Transport of Thyroid and Steroid Hormones through the Blood-Brain Barrier of the Newborn Rabbit: Primary Role of Protein-Bound Hormone*

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ABSTRACT. The transport of [125I]T₃ [125I]T₄, [3H]testosterone, and [3H]estradiol through the blood-brain barrier (BBB) of the newborn rabbit was studied with a tissue-sampling, single injection technique. The first pass extractions of T₃ and T₄ were $22 \pm 2\%$ and $14 \pm 1\%$, respectively, after carotid injection of Ringer's solution (0.025% albumin). Thyronine transport was saturated and cross-competitive, but was not inhibited by a large excess of leucine, a neutral amino acid. The extraction of T₃ was reduced to $7 \pm 1\%$ after injection of hormone mixed in a 10% T_3 specific rabbit antiserum, and this value approximated the extraction of an extracellular space marker, such as sucrose (6 ± 1%). Therefore, antibody-bound T3 was not available for transport in vivo. Conversely, T₃ bound to the plasma proteins in newborn rabbit antiserum, e.g. albumin, was transported into the brain. The concentration of plasma protein required to inhibit T3 transport 50% in vivo was 28-fold greater than the serum concentration that resulted in 50% binding of T₃ in vitro.

The first pass extractions of testosterone and estradiol after injection of hormone in Ringer's solution were 100 + 5% and 91 ± 5%, respectively. A 5 g/100 ml concentration of albumin bound about 95% of steroid in vitro, but resulted in only a 17-20% inhibition of testosterone or estradiol transport in vivo. Similarly, testosterone bound to the progesterone-binding globulin of pregnant guinea pig serum was also transported, although to a lesser extent than albumin-bound hormone. Conversely, testosterone bound to a specific rabbit antiserum, or testosterone or estradiol bound to the sex hormone-binding globulin in human serum was not transported into the brain. These results indicate that the mechanisms of thyroid and steroid hormone transport through the BBB of the newborn rabbit are very similar to those of the adult rat; therefore, the processes mediating BBB transport of protein-bound hormones are firmly established by at least the first 8-24 h of postnatal life. (Endocrinology 107: 1705. 1980)

HE CENTRAL nervous system of the developing organism is influenced by the action of both thyroid and steroid hormones. Thyroid hormone is known to regulate the rate of transport of both glucose and amino acids into the brain of the developing animal (1, 2). In addition, neonatal hypothyroidism is known to cause a depression in both the role of cerebral protein synthesis (3) and brain levels of the enzymes for ketone body metabolism (4). One or all of these metabolic abnormalities may be related in part to the development of mental retardation associated with hypothyroidism in the developing organism (5). Similarly, the steroid hormones, testosterone and estradiol, are known to modulate, at least in the rat, the development of sexually dimorphic behaviors (6). For example, the administration of testosterone to female rats at a critical postnatal period results in the

expression of male sexual behavior in adult animals (7).

Since the expression of thyroid or steroid hormone action in the developing brain is probably a function of hormone availability in brain cells, it is important to understand the mechanisms of hormone transport from blood into the brain, *i.e.* hormone transport through the brain capillary wall or blood-brain barrier (BBB). Therefore, the present studies were designed to investigate the permeability properties of the BBB to the thyroid and steroid hormones in the newborn rabbit. Since both thyroid and steroid hormones circulate tightly bound by plasma proteins (8, 9) the investigation of the role of plasma protein binding of the hormones is emphasized in these studies.

Materials and Methods

Radiolabeled L-T₄ ([125 I]T₄; 0.8 μ Ci/pM), L-T₃ ([125 I]T₃; 0.1 μ Ci/pM), [14 C]sucrose (3.6 μ Ci/ μ mol), [3 H]water (1 mCi/g), [1, 2, 6, 7, 16, 17- 3 H]testosterone (152 Ci/mmol), [2, 4, 6, 7, 16, 17- 3 H]estradiol (143 Ci/mmol), and n-[1- 14 C]butanol (1.9 mCi/mmol) were all purchased from New England Nuclear Corp. (Boston, MA). The radiochemical purity of the labeled T₄, T₃, testosterone, estradiol, and butanol was at least 98%, as

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judged by either cellulose or Silica gel G thin layer chromatography and radioscanning (Packard Radioscanner, Packard, Downers Grove, IL) using previously reported solvent systems (10–13). Unlabeled L-T₃, L-T₄, L-leucine, bovine albumin (fraction V; nondefatted), and Hepes buffer were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co (St. Louis, MO). Serum was obtained from ether-anesthetized newborn rabbits, barbiturate-anesthetized pregnant guinea pigs, and normal male human volunteers. Testosterone-specific and T₃-specific rabbit antisera were obtained from Endocrine Sciences (Tarzana, CA).

The BBB transport of [125I]T₃, [125I]T₄, and [14C]sucrose, relative to a [3H]water reference, was measured in ether-anesthetized newborn New Zealand rabbits (8-24 h old) using the carotid injection technique of Oldendorf (14), as recently adapted to the newborn rabbit (15). Barrier transport of [3H]testosterone or [3H]estradiol was measured relative to a [14C]butanol reference. A common carotid artery of newborn rabbits was cannulated with a 30-gauge needle, and a 0.1-ml bolus of buffered Ringer's solution (pH 7.4; 5 mm Hepes) was rapidly injected (<1 sec). The bolus contained 2.5 µCi/ml ¹²⁵I isotope or 25 μCi/ml [3H] water in studies of T₃, T₄, or sucrose transport. Measurements of estradiol or testosterone transport involved an injection bolus consisting of 2-5 µCi/ml ³H-labeled steroid and 0.4-1.0 μCi/ml [14C]butanol. After injection of 125I-labeled compounds in Ringer's solution, various concentrations of unlabeled T₃, T₄, or leucine were added to the injection bolus to test for saturation or competition of T₃ or T₄ transport. In addition, dilutions of various sera were added to the bolus to assess the effects of plasma protein binding on the transport of T₃, testosterone, or estradiol.

Fifteen seconds after carotid injection, a time period which permits a single circulatory pass of the bolus through the brain (15), the rabbits were decapitated, and the cerebral hemisphere ipsilateral to the injection was removed from the cranium and solubilized in 1.0 ml Soluene-350 (Packard); a sample of the injection solution was similarly prepared for double isotope liquid scintillation counting. The brain uptake index (BUI) was calculated (14, 15) as follows:

$$BUI = \frac{\text{(test dpm/reference dpm)brain}}{\text{(test dpm/reference dpm)injectate}} \times 100$$

The BUI = E_T/E_R (11, 13), where E_T is the percent extraction of unidirectional influx of the test compound (T_3 , T_4 , sucrose, testosterone, or estradiol) and E_R is the percent extraction of the reference compound (water or butanol).

The E_R 15 sec after carotid injection is a function of the maximal percent extraction of the unidirectional influx of the reference, which occurs during the initial 5 sec after injection (15), and the rate of efflux from brain to blood of the labeled reference during the subsequent 10 sec of the total 15-sec circulation period. Estimates of both the maximal percent extraction and the reference efflux rate were determined by simultaneously injecting [3 H]water (5 μ Ci/ml) and [1 C]butanol (1.0 μ Ci/ml) and decapitating the animals 0.25, 1, 2, and 4 min after carotid injection. Both the log normal BUI of [3 H]water, relative to [1 C]butanol and the log normal percent of injected [1 C]butanol per g brain were plotted vs. time after carotid injection. The intercepts and slopes of these plots provided data on both the E_R for water or butanol and the rate of cerebral

blood flow (see Results).

The *in vitro* binding of [¹²⁵I]T₃, [³H]testosterone, or [³H]-estradiol by neonatal rabbit serum was determined by equilibrium dialysis for 20 h at 37 C, as reported previously (11, 13). The albumin concentration in the rabbit serum was determined by a colorimetric method (bromcresol green) using reagents obtained from Sigma Chemical Co.

Results

The initial extraction and subsequent efflux of the [3 H]water and [14 C]butanol internal references are depicted in Fig. 1. Since the initial extraction of butanol is 100% (16), the intercept at zero time of the plot of $E_{HOH}/E_{butanol}$ gives the maximal percent extraction of the [3 H]water reference (91%; Fig 1). The slope ($K_{net}=0.10$ min $^{-1}$; Fig. 1) of the $E_{HOH}/E_{butanol}$ plot is equal to ($K_{butanol}-K_{HOH}$), where K is the individual rate constant (per minute) of butanol and water efflux from brain to blood (17). The $K_{butanol}$ was determined directly by plotting the rate of change of butanol radioactivity in the brain (Fig. 1). Given $K_{butanol}=0.28$ min $^{-1}$ (Fig. 1), then $K_{HOH}=0.18$

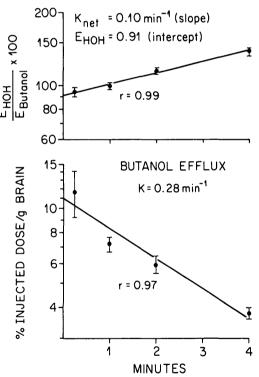


Fig. 1. Top panel, The ratio of extraction (E) of water to extraction of butanol is plotted vs. time after carotid injection. The intercept at zero time is equal to the maximal fractional extraction of the [3 H]water, since the maximal fractional extraction of the [14 C]butanol is 1.0 (16). The slope (K_{net}) is equal to $K_{butanol} - K_{HOH}$, where K is the efflux rate constant for butanol and water, respectively (bottom panel). The $K_{butanol}$ is determined directly from the slope of the relationship between[14 C]butanol radioactivity in brain vs. time after carotid injection. Since $K_{butanol} = 0.28 \text{ min}^{-1}$, then $K_{HOH} = 0.18 \text{ min}^{-1}$. These efflux constants provide information as to the rate of washout of the [3 H]water and [14 C]butanol references as well as to cerebral blood flow (see text). Data are the mean \pm se (n = 3).

min-1. Based on the K values and the initial extractions for butanol or water, the calculated $E_{\rm R}$ values 15 sec after carotid injection for the [14C]butanol and [3H]water references are 97% and 89%, respectively. Given these estimates for E_R, the respective E_T values 15 sec after injection may be determined from the relationship, E_T = (BUI)(E_R), as described in Materials and Methods. The efflux constant for butanol (0.28 min⁻¹) may also be used to calculate cerebral blood flow (F) in the newborn rabbit by the formula, $F=KV^{\prime}/E_{R}$ (17), where $E_{R}=$ 1.0 (16), K= 0.28 min^{-1} , and V' = 0.89 ml/g, which is the ratio of the volume of distribution of butanol in the brain to that in blood (17). Substitution of these values into the equation for flow indicates F = 0.25 ml/g·min for the etheranesthetized newborn rabbit brain. Therefore, cerebral blood flow in the newborn rabbit is about half the flow rate in the adult barbiturate-anesthetized rat (18), but is comparable to brain blood flow in the newborn dog, which is $0.23 \text{ ml/g} \cdot \text{min}$ (19).

The E_T values for T_3 and T_4 are given in Table 1 and all are at least 2-fold the extraction for sucrose, an extracellular space marker. Similar to the adult rat brain (13), the transport of T_3 and T_4 is saturable and cross-competitive, but T_3 transport is not significantly inhibited by a large excess of leucine, a neutral amino acid (Table 1).

The effect of plasma protein binding on T_3 transport was investigated by adding various dilutions of either neonatal rabbit serum or a T_3 -specific rabbit antiserum to the injection solution (Fig. 2). Increasing concentrations of neonatal rabbit serum resulted in increased binding of T_3 and, thus, decreased transport. However, the observed decrease in T_3 transport associated with higher concentrations of serum proteins was considerably less than would be expected if only the fraction that was free (dialyzable) in vitro was free and available for transport in vivo (Fig. 2). The percent of T_3 bound in vitro, as determined by equilibrium dialysis, was compared to the

Table 1. Transport of [$^{125}I]T_3,$ [$^{125}I]T_4,$ and [$^{14}C]sucrose$ through the BBB of the newborn rabbit

Isotope	Injection vehicle	E (%)
[¹²⁵ I]T ₃ °	Ringer solution	22.0 ± 1.8
	5 μm T ₃	19.8 ± 1.1
	50 μm T ₃	13.2 ± 0.9^{6}
	50 μm T ₄	15.8 ± 1.1^{6}
	1000 μM L-leucine	19.8 ± 2.0
[125I]T4°	Ringer solution	13.5 ± 0.4
	50 μm T ₃	10.1 ± 0.2
[14C]Sucrose	Ringer solution	5.9 ± 0.6

Values given are the mean \pm SEM (n = 4-6).

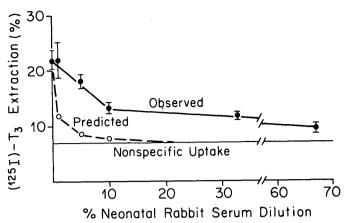


Fig. 2. The extraction of $[^{125}I]T_3$ is plotted vs. the concentration of neonatal rabbit serum in the carotid injection solutions (Observed). The Predicted line represents the expected transport if only the percent of hormone that was free $in\ vitro$ was transported $in\ vivo$; the Predicted line was obtained by multiplying the maximal percent extraction (22 \pm 2%) times the fraction of free (dialyzable) T_3 at each respective serum dilution (Table 2). The nonspecific extraction (7.0 \pm 0.5%) represents the extraction of $[^{125}I]T_3$ after injection of labeled hormone in 10% T_3 -specific rabbit antiserum (see text). The concentration of $[^{125}I]T_3$ in the final injection solution ranged from 4–6 nm. Data are the mean \pm se (n=6).

TABLE 2. Comparison of free [125I]T₃ in vitro vs. in vivo

Newborn rabbit se- rum conc. (%)	% Bound in vitro ^a	% Bound in vivo ^h
1	67.1 ± 1.6	<1
5	89.7 ± 0.7	26 ± 2
10	94.4 ± 0.2	58 ± 4
33	>95	69 ± 4
67	>95	84 ± 8

Values are the mean \pm SEM (n = 4-6).

" Determined by equilibrium dialysis at 37 C.

percent of T_3 bound in vivo, as estimated from the percent inhibition of T_3 transport, at each respective dilution of serum (Fig. 2 and Table 2). A double reciprocal plot (data not shown) of l/B vs. l/dilution, where B is the bound fraction in vitro (Table 2), was linear (r = 0.99), with an intercept of 1.0 (predicted intercept, 1.0) and a slope of 0.48% rabbit serum; that is, 50% binding of T_3 was observed at a serum dilution of 0.48%. Since essentially all of the T_3 in rabbit serum is bound to albumin (20), the albumin concentration in newborn rabbit serum was measured [2.28 \pm 0.07 g/100 ml (mean \pm se); n = 5] which is equivalent to 335 μ M albumin (mol wt, 68,000). Therefore, the dissociation constant (K_d) of albumin binding of T_3 in vitro is equal to (0.48%) × (335 μ M) or

 $^{^{\}rm o}$ Bovine albumin (0.025%) was added to all $^{\rm 125}{\rm I-labeled}$ thyronine injection solutions.

 $[^]b$ Significantly different (P < 0.05, by Student's t test) from Ringer's solution control.

^b Determined by the following equation: % bound = $(E_0 - E) + (E_0 - E_{NS}) \times 100$, where E_0 is the extraction of T_3 after injection of Ringer's solution (Table 1), E is the extraction of T_3 after injection of respective dilutions of newborn rabbit serum, and E_{NS} is the nonspecific extraction of T_3 after injection of a 10% T_3 rabbit antiserum (Fig. 2).

 $K_D = 1.6 \mu M$, which agrees well with the value of 3.7 μM reported by Robbins and associates (8). A 1/B vs. 1/ dilution double reciprocal plot of the transport data in Fig. 2 may be used to analyze the kinetics of ligand binding in vivo; this plot (data not shown) was linear (r = 0.96), with an intercept of 0.9 (predicted intercept, 1.0) and a slope of 13.7% serum or 46 μ M albumin (13.7% \times the albumin concentration of 335 μ M). Therefore, the apparent K_d of albumin binding of T₃ in vivo (46 µm) is 29-fold greater than the K_d in vitro. These results are comparable to those found in studies of the adult rat brain, in which the apparent K_d of bovine albumin binding of T₃ in vivo is 16-fold greater than the K_d value in vitro (13).

The BBB transport of testosterone and estradiol after injection of Ringer's solution is rapid, e.g. the E_T values are $100 \pm 5\%$ and $91 \pm 5\%$, respectively, (Fig. 3). Similar to studies with the adult rat brain (11), albumin-bound sex steroid was almost freely transported into the newborn rabbit brain (Fig. 3). A 5 g/100 ml concentration of albumin resulted in only 17% and 20% inhibition, respectively, of testosterone and estradiol transport; however, this concentration of albumin binds 93% and 97% of testosterone and estradiol, respectively, in vitro (11). Similarly, 67% neonatal rabbit serum resulted in only

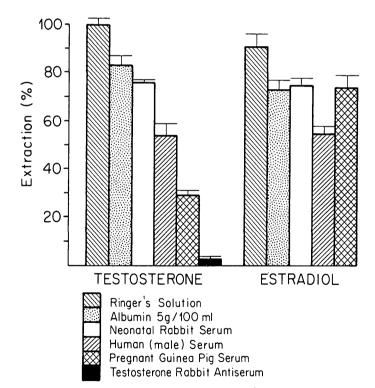


Fig. 3. The extraction of [3H]testosterone and [3H]estradiol after carotid injection of labeled hormone mixed in 1) Ringer's solution, 2) 5 g/ 100 ml bovine albumin, 3) a 67% solution of serum obtained from neonatal rabbits, normal human male volunteers, or pregnant guinea pigs, and 4) a 67% solution of a testosterone-specific rabbit antiserum. The final injection solution concentration of labeled testosterone or estradiol ranged from 6-12 nm. Data are the mean \pm se (n = 4).

24% and 18% inhibition of testosterone and estradiol transport, respectively (Fig. 3), which is considerably less inhibition than would be expected if the amount of steroid hormone bound in vitro was inaccessible to transport in vivo. For example, the free (dialyzable) fractions of testosterone and estradiol in the presence of 100% neonatal rabbit serum were 2.55 \pm 0.24% and 3.13 \pm 0.16% (mean \pm se, n = 3), respectively. Human serum resulted in 46% and 40% inhibition of testosterone and estradiol transport, respectively (Fig. 3), which is consistent with the presence of sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) in human serum, which in the normal male binds approximately half of circulating testosterone or estradiol (21). Pregnant guinea pig serum resulted in a selective inhibition of testosterone transport (Fig. 3) due to the high concentration of progesterone binding globulin (PBG) in pregnant guinea pigs; PBG is known to bind testosterone but not estradiol (22). Finally, a testosterone-specific rabbit antiserum (Fig. 3) resulted in a virtual total inhibition of testosterone transport into the newborn rabbit brain. These results are similar to those found in studies with the adult rat brain which indicate that antibody-bound hormone is not transported into tissues (23).

Discussion

The present studies indicate that the mechanisms mediating BBB transport of thyroid and steroid hormones in the newborn rabbit are very similar to mechanisms described previously for the adult rat brain (11, 13, 17, 21, 23). With regard to thyroid hormones, T₃ and T₄ traverse the BBB via a saturable, carrier-mediated mechanism that is present in both adult (13, 24, 25) and newborn brains. The intrinsic permeability of the BBB to thyroid hormones is unusually low, and were it not for the presence of the thyroid hormone carrier, very little T₃ or T₄ would enter the brain from the blood. Considering the high lipid solubility of T₃ and T₄, e.g. the octanol/Ringers partition coefficients for T₃ and T₄ are 180 and 91, respectively (10), the low intrinsic permeability of the BBB and the need for carrier mediation are somewhat surprising. However, it is probable that the 3-4 iodine moieties of T₃ or T₄ make the molecule more lipid soluble but, perhaps owing to steric considerations (26), render the hormones less diffusible through biological membranes. For example, iodinated contrast agents are highly lipid soluble (27) but do not normally cross the BBB (28). In addition, the permeability of the placenta to thyroid hormones is very low (29), reflecting the presumed absence in this membrane of a thyroid transport system. Conversely, T₃ and T₄ readily cross the hepatocyte cell membrane via a nonsaturable mechanism that is presumed to be free diffusion (10); the rapid

transport of T_3 and T_4 into liver via free diffusion is probably due to the very large surface area of the hepatocyte plasma membrane, which has a profusely mamillated microvillar surface (30).

The presence of a T₃ transport system within the BBB of the newborn rabbit allows the BBB to compete with circulating albumin for binding of T₃ and, to a lesser extent, T₄. The competition between the T₃ carrier and albumin for T₃ binding may be quantitatively described as follows (13): K_d (app)/ $K_d = 1 + app C/Km$, where K_d (app) is the apparent K_d of albumin binding of T_3 in vivo (i.e. in the presence of the competing BBB binding system), K_d is the dissociation constant of albumin binding in vitro (i.e. in the absence of competing binding systems), app C is the apparent binding capacity of the BBB carrier (which is formally defined (31) as app $C = C_T$ (1) + k₅t), where C_T is the local capillary carrier concentration, k5 is the rate constant of the carrier movement through the BBB membrane, and t is the capillary transit time], and Km is the dissociation constant of the BBB carrier binding of T_3 . Given $K_D(app) = 46 \mu M$ and $K_d =$ 1.6 μ M, the ratio of app C/Km = 28, as opposed to the ratio of 16 calculated for the adult rat brain (13). Therefore, the apparent binding index of the T₃ carrier (app C/Km) is nearly 2-fold greater in the newborn brain than in the adult brain. However, the affinity of the newborn T₃ carrier is lower than that of the adult BBB; although the Km of T3 transport was not formally calculated in the present studies, the results in Table 1 indicate that T₃ transport is half-saturated at about 50 μm compared to the Km of 1.1 μ M calculated for the adult brain (13). Therefore, the apparent binding capacity of the newborn BBB must be about 100-fold greater than that of the adult. Owing to the reduced rate of cerebral blood flow in the newborn (see Results), the capillary transit time (t) is increased; however, substantial increases in either carrier concentration (C_T) or carrier mobility (k₅) are also to be expected for the newborn to account for the increased carrier capacity. Similar increases in capacity and decreases in affinity have been observed for newborn BBB transport of neutral amino acids (15); however, the lack of competition by 1000 μ M leucine indicates that T_3 and neutral amino acids traverse the BBB via separate transport systems.

With regard to the steroid hormones, both testosterone and estradiol are freely transported through the BBB in the absence of plasma protein. The inhibition of BBB steroid transport by steroid-binding plasma proteins is characterized by a spectrum of effects. At one end of the spectrum is albumin, which may bind 95% of testosterone or estradiol *in vitro* (11), yet this plasma protein causes relatively little inhibition of steroid transport *in vivo*. Conversely, antibody-bound testosterone is not transported through the BBB of the newborn rabbit, which is

similar to BBB steroid hormone transport in the adult rat (23). Similarly, testosterone or estradiol bound to the SHBG of human serum is not appreciably transported through the BBB of either the neonatal rabbit or the adult rat (21). The fact that 54% and 60% of the plasma testosterone and estradiol in human serum, respectively, were transported through the newborn BBB (see Results) may be attributed to the transport of albuminbound steroid into the brain, e.g. approximately half of the circulating testosterone or estradiol in human male serum is albumin bound (21). The SHBG of rabbit serum is primarily a testosterone-binding globulin (TeBG) which binds estradiol only weakly (32). However, the TeBG of rabbit serum has a modest affinity for estriol and estrone (32), two estrogens which, like estradiol, are elevated in plasma during the first 24 h of postnatal life (33). The observation that neonatal rabbit serum inhibited testosterone transport into the newborn brain by only 24% may reflect a relative saturation of TeBG by the high levels of estrogen in the postnatal period. In addition, the lack of substantial inhibition of BBB estradiol transport by newborn rabbit serum indicates that the α -fetoprotein of the newborn rabbit lacks the estradiol-binding properties of the α -fetoprotein in neonatal rat serum (11). In contrast to the case of SHBG-bound or antibody-bound steroid, where globulin-bound hormone is not transported into either the adult or newborn brain, steroid hormone (e.g. testosterone) bound to the PBG of pregnant guinea pig serum is transported into either the newborn or adult brain (23). The testosterone binding index (i.e. binding site concentration + dissociation constant) of PBG is at least 10-fold greater than the testosterone binding index of albumin (22). Therefore, since virtually all of the testosterone in pregnant guinea pig serum is bound by PBG, the observation that 29% of the testosterone in pregnant guinea pig serum is transported into the newborn brain indicates that PBG-bound steroid is transported through the BBB.

As discussed previously for the adult rat brain (11, 23), the transport into the newborn rabbit brain of albumin-bound or PBG-bound steroid hormone is due to the rapid rate of steroid debinding relative to the brain capillary transit time. Conversely, the debinding reaction of SHBG-bound or antibody-bound steroid hormone is slow relative to the brain capillary transit time, and this accounts for the absence of BBB transport of steroid bound to an antibody or to the SHBG of human serum (11, 21, 23). Therefore, the physical basis to the wide spectrum of protein-bound steroid hormone transport into either the newborn or adult brain is the relative relationships between ligand debinding rates and brain capillary transit time (10–13, 21, 23, 31).

Finally, the observation that testosterone or estradiol bound to the SHBG of human serum is not transported into the newborn rabbit brain suggests that globulinbound steroid may similarly not be transported into the human fetal or neonatal brain. Therefore, changes in fetal or postnatal levels of unbound SHBG, which is a function of both the total SHBG level and the high circulating level of estradiol, would be expected to modulate the albumin-bound fraction of circulating testosterone and estradiol and thereby alter the transport of these two steroid hormones into the developing brain in man.

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