# Low vitamin D status: a contributing factor in the pathogenesis of congestive heart failure?

Armin Zittermann, Stefanie Schulze Schleithoff, Gero Tenderich, Heiner K. Berthold, Reiner Körfer, and Peter Stehle *J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.* 2003;41;105-112

## This information is current as of October 29, 2010

The online version of this article, along with updated information and services, is located on the World Wide Web at: http://content.onlinejacc.org/cgi/content/full/41/1/105

JACC
JOURNAL of the American College of Cardiology



## **Heart Failure**

# Low Vitamin D Status: A Contributing Factor in the Pathogenesis of Congestive Heart Failure?

Armin Zittermann, PhD,\* Stefanie Schulze Schleithoff,\* Gero Tenderich, MD,† Heiner K. Berthold, MD, PhD,‡ Reiner Körfer, MD,† Peter Stehle, PhD\*

Bonn, Bad Oeynhausen, and Rotenburg a.d. Fulda, Germany

**OBJECTIVES** 

This study was designed to evaluate the association between vitamin D status and congestive heart failure (CHF).

**BACKGROUND** 

Impaired intracellular calcium metabolism is an important factor in the pathogenesis of CHF. The etiology of CHF, however, is not well understood.

**METHODS** 

Twenty patients age <50 years and 34 patients age ≥50 years with New York Heart Association classes ≥2 and 34 control subjects age ≥50 years were recruited. N-terminal pro-atrial natriuretic peptide (NT-proANP), a predictor of CHF severity; vitamin D metabolites; and parameters of calcium metabolism were measured in fasting blood samples collected between November 2000 and March 2001.

**RESULTS** 

Both groups of CHF patients had markedly increased serum levels of NT-proANP (p < 0.001), increased serum phosphorus levels (p < 0.001), and reduced circulating levels of both 25-hydroxyvitamin D (p < 0.001) and calcitriol (p < 0.001). Albumin-corrected calcium levels were reduced and parathyroid hormone levels were increased in the younger CHF patients compared with the controls (both p values <0.001). Moreover, parathyroid hormone levels tended to be higher in the elderly CHF patients than in the controls (p = 0.074). In a nonlinear regression analysis 25-hydroxyvitamin D and calcitriol were inversely correlated with NT-proANP ( $\rm r^2 = 0.16$ ; p < 0.001 and  $\rm r^2 = 0.12$ ; p < 0.01, respectively). The vitamin D genotype at the BmsI restriction site did not differ between the study groups.

CONCLUSIONS

The low vitamin D status can explain alterations in mineral metabolism as well as myocardial dysfunction in the CHF patients, and it may therefore be a contributing factor in the pathogenesis of CHF. (J Am Coll Cardiol 2003;41:105–12) © 2003 by the American College of Cardiology Foundation

Congestive heart failure (CHF) is a cardiac dysfunction syndrome characterized by a reduced left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) in association with water and sodium retention. Muscle weakness and early fatigue are the two major symptoms of CHF patients. The prevalence of CHF is approximately 1% to 3% in Western societies (1,2). Morbidity and mortality of CHF increase progressively with age (3,4).

The etiology of CHF is not well understood. Obviously, an altered intracellular handling of ionized calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>) seems to play an important role in the impaired contractility of the myocardium (5). In isolated myocytes from patients with terminal heart failure, systolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients were found to be markedly reduced, diastolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels were increased, and the rate of diastolic decay of Ca<sup>2+</sup> was slowed compared with heart cells from healthy subjects (6). Consequently, digitalis and beta-blockers are frequently used medications for secondary prevention. They are able to improve contractility by increasing myocardial intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels (7) and by improving intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> utilization (8).

From the \*Department of Nutrition Science, University of Bonn, Germany; †Heart and Diabetes Center North Rhine-Westfalia, Department of Thoracic and Cardio-vascular Surgery, Ruhr-University of Bochum, Bad Oeynhausen, Germany; and ‡Center for Cardiovascular Diseases, Department Clinical Pharmacology, Rotenburg a.d. Fulda, Germany. This study was supported by the Pinguin Stiftung, Düsseldorf, Germany.

Manuscript received January 25, 2002; revised manuscript received August 19, 2002, accepted September 13, 2002.

In a recent observational study in patients with severe CHF, both vitamin D deficiency and hyperparathyroidism were common findings (9). Interestingly, vitamin D plays a pivotal role in cardiac function. Cardiac muscle cells possess a vitamin D receptor and a calcitriol-dependent Ca<sup>2+</sup> binding protein (10,11). Moreover, a calcitriol-mediated rapid activation of voltage-dependent Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels exists in cardiac muscle cells (12). Consequently, calcitriol administration can normalize the impaired contractility of the myocardium that is observed under experimental vitamin D deficiency (13,14). Calcitriol also suppresses synthesis and secretion of the atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP) in cardiac muscle cells (15). Circulating levels of the N-terminal pro-ANP (NT-proANP) are massively increased in CHF patients and are thus a predictor of disease severity (16).

On the basis of these preliminary data, it can be hypothesized that low circulating levels of vitamin D metabolites are contributing to the pathogenesis and/or the symptomatology of CHF. To support this postulate, we performed a case-control study in younger and older CHF patients.

### **METHODS**

Participants and study design. Fifty-four patients admitted for investigation or treatment of CHF were recruited at the Heart and Diabetes Center North Rhine-Westfalia

#### Abbreviations and Acronyms

Ca<sup>2+</sup> = ionized calcium

CHF = congestive heart failure

CI = cardiac index

LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction

NT-proANP = N-terminal pro-ANP

NYHA = New York Heart Association

NYHA = New York Heart Association
25OHD = 25-hydroxyvitamin D
PCWP = pulmonary wedge pressure
PTH = parathyroid hormone
TNF = tumor necrosis factor
UV = ultraviolet

VDR = vitamin D receptor

(geographic latitude: 52°N) between November 2000 and March 2001. Patients were ambulatory or hospitalized for not longer than two days. They were classified by New York Heart Association (NYHA) functional class according to their cardiac symptoms. Only patients with NYHA classes ≥2 were included. Moreover, LVEF was determined by echocardiogram. Cardiac index (CI) and pulmonary wedge pressure (PCWP) were assessed using right ventricular cardiac catheterization. Left ventricular ejection fraction values <35%, CI values >2 l/min/m<sup>2</sup>, and PCWP values >20 mm Hg are regarded as clinically unfavorable. Patients were then divided into group I (<50 years; n = 20) and group II ( $\geq 50$  years; n = 34) to evaluate possible agerelated effects. Control group III consisted of 34 elderly (≥50 years) free-living subjects. Exercise capacity was assessed by a questionnaire based on NYHA functional classification (17). Subjects were recruited between November 2000 and March 2001 by an advertisement in several

senior groups in Bonn, Germany (geographic latitude 51°N). Participants of group III were matched for gender, age, and body mass index with group II (Table 1). All control subjects had an unlimited exercise capacity (NYHA class <2). Exclusion criteria were serum creatinine level >2 mg/dl, serum aspartate aminotransferase level >35 U/l, therapy with glucocorticoids or anticonvulsants, and intake of vitamin D supplements (hospital document/questionnaire).

One blood sample was obtained from the antecubital vein of each subject after a 12-h overnight fast. Aliquots of whole blood, plasma, and serum were frozen consecutively at  $-20^{\circ}$ C until analysis. All participants gave written informed consent to the study, which was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Bonn.

Biochemical analysis. Blood hormone and cytokine analyses are summarized in Table 2. Serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> and phosphorus as well as serum albumin concentrations were assessed using atomic absorption spectrometry (Ca<sup>2+</sup>) and colorimetric test kits (phosphorus and albumin; BioMerieux, Nürtingen, Germany), respectively. Coefficients of variation were below 2.5%. Total serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> was corrected with ±0.32 mg for each 0.5 mg deviation of concomitant serum albumin from a normal mean of 4.14 mg (18). Vitamin D binding protein was measured by single radial immunodiffusion (coefficient of variation = 10.8%; Immundiagnostik, Bensheim, Germany). Serum creatinine was determined enzymatically (test kit: Boehringer, Mannheim, Germany). Creatinine clearance (ml/min) was estimated according to the Crockroft-Gault formula (19):

 $\frac{(140 - age \times (wt \ kg)}{72 \times serum \ creatinine \ (mg/dl)}$ 

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the Study Groups

	CHF Patients <50 years (n = 20)	CHF Patients ≥50 years (n = 34)	Controls ≥50 years (n = 34)
Age (yrs)	$38.9 \pm 7.9$	64.1 ± 6.4	68.9 ± 5.2
Male (%)	60.0	61.8	61.8
BMI $(kg/m^2)$	$26.3 \pm 5.1$	$25.6 \pm 3.8$	$25.1 \pm 2.9$
Coronary heart disease (%)	15	44.1	0
Hypertension (%)	0	32.4	41.2
Diabetes (%)	10	23.5	2.9
Drug therapy (%)			
Digitalis	60	68	0
Beta-blocker	75	65	5
Vasodilators (including ACE inhibitors)	85	81	11
Diuretics*	85	100	9
Loop diuretics	65	100	0
Thiazide diuretics	40	41	9
Aldosterone antagonists	80	77	0
LVEF (%)	$33.9 \pm 17.5$	$29.8 \pm 11.1$	n.d.
CI (1/min/m <sup>2</sup> )	$2.17 \pm 0.51$	$2.04 \pm 0.52$	n.d.
PCWP (mm Hg)	$22.0 \pm 8.4$	$20.6 \pm 8.5$	n.d.
Aspartate-aminotransferase (U/l)	$10.2 \pm 6.5$	$10.9 \pm 4.8$	$11.9 \pm 5.9$
Creatinine (mg/dL)	$0.98 \pm 0.26$	$1.06 \pm 0.36$	$0.90 \pm 0.24$

Several patients were taking different kinds of diuretics; n.d. = not determined

ACE = angiotensin-converting enzyme; BMI = body mass index; CHF = congestive heart failure; CI = cardiac index; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; PCWP = pulmonal capillary wedge pressure.

**Table 2.** Blood Hormone and Cytokine Analyses

Parameter	Method	Interassay CV	Normal Range	Manufacturer
25-hydroxyvitamin D	RIA	11.0% (n = 40)	50-200 nmol/l	DiaSorin, Stillwater, Minnesota
Calcitriol*	Solid-phase extraction/ ELISA	9.0% (n = 20)	37–137 pmol/l	Immundiagnostik, Bensheim, Germany
Intact parathyroid hormone*	ELISA	7.9% (n = 8)	10-60 pg/ml	DRG Diagnostics, Marburg, Germany
N-terminal propeptide of atrial natriutric peptide†	RIA	8.5% (n = 20)	0.11–0.60 mmol/l	Biotop Oy, Oulu, Finland
Tumor necrosis factor alpha <sup>3</sup>	ELISA	7.6% (n = 15)	0–20 pg/ml‡	DRG Diagnostics, Marburg, Germany

\*Serum samples; †plasma samples; ‡mean values 6 pg/ml.

Results were reduced by 15% to calculate the creatinine clearance of female subjects.

The restriction fragment length polymorphism for the vitamin D receptor (VDR) gene at the BsmI site was measured with the polymerase chain reaction by using the method and primers described by Morrison et al. (20). The presence of a polymorphic restriction site was designated as b, whereas the absence of this site was designated as B.

**Statistics.** All statistical evaluations were performed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 10 (Chicago, Illinois). Normal distribution of the data was tested by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Normal distribution was considered if p values were above 0.05. Data were then evaluated using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) (normal distributed data) or by the Kruskall-Wallis test (non-normal data; serum parathyroid hormone, PTH). In the case of significant differences between subgroups, post hoc analyses were based on the Tukey test (normal distributed data) or on the Mann/Whitney U-test. The chi-square test was used to test differences in the genotype of the vitamin D receptor between the study groups. Pearson's correlation coefficient r (normal distributed data), Spearman's rank correlation coefficient r<sub>s</sub> (non-normal data), and nonlinear regression analyses were used to assess interrelationships. A p value < 0.05 (two-tailed test) was considered statistically significant. Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD.

#### **RESULTS**

Serum levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25OHD), calcitriol (Fig. 1), Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>C, phosphorus, and PTH (Table 3) revealed highly significant differences between the study groups (ANOVA; all p values <0.001).

Concentration of 25OHD was lower in both patient groups compared with the elderly control group (Fig. 1). Moreover, both groups of CHF patients had lower serum calcitriol levels, lower serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels, and higher phosphorus levels than the controls (Fig. 1, Table 3). Reduced albumin-corrected serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels were, however, observed only in the younger CHF patients. Serum PTH levels were significantly increased in the younger CHF patients compared with the controls, whereas PTH concentrations tended to be higher (p = 0.074) only in the elderly CHF patients compared with the controls. Two of the 34 elderly CHF patients and nine out of the 20 younger CHF

patients, but none of the controls, had hypocalcemia (serum  $Ca^{2+} < 8$  mg/dl). Serum vitamin D binding globulin levels were similar in all groups studied. Patients with CHF and controls did not differ in the distribution of the genotype for the VDR gene at the BsmI site (Table 3).

Both age groups of CHF patients had markedly higher plasma levels of NT-proANP than controls (Fig. 2). Even in the control subjects, however, the NT-proANP levels of  $0.96 \pm 0.37$  nmol/l were slightly higher than the normal values published for healthy adults (0.11 to 0.60 nmol/l, ages 20 to 55 years). Mean serum albumin levels were significantly lower in the CHF patients compared with the controls, but they were still in the normal range of 4.0 to 5.4 g/dl (Table 3). Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-alpha was significantly increased in the elderly patient group compared with their age-matched controls (p < 0.001). The TNFalpha levels of the younger patients did not differ from the elderly controls. The levels were, however, markedly higher than the generally accepted mean normal concentrations of 6 pg/ml for healthy middle-aged subjects. Creatinine clearance was highest in the young CHF patients (Table 3).

Calcitriol was correlated with albumin-corrected Ca<sup>2+</sup> (r = +0.48; p < 0.001) and was inversely related to PTH  $(r_s = -0.22; p < 0.05)$ . Concentration of 25OHD was correlated with albumin (r = +0.24; p < 0.05) and vitamin D binding globulin (r = +0.28; p < 0.025) and was inversely related to PTH ( $r_s = -0.45$ ; p < 0.001), phosphorus (r = -0.33; p < 0.01), and TNF-alpha (r = -0.25; p < 0.025). Circulating levels of NT-proANP showed a nonlinear correlation with 25OHD (Fig. 3), TNF-alpha (r<sup>2</sup> = 0.27, p < 0.001; regression equation: NT-proANP =  $-1.8 \cdot \text{TNF-alpha}^{1.258}$ ), and calcitriol (r<sup>2</sup> = 0.12, p < 0.01; regression equation: NT-proANP = 4.372·calcitriol<sup>-0.769</sup>). Data in Figure 3 indicate that 25OHD levels above 40 ng/ml would be necessary to reduce NT-proANP levels of almost all subjects close to the normal range of 0.11 to 0.60 nmol/l.

#### **DISCUSSION**

This study could demonstrate that reduced circulating levels of 25OHD and also reduced calcitriol concentrations (Fig. 1) are a typical feature in CHF patients. The associated increase of serum phosphorus and PTH as well as the reduced serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels of the CHF patients (Table 3)

CV = coefficient of variation; ELISA = enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; RIA = radioimmunoassay.

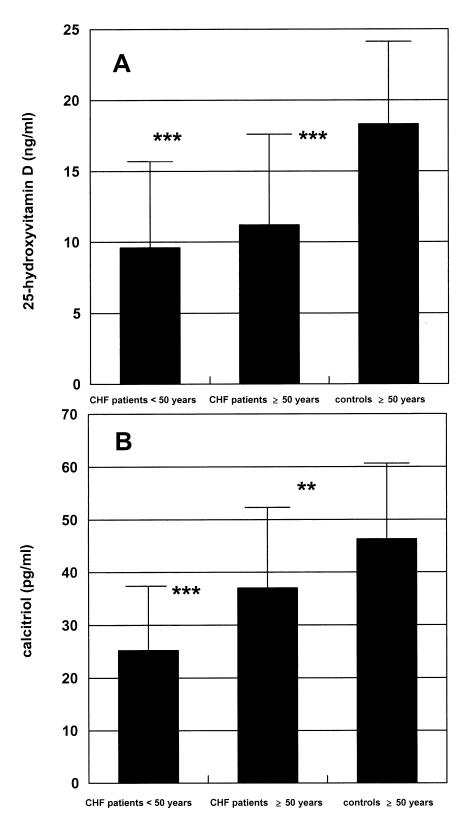


Figure 1. Circulating concentrations (mean  $\pm$  SD) of 25-hydoxyvitamin D (A) and calcitriol (B) in congestive heart failure (CHF) patients and in elderly healthy controls ( $\geq$ 50 years). Main effects of study groups were observed (analysis of variance; p < 0.001). \*\*\*Significant differences between CHF patients and elderly controls, p < 0.001 (post hoc Tukey test); \*\*Significant difference between CHF patients and elderly controls, p < 0.025 (post hoc Tukey test).

**Table 3.** Biochemical Parameters and Vitamin D Receptor Genotype of Patients With Congestive Heart Failure and of Elderly Controls

	CHF Patients <50 years (n = 20)	CHF Patients ≥50 years (n = 34)	Controls $\geq 50$ years (n = 34)
Albumin (g/dl)	$4.61 \pm 0.65$	$4.39 \pm 0.58 \dagger$	$5.02 \pm 0.30$
Intact PTH (pg/ml)	$69.3 \pm 53.6 \dagger$	$54.6 \pm 64.0 \ddagger$	$31.4 \pm 43.1$
$Ca^{2+}$ (mg/dl)	$7.96 \pm 0.76 \dagger$	$8.72 \pm 0.72$ §	$9.16 \pm 0.64$
Ca <sup>2+</sup> C (mg/dl)	$7.72 \pm 0.64 \dagger$	$8.56 \pm 0.64$	$8.64 \pm 0.72$
Phosphorus (mg/dl)	$4.38 \pm 1.02 \dagger$	$4.14 \pm 1.02 \dagger$	$3.49 \pm 0.46$
DBP (mg/dl)	$55.6 \pm 12.2$	$54.8 \pm 13.1$	$59.7 \pm 13.5$
TNF-alpha (pg/ml)	$17.5 \pm 11.7$	$20.6 \pm 9.1 \dagger$	$14.0 \pm 6.3$
Creatinine clearance (ml/min)	$118 \pm 45 \dagger$	$77 \pm 29$	$83 \pm 32$
VDR genotype (BB/Bb/bb in %)	35/55/10	26.5/56/17.5	41/41/18

Main effects of study groups were observed for albumin, Ca2+, Ca2+C, phosphorus, and creatinine clearance (analysis of variance [analysis of variance]; all p values < 0.001), for TNF-alpha (analysis of variance; p < 0.025) and for parathyroid hormone (Kruskall Wallis test; p < 0.001). †Significant differences between CHF patients and elderly controls, p < 0.001 (post hoc Tukey test or Mann Whitney Utest); ‡borderline significance compared to elderly controls (p = 0.074); \$significant differences between CHF patients and elderly controls, p < 0.025 (post hoc Tukey test or Mann Whitney U test).  $Ca^{2+} = \text{calcium}; Ca^{2+}C = \text{albumin corrected calcium}; CHF = \text{congestive heart failure}; DBP = \text{vitamin D binding globulin};$ 

PTH = parathyroid hormone; TNF = tumor necrosis factor; VDR = vitamin D receptor.

can be seen as a consequence of the low vitamin D status (21). The differences in circulating levels of NT-proANP (Fig. 2) confirm the classification of patients and controls by NYHA functional classes (16).

We measured serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels by atomic absorption spectrometry, which is regarded as the gold standard. Moreover, our study design allowed samples batching, and the fasting blood drawing guaranteed that serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations were unaffected by dietary Ca<sup>2+</sup> intake. Because sufficient amounts of extracellular activator Ca<sup>2+</sup> are mandatory for the first step in myocardial contraction

(22), adequate influx of activator Ca<sup>2+</sup> is questionable in the young CHF patients with low serum levels of albumin-corrected Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Table 3). In addition, the low calcitriol levels of the young and of the elderly CHF patients (Fig. 1) might also impair calcitriol-dependent intracellular genomic actions, such as Ca2+ binding protein synthesis (10), and non-genomic actions of Ca<sup>2+</sup> metabolism, such as calcitriol-dependent activation of adenylate cyclase (23,24). Low adenylat cyclase activity can result in an impaired extracellular Ca2+ influx (2,25), decreased Ca2+ re-uptake into the sarcoplasmic reticulum (26), and reduced Ca<sup>2+</sup>

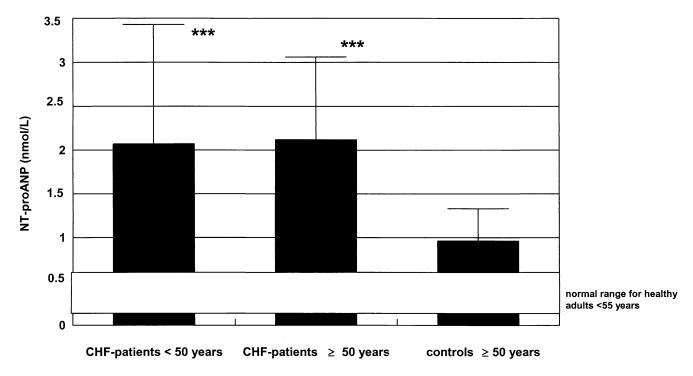


Figure 2. Blood concentrations (mean ± SD) of N-terminal pro-atrial natriuretic peptide (NT-proANP) in congestive heart failure (CHF) patients and in elderly healthy controls (≥50 years). Main effects of study groups were observed (analysis of variance; p < 0.001).\*\*\*Significant differences between CHF patients and elderly controls, p < 0.001 (post hoc Tukey test).

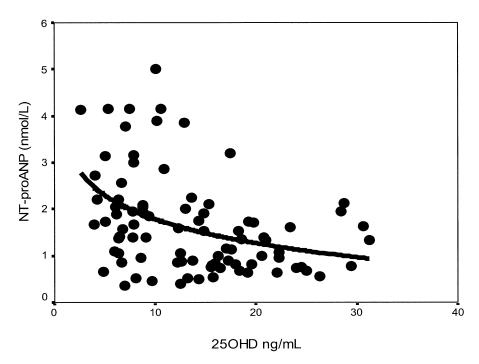


Figure 3. Association between serum N-terminal pro-atrial natriuretic peptide (NT-proANP) and serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D values ( $r^2 = 0.16$ ; p < 0.001; regression equation: NT-proANP 4.14·25OHD<sup>-0.741</sup>).

liberation from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (27). The latter alteration is considered an important pathogenic factor of the impaired contractility in cardiomyopathy (6,28).

The pathogenesis of low calcitriol levels in CHF patients is uncertain. Some earlier studies brought evidence forward that reduced serum calcitriol levels are the result of low circulating 25OHD levels (29,30). It has recently been suggested that TNF-alpha may also suppress calcitriol synthesis (31). We found an inverse association of TNF-alpha with 25OHD (results section), indicating that low 25OHD levels are involved in activation of the TNF-alpha system. Because the creatinine clearance was highest in the young CHF patients (Table 3), it seems rather unlikely that an impaired kidney function was responsible for a reduced renal 1-alpha hydroxylation of 25OHD in the CHF patients compared with the controls.

25OHD has several independent effects on muscle cells. Uptake of 45Ca2+into cultured cardiac muscle cells is increased by physiologic concentrations of 25OHD (32). The 25OHD activity in cardiac muscle cells is on a molar basis 222 times lower than that of calcitriol (32). However, at serum concentrations of the two metabolites as those found in our study groups (Fig. 1), these relative molar potencies indicate that from 58% to 64% of the circulating vitamin D activity is contributed by 25OHD. On the basis of the molar potencies of 25OHD and calcitriol and the serum concentrations of the two vitamin D metabolites, the circulating vitamin D activity is 68% in the elderly CHF patients and only 54% in the younger CHF patients compared with the control subjects. Moreover, intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> re-uptake into the sarcoplasmic reticulum is reduced in experimental vitamin D deficiency (33), which is obviously not mediated by calcitriol but probably by 25OHD (27). In addition, intracellular accumulation of phosphate by muscle might be directly increased by 25OHD (34), an effect that may be blunted in the case of low circulating 25OHD levels.

We cannot definitively rule out that diuretic therapy of CHF patients (Table 1) has contributed to the low serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels. A renal Ca<sup>2+</sup> leak should, however, result in an increased serum calcitriol level. Moreover, some case reports of patients with untreated rickets and with untreated osteomalacia suffering from heart failure (35-37) support our hypothesis that low serum levels of vitamin D metabolites might be an important cause of the reduced serum Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels and of the cardiac dysfunction. In these earlier case reports a rapid normalization of the hypocalcemia and cardiac symptoms was observed after therapy with Ca<sup>2+</sup> and vitamin D (metabolites), and in combination with the administration of diuretics such as furosemide and spironolactone (35-37). The inverse nonlinear correlation of 25OHD and calcitriol with NT-proANP (Fig. 3 and Results section) support our hypothesis that the severity of CHF is increased at low serum levels of vitamin D metabolites.

In Europe, circulating levels of 25OHD largely depend on exposure to ultraviolet (UV) light, namely UV B light (38). Normally, serum 25OHD decreases with age (36) because the capability of the skin to produce previtamin D after UV B irradiation declines with age (39). It is thus an unexpected finding that even in the younger CHF patients the vitamin D status is lower than in elderly controls. From the inclusion criteria of our study we can rule out an impaired liver function of the CHF patients (Methods

section). Possible explanations for the low circulating 25OHD levels may thus be a genetic abnormality of the hepatic 25-hydroxylase activity, an increased 25OHD catabolism, or an insufficient UV B exposure and/or inadequate dietary vitamin D intake. In this context, it may well be that a disease-related reduction in outdoor activity contributes to the low vitamin D status. Granted the pivotal role of an adequate vitamin D status for the systemic and myocardial Ca<sup>2+</sup> metabolism, the CHF patients might enter into a circulus vitiosus.

There is growing evidence that circulating 25OHD levels >40 ng/ml are necessary to achieve full physiologic vitamin D actions (40,41). The inverse association between NT-proANP and 25OHD in our study groups (Fig. 3) supports this earlier assumption. Not all subjects with relatively low 25OHD levels, however, had high NT-proANP levels (Fig. 3). Thus, additional factors might increase susceptibility to CHF.

Vitamin D acts through the highly specific vitamin D receptor. The mechanisms by which the receptor protein mediates the cellular vitamin D actions are a subject of intense research. In other vitamin-D-related diseases such as osteoporosis and diabetes mellitus, the genotype of the vitamin D receptor at the BmsI restriction site was associated with disease prevalence (20,42). There is, however, obviously no relationship between the vitamin D genotype at the BmsI restriction site and susceptibility to CHF (Table 3).

Our data of alterations in circulating vitamin D metabolites and in systemic mineral metabolism in CHF patients (Fig. 1 and Table 3) and the cellular alterations in Ca<sup>2+</sup> metabolism found by others (6) are very similar to those observed in essential hypertension (43). Therapy of hypertension has successfully been performed by increasing circulating 25OHD levels through UV B irradiation (44) or by oral vitamin D supplementation (45). Consequently, a clear rationale for interventional trials with vitamin D in combination with a Ca<sup>2+</sup> supplement in chronic CHF would exist.

In conclusion, this case-control study provides evidence for an association between a low vitamin D status and CHF severity. Moreover, data encourage future investigations on the relationship between vitamin D status and the early onset of CHF observed in the subgroup of young patients.

Reprint requests and correspondence: Dr. Armin Zittermann, Associate Professor, Department of Nutrition Science, University of Bonn, Endenicher Allee 11-13, 53115 Bonn, Germany. E-mail: a.zittermann@uni-bonn.de.

#### **REFERENCES**

- McKee PA, Castelli WP, McNamara PM, Kannel WB. The natural history of congestive heart failure: the Framingham study. N Engl J Med 1971;285:1441-6.
- McDonald TF, Pelzer S, Trautwein W, Pelzer DJ. Regulation and modulation of calcium channels in cardiac, skeletal, and smooth muscle cells. Physiol Rev 1994;74:365–507.

- Dargie HJ, McMurray JJ. Diagnosis and management of heart failure. Br Med J 1994;308:321–8.
- Statistisches Bundesamt. Statistisches Jahrbuch für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland 2000. Stuttgart: Metzler Poeschel Verlag, 2000:415–27.
- Krüger C, Erdmann E, Nabauer M, Beuckelmann DJ. Intracellular calcium handling in isolated ventricular myocytes from cardiomyopathic hamsters (strain BIO 14.6) with congestive heart failure. Cell Calcium 1994;16:500–8.
- Beuckelmann DJ, Näbauer M, Erdmann E. Intracellular calcium handling in isolated ventricular myocardium. Circulation 1992;85: 1046-55.
- Colucci WS, Wright RF, Braunwald E. New positive inotropic agents in the treatment of congestive heart failure. Mechanisms of action and recent clinical developments. N Engl J Med 1986;314:290–9.
- Kubo H, Margulies KB Piacentino V 3rd, Gaughan JP, Houser SR. Patients with end-stage congestive heart failure treated with betaadrenergic receptor antagonists have improved ventricular myocyte calcium regulatory protein abundance. Circulation 2001;104:1012–8.
- Shane E, Mancini D, Aaronson K, et al. Bone mass, vitamin D deficiency, and hyperparathyroidism in congestive heart failure. Am J Med 1997;103:197–207.
- Thomasset M, Parkes CO, Cuisinier-Gleizes P. Rat calcium-binding proteins: distribution, development, and vitamin D dependence. Am J Physiol 1982;243:E483–8.
- Simpson RU, Weishaar RE. Involvement of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 in regulating myocardial calcium metabolism: physiological and pathological actions. Cell Calcium 1988;9:285–92.
- 12. De Boland AR, Boland RL. Non-genomic signal transduction pathway of vitamin D in muscle. Cell Signal 1994;6:717-24.
- Weishaar RE, Simpson RU. Involvement of vitamin D3 with cardiovascular function. II. Direct and indirect effects. Am J Physiol 1987;253:E675–83.
- Hochhauser E, Barak J, Kushnir T, et al. Mechanical, biochemical, and structural effects of vitamin D deficiency on the chick heart. Angiology 1989;40:300-8.
- Wu J, Garami M, Cao L, Li Q, Gardner DG. 1,25(OH)2D3 suppresses expression and secretion of atrial natriuretic peptide from cardiac myocytes. Am J Physiol 1995;268:E1108–13.
- Lerman Á, Gibbons NJ, Rodeheffer RJ, et al. Circulating N-terminal atrial natriuretic peptide as a marker for symptomless left-ventricular dysfunction. Lancet 1993;341:1105–9.
- Nienaber C. Herzinsuffizienz. In: Baenkler HW, ed. Innere Medizin. Stuttgart: Hippokrates Verlag, 1999:96–114.
- Klausen T, Breum L, Sorensen HA, Schifter S, Sonne B. Plasma levels
  of parathyroid hormone, vitamin D, calcitonin, and calcium in
  association with endurance exercise. Calcif Tissue Int 1993;52:205–8.
- Cockroft DW, Gault MH. Prediction of creatinine clearance from serum creatinine. Nephron 1967;16:31–41.
- Morrison NA, Qi JC, Tokita A, et al. Prediction of bone density from vitamin D receptor alleles. Nature 1994;367:284–7.
- Lamberg-Allardt C. The relationship between serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels and other variables related to calcium and phosphorus metabolism in the elderly. Acta Endocrinol 1984;105:139–44.
- 22. Klitzner TS. Maturational changes in excitation-contraction coupling in mammalian myocardium. J Am Coll Cardiol 1991;17:218–25.
- Nemere I, Zhou LX, Norman AW. Nontranscriptional effects of steroid hormones. Receptor 1993;3:277–91.
- Santillan GE, Boland RL. Studies suggesting the participation of protein kinase A in 1, 25(OH)2-vitamin D3-dependent protein phosphorylation in cardiac muscle. J Mol Cell Cardiol 1998;30:225– 33.
- Marinissen MJ, Selles J, Boland R. Involvement of protein kinase C in 1,25(OH)2-vitamin D3 regulation of calcium uptake by cultured myocytes. Cell Signal 1994;6:531–8.
- Curry OB, Basten JF, Francis MJ, Smith R. Calcium uptake by sarcoplasmic reticulum of muscle from vitamin D-deficient rabbits. Nature 1974;249:83–4.
- Poiton JJ, Francis MJ, Smith R. Effect of vitamin D deficiency on sarcoplasmic reticulum function and troponin C concentration of rabbit skeletal muscle. Clin Sci 1979;57:257–63.
- Hasenfuβ G, Mulieri LA, Leavitt JB, et al. Alteration of contractile function and excitation—contraction coupling in dilated cardiomyopathy. Circ Res 1992;70:1225–32.

- Bouillon RA, Auwerx JH, Lissens WD, Pelemans WK. Vitamin D status in the elderly: seasonal substrate deficiency causes 1,25dihydroxycholecalciferol deficiency. Am J Clin Nutr 1987;45:755–63.
- Zittermann A, Scheld K, Stehle P. Seasonal variations in vitamin D status and calcium absorption do not influence bone turnover in young women. Eur J Clin Nutr 1998;52:501–6.
- Haug CJ, Aukrust P, Haug E, Morkrid L, Muller F, Froland SS. Severe deficiency of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 in human immunodeficiency virus infection: association with immunological hyperactivity and only minor changes in calcium homeostasis. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1998;83:3832–8.
- Selles J, Bellido T, Boland R. Modulation of calcium uptake in cultured cardiac muscle cells by 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3. J Mol Cell Cardiol 1994;26:1593–9.
- 33. Penpargkul S, Bhan A, Scheuer J. Studies of subcellular control factors in hearts of uremic rats. J Lab Clin Med 1976;88:563–70.
- 34. Birge SJ, Haddad JG. 25-Hydroxycholecalciferol stimulation of muscle metabolism. J Clin Invest 1975;56:1100-7.
- 35. Brunvand L, Haga P, Tangsrud SE, Haug E. Congestive heart failure caused by vitamin D deficiency? Acta Paediatr 1995;84:106–8.
- 36. Gillor A, Groneck P, Kaiser J, Schmitz-Stolbrink A. Congestive heart failure in rickets caused by vitamin D deficiency. Monatsschr Kinderheilk 1989;137:108–10 (in German).

- Avery PG, Arnold IR, Hubner PJ, Iqbal SJ. Cardiac failure secondary to hypocalcaemia of nutritional osteomalacia. Eur Heart J 1992;13: 426-7.
- 38. McKenna M. Differences in vitamin D status between countries in young adults and elderly. Am I Med 1992;93:69-77
- young adults and elderly. Am J Med 1992;93:69–77.
  39. MacLaughlin J, Holick MF. Aging decreases the capacity of human skin to produce vitamin D3. J Clin Invest 1985;76:1536–8.
- 40. Heaney RP. Vitamin D. How much do we need, and how much is too much? Osteoporos Int 2000;11:553–5.
- McKenna MJ, Freaney R. Secondary hyperparathyreodismus in the elderly: means to defining hypovitaminosis D. Osteoporos Int 1998; 8:S3-6.
- 42. Ortlepp JR, Lauscher J, Hoffmann R, Hanrath P, Joost HG. The vitamin D receptor gene variant is associated with the prevalence of type 2 diabetes and coronary artery disease. Diabet Med 2001;18: 842–5.
- 43. McCarron DA, Morris CD, Bukoski R. The calcium paradox of essential hypertension. Am J Med 1987;82:27–33.
- 44. Krause R, Bühring M, Hopfenmüller W, Holick MF, Sharma AM. Ultraviolet B light and blood pressure. Lancet 1988;352:709–10.
- 45. Pfeiffer M, Begerow B, Minne HW, Nachtigall D, Hansen C. Effects of a short-term vitamin D(3) and calcium supplementation on blood pressure and parathyroid hormone levels in elderly women. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86:1633–7.

# Low vitamin D status: a contributing factor in the pathogenesis of congestive heart failure?

Armin Zittermann, Stefanie Schulze Schleithoff, Gero Tenderich, Heiner K. Berthold, Reiner Körfer, and Peter Stehle *J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.* 2003;41;105-112

# This information is current as of October 29, 2010

Updated Information & Services	including high-resolution figures, can be found at: http://content.onlinejacc.org/cgi/content/full/41/1/105
References	This article cites 38 articles, 10 of which you can access for free at: http://content.onlinejacc.org/cgi/content/full/41/1/105#BIBL
Citations	This article has been cited by 53 HighWire-hosted articles: http://content.onlinejacc.org/cgi/content/full/41/1/105#otherart icles
Rights & Permissions	Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at: http://content.onlinejacc.org/misc/permissions.dtl
Reprints	Information about ordering reprints can be found online: http://content.onlinejacc.org/misc/reprints.dtl