Inorganic Pyrophosphate in Plasma in Normal Persons and in Patients with Hypophosphatasia,

Osteogenesis Imperfecta, and Other Disorders of Bone

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ABSTRACT An isotope dilution method, using ³²Plabeled pyrophosphate, has been developed for the measurement of inorganic pyrophosphate (PP1) in human plasma. The specificity of the method was better than 90% as assessed by elution patterns during ion-exchange chromatography, by paper chromatography, and by incubation with inorganic pyrophosphatase. The 99% confidence limits for a single estimation of plasma PP₁ was $\pm 13\%$. There were no differences in plasma PP₁ between men and women, but the values in young people (0-15 yr) were slightly higher than in older people. The mean concentration $(\pm sE)$ of PP₁ in the plasma of 73 men and women was $3.50 \pm 0.11 \ \mu moles/liter$ $(0.217 \pm 0.007 \ \mu g \ P/ml)$ and the normal range (99%) limits) was $1.19-5.65 \ \mu moles/liter (0.074-0.350 \ \mu g$ P/ml).

It has been suggested that PP₁ may be important in calcium metabolism because PP₁ can prevent the precipitation of calcium phosphates in vitro and in vivo, and can slow the rates at which hydroxyapatite crystals grow and dissolve. Plasma PP₁ was therefore measured in several disorders of bone. Normal values were found in osteogenesis imperfecta, osteopetrosis, "acute" osteoporosis, and primary hyperparathyroidism. Plasma PP₁ was invariably raised in hypophosphatasia. The excess of PP₁ in plasma might be the cause of the defective mineralization in hypophosphatasia and the function of alkaline phosphatase in bone may be to act as a pyrophosphatase at sites of calcium deposition.

INTRODUCTION

Inorganic pyrophosphate (PP₁) is known to be produced as a by-product of many biosynthetic reactions in

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vivo (1). Although its role in individual enzyme reactions is well established, very little is known about the metabolism of PP1 in intact animals. Recent studies have suggested that PP₁ may be important in regulating calcium metabolism. Thus small amounts of PP1 inhibit the precipitation of calcium phosphate from solution (2, 3)and bind strongly to crystals of hydroxyapatite (4). Apatite crystals to which PP1 has adsorbed grow and dissolve more slowly than nontreated crystals (4, 5). This suggests that the PP1 known to be present in bone may be able to control the rates at which bone crystals grow and dissolve, and may be important in calcium homeostasis (6, 7). It is possible that disturbances in the metabolism of PP1 might lead to changes in the concentrations of PP1 in bone and might alter the rates of mineral accretion and dissolution in bone. It is therefore important to be able to study the metabolism of PP1 in human diseases in which the turnover of bone is abnormal.

Studies on the metabolism of PP₁ in man have so far been restricted by the lack of a suitable method for measuring the low concentrations of PP₁ present in plasma. The only published method (8) for plasma PP₁ is probably nonspecific, as will be discussed later. In this paper, we described a new specific method and present some measurements of plasma PP₁ made in normal persons and in various diseases of bone, particularly three congenital conditions, hypophosphatasia, osteogenesis imperfecta, and osteopetrosis.

METHODS

Introduction

The main difficulties in developing a satisfactory technique for measuring PP_1 in plasma were that the concentrations of PP_1 were very low, that other compounds appeared to interfere with the chemical determination, and that PP_1 was subject to variable and often extensive hydrolysis during the analysis.

The method finally adopted was based on isotope dilution. In outline the essential steps were addition of ³²P-labeled pyrophosphate to the blood at the time of collection, preparation of the plasma, deproteinization of the plasma by ultrafiltration, two coprecipitations of PP₁ with calcium phosphate, treatment with a cation exchange resin to remove calcium and nucleotides, and finally, separation of PP₁ from other phosphate compounds by chromatography on an anion exchange resin. The specific radioactivity of the PP₁ eluted from the columns was determined and the concentration of PP₁ in the original plasma could then be calculated.

The technique will be described in detail with the results of various tests applied to test the reproducibility and sensitivity of the method.

The measurement of PP_i in human plasma

30-50 ml of venous blood was collected into glass vessels¹ surrounded by ice. These vessels contained heparin and sufficient known small amounts of ³²P[PP₁] (from the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, England, initial specific activities 5-205 mCi/mmole) to allow a total initial activity of around 100,000 cpm. The ³²P[PP₁] was added in order to correct for subsequent losses of PP₁. The collection of whole blood directly into the ³²P[PP₁] appeared a valid procedure since the entire radioactivity remained outside the cells and could be completely recovered in the plasma after separation. Immediately after collection of the blood, ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA) was added (1 ml of 200 mM EDTA disodium salt, adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH, was added for every 10 ml of blood). This addition of EDTA reduced the rate of hydrolysis of PP₁ in the blood. Thus preliminary studies had shown that, in plasma from patients with elevated alkaline phosphatase, the hydrolysis of PP₁ by the end of ultrafiltration (see below) could reach 100%. This hydrolysis was reduced by the routine addition of EDTA to the blood. For example in three different blood samples kept at 0°-4°C (without EDTA) the hydrolysis of added ³²P[PP₁] ranged from 8 to 28% after 5 hr and from 28 to 67% after 22 hr. The addition of EDTA reduced this hydrolysis to 5-10% during 22 hr.

An aliquot of blood was removed for determination of packed red cell volume and radioactivity $(3 \times 50 \ \mu)$. The remainder of the blood was immediately centrifuged at 0°-4°C and the plasma separated. At this stage it is important that there should be no hemolysis, in order to avoid potential interference by red cell nucleotides. The blood should be centrifuged sufficiently hard to remove platelets and leucocytes. In practice, the centrifugation was either carried out in the presence of Plasaid beads (Stayne Laboratories Ltd., High Wycombe, Bucks, England) or the plasma was centrifuged twice.

If the analysis could not be performed immediately the plasma was frozen (at about -20° C) after separation. After taking aliquots of plasma ($3 \times 50 \ \mu$ l) for determination of radioactivity, the plasma was equilibrated with a mixture of 5% CO₂ and 95% air and was then ultrafiltered at 2° -6°C. The equilibration with 5% CO₂ before ultrafiltation was necessary in order to prevent the precipitation of calcium phosphate and coprecipitation of PP₁. Ultrafiltration was carried out in a special apparatus constructed

¹ Glassware must not be washed in commercial detergents containing phosphates or polyphosphates.

of Perspex (Plexiglas). A yield of 11–26 ml of ultrafiltrate could be obtained from 15–30 ml of plasma ultrafiltered overnight through Visking dialysis membranes of about 6 cm diameter under a pressure of 5–8 atmospheres (compressed air). Ultrafiltration proved superior to other methods of deproteinisation such as precipitation with alcohol or trichloroacetic acid.

The mean $(\pm \text{SEM})$ concentration of radioactivity in the ultrafiltrate from 43 plasma samples was 82 $\pm 1\%$ of the radioactivity in the original plasma. Some hydrolysis of the ³³P[PP₁] occurred during separation of the plasma and during ultrafiltration, even though all steps were carried out in the cold. This illustrates the importance of using an isotope dilution technique to correct for losses.

The PP₁ was coprecipitated from the ultrafiltrate with calcium phosphate. This step is an important one since it allows the PP₁ to be removed from many of the salts and other contaminating substances in the ultrafiltrate. It was based on the observation that calcium phosphates adsorb PP₁ very strongly (4, 9). 0.5 N KOH was added until the ultrafiltrate was just yellow with methyl red as indicator, 250 mM CaCl₂ was then added drop by drop until a copious precipitate had formed. The precipitate was recovered by centrifugation, dissolved in the cold in a minimum amount of 0.5 N HCl, and the volume made to 25 ml with water. A further 0.25 mmole of calcium was added, and the precipitate in repeated by adding 0.5 N KOH. The precipitate was again dissolved in 0.5 N HCl and diluted to 5 ml with water.

An excess (500 mg) of Dowex 50-W \times 4 (200-400 mesh, sodium form, previously washed with 1 N NaOH, H₂O, 1 N HCl, H₂O, 1 M NaCl and H₂O) was then shaken with the dissolved precipitates for 2 min to remove calcium and nucleotides. Treatment with Dowex 50-W proved a better method of removing added adenosine di- and triphosphates (ADP and ATP) than acid-washed charcoal. The resin was removed by filtration through a glass sinter (G4) and washed four times with 3 ml of water. The filtrate and washings were collected in the cold in a vessel containing 0.5 ml of 0.2 M tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane base (Tris). The volume was made to 20 ml with H₂O and the pH, measured with indicator paper, was checked to ensure that it was greater than 7.

The neutralized 20 ml of solution remaining after treatment with Dowex 50-W will be referred to later as "plasma extract." It was applied to columns containing anion exchange resin (Dowex 1×10 , 100-200 mesh, chloride form). The resin was prepared by repeated alternate washings with 1 N NaOH, H₂O, 4 N HCl, and H₂O. Between runs the columns were regenerated with at least 100 ml of 4 N HCl, followed by washing with H2O until the effluent was chloride free. The columns were 17-20 cm long and had an internal diameter of 8.0-8.5 mm. Each column contained 10 ml of wet resin bed and had a flow rate of 0.5-1 ml/min. These columns are similar to those used for determination of PP₁ in urine, as described previously (10, 11). The columns were always of Pyrex glass, since some other types of glass, e.g. soda glass, adsorbed P1 and PP1 and this interfered with their separation. After washing the columns with 10 ml of water, P₁ could be eluted either with 100 ml of 0.05 N HCl or with 200 ml of a solution of 0.133 M KCl and 25 mM Na₂B₄O₇ (in the latter case followed by 25 ml of H₂O to remove salts if paper chromatography or repeat ion-exchange chromatography was to be carried out). For routine purposes we always use 0.05 N HCl to elute P1 because, although the KCl-borate solution gave better recoveries of PP1, the PP1 fractions sometimes contained



FIGURE 1 Elution of orthophosphate (P₁) and pyrophosphate (PP₁) from ion-exchange columns (Dowex 1×10 , 100-200 mesh, chloride form) after application of plasma extract prepared as described in the text. ³²P[PP₁] was added to the blood at the time of collection and the elution of radioactivity is shown (a) without and (b) with incubation with inorganic pyrophosphatase (at ultrafiltrate stage, see text). There is a close relation between the elution of phosphate-reacting material and radioactivity (³²P) in the pyrophosphate peak in (a), and neither phosphate nor ³³P appears in this position after treatment with pyrophosphatase (b).

traces of P₁ due to adsorption of P₁ to the columns. After elution of P₁, PP₁ was eluted with 0.25 N HCl, fractions being collected as 1×4 ml (fraction 1, 100-104 ml), 1×2 ml (fraction 2, 105-106 ml), 5 × 1 ml (fractions 3-7, 107-111 ml), and 3×2 ml (fractions 8-10, 112-117 ml). Aliquots $(2 \times 50 \ \mu l)$ were taken from fractions 3-7 for determination of radioactivity. Concentrated HCl was then added to all the fractions to bring the HCl concentration in each to about $0.5 \times HCl$. The PP_1 in the fractions was hydrolyzed to P₁ by heating for 30 min in a boiling water bath. A volume of a reagent mixture (0.5% w/v ammonium molybdate and 2% w/v ascorbic acid dissolved in 1 N HCl) equal to that of the fraction was then added and the whole heated for 10 min in a boiling water bath. After cooling the P1 was determined by measuring the extinction at 820 mµ (molar extinction coefficient, $E_{1 em} = 2.7 \times 10^4$) using semi-microcuvettes in a Beckman DU spectrophotometer. Whenever radioactivity due to *P was measured, 50-µl samples were applied in duplicate or triplicate to washed aluminum planchets sprayed with plastic film. When dry, the planchets were counted in an automatic methane gas flow counter (Frieseke and Hoepfner, Erlangen-Bruck, West Germany).

To calculate the concentration of PP_1 in the original plasma, use was made of the principle of isotope dilution. The calculations are shown in the Appendix.

The value for specific activity of ³³ $P[PP_1]$ from ionexchange chromatography was taken as the mean activity of fractions 3-7 (107-111 ml) from the 0.25 N HCl eluates. The specific activities of these fractions were usually remarkably uniform, suggesting that only a single compound was eluted in these fractions (see Fig. 1). Occasionally, however, in our earlier studies, when the alkaline borate-KCl mixture was used to elute orthophosphate, there was an obvious progressive decrease in specific activity from fractions 5 through 7, presumably because these later fractions contained phosphate-reacting material that was not PP₁. Detailed studies showed that this material was orthophosphate adsorbed to the columns. Interference from this source has now been eliminated by using 0.05 N HCl rather than the alkaline borate-KCl mixture to elute orthophosphate.

In order to determine whether other compounds are eluted with PP₁, various other tests of specificity were carried out. These included a second ion-exchange chromatography (Table I), incubation with yeast pyrophosphatase, paper chromatography, and tests with added nucleotides.

Repeat chromatography. When pooled fractions 3 and 4 from the 0.25 N HCl elution from several columns were subjected to ion-exchange chromatography for a second time and the PP₁ was eluted with 0.09 N HCl in place of 0.25 N HCl, each fraction that contained ³²P[PP₁] had a specific activity not more than 10% higher than the ³²P[PP₁] in the pooled fractions (Table I).

Incubation with pyrophosphatase. Yeast inorganic pyrophosphatase (12) was used to check the specificity of the method. This enzyme is highly specific for PP₁, but under special conditions it will hydrolyze ATP (13). Even under optimum conditions, however, the hydrolysis of ATP is about 350 times slower than the hydrolysis of PP₁. By allowing the hydrolysis of added ³²P[PP₁] to just reach completion or by stopping the reaction before it reaches completion, it is reasonable to assume that the hydrolysis of compounds other than PP₁ will be minimal.

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 TABLE I

 Maximum Specific Radioactivities of ³²P[PP_i] Eluted from

 Ion-Exchange Columns under a Variety

 of Conditions

Elution conditions	Maximum specific radioactivity of PP
	cpm/µg P
Three separate chromatographic runs of	27,500
a single plasma extract. Ortho-	28,400
phosphate was removed by elution with 200 ml of 0.133 M KCl contain- ing 25 mM Na ₂ B ₄ O ₇ , followed by 25 ml H ₂ O (see text for details). Elution of pyrophosphate with 0.25 N HCl.	27,100
First chromatographic run as above. Peak activity fractions from the three columns pooled and then reapplied to six other columns, which were eluted with 200 ml of 0.133 M KCl containing 25 mM Na ₂ B ₄ O ₇ , followed by 25 ml H ₂ O (see text for details). PP ₁ was then eluted with	
0.25 N HCl	27,800
0.25 N HCl	29,850
0.09 N HCl	28,900
0.09 и HCl	28,500
0.09 N HCl	27,800
0.09 N HCl	30,400

A single plasma extract was used throughout.

Yeast inorganic pyrophosphatase came from two sources: $3 \times$ crystallized enzyme was kindly supplied by Dr. M. Kunitz, The Rockefeller University, New York, and $2 \times$ crystallized enzyme was obtained from the Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.

Incubation with enzyme was carried out on ultrafiltrates or on the neutralized plasma extract (pH 7.2). In the latter case, to satisfy cofactor requirements and to avoid bacterial growth 0.1 \bowtie MgCl₂ was added (final concentration 0.1 mmole/liter) together with neomycin sulphate (final concentration 1 mg/ml). The enzyme was added in aliquots of about 100 μ g and the solution incubated at 30°C on a shaker, until the hydrolysis of the ³²P[PP₁] was practically complete (95-100%) as measured by an isobutanolpetroleum ether extraction procedure described below.

With this extraction procedure, adapted from the method described by Hall (14), radioactivity due to ³²P[P₁] and ³³P[PP₁] can be determined separately. 1 ml of the sample to be analyzed (which must contain less than 100 μ g P₁/ml) was added to 1 ml of a reagent mixture containing 3.3% (w/v) ammonium molybdate and 2.7 N H₂SO₄. To this was added 2 ml of a mixture of isobutanol and petroleum ether (4:1 by volume; petroleum ether was a 80°-100°C boiling fraction, British Drug Houses Ltd., Poole, England). This mixture was shaken for at least 1 min and the organic and aqueous phases were then separated by centrifugation. The entire procedure was carried out in an ice bath. Two 50- μ l aliquots were taken from each layer for determination of radioactivity. With this method, ³²P[P₁] is

quantitatively extracted as phosphomolybdic acid into the organic phase, whereas ${}^{32}P[PP_1]$ remains in the aqueous phase and it is therefore possible to calculate the extent of hydrolysis of the ${}^{32}P[PP_1]$ in the original sample.

When hydrolysis of the ³²P[PP₁] in the plasma extract was practically complete, the solution was applied immediately to the ion-exchange columns, and the residual phosphate and radioactivity measured in fractions eluting with 0.25 N HCl between 100 and 117 ml (Fig. 1).

After incubation of the plasma extract with pyrophosphatase before ion-exchange chromatography, the amount of phosphate-reacting material remaining in fractions 3–7 was equivalent to 0.24 ± 0.05 (mean $\pm s_E$) mµmoles PP₁/ml of plasma. This represented $7 \pm 1\%$ (mean $\pm s_E$) of the concentration of PP₁ in similar plasma extracts not treated with pyrophosphatase. An example of the effect of PP-ase is shown in Fig. 1. It is clear that the major part of the ³²P-labeled pyrophosphate and the phosphate-reacting material that eluted with 0.25 N HCl no longer does so after treatment with pyrophosphatase.

Ascending paper chromatography. Paper chromatography was carried out as follows. PP1-containing eluates from ion-exchange chromatography were collected under ice and were lyophilized at -5° C. The residue was dissolved in a minimum volume of water and applied to paper chromatograms (paper 2043b, Schleicher-Schüll, Feldmeilen ZH, Switzerland). Internal standards of ³²P[P₁] and ³²P[PP₁] were incorporated in some of the aliquots. Two solvent systems were used (the first contained 280 ml of isopropanol, 120 ml of H₂O, 16 g of trichloroacetic acid, and 1.2 ml of 20% NH₄OH; the second consisted of a 70:30 (v/v) mixture of methanol and 2 N NH4OH). When the second solvent was used 200 μ g of disodium EDTA was added to each spot. After ascending chromatography had been carried out the ³²P-containing spots were localized by radioautography. After this, chemically reacting phosphorus spots were localized by moistening the chromatogram with a mixture containing 1 g of ammonium molybdate, 3 ml of concentrated HCl, 3 ml of 70% perchloric acid, and 8 ml of water, all diluted to 100 ml with acetone. The chromatograms were then exposed to an UV lamp for 10 min and the resulting blue spots were stabilized by contact with NH₃ vapor.

When fractions 3 and 4 from the 0.25 N HCl elution were pooled from several columns and treated in the way described above, the only detectable phosphorus-containing (blue) spot other than orthophosphate was superimposable upon the spot observed radioautographically and due to the tracer ³²P[PP₁] added to the blood. No spots were seen

TABLE II Effect of Addition of Adenine Nucleotides (ADP and ATP) to Whole Blood on the Recovery of Plasma PP; (µg P/ml)

Concentration of ADP or ATP added to whole blood	Plasma PPi			
	ATP added		ADP added	
	Plasma 1	Plasma 2	Plasma 3	Plasma 4
mole/liter	μg P/ml			
None	0.254	0.175	0.164	0.123
10-4	*	*	*	*
10-5	0.244	0.176	0.189	0.132
10-6	0.266	0.179	0.159	0.124

* Separation of PPi from nucleotide incomplete (see Methods).

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TABLE III Recovery of Inorganic Pyrophosphate (PP_i) Added to Blood

PP _i added	PP _i found	Recovery
µg P/ml plasma	µg P/ml plasma	%
None	0.146	
0.0975	0.244	101
0.245	0.378	96
0.730	0.877	100

either in ultraviolet light or by the phosphate reaction in the positions expected for ADP or ATP, but it is possible that contamination in the order of 5% might have escaped detection by this technique.

Effects of added nucleotides. One of the most serious potential sources of interference with the specificity of the method would be from adenine nucleotides. The concentration of such nucleotides is very low in plasma but is high in erythrocytes, and this is one reason why hemolyzed bloods were not taken for the analyses. Experiments were carried out in which ATP and ADP were added to whole blood to provide concentrations in blood of 10-6, 10-5, and 10-6 mole/liter (Table II). Significant detectable interference only occurred at the highest concentration of each nucleotide (10⁻⁴ mole/liter). At this concentration, separation of pyrophosphate and nucleotide on the column is only partial, so that the variable dilution of pyrophosphate by nucleotide causes variability in specific activity of the fractions, and it becomes impossible to calculate a value for pyrophosphate. At 10⁻⁵ and 10⁻⁶ M nucleotide concentrations, this effect does not occur.

Recovery of PP_i and reproducibility

Although the amount of ${}^{32}P[PP_1]$ recovered in the 0.25 N HCl fractions from the columns was often as low as 20-30% of that present in the original blood, the concentration of PP₁ in plasma could still be calculated since the specific activity of the PP₁ could be measured accurately in the column eluates. When known amounts of nonradioactive PP₁ were added to blood, the observed fall in the specific activity of the ${}^{32}P[PP_1]$ recovered from the columns was exactly as predicted (Table III). This provided reassuring evidence that the use of the principle of isotope dilution to measure PP₁ was valid.

The standard deviation for a single estimation, calculated from 20 duplicate determinations of PP₁ in plasma, was 0.18 μ mole/liter. Using this value of standard deviation, the result obtained for a single determination of plasma PP₁ would, with 99% probability, lie within ±0.47 μ mole/liter of the true value. This is equivalent to approximately ±13% at the mean plasma concentration of 3.56 μ moles/liter.

Patients

Patients were studied as out patients at three main centres: Berne, Oxford, and University College Hospital, London. The diagnosis was established in each case by recognized criteria. The cases of hypophosphatasia included six on whom urinary PP_1 measurements have been reported previously (15).

Five of the cases of osteogenesis imperfecta were from a single family, in which a dominant mode of inheritance was present. Five of the remaining cases were the only known affected members in their families. Some of these cases were severely affected and three of the adults had had 40-70 fractures each.

The two cases of osteopetrosis were both mild, one had been recognized when aged 7 yr and the other when aged 43 yr. The younger was on a low calcium diet plus cellulose phosphate for treatment.

None of the five cases of hyperparathyroidism had evidence of bone disease and the three cases of "acute" or "juvenile" osteoporosis (16) were studied after the phase of most rapid demineralization had occurred.

Normal persons were always bled at the same sessions as the patients, as an additional check on the technique for plasma PP₁. Blood was usually taken in the morning, in the fasting state whenever possible. Urine pyrophosphate was measured by the technique of Fleisch and Bisaz (10).

RESULTS

The concentration of PP, in normal human plasma. The results are shown in Fig. 2. The mean $(\pm \text{SEM})$ concentration of PP₁ in the plasma of 36 normal men was 3.48 ±0.15 µmoles/liter (sD of mean = 0.89). For 37 normal women the values (mean ±sE) were 3.50 ±0.15 µmoles/liter (sD of mean = 0.92). There was no significant differences between men and women (P > 0.7, Student's t test). The values in young persons (0-15 yr) were slightly higher than in older persons but the numbers are too small to be certain about the influence of age. The pooled results for the 73 men and women gave a population mean ±sE of 3.50 ±0.11 µmoles/liter (sD of mean = 0.80). The normal range (99% limits) for this population is therefore 1.19-5.65 µmoles/liter (0.074-0.350 µg P/m1).

Because other workers may not always be able to add ³²P[PP₁] to blood at the time of collection, we measured PP₁ in 21 samples to which ³²P[PP₁] was added to the plasma only after centrifugation (at 2°-6°C). No EDTA was added at any stage. The mean \pm se values for plasma PP₁ were lower (2.68 \pm 0.19 μ moles/liter) than when



FIGURE 2 The relation between age and the concentration of PP₁ in plasma in normal men (\bullet) and women (\bigcirc) .

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FIGURE 3 Variation in plasma PP_1 in seven normal persons during a normal day. Breakfast was not eaten, and the time of the mid-day meal is shown by the arrow.

EDTA and ³² $P[PP_1]$ were added at the time of collection. This confirms that hydrolysis of PP₁ occurs during preparation of the plasma. Indeed similar studies on bloods containing large amount of alkaline phosphatase showed that plasma PP₁ concentrations approaching zero can be found, unless precautions are taken to cool the blood and to add EDTA at the beginning of the analysis.

When plasma PP₁ was taken from seven normal persons several times during a single day, the variation found was greater than could be attributed to variation in the technique alone (Fig. 3). These variations seemed unrelated to the time of day or time of meals so that other, as yet unidentified, factors may be playing a part.



FIGURE 4 The concentration of PP₁ in the plasma of patients with hypophosphatasia, osteogenesis imperfecta, osteopetrosis, hyperparathyroidism, osteomalacia, and juvenile osteoporosis. The normal ranges (99% limits) calculated for each 15 yr age group is shown between the dotted lines.

Such factors will assume importance if repeated studies in single individuals are undertaken. Detailed studies of this sort are difficult to do at present because the technique for plasma PP₁ requires large volumes of blood and is very laborious.

Plasma PP: in bone diseases. Fig. 4 shows plasma PP: values in eight patients with hypophosphatasia (17), 11 patients with osteogenesis imperfecta, 2 patients each with osteopetrosis or osteomalacia, 3 with "acute" osteoporosis of the juvenile type (16), and 5 with primary hyperparathyroidism (without evidence of bone disease). Plasma PP: was invariably higher than normal in hypophosphatasia but was normal in osteogenesis imperfecta and osteopetrosis. Higher than normal values for plasma PP: were found in two out of six relatives of patients with hypophosphatasia. All these six relatives were thought to be carriers (heterozygotes) of the disease (four mothers, one father, and one sister).

Plasma PP₁ was also above the upper limit of normal (plasma PP₁ = 8.35 and 7.6 μ moles/liter) in the two cases of osteomalacia due to intestinal malabsorption (one postgastrectomy and one due to gluten sensitivity). Plasma PP₁ was within the normal range in the other conditions studied.

DISCUSSION

The method finally adopted for the determination of PP₁ in plasma gave satisfactory results, considering the small quantities involved. This method, although laborious, makes it possible to study, for the first time, the factors that control the concentration of PP₁ in body fluids. It cannot be stated with certainty that no other compound is measured along with PP₁, but the method appears better than 90% specific as judged by the elution patterns from the ion-exchange columns, by paper chromatography, and by incubation with inorganic pyrophosphatase. Interference from ATP and ADP at the concentrations likely to be encountered in blood was not detectable.

Apart from specificity, the other feature of major importance in the method is that ³⁵P[PP₁] is added at the moment the blood is collected. This allows corrections to be made for all losses, especially the considerable hydrolysis (up to 100% when the plasma alkaline phosphatase is raised) that occurs in absence of EDTA during the preparation of the plasma and ultrafiltrate. The only published report on measuring PP₁ in human blood is that of Solomons and Styner (8). These authors used serum for analysis and made no corrections for hydrolysis. The specificity of their technique was not adequately assessed, and the specific activity of ³⁵P[PP₁] in their various column fraction (Fig. 2, reference 8) varied, suggesting that more than one compound was present. Indeed they found a mean serum PP₁ concentration of

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11.0 μ moles/liter, which is twice our upper limit of normal. This is not simply a geographical difference since we have found similar concentrations of PP₁ in plasma from normal persons in the USA, UK, and Switzerland. The concentrations of PP₁ in the plasma of other species so far examined are also in the same range as in man (in seven adult dogs, mean ±sE plasma PP₁ = 2.26 ±0.79 μ moles/liter, and in two pooled blood samples from Wistar rats the concentrations were 3.18 and 3.23 μ moles/liter).

The mean \pm SE of mean concentration of PP₁ found in human plasma was 3.50 \pm 0.11 µmoles/liter. The normal range (99% confidence limits) lies between 1.19 and 5.65 µmoles/liter. These concentrations, although small, are in the range in which PP₁ inhibits calcium phosphate precipitation in vitro (2, 3), and slows the growth and dissolution of apatite crystals (4). This supports the proposal that PP₁ might be one of the substances presumed to be required to prevent mineralization of soft tissues and that alterations in PP₁ concentration might regulate tissue calcification and the rates of entry and exit of calcium in bone.

Before discussing the changes that occur in bone disease, it is worth emphasising that some caution is necessary in interpreting changes in plasma PP1. It is possible that changes might occur in the metabolism of PP₁ at various sites in the body including bone, without alteration in the concentration of PP1 in plasma. Conversely, any changes that occur might be restricted to plasma, so that changes in plasma PP1 would not necessarily mean that there are disturbances in the metabolism of PP1 in bone. Changes in turnover of PP1 could occur without changes in the concentration of PP1 in plasma. In dogs the turnover of plasma PP1, measured using ³²P[PP₁], is very rapid and the entire plasma pool is replaced every 1-3 min (18). Unfortunately, it is more difficult to obtain information of this sort in man. Thus it is not known whether PP1 in plasma is in equilibrium with the PP1 in bone and whether the concentration of PP1 in plasma is affected by local changes in the metabolism of PP1 in bone. In future studies these points will have to be clarified.

Hypophosphatasia was the only disease we studied in detail in which plasma PP₁ was invariably above normal. This observation is consistent with previous studies in which it was shown that urinary PP₁ is always higher than normal in this condition (15, 19). Because there is a deficiency of alkaline phosphatase in hypophosphatasia associated with high amounts of PP₁, it is reasonable to assume that PP₁ is one of the natural substrates for alkaline phosphatase in vivo. Indeed there is now excellent evidence that many mammalian alkaline phosphatases are able to hydrolyse PP₁ (20–23). The accumulation of PP₁ in hypophosphatasia may be the cause of the defective mineralization of bone in this disease, since several experimental studies have shown that PP₁ can inhibit calcification in various living systems (24-26). One function of alkaline phosphatase in bone may be to remove PP₁ so that deposition of calcium salts can take place. Although the defective mineralization in hypophosphatasia resembles that in rickets, it is a notable feature of hypophosphatasia that the mineralization defect persists, even though plasma concentrations of calcium and phosphate are often higher than in normal persons (17).

With regard to the therapy of hypophosphatasia, there has been a favorable report of the use of phosphate supplementation in hypophosphatasia (19). However, we have found that feeding phosphate does not significantly change plasma PP₁. If feeding phosphate is an effective form of treatment, some explanation other than an effect on plasma PP₁ must be sought.

Our results on osteogenesis imperfecta do not agree with those of Solomons and Styner (8), who claimed that patients with osteogenesis imperfecta had elevated serum PP1 concentrations. Our patients had normal plasma PP1. Because the technique of Solomons and Styner is probably not specific for PP1, their results may be in error. Solomons and Styner also claimed that patients with osteogenesis imperfecta excrete relatively more PP₁ in their urine than normal, when their urine orthophosphate is taken into account. Urine PP1 is easier to measure than plasma PP1 and there is no reason why their urine technique should not have been valid. However, it seems that they compared affected children (age 2 days-14 yr) with normal adults as controls, and neglected the fact that the ratio of PP1/P1 in urine is 2-3 times higher in children than in adults (10, 11). We measured urinary PP₁ in five of our cases of osteogenesis imperfecta. None of them excreted more than 0.8 mg PP₁ per 100 mg of orthophosphate, which is the upper limit of normal in young persons (15). At present, therefore, there is very little evidence to support the idea that an abnormality in PP₁ metabolism may be the cause of osteogenesis imperfecta.

Plasma PP₁ was normal in the other bone diseases we studied, with the exception of both the patients with osteomalacia. The significance of these changes will become evident only after further studies, but the findings in osteomalacia could suggest a role for vitamin D in removing PP₁ so that calcification can proceed. Elevated plasma PP₁ concentrations have also been reported in some patients with renal failure (7), a condition in which abnormalities in the metabolism of vitamin D are also present (27).

APPENDIX

The calculation of the concentration of PP_i in plasma, although straightforward is shown in detail so that the essential measurements and assumptions may be recognized.

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- (1) Total volume of blood from patient = V_B ml.
- (2) Volume of 0.2 M EDTA added = V_{EDTA} ml.
- (3) Packed cell volume (PCV, %, measured on whole blood *after* addition of EDTA) = PCV.
- (4) Concentration of ³²P[PP_i] in blood +EDTA = r_{B+EDTA} cpm/ml.
- (5) Concentration of ³²P[PP_i] in plasma + EDTA = r_{P+EDTA} cpm/ml, and
- (6) mean specific activity $(cpm/\mu g P)$ of PP_i, eluted in fractions 3-7 from ion-exchange chromatography = SA_{PPi} cpm/ μ g.

Then

- (7) Total radioactivity in whole blood plus EDTA $(= R_{B+EDTA})$ at the beginning of analysis $= r_{B+EDTA} \cdot (V_B + V_{EDTA})$ cpm.
- (8) Total yield of plasma + EDTA should be

$$\frac{(V_{B} + V_{EDTA}) (100 - PCV)}{100} ml = V_{P} + V_{EDTA},$$

where V_P is the true volume of plasma present in the V_B ml of blood taken from the patient.

(9) If all the ³²P[PP_i] added initially to the blood remains outside cells and confined to plasma, then the total radioactivity (R_P) in ($V_P + V_{EDTA}$) ml of plasma plus EDTA where

 $R_{P} = r_{P+EDTA} \cdot (V_{P} + V_{EDTA}) cpm,$

should be found to equal the total radioactivity at the beginning of the analysis, thus $R_P = R_{B+EDTA}$. Experimentally this was found to be so.

(10) Then, the total PP_i (µg) in V_P ml of plasma, defined as

 T_{PPi} , = $\frac{R_P}{SA_{PPi}}$ - amount (µg P) of ³³P[PP_i] added added initially.

(11) Thus concentration of PP_i in plasma = $\frac{T_{PP_i}}{V_P} \mu g P/ml$.

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