Vitamin D Deficiency is Highly Prevalent in COPD and Correlates with Variants in the Vitamin D Binding Gene

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Abstract

Introduction: Vitamin D deficiency has been associated with many chronic illnesses, but little is known about its relation with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Objectives: We measured serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels (25-OHD) in 414 (ex)-smokers older than 50 years and assessed the link between vitamin D status and presence of COPD. The rs7041 and rs4588 variants in the vitamin D binding gene (GC) were genotyped and their effects on 25-OHD levels were tested. Results: In COPD patients 25-OHD levels correlated significantly with FEV1 (r = 0.28, p<0.0001). Compared to 31% of the smokers with normal lung function, as much as 60% and 77% of GOLD stage 3 and 4 patients exhibited deficient 25-OHD levels lower than 20ng/ml (p<0.0001). Additionally, 25-OHD levels were reduced by 25% in homozygous carriers of the rs7041 at-risk T-allele (p<0.0001). This correlation was found to be independent of COPD severity, smoking history, age, gender, body mass index, corticosteroid intake, seasonal variation and rs4588 (p<0.0001). Notably, 76% and 100% of GOLD stage 3 and 4 patients homozygous for the rs7041 T-allele, exhibited 25-OHD levels lower than 20ng/ml. Logistic regression corrected for age, gender and smoking history, further revealed that homozygous carriers of the rs7041 T-allele exhibited an increased risk for COPD (OR=2.11; 95% CI: 1.20-3.71; p=0.009). Conclusion: Vitamin D deficiency occurs frequently in COPD and correlates with severity of COPD. Our data warrant vitamin D supplementation in patients with severe COPD, especially in those carrying at-risk rs7041 variants.
Introduction

Deficiency of vitamin D is common and represents a major health problem. Early in life, vitamin D deficiency causes growth retardation and rickets, whereas in adults, it is well-known to accelerate osteopenia and osteoporosis. Accumulating evidence also links a low vitamin D nutritional status to highly prevalent chronic illnesses, including common cancers, autoimmune diseases, infectious and cardiovascular diseases.[1-3] Similar to other chronic diseases, we recently speculated that vitamin D deficiency might also be linked to chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD),[4] which by the year 2030, is expected to rank within the top 5 of chronic diseases in terms of global mortality and morbidity.[5]

Surprisingly, very few studies have assessed the relevance of vitamin D deficiency in COPD by measuring serum levels of 25-OHD, which is the principal circulating vitamin D metabolite and recognized as the best short-term biomarker of total exposure to vitamin D.[6] Forli and colleagues reported that in a small sample of advanced COPD patients awaiting lung transplantation, the majority suffered from vitamin D deficiency (25-OHD <20ng/ml).[7] Similarly, >50% of a community-dwelling COPD cohort of 250 patients exhibited insufficient 25-OHD levels.[8] Unfortunately, both studies failed to compare vitamin D status in COPD patients with those from an age, gender and smoking-matched control population. Such matched control population is, however, of crucial importance since insufficient or deficient vitamin D levels may also occur in up to 40 to 70% of the elderly in the US and Europe.[9-11]

As COPD patients mostly exhibit increased skin ageing induced by smoking and reduced sun exposure due to lower outdoor activity, reductions in vitamin D serum levels are generally perceived as a consequence, rather than a cause of COPD.[4] Intriguingly, however, epidemiological studies in healthy subjects have reported a strong relationship between 25-OHD serum levels and pulmonary function, as assessed by forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1) and forced vital capacity (FVC).[12] This suggests that vitamin D levels are not only
reduced as a consequence of COPD, but might also be important for pulmonary function in health and disease.[13] Interestingly, genetic variants in the vitamin D binding gene (GC) have also been linked to COPD risk. [14-17] However, these studies have remained somewhat controversial, mostly because only small COPD populations consisting of <100 COPD patients were examined and associations were not always replicated.[14-17] Recently, the rs7041 and rs4588 variants were found to determine circulating 25-OHD levels in 741 healthy premenopausal women, with decreasing concentrations for the less frequent alleles of the rs7041 and rs4588 variants.[18] Whereas seasonal variation was the most important explanatory variable of 25-OHD concentrations in this study, rs7041 and rs4588 explained 25-OHD variation as much as vitamin D food intake, calcium intake and body mass index,[19] thus indicating that their effect was considerably large and important.

In light of the emerging role of vitamin D deficiency in chronic disease and the novel insights on the functional effect of rs7041 and rs4588, we measured 25-OHD serum levels in an ambulatory population of 414 individuals not taking vitamin D supplements, consisting of COPD patients and healthy control subjects of similar age, gender distribution and smoking history. We first analyzed whether 25-OHD levels correlated with COPD and the severity thereof, and then performed a joint analysis of the rs7041 and rs4588 genotypes, 25-OHD serum levels and the risk of COPD.
Materials and methods

Patient population:
All 414 individuals were prospectively recruited at the University Hospital of Leuven (Belgium). Inclusion criteria were the following: a smoking history of at least 15 pack-years, a minimal age of 50 years and no oral supplementation with vitamin D. Patients with symptomatic COPD were recruited during their routine follow-up at the outpatient clinic in stable clinical condition, which means that they received stable treatment and had no exacerbation 6 weeks before study inclusion. Smoking controls with normal spirometry (post-bronchodilator forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV1) / forced vital capacity (FVC) ratio ≥ 0.7) as well as patients with early non-diagnosed COPD (postbronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio < 0.7) were participants of the Dutch-Belgian randomised lung cancer screening trial (NELSON).[20] In this trial, participants were recruited via population registries through mail. Only NELSON individuals recruited by the University Hospital of Leuven, and therefore derived from the same geographical and ethnical region as COPD patients, were included in this study. Subjects with suspicion or diagnosis of asthma were excluded as well as patients with other respiratory diseases affecting pulmonary function. From all consenting patients an extensive list of demographic variables (including age, gender, body mass index in kg/m²), a complete pulmonary function assessment and questionnaires determining smoking history was collected. The study was approved by the local ethics committee (Leuven, Belgium) and submitted to www.clinicaltrials.gov

Pulmonary function
All pulmonary function measurements were performed with standardized equipments (Whole Body Plethysmograph, Acertys, Belgium) according to ATS/ERS guidelines. Spirometric values were post-bronchodilator measurements and absolute values were expressed as percent predicted of reference values.[21] Presence of COPD was defined by post-bronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio < 0.7 and severity of disease was staged by FEV1 expressed as percent predicted according to the
latest GOLD classification.[22] Diffusing capacity of the lung was determined by the single
breath carbon monoxide gas transfer method (DLCO), corrected for alveolar ventilation (KCO)
and expressed as percent predicted of reference values.[23]

**Determination of 25-OHD serum levels:**

Serum total 25-OHD was measured in multiple batches by radioimmunoassay (DiaSorin,
Stillwater, MN) in all study participants, as previously described.[24] All 25-OHD samples were
measured in one laboratory, which takes part in, and meets the performance targets for the
Vitamin D external quality assessment scheme (DEQAS).[25] Total 25-OHD measures are mean
values of duplicate measures referred to appropriate positive controls. Levels are expressed in
ng/ml (conversion factor 2.5 for nmol/L) and reflect the vitamin D status, as represented by the
non-vertebral vitamin D$_2$ and vertebral vitamin D$_3$ status.

**DNA analysis:**

Peripheral blood was sampled in K2EDTA plastic vacutainer tubes, and after centrifugation
germline DNA was extracted from the precipitated leucocyte cell fraction according to standard
procedures. From 404 patients out of 414 (97%), germ-line DNA was obtained. All patients were
of Caucasian origin and self-reported Belgian-Flemish origin for three generations. Genotyping
for the rs7041 and rs4588 SNPs genetic variants was carried out at the Vesalius Research Institute
using the Sequenom iPLEX platform, as described by the manufacturer (Sequenom). Genotype
success rates for the rs7041 and rs4588 SNPs were 99.8%. No significant deviations from Hardy-
Weinberg were observed.

**Statistical analysis:**

All statistical analyses were performed by SAS version 9.1 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, NC). For all
tests two-sided p levels <0.05 were considered as statistical significant. Demographic, pulmonary
function and smoking characteristics in COPD patients and healthy controls were first assessed
for normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk normality test), and depending on their distribution
compared by standardized student t-test or Pearson’s Chi-squared test. Non-parametric data such as pack years, years quit smoking and age were analysed by Wilcoxon statistics. Differences in mean 25-OHD levels between COPD patients and controls over the different GOLD stages and between GC genotypes, were assessed by ANOVA after correction for testing multiple subgroups by the Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test. To assess determinants of 25-OHD serum in the COPD and healthy subgroups, a stepwise multivariate analysis was performed with FEV1 and KCO % predicted, age (log transferred) and body mass index (BMI) as continuous variables, and seasonal variation, gender, previous and current use of oral corticosteroids, current smoking status, rs7041 and rs4588 as categorical variables. Pack years were calculated as the number of years a patient had smoked 20 cigarettes per day. Quit years were the number of years a patient stopped smoking. Previous use of oral corticosteroids 3 months before inclusion, as well as the current use of oral corticosteroids in maintenance treatment was collected. Season of blood sampling was categorized in 3 four-month periods during which the vitamin D load by sun exposure is known to range from low (December to March) over intermediate (April, May, October, November) to high (June to September). The Pearson Chi-square test (1 degree of freedom or 1df) was also used to test for deviations from Hardy-Weinberg. Linkage disequilibrium strength was evaluated with r and Lewontin’s D’ statistic between rs7041 and rs4588. To test the association between rs7041 and rs4588 allelic variants with COPD, a standard Chi-square test (1df) was used. Logistic regression analysis with COPD as a response variable was used, while considering rs7041 as a dependent variable and correcting for age, gender, pack years, quit years and 25-OHD concentrations.
Results

Population characteristics

In total, 414 individuals were included. All baseline characteristics of these individuals are summarized in Table 1. 262 patients had COPD according to GOLD criteria, 152 individuals had a normal post-bronchodilator pulmonary function and were considered as controls. Both groups exhibited a similar gender distribution and an equal percentage of current smokers. However, COPD patients were slightly older and characterized by an increased number of pack years (p<0.001; Table 1).

Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>COPD patients (N=262)</th>
<th>Healthy smokers (N=152)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td>66 (60-72)</td>
<td>61 (58-65) *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (m/f)</td>
<td>215 / 49</td>
<td>120 / 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Mass Index (kg/m2)</td>
<td>25.3 ± 4.8</td>
<td>26.9 ± 4.1*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous steroids use n (%)</td>
<td>81 (31)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current steroids n (%)</td>
<td>35 (13)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current smoker n (%)</td>
<td>125 (47)</td>
<td>68 (44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years $^5$</td>
<td>47 (33-63)</td>
<td>39 (30-52) *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit years $^5$</td>
<td>1 (0-8)</td>
<td>2 (0-8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulmonary function Tests</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1, L</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.9</td>
<td>3.2 ± 0.8 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1, % predicted</td>
<td>61 ± 27</td>
<td>104 ± 15 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FVC, L</td>
<td>3.4 ± 1.0</td>
<td>4.1 ± 0.9 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FVC, % predicted</td>
<td>93 ± 22</td>
<td>110 ± 14 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLCO, % predicted</td>
<td>60 ± 21</td>
<td>85 ± 15 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCO, % predicted</td>
<td>78 ± 23</td>
<td>96 ±16 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-OHD (ng/ml)</td>
<td>19.9 ± 8.2</td>
<td>24.6 ± 8.7 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOLD class 1, n (%)</td>
<td>70 (27)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOLD class 2, n (%)</td>
<td>87 (33)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOLD class 3, n (%)</td>
<td>75 (29)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOLD class 4, n (%)</td>
<td>30 (11)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Legend:** Demographic, smoking and pulmonary function characteristics of COPD patients and smoking controls are shown. Data are expressed as numbers (group percentages in brackets) for categoric variables mean values ± standard deviation (SD) for continuous variables. When variables were not normally distributed, median values (Q1-Q3 interquartile range in brackets) are given instead (indicated by $). Significant p-values are indicated by an asterisk (*; p < 0.05).

**25-OHD levels correlate with COPD and severity of COPD**

Circulating 25-OHD serum levels were found to correlate significantly with FEV1 in the COPD subgroup (Pearson r = 0.28, p <0.0001; Figure 1a). There was no correlation with FEV1 in the subgroup of healthy smokers. Mean 25-OHD levels also differed significantly between COPD patients and healthy smokers (19.9±8.2 ng/ml in COPD patients versus 24.6±8.7 ng/ml in healthy smokers; p<0.0001). Although the mean 25-OHD levels in GOLD 1 (22.4 ng/ml) were not significantly different from the control population, average 25-OHD levels further decreased with increasing GOLD stage. Indeed, from GOLD 2 onwards, 25-OHD levels differed significantly from healthy smokers (20.35 ng/ml, 18.8 ng/ml, 16.0 ng/ml for GOLD 2, 3 and 4 respectively; p<0.0001; Figure 1b). Mean 25-OHD levels were almost 33% lower in COPD patients with GOLD 4 compared to healthy smokers (Figure 1b).

Stratification of all 414 participants into the 3 subgroups, i.e., participants deficient for vitamin D (<20ng/ml), participants with 25-OHD levels between 20 and 30ng/ml and participants with 25-OHD levels >30ng/ml, revealed that only 31% of the healthy smokers exhibited vitamin D deficiency, whereas respectively 39%, 47% and 60% of the patients with GOLD stage 1, 2 and 3, and as much as 77% of GOLD stage 4 patients, were deficient for vitamin D (Figure 1c). In addition, only 2.0% of the healthy controls compared to respectively 4.3%, 8.1%, 8.0% and 13.3% of the patients with a GOLD stage ranging from 1 to 4, was severely vitamin D deficient.
(<10ng/ml). Overall, these data clearly indicate that reduced 25-OHD levels are correlated with severity of COPD.

**Variants in the Vitamin D Binding (GC) gene determine 25-OHD levels**

Since 2 genetic variants in GC, i.e., rs7041 and rs4588, have been associated with 25-OHD levels in premenopausal women, we genotyped all study participants for both variants and stratified for COPD. In COPD patients, TT carriers for rs7041 and AA carriers for rs4588, were associated with significantly lower 25-OHD serum concentrations compared to homozygous carriers of the wild-type alleles (p<0.0001 and p=0.01, respectively; Table 2). Intermediate reductions in 25-OHD were noted for heterozygous carriers of the rs7041 allele and the rs4588 allele, but these did not reach the level of significance. In the control population, similar trends were seen with a significant reduction in 25-OHD levels detectable in rs7041 TT carriers when compared to wild-type GG carriers (p=0.03; Table 2).

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rs number</th>
<th>Genotype</th>
<th>Subjects N (%)</th>
<th>serum 25-OHD mean ± SD</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COPD</td>
<td>rs7041</td>
<td>GG 85 (34)</td>
<td>22.1 ± 7.8</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GT 108 (43)</td>
<td>20.0 ± 7.0</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TT 60 (23)</td>
<td>16.7 ± 7.2</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs4588</td>
<td>CC 128 (51)</td>
<td>21.0 ± 7.9</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CA 109 (43)</td>
<td>19.2 ± 7.0</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AA 16 (6)</td>
<td>15.6 ± 7.2</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls</td>
<td>rs7041</td>
<td>GG 54 (36)</td>
<td>26.3 ± 8.7</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GT 73 (49)</td>
<td>24.6 ± 9.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TT 23 (15)</td>
<td>20.9 ± 5.0</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs4588</td>
<td>CC 88 (59)</td>
<td>25.8 ± 8.8</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CA 49 (33)</td>
<td>23.8 ± 8.6</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AA 13 (8)</td>
<td>20.6 ± 4.6</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Legend: ANOVA Univariate analysis with a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test was performed to calculate the mean 25-OHD serum levels (ng/ml) stratified according to rs7041 and rs4588 genotypes in COPD patients (n=253) and controls (n=150). P values indicate significance of the genotypes relative to wild type genotypes.

Since many environmental and disease-associated factors may determine vitamin D status in healthy smokers or COPD patients, we used a step-wise multivariate analysis to assess whether rs7041 and rs4588 variants were independently associated with 25-OHD levels. We first assessed the effect of rs7041 and rs4588 in separate multivariate analyses. In the healthy smokers subgroup, both rs7041 and rs4588 were respectively associated with 25-OHD when correcting for age, gender, current smoking status, BMI and seasonal variation (p=0.02 and p=0.03; data not shown). A similar analysis in the subgroup of COPD patients revealed that rs7041 and rs4588 were also associated with 25-OHD concentrations (p=0.0001 and p=0.05; data not shown) after correction for age, gender, smoking status, BMI, seasonal variation, previous and current oral corticosteroid use, and severity of disease (both FEV1 and KCO expressed as % predicted). We then combined rs7041 and rs4588 in a single multivariate model and assessed whether their effects were independent from each other. In the COPD subgroup, rs7041 was still significantly associated to 25OHD levels (p<0.0001; Table 3), but the association between rs4588 and 25-OHD had disappeared. This is most likely due the fact that the linkage disequilibrium between these rs7041 and s4588 is almost complete (D’=1.00, r²=0.74). The rs4588 variant thus contributes with the same information to the multivariate model as the rs7041 variant. The latter can therefore be regarded as the major variant predicting 25-OHD levels.
Table 3:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variables</th>
<th>Parameter estimate (β) (95% CI)</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>15 (9.8 - 21)</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEV1, % predicted</td>
<td>0.087 (0.05 - 0.12)</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal Variation</td>
<td>1.9 (0.79 – 3.0)</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs7041 variant</td>
<td>-4.5 (-6.5 - -2.4)</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Mass Index</td>
<td>-0.27 (-0.47 - -0.07)</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCO, % predicted</td>
<td>0.043 (0.01 – 0.08)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: Stepwise multivariate analysis assessing the variance of serum 25-OHD levels in COPD. Only variables which contributed significantly to the variance of serum 25-OHD in COPD patients (n=252), are shown. Non-significant variables were removed from the model and are not shown. These include: current smoking, current and previous use of oral corticosteroids, age, gender and rs4588 variants.

Since FEV1 and the rs7041 variant were both independent predictors of reduced 25-OHD levels in COPD patients, we also related 25-OHD levels to the rs7041 variant after stratification for GOLD severity. TT-carriers for rs7041 with COPD were at a higher risk for being vitamin D deficient compared to GG and GT carriers (41/60 versus 94/193; p=0.008). Mean 25-OHD levels in TT-carriers for rs7041 decreased significantly with increasing GOLD stage: 19.5±7.2 ng/ml, 17.9±7.9 ng/ml, 15.3±6.4 ng/ml, 10.9±2.7 ng/ml, for GOLD stage 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively (p=0.03). Strikingly, in GOLD stage 3 to 4, as much as 73% and 100% of the homozygous carriers were found to be vitamin D deficient (data not shown).
The rs7041 variant in GC increases the risk for COPD

Since 25-OHD levels are reduced in COPD patients and since the rs7041 variant determined 25-OHD levels independently of COPD severity, we assessed whether rs7041 may also constitute a genetic risk for COPD. Homozygosity for the rs7041 T-allele increased the risk for COPD significantly in a Chi-square analysis (23/150 versus 60/253; p=0.04). A logistic regression analysis correcting for age, gender and history of smoking, also revealed that homozygous carriers of the rs7041 T-allele exhibited a significant increased risk for COPD (OR=2.11; 95% CI: 1.20-3.71; p=0.009; Table 4). Heterozygous carriers of a single at-risk rs7041 T-allele did not exhibit an increased risk, which is consistent with the much weaker association of heterozygous rs7041 carriers with reduced 25-OHD levels. In agreement with the observation that rs4588 was not an independent determinant of 25-OHD levels, there was also no association with the rs4588 variant and the risk for COPD (data not shown). Intriguingly, when correcting the logistic regression model for 25-OHD levels, homozygosity for the rs7041 risk variant was also no longer a significant predictor of COPD. Furthermore, logistic regression allowing for an interaction between rs7041 and pack years, smoke years, quit years, BMI and seasonal variation, failed to reveal any significant interaction (not shown). Overall, this suggests that the rs7041 variant, through its association with reduced 25-OHD levels, was correlated with the presence of COPD.
**Table 4:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Risk of COPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model without 25-OHD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model with 25-OHD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Odds ratio (CI) P-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-OHD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.10 (1.06 – 1.13) &lt;0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack years</td>
<td>1.02 (1.01 – 1.03) 0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rs7041</td>
<td>2.11 (1.20 – 3.71) 0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit years</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Legend:** Binary logistic regression analysis to assess the association between presence or absence of COPD and the rs7041 genetic variant (under a recessive model of inheritance) (n=403). A model without 25-OHD (ng/ml) as an explanatory variable is compared with a model, in which 25-OHD was included. Non-significant covariates Quit years, Gender and rs7041 (in model with 25-OHD) are listed in the table but not included in the final represented model.
Discussion

This study demonstrates that vitamin D deficiency, as assessed by 25-OHD levels in serum, is common in COPD patients and correlates with the severity of disease as measured by FEV1. In a large cohort, we show that COPD patients are more likely to suffer from vitamin D deficiency than matched healthy smokers. Indeed, a non-significant trend towards reduced 25-OHD levels was already apparent in GOLD 1 and 25-OHD levels further decreased significantly from GOLD 2 onwards resulting in vitamin D deficiency in the majority of severe COPD patients. Comparable findings were found in a population-based study the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES; cross-sectional survey on 14091 healthy US civilians over 20 years of age).[12] After adjustment for potential confounders, a strong relationship between serum levels of 25-OHD and pulmonary function, as assessed by FEV1 and FVC, was found in this study. Although the authors did not report a significant correlation with COPD, the association between FEV1 and 25-OHD levels tended to be slightly stronger in the smoking subgroup. Our current data therefore extend the population-based inverse association between FEV1 and 25-OHD levels from NHANES to a cohort of COPD patients and most importantly establish that a significant subgroup of COPD patients is deficient for vitamin D.

Although there is no consensus regarding the optimal 25-OHD serum levels, vitamin D deficiency is by most experts defined as a 25-OHD level <20ng/ml. Levels below this threshold are experienced by the parathyroids as being insufficient.[26] Since vitamin D deficiency increases the risk for osteoporosis and osteoporotic fractures, vitamin D supplementation, at least to levels higher than 20ng/ml, should be strongly considered for all patients suffering from vitamin D deficiency to prevent osteoporosis.[27] As un-substituted patients in GOLD 3 and GOLD 4 were vitamin D deficient in more than 60 to 77% of cases, standard vitamin D supplementation without routine measurement of 25-OHD levels might be considered appropriate in these patients. When vitamin D supplementation would be also considered for its beneficial
anti-inflammatory, anti-infectious and muscular enforcing effects,[3,28,29] one would have to speculate about the ideal target range of 25-OHD levels. Several experts have suggested that much higher levels than 20ng/ml might be needed.[30] If true, the vast majority of our patients would then become amendable for intervention.

Vitamin D status measured by circulating 25-OHD reflects the dynamic equilibrium between vitamin D synthesis in the skin by sun exposure, vitamin D intake by food or dietary supplements and vitamin D degradation by catabolising enzymes. Up to 99 % of 25-OHD is bound to plasma proteins, of which more than 90% to the specific vitamin D binding protein (DBP).[31] COPD patients can be considered at high risk for vitamin D deficiency because they are more prone to skin ageing (due to smoking), exhibit reduced outdoor activity and reduced food intake, and are often treated with corticosteroids, which increases vitamin D catabolism.[3] As such, vitamin D deficiency should be regarded as the consequence of COPD and more severe types of COPD would be expected to have more severe reductions in vitamin D. Multivariate analysis in our COPD group indeed demonstrated that 25-OHD levels are not only determined by oral substitution, seasonal variation and body mass index, but also by FEV1 and diffusion capacity, which are reflecting the severity and duration of the disease. However, after adjustment for FEV1 and diffusion capacity, we found that genetic variants in GC still correlated significantly with 25-OHD levels. Similar associations have recently been shown in premenopausal women, in which the rs7041 and rs4588 polymorphisms were associated with reduced 25-OHD levels after correction for leisure time physical activity (as surrogate for sun-exposure), calcium/vitamin D intake and education.[18] Compared to pre- and post-menopausal women,[18,32] our study predominantly evaluated men of older age, whose 25-OHD levels were far more reduced, indicating that the observed association was population-independent. Overall, this indicates that patients with COPD, especially those who carry two T-alleles of the rs7041 variant, were at high risk for vitamin D deficiency. An important question is whether oral vitamin
D supplementation will work for patients with such a genetic defect in GC. A recent study revealed that vitamin D supplementation in homozygous carriers of the rs4588 A-allele, which are in near complete linkage with the at-risk T-allele of rs7041, resulted in large increases of 25-OHD levels.[33] These data suggest that TT carriers of the rs7041 variant are indeed sensitive to vitamin D supplementation.

Epidemiological and mechanistic evidence in humans indicates that vitamin D deficiency is associated with many chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular disease, auto-immune disease, cancer and chronic infections.[1,3] Many of these diseases are also considered to be comorbidities of COPD. Possibly, chronically reduced 25-OHD serum levels in COPD patients may negatively affect these co-morbidities, once COPD is established, thereby promoting disease progression.[4] However, evidence is also indicating that vitamin D may causally contribute to different chronic disorders.[34,35] Moreover, given the population-based association between vitamin D deficiency and incidence of upper respiratory tract infections in healthy individuals,[36] and given its association with asthma severity in childhood,[37] it is tempting to consider vitamin D deficiency also as a risk factor for COPD by dysregulation of adaptive and innate immunity. In our sample we found that the percentage of patients carrying 2 at-risk rs7041 alleles significantly increased from 15% in the control group to 24% in COPD patients. The association between the risk rs7041 alleles and COPD was more pronounced after adjustment for other risk factors of COPD. When corrected for 25-OHD levels however, it was no longer significant, suggesting that the risk effect of rs7041 was determined by reduced 25-OHD levels.

Our population is a homogeneous selected patient cohort which is limiting the general applicability of the data. Genetic replication studies, involving genome-wide analyses and population-based sample cohorts are needed to confirm the association of rs7041 with the risk for COPD.[38-40] Furthermore, since the observed association between GC genetic variants and COPD does not prove causality between vitamin D deficiency and COPD, population-based
prospective follow-up studies[39] and placebo-controlled intervention studies,[4] which have a proper design to do so, should be conducted. Obviously, it is important to assess this, since vitamin D supplementation could represent an attractive therapeutic option to prevent disease progression, well before the consequences of COPD and ageing further reduce 25-OHD levels.
Legends to the figures:

Figure 1:

25-OHD serum levels plotted in function of the FEV1 levels (% predicted FEV1 was used). The Pearson's coefficient of determination was calculated as indicated (1a). Plot showing 25-OHD levels according to the various GOLD stages. An ANOVA Univariate test followed by a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc for testing multiple groups was used to calculate significances. Asterisks indicate p<0.0001 (1b). Percentage of patients having 25-OHD levels > 30 ng/ml (white), serum levels between 30 ng/ml and 20 ng/ml (grey), and deficient serum levels < 20ng/ml (black) (1c).

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Figure 1: Scatter plot showing the correlation between 25-OHD levels (ng/ml) and FEV1 (% pred). The Pearson correlation coefficient is $r = 0.28$ with a p-value of $<0.0001$.

Figure 2: Bar chart comparing 25-OHD levels (ng/ml) across different smoking groups. The significance levels are indicated by asterisks: * $P < 0.0001$. The legend indicates Healthy smoker, GOLD 1, GOLD 2, GOLD 3, and GOLD 4.
Vitamin D Deficiency is Highly Prevalent in COPD and Correlates with Variants in the Vitamin D Binding Gene.

Wim Janssens, Roger Bouillon, Bart Claes, Claudia Carremans, An Lehouck, Ian Buysschaert, Johan Coolen, Chantal Mathieu, Marc Decramer and Diether Lambrechts

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