

Decreased Conversion of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ to 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ Following Cholecalciferol Therapy in Patients with CKD

Jason R. Stubbs,* Shiqin Zhang,* Peter A. Friedman,[†] and Thomas D. Nolin*

Abstract

Background and objectives Elevated concentrations of fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF23) are postulated to promote 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D) insufficiency in CKD by stimulating 24-hydroxylation of this metabolite, leading to its subsequent degradation; however, prospective human studies testing this relationship are lacking.

Design, setting, participants, & measurements An open-label prospective study was conducted from October 2010 through July 2012 to compare the effect of 8 weeks of oral cholecalciferol therapy (50,000 IU twice weekly) on the production of 24,25(OH)₂D₃ in vitamin D–insufficient patients with CKD (*n*=15) and controls with normal kidney function (*n*=15). Vitamin D metabolites were comprehensively profiled at baseline and after treatment, along with FGF23 and other mineral metabolism parameters.

Results Vitamin D₃ and 25(OH)D₃ concentrations increased equivalently in the CKD and control groups following cholecalciferol treatment (median D₃ change, 8.6 ng/ml [interquartile range, 3.9–25.6 ng/ml] for controls versus 12.6 ng/ml [6.9–41.2 ng/ml] for CKD [*P*=0.15]; 25(OH)D₃ change, 39.2 ng/ml [30.9–47.2 ng/ml] for controls versus 39.9 ng/ml [31.5–44.1 ng/ml] for CKD [*P*=0.58]). Likewise, the absolute increase in 1α,25(OH)₂D₃ was similar between CKD participants and controls (change, 111.2 pg/ml [64.3–141.6 pg/ml] for controls versus 101.1 pg/ml [74.2–123.1 pg/ml] for CKD; *P*=0.38). Baseline and post-treatment 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations were lower in the CKD group; moreover, the absolute increase in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ after therapy was markedly smaller in patients with CKD (change, 2.8 ng/ml [2.3–3.5 ng/ml] for controls versus 1.2 ng/ml [0.6–1.9 ng/ml] for patients with CKD; *P*<0.001). Furthermore, higher baseline FGF23 concentrations were associated with smaller increments in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ for individuals with CKD; this association was negated after adjustment for eGFR by multivariate analysis.

Conclusions Patients with CKD exhibit an altered ability to increase serum 24,25(OH)₂D₃ after cholecalciferol therapy, suggesting decreased 24-hydroxylase activity in CKD. The observed relationship between baseline FGF23 and increments in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ further refutes the idea that FGF23 directly contributes to 25(OH)D insufficiency in CKD through stimulation of 24-hydroxylase activity.

Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 9: 1965–1973, 2014. doi: 10.2215/CJN.03130314

Introduction

Vitamin D is a secosteroid that is ingested through the diet as ergocalciferol (D₂) or cholecalciferol (D₃) or synthesized in skin (D₃ only) from 7-dehydrocholesterol in response to sunlight exposure. Once in the circulation, vitamin D is metabolized in the liver by cytochrome P450(CYP)2R1 (25-hydroxylase) to form 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D), the major metabolite used to determine clinical vitamin D status. A second hydroxylation step determines the ultimate fate of 25(OH)D, as 1α-hydroxylation by CYP27B1 yields 1α,25(OH)₂D, a potent hormone that triggers vitamin D receptor–dependent pathways in target cells. Alternatively, both 25(OH)D and 1α,25(OH)₂D can undergo 24-hydroxylation by CYP24A1 to generate 24,25(OH)₂D and 1α,24,25(OH)₃D, respectively (1). These 24-hydroxylated

metabolites are primarily viewed as degradation products with little established physiologic activity. Both 1α-hydroxylation and 24-hydroxylation of 25(OH)D can occur in a multitude of tissues, with the kidneys being the major site (2,3).

Patients with CKD exhibit a high prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency, accompanied by a complex pattern of mineral metabolism abnormalities; this includes a progressive rise in plasma concentrations of fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF23) (4–6). FGF23 is a phosphaturic and vitamin D–regulatory hormone produced primarily by osteocytes; studies in animal models with normal kidney function suggest that FGF23 suppresses renal 1α-hydroxylase and stimulates 24-hydroxylase expression (7,8). Although multiple factors likely promote low plasma 25(OH)D concentrations in

The Kidney Institute, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City, Kansas; [†]Department of Pharmacology & Chemical Biology, University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and ^{}Department of Pharmacy and Therapeutics, Center for Clinical Pharmaceutical Sciences, and Department of Medicine, Renal-Electrolyte Division, University of Pittsburgh Schools of Medicine, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Correspondence:

Dr. Jason Stubbs, Division of Nephrology & Hypertension, University of Kansas Medical Center, 3901 Rainbow Boulevard, Mail Stop 3018, Kansas City, KS 66160. Email: jstubbs@kumc.edu

patients with CKD, it is speculated that increments in FGF23 contribute to this finding by diverting 25(OH)D to 24,25(OH)₂D (9–11).

In support of this theory, studies in rodent models of kidney disease demonstrate upregulation of the renal 24-hydroxylase gene (9,12,13); however, follow-up studies have revealed that serum 24,25(OH)₂D concentrations are actually lower in CKD animals than in wild-type controls (13). Similarly, cross-sectional studies in humans suggest lower 24,25(OH)₂D concentrations in patients with advanced CKD and a negative correlation with FGF23 concentrations (14–17). Thus, the effect of FGF23 on the generation of 24,25(OH)₂D following vitamin D supplementation in humans with CKD remains undefined. To address this gap, we evaluated the formation of an extensive profile of vitamin D metabolites in response to high-dose cholecalciferol supplementation in patients with CKD compared with control individuals with normal kidney function and explored the relationship between serum FGF23 and vitamin D metabolite changes.

Materials and Methods

Study Participants

Following protocol approval by the institutional review board at the University of Kansas Medical Center, participants were recruited from the medical center's internal medicine clinics. Thirty patients exhibiting vitamin D insufficiency (15 with CKD and 15 controls) were enrolled between October 2010 and July 2012 following obtaining of written informed consent. Inclusion criteria for CKD participants included eGFR <45 ml/min per 1.73 m², 25(OH)D <30 ng/ml, and parathyroid hormone >65 pg/ml. Inclusion criteria for the control group (non-CKD) included eGFR >60 ml/min per 1.73 m² and 25(OH)D <30 ng/ml. Exclusion criteria were identical between groups and included active infection, recent hospitalization, prior organ transplantation, immunosuppression, active inflammatory disease (e.g., rheumatoid arthritis, systemic lupus erythematosus), cirrhosis, prior parathyroidectomy, active vitamin D therapy, and medical nonadherence. Kidney function was estimated *via* the CKD-Epidemiology Collaboration equation (18).

Study Design

This was an open-label, prospective, parallel study that was registered with clinicaltrials.gov in October 2010 (NCT01222234) and adhered to the Declaration of Helsinki. All study participants received oral cholecalciferol (Bio-Tech Pharmacal, Fayetteville, AR), 50,000 IU orally twice weekly for 8 weeks. Study participants discontinued all other vitamin D-containing supplements before study initiation and continued their normal diet. A parallel design for study enrollment was instituted to reduce between-group seasonal variation in study participation. Blood samples were collected immediately before treatment and within 1 week after cholecalciferol treatment; serum samples were stored at –80°C.

Laboratory Analyses

Serum calcium and phosphorus were measured by a Unicel Dx800 system (Beckman Coulter), and intact parathyroid hormone (PTH) was measured by a Unicel DxI800 system (Beckman Coulter). FGF23 was measured by an intact-FGF23

ELISA (Kainos, Tokyo, Japan). The total (protein-bound+unbound) serum concentrations of D₃, 25(OH)D₃, 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃, and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ were quantitated by ultra high performance liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (UHPLC-MS/MS). The method was developed and comprehensively validated according to the US Food and Drug Administration guidance on bioanalytical method validation (19). The UHPLC-MS/MS system consisted of an Accela autosampler, Accela UHPLC binary pump, and TSQ Quantum Ultra triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Thermo, San Jose, CA). Briefly, 500- μ l samples were precipitated with acetonitrile, extracted with methyl tert butyl ether, then derivatized with 4-phenyl-1,2,4-triazoline-3,5-dione. Derivatized vitamin D analytes were separated using a Waters Acquity BEH C18 column (150 mm \times 2.1 mm, 1.7- μ m particles) by gradient elution with water and acetonitrile. The flow rate was 500 μ l/min; total run time was 14 minutes. Analyte detection was achieved using positive atmospheric pressure chemical ionization and selected reaction monitoring. Standard curve ranges were 0.010–0.500 ng/ml (1 α ,25[OH]₂D₃), 0.100–15.0 ng/ml (D₃ and 24,25[OH]₂D₃), and 1.00–100 ng/ml (25[OH]D₃). Mean correlation coefficients were \geq 0.994 for all calibration curves. The within-run and between-run accuracy and precision (percentage coefficient of variation) were \leq 10.7% for all analytes.

Determination of Vitamin D Metabolic Ratios

The ratio (in equivalent units) of each vitamin D metabolite to its precursor (metabolic ratio) was calculated to estimate the function of the corresponding enzyme responsible for its biochemical conversion. The metabolic ratio of 24,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ was used to assess CYP24A1 activity, and the metabolic ratio of 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ was used to assess CYP27B1 activity.

Statistical Analyses

Determination of target sample size was based on an expected between-subject coefficient of variation for 25(OH)D of 30% following high-dose cholecalciferol treatment. Post-treatment 25(OH)D was used for power calculations because of a lack of published literature examining prospective changes in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ after high-dose cholecalciferol therapy. The sample size of $n=15$ individuals per group was estimated to have 90% power (two-sided $\alpha=0.05$) to detect a 38% between-group difference in 25(OH)D and a 28% within-group difference in pre-treatment versus post-treatment 25(OH)D. Power calculations were performed using G*Power (version 3.0.10) (20).

All data were confirmed to follow a Gaussian distribution using the Shapiro–Wilk normality test. Between- and within-group comparisons were evaluated by unpaired or paired two-sided t tests, as appropriate. The strength of the relationship between two variables was determined using linear regression, and the strength of the relationship between multiple variables was determined using multivariate regression analyses. Statistical calculations were performed using Prism 5.0b (GraphPad, San Diego, CA) and SPSS Statistics 21.0 for Macintosh (IBM, Armonk, NY). Data are presented as median (interquartile range [IQR]) or mean \pm SD unless otherwise specified. A P value <0.05 was considered to represent a statistically significant difference.

Results

Participant Demographic Characteristics

Table 1 lists the baseline demographic characteristics for each group. We observed a relatively equal between-group distribution by race, season of study enrollment, and body mass index. The control group consisted of more women and was slightly younger. The mean eGFR was 102.2 ml/min per 1.73 m² for controls and 30.5 ml/min per 1.73 m² for the CKD group.

Serum Mineral Metabolism Measurements

Pre- and post-treatment mineral metabolism parameters are presented in Table 2. At baseline, the CKD group exhibited lower 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and calcium levels and higher phosphorus, PTH, and FGF23 concentrations. Mean baseline 24,25(OH)₂D₃ was 36% lower in the CKD group than in the control group ($P=0.09$). We observed a significant rise in D₃, 25(OH)D₃, 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃, and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ in both groups following cholecalciferol treatment. FGF23 concentrations increased modestly in both groups, with a slight decrease in PTH only in the CKD group. Calcium and phosphorus did not significantly change in either group after therapy. Of note, despite nearly identical post-treatment concentrations of 25(OH)D₃ for both groups, the post-treatment 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ values were 26% and 56% lower ($P<0.05$), respectively, in the CKD group (Table 2).

Vitamin D Metabolite Concentrations and Metabolic Ratios

Figure 1 depicts the pre- and post-treatment concentrations of vitamin D metabolites in individual study participants, as well as a between-group comparison of metabolite changes. The control group exhibited greater increments in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ with cholecalciferol therapy (median change, 2.8 ng/ml [IQR, 2.3–3.5 ng/ml] for controls versus 1.2 ng/ml [IQR, 0.6–1.9 ng/ml] for patients with CKD; $P<0.001$; Figure 1L), despite a similar rise in D₃ (8.6 ng/ml [IQR, 3.9–25.6 ng/ml]

for controls versus 12.6 ng/ml [IQR, 6.9–41.2 ng/ml] for patients with CKD; $P=0.15$; Figure 1C) and 25(OH)D₃ (39.2 ng/ml [IQR, 30.9–47.2 ng/ml] for controls versus 39.9 ng/ml [IQR, 31.5–44.1 ng/ml] for patients with CKD; $P=0.58$; Figure 1F). The between-group change in 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ was also similar (111.2 pg/ml [IQR, 64.3–141.6 pg/ml] for controls versus 101.1 pg/ml [IQR, 74.2–123.1 pg/ml] for patients with CKD; $P=0.38$; Figure 1I).

Significant differences were observed in the calculated metabolic ratios between and within groups (Figure 2). The 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ metabolic ratios were significantly lower in patients with CKD at baseline and after treatment (Figure 2, A–D), indicating that patients with CKD generated less 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ per unit of substrate (25[OH]D₃).

Relationship between FGF23 Concentrations and Vitamin D Metabolite Changes

To test whether baseline FGF23 concentrations predict the rise in 25(OH)D₃ and its subsequent conversion to 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ or 24,25(OH)₂D₃ following cholecalciferol administration, we analyzed FGF23 concentrations as a function of the absolute change in these parameters (post-therapy minus pretherapy values) (Figure 3). We observed no association between baseline FGF23 concentrations and the change in 25(OH)D₃ or 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ in either group (Figure 3, A–D). Likewise, no relationship was appreciated between FGF23 and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes in the control group (Figure 3E). We did, however, observe a significant inverse relationship between baseline FGF23 concentrations and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes in the CKD group (Figure 3F). Further analysis of this data using the change in FGF23 instead of baseline values yielded similar results (data not shown). Supplemental analyses testing the relationship between PTH and phosphorus versus 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes revealed a positive association

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of study participants

Characteristic	Control Group (n=15)	CKD Group (n=15)
Race (n)		
African-American	4	6
Caucasian	9	8
Hispanic	1	1
Other	1	–
Sex (n)		
Male	2	6
Female	13	9
Age (yr)	48.5±14.2	60.1±13.3 ^a
BMI (kg/m ²)	32.9±8.8	33.6±7.8
Serum creatinine (mg/dl)	0.74±0.19	2.27±0.84 ^a
eGFR (ml/min per 1.73 m ²)	102.2±21.0	30.5±11.1 ^a
Season at enrollment (n)		
Winter (December–February)	3	5
Spring (March–May)	7	8
Summer (June–August)	–	–
Fall (September–November)	5	2

Values expressed with a plus/minus sign are the mean±SD. BMI, body mass index.

^a $P<0.05$ versus control group.

Table 2. Concentrations of vitamin D metabolites and related markers of mineral metabolism

Parameter	Control Group		CKD Group	
	Pretreatment	Post-treatment	Pretreatment	Post-treatment
Vitamin D ₃ (ng/ml)	0.00±0.00	13.69±12.51 ^a	0.30±1.17	23.14±20.55 ^a
25(OH)D ₃ (ng/ml)	13.55±5.85	54.42±8.55 ^a	14.70±9.69	53.40±13.09 ^a
1 α ,25(OH) ₂ D ₃ (pg/ml)	96.90±30.55	202.80±49.60 ^a	57.08±35.84 ^b	150.27±42.32 ^{a,b}
24,25(OH) ₂ D ₃ (ng/ml)	0.47±0.33	3.59±1.14 ^a	0.30±0.19	1.59±0.73 ^{a,b}
1 α ,25- to 25(OH)D ₃ MR	0.0077±0.0023	0.0037±0.0007 ^a	0.0038±0.0014 ^b	0.0028±0.0006 ^{a,b}
24,25- to 25(OH)D ₃ MR	0.0314±0.0103	0.0652±0.0153 ^a	0.0221±0.0086 ^b	0.0308±0.0141 ^{a,b}
Calcium (mg/dl)	9.4±0.3	9.4±0.4	9.0±0.4 ^b	9.2±0.5
Phosphorus (mg/dl)	3.4±0.6	3.4±0.5	4.2±0.5 ^b	4.3±0.5 ^b
PTH (pg/ml)	40.6±23.9	34.4±20.0	112.6±56.7 ^b	88.3±53.1 ^{a,b}
FGF23 (pg/ml)	39.8±14.6	54.1±21.2 ^a	127.5±88.7 ^b	154.8±109.9 ^{a,b}

Values are expressed as mean±SD. 25(OH)D₃, 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃; MR, metabolic ratio; PTH, parathyroid hormone; FGF23, fibroblast growth factor 23.

^aP<0.05 versus pretreatment value within same group.

^bP<0.05 versus control group value at same time point.

between PTH and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ in the control group and a nonsignificant inverse association in the CKD group (Supplemental Figure 1, A and B).

Relationship between eGFR and Change in 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃

To explore how decrements in kidney function may affect the conversion of 25(OH)D₃ to downstream metabolites, we plotted the change in 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ against eGFR (Figure 4, A and B). We identified a strong positive relationship between eGFR and change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ ($r^2=0.62$; $P<0.001$) (Figure 4B). Supplemental analyses investigating eGFR versus baseline and post-therapy 24,25(OH)₂D₃ demonstrated a similar strong positive association for only the post-therapy measurements (Supplemental Figure 2). In multivariate regression analysis exploring the individual influences of baseline FGF23 and eGFR on 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes, FGF23 was no longer a significant predictor of the change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃; for every 1-pg/ml increase in baseline FGF23 the corresponding change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ following cholecalciferol therapy was 0.002 ng/ml less ($\beta=-0.12$; $P=0.44$). Conversely, eGFR remained a strong predictor; for every 1-ml/min per 1.73 m² decrease in eGFR the corresponding change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ was 0.023 ng/ml less ($\beta=0.71$; $P<0.001$) (model-adjusted $r^2=0.59$; $P<0.001$). Additional diagnostics revealed no obvious collinearity among independent variables (variance inflation factor=1.5).

Discussion

Vitamin D insufficiency is prevalent in patients with CKD and is believed to contribute to an abundance of adverse clinical outcomes in this group (21–25). Although the cause of low 25(OH)D and 1 α ,25(OH)₂D concentrations in CKD is likely multifactorial, it is postulated that FGF23 contributes to this clinical entity through its stimulation of renal 24-hydroxylase activity (11). However, no clinical trials have prospectively tested this hypothesis. Furthermore, cross-sectional data from humans and rodent models of CKD

suggest that 24,25(OH)₂D concentrations are lower in the setting of impaired kidney function (13,15–17,26). Given the apparent disparity between these clinical observations and current theories regarding vitamin D metabolism in CKD, further *in vivo* investigation of the 24-hydroxylase pathway can provide valuable insight into the pathophysiology of mineral metabolism derangements in CKD.

In the current study, we prospectively evaluated the generation of 24,25(OH)₂D₃ and the effect of serum FGF23 concentrations on 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes in patients with CKD and control patients following cholecalciferol therapy. Similar to prior cross-sectional studies in CKD cohorts (15,16,26,27), our investigation demonstrated lower baseline 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations in patients with CKD, as well as a positive correlation between eGFR and baseline 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations (Supplemental Figure 2). The lack of statistical significance between baseline 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations in the CKD and control groups was not unexpected because our power calculations were based on the anticipated variability in post-treatment 25(OH)D₃ concentrations and not differences in baseline 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations. We found that baseline D₃ and 25(OH)D₃ concentrations were similar between the CKD and control groups, while 1,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations were lower in patients with CKD (Table 2). Baseline serum D₃ concentrations were extremely low or undetectable for most patients, a finding previously reported in other vitamin D-insufficient cohorts (28). In addition, the mean 1,25(OH)₂D₃ concentration for controls was 96.9 pg/ml. While this value is near the upper end of traditional reference ranges and seems higher than expected for a population with vitamin D insufficiency, it is well documented that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations may be normal or even elevated in the setting of low 25(OH)D₃ concentrations (29,30).

In contrast to prior work in experimental models of advanced kidney disease (31), we observed a similar rise in 25(OH)D concentrations in both groups (Figure 1F) following cholecalciferol therapy. Concentrations of 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ remained lower in the CKD group after therapy

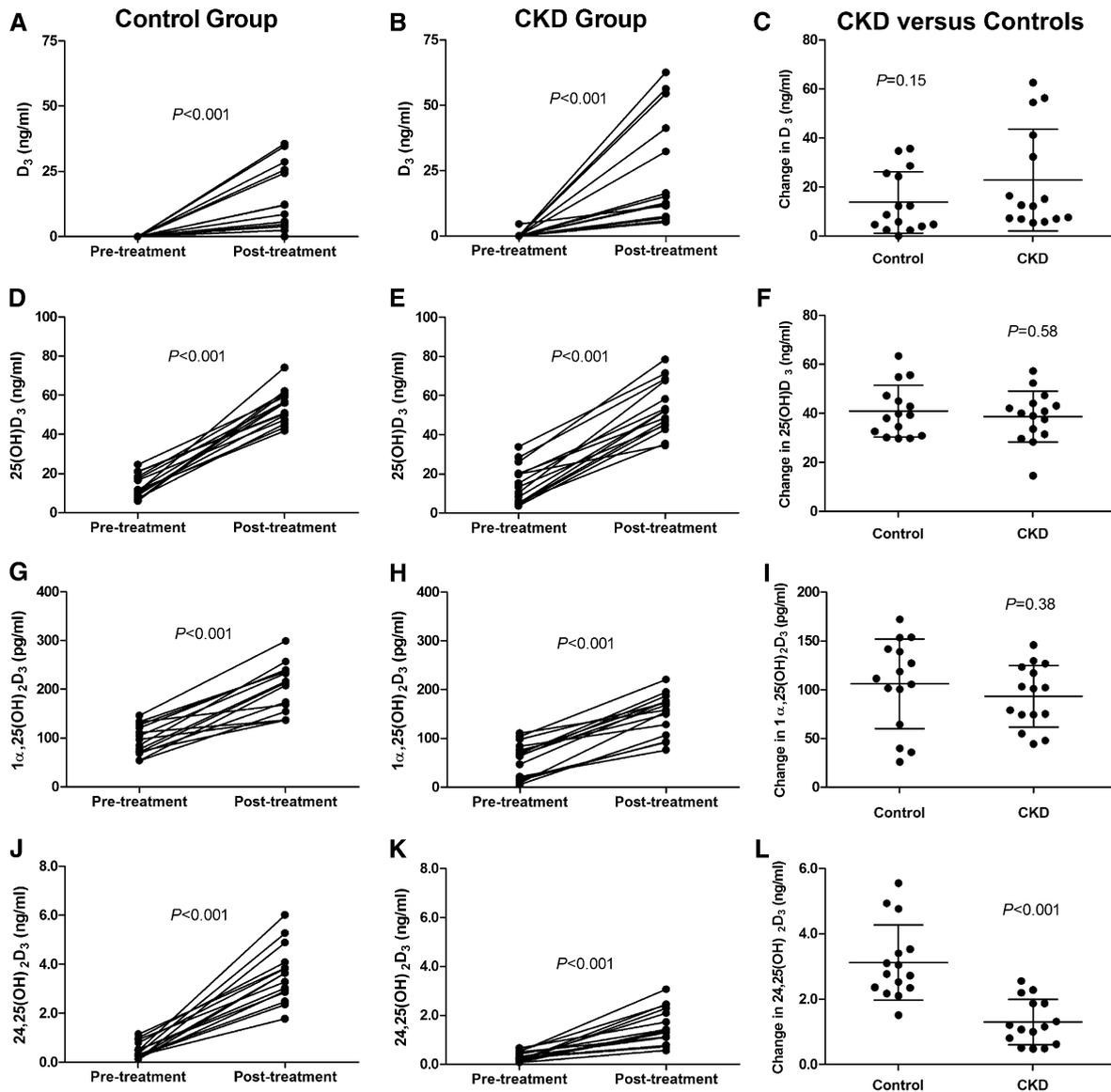


Figure 1. | Vitamin D metabolite changes following cholecalciferol therapy. Pre- and post-treatment concentrations in individual study participants from the control group (first column) and CKD group (second column), along with a between-group comparison (far right column) of absolute changes for vitamin D₃ (A–C), 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ (25(OH)D₃) (D–F), 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ (G–I), and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ (J–L) (error bars represent mean \pm SD).

(Table 2), and although the absolute change in 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ from baseline was slightly less than that observed in controls, this difference was not statistically significant (Figure 1I). On the other hand, the change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations was dramatically less in the CKD group after cholecalciferol therapy (Figure 1L), implying either reduced 24-hydroxylase activity or shunting of 25(OH)D to alternative metabolic pathways in CKD. The observation that lower 24,25(OH)₂D₃ concentrations in patients with CKD were not accompanied by higher 25(OH)D concentrations in these individuals may support the latter scenario. Of note, the hepatic CYP3A4 enzyme was recently identified to generate several novel metabolites from 25(OH)D, including 4 β ,25(OH)₂D₃ (32). The clinical significance of these novel metabolites remains unclear.

To further explore the inherent differences in 1 α -hydroxylase and 24-hydroxylase activities in CKD, we calculated metabolic ratios of 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ to 25(OH)D (Figure 2). Metabolic ratios are commonly used in clinical pharmacology to estimate the ability of an enzyme to convert a substrate to its metabolite (33) but have been rarely used in studies of vitamin D metabolism (34–36). The 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃:25(OH)D₃ metabolic ratios were markedly lower in patients with CKD both at baseline and after therapy (Figure 2, A–D). Stated differently, individuals with CKD produce less 1 α ,25(OH)₂D₃ and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ per incremental rise in 25(OH)D compared with patients with normal kidney function. This difference is especially pronounced for 24,25(OH)₂D₃, as evidenced by plotting the change in 25(OH)D₃

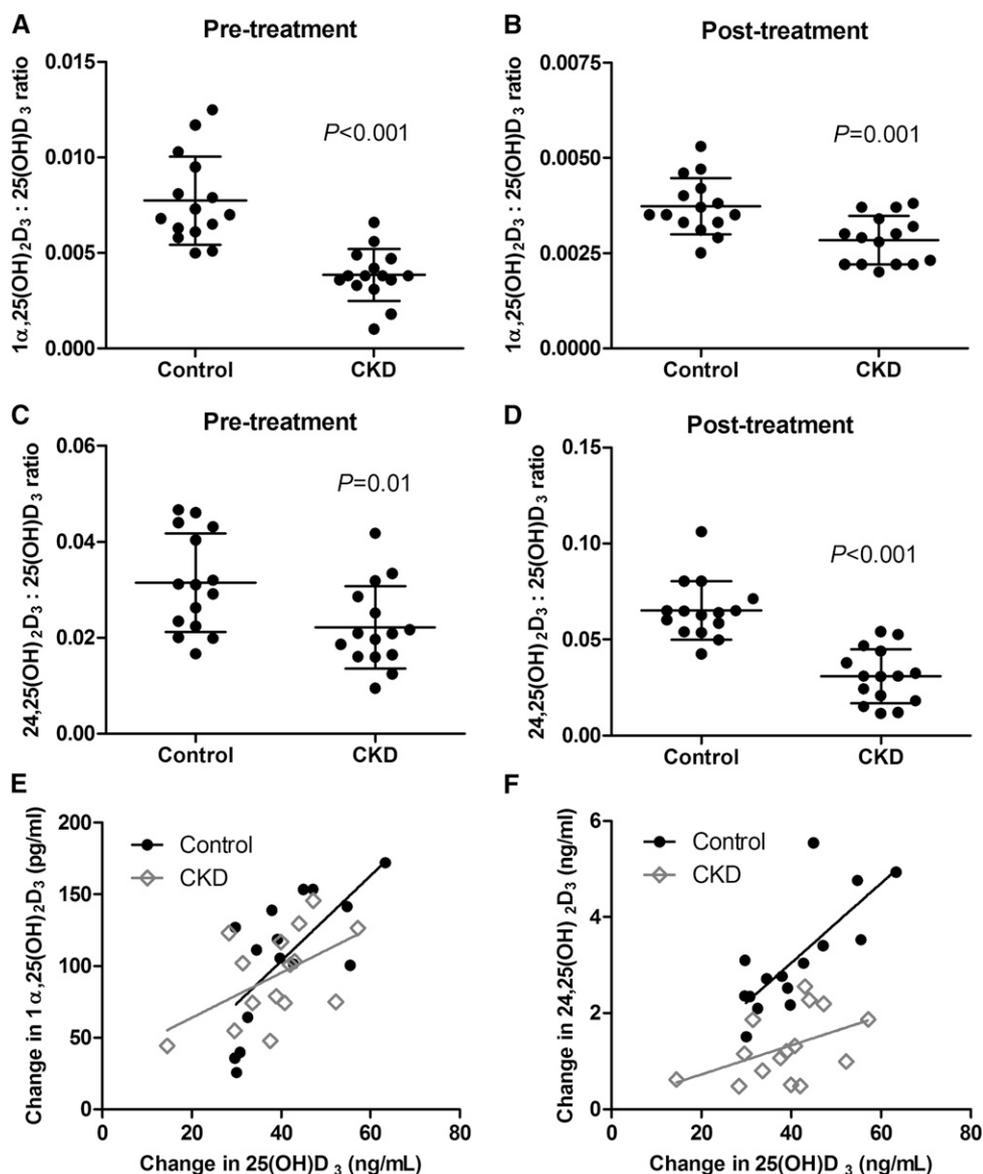


Figure 2. | Between-group comparison of the conversion of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ to downstream metabolites. Pre- and post-treatment metabolic ratio comparison for $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3 : 25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ (A and B) and $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3 : 25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ (C and D; error bars represent mean \pm SD). (E) Comparison of the relationship between the change in $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ versus change in $25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ in CKD and control study participants ($P=0.22$ and $P=0.51$ for difference in slope and line elevation, respectively). (F) Comparison of the relationship between the change in $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ versus change in $25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ in CKD and control individuals ($P=0.05$ for difference in slopes; $P < 0.001$ for difference in line elevation).

against the change in $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ (Figure 2F). It remains unclear whether these observations result from suppression of 1α -hydroxylase and 24-hydroxylase enzyme activity, or irreversible loss of renal enzyme expression in tubular epithelial cells. On the basis of our prior studies demonstrating a dramatic rise in serum $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ concentrations in response to phosphate restriction in rodents with CKD (12), we predict that a suppression of enzyme activity is primarily responsible for decreased metabolite production in CKD individuals. Because parathyroid hormone has purported effects to promote the destabilization and degradation of 24-hydroxylase (CYP24A1) mRNA (37), it is plausible that increments in parathyroid hormone might inhibit the translation of 24-hydroxylase mRNA

signals in CKD, although supplemental analyses in our study suggested no obvious correlation between parathyroid hormone and increments in $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ in patients with CKD (Supplemental Figure 1). Likewise, the increased renal expression of 24-hydroxylase mRNA observed in CKD rodent models would contradict a potential role of parathyroid hormone to stimulate 24-hydroxylase mRNA degradation in this setting (12,13).

To expand on prior observations by Bosworth *et al.* that suggested no association between cross-sectional FGF23 and $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ concentrations (16), we investigated the relationship between baseline FGF23 and prospective changes in vitamin D metabolites following cholecalciferol treatment. Despite baseline FGF23 concentrations that

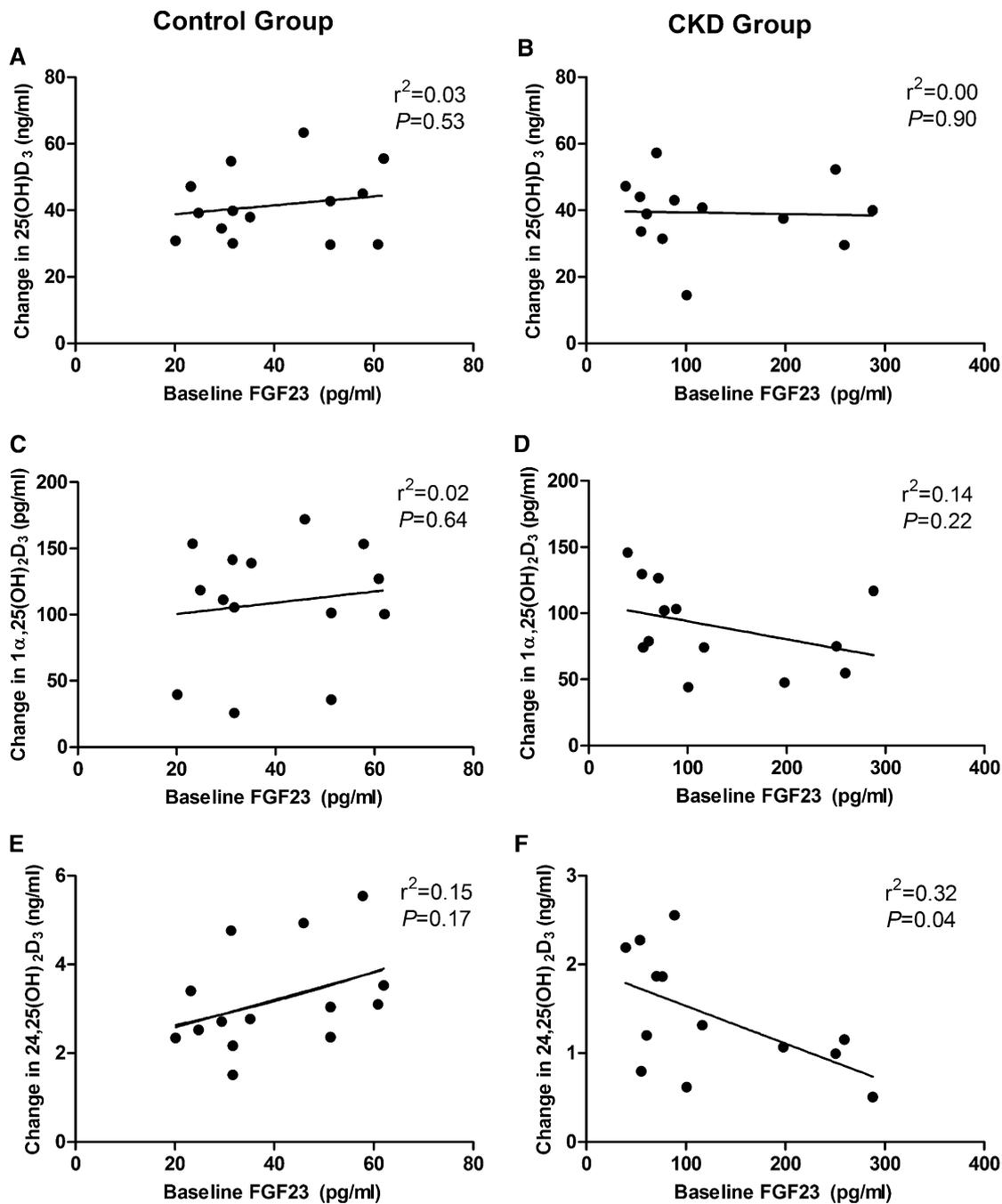


Figure 3. | Relationship between change in vitamin D metabolite concentrations and baseline FGF23. Regression analyses depicting the relationship between pretreatment FGF23 concentrations and the absolute change in 25(OH)D₃ (A and B), 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (C and D), and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ (E and F) following cholecalciferol therapy in the control group (first column) and CKD group (second column). FGF23, fibroblast growth factor 23.

were approximately 4-fold higher in the CKD group (Table 2), we observed no relationship between baseline FGF23 and the change in 25(OH)D or 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in either group (Figure 3, A–D). However, we found a significant inverse relationship between baseline FGF23 and the change in 24,25(OH)₂D₃ in the CKD group only (Figure 3F). This finding is particularly interesting given the proposed action of FGF23 to stimulate renal 24-hydroxylase activity, which contradicts our findings. On the basis of

published data suggesting renal α -Klotho, an obligate FGF23 coreceptor, is markedly reduced in CKD (38), it is plausible that the inability of FGF23 to stimulate 24-hydroxylase activity in this setting results from resistance to FGF23. Because FGF23 concentrations are higher in more advanced stages of CKD, it is possible that the inverse relationship between FGF23 and 24,25(OH)₂D₃ changes simply represents declining 24-hydroxylase function with nephron loss. In fact, in a pooled analysis of all

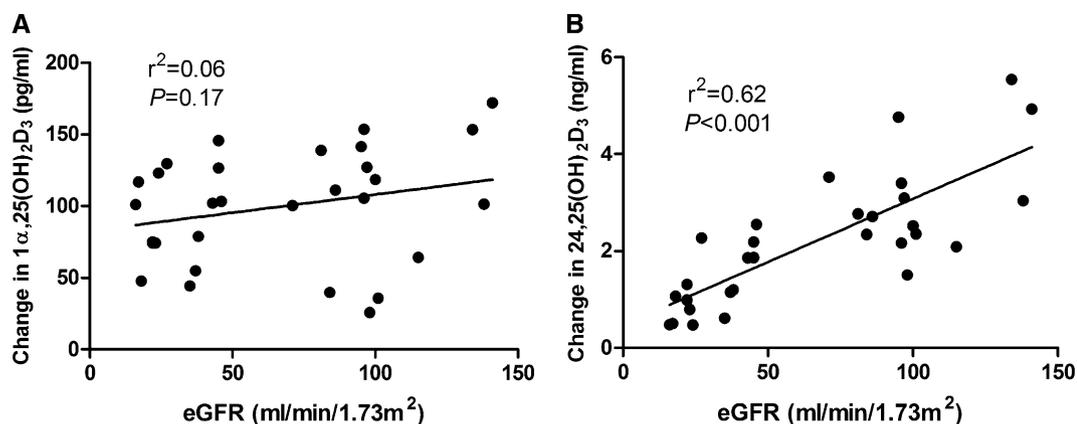


Figure 4. | Relationship between change in vitamin D metabolites and eGFR. Regression analysis depicting the relationship between eGFR and the absolute change in $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ (A) and $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ (B) for all study participants (control and CKD groups combined).

study participants, we observed a highly significant relationship between baseline eGFR and the change in $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ (Figure 4B). Further multivariate analysis testing the effect of eGFR on the relationship between FGF23 and $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ revealed that FGF23 no longer predicted $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ changes when accounting for eGFR.

We recognize that our study has several limitations. First, our suggestion that lower quantities of $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ and $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ represent decreased production of these metabolites in CKD is based on the premise that circulating levels of these compounds (1) are primarily of renal origin and (2) are determined primarily by rates of synthesis, not degradation or deposition in extravascular sites. It remains possible that nonrenal systems may be involved in this response to vitamin D therapy (2), as suggested by prior studies showing that anephric pigs retain the ability to generate $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ in response to cholecalciferol (39). Second, the use of metabolic ratios to assess *in vivo* 1α -hydroxylase and 24 -hydroxylase activity is a newer concept that needs further validation. Third, it is difficult to establish cause-effect relationships regarding the effects of FGF23 on vitamin D metabolism based solely on associative analyses.

The current study advances our understanding of the effect of CKD on vitamin D metabolism and the role of FGF23 in the response to vitamin D supplementation. More specifically, we demonstrated that patients with CKD exhibit lower serum $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ concentrations than controls in response to an equal dose of cholecalciferol and an equivalent rise in the $25(\text{OH})\text{D}_3$ substrate, suggesting considerably altered 24 -hydroxylase regulation in patients with reduced kidney function. Moreover, the inverse relationship between FGF23 and the change in $24,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ in response to cholecalciferol therapy provides strong evidence against a role of FGF23 as a promoter of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ insufficiency in this setting.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a Mentored Clinical Scientist Grant from the Office of Scholarly, Academic & Research Mentoring and the Kansas University Medical Center Department of Internal Medicine (J.R.S.), and grant DK054171 from the National Institutes of Health (P.A.F.).

Disclosures

None.

References

- Beckman MJ, Tadikonda P, Werner E, Pahl J, Yamada S, DeLuca HF: Human 25-hydroxyvitamin D3-24-hydroxylase, a multi-catalytic enzyme. *Biochemistry* 35: 8465–8472, 1996
- Zehnder D, Bland R, Williams MC, McNinch RW, Howie AJ, Stewart PM, Hewison M: Extrarenal expression of 25-hydroxyvitamin d(3)-1 alpha-hydroxylase. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 86: 888–894, 2001
- Zehnder D, Bland R, Walker EA, Bradwell AR, Howie AJ, Hewison M, Stewart PM: Expression of 25-hydroxyvitamin D3-1alpha-hydroxylase in the human kidney. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 10: 2465–2473, 1999
- LaClair RE, Hellman RN, Karp SL, Kraus M, Ofner S, Li Q, Graves KL, Moe SM: Prevalence of calcidiol deficiency in CKD: A cross-sectional study across latitudes in the United States. *Am J Kidney Dis* 45: 1026–1033, 2005
- Craver L, Marco MP, Martínez I, Rue M, Borràs M, Martín ML, Sarró F, Valdivielso JM, Fernández E: Mineral metabolism parameters throughout chronic kidney disease stages 1–5—achievement of K/DOQI target ranges. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 22: 1171–1176, 2007
- Isakova T, Wahl P, Vargas GS, Gutiérrez OM, Scialla J, Xie H, Appleby D, Nessel L, Bellorch K, Chen J, Hamm L, Gadegbeku C, Horwitz E, Townsend RR, Anderson CA, Lash JP, Hsu CY, Leonard MB, Wolf M: Fibroblast growth factor 23 is elevated before parathyroid hormone and phosphate in chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 79: 1370–1378, 2011
- Bai XY, Miao D, Goltzman D, Karaplis AC: The autosomal dominant hypophosphatemic rickets R176Q mutation in fibroblast growth factor 23 resists proteolytic cleavage and enhances *in vivo* biological potency. *J Biol Chem* 278: 9843–9849, 2003
- Shimada T, Hasegawa H, Yamazaki Y, Muto T, Hino R, Takeuchi Y, Fujita T, Nakahara K, Fukumoto S, Yamashita T: FGF-23 is a potent regulator of vitamin D metabolism and phosphate homeostasis. *J Bone Miner Res* 19: 429–435, 2004
- Helvig CF, Cuerrier D, Hosfield CM, Ireland B, Kharebov AZ, Kim JW, Ramjit NJ, Ryder K, Tabash SP, Herzenberg AM, Epps TM, Petkovich M: Dysregulation of renal vitamin D metabolism in the uremic rat. *Kidney Int* 78: 463–472, 2010
- Hasegawa H, Nagano N, Urakawa I, Yamazaki Y, Iijima K, Fujita T, Yamashita T, Fukumoto S, Shimada T: Direct evidence for a causative role of FGF23 in the abnormal renal phosphate handling and vitamin D metabolism in rats with early-stage chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 78: 975–980, 2010
- Petkovich M, Jones G: CYP24A1 and kidney disease. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens* 20: 337–344, 2011
- Zhang S, Gillihan R, He N, Fields T, Liu S, Green T, Stubbs JR: Dietary phosphate restriction suppresses phosphaturia but does

- not prevent FGF23 elevation in a mouse model of chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 84: 713–721, 2013
13. Dai B, David V, Alshayeb HM, Showkat A, Gyamlani G, Horst RL, Wall BM, Quarles LD: Assessment of 24,25(OH)₂D levels does not support FGF23-mediated catabolism of vitamin D metabolites. *Kidney Int* 82: 1061–1070, 2012
 14. Mason RS, Lissner D, Wilkinson M, Posen S: Vitamin D metabolites and their relationship to azotaemic osteodystrophy. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)* 13: 375–385, 1980
 15. Ishimura E, Nishizawa Y, Inaba M, Matsumoto N, Emoto M, Kawagishi T, Shoji S, Okuno S, Kim M, Miki T, Morii H: Serum levels of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, and 25-hydroxyvitamin D in nondialyzed patients with chronic renal failure. *Kidney Int* 55: 1019–1027, 1999
 16. Bosworth CR, Levin G, Robinson-Cohen C, Hoofnagle AN, Ruzinski J, Young B, Schwartz SM, Himmelfarb J, Kestenbaum B, de Boer IH: The serum 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration, a marker of vitamin D catabolism, is reduced in chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 82: 693–700, 2012
 17. Denburg MR, Kalkwarf HJ, de Boer IH, Hewison M, Shults J, Zemel BS, Stokes D, Foerster D, Laskin B, Ramirez A, Leonard MB: Vitamin D bioavailability and catabolism in pediatric chronic kidney disease. *Pediatr Nephrol* 28: 1843–1853, 2013
 18. Levey AS, Stevens LA, Schmid CH, Zhang YL, Castro AF 3rd, Feldman HI, Kusek JW, Eggers P, Van Lente F, Greene T, Coresh J; CKD-EPI (Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration): A new equation to estimate glomerular filtration rate. *Ann Intern Med* 150: 604–612, 2009
 19. U.S. Food and Drug Administration: Guidance for industry—bioanalytical method validation, May 2001. Available at: <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/Guidances/ucm070107.pdf>. Accessed on June 30, 2014
 20. Faul F, Erdfelder E, Lang AG, Buchner A: G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behav Res Methods* 39: 175–191, 2007
 21. Ravani P, Malberti F, Tripepi G, Pecchini P, Cutrupi S, Pizzini P, Mallamaci F, Zoccali C: Vitamin D levels and patient outcome in chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int* 75: 88–95, 2009
 22. Fernández-Juárez G, Luño J, Barrio V, de Vinuesa SG, Praga M, Goicoechea M, Lahera V, Casas L, Oliva J; PRONEDI Study Group: 25 (OH) vitamin D levels and renal disease progression in patients with type 2 diabetic nephropathy and blockade of the renin-angiotensin system. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 8: 1870–1876, 2013
 23. Cauley JA, Lacroix AZ, Wu L, Horwitz M, Danielson ME, Bauer DC, Lee JS, Jackson RD, Robbins JA, Wu C, Stanczyk FZ, LeBoff MS, Wactawski-Wende J, Sarto G, Ockene J, Cummings SR: Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations and risk for hip fractures. *Ann Intern Med* 149: 242–250, 2008
 24. Wang TJ, Pencina MJ, Booth SL, Jacques PF, Ingelsson E, Lanier K, Benjamin EJ, D'Agostino RB, Wolf M, Vasan RS: Vitamin D deficiency and risk of cardiovascular disease. *Circulation* 117: 503–511, 2008
 25. de Boer IH, Kestenbaum B, Shoben AB, Michos ED, Sarnak MJ, Siscovick DS: 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels inversely associate with risk for developing coronary artery calcification. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 20: 1805–1812, 2009
 26. Weisman Y, Eisenberg Z, Leib L, Harel A, Shasha SM, Edelstein S: Serum concentrations of 24,25-dihydroxy vitamin D in different degrees of chronic renal failure. *BMJ* 281: 712–713, 1980
 27. de Boer IH, Sachs MC, Chonchol M, Himmelfarb J, Hoofnagle AN, Ix JH, Kremersdorf RA, Lin YS, Mehrotra R, Robinson-Cohen C, Siscovick DS, Steffes MW, Thummel KE, Tracy RP, Wang Z, Kestenbaum B: Estimated GFR and circulating 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ concentration: A participant-level analysis of 5 cohort studies and clinical trials. *Am J Kidney Dis* 64: 187–197, 2014
 28. Clemens TL, Adams JS, Nolan JM, Holick MF: Measurement of circulating vitamin D in man. *Clin Chim Acta* 121: 301–308, 1982
 29. Holick MF: Vitamin D status: Measurement, interpretation, and clinical application. *Ann Epidemiol* 19: 73–78, 2009
 30. Holick MF: The D-lemma: To screen or not to screen for 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations. *Clin Chem* 56: 729–731, 2010
 31. Michaud J, Naud J, Ouimet D, Demers C, Petit JL, Leblond FA, Bonnardeaux A, Gascon-Barré M, Pichette V: Reduced hepatic synthesis of calcidiol in uremia. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 21: 1488–1497, 2010
 32. Wang Z, Lin YS, Zheng XE, Senn T, Hashizume T, Scian M, Dickmann LJ, Nelson SD, Baillie TA, Hebert MF, Blough D, Davis CL, Thummel KE: An inducible cytochrome P450 3A4-dependent vitamin D catabolic pathway. *Mol Pharmacol* 81: 498–509, 2012
 33. Tucker GT, Houston JB, Huang SM: Optimizing drug development: Strategies to assess drug metabolism/transporter interaction potential—toward a consensus. *Pharm Res* 18: 1071–1080, 2001
 34. Barker T, Martins TB, Kjeldsberg CR, Trawick RH, Hill HR: Circulating interferon- γ correlates with 1,25(OH)₂D and the 1,25(OH)₂D-to-25(OH)D ratio. *Cytokine* 60: 23–26, 2012
 35. Wagner D, Hanwell HE, Schnabl K, Yazdanpanah M, Kimball S, Fu L, Sidhom G, Rousseau D, Cole DE, Vieth R: The ratio of serum 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D(3) to 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3) is predictive of 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3) response to vitamin D(3) supplementation. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 126: 72–77, 2011
 36. Hollis BW, Wagner CL, Drezner MK, Binkley NC: Circulating vitamin D₃ and 25-hydroxyvitamin D in humans: An important tool to define adequate nutritional vitamin D status. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 103: 631–634, 2007
 37. Zierold C, Mings JA, DeLuca HF: Parathyroid hormone regulates 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3)-24-hydroxylase mRNA by altering its stability. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 98: 13572–13576, 2001
 38. Sakan H, Nakatani K, Asai O, Imura A, Tanaka T, Yoshimoto S, Iwamoto N, Kurumatani N, Iwano M, Nabeshima Y, Konishi N, Saito Y: Reduced renal α -Klotho expression in CKD patients and its effect on renal phosphate handling and vitamin D metabolism. *PLoS ONE* 9: e86301, 2014
 39. Horst RL, Littledike ET, Gray RW, Napoli JL: Impaired 24,25-dihydroxyvitamin D production in anephric human and pig. *J Clin Invest* 67: 274–280, 1981

Received: March 26, 2014 **Accepted:** July 17, 2014

Published online ahead of print. Publication date available at www.cjasn.org.

This article contains supplemental material online at <http://cjasn.asnjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.2215/CJN.03130314/-/DCSupplemental>.