

CALCIUM METABOLISM AND HOMEOSTASIS- CALCIOTROPIC HORMONES-METABOLIC ACTIONS. RECEPTORS AND SIGNALING

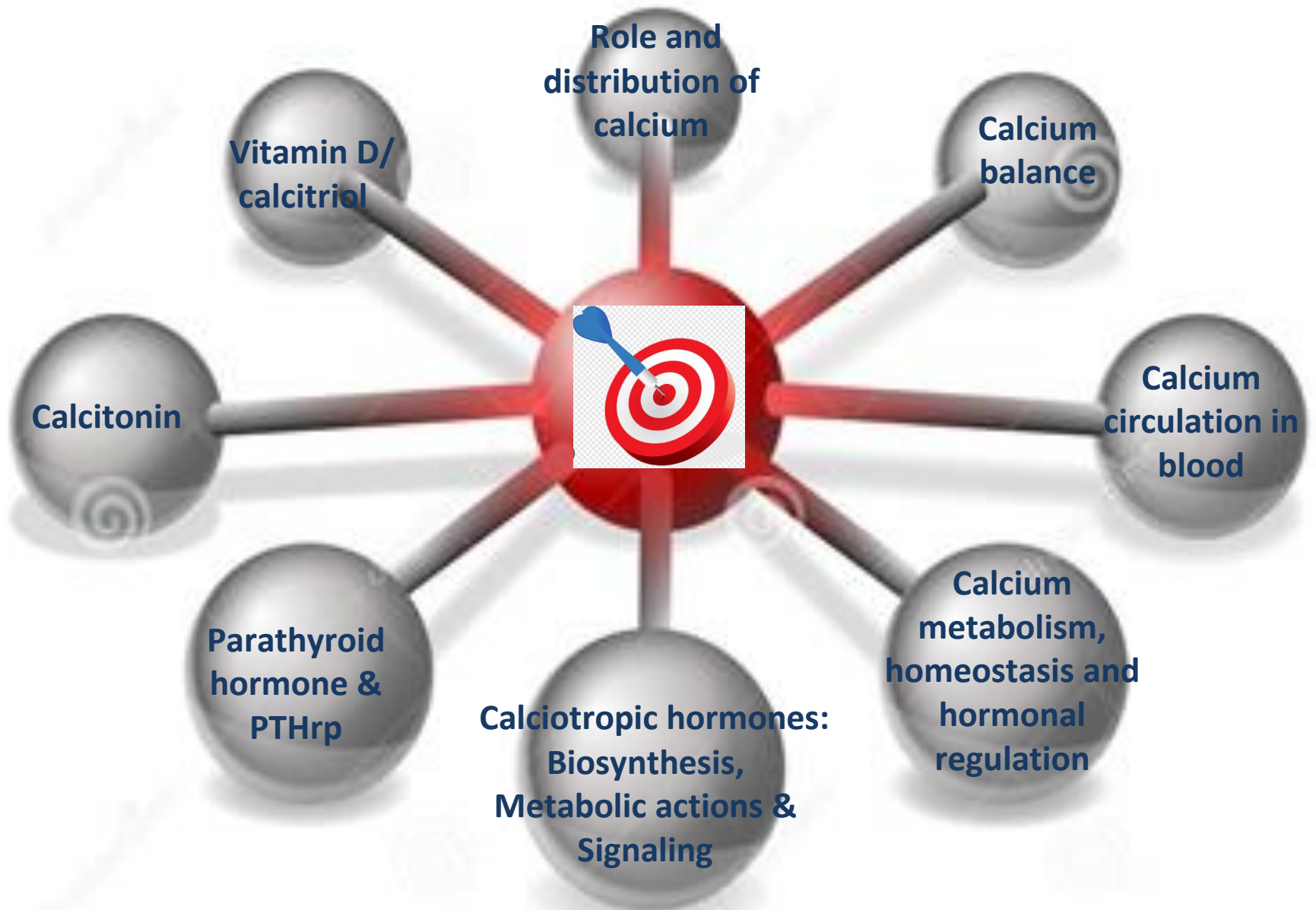
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BIOCHEMISTRY**

MEDICAL SCHOOL, NKUA

EDUCATIONAL AIMS



1. HOW CALCIUM IS DISTRIBUTED IN OUR ORGANISM?

2 % body
weight

1,400 gr

1. Bones and teeth 99%

2. Extracellular fluid

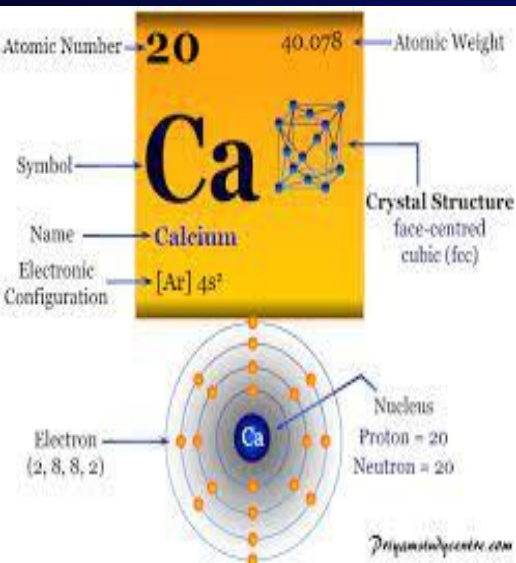
3. Intracellular space

< 1%

> 99% of total body calcium is in bone and not easily accessible. Less than 1% is in the extracellular fluid and intracellular space (~20-30mmol total)



2. WHAT IS THE ROLE OF CALCIUM?



Calcium plays an important role in:

- ❖ Cell signaling and 2nd messenger
- ❖ Neurotransmission and hormone release
- ❖ Exocytosis of proteins
- ❖ Muscle contraction
- ❖ Blood clotting
- ❖ Biomineralization

3. WHAT ARE THE FOOD SOURCES FOR CALCIUM?



Dairy (cow, goat, sheep) and fortified plant-based milks (almond, soy, rice)

Cheese.

Yogurt.

Calcium-fortified orange juice.

Winter squash.

Edamame (young green soybeans); Tofu, made with calcium sulfate.

Canned sardines, salmon (with bones)

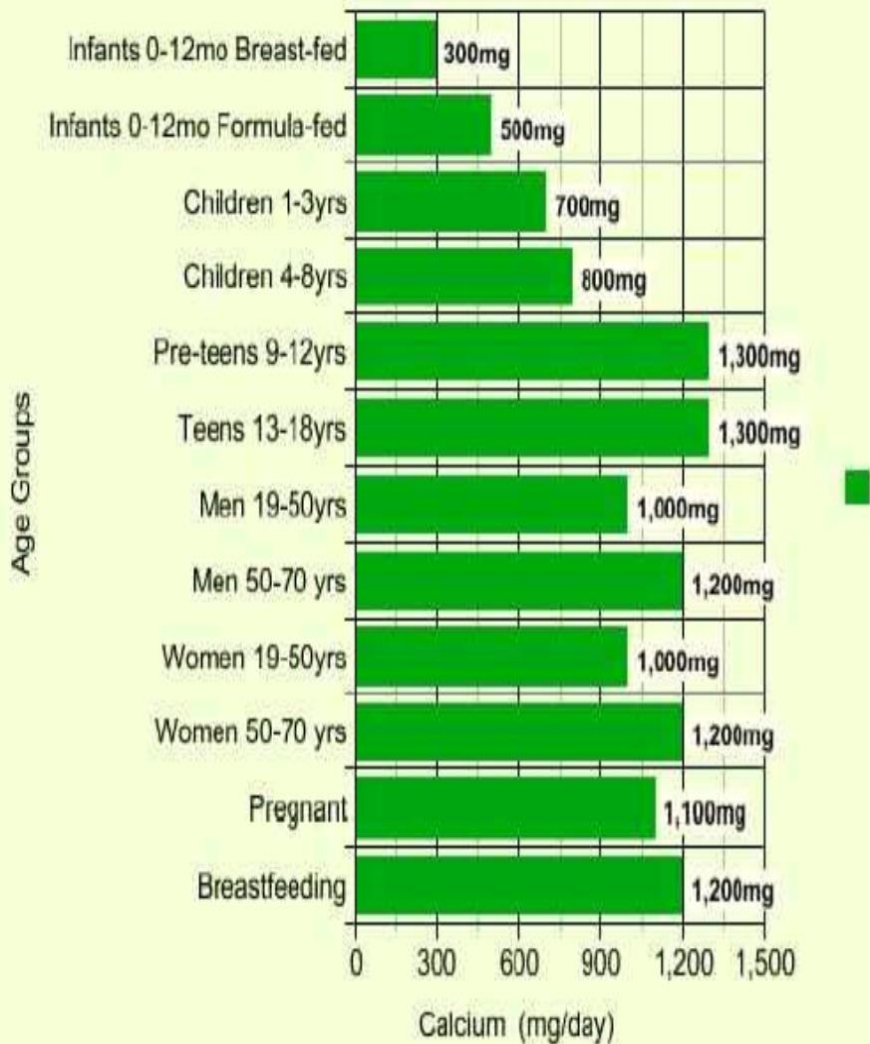
Almonds.

Calcium helps build dense bones



4. WHAT ARE THE SUGGESTED DAILY CALCIUM NEEDS?

Suggested Daily Calcium Needs (mg/day)



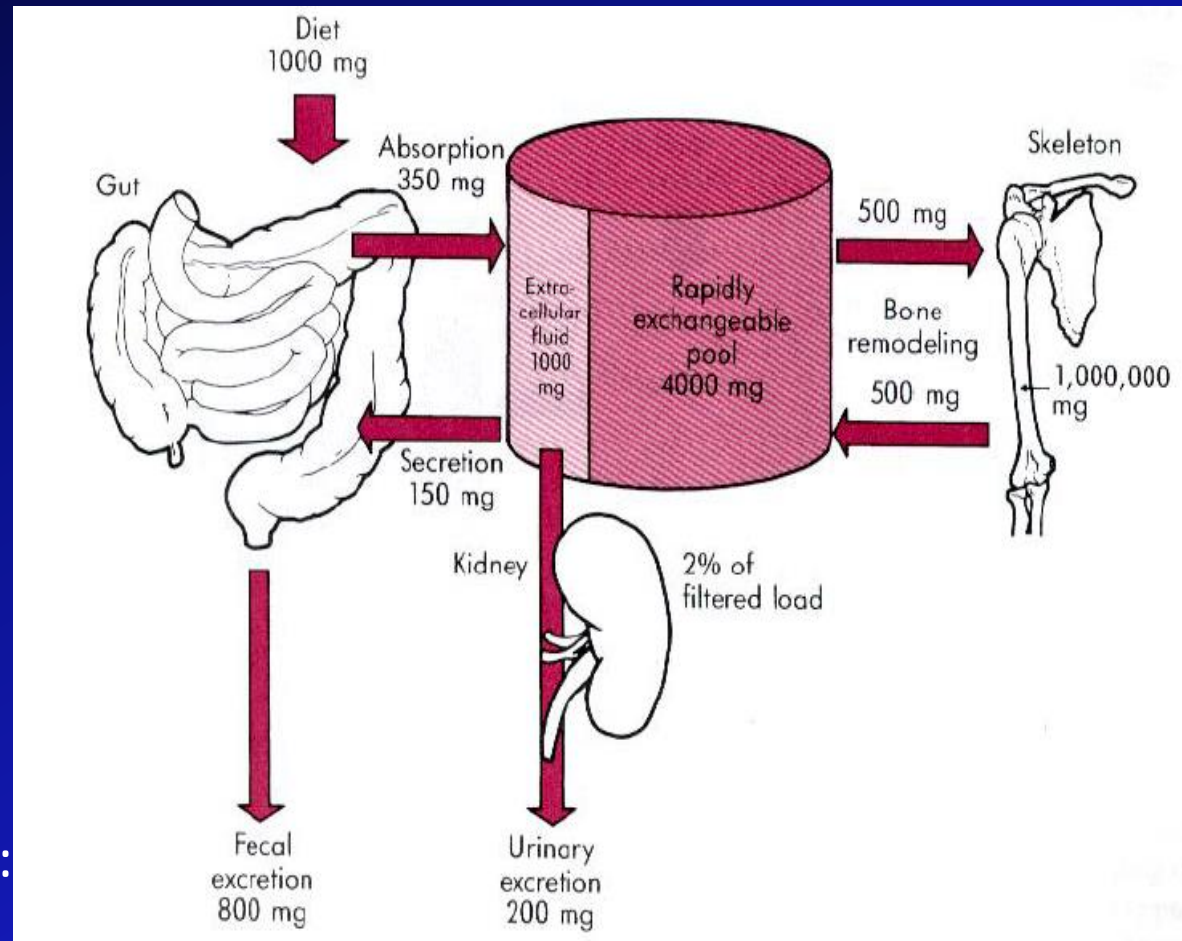
What is the food highest in calcium?

A Guide to Calcium-Rich Foods

Produce	Serving Size	Estimated Calcium*
Milk, skim, low-fat, whole	8 oz	300 mg
Yogurt with fruit, low-fat	6 oz	260 mg
Mozzarella, part-skim	1 oz	210 mg
Cheddar	1 oz	205 mg

5. WHAT IS CALCIUM BALANCE?

- **Calcium balance** is the difference between the amount of calcium an organism ingests every day and how much it loses.
- Intake = output
- This balance is **positive** during skeletal growth in children, **zero** in adults, and **negative** in the elderly.
- Negative calcium balance: Output > intake
 - Neg Ca^{2+} balance leads to osteoporosis
- Positive calcium balance: Intake > output (growth)



- Calcium is essential, we can't synthesize it
- Only 1/3 of the calcium taken is absorbed.
- Unlike organic nutrients calcium absorption is **hormonally controlled**

6. HOW DOES CALCIUM CIRCULATE IN BLOOD?

Total Ca^{2+} : 3 Forms of Circulating Ca^{2+}

Circulating calcium fractions

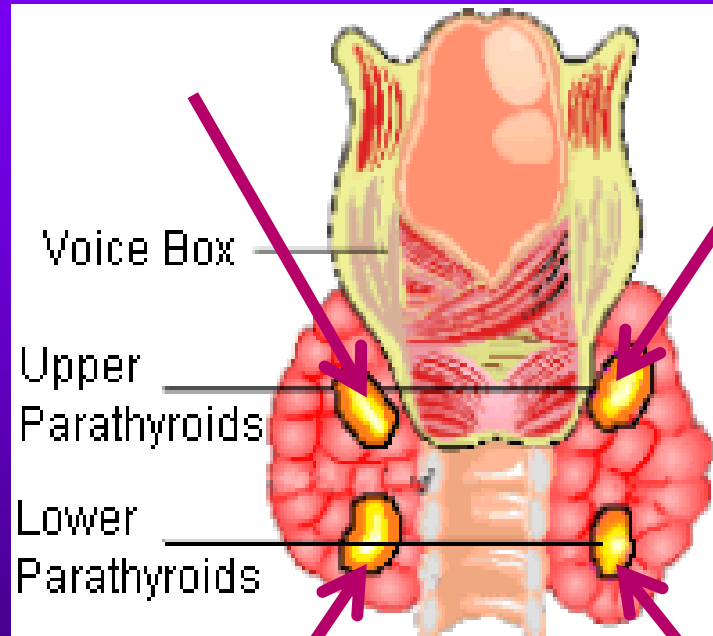


$$\begin{array}{l} \text{total Ca}^{2+} \\ (2.2-2.6 \text{ mmol/L}) \end{array} = \begin{array}{l} \text{ionized Ca}^{2+} \\ (1.1-1.3 \text{ mmol/L}) \end{array} + \begin{array}{l} \text{protein bound Ca}^{2+} \\ (0.9-1.0 \text{ mmol/L}) \end{array} + \begin{array}{l} \text{complexed Ca}^{2+} \\ (0.2-0.3 \text{ mmol/L}) \end{array}$$

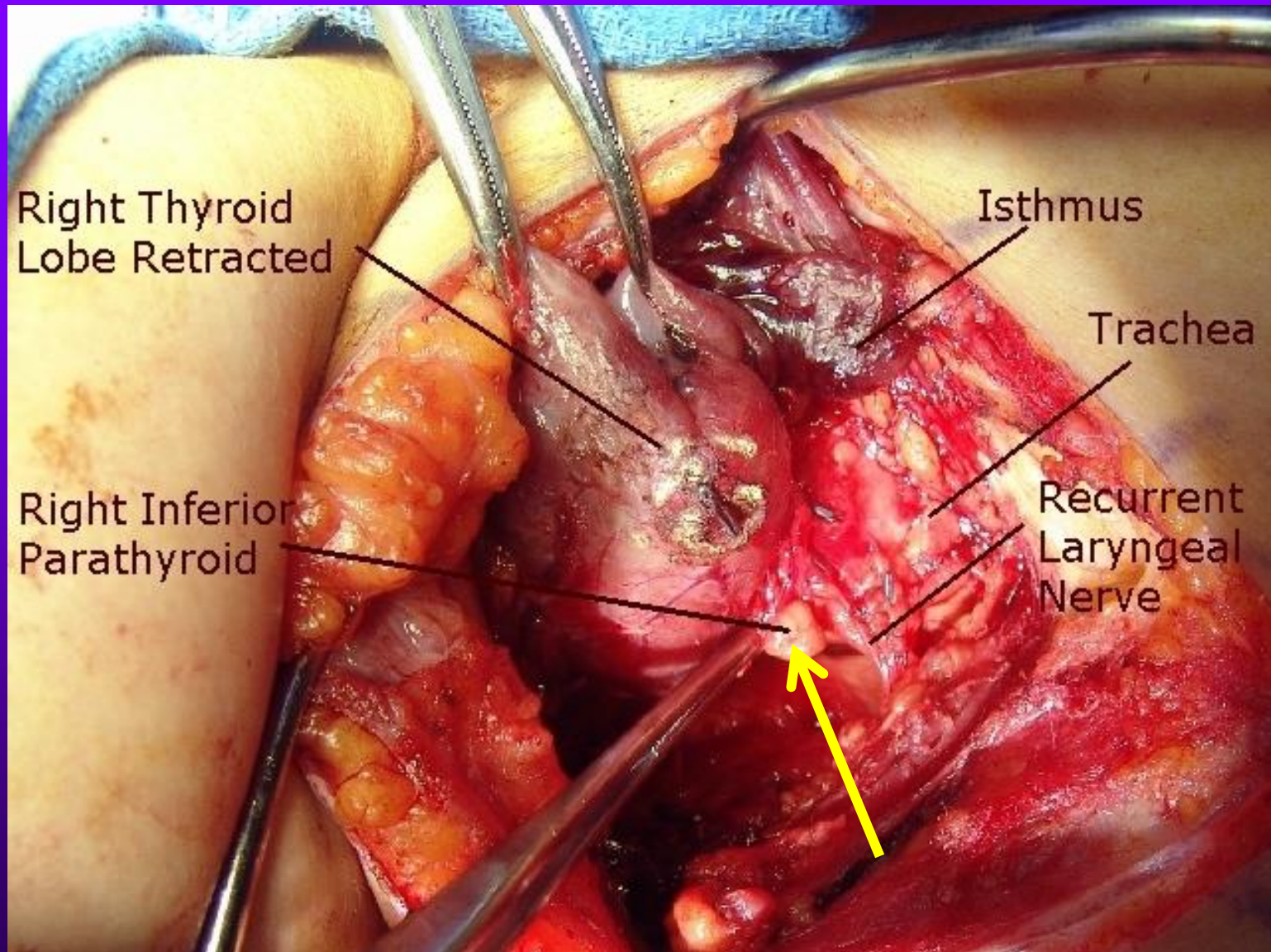
7. CALCIUM HOMEOSTASIS & HORMONAL REGULATION

- ✓ BLOOD CALCIUM LEVEL REMAINS STABLE (9 ± 1.5 mg/dL)
- ✓ CALCIUM HOMEOSTASIS IS ENSURED BY THE ACTION OF **CALCIOTROPIC HORMONES.**
- ✓ **Main Calciotropic Hormones:**
 - Parathyroid hormone (PTH)
 - Vitamin D (1,25 dihydroxycholecalciferol/calcitriol)
 - Calcitonin (CT)
 - Parathyroid hormone related protein (PTHrP)
- ✓ **Organ systems** that play an important role in Ca^{2+} metabolism
 - Skeleton
 - GI tract
 - Kidneys

8.1. PARATHYROID HORMONE or PARATHORMONE (PTH)



- ✓ Parathormone (PTH) is produced by the **parathyroid glands**
- ✓ Usually, 4 parathyroid glands
- ✓ The parathyroid glands are little **pea-sized glands** found behind the thyroid gland in the neck.
- ✓ If we remove all the parathyroid glands from dogs and cats, the animals will die within a few days.
- ✓ **PTH is essential for life (Regulator of Ca^{2+} homeostasis)**



Right Thyroid
Lobe Retracted

Isthmus

Trachea

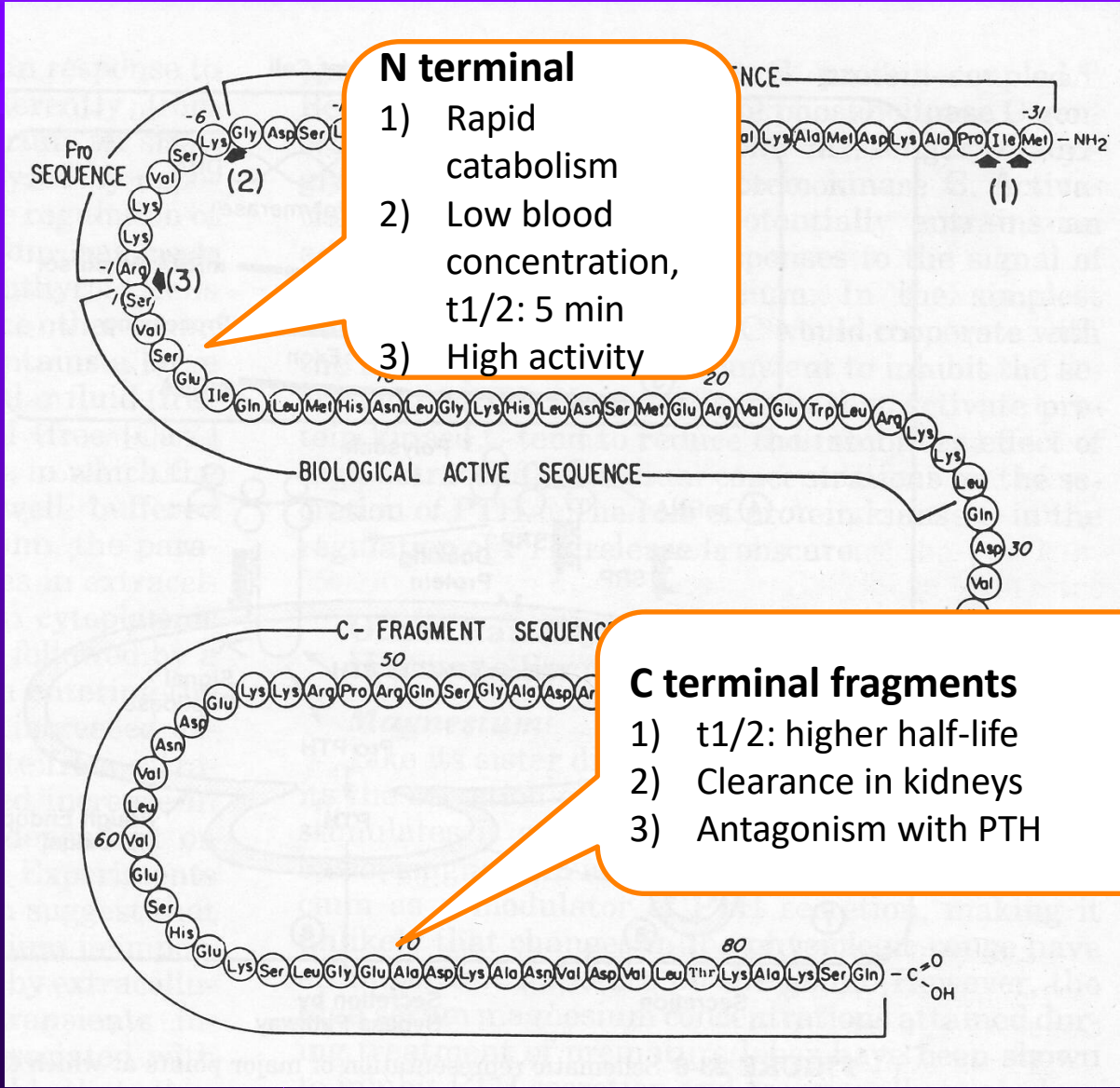
Right Inferior
Parathyroid

Recurrent
Laryngeal
Nerve

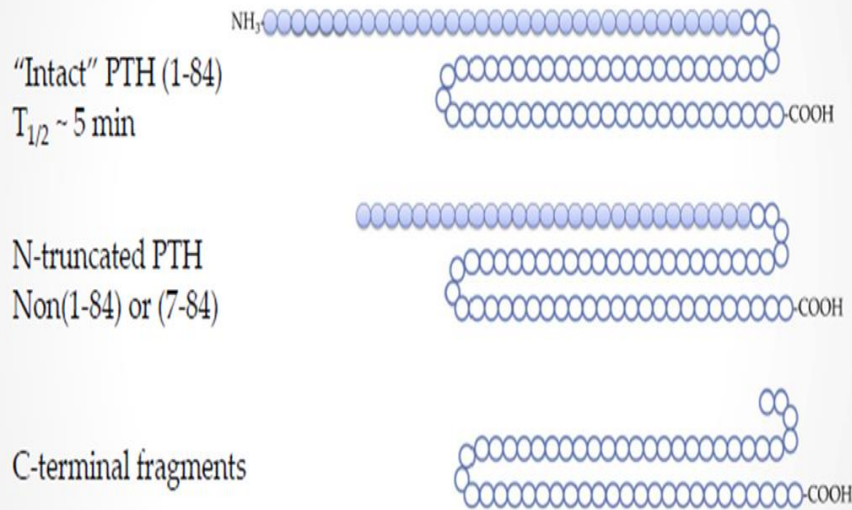


8.2. PARATHYROID HORMONE (PTH) STRUCTURE

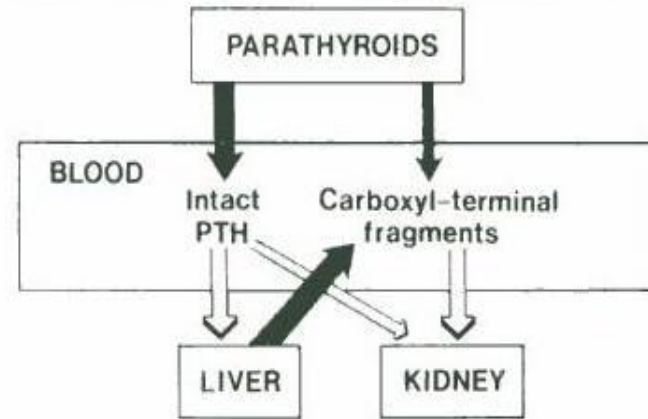
- Synthesized from PreProPTH
- 115 aa precursor giving a 90 aa prohormone
- Cleaved at -6/-7, 84 aa residues in the mature peptide (PTH)
- Only the first 29 aa in the mature PTH are the biological active sequence



8.3. PTH CIRCULATING FORMS



Secretion and metabolism of intact PTH and carboxyl-terminal fragments. Secretion is indicated by solid arrows, and major directions of metabolism by open arrows.

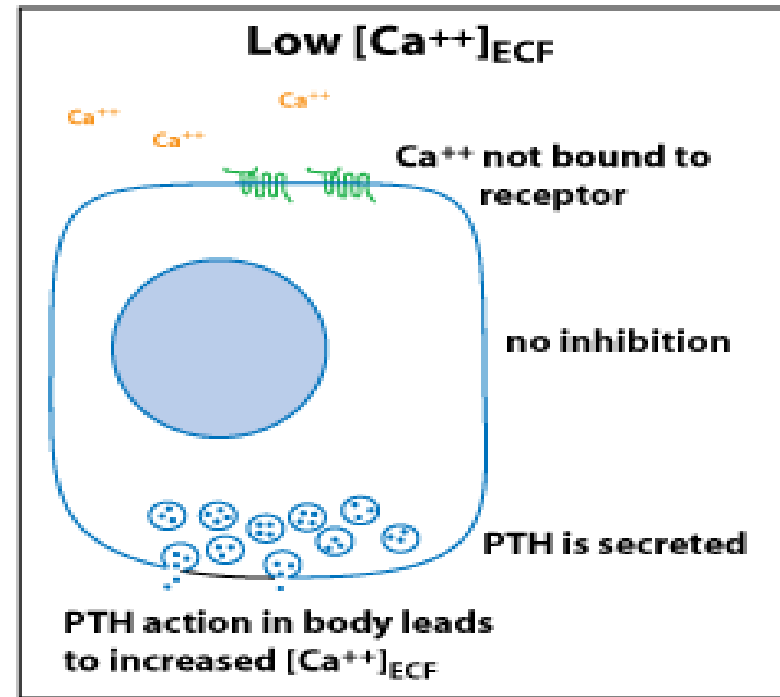
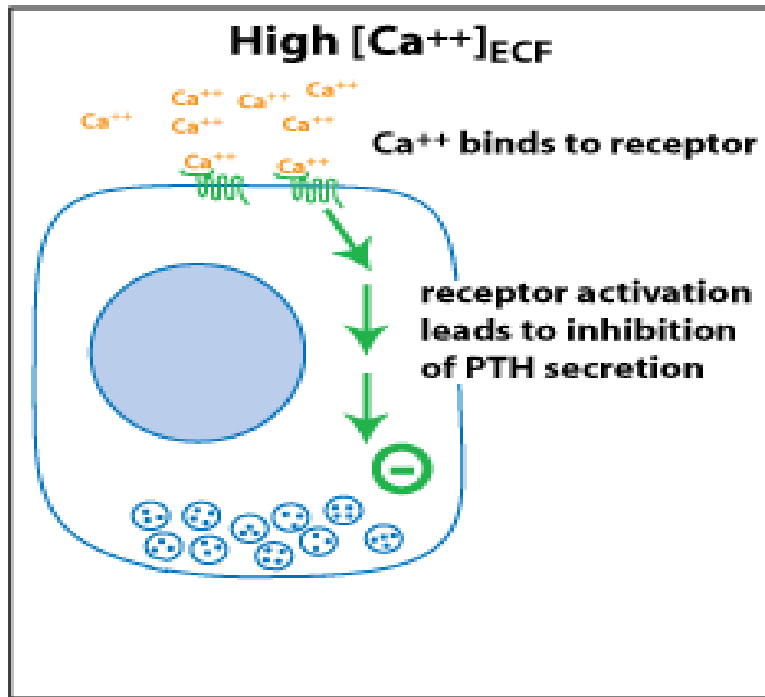


- 1) Intact PTH:** active PTH of 84 aa. PTH $t_{1/2}$ (half life) is 2-3 min
- 2) N-truncated PTH:** Non (1-84) or (7-84). Lacks the N-part.
- 3) Inactive carboxyterminal fragments:** lack the 1-34 active domain
Liver (2/3rds) and kidney (1/3rd) are major sites of fragmentation

8.4. Regulation of PTH Secretion and Biosynthesis

- **Extracellular Ca^{2+}** regulates the transcription and secretion of PTH through the **Calcium Sensing Receptors (CaSR)**
 - Low Ca^{2+} increases PTH
 - High Ca^{2+} decreases PTH
- **Elevated serum phosphate** concentration in turn stimulates PTH secretion, presumably by lowering extracellular calcium and increasing stability of the PTH mRNA
- **High levels of 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D** inhibit transcription of PTH

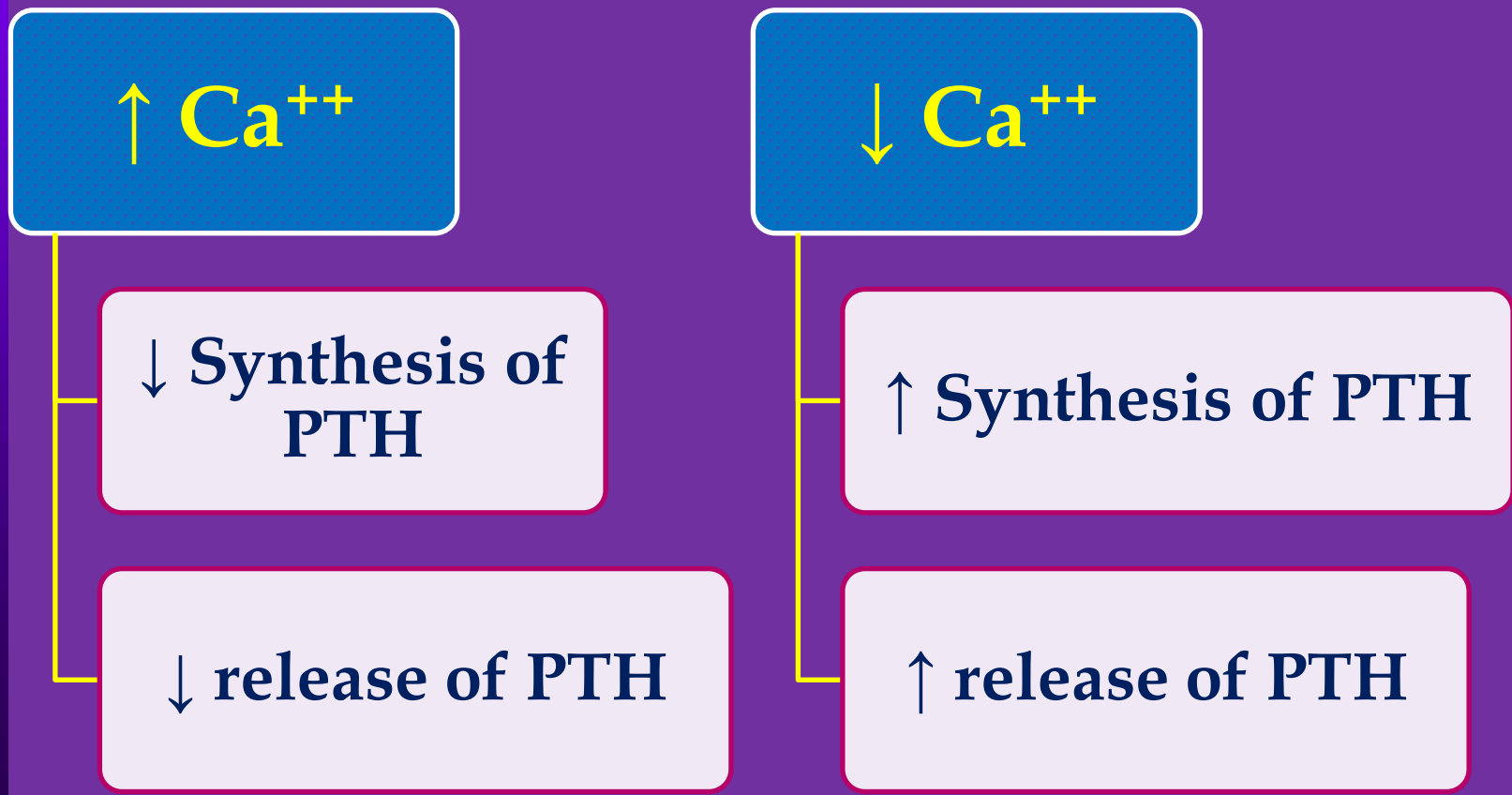
Calcium Sensing Receptors (CaSR) and PTH secretion from parathyroid chief cells



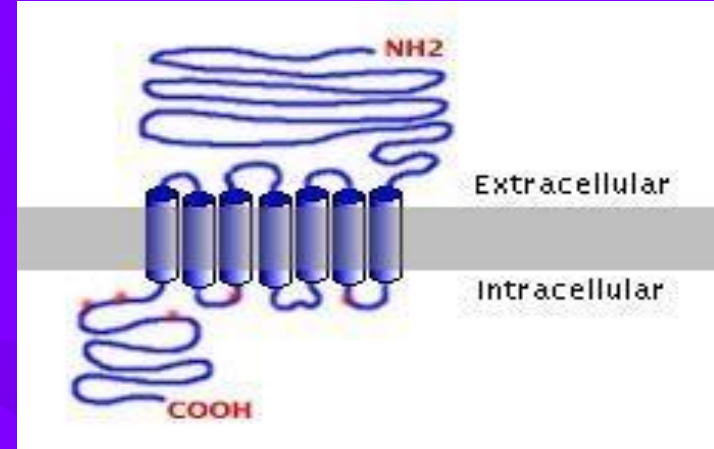
The parathyroid gland is composed of two types of cells: chief and the oxyphil.

Parathyroid chief cells, the main type of parathyroid gland cells, secrete PTH. Oxyphil cells secrete PTHrP, calcitriol, and some other factors.

Calcium Sensing Receptors (CaSR) and PTH secretion from parathyroid chief cells



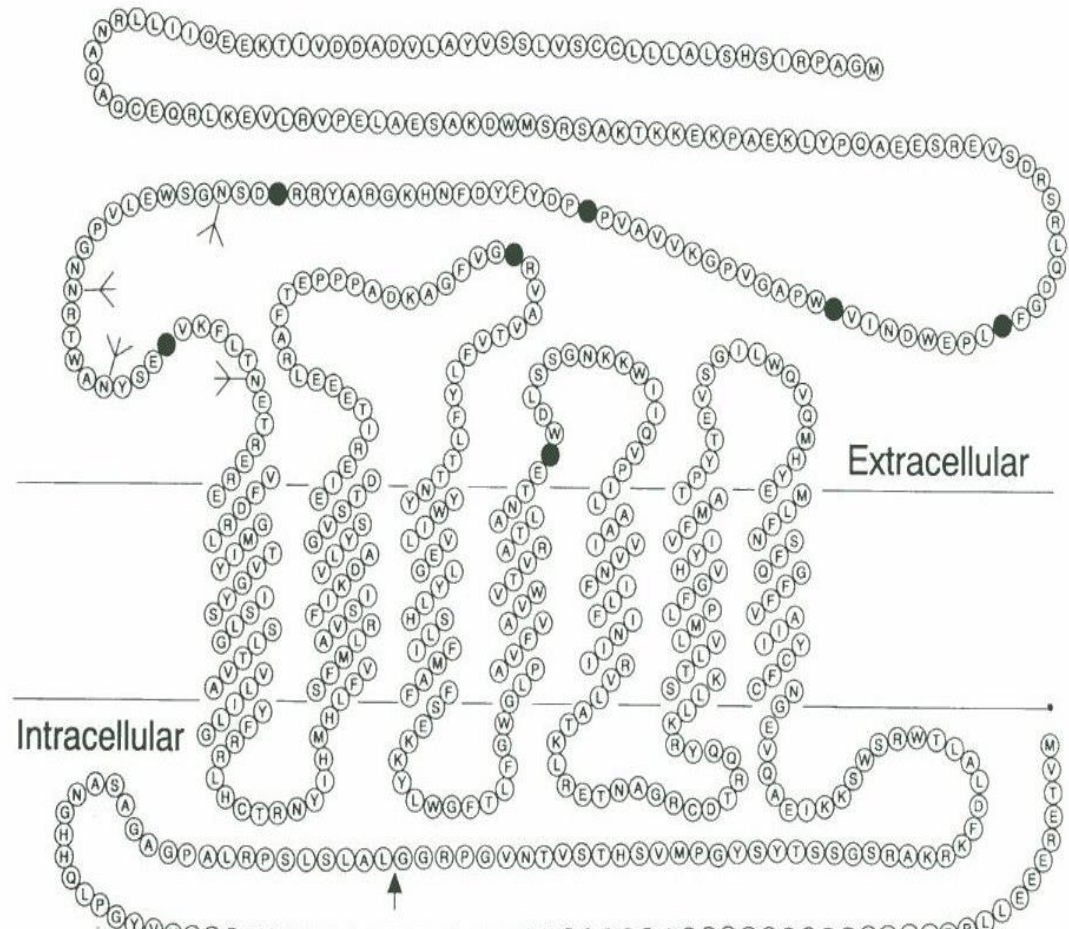
Calcium Sensing Receptor (CaSR)



- Parathyroid chief cells contain a Ca^{2+} sensing receptor (CaSR)
 - 7 transmembrane segments (7 TM receptors)
 - mM affinity for Ca^{2+}
 - GPCR of the G_{PLC}
 - Generates inositol 1,4, 5-trisphosphate which \rightarrow increases intracellular Ca^{2+}
 - There are two paradoxes:
 - The receptor responds to decreasing concentrations of calcium
 - Low extracellular Ca^{2+} increases intracellular Ca^{2+} which leads to the release of PTH

8.5. Parathyroid Hormone Receptors

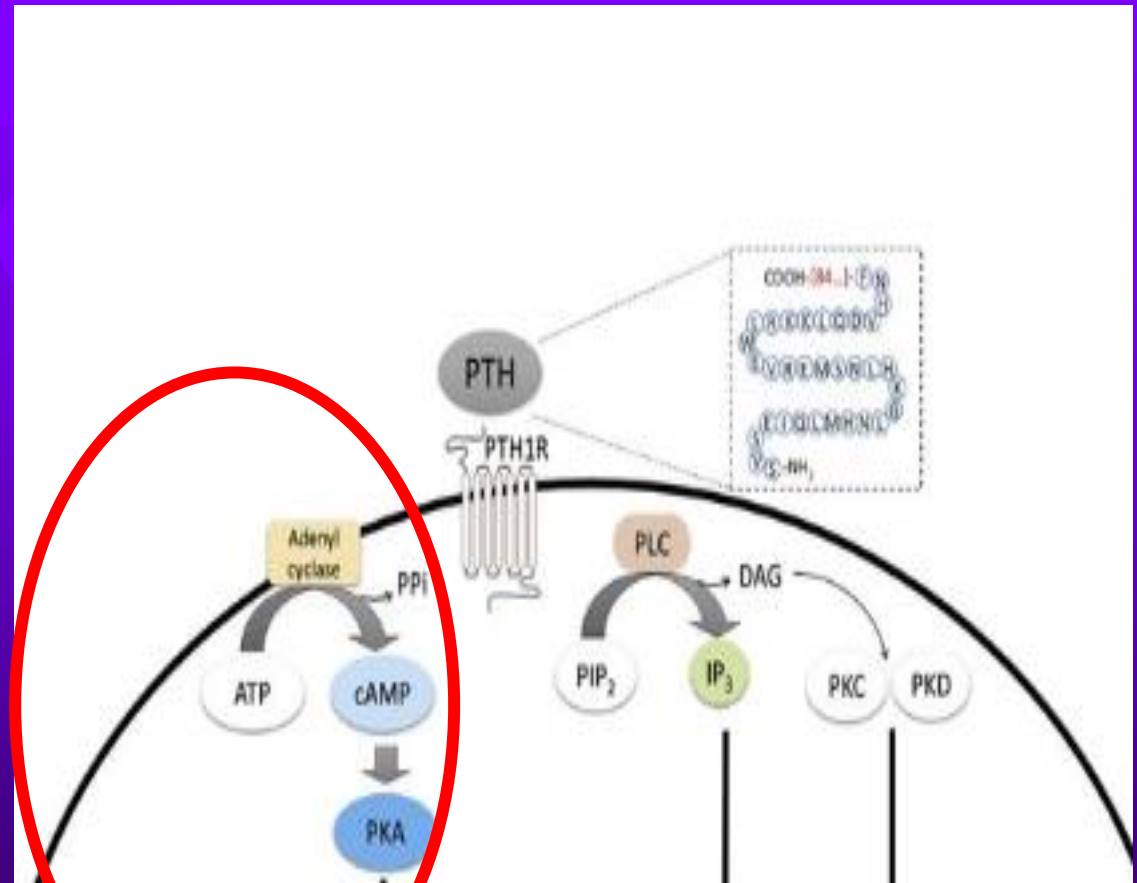
- 7 TM
- GPCR
- PTH acts on target organs mainly through **receptor type 1 (PTH1R)**. As an endocrine hormone, the predominant physiologic effect of PTH is to raise blood calcium through actions in the bone, gut and kidney.
- **Another receptor: in PTH2R** (CNS, pancreas, testes, placenta)



Schematic representation of the PTH/PTHrP receptor (NH₂ terminus at top) from kidney cells, potential N-glycosylation sites (△), and cysteine residues that are conserved in the calcitonin receptor (●). In OK-H, residues 508 to 515 (to the left of the arrow) are WPCSALLD. The peptide ends eight residues after the arrow.

8.7. PTH Intracellular Signaling

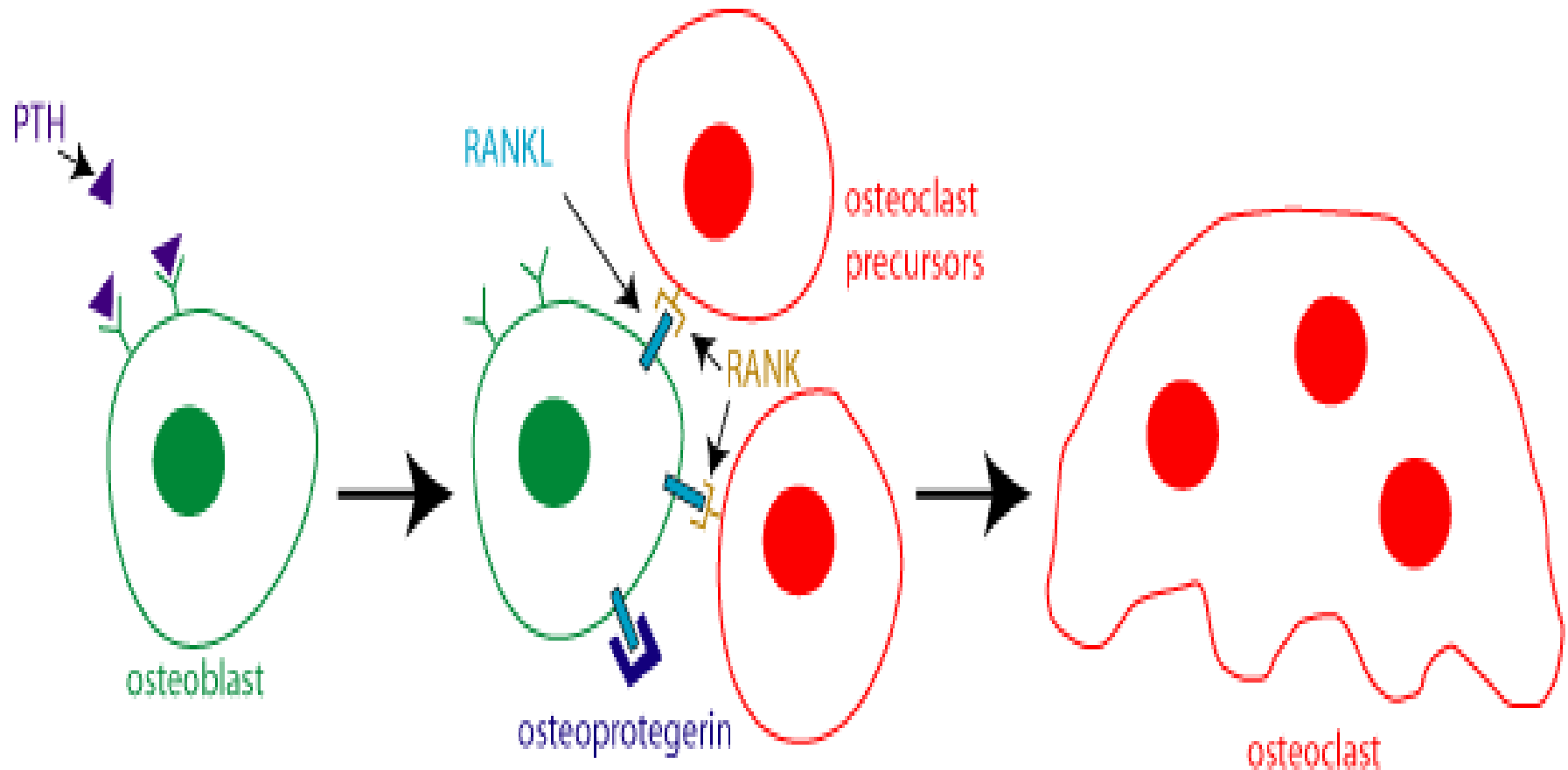
- Intracellular signaling downstream of PTH1R primarily occurs via a $G_{\alpha s}$ /cAMP-linked signaling system.



8.8. PTH Metabolic Actions

- Fine tunes Ca^{2+} levels in blood
 - It increases Ca^{2+}
 - It decreases P_i
- PTH acts directly on **BONE** to **stimulate resorption** and **release of Ca^{2+}** into the extracellular space (slow)
 - Gs protein-coupled receptors in osteoblasts increase cAMP and activate PKA, **inhibiting osteoblast function**
 - This occurs when PTH is secreted continuously; the opposite occurs when it is given once daily by injection (in this case, PTH stimulates osteoblast function)
- PTH **increases Ca^{2+} absorption** in **SMALL INTESTINE**
- Two effects on **KIDNEYS**:
 - PTH acts on **KIDNEY** to **increase calcium reabsorption and phosphate excretion** via Gs protein-coupled receptors
 - Parathyroid hormone acts on distal tubule
 - Calcitonin inhibits
 - Stimulates transcription of 1-alpha hydroxylase for Vitamin D activation in kidney
 - In turn, vitamin D increases calcium and phosphate absorption in the gut

HOW DOES PTH ACT ON BONE?



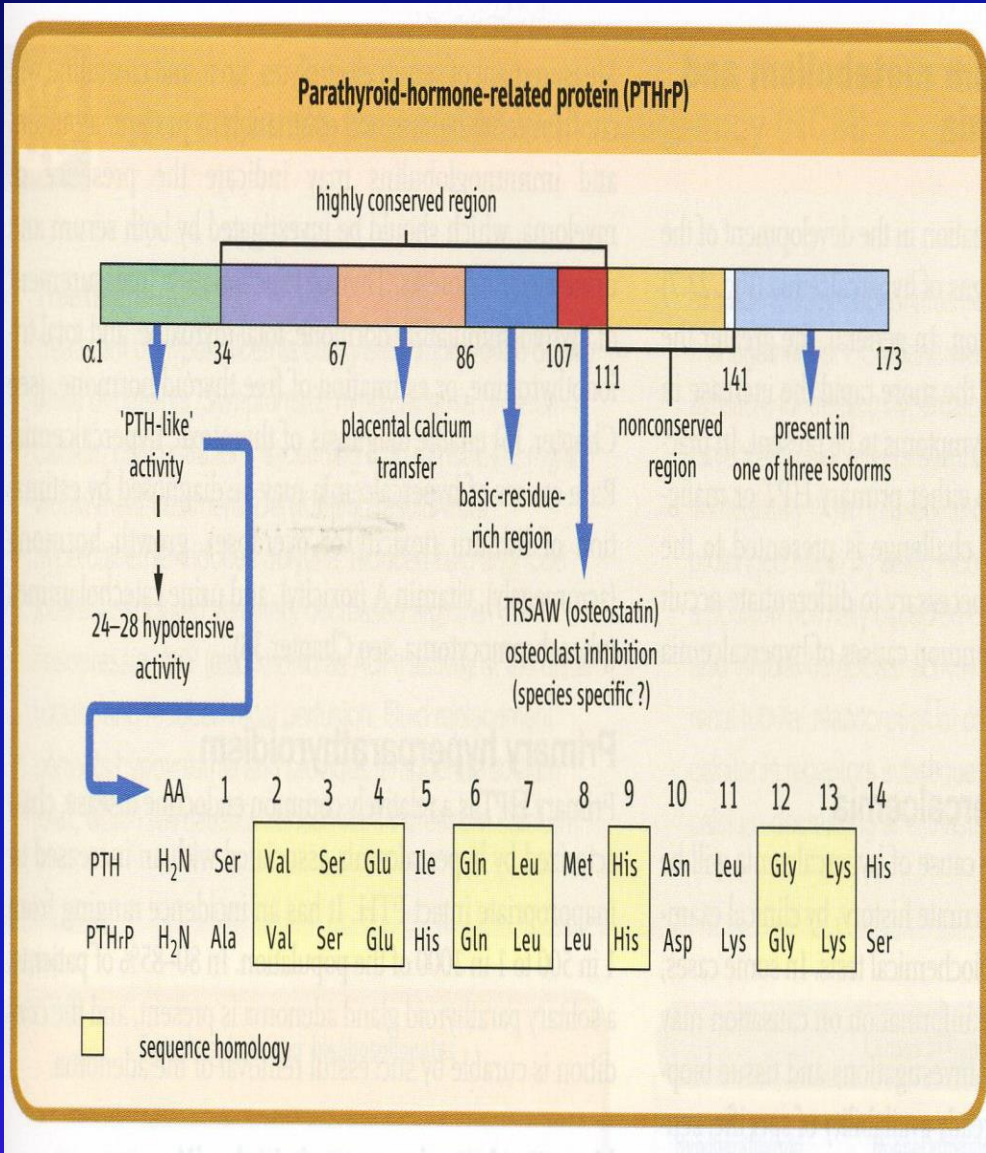
This slide is explained by the next 2 slides

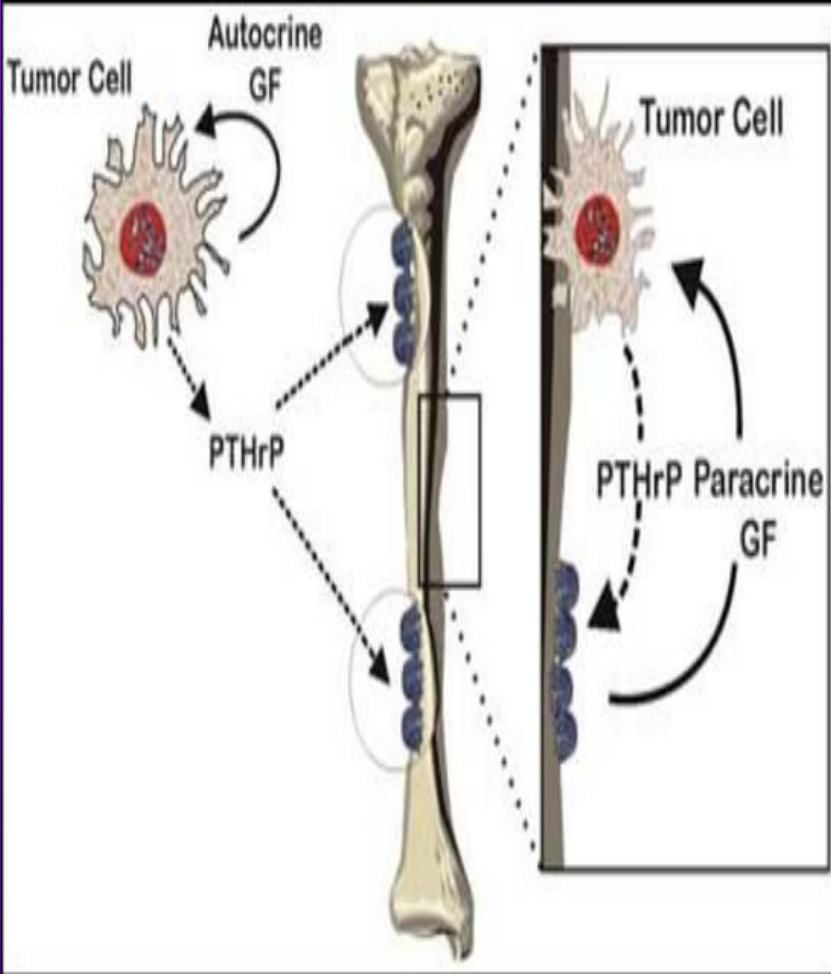
- ✓ **Bone mass** in adults is determined by the relative activity of bone formation by **osteoblasts** and bone resorption by **osteoclasts**. If bone resorption is greater than bone formation, there is a loss of bone mass leading first to osteopenia and then to osteoporosis.
- ✓ **Osteoblasts** are responsible for producing the calcified layer of bone. They secrete calcium, phosphate, osteoid proteins, cytokines, RANKL (ligand) and osteoprotegerin (OPG). PTH and vitamin D control osteoblast function.
- ✓ **Osteoclasts** are the cells responsible of bone resorption. They are large motile multinucleated cells derived from the same hematopoietic stem cells from which macrophages are derived. Osteoclasts secrete acids and enzymes that dissolve calcium phosphate in bone.
- ✓ **Surprisingly**, although osteoclasts are responsible for resorbing bone and theoretically should be the targets of PTH to try to increase blood calcium, they have no receptors for PTH.

- ✓ Instead, the effects of PTH are mediated by a variety of paracrine molecules including **Osteoprotegerin (OPG)**, also known as osteoclastogenesis inhibitory factor, and an osteoclast differentiation factor **called RANKL**. PTH receptors are found in osteoblasts. When PTH stimulates osteoblasts, they secrete factors that regulate osteoclast activity and differentiation.
- ✓ The **key osteoblast signaling molecule RANKL** which binds to **RANK** in osteoclast precursors and mature osteoclasts. Activated RANK receptors increase acid secretion from mature osteoclasts and promote the formation of new osteoclasts. At the same time, that osteoblasts secrete RANKL, they also secrete a molecule called OPG, which binds to RANKL to prevent it from binding to RANK. PTH acts on osteoblasts to inhibit the synthesis of osteoprotegerin which inhibits RANKL.
- ✓ By adjusting the ratio of RANKL and OPG, **osteoblasts are able to control osteoclast activity**

9. PTHrP; Parathyroid Hormone related Protein

- It is synthesized as 3 isoforms from alternative splicing (139, 141, 173 aa)
- Can activate the PTH receptor
- Plays a physiological role in lactation, possibly as a hormone for the mobilization and/or transfer of calcium to the milk
- May be important in fetal development





-PTHrp may also be produced by tumor cells playing a role in the development of hypercalcemia of malignancy

-Some lung cancers are associated with hypercalcemia

-Other cancers can be associated with hypercalcemia

9. CLINICAL CORRELATIONS



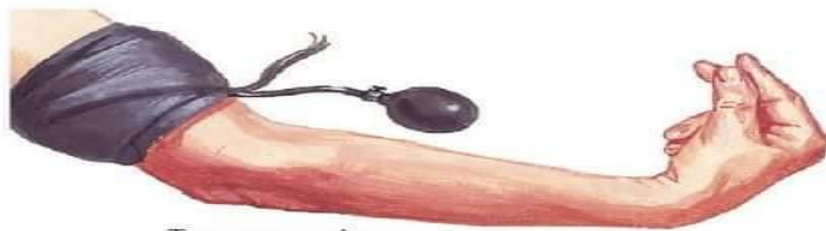
*Let's understand better PTH actions by studying cases with **low** and **high** calcium...*

Main Causes of Hypocalcemia

Hypoparathyroid	Nonparathyroid	PTH Resistance
Postoperative	Vitamin D deficiency	Pseudo-hypoparathyroidism
Idiopathic	Malabsorption	
Post radiation	Liver disease	
	Kidney disease	
	Vitamin D resistance	

One important cause of low calcium is **the dysfunction of parathyroid glands** (which do not produce PTH)

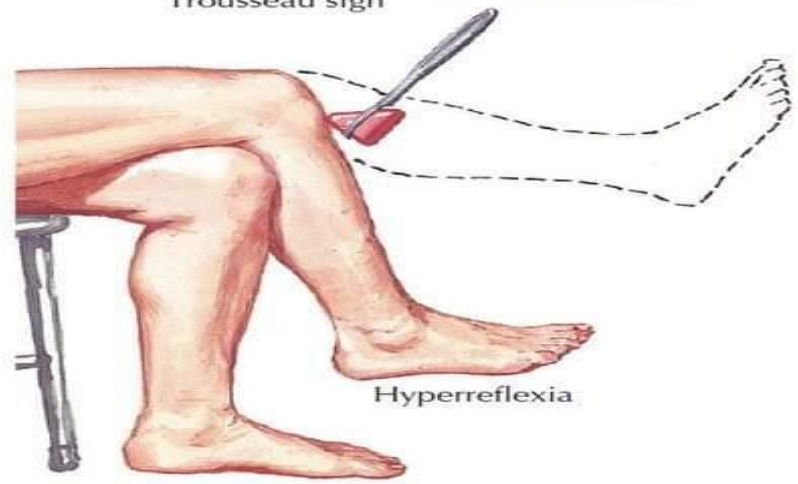
CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF HYPOCALCEMIA



Trousseau sign

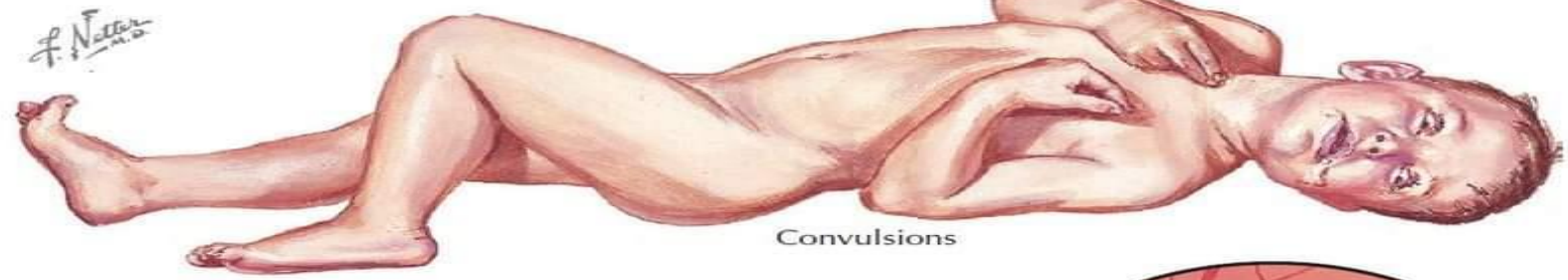
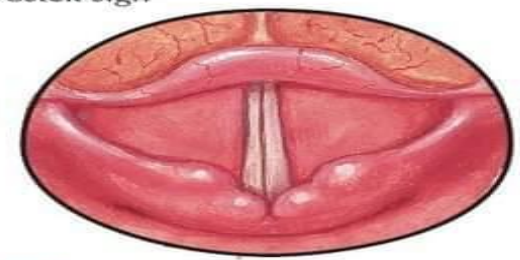


Chvostek sign

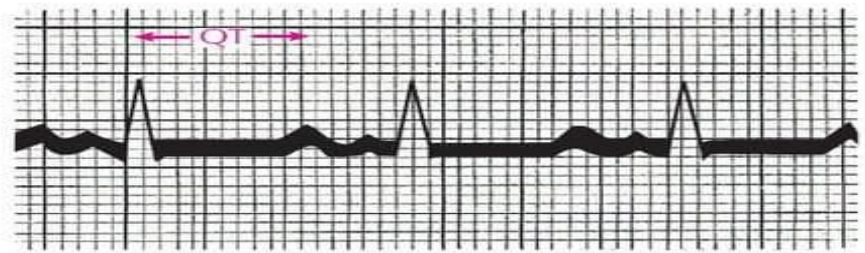


Hyperreflexia

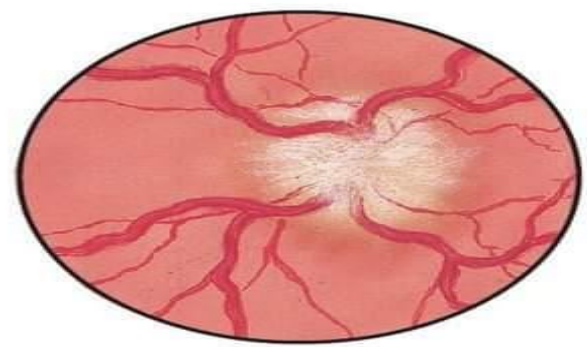
Laryngeal spasm (stridor)



Convulsions



Electrocardiogram: prolonged QT interval



Choked disc

Main Causes of Hypercalcemia

Common	Uncommon
Hyperparathyroidism	Renal failure
Malignant disease, e.g. some lung cancers	Sarcoidosis
Vitamin D toxicity (excessive intake)	Multiple myeloma

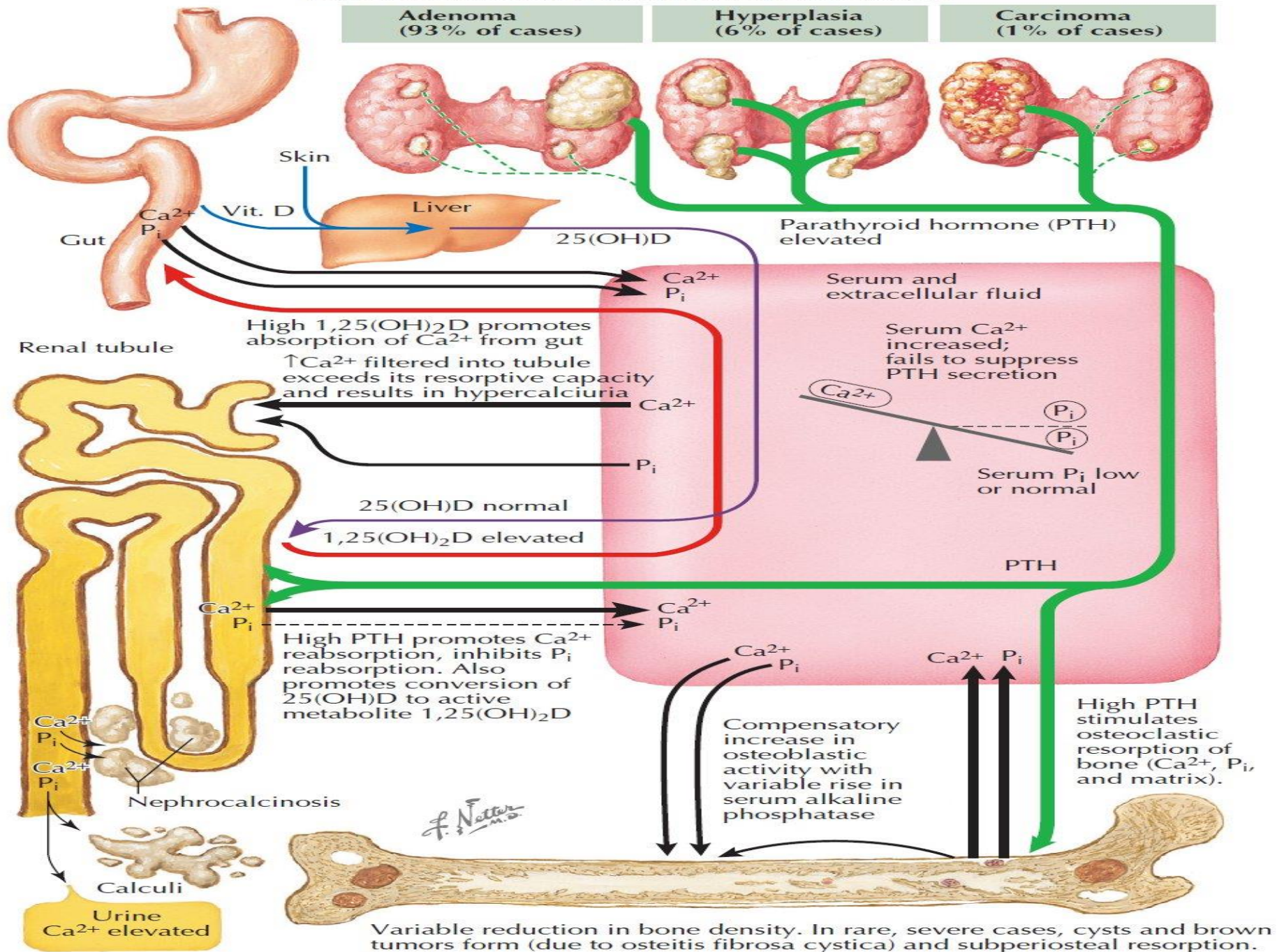
One important cause of **high** calcium is **the hyperfunction of parathyroid glands** (which produce elevated PTH)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF PRIMARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

**Adenoma
(93% of cases)**

**Hyperplasia
(6% of cases)**

**Carcinoma
(1% of cases)**



Parathyroid gland adenoma



CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF PRIMARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

Mild, asymptomatic: Most common
(serum Ca^{2+} often <12 mg/dL)

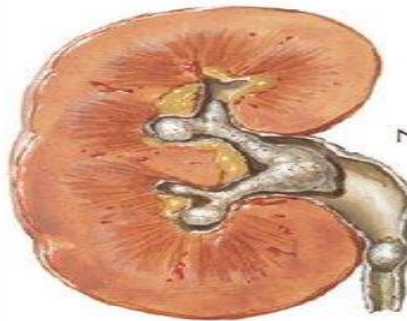
Elevated serum Ca^{2+} often discovered incidentally on routine blood chemistry workup



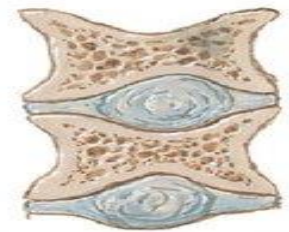
f. Netter M.D.



Moderate-to-severe, symptomatic: Uncommon
(serum Ca^{2+} often >12 mg/dL)

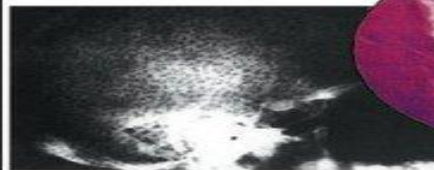


Nephrolithiasis

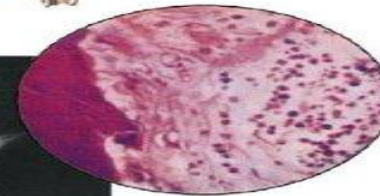


Biconcave ("codfish") vertebral bodies

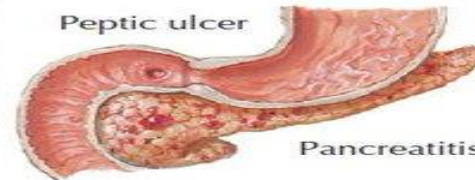
Bone biopsy shows increased resorption and peritrabecular fibrosis.



Radiograph shows spotty decalcification of skull.



Radiograph shows subperiosteal resorption.

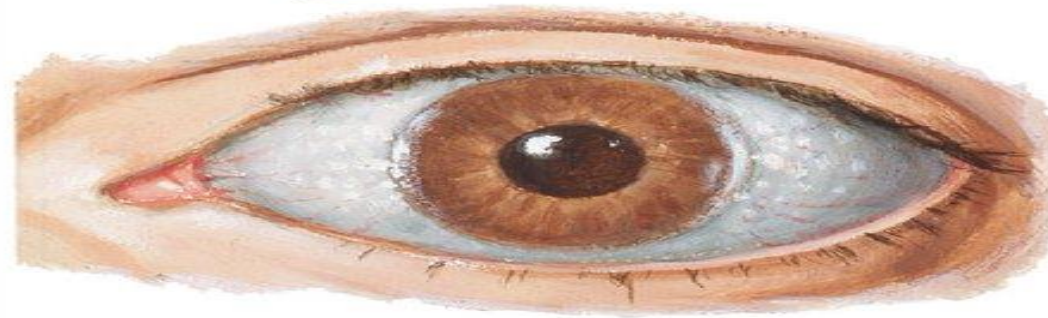


Peptic ulcer

Pancreatitis



Calcification of joint cartilage (pseudogout)



Conjunctival calcification; band keratopathy may be seen on slit-lamp examination.

Most patients asymptomatic or have only mild systemic manifestations such as weakness, polyuria, nocturia, constipation, or hypertension
Source: The Netter Collection of Medical Illustrations

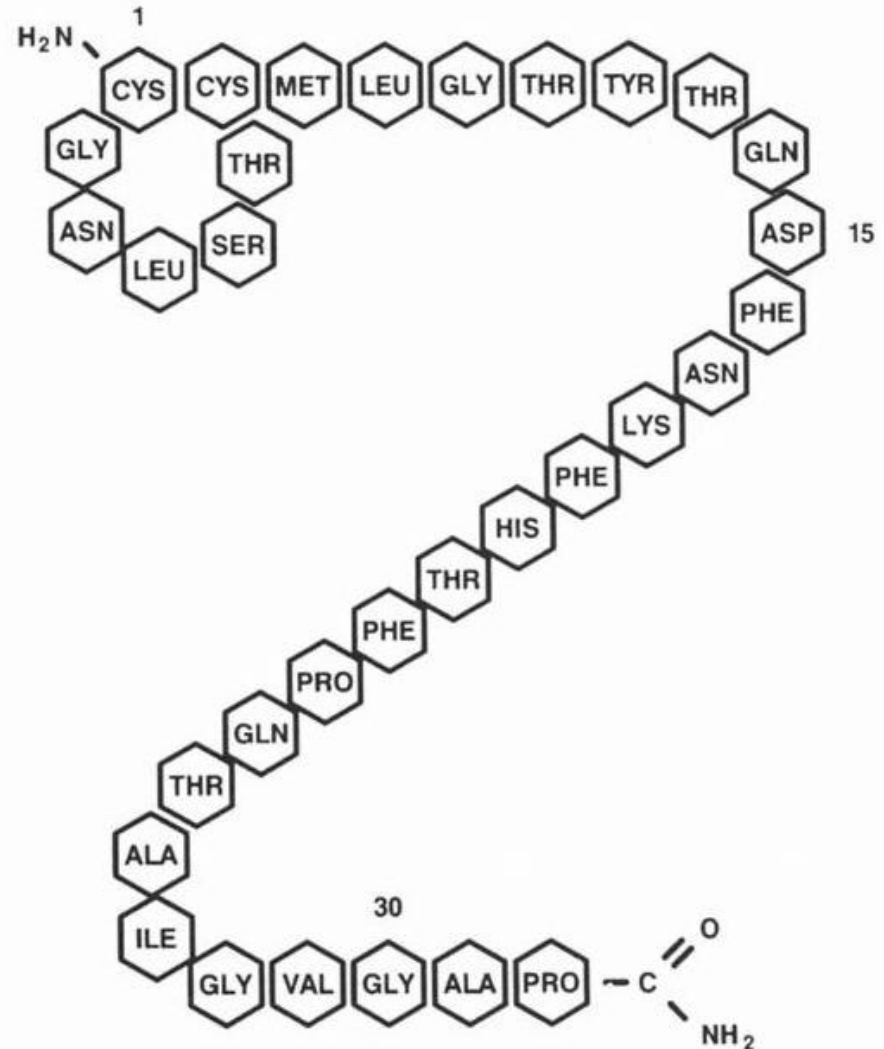
Primary hyperparathyroidism

- ✓ 80% Most people are asymptomatic
- ✓ **STONES** (Renal stones may be a common single presenting complaint)
- ✓ **BONES** (osteoporosis, bone aches, etc)
- ✓ **MOANS abdominal** (constipation, nausea, anorexia, etc)
- ✓ **GROANS** neuromuscular and psychic groans (fatigue, depression, memory loss, etc)

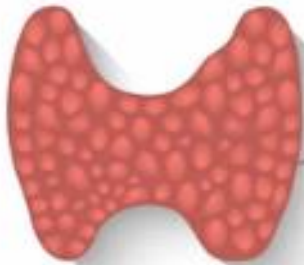
10. Calcitonin

- Product of **parafollicular C cells of the thyroid gland**
- 32 aa
- Inhibits osteoclast mediated bone resorption
 - This decreases serum Ca^{2+}
- Promotes renal excretion of Ca^{2+} & phosphate
- Inhibits intestinal absorption of Ca^{2+}

The sequence of human calcitonin. The molecule contains a seven-membered ring linked by a disulfide bridge at the N terminus.

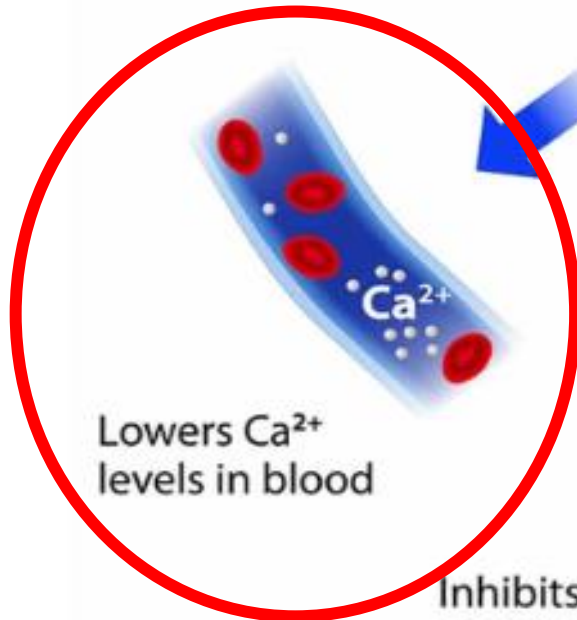


Thyroid gland

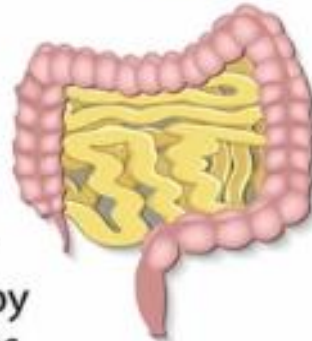


Calcitonin

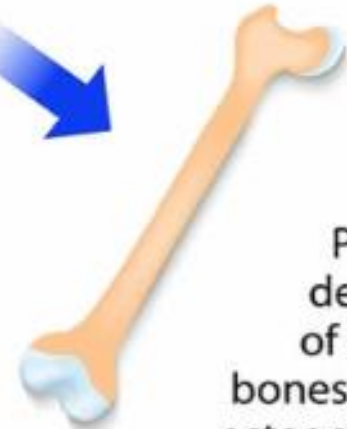
Inhibits Ca^{2+} reabsorption in the kidney (excreted in the urine)



Lowers Ca^{2+} levels in blood



Inhibits Ca^{2+} absorption by the intestines

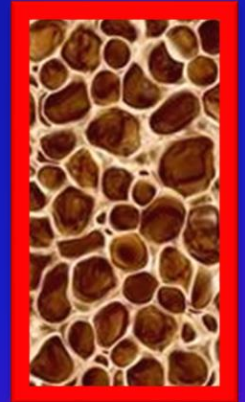
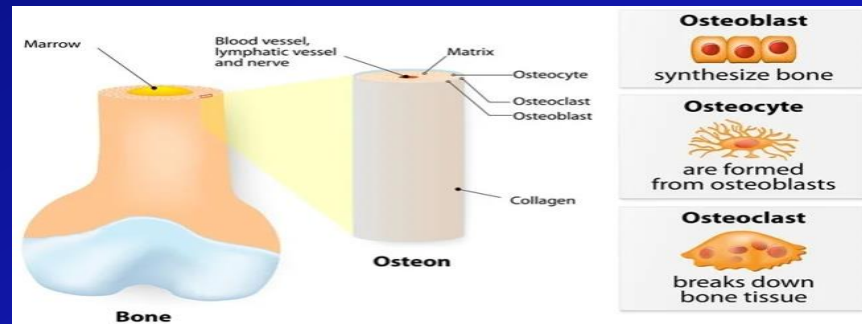


Promotes deposition of Ca^{2+} into bones (inhibits osteoclasts and stimulates osteoblasts)

CALCITONIN

Secretion of calcitonin is **stimulated by**: an increase in serum Ca^{2+} and gastrin or pentagastrin

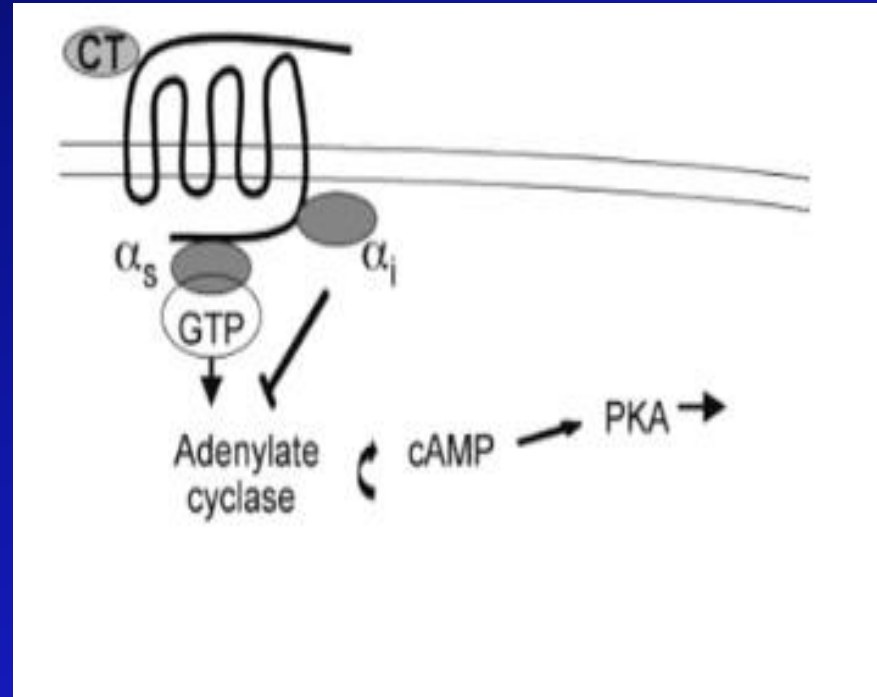
Probably not essential for human survival and not so important in the metabolism of calcium as PTH and vitamin D.



Calcitonin inhibits (blocks) the activity of osteoclasts, which are cells that break down bone. Calcitonin strongly inhibits bone-resorbing activity of osteoclasts reducing serum calcium. It antagonizes the action of PTH

Calcitonin receptor and signaling

- 7 transmembrane segment receptor
- Stimulates mainly cAMP production in bone and kidney





11. VITAMIN D

ncology

Improved Survival in Cancer Patients With High Vitamin D Levels

Pam Harrison
May 01, 2014



Bone, Muscle & Joint Health | Cleveland Clinic News Wire | Diet & Nutrition | Family Health | Men's Health | Wellness | Women's Health

Do You Really Need to Take Vitamin D Supplements?

Menopause and medications are 2 reasons the answer may be 'yes'

By Bone, Muscle & Joint Team | 5/2/14 1:01 p.m.



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Fred Hutch researchers help you understand what you need to know about the sunshine vitamin

April 21, 2014

By Diane Mapes

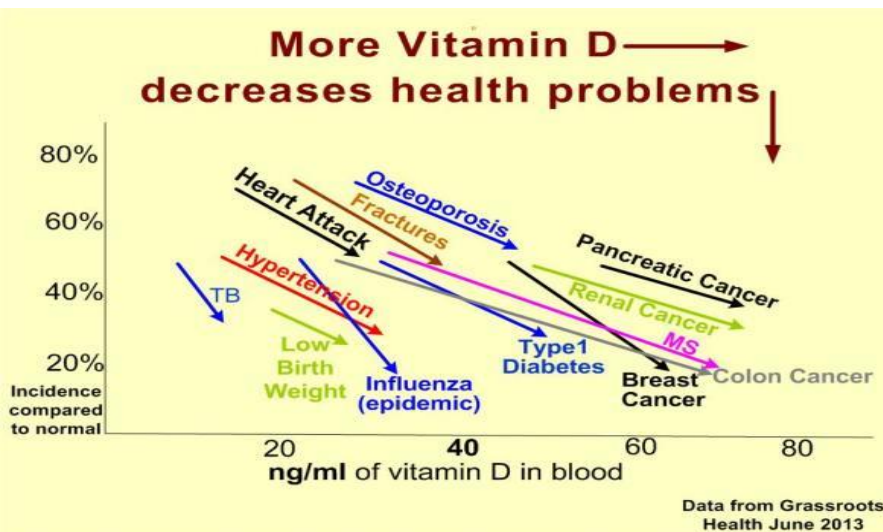
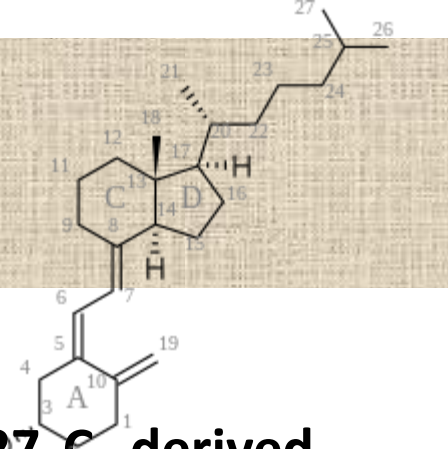


Illustration by Kim Carney

Photo by iStockphoto.com



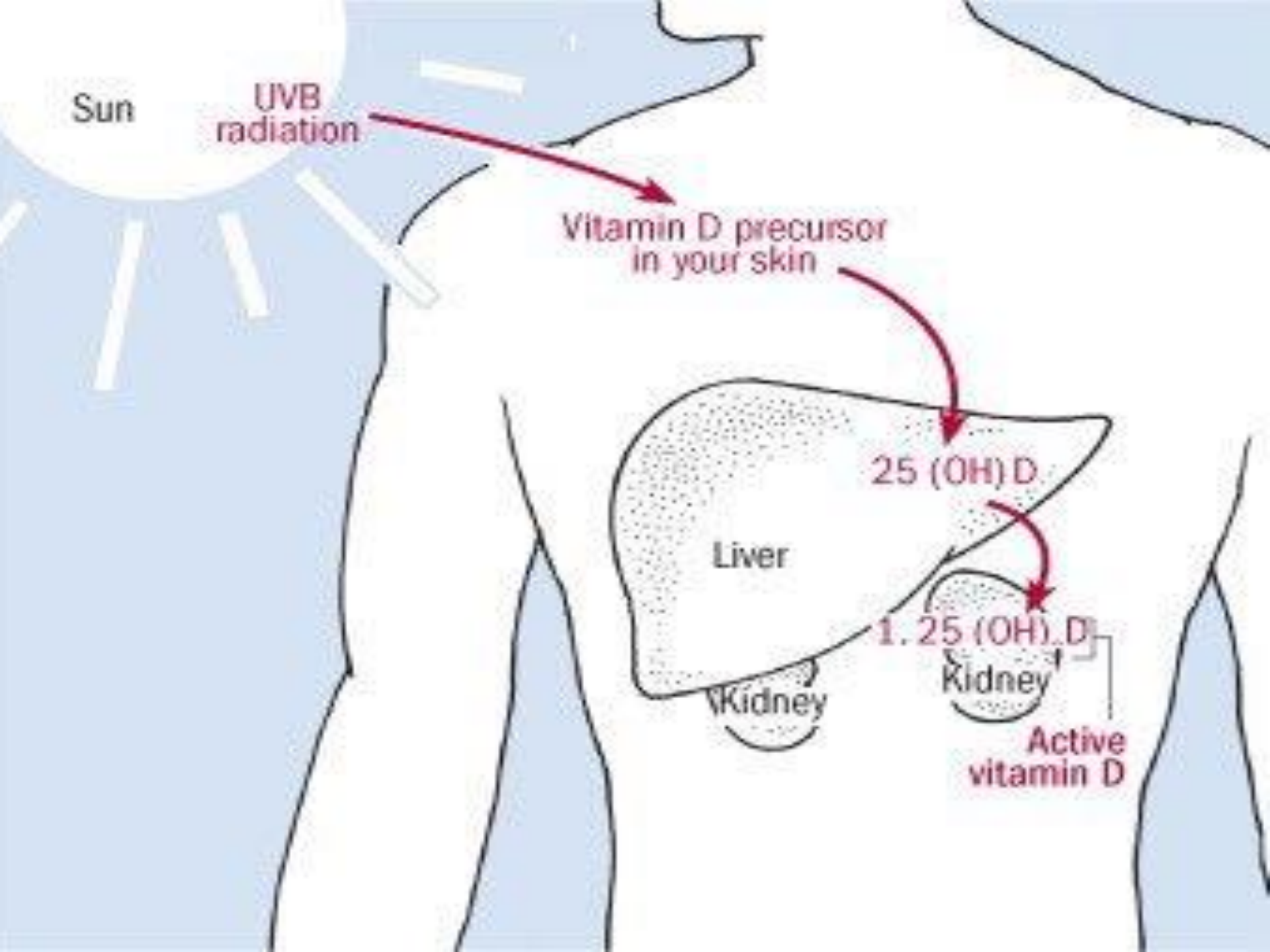
11.1. WHAT IS VITAMIN D?



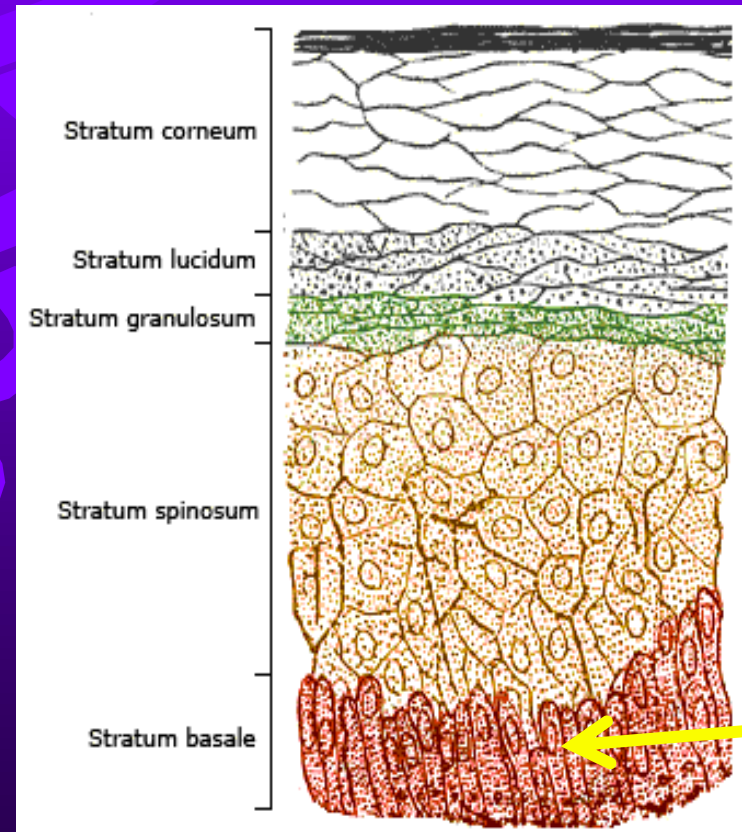
A group of fat-soluble secosteroids (D2 & D3) with 27 C, derived from cholesterol:

-Vitamin D2 (ergocalciferol) is a type of vitamin D found in food and dietary supplements. It is a real fat-soluble vitamin because it is not produced by the body.

-Vitamin D3 (Cholecalciferol) is a type of vitamin D that is made **by the skin** when exposed to sunlight; it is also found in some foods and dietary supplements. Within the epidermal layer of skin, **7-dehydrocholesterol (precursor)** undergoes an electrocyclic reaction as a result of UVB light at wavelengths (290-315 nm), making previtamin D3 (pre-cholecalciferol). The definition of vitamins includes that the substance cannot be synthesized by the body and must be ingested. However, cholecalciferol is synthesized by the body during UVB radiation exposure

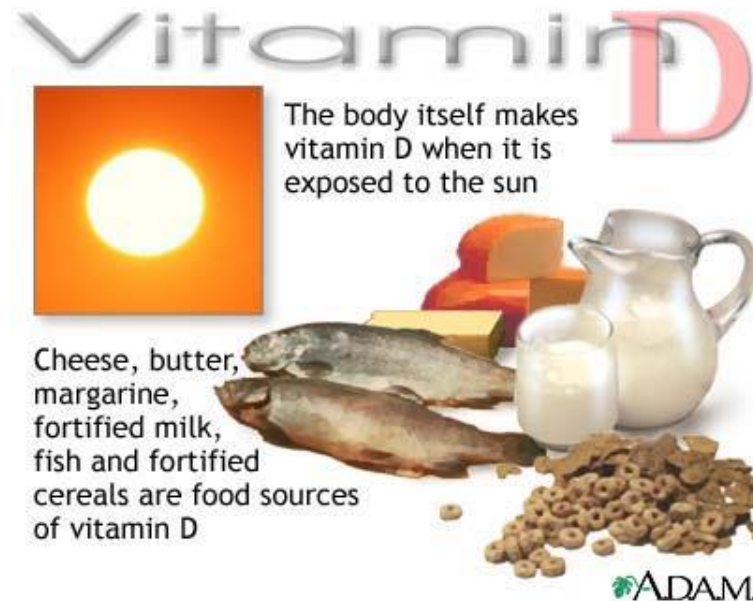
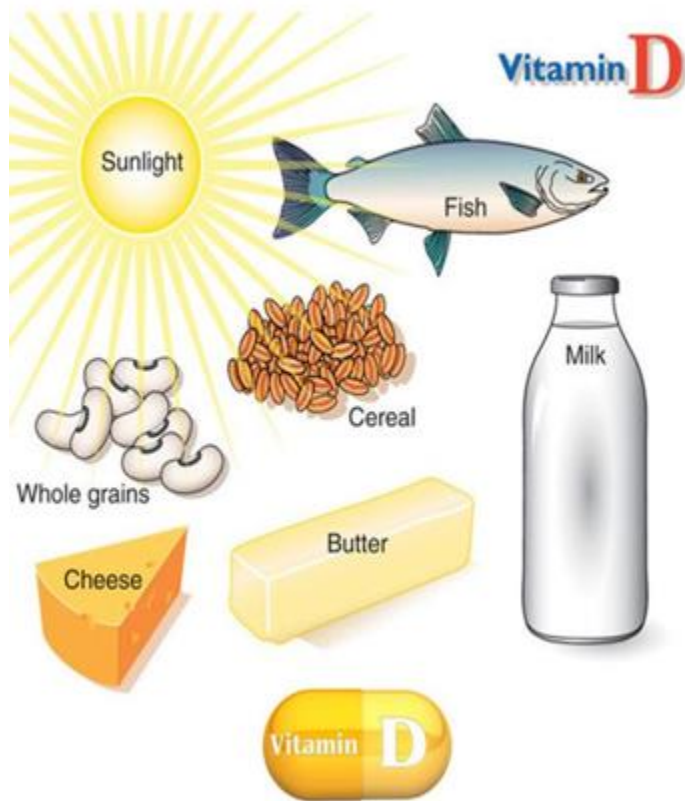


- 10-30 min exposure of the body and face to sunlight daily is sufficient for the body's vitamin D needs.



11.2. MAIN VITAMIN D SOURCES

- ✓ SUN EXPOSURE
- ✓ FOOD (D3 & D2)
- ✓ Dietary and vitamin supplements



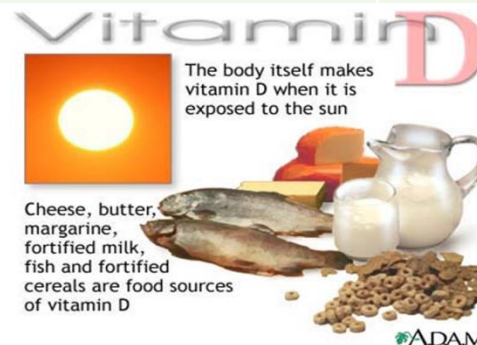


Vitamin D food sources

FOOD		IU
Cod liver oil (D3)	1 tbsp	1360
Salmon (D3)	3 oz	530
Sardines (D3)	3 oz	231
Mackerel (D3)	3 oz	213
Egg (D3)	1 large	0.53
Cheese (D3)	1 cup	26

Food	Serving	IU
Fortified milk (D3)	8 oz	98
Fortified soy milk(D3)	8 oz	100
Fortified juice (D3)	8 oz	100
Fortified cereals (D3)	≈ 1 cup	40-50
Mushrooms (D2) *	1 cup	786

* Vitamin D₂; 40 IU = 1 µg



- <http://www.mayoclinic.org/drugs-supplements/vitamin-d-and-related-compounds-oral-route-parenteral-route/description/DRG-20069609>
- <http://lpi.oregonstate.edu/infocenter/vitamins/vitaminD/index.html>
- <http://ndb.nal.usda.gov/ndb/search/list>

Cod liver oil

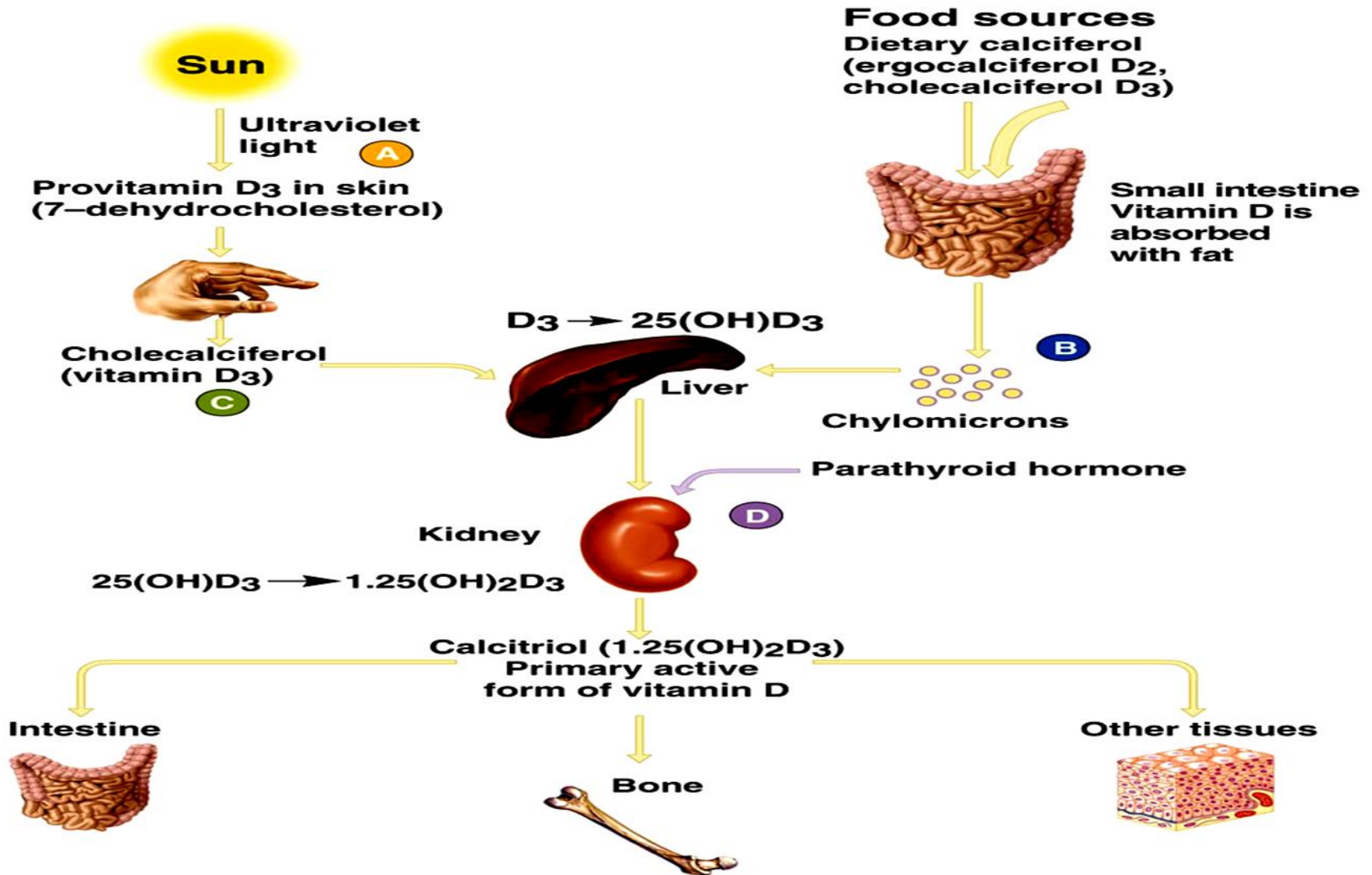


For centuries, cod liver oil was and still is **the most widely consumed fish oil in the world**. Of course, it differs from other fish oils, because it is produced from the liver of cod (or other related fish), while the other fish oils are produced from the flesh of fatty fish (salmon, herring, sardine, etc). This fact gives it the particularity of being **much richer in fat-soluble vitamins A, D, E and K2**.



**FOODS ENRICHED (fortified) WITH
VITAMIN D and CALCIUM**

VITAMIN D: FROM SOURCE TO DESTINATION



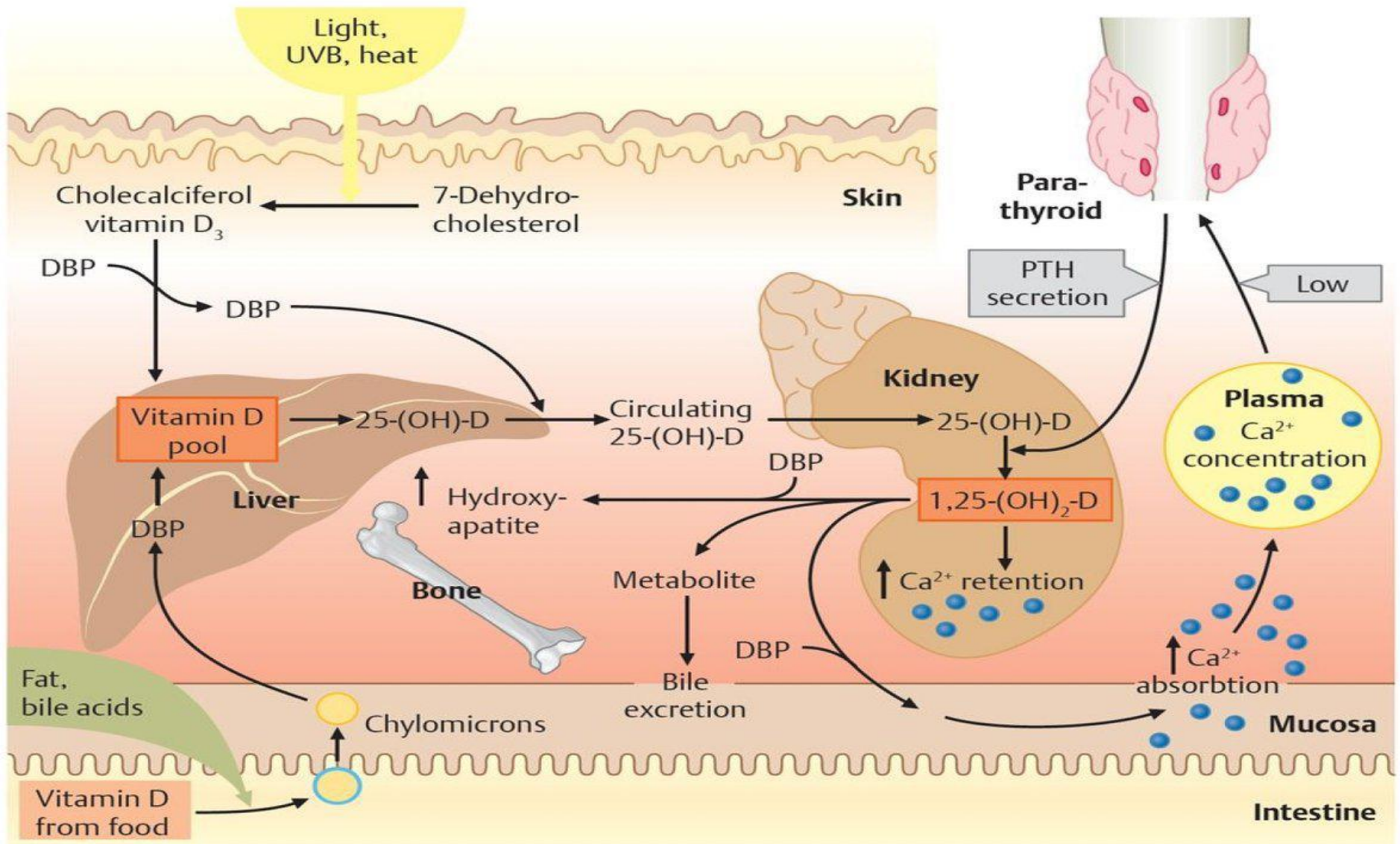
This slide is explained by the next slide

11.3 The three steps in the synthesis and activation of vitamin D

- ✓ **Cholecalciferol is synthesized in the skin from 7-dehydrocholesterol under the action of UVB.** It reaches an equilibrium after several minutes depending on the intensity of the UVB in the sunlight – determined by latitude, season, cloud cover, and altitude – and the age and degree of pigmentation of the skin
- ✓ Cholecalciferol binds to **vitamin D-binding protein (DBP)** in the bloodstream, and is transported to the liver. Then, we have **hydroxylation in the endoplasmic reticulum of** hepatocytes of cholecalciferol to calcifediol (**25-hydroxycholecalciferol**) by 25-hydroxylase. Blood levels of this molecule largely reflect the amount of cholecalciferol produced in the skin combined with any vitamin D2 or D3 ingested.
- ✓ **Hydroxylation in the kidneys of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol to calcitriol** by 1-alpha-hydroxylase is tightly regulated: it is stimulated by **parathyroid hormone** and serves as the major control point in the production of the **active circulating hormone calcitriol** (1,25-dihydrocholecalciferol D).

Vitamin D metabolism

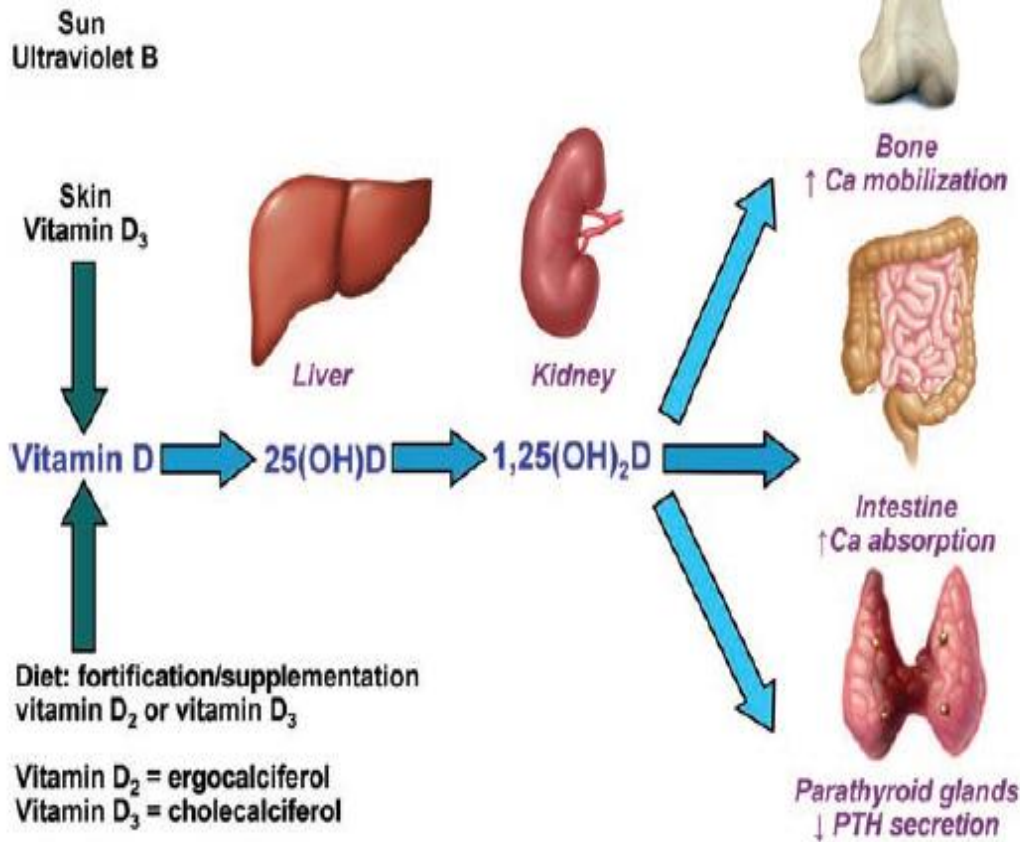
Ultraviolet light B (UVB) converts 7-dehydrocholesterol to cholecalciferol (vitamin D₃). Ingested vitamin D is fat soluble and is transported to the liver in chylomicrons. All free vitamin D is transported in the blood and liver by a specific vitamin D-binding protein (DBP). The liver converts vitamin D to 25-hydroxycholecalciferol 25-(OH)-D, which is then transported to the kidneys, where it is converted to its active form 1,25-(OH)₂-D, under the influence of parathyroid hormone. The effects of this are increased mineralization of bone, increased calcium and phosphate reabsorption in the kidneys, and increased calcium absorption in the gut. Excess vitamin D is excreted into bile.



DBP (Vitamin D binding protein)



11.4 Main metabolic actions of calcitriol

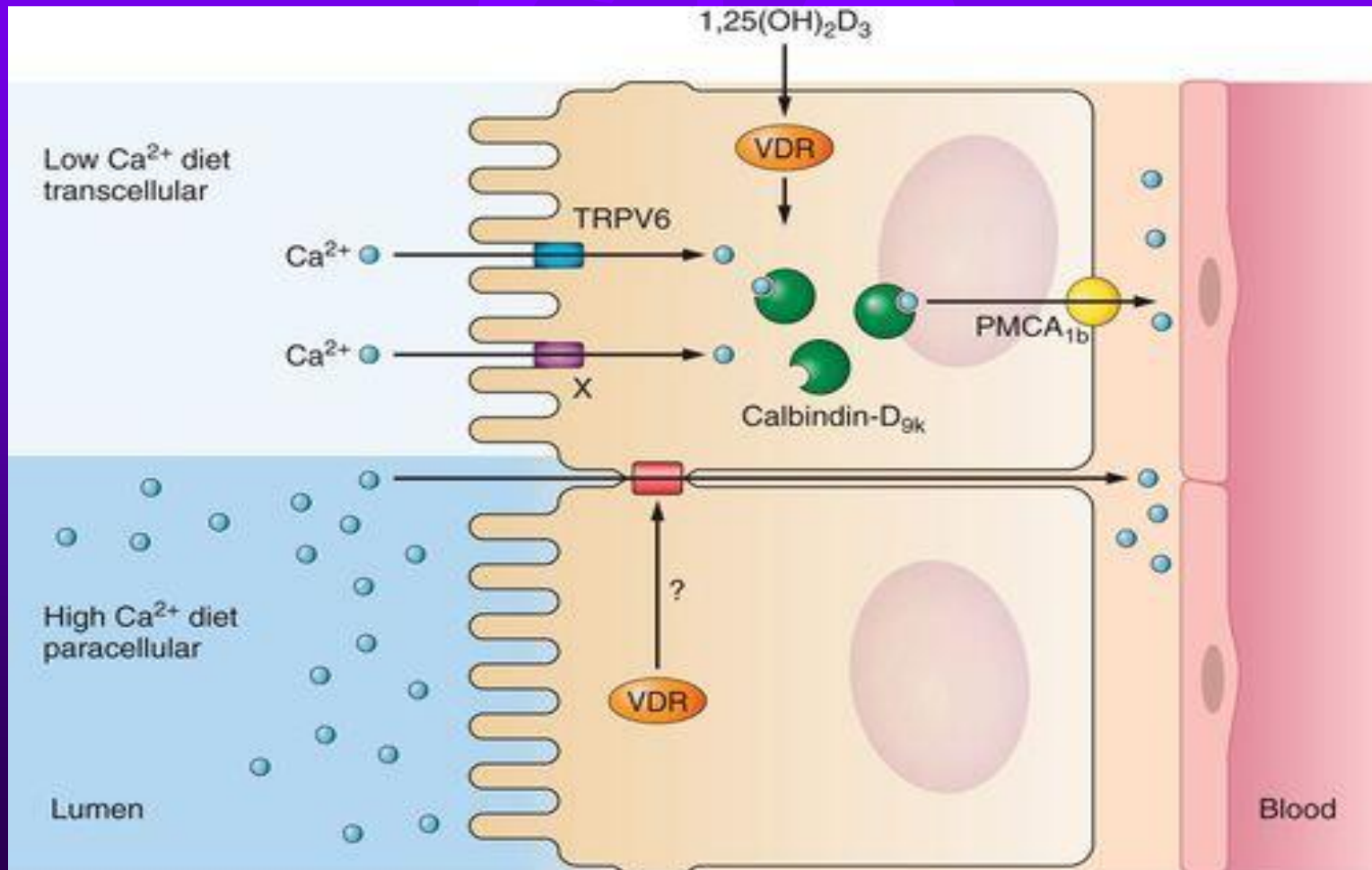


- 1. Intestine:** It facilitates the absorption of Ca²⁺ from the intestinal villi by induction of a transport system. It also increases the absorption of phosphate
- 2. Mobilizes Ca²⁺ from bones.** It acts mainly on osteoblasts
- 3. Kidneys:** Increases the reabsorption of Ca²⁺ and phosphate
- 4. Parathyroid glands:** It suppresses PTH

The active 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (calcitriol) has different effects on various target tissues

In the intestine, an important function of $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ is the stimulation of transcellular intestinal calcium transport by increasing the expression of the apical membrane calcium channel TRPV6 and **calcium binding protein calbindin**.

Calbindins are calcium binding proteins that can transport calcium into the intestinal cell or prevent its entry.



Other pleiotropic functions of vitamin D...

Immune system

- Stimulation of innate immunity
- Controlling of adaptive immunity



Hormone production

- FGF23
- PTH
- Insulin



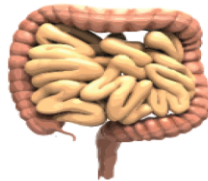
Skin

- Vitamin D production
- Barrier function



Intestine & colon

- Regulating calcium absorption



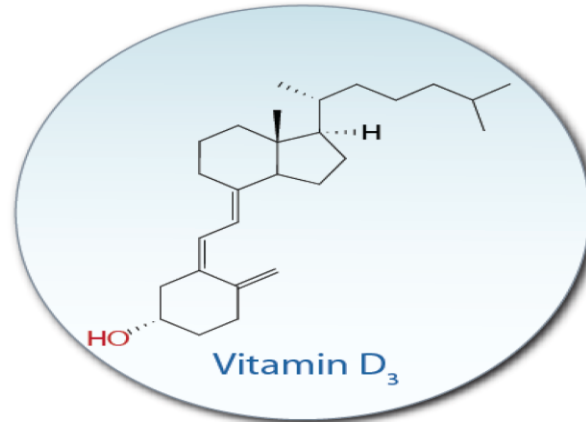
Bone

- Controlling bone homeostasis

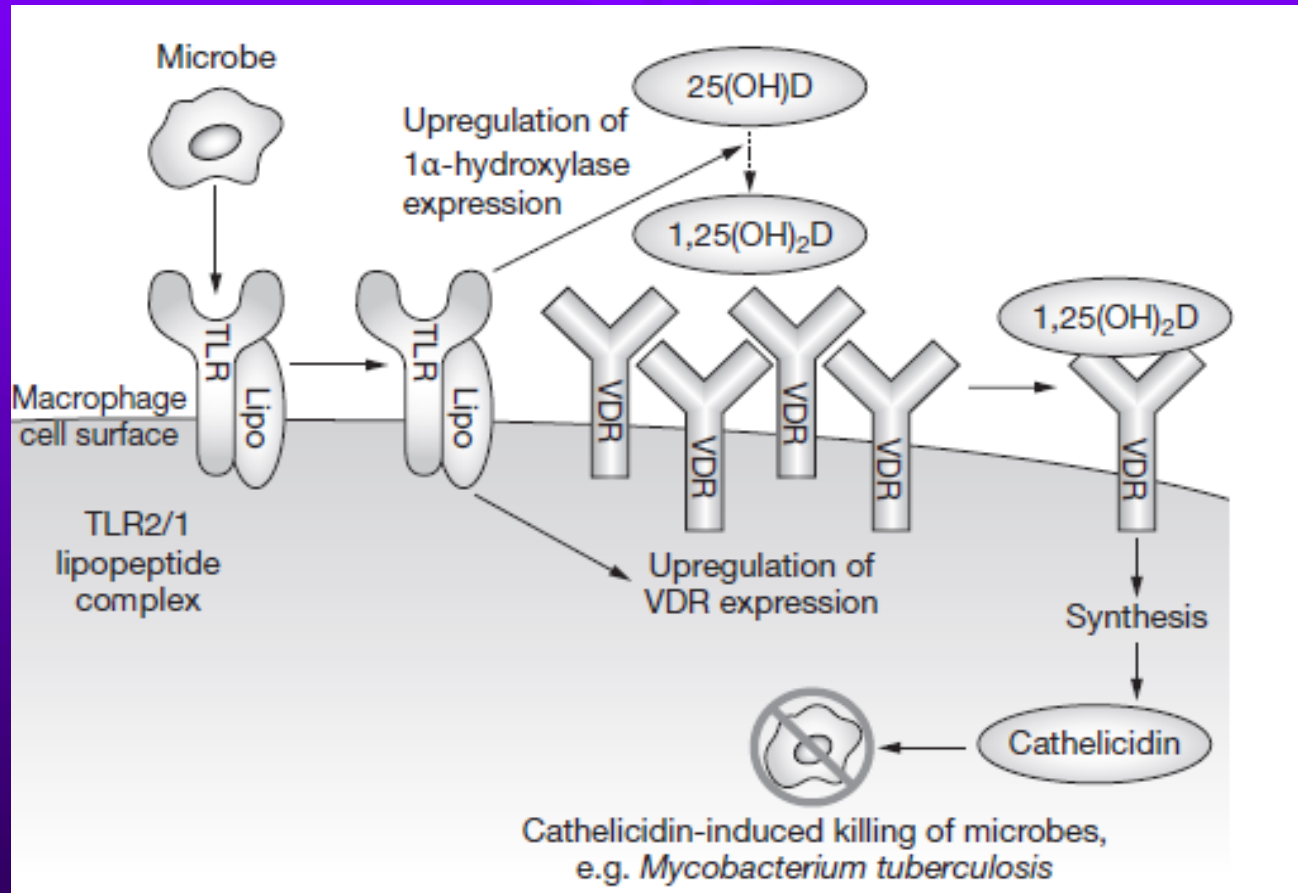


Muscle

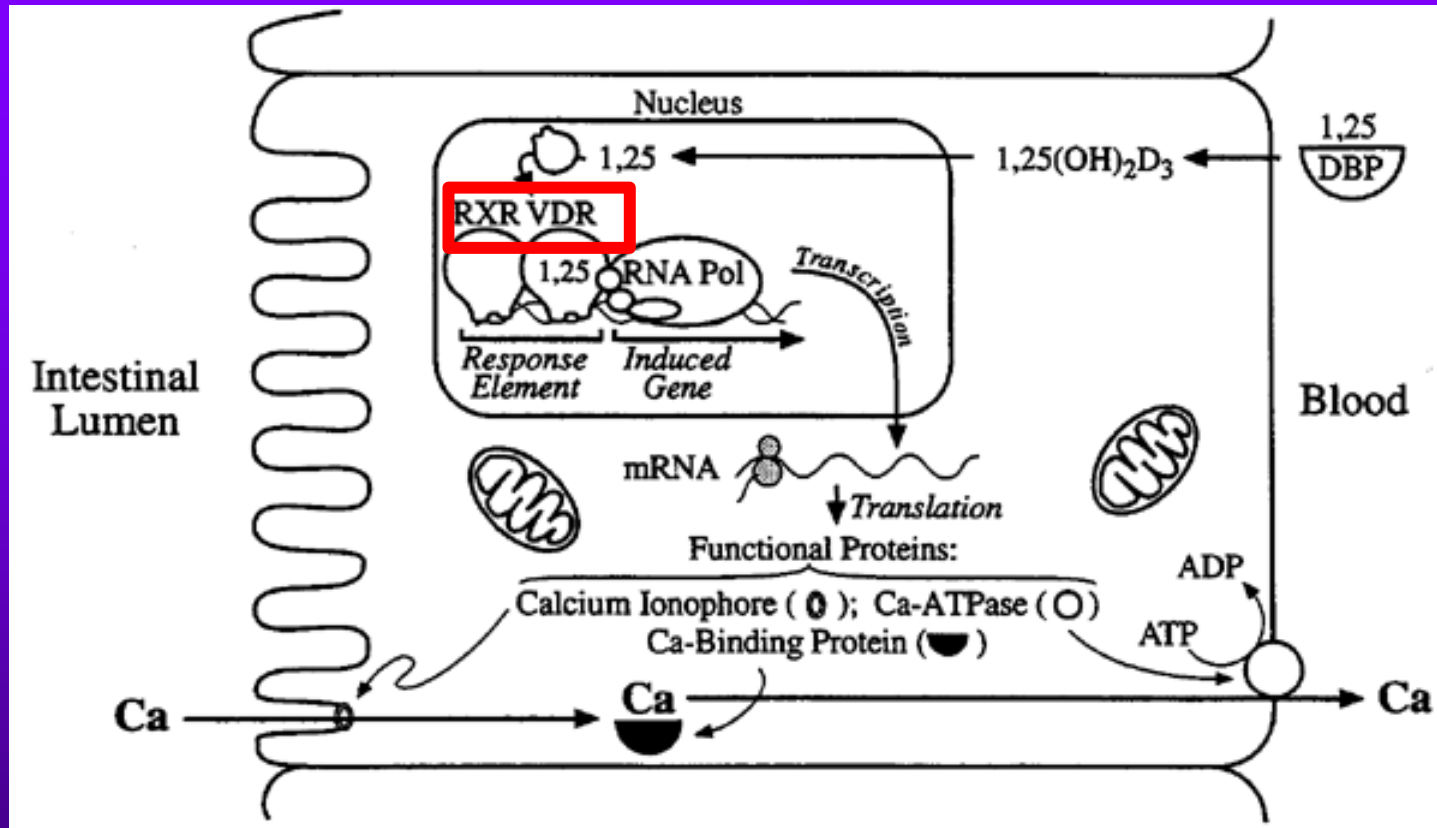
- Strength
- Development



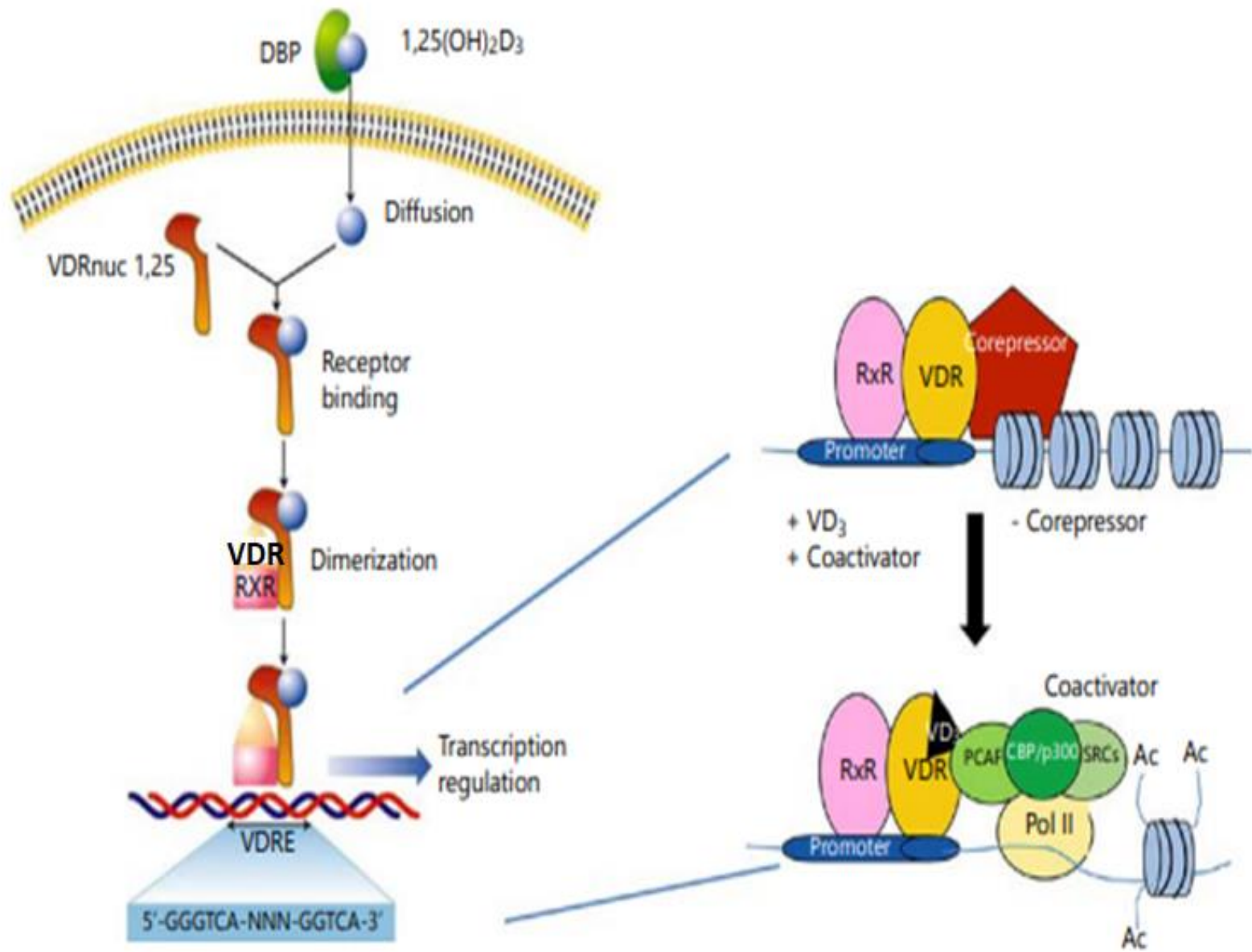
VITAMIN D INDUCES NATURAL IMMUNITY AND ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY



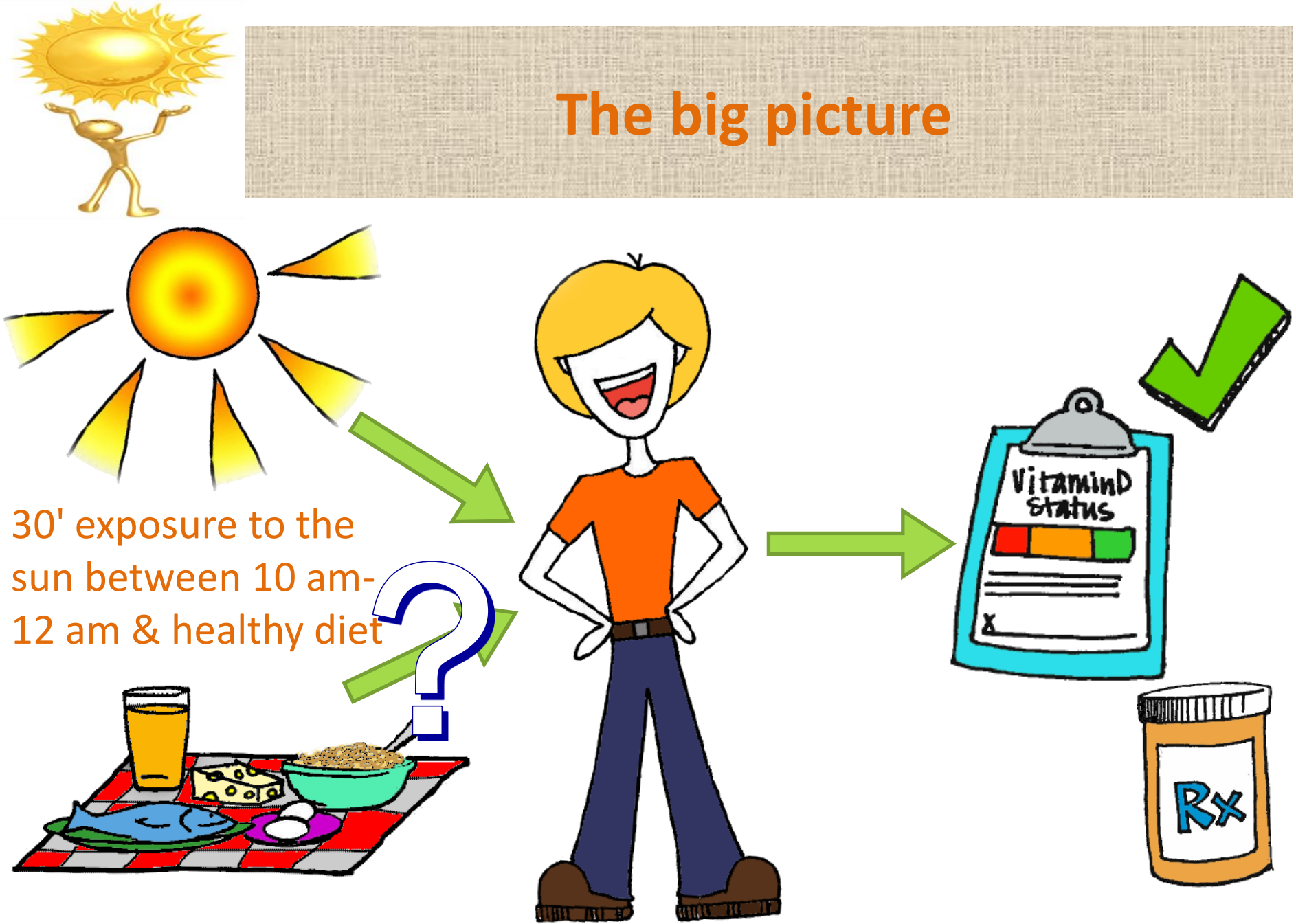
11.5 VITAMIN D RECEPTOR AND SIGNALING



Vitamin D activity is mediated through binding of 1,25(OH)₂D to the vitamin D receptor (VDR), which can regulate transcription of other genes involved in cell regulation, growth, and immunity. VDR modulates the expression of genes by forming a heterodimer complex with retinoid-X-receptors (RXR).



The big picture





11.6 WHO ARE AT RISK OF VITAMIN D DEFICIENCY?

- ✓ People with chronic diseases, in institutions & inadequate nutrition
- ✓ People with dark skin
- ✓ Age >65 years
- ✓ Breastfeeding infants
- ✓ Obesity (BMI: >30 kg/m²)
- ✓ Use of sunscreen (> SPF 30) & sun protective clothing





11.7. LEVELS OF 25-OHD

- ✓ Normal serum values: values >30 ng/ml (75 nmol/l).
- ✓ Deficiency with values: $<20-30$ ng/ml (50 nmol/l)
- ✓ The goal is to maintain levels >30 ng/ml.
- ✓ For better protection, the ideal concentration: 50-70 ng/ml.
- ✓ There is unanimous agreement that serum 25-OHD levels should not be <10 ng/ml (severe deficiency)
- ✓ Possible toxicity: $> 80-100$ ng/mL



11.8. WHY DO GREEKS HAVE LOW 25OHD LEVELS?

>1/3 of Greeks have 25-OHD deficiency (mean value: 25.08 ng/ml) → Mediterranean paradox

- 1) Demographics (↑ population age)
- 2) Skin phototype (↑ melanin decreases the synthesis of cholecalciferol)
- 3) ↓ exposure to the sun
- 4) Use of sunscreens
- 5) Diet
- 6) Latitude (↓ UV in autumn & winter)
- 7) Genetic factors
- 8) Air pollution
- 9) Obesity

10. CLINICAL CORRELATIONS



*Let's understand better vitamin
D actions by studying cases*

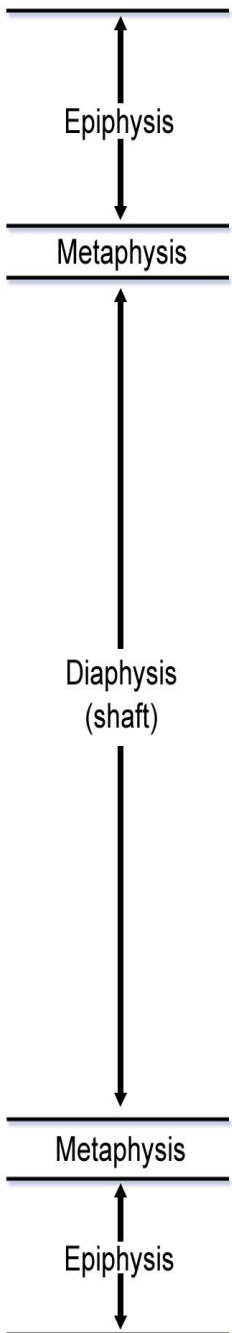
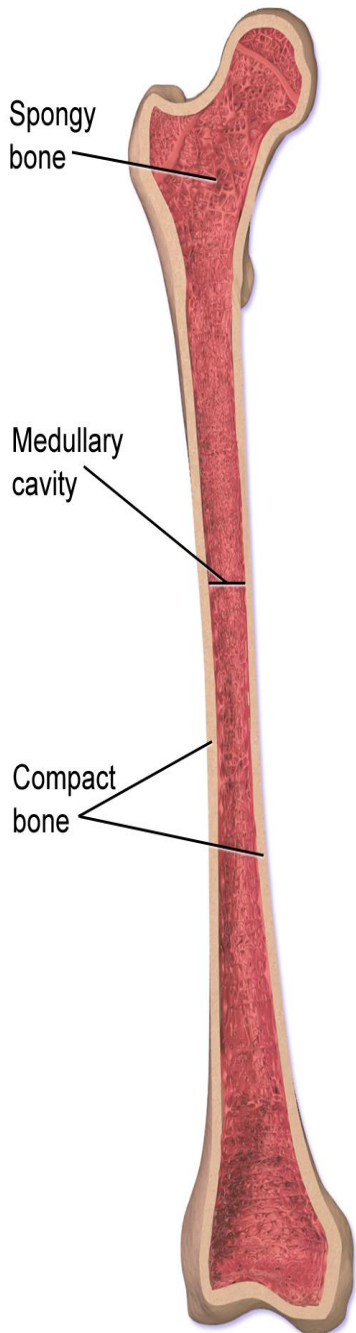
VITAMIN D DISORDERS

- **Rickets** (in childhood) and **osteomalacia** (in adulthood) are characterized by defective bone calcification. Bone alterations in children cause deformities of the skeleton. Simple rickets is due to either insufficient intake of vitamin D or insufficient exposure to UV radiation.
- **Hypervitaminosis D** leads to hypercalcemia, bone demineralization and nephrocalcinosis (fat-soluble vitamin)



Hand

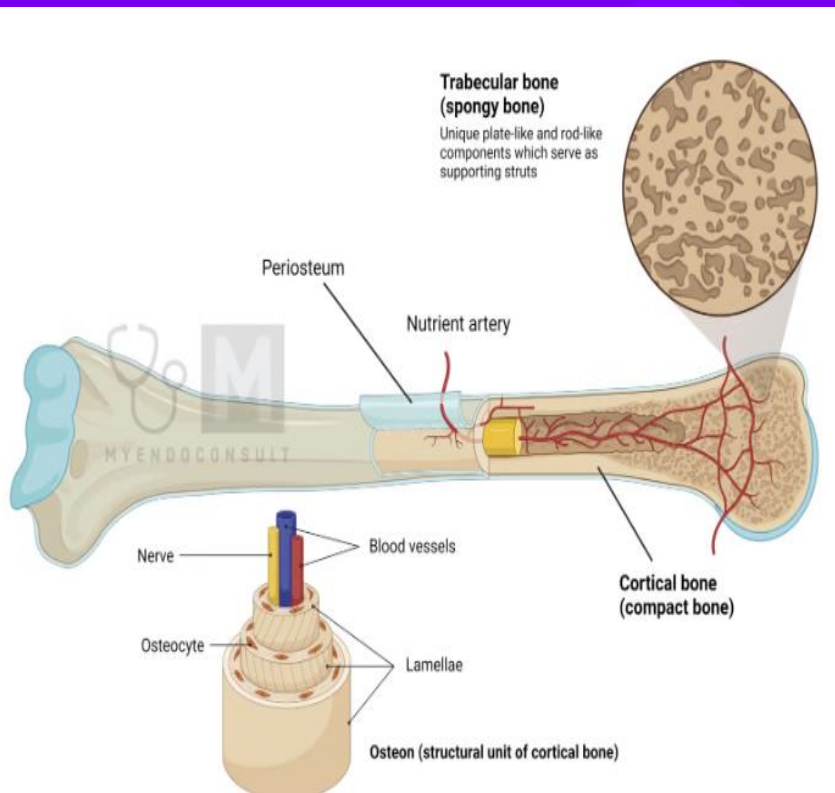
Structure of a Long Bone



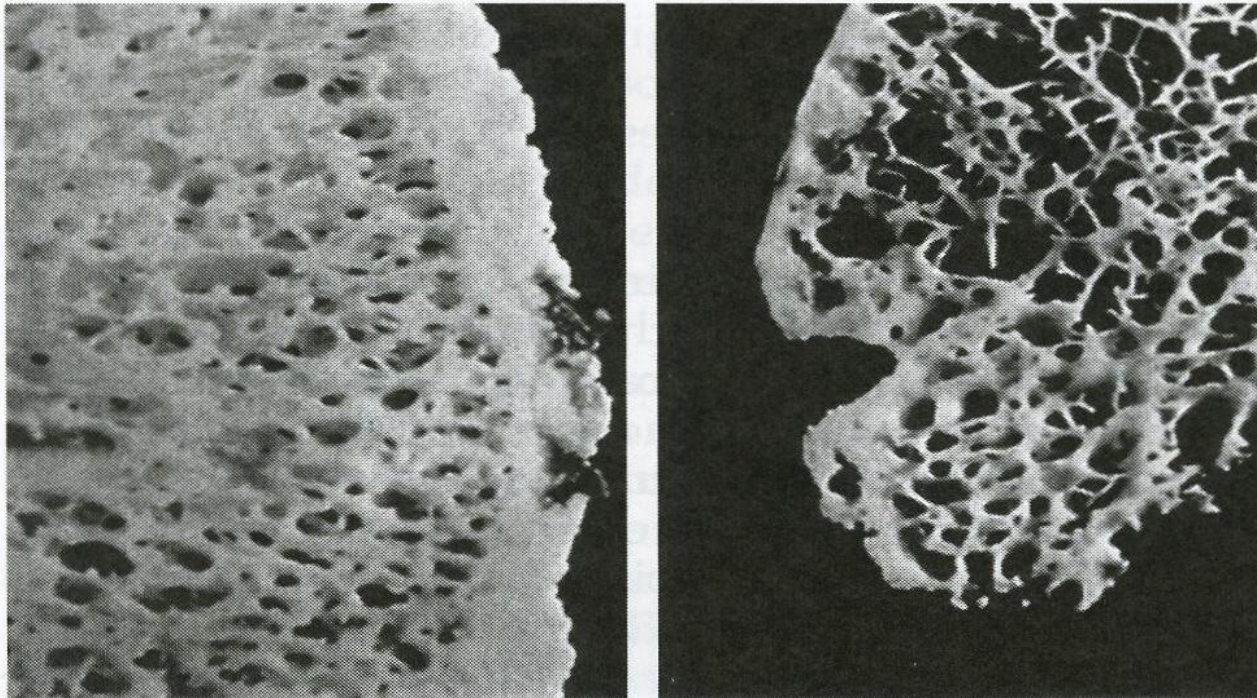


11. Osteoporosis: the most common metabolic bone disease

- Osteoporosis is characterized by a significant reduction in bone mineral density compared with age- and sex-matched norms
- Affects 20 million Americans and leads to 1.3 million fractures in the US per year
- Women lose 50% of their trabecular bone and 30% of their cortical bone
- 30% of all postmenopausal women will sustain an osteoporotic fracture as will 17% of all men
- The cost of health care and lost productivity is \$14 billion in the US annually



Normal and Osteoporotic Bone



A

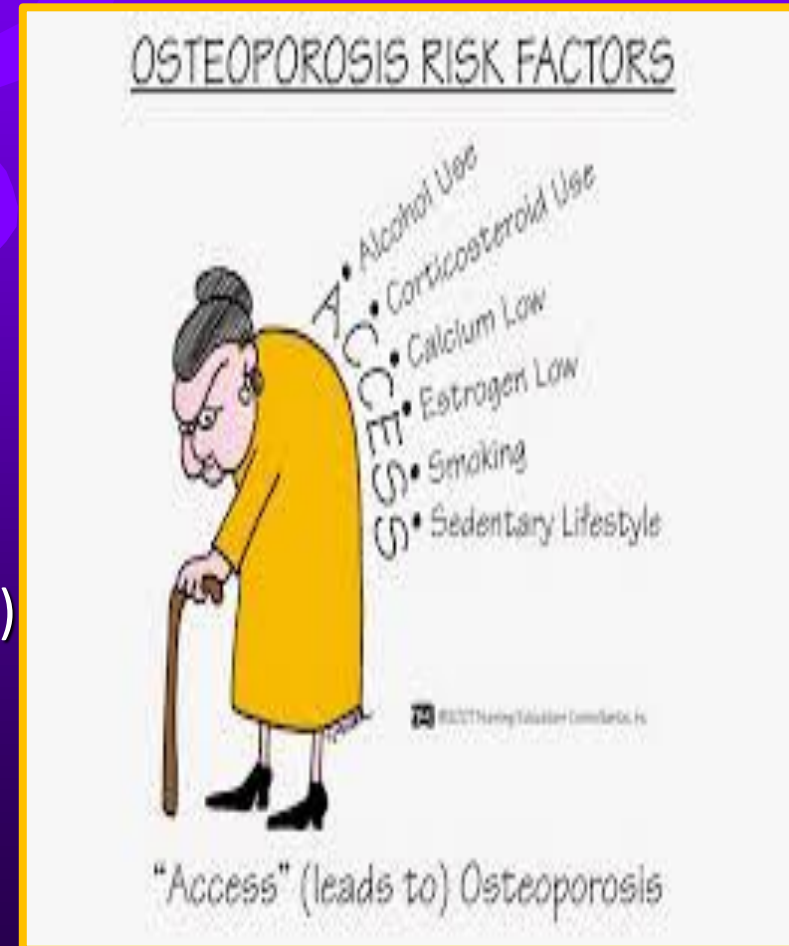
B

● Difference between normal bone (**A**) and osteoporotic bone (**B**).

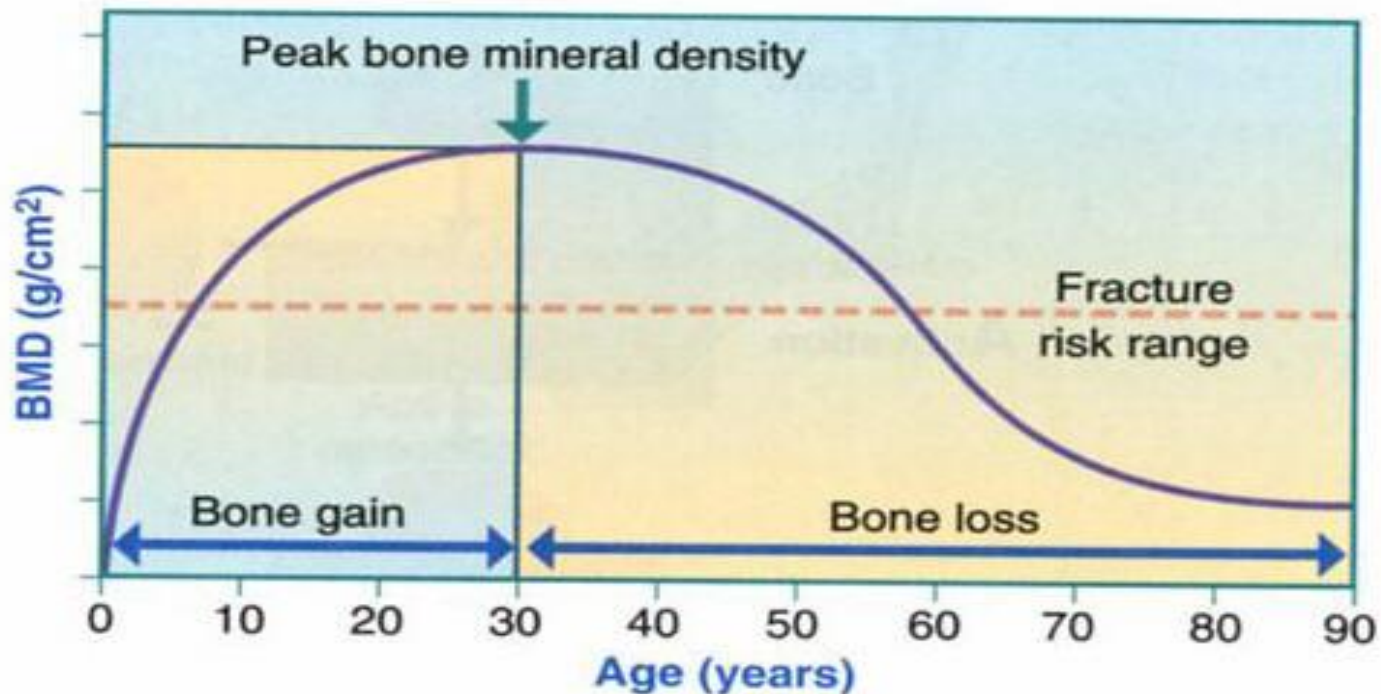
There is a decrease in both bone mineral and bone matrix

Factors that Affect Peak Bone Mass

- Gender (M>F), males have greater BMD than females
- Race (Blacks >Whites)
- Genetics (osteoporosis runs in families and this may be the predominant factor)
 - Estrogen receptor gene
 - Type I collagen gene
 - Vitamin D receptor gene
- Gonadal steroids
(estrogen and testosterone increase bone mass)
- Growth hormone (increases bone mass)
- Calcium intake (supplements work)
- Exercise (increases bone mass)



Bone Density as a Function of Age



- Early gain and later loss of bone in females. Peak bone mineral density (BMD) is typically achieved by age 30. Menopause occurs at approximately age 50 or within a few years thereafter. Postmenopausal women typically enter the fracture risk range after age 60. Men have a more gradual decline in BMD, which starts at 50 years of age. (Copyright of John J. B. Anderson and Sanford C. Garner.)

A silent disorder...why:

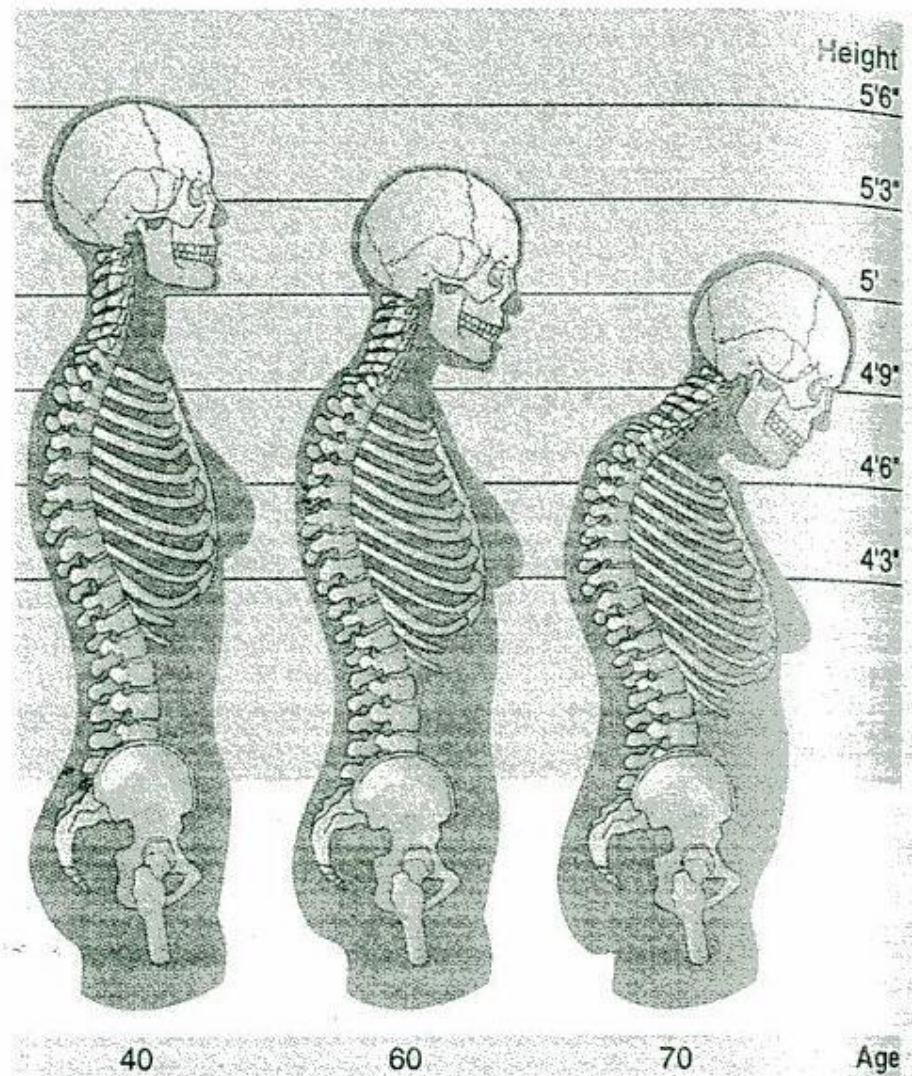
Osteoporotic fractures

"**Osteoporotic**" fractures are differentiated from "**traumatic**" fractures because they are caused by low or moderate force (such as falling from a standing position and being challenged without any violence at all)

- ❖ Backache
- ❖ Bone pain
- ❖ Reduced activities
- ❖ Anxiety – depression
- ❖ Sleep Disorders
- ❖ Poor quality of life



Sequelae of Osteoporosis



- Normal spine at 40 years of age and osteoporotic changes at 60 and 70 years of age. These changes can cause a loss of as much as 6 to 9 inches in height and result in the so-called dowager's hump (*far right*) in the upper thoracic vertebrae. (From Ignatavicius D, Bayne MV: *Medical-surgical nursing: a nursing process approach*, Philadelphia, 1991, WB Saunders.)

The Osteoporosis Continuum



Healthy spine



50 Menopausal

Experiencing vasomotor symptoms



55+ Postmenopausal

At greater risk for spinal fracture than any other type of fracture



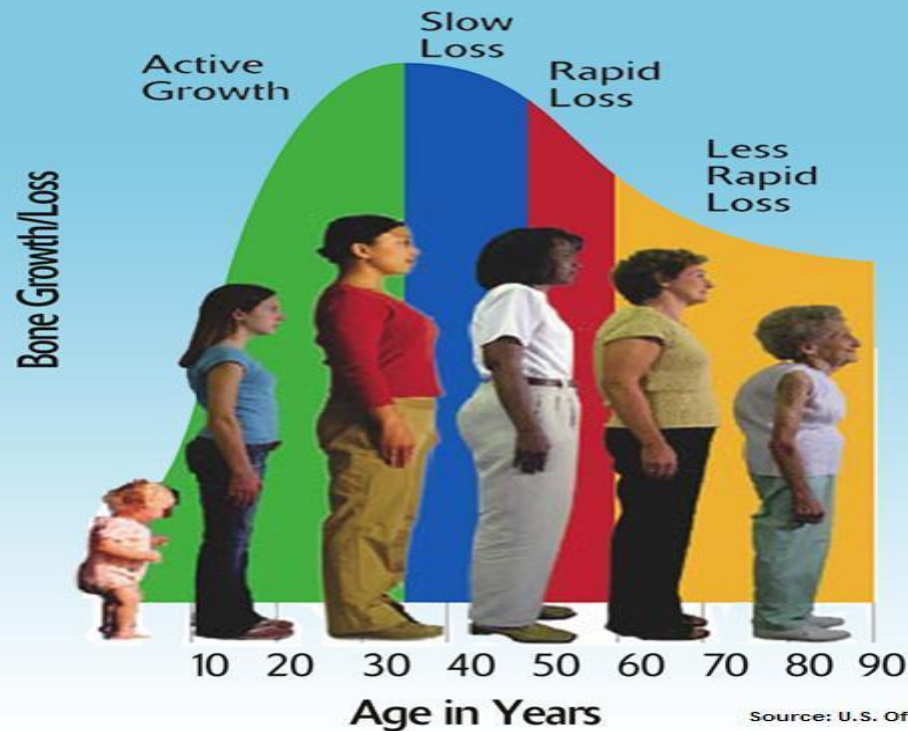
75+ Kyphotic

At risk for hip and spinal fracture



Kyphotic spine

After your mid-30s, you begin to slowly lose bone mass. Women lose bone mass faster after menopause, but it happens to men too.



Bone loss and **small fractures** as well as **compression** of the spine lead to kyphosis and reduced stature, characteristic of osteoporosis in the elderly

Selected Web Sites

■ Relevant Web Sites

American Association of Clinical Endocrinologists

www.aace.com

Menopause and Osteoporosis

www.menopause.org/

National Osteoporosis Foundation

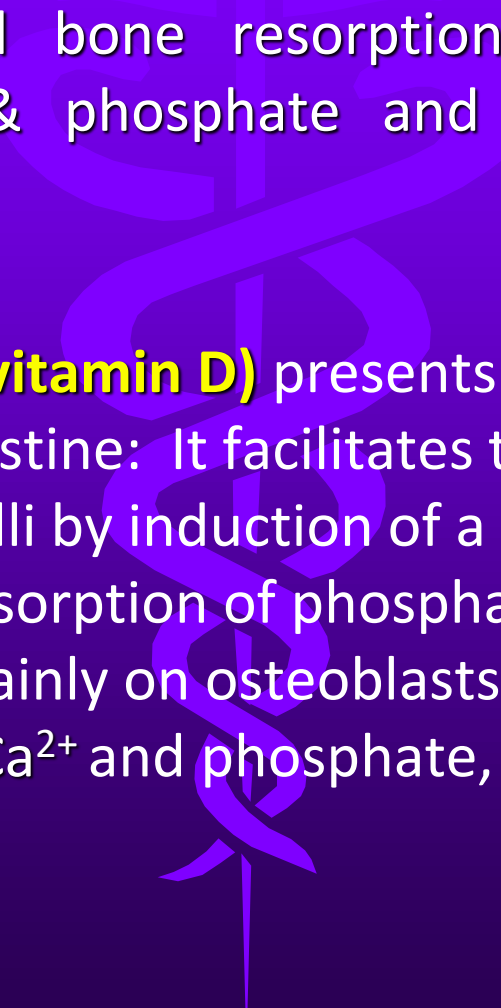
www.nof.org/

Osteoporosis On-Line

www.osteoporosis.ca/OSTEO/D02-01.html

SUMMARY

- ✓ Calcium (Ca^{2+}) circulates in the blood **mainly as a bivalent free ion (50%, active biologically)**, bound to proteins (40 %, not biologically active) and complexed with phosphate, citrate, bicarbonate and other acids (10 %).
- ✓ **Calcitropic hormones** that play an important role in Ca^{2+} homeostasis and metabolism are: parathyroid hormone (PTH), calcitonin and vitamin D/calcitriol.
- ✓ The main stimulus for PTH secretion is: ↓ calcium and ↑ phosphate.
- ✓ **PTH is produced by the parathyroid glands.** PTH: 1) mobilizes Ca^{2+} from bone, 2) increases Ca^{2+} reabsorption and increases phosphate excretion in kidneys, 3) stimulates the hydroxylation of 25-OH-calciferol (1α -hydroxylase), and 4) increases Ca^{2+} absorption in small intestine .

- 
- ✓ **Calcitonin**, produced by thyroid parafollicular C, is a peptide hormone of 32 aa that decreases serum Ca^{2+} , by inhibiting osteoclast mediated bone resorption, by promoting renal excretion of Ca^{2+} & phosphate and by blocking intestinal absorption of Ca^{2+} .
 - ✓ **Calcitriol (activated vitamin D)** presents various effects on target organs: 1) Intestine: It facilitates the absorption of Ca^{2+} from the intestinal villi by induction of a transport system. It also increases the absorption of phosphate, 2) It mobilizes Ca^{2+} from bones acting mainly on osteoblasts, 3) Kidneys: it increases the reabsorption of Ca^{2+} and phosphate, 4) Parathyroid glands: It suppresses PTH

LEARNING OBJECTIVES-Students should be able to answer the following questions OR to:

- How is calcium distributed in the organism?

What is the role of calcium?

- What are the food sources of calcium? What are the suggested daily calcium needs?

What is calcium balance?

- How does calcium circulate in blood?

- How is calcium homeostasis achieved? Which hormones regulate calcium?

- What is the general chemical structure of parathyroid hormone (PTH)?

- Where is PTH synthesized? •What are the main PTH circulating forms?

- How is PTH Secretion and Biosynthesis regulated?

- How do Calcium Sensing Receptors function?

- What are the main metabolic actions of PTH?

- How does PTH act on bone?

- How does PTH act on target tissues (receptors-signaling)?

- What are the role and function of Parathyroid Hormone related Protein (PTHrp)?



LEARNING OBJECTIVES-Students should be able to answer the following questions OR to:

- What is the general chemical structure of calcitonin?
- Where is calcitonin synthesized?
- What are the main metabolic actions of calcitonin?
- How does calcitonin act on target tissues (receptors-signaling)?
- What is vitamin D?
- Where is vitamin D produced?
- Recognize the main sources of vitamin D.
- How is vitamin D synthesized and activated?
- Explain the main metabolic actions of calcitriol.
- What are calbindins?
- How does calcitriol act on target tissues (receptors-signaling)?
- Who are at risk of vitamin D deficiency?



Multiple choice questions-SAMPLE

1. Which of the following hormones are the MAIN hormones regulating calcium homeostasis?

- A. Parathormone, Calcitriol and Calcitonin
- B. Parathormone, Insulin and Glucagon
- C. Calcitriol, estradiol and testosterone
- D. Parathormone-related protein, parathormone and testosterone
- E. Calcitonin, vitamin D and oxytocin

2. Parathormone is secreted from:

- A. Thyroid gland
- B. Parathyroid glands
- C. Thymus
- D. Parathyroid and thyroid glands

Study material

- Only slides





That's all Folks!



ENJOY LIFE AND STUDYING!!!