

ION CHANNELS – MEMBRANE TRANSPORT – INTEGRATIVE PHYSIOLOGY

Regulation of gene expression by dietary Ca^{2+} in kidneys of 25-hydroxyvitamin D_3 -1 α -hydroxylase knockout mice

JOOST G.J. HOENDEROP, HELENA CHON, DIMITRA GKIKI, HANS A.R. BLUYSSSEN, FRANK C.P. HOLSTEGE, RENE ST-ARNAUD, BRANKO BRAAM, and RENE J.M. BINDELS

Department of Physiology, University Medical Centre Nijmegen, Nijmegen, The Netherlands; Department of Nephrology and Hypertension and Genomics Laboratory, Department of Physiological Chemistry, UMC Utrecht, The Netherlands; and Genetics Unit, Shriners Hospital for Children, Montreal, Canada

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Background. Pseudovitamin D deficiency rickets (PDDR) is an autosomal disease, characterized by undetectable levels of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D_3 ($1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$), rickets and secondary hyperparathyroidism. Mice in which the 25-hydroxyvitamin D_3 -1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase) gene was inactivated, presented the same clinical phenotype as patients with PDDR.

Methods. cDNA Microarray technology was used on kidneys of 1 α -OHase knockout mice to study the expression profile of renal genes in this Ca^{2+} -related disorder. Genome wide molecular events that occur during the rescue of these mice by high dietary Ca^{2+} intake were studied by the use of 15K cDNA microarray chips.

Results. 1 α -OHase knockout mice fed a normal Ca^{2+} diet developed severe hypocalcemia, rickets and died with an average life span of 12 ± 2 weeks. Intriguingly, 1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$ mice supplemented with an enriched Ca^{2+} diet were normocalcemic and not significantly different from wild-type mice. Inactivation of the 1 α -OHase gene resulted in a significant regulation of ± 1000 genes, whereas dietary Ca^{2+} supplementation of the 1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$ mice revealed ± 2000 controlled genes. Interestingly, 557 transcripts were regulated in both situations implicating the involvement in the dietary Ca^{2+} -mediated rescue mechanism of the 1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$ mice. Conspicuous regulated genes encoded for signaling molecules like the PDZ-domain containing protein channel interacting protein, FK binding protein type 4, kinases, and importantly Ca^{2+} transporting proteins including the Na^+ - Ca^{2+} exchanger, calbindin- $\text{D}_{28\text{K}}$ and the Ca^{2+} sensor calmodulin.

Conclusion. Dietary Ca^{2+} intake normalized disturbances in the Ca^{2+} homeostasis due to vitamin D deficiency that were accompanied by the regulation of a subset of renal genes, including well-known renal Ca^{2+} transport protein genes, but also genes not previously identified as playing a role in renal Ca^{2+} handling.

Key words: TRPV5, ECaC1, vitamin D, calcium reabsorption, PDDR.

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Vitamin D is a major regulator of Ca^{2+} and phosphate homeostasis and is essential for proper development and maintenance of bone. The active form of vitamin D, 1 α ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D_3 ($1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$) is synthesized from its precursor 25-hydroxyvitamin D_3 by the renal cytochrome P450 enzyme 25-hydroxyvitamin D_3 -1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase). The importance of this enzyme is reflected by severe disorders resulting from mutations identified in the gene encoding 1 α -OHase, including pseudovitamin D-deficiency rickets (PDDR) also known as vitamin D-dependent rickets type I (VDDR-I). Recently, the genetic association of 1 α -OHase with PDDR has been confirmed by inactivation of the 1 α -OHase gene in mice [1, 2]. Two laboratories independently generated 1 α -OHase knockout mice strains that represent valuable animal models for PDDR since they display undetectable $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ levels, hypocalcemia, secondary hyperparathyroidism, and failure to thrive [1, 2]. The 1 α -OHase knockout mice (1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$) developed distinct histologic evidence of rickets and osteomalacia.

The absence of vitamin D is expected to cause widespread changes in gene expression in the kidney. On one hand, vitamin D receptor (VDR) activation will be decreased resulting in altered gene expression. On the other hand, Ca^{2+} sensing by the Ca^{2+} sensing receptor (CaSR) will be changed due to the hypocalcemia in 1 α -OHase mice. The importance of VDR activation versus CaSR activation has recently been challenged by the observation that many of the phenotypic effects of VDR knockout animals can be prevented by a “rescue diet” with lactose, Ca^{2+} , and phosphate [3–5]. This observation is supportive for the view that vitamin D becomes relevant at the point where an organism is denied an abundant Ca^{2+} supply.

In a previous study, we have found indications for these Ca^{2+} -related actions in the 1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$ knockout mice [6]. This study showed that high dietary Ca^{2+} intake normalizes the expression levels in 1 α -OHase $^{-/-}$ of the Ca^{2+}

transport proteins, including the epithelial Ca²⁺ channel (TRPV5), calbindin-D_{28K}, Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger (NCX1), and plasma membrane adenosine triphosphatase (AT-Pase) (PMCA1b), and contributes in this way to the normalization of blood Ca²⁺ levels [6].

The aim of the present study was to identify new genes important for the maintenance of the Ca²⁺ balance. The hypothesis is that vitamin D deficiency results in widespread gene expression alterations in the kidney, which are in part due to diminished CaSR activation by decreased plasma Ca²⁺ concentrations. Furthermore, we hypothesized that genes, differentially expressed in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice, could be rescued by dietary Ca²⁺ via a vitamin D-independent mechanism. To address these questions, DNA microarray analysis of gene expression was compared between 1 α -OHase^{-/-} and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice supplemented with dietary Ca²⁺.

METHODS

Animal protocol

25-hydroxyvitamin D₃-1 α -hydroxylase knockout mice were recently generated by targeted ablation of exon 8 encoding the HEME binding domain of the enzyme [1]. 1 α -OHase knockout mice were genotyped by Southern blot analysis at an age of 3 weeks directly after the weaning period as described previously [1]. Initial characterization of the 1 α -OHase knockout mice demonstrated that there are no significant differences between wild-type (1 α -OHase^{+/+}) and heterozygous 1 α -OHase knockout mice (1 α -OHase^{+/-}) [1]. The heterozygous were, therefore, used as control animals. 1 α -OHase^{+/-} and homozygous 1 α -OHase (1 α -OHase^{-/-}) knockout mice were fed from weeks 3 to 8 either a normal diet [1.1% (wt/wt) Ca²⁺, 0.8% (wt/wt) phosphorus, and 0% (wt/wt) lactose], a Ca²⁺-enriched diet [2% (wt/wt) Ca²⁺, 1.25% (wt/wt) phosphorus, and 20% (wt/wt) lactose] (Harlan Tekled, Wisconsin, MA, USA). Animals ($N = 6$ in each group) were sacrificed at an age of 8 weeks and blood and kidney samples were taken. The Animal Ethics Board of the University of Nijmegen (Nijmegen) and Shriners Hospital for Children (Montreal) approved all animal experimental procedures.

RNA isolation

RNA was extracted from whole kidney from four subjects per group using the TRIzol reagent using the procedure recommended by the supplier (Invitrogen Life Sciences, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The quality and quantity of the RNA samples was determined with the Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Palo Alto, CA, USA) using the Eukaryote Total RNA Nano Assay.

Reverse transcription/labeling

Samples were pooled per group in equal amounts of total RNA per subject. For each reaction, 5 μ g of total RNA was annealed to 1 μ g of Oligo-dT₁₂₋₁₈ primer (Invitrogen Life Sciences) at 70°C for 15 minutes. Then, reverse transcription (RT) was performed in a 30 μ L reaction containing 200 U SuperScript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen Life Sciences), 2 nmol deoxyguanosine triphosphate (dGTP), deoxyadenosine triphosphate (dATP), and deoxycytidine triphosphate (dCTP), 0.5 nmol deoxydithiothreitol (dTTP) (Amersham Biosciences Corp., Biscataway, NJ, USA), 1.5 nmol of aminoallyl-deoxyuridine triphosphate (dUTP) (Amersham Biosciences Corp.) at 42°C for 2 hours. After 2 minutes at 95°C, a 20 μ L mixture of 1 mol/L NaOH (Riedel-de Haën, Seelze, Germany) and 0.5 mol/L of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), pH 8.0 (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA) were added and incubated at 65°C for 30 minutes to hydrolyze RNA. The reaction was neutralized by adding 25 μ L of 1 mol/L of HEPES, pH 7.5 (Sigma Chemical Co.). Samples were purified on Microcon-30 columns (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and reduced to a volume of 8 μ L. Cy3 and Cy5 monofunctional reactive dyes (Amersham Biosciences UK Unlimited, Buckinghamshire, UK) dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (Riedel-de Haën) and 1 μ L of 0.5 mol/L sodium bicarbonate (pH 9.0; Sigma, St. Louis, MO) were added to the cDNA samples and incubated at room temperature for 1 hour. Dyes were quenched by incubation with 4.5 μ L of 4 mol/L Hydroxylamine (Aldrich Chemicals, Co., Milwaukee, MI, USA) at room temperature for 15 minutes. Labeled samples were purified on Chromaspin-30 columns (BD Biosciences Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Samples from 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice with Ca²⁺ supplementation were labeled with Cy3 and samples from 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice and 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice with Ca²⁺ supplementation were labeled with Cy5.

Hybridization of cDNA chips

Mouse NIH 15K cDNA chips (Ontario Microarray Centre, Toronto University, Canada) were prehybridized for at least 45 minutes in a filtered (0.22 micron Minisart-plus filter, Sartorius AG, Göttingen, Germany) and preheated buffer (37°C) containing 1 g bovine serum albumin (BSA) (Sigma Chemical Co.), 25 mL 20 \times standard sodium citrate (SSC), 25 mL pure formamide (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), 1 mL 10% (wt/vol) sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA), in a total volume of 100 mL. After washing the slides with distilled water and isopropanol (Mallinkrodt Baker BV, Deventer, The Netherlands), slides were spun dry. Slides were then loaded with 100 to 150 ng labeled cDNA in a filtered (0.22 micron) and preheated buffer

containing 25% (wt/vol) formamide (Bio-Rad Laboratories), 5 \times SSC [sodium chloride] (Riedel-de Haën); sodium citrate dihydrate (Merck, Dramstadt, Germany); 0.1% (wt/vol) SDS; 200 μ g/mL of Herring Sperm DNA (Invitrogen Life Sciences); and tRNA (Roche Molecular Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) that had been denatured at 95°C for 5 minutes and incubated at 42°C overnight in acclimatized hybridization chambers (Corning Incorporated Life Sciences, Acton, MA, USA). Slides were then washed first, in 100 mL 1 \times SSC with 0.2% (wt/vol) SDS; second, in 0.1 \times SSC with 0.2% (wt/vol) SDS; and finally, in 0.1 \times SSC.

Scanning/quantification of cDNA chips

Slides were scanned on the ScanArray 4000XL (BioDiscovery, Marina del Rey, CA, USA) at laser intensities of 85 to 90 and photomultiplier tube sensitivity of 60 to 65 at a resolution of 10 μ m. Images were quantified using Imagine software (BioDiscovery). Raw mean intensity data were averaged per duplicate spot and normalized on median ratios on the chip by correcting the Cy5 values. Spots with both Cy3 and Cy5 intensities below background plus two times the standard deviation of the background signal and spots with intensities exceeding 45000 were excluded from further analysis. Genes were considered significantly regulated when log₂ transformed ratios were ≥ 0.7 or ≤ -0.7 .

Clustering analysis and gene ontology annotations

Hierarchical clustering of microarray data was performed using the expression profiler tool EPCLUST (European Bioinformatics Institute; Jaak Vilo, Cambridge, UK). Average linkage (average distance) clustering based on correlation measure-based distance was performed on data for which ratios were >0.7 or <-0.7 in at least one comparison. Ratios of the genes were coupled to the biologic processes classification of the Gene Ontology Consortium (GO Consortium) [7] using proprietary software and Access 2000 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA, USA). For each biologic process category, the total number of annotated genes and the percentage of significantly changed genes were counted, and the average ratio was calculated. Interesting categories were defined as groups containing at least five genes and that had either a mean overall ratio of >0.3 or <0.3 or had at least 20% of the genes of that group changed significantly.

Serum Ca²⁺ measurements

Serum Ca²⁺ concentrations were measured using a colorimetric assay kit as described previously [8].

Statistical analysis

The serum Ca²⁺ data were expressed as the mean \pm SEM. Overall statistical significance was determined by

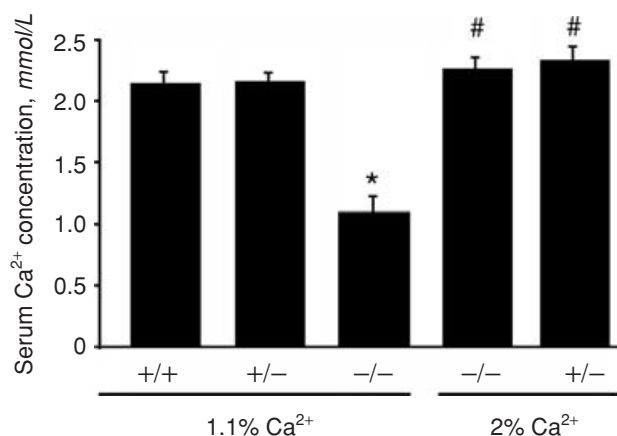


Fig. 1. The effect high dietary Ca²⁺ intake on the serum Ca²⁺ concentration in 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase^{-/-}) mice. Values are presented as means \pm SEM ($N = 6$). * $P < 0.05$, significant different from 1 α -OHase^{+/+} and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice fed a normal Ca²⁺ diet containing 1.1% (wt/vol) Ca²⁺; # $P < 0.05$, significant different from 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice on normal Ca²⁺ diet containing 1.1% (wt/wt) Ca²⁺.

analysis of variance (ANOVA). In the case of significance ($P < 0.05$), individual groups were compared by contrast analysis according to Scheffé.

RESULTS

Phenotypical characterization of the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice

Inactivation of the 1 α -OHase gene in mice resulted in severe hypocalcemia with serum Ca²⁺ concentrations around 1.2 mmol/L, whereas 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice, which are not distinguishable from 1 α -OHase^{+/+} mice, displayed normal plasma Ca²⁺ concentrations (Fig. 1). 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice fed a regular Ca²⁺ diet containing 1.1% (wt/wt) Ca²⁺ developed rickets and died with an average life span of 12 ± 2 weeks (data not shown). Interestingly, supplementation of these mice with an enriched Ca²⁺ diet containing 2% (wt/wt) Ca²⁺ normalized plasma Ca²⁺ concentrations that were not significantly different from 1 α -OHase control mice (Fig. 1). This latter diet resulted in a normal development and life span of these supplemented mice.

Gene expression profiles of 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice compared with 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice

Around 1000 genes were differently regulated in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus the 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice, whereas roughly 2000 genes were significantly regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ in the vitamin D-deficient mice. Interestingly, 557 transcripts, that account for 4% of the total number of 15,000 scanned genes, were regulated under both conditions. This is demonstrated in the Venn diagrams in Figure 2A. Moreover, only minor changes in expression were induced by dietary Ca²⁺ in 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice. Figure 2B and C shows the numbers of up- and down-regulated genes in all the experimental conditions

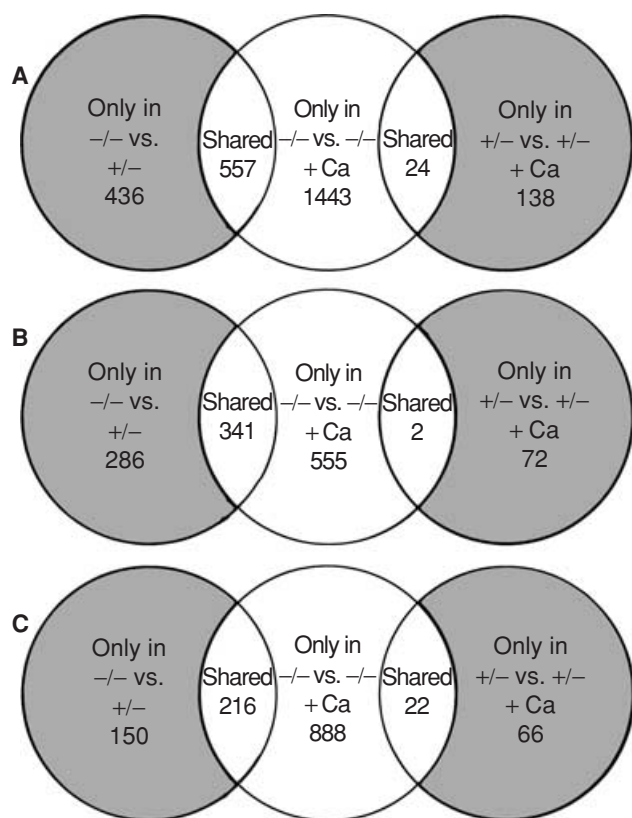


Fig. 2. Number of genes regulated when comparing the three conditions 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase^{-/-}) mice versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice (left), 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice supplemented with dietary Ca²⁺ (middle) and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice versus Ca²⁺ supplemented 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice (right). The number of total-regulated (A), up-regulated (B), or down-regulated (C) transcripts on the DNA chip are depicted. Genes are shown in the overlapping regions that are regulated in two conditions.

and includes an overview of the gene expression profile of each condition separately and in combination.

Next, we performed a hierarchical clustering of the three comparisons in the present study: 1 α -OHase^{-/-} versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-}, 1 α -OHase^{-/-} versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} supplemented with Ca²⁺ and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} compared to 1 α -OHase^{+/-} treated with Ca²⁺ (Fig. 3). A large portion of the expression profiles of knockout versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-} and 1 α -OHase^{-/-} versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} treated with Ca²⁺ were similarly regulated, but there were also some genes differentially regulated. The comparison of 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice treated with Ca²⁺ and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice compared to 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice supplemented with Ca²⁺ yielded far less similarity, but a distinct group of genes was coregulated.

Figure 4 shows representative differential expression of 1 α -OHase^{-/-} versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice in an intensity-dependent fashion with Cy3/Cy5 scatter plots. Up-regulated and down-regulated genes formed two distinct populations that clearly differentiate from the non-regulated genes. Of interest is the group of genes (de-

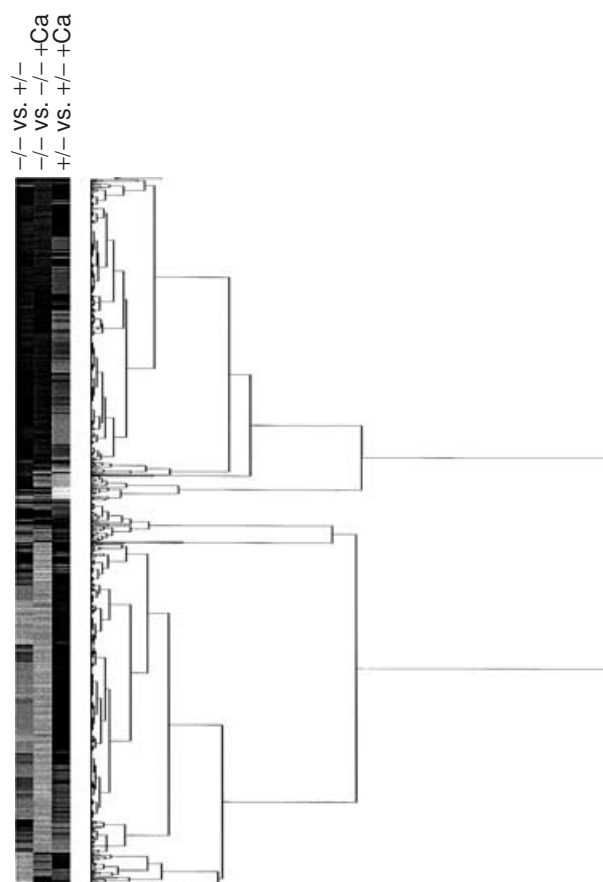


Fig. 3. Hierarchical clustering of all three comparisons [1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase^{-/-}) mice versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice, 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice treated with Ca²⁺ and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice compared to 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice fed the enriched Ca²⁺ diet]. Genes that are significantly up- (dark) or down-regulated (light) are shown.

icted log₂ above 0.7 and below -0.7) that were inversely regulated as a consequence of 1 α -OHase gene inactivation (Fig. 4A) and dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation in the vitamin D-deficient state (Fig. 4B). Genes depicted in yellow were regulated in a similar direction in the described comparisons.

Gene expression changes specifically related to Ca²⁺ supplementation

Further analysis of the genes that were inversely regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation and 1,25(OH)₂D₃ deficiency provides information about interesting candidates involved in the 1,25(OH)₂D₃-independent rescue mechanism by dietary Ca²⁺ (Table 1) (the complete data set of the regulated genes is accessible via <http://www.genomics.med.uu.nl/pub/bb/kidney/>). Two important cDNA transcripts, known to encode for Ca²⁺ transporting proteins in the distal part of the nephron, calbindin-D_{28K} and the Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger (NCX1),

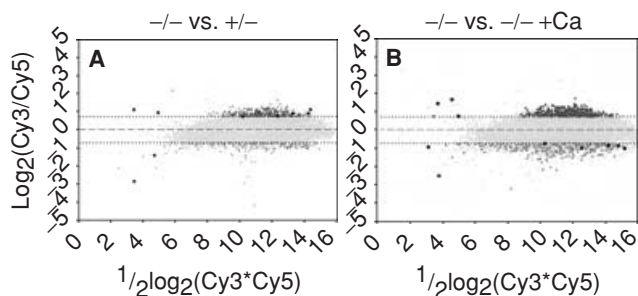


Fig. 4. Differential expression patterns depicted in an intensity-dependent fashion using Cy3/Cy5 scatter plots. Regulated genes by inactivation of the 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase) gene (A) and supplementation of dietary Ca²⁺ in the vitamin D-deficient state (B) form two distinct populations of genes. Genes that are regulated in two conditions (when 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice are compared with 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and when 1 α -OHase^{-/-} supplemented with dietary Ca²⁺) are shown above the 0.7 log₂ line (up-regulated in both comparisons) and below the -0.7 log₂ line (down-regulated in both comparisons). Genes that are regulated in opposite directions in both comparisons are shown as large black dots.

were down-regulated in the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and up-regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ in the 1,25(OH)₂D₃-deficient animal. Previously, these genes were analyzed by quantitative RT-polymerase chain reaction (PCR) in the same animal model and were found to be regulated in a similar manner [6]. Analysis of other genes that were significantly regulated revealed several genes previously unknown to be involved in the Ca²⁺ homeostasis. New candidates include the Ca²⁺-related genes like FK506 binding protein 4, calmodulin, and several ion transporters (i.e., the K⁺ channel protein Kcnq1, the Na⁺-H⁺ exchanger, and the voltage-dependent Ca²⁺ channel α 1 subunit). Several kinases and kinase substrates controlling distinct signalling pathways were regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ as well as a channel-interacting PDZ domain protein (Table 1).

Additional analysis was performed to study genes that followed the Ca²⁺ availability in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice. Although 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice did not show elevated levels of serum Ca²⁺ (Fig. 1), several genes were found to be down-regulated in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice without dietary supplementation and up-regulated when 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice were supplemented with Ca²⁺ (Table 2). These genes are thought to be interesting candidates that are controlled by Ca²⁺ irrespective of the vitamin D state of the animal. Among them were genes involved in mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK)/tyrosine kinase signaling and genes that are responsive to intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations (Table 2). Subsequently, genes regulated by the 1 α -OHase gene inactivation, but not sensitive to dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation, were identified and depicted in Table 3. Typical genes regulated by vitamin D only were identified in several function groups, including Ca²⁺ transport proteins and ion transporters.

Analysis using GO Consortium functional classification of genes

Differentially regulated genes were grouped into functional profiles using GO Consortium annotation. In both the comparison of the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} with the 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice and the comparison of the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice with the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice receiving the high Ca²⁺ diet, alterations in some functional categories could be identified. Of all 307 categories of biologic processes, 109 had five or more genes that were represented on the cDNA chip. Of these, 14 processes were considered to be changed in the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice and 32 processes in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice supplemented with Ca²⁺ comparison. Eleven categories were overlapping in both comparisons (Fig. 5). Inactivation of the 1 α -OHase gene and supplementation of Ca²⁺ in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice resulted in a regulation of genes involved in protein biosynthesis. Remarkably, a subset of the biologic processes were regulated in a similar fashion in both comparisons. Biologic processes such as glycolysis, peroxidase reaction, hydrogen transport, tricarboic acid cycle, iron homeostasis, and lymph gland development were decreased in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and reactivated through dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation. Genes involved in muscle development and induction of apoptosis were slightly up-regulated due to the absence of 1,25(OH)₂D₃, which were not affected by Ca²⁺ supplementation of the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we demonstrated that dietary Ca²⁺ intake is an important regulator of the Ca²⁺ homeostasis in vitamin D-deficient 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice, ultimately normalizing blood Ca²⁺ levels. Microarray analysis revealed that high dietary Ca²⁺ intake restores the disturbed genetic profile observed in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice, which is accompanied by a functional rescue of these 1,25(OH)₂D₃-deficient animals. Gene expression analysis showed simultaneous regulation of genes with potential importance for Ca²⁺ handling that were not previously identified as such and a subset of genes that were regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ independently of vitamin D₃.

Recently, Dardenne et al [1] generated an 1 α -OHase knockout strain that represents a valuable animal model for PDDR since these mice display all the clinical symptoms observed in patients, including hypocalcemia and rickets. These pathologic symptoms in the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice resulted in an early death with an average life span of 12 weeks. Normalization of the plasma Ca²⁺ concentrations by dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation was associated with a functional rescue of the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice that made the recovered mice phenotypically undistinguishable from wild-type mice. A previous study indicated that the Ca²⁺ transport proteins, including TRPV5

Table 1. Summary of candidate genes identified using cDNA microarrays

Function group	Gene name	Regulation (Log ₂ ratios)		GenBank accession number
		-/- vs. +/-	-/-Ca ²⁺ vs. -/-	
Calcium-related	Calbindin-D _{28K}	-0.86	0.83	D26352
	Calmodulin-I	0.81	-0.85	U16850
Immunology	FK506 binding protein 4	-0.93	1.26	NM010219
Matrix/structural proteins	Putative membrane protein GENX-3745 gene	0.82	-0.74	AJ270952
	Putative membrane protein 1190006A08Rik	-0.77	1.28	XM129531
Protein synthesis/translation control	Poly(A) binding protein II (Pabpn1)	0.99	-0.88	U93050
Receptor/channel/transporter	Kcnq1 gene for potassium channel protein (Tssc8)	0.74	-1.36	NM008434
	Voltage-dependent calcium channel alpha1 subunit (Cacn4)	-0.84	1.03	D43746
Signaling/communication	Voltage-dependent anion channel 1 (Vdac1)	-0.77	0.99	NM011694
	Sodium/calcium exchanger Slc8a1 (NCX1)	-1.18	1.57	NM011406
	Sodium/hydrogen exchanger, isoform 3 regulator 1 (NHERF-1) Slc9a3r1	-0.91	1.23	NM012030
	Serine/threonine kinase (Stk18)	0.90	-1.03	L29479
	Guanylate kinase 1 (Guk1)	0.88	-0.84	NM008193
	Channel-interacting PDZ domain protein (Cipp)	0.84	-0.72	NM172696
	v-crk-associated tyrosine kinase substrate (Crkas)	0.79	-0.71	NM009954
	Protein kinase C substrate 80K-H (Prkcsh)	-0.84	0.92	NM008925
	G protein-coupled receptor kinase 5 (GRK5)	0.83	-0.96	AF040756

Depicted genes are reversely regulated by inactivation of the 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase) gene and supplementation by dietary Ca²⁺ in the vitamin D-deficient state. The log₂ ratios represent the change in expression when 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice are compared to 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice and when 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice are supplemented with Ca²⁺. The complete data set of the regulated genes is accessible via <http://www.genomics.med.uu.nl/pub/bb/kidney/>.

(previously named ECaC1), calbindin-D_{28K}, and NCX1, were down-regulated in the 1 α -OHase mice [6]. Interestingly, the expression of these proteins was normalized by dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation.

The present analysis demonstrated that known Ca²⁺ transport proteins represented on the cDNA microarray, including calbindin-D_{28K} and NCX1, were regulated by dietary Ca²⁺. Dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation in the 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice had a maximum effect on NCX1 expression suggesting that this basolateral extrusion protein is an important mechanism in the process of transcellular Ca²⁺ reabsorption. In line with these findings are functional studies in cell model systems demonstrating that basolateral extrusion of Ca²⁺ is mainly achieved by NCX1 [9, 10]. Interestingly, calbindin-D_{9K} was not regulated by dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation. The expression of this Ca²⁺ binding protein was solely controlled by vitamin D in line with previous studies [6].

Dardenne et al [11] investigated recently bone histology and histomorphometry in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice supplemented with Ca²⁺ confirming that the rickets and osteomalacia were prevented. The Ca²⁺ rescue diet also restored the biomechanical properties of the bone tissue within normal parameters. Blood biochemical analysis revealed that the Ca²⁺ diet corrected the secondary hyperparathyroidism. This points at an important role for the decreased prevailing calcium levels per se, inde-

pendent of parathyroid hormone (PTH) and vitamin D. This significant effect of hypocalcemia could indicate a decrease in CaSR activation. The CaSR is an important gateway by which extracellular Ca²⁺ can affect a variety of second messenger systems, such as the phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) and phospholipase C (PLC), adenylate cyclase, and MAPKs. The downstream actions of CaSR on gene expression involve a large number of cellular processes, most notably secretory pathways of hormones, channels, and transporters (e.g., the thiazide-sensitive NaCl cotransporter, K⁺ channels and aquaporin-2) and apoptosis-related genes. In various clinical conditions associated with a disturbed Ca²⁺ homeostasis, vitamin D analogues are administered. The treatment of choice for PDDR and for patients with chronic renal failure is long-term replacement therapy with 1,25(OH)₂D₃. Notably, the currently applied strategy of vitamin D and Ca²⁺ supplementation to patients with chronic renal failure has been associated with undesirable effects, such as vascular calcification and calciphylaxis. It would be interesting to compare the normalization of plasma Ca²⁺ levels by Ca²⁺ supplementation with the treatment with vitamin D analogues in these patient groups.

Hierarchical cluster analysis of the 15K cDNAs demonstrated a remarkable overlap in the expression profiles between inactivation of the 1 α -OHase gene compared to 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and supplementation of dietary Ca²⁺

Table 2. List of genes that are regulated by the Ca²⁺ availability in 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase^{-/-}) and 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice with their corresponding ratios

Symbol	Gene name	Process	Regulation (Log ₂ ratios)		GenBank Accession No
			-/- vs. -/- Ca ²⁺	+/- Ca ²⁺ vs. +/-	
p70 (s6k)/p85 (s6k)	P70/p85 s6 kinase	MAPK signaling/cell proliferation/growth	-1.20	0.77	AJ000654
Pbef	Pre-B-cell colony-enhancing factor	Activation in lymphocytes	-0.84	0.77	BC018358
ECH1	Enoyl coenzyme A hydratase 1	Fatty acid beta-oxidation	-1.12	0.50	NM_016772
Fu	FUSED serine/threonine kinase		-0.72	0.58	O35625
Gsta4	Glutathione S-transferase, alpha 4	Antioxidative reponse	-1.56	0.98	NM_010357
BMP-1	Bone morphogenetic protein	Development	-0.95	0.51	AK004995
P4HA1	Prolyl 4-hydroxylase alpha (I)-subunit	Matrix/bone formation	-1.23	0.59	BC009654
Snta1	Syntrophin, acidic 1	Neuronal differentiation	-0.77	0.56	NM_009228
GC-globulin	Vitamin D-binding protein (GC)		-0.88	1.14	BC010762
UGT1	UDP glucuronosyltransferase	Detoxification	-1.34	0.96	BC012716
APC4	Anaphase-promoting complex subunit 4	Cell cycle	-1.29	0.55	Q9UJX5
RARRES2/TIG2	Retinoic acid receptor responder (tazarotene induced) 2		-1.04	1.11	NM_002889
BNIP3/NIP3	BCL2/adenovirus E1B 19 kDa interacting protein 1	Calcium storage	-1.19	0.77	X82564
JAG1	Jagged 1 (Alagille syndrome)	Differentiation	0.69	-0.77	NM_000214
HSD17B4	Hydroxysteroid 17-beta dehydrogenase 4	Testosterone biosynthesis	-0.76	0.54	NM_008292

The log₂ ratios represent the change in expression when supplemented with Ca²⁺ in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice and in 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice.

Table 3. List of genes that are significantly regulated by inactivation of the 1 α -hydroxylase (1 α -OHase) gene and not by dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation with their corresponding ratios

Symbol	Gene name	Process	Regulation (log ₂ ratios)		GenBank accession number
			-/- vs. +/-	-/- vs. -/-Ca	
ATP6g1	ATPase H ⁺ -transporting lysosomal proton pump	Proton transport	-0.72	-0.049	NM_004888
Abcc3	ATP binding cassette sub-family C (CFTR/MRP)	Ion transport	0.79	0.46	NM_029600
Calb3	Calcium binding protein D _{9K}	Ca ²⁺ transport	-1.37	-0.003	NM_009789
Cdk4	Cyclin-dependent kinase 4	Signaling	0.76	0.54	NM_009870
ECM1	Extracellular matrix protein 1	Adhesion	0.70	0.41	NM_007899
SLC7A	Cation amino acid transporter	Amino acid transport	1.21	0.26	NM_003982
COL3A	COL3A1 gene for collagen	Bone	-0.84	0.49	XM_129745
KCNN4	K ⁺ small conductance Ca ²⁺ activated channel	K ⁺ channel	0.89	-0.67	NM_008433
Hsp86 - 1	Heat shock protein Hsp86 - 1	Chaperone	-0.98	-0.56	XM_109307
P2RX4	P2b4c receptor unit	ATP-gated ion channel	1.00	0.64	AJ251461
D7RP2e	Kidney testosterone-regulated RP2	Signaling	-0.77	-0.23	NM_033080

The log₂ ratios represent the change in expression when 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice are compared with 1 α -OHase^{+/-} and 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice versus 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice supplemented with Ca²⁺.

in 1 α -OHase^{-/-}, whereas only a minor overlap was observed between 1 α -OHase^{-/-} with 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice. Interestingly, several transcripts, unknown to be involved in Ca²⁺ homeostasis, were significantly regulated. Previous studies from our group have shown that TRPV5, not present on the microarray chip, facilitates the rate-limiting step in the process of transcellular Ca²⁺ transport [12]. With respect to the gatekeeper function of this apical Ca²⁺ influx channel, it will be interesting to discuss three regulated cDNAs encoding a channel-interacting

PDZ domain protein (CIPP), FK506 binding protein 4, and calmodulin.

CIPP was found to interact with several ion channels including the acidic sensing ion channel ASIC3 and the inward rectifying potassium channel Kir [13, 14]. CIPP is a PDZ domain-containing protein that contains four PDZ domains. Interestingly, TRPV5 contains both in the amino and carboxyl-termini type I (S/T-X-V/L) PDZ-interacting domains, that are similar to the carboxyl-terminal sequence of the ASIC3 protein [15].

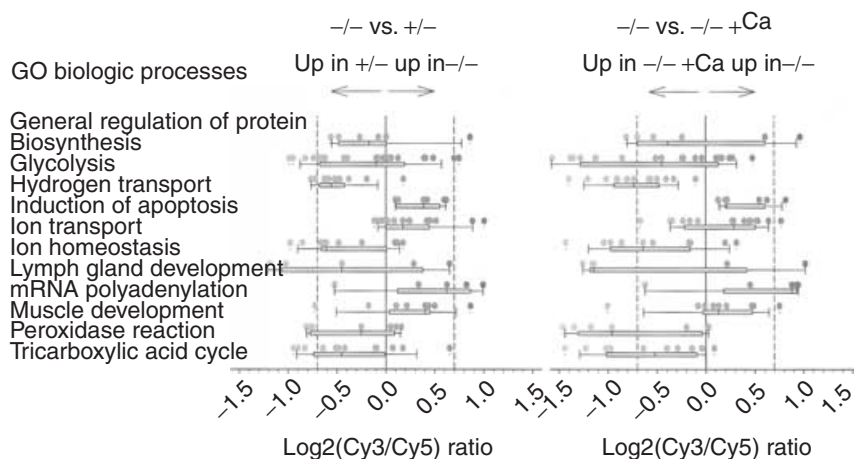


Fig. 5. A subset of regulated functional gene groups based on Gene Ontology (GO) with differential regulation due to 1α -hydroxylase (1α -OHase) inactivation or Ca^{2+} supplementation. Displayed GO groups contained at least five genes, had either a mean overall ratio of at least 0.3 or had at least 20% of the genes changed significantly in both comparisons. Box plots indicate the quartiles of the ratios.

PDZ-containing proteins can indeed influence the cell surface expression of ion channel proteins by, for instance, affecting their insertion, endocytosis, and recycling [16, 17].

The second transcript, FK506 binding protein 4 (FKBP4), has been implicated as an important regulation of ion channel activity. Of interest, the transient receptor potential-like channel (TRPL), a Ca^{2+} -permeable cation channel found in *Drosophila* photoreceptor cells that shares 25% homology and an identical structural topology with TRPV5, is modulated by FKBP4 [18]. Intriguingly, renal transplant recipients receiving the immunosuppressive drug FK506 (also known as tacrolimus), which is the substrate for FKBP4, had strongly reduced renal calbindin- D_{28K} protein levels and increased urine Ca^{2+} excretion [19, 20]. Furthermore, the treatment caused intratubular calcification [21]. The data suggest a link between the observed regulation of FKBP4 in the present study and the molecular regulation of Ca^{2+} reabsorption in the distal part of the nephron.

The third interesting candidate regulated on the chip was calmodulin. Calmodulin is a major cellular sensor of Ca^{2+} signalling and interacts with numerous proteins associated with cellular second messenger systems [22, 23]. Changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration regulate calmodulin in various distinct ways. First, at the cellular level, by directing its subcellular distribution. Second, at the molecular level, by promoting different modes of association with many target proteins. Third, by directing a variety of conformational states in calmodulin that result in target-specific activation. Fourth, the present study suggests an association between serum Ca^{2+} levels and the expression of calmodulin. Calmodulin-dependent regulation of protein kinases illustrates a potential mechanism by which Ca^{2+} -sensing proteins can recognize and generate affinity as well as specificity for effectors in a Ca^{2+} -dependent manner. It has been demonstrated that calmodulin interacts with several Ca^{2+} channels, including voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels [24], but also members

of the TRP family [25, 26]. Niemeyer et al [26] identified a new calmodulin binding site in the carboxyl-terminus of the TRPV5 homolog TRPV6. These investigators showed that Ca^{2+} -dependent calmodulin-binding to TRPV6 facilitates channel inactivation, which was counteracted by protein kinase C (PKC)-mediated phosphorylation of this putative calmodulin binding site. Based on the observed genomic regulation of calmodulin it will be of interest to investigate whether this Ca^{2+} sensor interacts with TRPV5. However, functional studies are required to study the role of calmodulin expression in regulating the Ca^{2+} balance and in particular the activity of TRPV5. The afore-mentioned genes were reversely regulated by inactivation of the 1α -OHase gene and normalized in expression by dietary Ca^{2+} , which raises the attractive hypothesis that these putative candidates regulate Ca^{2+} reabsorption in general and in particular TRPV5 activity, and thereby, restoring the hypocalcemia and subsequently other pathologic symptoms in the vitamin D-deficient mice.

In addition to the previously discussed reversely regulated genes, a subgroup of genes was regulated by dietary Ca^{2+} independent of the vitamin D status. These genes were found to be up- or down-regulated by Ca^{2+} in 1α -OHase $^{+/-}$ and 1α -OHase $^{-/-}$. An interesting candidate is MAPK (p70/p85 s6 kinase), an enzyme that has been implicated in many cellular signaling processes, including voltage-operated Ca^{2+} channels [27]. Furthermore, cDNAs encoding proteins, which are involved in activation of MAPK, are coregulated like syntrophin. Anchoring of ion channels at specific subcellular sites is critical for signaling, but the mechanisms underlying channel localization and clustering are largely unknown. Molecules such as ankyrin and syntrophin, that bind ion channels, may be important to maintain a high channel density at the plasma membrane [28]. Gene regulation was studied in total kidney RNA, although active Ca^{2+} reabsorption is restricted to the distal part of the nephron. The observed genomic regulation is, therefore, an averaged mRNA

difference measured in the whole kidney and studies with isolated tubules or cell lines originating from Ca²⁺ transporting segments are necessary to confirm the specific genomic regulation of particular genes.

Apart from normalizing plasma Ca²⁺ levels by Ca²⁺ supplementation in 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice, PTH levels were also normalized. Ca²⁺-induced effects could, therefore, be secondary to a change in the circulating PTH levels. The third comparison of Ca²⁺ supplementation in 1 α -OHase^{+/-} mice with normal 1,25(OH)₂D₃ and PTH levels suggests that these genes are regulated by Ca²⁺, irrespective of the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ and PTH state.

CONCLUSION

The present study demonstrated that high dietary Ca²⁺ is an important regulator of Ca²⁺ homeostasis in a vitamin D-deficient status. Using microarray analysis, we have demonstrated that dietary Ca²⁺ normalizes a large part of the renal gene expression changes resulting from the absence of 1 α -OHase. We also identified novel genes and biological pathways that are regulated in the Ca²⁺-mediated rescue of 1 α -OHase^{-/-} mice. Subsequent studies on these potential targets will provide insight in the molecular rescue mechanisms of dietary Ca²⁺ supplementation.

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Reprint requests to René J.M. Bindels, 160 Cell Physiology, Nijmegen Centre for Molecular Life Sciences, University Medical Centre Nijmegen, P.O. Box 9101, NL-6500 HB Nijmegen, The Netherlands. E-mail: r.bindels@ncmls.kun.nl

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