

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: The Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆ from Selected Foods as

Measured by Urinary 4-Pyridoxic Acid in Men Saturated

With Pyridoxine

Abstract approved: _____
Dr. Lorraine Miller

The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in four selected foods (bananas, filberts, soybeans and beef) was determined in five men, aged 22 to 25 years, who were saturated with pyridoxine. The study consisted of a five-day adjustment period followed by a 28-day experimental period. All subjects consumed a constant diet containing 1.34 mg of vitamin B₆ from Monday to Friday of each week, and their self-chosen diets on the weekends. During the experimental period the subjects received 5 mg of pyridoxine each day, including weekends, except on the days when loading doses of crystalline pyridoxine and the selected foods were administered. Doses of 2 mg of crystalline pyridoxine or doses of food containing approximately 2 mg of vitamin B₆ were given. The subjects collected daily 24-hr

urine specimens. Vitamin B₆ bioavailability was determined by comparing the yield of 4-pyridoxic acid in response to the test food doses to the yield of 4-pyridoxic acid in response to the 2mg of crystalline pyridoxine. Compared to the 100 percent bioavailability of 2mg crystalline pyridoxine, the mean percent bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from banana was 131.4 ± 68.2 ; from filberts, 88.1 ± 13.9 ; from soybeans, 58.3 ± 24.3 ; and from beef, 81.5 ± 28.6 . Factors affecting bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from these foods are discussed.

The Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆ from Selected Foods
as Measured by Urinary 4-pyridoxic Acid in Men
Saturated with Pyridoxine

by

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Typed by Donna Lee Norvell-Race for Patricia Lozano de Gonzalez

♦ *Dedicated, with love, to Carlos and
Karla, who made so many sacrifices
that I might complete my graduate
studies ...*

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	4
History.	4
Vitamin B ₆ Interconversions.	6
Absorption of Vitamin B ₆	8
Urinary Excretion of Vitamin B ₆ and 4-pyridoxic Acid	10
Recommended Dietary Allowances for Vitamin B ₆	12
Bioavailability of Vitamin B ₆	13
MATERIALS AND METHODS.	17
Subject Selection.	17
Experimental Protocol.	17
Preparation of Test Foods.	23
Calculation of Percent Bioavailability	24
Statistical Analyses	25
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	26
Daily 24-hr 4PA Excretion.	28
Urinary Vitamin B ₆ and 4PA	33
Excretion of 4PA after 2 mg Crystalline PN Doses	36
Bioavailability of Vitamin B ₆ from Test Foods.	39
Factors Affecting the Bioavailability of Vitamin B ₆	44
CONCLUSIONS AND EVALUATION	48
BIBLIOGRAPHY	50
APPENDIX	55

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Structures of free and phosphorylated forms of vitamin B ₆ and the metabolite 4-pyridoxic acid	5
2	Interconversions of the B ₆ vitamins and formation of 4PA	7
3	Comparison of daily excretion of urinary 4PA and vitamin B ₆ in subjects receiving supplementary PN and loading doses of crystalline PN and test foods	31
4	Percent bioavailability of vitamin B ₆ from test food loading doses as compared to 100 percent bioavailability of crystalline PN	42

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Physical description of subjects	18
2	Plan of study	19
3	Constant diet	20
4	Effect of vitamin B ₆ supplementation on urinary excretion of 4PA (μ moles/24 hr)	29
5	Effect of PN supplementation on the percent of vitamin B ₆ intake excreted as urinary vitamin B ₆ and 4PA	35
6	Yield of 4-pyridoxic acid excretion (μ moles/24 hr)	37
7	Urinary excretion of 4PA in μ moles in vitamin B ₆ supplemented subjects who received 0 and 2 mg PN doses	38
8	Bioavailability of vitamin B ₆ from the test foods	40

The Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆ from Selected Foods
as Measured by Urinary 4-pyridoxic Acid in Men
Saturated with Pyridoxine

INTRODUCTION

The vitamin B₆ content of foods as determined in the laboratory does not indicate the bioavailability of this vitamin. Bioavailability of vitamin B₆ refers to the net utilization of this vitamin in a food, or the fraction of the total vitamin B₆ which has undergone intestinal absorption and functions qualitatively as vitamin B₆. Bioavailability reflects the digestion, absorption and metabolism of an ingested nutrient, and is reflected in the level of this nutrient or its metabolites in body tissues, fluids, and excretory products.

In the past, investigations on vitamin B₆ bioavailability were 50-60 days in length and the test food provided the bulk of the subjects' intake of vitamin B₆ (Leklem, Shultz and Miller, 1980; Lindberg, 1979). If it were possible to measure vitamin B₆ bioavailability from foods by giving loading doses as Wozenski, Leklem and Miller (1980) had done with crystalline vitamin B₆, then these investigations on bioavailability could be less time-consuming and expensive, and more subjects could be tested. There are, however, two problems in this "loading dose" method. The food test dose would need to be large in order to obtain a reliable

measurable change in body fluids or excretory products. In addition, variable results are obtained in normal free-living subjects because of the differences in their vitamin B₆ nutritional status or saturation.

Recently, Tamura and Stokstad (1973) assessed the bioavailability of food folate in subjects saturated with that vitamin by measuring changes in urinary folate excreted in response to test doses of food. Tamura and Stokstad saturated their subjects with pteroylmonoglutamate (PteGlu) in order to obtain increased urinary excretion of folate. Folate excretion following 0.3-0.5 mg of PteGlu was increased about five times by preloading folate saturated subjects with 2 mg of PteGlu. They applied their procedure to measuring the bioavailability of folate in food given as loading doses.

The purpose of the research reported in this thesis was to apply the procedure developed by Tamura and Stokstad for determining the bioavailability of food folate to vitamin B₆: to measure the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from test food doses administered to men saturated with pyridoxine. Vitamin B₆ bioavailability in the research reported in this thesis was determined by measuring the urinary excretion of 4-pyridoxic acid, a major metabolite of vitamin B₆ which is excreted in urine.

In addition, in support of the use of 4-pyridoxic acid as a measure of vitamin B₆ bioavailability in vitamin B₆-saturated subjects, Lumeng, Lui and Li (1980) recently observed that the

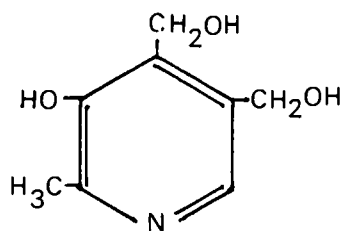
pyridoxal phosphate that was newly formed from pyridoxine added to isolated hepatocytes did not mix freely with endogenous pyridoxal phosphate, but was preferentially converted to and released as pyridoxal and 4-pyridoxic acid. This suggests that the 4-pyridoxic acid excreted by subjects saturated with vitamin B₆ in response to the test doses of food represents the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in that food: that vitamin B₆ in the food dose had been digested, absorbed and metabolized.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

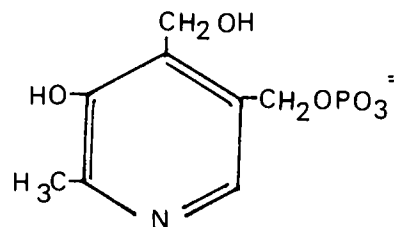
History

In 1934, vitamin B₆ was identified by György as essential for preventing a dermatitis, called acrodynia, in the rat (György, 1971). In 1938, the isolation of the pure crystalline vitamin B₆ was announced by five different research groups: those of Lepkovsky, Keresztesy and Stevens, György, Kuhn and Wendt, and Itiba and Miti. Subsequently, the vitamin was synthesized independently by Kuhn and his coworkers in Germany, and by Keresztesy and his associates in the United States (Brin, 1978). When its pyridine ring structure was elucidated in 1939, vitamin B₆ was given the more descriptive name of pyridoxine (PN) (György, 1971). Snell, Guirard and Williams (1942) first recognized the existence of pyridoxal (PL) and pyridoxamine (PM). Since PN, PL and PM are equally effective in animal nutrition, they are referred to collectively as vitamin B₆¹ (Sauberlich and Canham, 1980). The structures of these three free forms of the vitamin and their respective phosphorylated forms are presented in Figure 1. The requirement for vitamin B₆ in the human infant was demonstrated by Synderman et al. (1952).

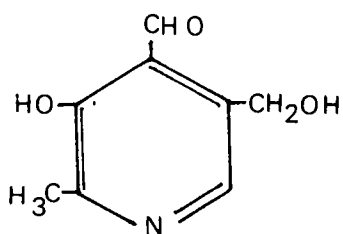
¹The term vitamin B₆ is used as the generic descriptor for all 3-hydroxy-2-methyl-pyridine derivatives exhibiting qualitatively the biological activity of PN (IUPAC-IUB CMN, 1974).



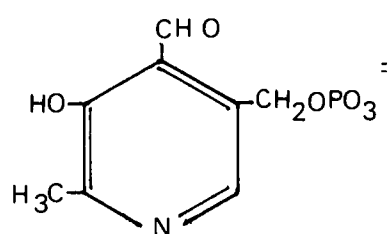
Pyridoxine (PN)



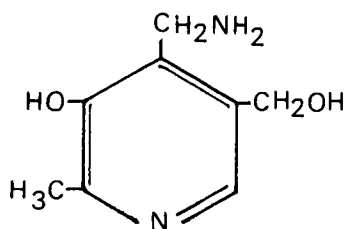
Pyridoxine Phosphate (PNP)



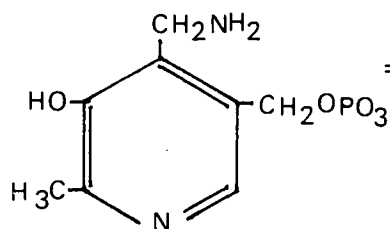
Pyridoxal (PL)



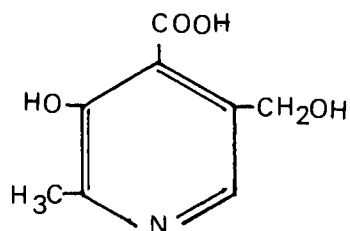
Pyridoxal Phosphate (PLP)



Pyridoxamine (PM)



Pyridoxamine Phosphate (PMP)



4-Pyridoxic Acid (4PA)

Figure 1. Structures of free and phosphorylated forms of vitamin B₆ and the metabolite 4-pyridoxic acid

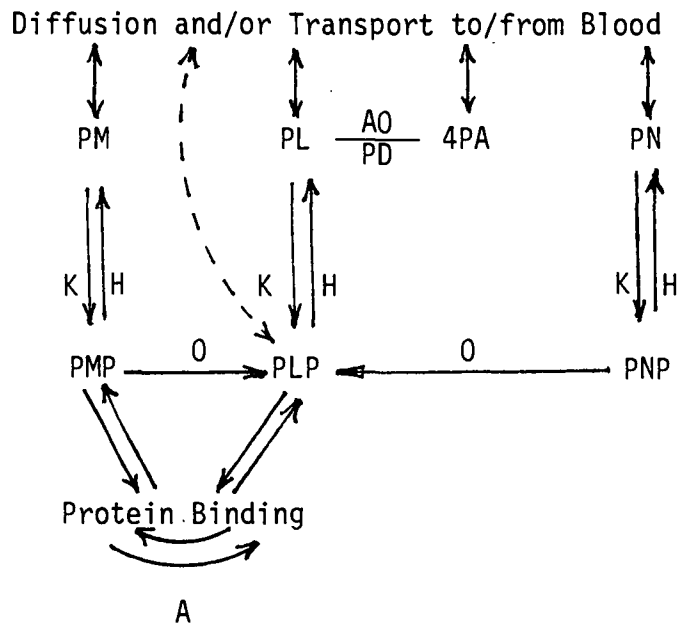
Vitamin B₆ Interconversion

Vitamin B₆ occurs widely in foods. PL and PM occur mainly in animal products, whereas PN is found largely in products of vegetable origin. The three forms are approximately equally effective in supporting animal growth (Sauberlich and Canham, 1980).

The free forms of vitamin B₆ are converted to their respective phosphorylated forms in mammals by the action of the enzymes PL kinase and PNP oxidase (Snell and Haskel, 1971). Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is the preferred phosphorylating agent. Kidney, liver and brain are rich sources of kinase, whereas skeletal muscle is a poor source (McCormick, Gregory and Snell, 1961). Both kinase (McCormick et al., 1961) and oxidase (Wada and Snell, 1961) activity is high in liver. Reversal of the phosphorylated forms to the free vitamin forms is effected by alkaline phosphatase (Lumeng and Li, 1980).

PL can be oxidized to 4-pyridoxic acid (4PA) (Fig. 1). Conversion of PL to 4PA is catalyzed by either aldehyde oxidase (Schwartz and Kjeldgaard, 1951) or NAD⁺-dependent pyridoxal dehydrogenase (Stalunovic et al., 1976). Figure 2 shows the interconversion of the various forms of vitamin B₆ and the formation of 4PA.

Lumeng, Lui and Li (1980) incubated isolated hepatocytes with ¹⁴C-PN, and measured the formation of various vitamin B₆ compounds. From the results of this investigation they concluded that (1) PLP



AO : Aldehyde Oxidase

H : Alkaline Phosphatase

K : Pyridoxal Kinase

O : Pyridoxamine-P Oxidase

PD : NAD^+ -dependent Pyridoxal Dehydrogenase

A : Apo-Pyridoxal-P-Dependent Enzymes

Figure 2. Interconversions of the B₆ vitamers and formation of 4PA (adapted from McCormick and Merrill, 1980)

and PMP are the major B₆ vitamers in liver cells, whose intracellular content is tightly regulated so that the excess amounts of these two forms do not accumulate in the presence of the free forms of vitamin B₆; (2) newly formed PLP and PMP do not exchange freely with endogenous intracellular pools of PLP and PMP, and largely constitute rapidly mobilizable pool destined for secretion into the plasma or degradation; and (3) PL, PLP and 4PA are the chief forms of vitamin B₆ released by the liver. These findings give a scientific basis for attempting to measure the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in test foods by measuring the excretion of urinary 4PA in subjects saturated with vitamin B₆, as presented in this thesis. In PN-saturated subjects, 4PA excreted in response to a test dose should represent that which had been formed from the test dose.

Absorption of Vitamin B₆

The three free forms of vitamin B₆ are quite stable in the intestinal tract and are readily absorbed. Absorption, which occurs primarily in the upper small intestine, can also occur in the jejunum and the ileum, regardless of the size of the dose given. Booth and Brain (1962) gave rats 0.05 to 5 mg of tritium-labeled PN hydrochloride (³H PN HCl) directly into parts of the intestinal tract along with 10 mg of unlabeled PN. The percentage of the radioactive dose excreted when the labeled PN was placed in the jejunum, ileum and colon was 71, 50 and 18 percent, respectively. Booth and Brain suggested that vitamin B₆ was absorbed by passive

diffusion. They observed no tendency for PN uptake to plateau, even after an oral dose of 5 mg. In addition, they did not find evidence that large doses of PN altered the site of absorption from the gastrointestinal tract.

In humans, the jejunum also appears to be the absorption site of vitamin B₆. Oral doses of ³H PN increasing from 1 to 20 mg resulted in urinary excretion of ³H PN that increased proportionally to the dose given. Resection of the distal small intestine appeared to have no effect on the ability to absorb PN. A patient having only four feet of proximal jejunum excreted amounts similar to those excreted by normal controls (Brain and Booth, 1964).

Tsuji, Yamada and Nose (1973) used everted ring segments of small intestine from rats to study the uptake of ³H PN. The rate of uptake of radioactive compounds by intestinal tissue at first was linear and then declined. When the initial concentration in the incubation medium ranged from 0.1 to 4 μM of ³H PN, the ratio of intracellular to extracellular concentration of total ³H compounds was greater at the beginning than after an hour of incubation. Addition of 4-deoxypyridoxine, an inhibitor of pyridoxal kinase, caused inhibition during long periods of incubation, but little during the five-minute uptake. The distribution of radioactive vitamin B₆ compounds was examined after incubation of the tissue with ³H PN under various conditions. PN and the three phosphorylated forms were the major vitamin B₆ compounds found, whereas PL, PM and 4PA were minimal. The intracellular PN concentration was

lower than the extracellular one under all conditions examined, indicating that no transport of PN occurred against a concentration gradient. Conversion of ^3H PN to the phosphorylated forms was inhibited by the addition of 4-deoxypyridoxine. Tsuji et al. concluded that PN enters the intracellular fluid space by simple diffusion.

This mechanism was confirmed by Middleton (1977), who incubated everted jejunal sacs from rats with solutions of PN ranging from 0.01 to 10 μM . PN uptake was linear with respect to PN concentration. Saturation at still lower concentrations, therefore, is unlikely. Middleton also showed that the presence of metabolic inhibitors like iodoacetamide, 4-deoxypyridoxine HCl, anoxia, and ouabain did not produce a significant decrease on the uptake. In a similar study, Middleton (1982) found a linear relationship between PLP concentration and disappearance from perfused segments of rat jejunum with no evidence of saturation at concentrations from 100 to 300 μM of PLP. At concentrations of 1 mM and 3 mM, there was a significant decrease in the disappearance of PLP, indicating saturation of the disappearance mechanisms. The disappearance of 100 μM of PLP was reduced by both 1 mM of PM and 1 mM of PMP, the last one significantly.

Urinary Excretion of Vitamin B₆ and 4-Pyridoxic Acid

Vitamin B₆ is excreted in urine as PL, PM and PN, as well as

4PA and some unidentified metabolites (Sauberlich et al., 1972). The major urinary metabolite of vitamin B₆ is 4PA (Rabinowitz and Snell, 1949).

In normal subjects the excretion of 4PA reflects the dietary intake of vitamin B₆. Subjects receiving 1.66 mg of vitamin B₆ daily excreted approximately 50 percent of it as 4PA. They excreted PL in the largest amount, followed by PM and only negligible amounts of PN. After five days of vitamin B₆ deprivation, the subjects' urinary excretion of 4PA and vitamin B₆ was 40 and 20 percent, respectively, of the level they had excreted while receiving 1.66 mg of vitamin B₆ a day (Kelsay, Baysal and Linkswiler, 1968).

In eight men who were receiving 0.16 mg of vitamin B₆ a day, the urinary concentration of 4PA dropped within 5 days. None was detected after 25 days of vitamin B₆ depletion. A daily PN-HCl supplement of 0.6 or 0.9 mg increased the excretion of 4PA, but below the predepletion values (Baysal, Johnson and Linkswiler, 1966). In two infants given a vitamin B₆ deficient diet, the excretion of urinary 4PA fell to zero, and that of urinary vitamin B₆ fell to a range of 0.2 to 2.0 µg daily (Synderman et al, 1952).

Children from two to nine years of age, who were consuming normal diets containing approximately 1.1 mg of vitamin B₆, excreted an average of 48 percent of the vitamin as 4PA. Excretions of 0.16 to 0.30 mg of 4PA per 24 hr appeared to indicate a low intake of the vitamin (Lewis and Nunn, 1977).

Recommended Dietary Allowances for Vitamin B₆

The requirement of vitamin B₆ is increased when high-protein diets are consumed. Baker et al. (1964) administered a liquid formula diet providing 30 or 100 g of protein a day to young adult men. In response to a loading dose of 10 g of DL-tryptophan, the subjects receiving the 100 g of protein daily excreted almost 350 mg of xanthurenic acid per 24 hr after three weeks of vitamin B₆ depletion. Subjects receiving the 30-g protein diet, on the other hand, excreted less than 300 mg of xanthurenic acid after six weeks of depletion. Men fed the 100-g protein diet required at least 1.5 mg of PN-HCl daily; and those fed the 30-g protein diet, 1.25 mg.

Harding, Plough and Friedmann (1959) fed packaged military rations providing 165 g of protein and 1.93 or 2.76 mg of vitamin B₆ to men for 24 days. The subjects consuming the lower level of the vitamin showed a significant rise in xanthurenic acid excretion following a tryptophan load test, whereas the ones receiving the ration containing the higher level did not. Harding et al. concluded that the vitamin B₆ requirement for men was greater than 2 mg per day when 165 g of protein were fed. The recommended dietary allowances (RDA) for adult males was changed from 2.0 mg (NRC, 1974) to 2.2 mg a day (NRC, 1980). The 1980 RDA is based on the range of requirements observed in several studies and the uncertainty of the availability of dietary vitamin B₆. A ratio of 0.02 mg of vitamin B₆ per g of protein eaten was used as the

basis for calculating the RDA for vitamin B₆ (NRC, 1980).

Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆

The vitamin B₆ content of American diets, according to Mangay Chung et al. (1961), is 1.1 to 3.6 mg per day for typical diets and 0.7 to 1.4 mg per day for poor diets. Driskell, Geders and Urban (1976) reported that adult males consumed diets containing 2.14 ± 1.33 ; and women, diets supplying 1.20 ± 0.52 mg of vitamin B₆ daily.

Although the quantities of vitamin B₆ present in foods have been measured, these data do not represent the amount available to humans. Practical approaches for determining vitamin B₆ bioavailability in a test food include measuring plasma and urinary vitamin B₆ compounds in subjects who are receiving a constant diet in which the test food contributes a large portion of the vitamin, or by measuring vitamin B₆ components in timed blood and urine specimens collected from subjects who have received a loading dose of a test food or crystalline B₆.

Wozenski, Leklem and Miller (1980) administered five levels of PN HCl (0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 10 mg) and equimolar doses (19.44 μ moles) of PN, PL, and PM to five young men. Following a 0.5 mg PN loading dose, the subjects exhibited a rise in plasma total vitamin B₆ and PLP, but not in the urinary excretion of 4PA or vitamin B₆. Although the mean excretion of 4PA increased from 5.6 to 19 μ moles per 24 hr in response to the 0.5 to 10 mg doses, the percent of the

dose excreted as 4PA decreased from 63 to 53, while the dose recovered as urinary vitamin B₆ decreased from 9.3 to 6.9. After the ingestion of PL, the percent rise in plasma total vitamin B₆ and urinary 4PA were significantly greater than after the ingestion of equimolar doses of PN and PM, suggesting that the three B₆ vitamers may be absorbed and metabolized differently or at different rates.

The effect of wheat bran on the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ was determined in 10 young men by Lindberg (1979). When 15 g of bran were added to the diet, the mean urinary 4PA decreased from 42.6 ± 7.5 to 36.6 ± 7.5 percent of vitamin B₆ intake, and the mean fecal vitamin B₆ excreted increased from 34.4 ± 8.7 to 37.2 ± 11 percent.

Vitamin B₆ is less bioavailable from whole wheat (WHW) bread than from white bread enriched with vitamin B₆ (WB6). Leklem et al. (1980) fed young men a constant diet containing 0.38 mg of vitamin B₆, plus WHW or WB6 bread, which supplied 1.2 mg of vitamin B₆ (total vitamin B₆ intake was 1.58 mg). Excretion of 4PA was lower when the subjects were fed WHW than when they had WB6. When the subjects received WHW bread, 4-pyridoxic acid accounted for 37.3 ± 10.2 percent of the dietary vitamin B₆ intake; 6 percent more of the dietary vitamin B₆ was excreted as 4PA when WB6 bread was fed. Plasma PLP and vitamin B₆ were lower with WHW than with WB6 bread. The excretion of urinary total vitamin B₆ accounted for 8 percent of the ingested vitamin B₆, and

a lower level of PL was excreted when WHW was fed than when WB6 was fed.

Tarr, Tamura and Stokstad (1981) used plasma PLP and urinary vitamin B₆ to estimate bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in an average American diet providing 2.3 mg a day of the vitamin. During the study, only 3.2 to 5.7 percent of the vitamin was excreted in urine as vitamin B₆. The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in the average American diet, as determined by plasma PLP levels, was 71 percent. Tarr et al. did not measure urinary 4PA to determine vitamin B₆ bioavailability.

Nelson, Lane and Cerda (1976) used a triple lumen perfusion tube to assess vitamin B₆ absorption in 15 subjects. Frozen orange juice and three synthetic solutions containing vitamin B₆ in concentrations identical to that in the natural orange juice were perfused into the small intestine by means of an infusion apparatus. Aspiration of the proximal and distal parts was maintained continuously by individual pumps. The mean vitamin B₆ absorption was significantly greater from the synthetic solution (65 percent uptake) than from the orange juice (30 percent uptake). The addition of glucose to the synthetic solution enhanced this difference.

Nguyen, Gregory and Damron (1981) examined the effects of cellulose, pectin and bran on the bioavailability of PN using rat and chick bioassay methods. They did not find any relationship between fiber and the reduction of bioavailability of vitamin

B₆. In the same year, Nguyen et al. (1981) examined the ability of eight purified polysaccharides, lignin and wheat bran to bind B₆ vitamers in in vitro systems simulating the jejunal environment. No in vitro binding by pectin was detected. No significant binding of PN by the tested polysaccharides, lignin or wheat bran was detected.

The processing and storage of foods has various effects on the bioavailability of vitamin B₆. Losses of vitamin B₆ during food processing and storage may result from interactions of vitamin B₆ with proteins, amino acids or reducing sugars to form complexes of limited bioavailability (Gregory and Kirk, 1981).

As reviewed by Gregory and Kirk (1981), losses of vitamin B₆ in meats during cooking, as determined by rat and microbiological assay procedures, had little or no effect on the bioavailability of B₆ vitamers.

During heat processing of foods, a significant fraction of vitamin B₆ can be converted into the less biologically active pyridoxylamino compounds, particularly ϵ -pyridoxyllysine (Gregory and Kirk, 1978). When food composition and/or processing conditions are such that the concentration of B₆ vitamers is very low and ϵ -pyridoxyllysine is less than 50 percent of the molar equivalent for PN, the anti-vitamin activity of ϵ -pyridoxyllysine yields a low apparent bioavailability (Gregory and Kirk, 1981).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subject Selection

Subjects were recruited by advertisements placed in campus buildings. Five healthy men from 22 to 25 years of age served as subjects; their physical data are presented in Table 1. They were free from any known metabolic disease, as determined by interview. Each subject exhibited a normal absorption of a 5 g dose of D-xylose, as determined by xylose excretion in urine collected for 5 hr after ingestion of this carbohydrate (Buttery et al., 1975).

Experimental Protocol

This study, which lasted five weeks, was approved by the Human Subjects Committee at Oregon State University. Each subject signed an informed consent form (Appendix 1) approved by this committee before participating in this investigation.

The plan of this five-week study is presented in Table 2. During this investigation the subjects consumed a constant diet (Table 3) containing 1.34 mg of vitamin B₆, as determined² with Saccharomyces uvarum as the assay organism by AOAC (1980) procedure except that the chromatography step was omitted. The subjects received this constant diet Monday through Friday of each week, and were not allowed any other food or beverage other than that provided by this

²Vitamin B₆ in the constant diet and the test foods was determined by Hussein Kabir.

TABLE 1. Physical Description of the Subjects

Subject No.	Age (years)	Height (m)	Weight	
			Initial (kg)	Final (kg)
1	22	1.89	86.4	85.3
2	25	1.86	84.1	83.2
3	22	1.80	94.4	92.1
4	23	1.81	82.7	81.5
5	25	1.76	69.8	68.6

TABLE 2. Plan of Study on Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆ from Selected Foods in Subjects Saturated With Vitamin B₆

	Week				
	1	2	3	4	5
Constant diet ¹	Daily except Sa ² and Su ³				
5 mg PN ⁴	Starting on Sa of week 1, daily except on Tu and Th of the remaining four weeks.				
Loading doses					
0 mg PN		Tu,Th			
2 mg PN ⁴			Tu,Th		
banana ⁵				Tu	
filberts ⁶				Th	
cooked soybeans ⁷					Tu
beef bologna ⁸					Th
Urine collection					
ending at 24 hr		Daily except when indicated otherwise			
ending at 10 and 24 hr:	Th,F	Tu,Th	Tu,Th	Tu,Th	Tu,Th
Blood drawn	M,F	M,W,F	W,F	W,F	W,F
Exercise days ⁹	F				F

¹Containing 1.34 mg vitamin B₆.

²Only breakfast was provided

³Subjects consumed self chosen diets.

⁴Administered with breakfast.

⁵633 g providing 1.5 mg vitamin B₆.

⁶333 g providing 2.12 mg vitamin B₆.

⁷330 g (weight before cooking) providing 1.53 mg vitamin B₆.

⁸666 g providing 1.57 mg vitamin B₆.

⁹Procedure reported by A-G Wang (1982).

TABLE 3. Constant Diet¹

	<u>g</u>
<u>Breakfast</u>	
Orange juice, frozen reconstituted	230
Bread, white enriched	50
Applesauce, canned	75
• Crispy Rice ²	30
Milk, nonfat, reconstituted	240
Margarine	variable ³
Honey	variable ³
<u>Lunch</u>	
Cheese, cheddar	35
Bread, white enriched	50
Peaches, canned, solids	100
syrup	20
Carrots, raw	100
Pickles, sliced dill	30
Milk, nonfat, reconstituted	240
Cookies	45
<u>Dinner</u>	
Rice casserole (weights before cooking)	
Beef, ground	120
Rice	45
Tomato juice, canned	150
Mixed vegetables, dehydrated	4
Salt	¼ tsp.
Green beans, canned, solids	100
juice	10
Pears, canned, solids	100
syrup	20
Milk, nonfat, reconstituted	240
Bread, white enriched	25
Ice cream, vanilla	100

¹Contained 1.34 mg of vitamin B₆ as determined by using *S. uvarum* as the assay organism (AOAC, 1980).

²Ralston-Purina Company, St. Louis, Missouri.

³In quantities to maintain weight.

diet. Only breakfast was provided on Saturday mornings. During the remainder of each weekend the subjects chose their own diets, which they recorded. Their alcohol intake on weekends was limited to 12 oz of beer.

Starting on day 6 (Saturday of week 1) the subjects received orally 5 mg of PN³ each day, including weekends, except on Tuesday and Thursday of each week. This 5 mg PN supplement was administered at breakfast; on Sundays the subjects took this supplement at home.

On Tuesday and Thursday of week 2 the subjects received no PN supplement. During week 3 they received 2 mg of PN orally on both Tuesday and Thursday at breakfast. During weeks 4 and 5, approximately 2 mg of vitamin B₆ were supplied by test foods: week 4, the subjects received 633 g of bananas (1.57 mg vitamin B₆) on Tuesday and 333 g of ground filberts (2.12 mg vitamin B₆) on Thursday; and week 5, they received 330 g of soybeans⁴ (1.53 mg vitamin B₆) on Tuesday and 666 g of beef bologna (1.57 mg vitamin B₆) on Thursday. The bananas were consumed with breakfast and during the morning; filberts, throughout the day (completed at 5 pm); beef and soybeans, one-third of total quantity at a meal.

³Prepared from pyridoxine HCl and dissolved in 0.5 percent acetic acid (17 mg/ml). Five and two milliliter portions were frozen. They were thawed just before administering.

⁴Weight before cooking.

An exercise experiment was conducted on the Fridays of weeks 1 and 5. The procedure was described by Ann-Gau Wang (1982). Results will be published elsewhere.

The subjects made complete urine collections throughout this investigation. On Thursday and Friday of week 1, and on test dose days (Tuesdays and Thursdays of weeks 2 to 5)(Table 2), the subjects collected urine ending at 10 and at 24 hr. On the remaining days of study, they collected 24-hr specimens. All urine specimens were collected under toluene. They were measured daily and portions were frozen at -20°C until laboratory determinations were done.

Blood was drawn from the antecubital vein into evacuated heparinized tubes by a registered medical technologist before breakfast of the days indicated on Table 2. Results on plasma vitamin B_6 and erythrocyte transaminase activity will be reported elsewhere.

Urinary 4PA⁵ was fluorometrically quantitated after the separation of 4PA from interfering compounds by ion-exchange chromatography (Reddy, Reynolds and Price, 1958).

Completeness of urine collection was checked by measuring creatinine (Technicon Autoanalyzer, Technicon Corp., Tarrytown, N.Y.) by an automated procedure using alkaline picrate (Pino, Benotti and Gardyna, 1965).

Urinary vitamin B_6 was determined by microbiological assay

⁵Assisted by Linda Barstow.

using S. uvarum as the test organism (Miller and Edwards, 1980).

Preparation of Test Foods

Bananas (4.54 kg) were purchased and refrigerated for six days. The bananas were peeled, the dark mushy parts were removed, and they were cut into approximately 2.5-cm slices. Fifteen milligrams of ascorbic acid were added to prevent the bananas from browning.

Filberts were ground in a blender and in a conventional hand grinder and mixed. To 333-g portions of ground filberts were added 150 ml of corn syrup and 150 ml of water. These ingredients were mixed and kept at room temperature until consumption the following day.

One hundred ten grams of raw soybeans, one vegetable cube⁶ and 125 ml of water were mixed together in a casserole and then heated for 10-15 minutes at 176.7°C. The soybeans were autoclaved uncovered for 20 minutes at 102 kPa and stored at 4°C until they were consumed the following day. Each subject received one bowl of cooked soybeans at each meal, a total of 330 g (weight before cooking).

Beef bologna was prepared by mixing 11.34 kg of lean ground beef and 227 g of a commercial bologna mix. The commercial mix contained: salt, dextrose, red and white pepper, sage, monosodium

⁶Vegex Company, Division of Presco Food Products, Inc., Flemington, New Jersey 08822.

glutamate, oil of sage, capsicum, and calcium phosphate. The bologna was prepared by the Meat Science Laboratory, Department of Animal Science, OSU, and stored frozen. Six hundred and sixty-six grams providing 1.57 mg of vitamin B₆ were consumed by each subject.

Calculation of Percent Bioavailability

Since the subjects were unable to consume the total quantity of any test food at one time, the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ was calculated from the level of 4PA excreted in 24 hr rather than that in 10 and 14-hr urine collections on the days of the test food doses.

The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in a test food was estimated by comparing the yield of a subject's urinary 4PA on the day of the test food to that on the day the 2 mg PN loading dose was given. Yield of 4PA from a test food was calculated by subtracting the subject's mean 24-hr excretion of 4PA on the two days 0 mg of PN was administered (Tuesday and Thursday of week 2) from the subject's 24-hr excretion of 4PA on the test food day. Yield of 4PA from 2 mg of PN was measured by subtracting the subject's mean 24-hr excretion of 4PA when 0 mg of PN was administered from the subject's mean 24-hr 4PA of the days 2 mg of PN were administered (Tuesday and Thursday of week 3). Since the test food doses did not contain exactly 2 mg of vitamin B₆, the yield of a subject's 24-hr urinary 4PA for the test food was adjusted proportionally so that it would be equivalent to 2 mg of vitamin B₆. It was assumed that the excretion of 4PA by

a subject was proportional to vitamin B₆ intake in the range of 1.5 to 2.2 mg vitamin B₆ intake.

Statistical Analyses

The data were analyzed using the Student's t test on means.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Bioavailability of vitamin B₆ refers to the net utilization of this vitamin from food, or the fraction of the dietary vitamin B₆ which has undergone intestinal absorption and functions qualitatively as vitamin B₆ in the body. The vitamin B₆ compounds in blood and excretory products used to measure vitamin B₆ bioavailability in humans reflect the digestion, absorption and metabolism of the vitamin. A high excretion of vitamin B₆ compounds in urine as well as high levels in plasma suggest high vitamin B₆ bioavailability.

The form of vitamin B₆ in food and the interaction of this vitamin with other dietary constituents within the intestinal tract may influence the digestion and absorption of vitamin B₆. The vitamin B₆ status of the person may also affect the levels of vitamin B₆ parameters used to measure bioavailability.

Previous studies conducted in our laboratory on the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in various foods involved diets in which test foods provided the bulk of the vitamin. These required long periods of time, and were expensive and time-consuming. The bioavailability from such foods was estimated by measuring urinary, fecal and plasma vitamin B₆ compounds.

The use of loading doses of test foods permits a faster assessment of vitamin B₆ bioavailability, and more subjects can be tested with less expense. Wozenski et al. (1980) suggested that an oral

dose of at least 1 mg of vitamin B₆ is necessary to obtain measurable changes in urinary and plasma vitamin B₆ compounds.

In general, normal human subjects vary widely in the saturation of their tissues with vitamins. Relatively uniform excretion patterns of a water-soluble vitamin can be achieved by saturating the subjects with the vitamin prior to administering it in its crystalline form or as a food test dose and measuring appropriate urinary excretion products (Bauernfeind and Miller, 1978). In this investigation, uniform vitamin B₆ status was achieved by saturating the subjects with supplementary PN until the excretion of 4PA was constant. Under these conditions it was expected that the excretion of 4PA would be proportional to the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in the test food. Recently, Lumeng et al. (1980) observed that 4PA is a metabolite of recently administered vitamin B₆. They found that in hepatocytes incubated with PN, the newly formed vitamin B₆ compounds, including 4PA, did not mix with the tissue pools of this vitamin.

In view of this observation by Lumeng et al., and of the facility of collecting and handling urine, as well as the sensitivity of the 4PA in assessing vitamin B₆ bioavailability (Leklem et al., 1980), urinary 4PA was used in this study to assess vitamin B₆ bioavailability in four test foods which were administered to subjects saturated with vitamin B₆. It was hypothesized that the excretion of 4PA in response to these test doses represents the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ under these conditions.

Daily 24-hr 4PA Excretion

The levels of urinary 4PA excreted daily during this investigation are presented in Table 4 and Figure 3. Except for subject 5, urinary 4PA in each subject dropped from day 1 to day 5 of the first week when the constant diet was administered without the 5 mg PN supplement. This may indicate that the subjects' diets before participating in this investigation were higher in vitamin B₆ than that of the constant diet, 1.34 mg of vitamin B₆. It is likely that the subjects' previous diets were higher than 1.34 mg, which is only 60 percent of the RDA (NRC, 1980) for adult males (2.2 mg). Driskell et al. (1976) found that young men consumed diets containing 2.14 ± 1.33 mg of vitamin B₆. Leklem et al. (1980) also observed a decrease in urinary 4PA at the end of a preliminary six-day period in a study in which the subjects received 1.58 mg of vitamin B₆ daily. The subjects in the present study were excreting higher mean concentrations of urinary 4PA (6.17 ± 1.47 μ moles/24 hr on day 1 to 5.35 ± 1.47 on day 5) than the subjects studied by Leklem et al. (5.23 ± 1.69 μ moles/24 hr dropping to 4.41 ± 1.58 after 5 days).

It is difficult to determine whether or not the exercise experiment on day 5 affected the excretion of 4PA. We assumed that the modest drop in urinary 4PA on day 5 was not due to exercise, but was a continuation of the gradual decrease in urinary 4PA observed between days 1 to 4.

TABLE 4. Effect of vitamin B₆ supplementation on urinary excretion of 4PA (μmoles/24 hr)

Day	Vitamin B ₆ Supplement (μ moles)	Total Intake (μ moles)	Subjects					Mean ± St Dev.
			1	2	3	4	5	
M 1	0 ¹	7.92 ²	7.48	7.37	6.69	5.16	4.13	6.17 ± 1.47
W 3	0	7.92	7.78	6.23	6.23	3.91	5.07	5.84 ± 1.45
Th 4	0	7.92	7.43	5.84	6.35	4.30	4.79	5.74 ± 1.25
F 5 ³	0	7.92	7.17	5.85	6.00	3.51	4.20	5.35 ± 1.47
Sa 6	29.55	-	18.65	20.31	21.04	13.78	15.68	17.89 ± 3.09
Su 7	29.55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M 8	29.55	37.47	25.14	18.12	25.43	21.76	15.07	21.10 ± 4.49
Tu 9	0	7.92	9.55	10.57	10.21	7.23	10.89	9.69 ± 1.46
W 10	29.55	37.47	23.37	16.91	22.66	19.64	22.30	20.98 ± 2.68
Th 11	0	7.92	-	9.87	9.71	6.41	9.08	8.77 ± 1.61
F 12	29.55	37.47	28.42	23.98	23.92	17.22	13.26	21.36 ± 6.04
Sa 13	29.55	-	25.27	21.58	25.58	-	-	24.14 ± 2.23
Su 14	29.55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M 15	29.55	37.47	27.49	26.94	25.53	20.30	22.97	24.65 ± 3.00
Tu 16	11.82 ⁴	19.74	19.13	19.17	16.32	14.33	13.51	16.49 ± 2.63
W 17	29.55	37.47	21.07	-	25.93	19.92	24.20	22.78 ± 2.77
Th 18	11.82	19.74	15.17	16.08	18.52	13.34	15.96	15.81 ± 1.87
F 19	29.55	37.47	27.74	23.51	27.38	17.63	24.04	24.06 ± 4.07
Sa 20	29.55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Su 21	29.55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M 22	29.55	37.47	28.61	25.01	25.19	21.84	24.82	25.09 ± 2.40
T 23	8.93 ⁵	16.85	16.72	17.47	13.63	11.74	18.69	15.65 ± 2.87
W 24	29.55	37.47	24.62	25.06	22.66	22.76	22.26	23.47 ± 1.27
Th 25	12.53 ⁶	20.45	16.97	15.80	16.08	14.70	14.71	15.65 ± 0.97
F 26	29.55	37.47	28.47	25.17	25.58	23.15	24.57	25.39 ± 1.95
Sa 27	29.55	-	21.70	25.38	9.33	21.82	25.33	20.71 ± 6.61
Su 28	29.55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M 29	29.55	37.47	27.45	28.90	21.65	20.06	23.99	24.41 ± 3.75
Tu 30	9.04 ⁷	16.96	-	14.89	11.44	10.55	12.00	12.22 ± 1.88
W 31	29.55	37.47	28.23	24.52	22.24	22.67	25.60	24.65 ± 2.42
Th 32	9.28 ⁸	17.20	14.83	13.60	12.68	12.27	14.29	13.53 ± 1.07
F 33 ³	0	7.92	12.37	9.81	10.02	8.52	10.43	10.23 ± 1.39

¹From day 1 to 5: Adjustment period, no vitamin B₆ supplement

²Constant diet containing 7.92 μ moles of vitamin B₆

³Exercise days

⁴2 mg crystalline PN supplement

⁵633 g banana containing 8.93 μ moles of vitamin B₆

⁶333 g filberts containing 12-53 μ moles of vitamin B₆

⁷330 g soybeans containing 9.04 μ moles of vitamin B₆

⁸666 g of beef sausage containing 9.28 μ moles of vitamin B₆
Vitamin B₆ in constant diet and test foods was assayed with *S. uvarum*.

Figure 3. Comparison of daily excretion of urinary 4PA and vitamin B₆ in subjects receiving supplementary PN and loading doses of crystalline PN and of test foods.

- 1 0 μ moles vitamin B₆ supplement
- 2 11.82 μ moles vitamin B₆ supplement
- 3 8.93 μ moles vitamin B₆ from banana
- 4 12.53 μ moles vitamin B₆ from filberts
- 5 9.04 μ moles vitamin B₆ from soybeans
- 6 9.28 μ moles vitamin B₆ from beef sausage

From day 1 to 5, the subjects received a constant diet containing 7.92 μ moles of vitamin B₆. Except for Tuesdays and Thursdays, the subjects received daily 5 mg of PN in addition to the constant diet.

The broken line indicates mean value for day 27 excluding data from subject 3.

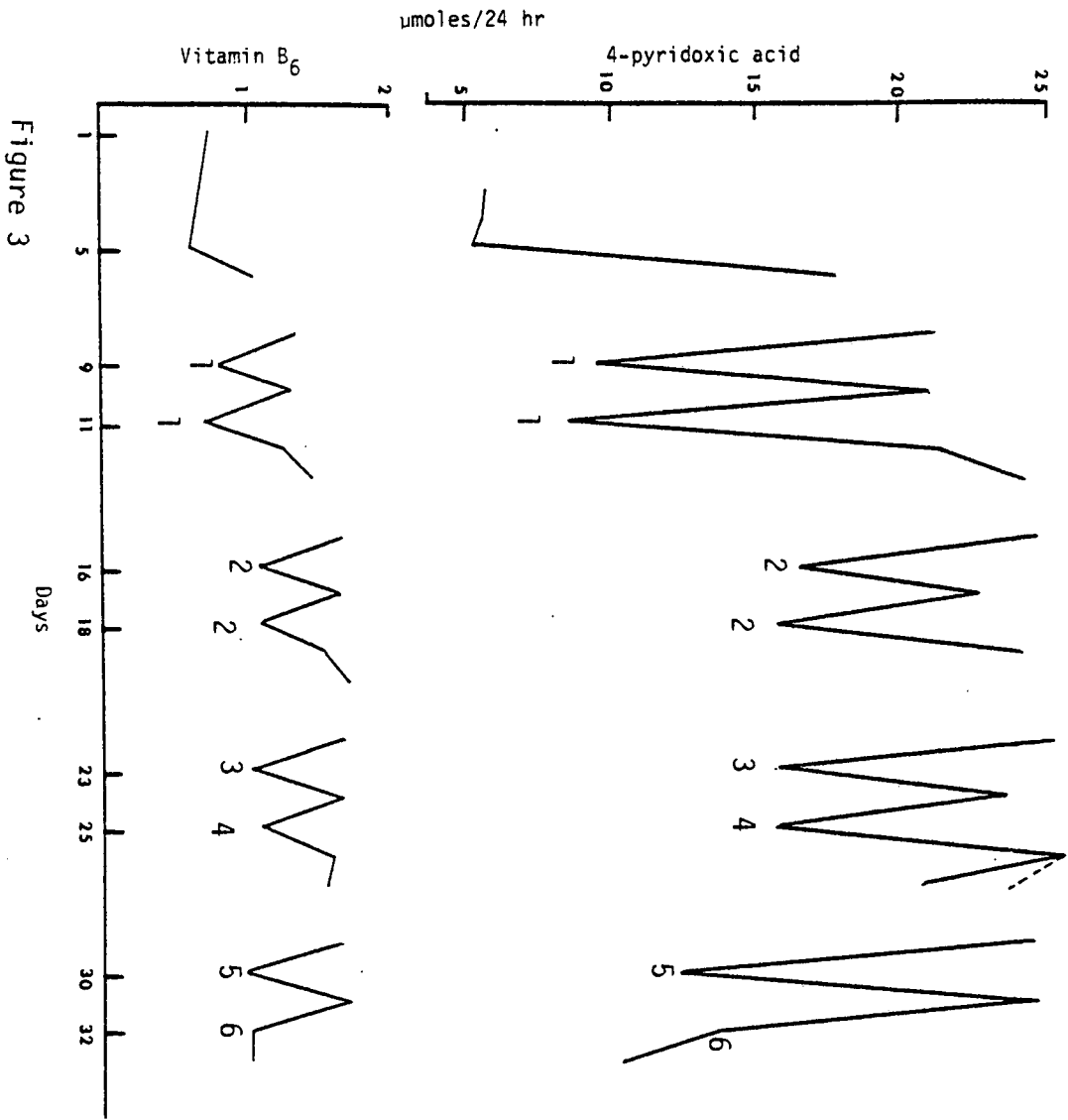


Figure 3

On the first day of 5 mg PN supplementation, day 6, the subjects' mean urinary excretion of 4PA increased approximately three-fold (Table 4, Fig. 3). By day 13, after one week of 5 mg PN supplementation, the mean 4PA excretion values were four-fold greater than those during days 1 to 5 when no supplement was given. On days 15, 17, and 19, the days on which the subjects received the 5 mg PN supplement, 4PA excretion reached a plateau and remained relatively constant for the days that the 5 mg PN supplement was given. This suggests that the subjects' tissues were saturated with vitamin B₆, which was the state we desired to study bioavailability in the different test foods.

Unexpectedly, because of the 5 mg supplement on the previous day, on day 27 (end of week 4), there is a decrease in mean urinary 4PA excretion. On that day, subject 3 excreted only 9.33 μ moles of 4PA, while the other four subjects were excreting 4PA in the range of 21 to 25 μ moles/day. It is possible that subject 3 did not take his 5 mg PN supplement on that day. However, even if only the other four subjects are considered, there is still a slight decrease in urinary 4PA on day 27 (Saturday) which is similar to the excretion obtained on day 24 (Wednesday after banana dose).

When no PN supplement was given on days 9 and 11, Tuesday and Thursday of week 2, the subjects' urinary excretion of 4PA dropped, but not to the levels they had excreted during the first days of this study when no PN supplement was administered. This "carry-over" effect of 4PA excretion was not as great on Thursday as on

Tuesday, probably due to the fact that no supplement was administered on the preceding Tuesday.

When the 2 mg PN supplement was given on days 16 and 18, Tuesday and Thursday of week 3, the subjects' pattern of 4PA excretion was similar to that of the preceding week, i.e., slightly less 4PA was excreted on Thursday than on Tuesday. The subjects excretion of 4PA was higher in response to 2 mg of PN than in response to 0 mg PN. Discussion on the excretion of 4PA in response to the food test doses containing approximately 2 mg of vitamin B₆ follows.

Urinary Vitamin B₆ and 4PA

In general, the daily excretion of urinary vitamin B₆ and 4PA followed the same pattern (Fig. 3). Changes in urinary 4PA in response to 0 and 2 mg of PN and the food doses were more marked than those of urinary vitamin B₆, showing that urinary 4PA is more sensitive to changes in vitamin B₆ intake than urinary vitamin B₆. On the days 5 mg of PN were given, both urinary vitamin B₆ and 4PA reached a plateau at the same time, by day 19. The decrease noticed in the excretion of 4PA on day 27 was also observed in urinary vitamin B₆ excretion.

Since urinary 4PA and vitamin B₆ excretion had reached a plateau for the days 5 mg PN was administered, it is likely that the subjects were saturated with vitamin B₆ at that point. Black,

Guirard and Snell (1977) found that both muscle phosphorylase and total muscle vitamin B₆ increased in rats who were fed 10 times the recommended level of vitamin B₆.

Table 5 shows the percent of vitamin B₆ intake excreted as urinary vitamin B₆ and 4PA on selected days at the beginning and end of this study. Together urinary vitamin B₆ and 4PA accounted for approximately 75 percent of the vitamin B₆ ingested on day 5 (67.5 ± 18.6 percent as 4PA and 7.7 ± 1.8 percent as vitamin B₆), and for approximately 72 percent of the vitamin ingested on day 26 of week 4 (67.8 ± 5.2 percent as 4PA and 4.3 ± 1.0 percent as vitamin B₆). The 4PA excretion of days 5 and 26 was approximately 8 and 15 times higher, respectively, than urinary vitamin B₆. During days 1 to 5, fecal vitamin B₆ would have accounted for a large percentage of the remaining dietary vitamin B₆. Unidentified urinary metabolites not measured with the microbiological assay method would account for some additional vitamin B₆. Probably greater quantities of unidentified metabolites were excreted during the 5 mg PN supplementation period.

According to Leklem et al. (1980), 4PA accounted for approximately 35-40 percent of the total dietary vitamin B₆ and urinary vitamin B₆ for approximately eight percent. Wozenski et al. (1980) reported a decrease from 63 to 35 percent of the vitamin B₆ intake excreted as 4PA following doses from 0.5 through 10 mg of PN, even though the mean excretion of 4PA had increased from 5.6 to 19 $\mu\text{moles}/24$ hr. In the present study, the higher percentage of 4PA excretion during

TABLE 5. Effect of PN Supplementation on the Percent of Vitamin B₆ Intake Excreted as Urinary Vitamin B₆ and 4PA.

Day	Total intake Vit. B ₆				Total percent excretion
	7.92 μ moles		37.47 μ moles		
	4PA	Vit. B ₆	4PA	Vit. B ₆	
Day 5 ¹	67.5 \pm 18.8	7.7 \pm 1.8			75.2
Day 26 ²			67.8 \pm 5.2	4.3 \pm 1.0	72.1

¹Subjects received no PN supplement on days 1 to 5

²Subjects received 5 mg PN for 3 weeks in addition to the constant diet

days 1 to 5 may reflect the subjects' previous vitamin B₆ intake. The higher percentage of 4PA excretion by the subjects after a period of 5 mg supplementation may reflect the effect of vitamin B₆ saturation on the excretion of 4PA. In view of the great capacity of the small intestine to absorb PN (Booth and Brain, 1962), we expect that PN saturated subjects in this study excreted a lower percentage of the total vitamin B₆ intake in feces than that stated by Leklem et al. (1980), around 30 percent.

Excretion of 4PA after 2 mg
Crystalline PN Doses

Table 7 presents urinary 4PA excretion during the 10 and subsequent 14 hr after the 0 and 2 mg PN supplements. These values represent means for each subject for the two days they received the 0 and 2 mg PN doses. The yield was obtained by subtracting each subject's mean excretion during each time period after 0 mg PN from the mean excretions during these two periods after the 2 mg supplement. Except for subject 2, the subjects excreted more 4PA during the first 10 hr after the 2 mg dose than during the subsequent 14 hr. These results agree with those reported by Wozenski et al. (1980) who found that in response to doses from 0.5 to 10 mg of PN subjects excreted most of the 4PA between 3 and 8 hr after ingesting the doses.

When 2 mg of crystalline PN were administered on Tuesday and Thursday of week 3, the total yield of 4PA in subjects 1 to 4 was

TABLE 6. Yield of 4-pyridoxic Acid Excretion (μ moles/24 hr)¹

	Subjects					Mean	±	St Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5			
Crystalline PN ²	7.60	7.40	7.46	7.01	4.75	6.84	±	1.19
Banana ^{3,4}	9.50	9.60	4.86	6.52	11.59	8.41	±	2.69
Filberts	7.00	5.26	5.77	7.43	4.46	5.98	±	1.23
Soybeans	-	6.10	1.93	4.88	2.63	3.88	±	1.94
Beef sausage	6.73	4.31	3.46	6.94	5.48	5.38	±	1.51

¹Urine values of 24 hr were used because the test loading doses were consumed throughout the day

²Yield was calculated by subtracting the 24 hr excretion values from the mean value of the days when the subjects received the 2 mg dose of crystalline PN minus the mean excretion value of the days they received the 0 mg dose of the vitamin

³The yield was obtained by subtracting the 24 hr excretion of 4 PA values when the subjects received the test loading doses minus the mean excretion value of the days they received the 0 mg dose of the vitamin.

⁴The yield of 4 PA in response to test foods was adjusted from 1.51, 2.12, 1.53 and 1.57 of vitamin B₆ of bananas, filberts, soybeans, and beef sausage, respectively to 2 mg of vitamin B₆ in order to compare with the yield values from crystalline PN.

TABLE 7. Urinary Excretion¹ of 4 PA in μ moles in Vitamin B₆ Supplemented Subjects Who Received 0 and 2 Mg PN Doses

Urine	0 mg. Supplementation ²					2 mg. Supplement ³				
	Subject									
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10 hr	4.44	4.27	4.32	2.97	4.48	10.23	6.87	9.09	6.91	8.08
14 hr	6.42	5.95	5.63	3.85	5.50	7.76	10.75	8.33	6.92	6.65
Yield	Subject									
	1	2	3	4	5					
10 hr	5.79	2.60	4.77	3.94	3.60					
14 hr	1.34	4.80	2.70	3.07	1.15					

¹Urine collected during 10-hr period immediately followed the administration of the 0 and 2 mg. doses, and during the subsequent 14 hr. period.

²Mean values of urine collected on Tuesday and Thursday of week 2, the first week the subjects received 5 mg PN on M, W and F. The subjects received a constant diet containing 7.92 μ moles of vitamin B₆.

³Mean values of urine collected on Tuesday and Thursday of week 3, after two weeks of 5 mg supplementation.

very similar, in the range of 7.01 to 7.60 $\mu\text{moles}/24\text{ hr}$ (refer to Table 6) whereas subject 5 excreted only 4.75 $\mu\text{moles}/24\text{ hr}$. This subject had excreted the least 4PA at the beginning of the study (4.13 $\mu\text{moles}/24\text{ hr}$) whereas the others excreted from 5.16 to 7.48 $\mu\text{moles}/24\text{ hr}$ (Table 4).

The bioavailability of crystalline PN was assumed to be 100 percent. Thus the yield of 4PA of 2 mg PN dose in saturated subjects was assumed to reflect the 100 percent bioavailability.

Bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from Test Foods

The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from the test foods used in this study was measured in 24-hr urine samples rather than in 10- and 14-hr ones. This was done because the food loading doses were consumed throughout the day. The 2 mg crystalline PN doses during week 3 were taken all at one time before breakfast. The rate of digestion and passage through the gastrointestinal tract was shorter for crystalline PN than for vitamin B₆ from foods. In response to the test foods, more variation in urinary 4PA was noticed than after the 2 mg crystalline PN doses, due to differences in composition of the foods selected, rate of digestion, etc. These differences may also have affected the metabolism of vitamin B₆, and subsequently the excretion of 4PA.

The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from test foods is presented in Table 8 and Figure 4. When banana was consumed, there was more

TABLE 8. Percentage of 4-Pyridoxic Acid Excretion From Test Foods¹

	Subjects					Mean	±	St Dev.
	1	2	3	4	5			
Crystalline PN ²	100	100	100	100	100	100		
Banana	125.0	129.7	65.1	93.0	244.0	131.4	±	68.18
Filberts	92.1	71.1	77.3	106.0	93.9	88.1	±	13.9
Soybeans	-	82.4	25.9	69.6	55.4	58.3	±	24.3 ³
Beef Sausage	88.5	58.2	46.4	99.0	115.4	81.5	±	28.6

¹Values for 4 PA excreted after ingestion of test doses of foods were adjusted to 2 mg of vitamin B₆.

²The excretion of 4 PA in response to 11.822 μ moles (2 mg) of PN is assumed to be 100%.

³t test showed significant difference between urinary 4PA excretion from soybean (p < 0.05) as compared to 4PA excretion from crystalline.

Figure 4. Percent bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from test food loading doses as compared to 100 percent bioavailability of crystalline PN in subjects saturated with vitamin B₆. Numbers on bar represent subject number. Last bar for each food represents the mean \pm standard deviation.

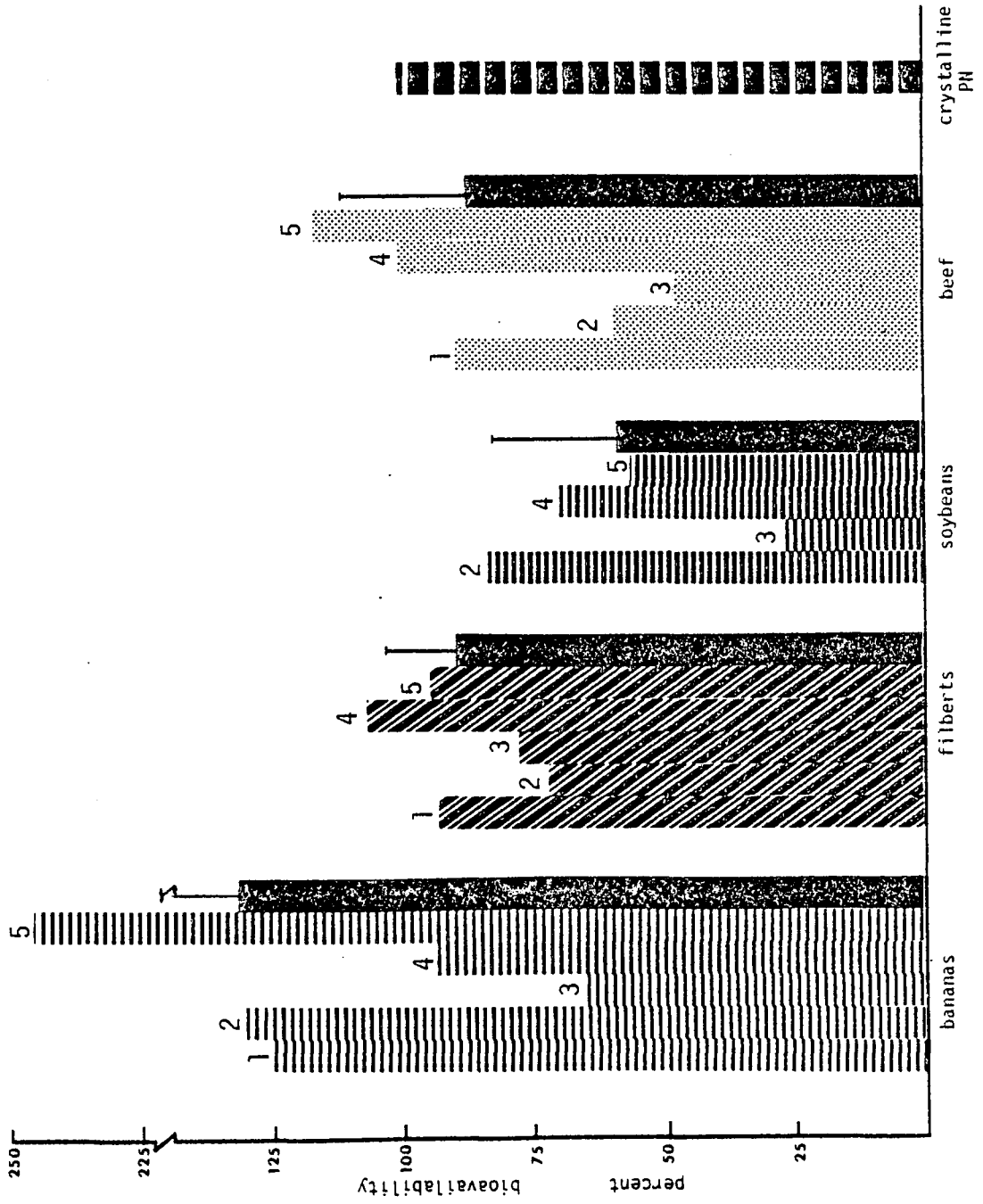


Figure 4

than a three-fold variation among subjects in the excretion of 4PA. The mean 4PA excretion on the day banana was administered is extremely high. Compared to the 100 percent bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from 2 mg crystalline PN, the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from the banana loading dose was higher than 100 percent for subjects 1, 2 and 5, the last subject with a value of 244 percent bioavailability. Subjects 3 and 4, respectively, excreted 65.1 and 93 percent of the vitamin B₆ from bananas.

The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from filberts appeared to be relatively high, with values ranging from 71.1 to 106.0 percent and a mean of 88.1 ± 13.9 percent. The bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from filberts in subject 4 was slightly higher than 100 percent as compared to the excretion from crystalline PN, and subject 2 excreted 71.1 percent as 4PA. (This lowest value for filberts is higher than the lowest values for other foods tested.) Excretion of 4PA following the test dose filberts was the least variable of that from the other test foods.

Among the four foods tested, soybeans had the lowest bioavailability of vitamin B₆. Urinary 4PA was significantly lower after soybeans than after the 2mg crystalline PN supplement ($p < 0.05$, t test). Among subjects 2 to 5, there was a three-fold difference in percent bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from soybeans. (Subject 1 is not included due to an incomplete urine collection on that day.) Subject 3 excreted only 25.9 percent of vitamin B₆ as 4PA, which is the lowest excretion value for any of the test foods.

When beef was consumed, 4PA excretion by subjects 3, 4 and 5 was higher than after the soybeans. With beef, about a two-fold difference in vitamin B₆ bioavailability was observed. The mean percent of vitamin B₆ bioavailability of beef for the five subjects was 81.5 ± 28.6 , and when soybeans was consumed the mean for the four subjects was 58.3 ± 24.3 percent. Subject 2 had a lower 4PA excretion from beef than from soybeans.

Factors Affecting the Bioavailability of Vitamin B₆

Various factors can affect the bioavailability of vitamin B₆. In general, the amount of protein in the diet can affect the levels of various vitamin B₆ parameters used to measure vitamin B₆ bioavailability. Diets high in protein have been reported to decrease 4PA excretion as well as vitamin B₆ (Miller and Leklem, 1978). According to the values in Handbook No. 8 (Agricultural Research Service, 1975), the quantity of protein from the cooked soybeans was approximately three times higher than that in the filberts. Since there was more protein in the soybean dose than in the filberts dose, the low bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from soybeans may be inaccurate due to the effect of dietary protein on 4PA excretions.

Dietary fiber may decrease the bioavailability of vitamin B₆. Leklem et al. (1980) examined the effects of three different types of bread on the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in adult men. They

found a slightly lower bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from whole wheat bread than from white bread, either enriched with vitamin B₆ or supplemented with PN, and suggested that the fiber in whole wheat bread lowered the bioavailability of vitamin B₆. Lindberg (1979) explored the effect of wheat bran on the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in another group of men. She also found that wheat bran significantly reduced the bioavailability of vitamin B₆. Nguyen and his collaborators, however, found no relationship between fiber and the reduction of bioavailability of vitamin B₆ in vitro (Nguyen et al., 1981) and in vivo studies in chicks and rats (Nguyen, Gregory and Damron, 1981).

If fiber influences vitamin B₆ bioavailability, this explains in part the better utilization of vitamin B₆ from beef than from soybeans. Beef contains no fiber while soybeans do. On the other hand, filberts also contain fiber. If high fiber content is a factor in vitamin B₆ bioavailability, we would also expect a lower bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from filbert than from beef. However, only subject 5 had better bioavailability from beef than from filberts, whereas the other four subjects showed a better vitamin B₆ bioavailability from filberts than from beef.

If fiber makes little or no difference, reasons for the better bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from filberts may be due to other factors such as increased transit time due to their fat content of fat, better digestibility, biological individualities, etc.

Digestibility in conjunction with the other components in

foods may be responsible for the relatively low or high vitamin B₆ bioavailability. The coefficient of digestibility of nuts and legumes is 78 percent, and that of fruits and meat, 85 and 95 percent, respectively (Agriculture Handbook No. 8, 1975). The coefficient of digestibility is higher for meat than for soybeans and this may be a contributor for the better utilization of vitamin B₆ from beef. Ganong (1979) observed a higher nitrogen excretion with a diet high in soybeans than with one high in beef. The results from the present experiment agree with those obtained by Leklem, Shultz and Miller (1980) who also reported lower vitamin B₆ bioavailability from soybeans than from beef in a long-term study with adult men.

The fat content of beef versus filberts must also be considered. Although filberts contain 62.4 percent fat (Agricultural Research Service, 1975) and beef bologna approximately 30 percent (Meat Science Laboratory, O.S.U.), the total fat content in these two food doses was comparable. Since fat delays stomach emptying, absorption of vitamin B₆ may be more efficient in the proximal small intestine.

On the other hand, the coefficient of protein digestibility for banana is lower than that of beef, and the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from bananas was higher than that from beef. The sugar content of the bananas may contribute to the better utilization of the vitamin B₆. Nelson et al. (1976) reported enhanced vitamin B₆ absorption

from a synthetic solution with added glucose than from natural orange juice. Other substances in the bananas also may have increased absorption of the vitamin B₆. Additional explanations for the apparently higher bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from bananas include possibly interfering fluorescent substances in bananas which were not adsorbed on the ion-exchange resins during column chromatography, and an increased vitamin B₆ content of bananas between the time of analysis and their consumption as a test dose. The predominant form of vitamin B₆ in bananas is PN (Orr, 1969).

CONCLUSIONS AND EVALUATION

Determining the bioavailability of vitamin B₆ by measuring the excretion of 4PA in response to test foods by subjects saturated with vitamin B₆ appears to be a promising method and should be explored further. The relative values for bioavailability of vitamin B₆ from beef versus soybeans was similar to that obtained in a longer term study in subjects receiving a normal level of vitamin B₆ intake (Leklem, Shultz and Miller, 1980).

The advantage of this procedure for measuring vitamin B₆ bioavailability are: it appears to be reliable for assessing bioavailability of the vitamin; it is less time-consuming and cheaper; urine is easy to obtain and handle; 4PA is stable and a sensitive indicator of vitamin B₆ intake and bioavailability.

The disadvantages are that the quantities of test foods used in this investigation were larger than those that people would usually consume, and that the gastrointestinal tract has not had time to adjust to the quantity and the composition of some of the test foods.

Criticisms of the research presented in this thesis were that the subjects had not attained complete saturation of their tissues with vitamin B₆ when the 0 mg dose was administered, and that the 2 mg crystalline should not be taken at one time, but in divided doses similar to those of the test foods.

For further experiments we recommend that more subjects be

tested if possible, and that several doses of crystalline PN loading doses, i.e., 0.5 and 1 mg of PN be administered in addition to the 0 and 2 mg doses. For interpretation of the data, composition of the food test doses should be determined in the laboratory, including forms of vitamin B₆, fat, carbohydrates, nitrogen and fiber content.

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APPENDIX

Appendix I

CONSENT FORM

Spring, 1980

I have read the description of this study and have had any questions answered concerning this study. I give my consent to participate in this study. Consent is given to have blood drawn as indicated in the description of the study. I further give my consent to collect 24-hour urine samples and understand that a complete urine collection is required as a part of this study. I give my consent to participate in the exercise phase of this study as described and understand the risks associated with bicycling involved. I understand that I must keep a record of all food eaten on those days when meals are not provided.

I understand that I will consume no other food on those days when meals are provided. I understand that no alcohol is to be consumed except on weekends in the amounts indicated. I understand that I am not to be involved in any strenuous exercise other than that described in the information sheet.

I understand that I will be paid \$2.50 per day for each day I am in the study with the understanding that complete urine collections are provided and adequate diet records provided.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time and further that the investigators in this study can withdraw me from the study at any time. I understand that all data pertaining to me will be kept strictly confidential.

Name _____ Date _____

Witness _____ Date _____