

Should the Concentration of Vitamin D Be Measured in All Patients With Hypertension?

Angela Boldo, MD;^{1*} Patrick Campbell, MD;^{1*} Pooja Luthra, MD;²
William B. White, MD¹

The importance of vitamin D in a variety of health areas has led to increased interest about the prevalence, etiologies, and associated morbidities of hypovitaminosis D. The role of vitamin D in absorption of calcium and bone health is well known, but recent data support additional effects on the immune system, cancer, neuromuscular function, and cardiovascular system, including hypertension.^{1,2} Vitamin D is converted to 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25-OH D) in the liver and then again to 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D (1,25-OH D) in the kidney. While 1,25-OH D is the biologically active form of vitamin D, 25-OH D is considered the best indicator of vitamin D status in the body because it circulates in a higher concentration, has a long half-life, and is the substrate for 1,25-OH D production.¹

There are several etiologies of vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency (Table). The lack of UV-B radiation from sunlight is the most common reason for vitamin D deficiency—northern latitudes, the winter

season, sun protection factors (SPFs) in lotions to prevent skin exposure to the sun all contribute to this form of vitamin D deficiency or insufficiency. The most common biochemical definition of vitamin D deficiency is a 25-OH D level <20 ng/mL (50 nmol/L), while levels from 21 ng/mL to 29 ng/mL are considered insufficiency.³ Surveys show that large minorities (40%–45%) of elderly Americans and approximately 50% of postmenopausal women in America are deficient or insufficient in vitamin D.⁴ Prevalence rates go up with increasing age due to lesser quantities of the vitamin D precursor in the skin, 7-dehydrocholesterol, and in populations with high levels of melanin in the skin (eg, African Americans and dark-skinned Hispanic populations) since melanin also impairs the absorption of UV-B radiation (Table).

VITAMIN D AND CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE

Vitamin D deficiency is associated with diabetes, obesity, metabolic syndrome, and hypertension.⁵ In addition, low 25-OH D levels (<15–20 ng/mL) have been associated with the development of hypertension⁶ and cardiovascular events.⁷ In the Framingham Offspring Study, participants followed for a median interval of 5.4 years demonstrated a higher relative risk for a cardiovascular event with lower vitamin D levels (Figure 1). The risk of an event increased by 2.13 in patients with hypertension with 25-OH D levels <15 ng/mL.⁷ It is impressive that the general risk for cardiovascular disease associated with vitamin D deficiency is comparable to the Framingham-derived risk ratios if the patient has the metabolic syndrome (relative

From the Division of Hypertension Clinical Pharmacology, Pat and Jim Calhoun Cardiology Center;¹ and the Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, University of Connecticut School of Medicine,² Farmington, CT

Address for correspondence:

*William B. White, MD, Hypertension and Clinical Pharmacology, Pat and Jim Calhoun Cardiology Center, University of Connecticut School of Medicine, 263 Farmington Avenue, Farmington, CT 06030-3940
E-mail: wwhite@nso1.uhc.edu*

Manuscript received October 7, 2009; accepted October 31, 2009

doi: 10.1111/j.1751-7176.2009.00246.x



Table. Common Causes of Vitamin D Deficiency	
CAUSE	REASON
Age	Reduction in precursor of vitamin D (7-dehydrocholesterol) in skin; particularly in individuals >70 y
Chronic liver disease	Impaired hydroxylation to 25-hydroxyvitamin D
Chronic renal disease	Impaired hydroxylation to 1,25-dihydroxy-vitamin D
Malabsorption	Reduced bioavailability of vitamin D
Obesity	Increased confiscation of vitamin D in body fat cells
Reduction in UV light	UV-B radiation is required for conversion of 7-dehydrocholesterol to vitamin D ₃ in skin; associated with northern latitudes and winter season
Skin pigments (melanin)	Melanin absorbs UV-B radiation (important in dark-skinned ethnicities)
Sunscreens (sun protection)	Absorbs UV-B radiation factor 30 or higher

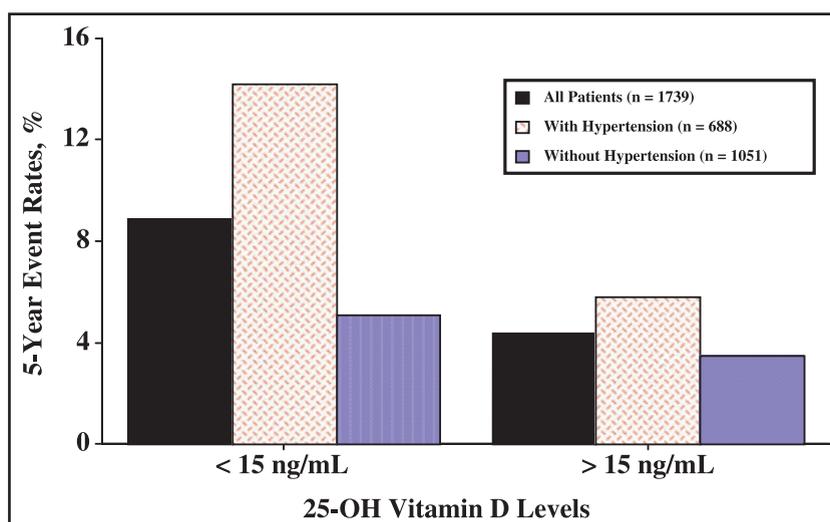


Figure 1. Five-year cardiovascular event rates (%) according to varying levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D in the Framingham Offspring Study. Rates were adjusted for age and sex and grouped according to the presence or absence of hypertension. Modified with permission from Wang et al.⁷

risk [RR], 2.1), hypertension (RR, 1.7), dyslipidemia (RR, 1.8), increased fibrinogen levels (RR, 2.42), and homocysteinemia (RR, 1.6).⁸⁻¹¹

VITAMIN D AND HYPERTENSION Epidemiologic Association Between Vitamin D Deficiency and Hypertension

Data from the INTERSALT study suggest that a rise in blood pressure (BP) is proportional to distance from the equator,¹² while seasonal variations in BP have also been reported in temperate climates.¹³ Population studies have shown an inverse relationship between vitamin D levels and hypertension, with increasing incidence of hypertension as vitamin D levels decrease.^{6,14} The largest database is from Forman and colleagues⁶ using 117,730 patients from the Health Professionals Follow-Up Study and the Nurse's Health Studies in which there was a median follow-up period of 4 years for

the development of incident hypertension. When comparing those individuals whose 25-OH D levels were <15 ng/mL vs those >30 ng/mL, the relative risk of developing hypertension was 3.18, with a marked sex difference (6.13 in men and 2.67 in women). Hence, a significant inverse relationship exists between vitamin D and development of hypertension.

Pathophysiologic Association of Vitamin D and BP

Vitamin D receptors are ubiquitous in the human body, including juxtaglomerular cells in the kidney, leukocytes, cardiac myocytes, and vascular smooth muscle cells.⁴ The wide distribution of vitamin D receptors and the 1-alpha-hydroxylase enzyme, which converts 25-OH D to the physiologically active 1,25-hydroxy vitamin D, suggest widespread action of vitamin D on tissue beyond calcium

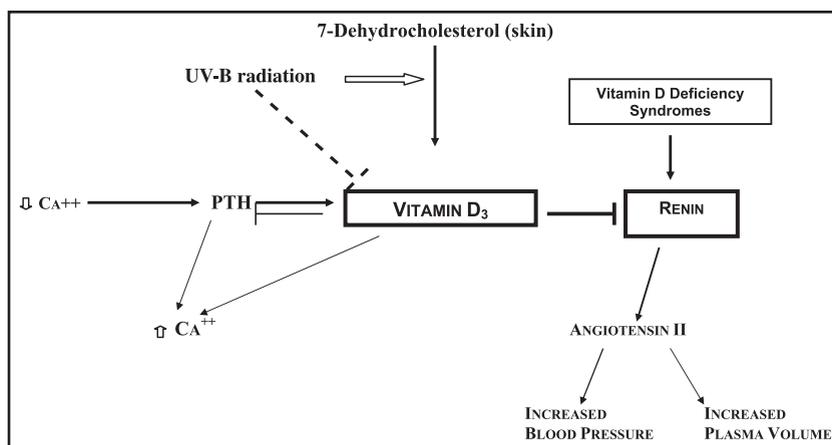


Figure 2. Schema for the relations among vitamin D, vitamin D deficiency, the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, and hypertension.

homeostasis. Li and colleagues^{15,16} have demonstrated that vitamin D deficient (vitamin D receptor-null) mice have plasma renin and angiotensin II levels that are 2.5 times higher than wild-type mice and developed hypertension and cardiac hypertrophy. Subsequent experiments revealed that vitamin D directly suppresses renin synthesis by reduction in renin mRNA transcription in the kidney.¹⁶ In addition, a recent study by Kong and coworkers¹⁷ using transgenic mice with human vitamin D receptor-positive renin-producing cells showed that vitamin D suppressed renin expression by 30%. This suppression was also independent of calcium and parathyroid hormone levels. Hence, a fairly strong link exists between the interplay of vitamin D and suppression of renin release as well as activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system with the deficiency of vitamin D (Figure 2).

Animal studies have shown that 1,25-OH vitamin D improves endothelial dysfunction and reduces endothelial-derived contracting factors in the aorta¹⁸ and may be related to the direct binding of vitamin D to vascular endothelial growth factor promoter sites.¹⁹ There is evidence that vitamin D directly inhibits the proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells by altering epidermal growth factor receptor function²⁰ that may lead to dysfunction of the arterial media with reduced vascular compliance.

Clinical studies have shown that increasing 25-OH D levels in patients with diabetes improves flow-mediated dilation.²¹ Data from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III)⁵ revealed that increases in 25-OH D levels from the range of 6 ng/mL to 28 ng/mL was associated with a reduction in pulse pressure by nearly 4 mm Hg in patients older than 50 years. These various types of basic and clinical evidence suggest

that vitamin D may be associated with reductions in BP through improvement in arterial compliance.

Treatment Effects

There are few intervention studies that have assessed the relationship between vitamin D replacement and changes in BP.²²⁻²⁴ In an interesting study by Krause and colleagues,²² the use of thrice weekly UV-B radiation, but not UV-A radiation, increased 25-OH D levels by 162% and decreased the 24-hour mean BP by an average of 6/6 mm Hg. In the only double-blind randomized trial that has evaluated the effects of vitamin D on BP, Pfeifer and colleagues²³ evaluated the effects of 8 weeks of oral calcium administration compared with oral calcium plus vitamin D₃ (800 IU) on clinic BP in 145 women older than 70 years. Women with stage 1 systolic hypertension randomized to calcium alone had a decrease in BP of 5.7/6.9 mm Hg while those receiving calcium plus vitamin D fell by 13.1/7.2 mm Hg. Patients receiving vitamin D showed a rise in 25-OH D levels from 25.6 nmol/mL to 64.8 nmol/mL.²³ In contrast, an 18-week placebo-controlled study evaluating 1-alpha hydroxyvitamin D showed no changes in BP in 39 patients with stage 1 diastolic hypertension; however, this patient population was not necessarily vitamin D-deficient at baseline.

CONCLUSIONS

With mounting evidence indicating the direct effect of vitamin D on the vascular smooth muscle cell, endothelial function, and the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, it is clear that randomized trials of vitamin D replacement and renin and angiotensin inhibition in patients with hypertension and vitamin D deficiency are warranted. Preliminary

research has shown an inverse relationship between BP and vitamin D levels, and supplementation appears promising. To that end, we have just initiated a randomized clinical trial evaluating the effects of vitamin D and/or a renin inhibitor on ambulatory and clinic BP in vitamin D-deficient patients with hypertension (clinical trials.gov identifier NCT00974922).

The high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency, particularly in northern latitudes and during the winter months, supports determining 25-OH D levels in patients with hypertension and supplementation provided to those whose levels are <30 ng/mL. It is noteworthy that recommended 25-OH D levels of >30 ng/mL (75 nmol/L) are unlikely to be achieved with the previous recommendation of 200 IU for younger persons and 600 IU of vitamin D for older adults.³ Doses of vitamin D₃ from 1000 IU to 2000 IU daily are often required.^{4,25} For every 100 IU of vitamin D ingested, the levels in patients with vitamin D deficiency should increase by 1 ng/mL.⁴ Therefore, to bring most of the adult population to levels >30 ng/mL, vitamin D supplementation of 1000 IU would be required in most persons, but even doses as high as 4000 IU are safe for short-term “loading” and would bring about 90% of the population to levels >30 ng/mL within a few weeks.

*Acknowledgments and disclosures: *Drs Boldo and Campbell contributed equally in the first authorship. This work was supported by funding from the National Institutes of Health (R01 DA024667-01), the Catherine and Patrick Weldon Donaghe Foundation (West Hartford, CT), and an independent investigator research program (IIRP 899) from Novartis Pharmaceuticals Inc (East Hanover, NJ). Dr White has research funding from the National Institutes of Health and Novartis Pharmaceuticals Inc. Dr White is or has been (past 12 months) a medical or safety consultant for Abbott Laboratories, Astellas, Boehringer-Ingelheim, Gilead, Nycomed, Roche, Takeda Global Research and Development, and Teva Neurosciences. Dr Luthra has research funding from Novartis Pharmaceutical Inc.*

REFERENCES

- 1 Holick MF. Sunlight and vitamin D for bone health and prevention of autoimmune diseases, cancers, and cardiovascular disease. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2004;80(6 suppl):1678S–1688S.
- 2 Giovannucci E. Vitamin D and cancer incidence in the Harvard cohorts. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2009;19:84–88.
- 3 Bischoff-Ferrari HA. Optimal serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels for multiple health outcomes. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* 2008;624:55–71.
- 4 Holick MF. Vitamin D deficiency. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357:266–281.
- 5 Martins D, Wolf M, Pan D, et al. Prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors and the serum levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D in the United States: data from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *Arch Intern Med.* 2007;167:1159–1165.

- 6 Forman JP, Giovannucci E, Holmes MD, et al. Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels and risk of incident hypertension. *Hypertension.* 2007;49:1063–1069.
- 7 Wang TJ, Pencina MJ, Booth SL, et al. Vitamin D deficiency and risk of cardiovascular disease. *Circulation.* 2008;117:503–511.
- 8 Thorn LM, Forsblom C, Wadèn J, et al. Metabolic syndrome as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease, mortality, and progression of diabetic nephropathy in type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2009;32:950–952.
- 9 Wilson PW, D’Agostino RB, Levy D, et al. Prediction of coronary heart disease using risk factor categories. *Circulation.* 1998;97:1837–1847.
- 10 Danesh J, Lewington S, Thompson SG, et al. Plasma fibrinogen level and the risk of major cardiovascular diseases and nonvascular mortality: an individual participant meta-analysis. *JAMA.* 2005;294:1799–1809.
- 11 Boushey CJ, Beresford SA, Omenn GS, et al. A quantitative assessment of plasma homocysteine as a risk factor for vascular disease. Probable benefits of increasing folic acid intakes. *JAMA.* 1995;274:1049–1057.
- 12 Rostand SG. Ultraviolet light may contribute to geographic and racial blood pressure differences. *Hypertension.* 1997;30(2 Pt 1):150–156.
- 13 Kunes J, Tremblay J, Bellavance F, et al. Influence of environmental temperature on the blood pressure of hypertensive patients in Montreal. *Am J Hypertens.* 1991;4(5 Pt 1):422–426.
- 14 Scragg R, Sowers MF, Bell C. Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D, ethnicity and blood pressure in the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *Am J Hypertens.* 2007;20:713–719.
- 15 Li YC, Qiao G, Uskokovic M, et al. Vitamin D: a negative endocrine regulator of the renin-angiotensin system and blood pressure. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 2004;89–90:387–392.
- 16 Li YC, Kong J, Wei M, et al. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ is a negative endocrine regulator of the renin-angiotensin system. *J Clin Invest.* 2002;110:229–238.
- 17 Kong J, Qiao G, Zhang Z, et al. Targeted vitamin D receptor expression in juxtaglomerular cells suppresses renin expression independent of parathyroid hormone and calcium. *Kidney Int.* 2008;74:1577–1581.
- 18 Wong MS, Delansorne R, Man RY, et al. Vitamin D derivatives acutely reduce endothelium-dependent contractions in the aorta of the spontaneously hypertensive rat. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol.* 2008;295:H289–H296.
- 19 Cardus A, Panizo S, Encinas M, et al. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ regulates VEGF production through a vitamin D response element in the VEGF promoter. *Atherosclerosis.* 2009;204:85–89.
- 20 Carthy EP, Yamashita W, Hsu A, et al. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ and rat vascular smooth muscle cell growth. *Hypertension.* 1989;13:954–959.
- 21 Sugden JA, Davies JJ, Witham MD, et al. Vitamin D improves endothelial function in patients with Type 2 diabetes mellitus and low vitamin D levels. *Diabet Med.* 2008;25:320–325.
- 22 Krause R, Bühring M, Hopfenmüller W, et al. Ultraviolet B and blood pressure. *Lancet.* 1998;352:709–710.
- 23 Pfeifer M, Begerow B, Minne HW, et al. 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;86:1633–1637.
- 24 Lind L, Wengle B, Wide L, et al. Reduction of blood pressure during long-term treatment with active vitamin D (al-phacalcidol) is dependent on plasma renin activity and calcium status: a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Am J Hypertens.* 1989;2:20–25.
- 25 Holick MF. MrOs is D-ficient. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2009;94:1092–1093.