbers of the target genes in each sample was calculated and expressed as a ratio to the hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase (HPRT) gene. Primers and probes targeting the genes of interest were designed using Primer Express software (Applied Biosystems) and are listed in Table 1.(13,14)

Expression levels of ERα and ERβ

cDNA was synthesized from 2 μg total RNA isolated from kidney using multiscribe RT enzyme and random hexamer primers (Superscript II; Invitrogen) in a total vol-
volume of 20 μl. Negative controls included RNA without RT. Newly synthesized cDNA (50 ng) was used for real-time PCR reactions. To correct for sample-to-sample variation, mRNA amounts were normalized to cyclophilin as an endogenous reference. Primers for ERα and ERβ were designed using Primer Express software (Table 2). Primers that span an exon and Taqman probes were designed to avoid amplification of residual contaminating DNA. For each primer–probe set, serial dilutions of template were conducted to ensure equal efficiency of amplification over a wide range of template concentrations and to ensure that efficiency of amplification was equal to that of cyclophilin. Each real-time reaction included negative and positive controls: cDNA (pooled from four wildtype cycling animals) from mouse uterus and mouse bladder for ERα and ERβ, respectively. Real-time PCR reactions were conducted in triplicate using the TaqManTM PCR Reagent Kit. The ABI PRISM™ Sequence Detection System was used to monitor the increase of the reporter fluorescence (Perkin-Elmer, Applied Biosystems). Relative gene expression was calculated using the comparative Ct method described in the Applied Biosystems User Bulletin 2. Expression levels of klotho and mouse PTH receptor 1 were determined by real-time PCR using Sybr Green and quantitated with the ddCt method. The primer sequences for klotho were based on accession NM 013823. The forward primer sequence was 5'-(AATATGGAATGAGGGTCTGAAAG)-3' and the reverse primer sequence was 5'-TACGCAGGTAGTCACAAAAG-3'. The primer sequences for mPTHR1 were based on NM 011199. The forward primer sequence was 5'-CAGGGACACTGTGGCAGATC-3' and the reverse primer sequence was 5'-CAGGTGCCCCGAK-3'. All investigators were blinded to genotypes of the animals during performance of this study.

Western blotting
Renal proteins were obtained from the organic phase of a TriReagent (Sigma) extract of the kidney powder. Protein was harvested from the organic phase by precipitation followed by solubilization in a buffered 1% SDS solution containing protease inhibitors. Protein concentration was determined using a detergent compatible assay (BioRad). The homogenates were subjected to SDS-PAGE on 12.5% polyacrylamide gels or Tris-Tricine gels 9.5% (for calbindin-D28k only) followed by blotting onto PVDF membrane. The following antibodies were used in this study: mouse monoclonal anti-bovine calbindin-D28k (Alpha Diagnostic International); rabbit polyclonal anti-calbindin-D9k (Swant); and rat monoclonal anti-klotho KM2119. Purified porcine intestinal calbindin-D9k was used as a standard for anti-calbindin-D9k Western blot (Calbiochem). Recombinant rat calbindin-D28k was used as a standard for anti-calbindin-D28k Western blot (Swant). Recombinant klotho was used as a standard for the anti-klotho antibody. Membranes were probed with primary antibody at the following dilutions or concentration: anti-calbindin-D28k monoclonal antibody (1:3000), anti-calbindin-D9k (1:1000), and anti-klotho (3 μg/ml) overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, the membranes were probed with an appropriate horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibody, and bands were detected by ECL system (Amersham).

Immunohistochemistry
Kidneys were bisected and embedded in paraffin by standard techniques. Seven-micrometer-thick sections were mounted on glass slides.

Anti-klotho immunohistochemistry: After deparaffinization and rehydration of kidney sections, endogenous peroxidase activity was neutralized by incubating the sections for 30 min with 0.3% H2O2 in methanol. The slides were blocked with normal rabbit serum for 20 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the slides were washed several times. The sections were incubated overnight with a rat monoclonal antibody against recombinant klotho protein. The bound primary antibody was detected using an HRP-conjugated rabbit anti-rat IgG and DAB as substrate (Vector Laboratories). Sections were counterstained with 2% methyl green.

Anti-PTHR1 immunohistochemistry: Dепарaffинизированные и реконфокальные срезы почки, претерпевшие антигенное восстановление, продемонстрировали присутствие анти-PTHR1 аффинити-биореагентов или подверглись обработке (отрицательный контроль) в течение 4°C. Слайды были промыты на 5 мин и подверглись 1:200 разведению биотинолизированного голубого анти-раиант IgG (Vector Laboratories) на 45 мин. После 5-минутной промывки в PBS, слайды были подвергнуты дальнейшей обработке с использованием streptavidin–FITC (1:50; Molecular Probes) на 20 мин. Слайды были промыты в PBS на 5 мин, упакованы в дистилированную воду, сложены, и затем были покрыты красителем, а затем покрыты слоем виниловых диоксидов, насыщенных вещества, которые не выражают PTHR1, были использованы как отрицательный контроль и подверглись последующей процедуре.

PMCA enzymatic activity
PMCA activity was measured according to a previously published method. Briefly, kidneys were harvested from WT, ArKO, and estradiol-treated ArKO mice after perfusion with cold PBS containing 1 mM EDTA + 1 mM PMSF. The kidneys were minced on ice in a hypotonic buffer containing protease inhibitors. After 15 min, the fragments were homogenized in an equal volume of 0.5 M sucrose + 0.3 M KCl + 1.5 mM EDTA. The homogenate was spun at 100,000g for 1 h. The pellet was resuspended in a solution containing 0.25 M sucrose, 0.15 M KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM DTT, and 20 μM CaCl2. Protein concentration was determined using the Bradford method (Bio-Rad). Membrane vesicles (30 μg of membrane protein) were added to 140 μl of medium con-
TABLE 1. SEQUENCES OF PRIMERS AND TAQMAN PROBES FOR QUANTITATIVE REAL-TIME PCR*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>Forward primer</th>
<th>Reverse primer</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRPV5</td>
<td>5'-CGTTGGTTCTTACGGGTTGAAC-3'</td>
<td>5'-CTCCCATCGCCATTCTTATCCA-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRPV6</td>
<td>5'-CGCCGCTATGCACA-3'</td>
<td>5'-ACCTGACTGATATTGTTTTGACTATTTCATCATT-3'</td>
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<tr>
<td>CaBP-D28K</td>
<td>5'-AATGGAGAACCACAGAGCCTCTA-3'</td>
<td>5'-ACAAAATATGCAGCCAAGGAAGGCGA-3'</td>
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<tr>
<td>CaBP-D9K</td>
<td>5'-AACTGACAGAGATGGCCAGGTTA-3'</td>
<td>5'-TGATTGGTCTCGTCTGGCGCTCC-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMCA1B</td>
<td>5'-AACTGACAGAGATGGCCAGGTTA-3'</td>
<td>5'-TGATTGGTCTCGTCTGGCGCTCC-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCX1</td>
<td>5'-AACTGACAGAGATGGCCAGGTTA-3'</td>
<td>5'-TGATTGGTCTCGTCTGGCGCTCC-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER</td>
<td>5'-CAAAAATATGCAGCCAAGGAAGGCGA-3'</td>
<td>5'-CATACCCCTGTGTGTTC-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPRT</td>
<td>5'-TTATCAGACTGAAGAGCTACTGTAAT-3'</td>
<td>5'-TGAGAGATCATCTCCACCAATAACTTTTATGTCCC-3'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyclophilin</td>
<td>5'-GCTTTTCGCCGCTTGCT-3'</td>
<td>5'-CAACCCCACCGTGTTC-3'</td>
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* PCR primers and fluorescent probes (5'TAMRA) were designed using the computer program Primer Express (Applied Biosystems) and purchased from Applied Biosystems or Biolegio (Malden, The Netherlands. TRPV5/6, palalin Ca(2+)-channel 1 and 2, CaBP-D28k, calbindin-D28k; CaBP-D9k, calbindin-D9k; PMCA1B, plasma membrane calcium ATPase; NCX1, sodium-calcium exchanger; ER, estrogen receptor alpha, ERβ, estrogen receptor beta; HPR1, hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase, C.

RESULTS

Hypercalciuria and normophosphaturia in ArKO mice

Urinary calcium, expressed relative to creatinine, was significantly higher in ArKO mice compared with WT mice when examined in spot urine collections (Table 2). To better define this hypercalciuria, urine was collected under fasting conditions. In addition, a third group representing estrogen-treated ArKO groups were compared with the WT group. Differences were considered significant at the p < 0.05 level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Spontaneous (mg/mg)</th>
<th>Fasting (mg/mg)</th>
<th>GF corrected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WT</td>
<td>0.123 ± 0.020</td>
<td>0.108 ± 0.022</td>
<td>0.011 ± 0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArKO</td>
<td>0.181 ± 0.020</td>
<td>0.277 ± 0.050</td>
<td>0.034 ± 0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArKO + E</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0.078 ± 0.011</td>
<td>0.012 ± 0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are expressed as mean ± SE. Comparison of mean values for statistical significance was accomplished by one-way ANOVA. Post hoc analysis was performed by the two-tailed Dunnett’s test, where the ArKO and estrogen-treated ArKO groups were compared with the WT group. Differences were considered significant at the p < 0.05 level.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SE. Comparison of mean values for statistical significance was accomplished by one-way ANOVA. Post hoc analysis was performed by the two-tailed Dunnett’s test, where the ArKO and estrogen-treated ArKO groups were compared with the WT group. Differences were considered significant at the p < 0.05 level.

RESULTS

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Urinary calcium, expressed relative to creatinine, was significantly higher in ArKO mice compared with WT mice when examined in spot urine collections (Table 2). To better define this hypercalciuria, urine was collected under fasting conditions. In addition, a third group representing estrogen-treated ArKO mice was included. One-way ANOVA disclosed a significant interaction between the three groups (p < 0.001). Post hoc analysis disclosed that ArKO females again showed significant hypercalciuria compared with WT mice. Estrogen-treatment reduced urinary calcium excretion to a value not significantly different from WT. Similar results were also observed when urinary calcium was expressed relative to 100 ml glomerular filtration (Table 1). Urinary phosphate levels, expressed relative to creatinine, were not different between the groups (WT,
4.65 ± 0.73; ArKO, 4.62 ± 0.36; ArKO + E, 4.89 ± 0.66; n ≥ 9 per group; ANOVA, p = 0.9). Total serum calcium was also not significantly different between the experimental groups (WT, 8.41 ± 0.18 mg/dl; ArKO, 8.45 ± 0.07 mg/dl; ArKO + E, 8.68 ± 0.27 mg/dl; n ≥ 9 per group; ANOVA, p = 0.6).

PTH levels were unchanged between groups (WT, 75 ± 11; ArKO, 67 ± 10; ArKO + E, 61 ± 20 pg/ml; n ≥ 10 per group; ANOVA, p = 0.753) as were 1,25(OH)2D3 levels (WT, 196 ± 30 pM; ArKO, 186 ± 35 pM; ArKO + E, 123 ± 14 pM; n ≥ 10 per group; ANOVA, p = 0.09).

ArKO mice express lower levels of some proteins involved in transepithelial calcium reabsorption in the DCT that is normalized with estradiol therapy.

To determine whether the hypercalciuria was associated with abnormal expression of proteins that mediate transcellular calcium reabsorption, we performed real-time PCR analysis of the expression of TRPV5 and 6, calbindins D28k and D9k, PMCA1b, NCX1, and the PTH receptor isoform PTHR1.

For the real-time PCR analysis of expression of each protein analyzed, one-way ANOVA disclosed a significant interaction between the three study groups (p = 0.029 or less), with the exception of PTHR1 (WT, 0.82 ± 0.08; ArKO, 1.08 ± 0.11; ArKO + E, 0.99 ± 0.11; ANOVA, p = 0.140). As expected, TRPV5 was more highly expressed than TRPV6 for both genotypes. ArKO mRNA levels were significantly decreased to 50–55% of WT levels for both proteins (Fig. 1). Calbindin-D28k mRNA level was significantly decreased in ArKO mice to ∼50% of the WT level. The mRNA level of calbindin-D9k in ArKO mice was reduced to ∼70% of WT, but the difference was not significant (p = 0.054, WT versus ArKO). In ArKO kidneys, the mRNA levels of the basolateral membrane proteins, NCX1 and PMCA1b, were decreased. ArKO mRNA level of
NCX1 was significantly reduced to ~55% of WT (Fig. 1). PMCA1b mRNA level was significantly lower in ArKO animals, being ~68% of WT (Fig. 1). After treatment with estradiol, there was no significant difference in the mRNA levels of TRPV5, calbindin-D28k, and PMCA1b between treated ArKO mice and WT mice (Fig. 1). Whereas calbindin-D28k and D9k mRNA levels were increased by estradiol therapy such that neither was significantly different from WT, both were significantly higher than untreated ArKO mice (ArKO versus ArKO + E, p < 0.04 by Tukey’s post hoc analysis). NCX1 and TRPV6 mRNA levels in kidneys of estradiol treated ArKO mice remained significantly lower than those of the WT mice (Fig. 1).

Because estradiol acts through receptors ERα and ERβ, mRNA levels of both receptors were assessed. Normalized mRNA level for ERα was higher in ArKO kidney than WT, whereas normalized ERβ level was lower (Fig. 1). After estradiol treatment, there was no significant difference between ERα mRNA levels of WT and treated ArKO mice (Fig. 1). Expression of ERβ in ArKO kidney did not significantly change with estradiol therapy (Fig. 1).

Protein levels of the calbindins in whole kidney extracts were also assessed by Western blot analysis. PTHR1 receptor protein levels and distribution were evaluated by immunohistochemistry. At the protein level, calbindin-D28k was significantly decreased in ArKO mice (Fig. 2). Estradiol therapy raised the levels to those of WT. The protein level of calbindin-D28k in ArKO was not significantly different than that of WT (p = 0.1). Estradiol therapy raised the mean level of calbindin-D28k in ArKO mice closer to the WT mean. In agreement with the mRNA data, there was no obvious difference in PTHR1 protein expression, by immunofluorescent histochemistry, between the three groups (Fig. 3). Moreover, we did not detect any difference in the cellular distribution of the protein.

Given the resolution of hypercalciuria after estradiol treatment of ArKO mice with a modest increase of PMCA1b in mRNA and no normalization of NCX1, we measured PMCA1 activity in all three experimental groups. The interaction between groups was significant (ANOVA, p = 0.02). Untreated ArKO mice had lower mean levels of PMCA activity than WT mice, but the difference was not significant (p = 0.08; Fig. 4). On the other hand, ArKO mice treated with estradiol had significantly higher PMCA activity levels compared with WT (p = 0.04) and untreated ArKO mice (p = 0.01).

*Increased level of klotho protein in ArKO mice*

The klotho protein has recently been shown to be a regulator of renal calcium handling through its regulation of TRPV5. Therefore, we studied its expression in the experimental groups. Immunohistochemistry was performed to examine renal klotho expression. The staining was observed in the distal convoluted tubule. Positive staining was both more diffuse and consistently more intense in ArKO kidneys (Fig. 5A). This increased expression was confirmed by real-time PCR and Western blot analysis (Figs. 5B–5D). The klotho standard used does not have the transmembrane domain and thus is smaller than the endogenous protein, accounting for the smaller apparent molecular weight on the gels. Estradiol treatment of ArKO mice decreased klotho expression in the kidney at both the mRNA and protein levels (Figs. 5B–5D).

**DISCUSSION**

In the mammalian kidney, 90% of calcium reabsorption occurs in the proximal tubule and cortical thick ascending limb by paracellular diffusion. The remaining 10% takes place in the distal convoluted tubule through active transcellular transport and is believed to be responsive to calcium-regulating hormones such as PTH and vitamin D. The lack of significant change in vitamin D or PTH levels in the ArKO model suggests that estrogen deficiency is the cause of the hypercalciuria in the ArKO mice. The normal level of urinary phosphorous suggests that the proximal nephron function is intact in ArKO mice. The mechanism(s) by which estrogens may regulate renal calcium reabsorption in the DCT is not completely understood, but decreased expression of proteins involved in renal calcium reabsorption may lead to increased urinary calcium. Indeed, the ArKO mice showed hypercalciuria in both spontaneous voids or
with fasting. Although we believe that the observed hypercalciuria in the ArKO female is caused principally by a renal calcium leak in the distal nephron, the current experimental design does not rule out the possibility that an increased renal filtered load of calcium could contribute to the observed hypercalciuria. On the other hand, increased intestinal calcium absorption is not expected to be contributing to an increased filtered load, because serum 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration was observed to be normal in these mice and fasting hypercalciuria was evident. The decreased expression of TPRV5, calbindin-D<sub>28k</sub>, PMCA1b, and NCX1, proteins involved in transcellular reabsorption pathway of calcium, during estrogen deficiency as shown here is consistent with a coordinated regulation. Our findings are reminiscent of the coordinated regulation of the transcellular calcium reabsorption pathway after parathyroidectomy in rats. Similar to these findings during estrogen deficiency, van Abel et al. showed that parathyroidectomized rats have decreased mRNA and protein levels of TRPV5 and calbindin-D<sub>28k</sub>, and decreased mRNA levels of NCX1. Although urine calcium was not reported in the study of van Abel et al., serum calcium levels were low, and presumably the animals were hypercalciuric. One difference between the parathyroidectomized rats and the ArKO mice is that PMCA1b mRNA levels were lower in ArKO mice but unchanged in the rats. The cause for this difference between animal models is not known, but clearly, marked deficiency in either PTH or estrogens is sufficient to cause simultaneous decrease of some proteins involved in transcellular calcium transport.

TRPV5 is thought of as a gatekeeper of epithelial calcium uptake and was upregulated at the mRNA level by estradiol treatment of the ArKO mouse. This finding is similar to those of van Abel et al., who showed that estradiol treatment of ovariectomized rats increased renal TRPV5 mRNA and protein expression. In addition, 17β-estradiol was shown to increase renal mRNA levels of calbindin-D<sub>28k</sub> and the basolateral membrane calcium pump PMCA1b. However, when similar studies were performed in male 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub>-1α-hydroxylase-knockout mice, only TRPV5 expression remained responsive to estrogen. Combined, the two studies suggest a coordinated regulation pattern by estradiol that is independent of vitamin D. In our study, estradiol therapy of ArKO mice also restored TRPV5, calbindin-D<sub>28k</sub>, and PMCA1b mRNA levels. Because ArKO mice have normal serum 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentrations, this study supports the conclusion that estrogen regulation of the gatekeeper TRPV5, calbindin-D<sub>28k</sub>, and PMCA1b in the kidney occurs in a coordinated fashion and can occur independently of vitamin D.

The TRPV6 calcium channel is also expressed in the kid-
Although klotho-deficient mice had increased levels of the klotho protein. Clues to the function of the klotho protein were originally discovered as a result of random insertional mutagenesis in mice resulting in many phenotypes seen in aging. To our knowledge, this is the first report that estrogens regulate renal klotho expression. The increased expression of klotho in aromatase deficiency may be a compensatory physiological response to increased urinary calcium to compensate for decreased expression of the TRPV5 gatekeeper by prolonging its presence and activity on the surface membrane. The fact that mRNA levels decreased after estradiol therapy suggests that estradiol regulates klotho expression at the transcriptional level. In addition to the results shown in this report, estradiol regulates klotho expression in the MDBK and MDCK kidney cell lines (A Hajibeigi and OK ÖZ, unpublished results, 2007). In contrast to our findings of suppression of klotho expression by estradiol, others have shown upregulation of klotho expression after a single injection of vitamin D. Although klotho-deficient mice have been shown to have defective PTH-induced luminal calcium reabsorption, to our knowledge, the regulation of klotho protein expression in the kidney by PTH in the intact mouse has not been reported. Thus, klotho regulation by calcitropic hormones needs further study but is likely to be different for each hormone.

Estrogens act through two receptors, namely ERα and ERβ. Estrogen receptors have been found in the mammalian kidney. A prior study in ERKOAF−/− mice reported mRNA levels of renal calcium transport proteins were also decreased. The ERα splice variant expressed by these mice lacks the AF-1 domain but retains the ability to signal through classical genomic mechanisms. To our knowledge, there are no published studies that show changes in expression of calcium transport proteins in the kidneys of ERβ knockout mice. Therefore, it seems that ERα is the mediator of estrogen action at the kidney, and regulation of the calcium reabsorption pathway by estrogens may not involve classical genomic signaling. One advantage to the ArKO model is the ability to study effects on molecular expression after estradiol treatment, which allowed us to determine the estrogen responsiveness of urinary calcium excretion and protein expression abnormalities. The facts that both ArKO and εERKOAF−/− mice show decreased levels of the same calcium transport proteins and εERKOAF−/− female mice have elevated estra-
diol levels, whereas ArKO mice have undetectable estradiol levels, establish that ligand-dependent pathways acting through ER\textsubscript{α}/H9251 are important regulators of renal calcium transport in vivo.

In summary, estrogen deficiency, produced by aromatase inactivation, is sufficient to cause renal calcium loss. The calcium loss is independent of changes in vitamin D and PTH. The decreased calcium reabsorption is associated with coordinated decrease expression of the genes for some renal calcium transport proteins including TRPV5 and 6, calbindin-D\textsubscript{28k}, NCX1, and PMCA1b; however, normocalciuria after estradiol therapy is associated with a coordinated increase in expression only for TRPV5, calbindin-D\textsubscript{28k}, and PMCA1b. This implies that, whereas TPRV6 and NCX1 maybe involved in basal calcium transport in the kidney, they are not responsible for estradiol-mediated increases in renal calcium reabsorption. Taken together with previous work by other groups, we suggest that estrogen regulates renal calcium reabsorption at the transcriptional level through ER\textsubscript{α} acting to regulate these genes in a coordinated ligand dependent fashion but the regulation may not be solely through classical estrogen response elements. In addition, estradiol may regulate the process through nontranscriptional based regulatory mechanisms such as klotho regulating activity of TRPV5 and estradiol regulation of PMCA enzymatic activity. The study findings may provide an explanation for the increased risk of nephrolithiasis and the observed increased incidence in females at the menopause. Patients with congenital aromatase deficiency or those being treated with aromatase inhibitors for breast cancer may also be at increased risk for hypercalciuria and nephrolithiasis. The findings also suggest attention to urinary calcium levels in patients being treated with aromatase inhibitors for delaying growth plate closure. Finally, deficiency of calcitropic hormones seems to have common and unique effects on the expression of renal calcium transport proteins.\textsuperscript{(29)} Understanding the molecular basis for differences in expression of calcium transport proteins after parathyroidectomy, aromatase inactivation, or in vitamin D insufficiency may be helpful in understanding the complex physiological regulation of renal calcium reabsorption in the distal convoluted tubule leading to improved health care for patients at risk for nephrolithiasis as well as bone loss.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The authors thank Alexia Thomas for colony management and genotyping animals, Jan Koska and Kathy Rodgers for analytical studies on urine, Alan Stewart for serum analysis, Patrick Keller for performing quantitative real-time RT-PCR of the ERs, Angie Bookout for designing the klotho primers, Jocelyn Chafouleas for manuscript preparation, and Virginia Barnett, Glenn Katz, and Dorothy Smith for graphics support. This work was supported in part by grants from the seed account of the Center for Mineral Metabolism and Clinical Research at UT Southwestern Medical Center, in part by NIH HD01463, P01DK20543, and unrestricted funds from the endowment of the Effie and Wofford Cain Distinguished Chair in Diagnostic Imaging.
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Received in original form October 26, 2006; revised form August 2, 2007; accepted August 10, 2007.