

4. Foote JW, Hinks LJ. Zinc absorption in haemodialysis patients. *Ann Clin Biochem* 1988; 25: 398–402
5. Batista MN, Cuppari L, de Fátima Campos Pedrosa L *et al.* Effect of end-stage renal disease and diabetes on zinc and copper status. *Biol Trace Elem Res* 2006; 112: 1–12
6. Szipanowska-Wohn A, Kolarzyk E, Chowaniec E. Estimation of intake of zinc, copper and iron in the diet of patients with chronic renal failure treated by haemodialysis. *Biol Trace Elem Res* 2008; 124: 97–102
7. Lee SH, Huang JW, Hung KY *et al.* Trace metals' abnormalities in haemodialysis patients: relationship with medications. *Artif Organs* 2000; 24: 841–844
8. Pehlivan E, Altun T. Ion-exchange of Pb²⁺, Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺, Cd²⁺, and Ni²⁺ ions from aqueous solution by Lewatit CNP 80. *J Hazard Mater* 2007; 140: 299–307
9. Takagi K, Masuda K, Yamazaki M *et al.* Metal ion and vitamin adsorption profiles of phosphate binder ion-exchange resins. *Clin Nephrol* 2010; 73: 30–35
10. Rounis E, Laing CM, Davenport A. Acute neurological presentation due to copper deficiency in a haemodialysis patient following gastric bypass surgery. *Clin Nephrol* 2010; In press
11. Davenport A. Low molecular weight heparin for routine haemodialysis. *Hemodial Int* 2008; 12: S34–S37
12. Davenport A, Newton KE, Toothill C *et al.* The effect of aluminium mobilisation following successful renal Allograft transplantation on the increase in haemoglobin during the first six months after transplantation. *Kidney Int* 1993; 43: 1313–1318
13. Bellia JP, Newton KE, Davenport A *et al.* Silicon and aluminium and their inter-relationship in serum and urine after renal transplantation. *Eur J Clin Invest* 1994; 24: 703–710
14. Morey B, Walker R, Davenport A. More dietetic time, better outcome? A randomized prospective study investigating the effect of more dietetic time on phosphate control in end-stage kidney failure haemodialysis patients. *Nephron Clin Pract* 2008; 109: c173–c180
15. Davenport A, Gardner C, Delaney M. Pan Thames Renal Audit Group. The effect of dialysis modality on phosphate control: haemodialysis compared to haemodiafiltration. The Pan Thames Renal Audit. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2010; 25: 897–901
16. Davenport A, Gardner C, Delaney M. Pan Thames Renal Audit. Do differences in dialysis prescription impact on KDOQI bone mineral targets? The PanThames Renal Audit Group. *Blood Purif* 2010; 30: 111–117
17. Shantouf R, Budoff MJ, Ahmadi N *et al.* Effects of sevelamer and calcium-based phosphate binders on lipid and inflammatory markers in haemodialysis patients. *Am J Nephrol* 2008; 28: 275–279
18. Delmez J, Block G, Robertson J *et al.* A randomized, double-blind, crossover design study of sevelamer hydrochloride and sevelamer carbonate in patients on haemodialysis. *Clin Nephrol* 2007; 68: 386–391
19. Davenport A, Murcutt G, Whiting S. Cross-sectional audit of blood lead levels in regular outpatient haemodialysis patients dialysing in north London. *Nephrology (Carlton)* 2009; 14: 476–481
20. Spada PL, Rossi C, Alimonti A *et al.* Iron, zinc and aluminium ferritin content of hemodialysis hyperferritinemic patients: comparison with other hyperferritinemic clinical conditions and normoferritinemic blood donors. *Clin Biochem* 2009; 42: 1654–1657
21. Cole CR, Grant FK, Swaby-Ellis ED *et al.* Zinc and iron deficiency and their interrelations in low-income African American and Hispanic children in Atlanta. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2010; 91: 1027–1034
22. Davenport A. Intradialytic complications during hemodialysis. *Haemodial Int* 2006; 10: 162–167
23. Davenport A, Williams PS, Roberts NB *et al.* Sepsis: a cause of aluminum release from tissue stores associated with acute neurological dysfunction and mortality. *Clin Nephrol* 1988; 30: 48–51
24. Laclaustra M, Stranges S, Navas-Acien A *et al.* Serum selenium and serum lipids in US adults: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2003–2004. *Atherosclerosis* 2010; 210: 643–648
25. Stranges S, Laclaustra M, Ji C *et al.* Higher selenium status is associated with adverse blood lipid profile in British adults. *J Nutr* 2010; 140: 81–87

Received for publication: 14.5.10; Accepted in revised form: 2.8.10

Nephrol Dial Transplant (2011) 26: 1010–1015

doi: 10.1093/ndt/gfq491

Advance Access publication 13 August 2010

The link between bone and coronary calcifications in CKD-5 patients on haemodialysis

Gulay Asci¹, Ercan Ok¹, Recep Savas¹, Mehmet Ozkahya¹, Soner Duman¹, Huseyin Toz¹, Meral Kayikcioglu¹, Adam J. Branscum², Marie-Claude Monier-Faugere³, Johann Herberth³ and Hartmut H. Malluche³

¹Division of Nephrology, Department of Radiology and Cardiology, School of Medicine, Ege University, Izmir, Turkey, ²Departments of Biostatistics, Statistics and Epidemiology, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY, USA and ³Division of Nephrology, Bone and Mineral Metabolism, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY, USA

Correspondence and offprint requests to: Hartmut H. Malluche; E-mail: hmall@uky.edu

Abstract

Background. Vascular calcifications are frequent in Stage 5 chronic kidney disease (CKD-5) patients receiving

haemodialysis. The current study was designed to evaluate the associations between bone turnover/volume and coronary artery calcifications (CAC).

Methods. In 207 CKD-5 patients, bone biopsies, multi-slice computed tomography of the coronary arteries and blood drawings for relevant biochemical parameters were done. The large number of CKD-5 patients enrolled allowed separate evaluation of patients with CAC *versus* patients without CAC and adjustment for traditional and non-traditional risk factors for CAC.

Results. When all patients were analysed, associations were found between CAC and bone turnover, bone volume, age, gender and dialysis vintage. When only patients with CAC were included, there was a U-shaped relationship between CAC and bone turnover, whilst the association with bone volume was lost. In these patients, the relationship of CAC with age, gender and dialysis vintage remained.

Conclusions. Beyond the non-modifiable risk factors of age, gender and dialysis vintage, these data show that bone abnormalities of renal osteodystrophy amenable to treatment should be considered in the management of patients with CAC.

Keywords: bone turnover; bone volume; coronary calcifications; dialysis; renal osteodystrophy

Introduction

Abnormalities in bone and mineral metabolism are common complications in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients [1]. Recent evidence shows that these abnormalities are associated with vascular calcifications, cardiovascular disease (CVD) and decreased quality of life [2–6]. In Stage 5 CKD (CKD-5) patients on dialysis, vascular calcifications occur more frequently and progress more rapidly than in the general population [7,8]. Moreover, the presence of vascular calcifications has been reported as an independent risk factor for mortality [9]. In addition to traditional risk factors of CVD, chronic kidney disease–mineral bone disorder (CKD-MBD) has been suggested as a non-traditional risk factor to explain the high rates of CVD in CKD patients [10–12].

It has been demonstrated that vascular calcification scores are associated with low bone turnover [5] and low bone volume [6]. No information is available on differences between CKD-5 patients with and without coronary artery calcifications (CAC) and evaluation of CKD-5 patients with CAC stratified according to turnover states. This appears clinically important because experience in the past demonstrated associations of vascular calcifications in patients with hyperparathyroidism [13,14], whilst more recent data demonstrate associations with low bone turnover [5].

The present study was designed to investigate in CKD-5 patients the relationship between CAC (evaluated by multi-slice computed tomography [MSCT]) and parameters of bone turnover and bone volume (evaluated by histomorphometry) with adjustment for a large number of risk factors of vascular calcifications. The number of patients was sufficiently large (i) to allow comparison of patients with and without CAC and (ii) to stratify patients with CAC by low, normal and high bone turnover to evaluate the role of

bone parameters and of known cardiovascular risk factors for their associations with more extensive CAC.

Materials and methods

Patients and study design

For this cross-sectional study, 853 CKD-5 patients receiving haemodialysis (HD) in eight HD centres in Izmir, Turkey were screened and 207 patients agreed to undergo bone biopsy, determination of CAC score by MSCT and blood drawing for research purposes. These 207 patients are representative of the overall patient population treated in these units with respect to age, gender, presence of diabetes mellitus and range of parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels. All patients were receiving thrice weekly conventional HD treatment using high-flux (70%) and low-flux (30%) dialysis membranes and a dialysate calcium of 1.62 mmol/L. Causes for the development of CKD-5 requiring dialysis therapy were diabetes mellitus (26%), hypertension (15%), glomerular disease (26%) and unknown (33%). The study was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki and the protocol was reviewed and approved by the institutional review boards of all participating institutions. All patients gave informed consent.

Inclusion criteria were age ≥ 18 years, maintenance HD thrice weekly (12 h/week), naïve or on steady dose of vitamin D analogues for at least 6 months and willingness and mental competence to sign informed consent for bone biopsy, MSCT and blood drawing.

Exclusion criteria were being scheduled for live donor renal transplantation; pregnancy or lactation; serum calcium ≥ 10.5 mg/dL; history of parathyroidectomy; use of calcimimetics; cardiac arrhythmia (hinders ECG gating of MSCT); prior coronary angioplasty, stent placement or prior coronary bypass grafting (causing artefacts on MSCT scans) and life-threatening co-morbid conditions such as malignancy, active infection, end-stage cardiac/pulmonary/hepatic disease.

Hypertension was defined as blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg. Blood pressure measurements were made manually using an Erka sphygmomanometer after a 5-min rest just before and after dialysis session.

CVD history was defined by documentation of chronic stable angina, chronic unstable angina, peripheral artery disease, peripheral artery angioplasty or stent, carotid artery disease, carotid artery stenosis by ultrasound or angiography, carotid endarterectomy, prior ischaemic cerebrovascular accident and abdominal artery disease.

For each patient, bone biopsy and MSCT were performed within a time period of 3 months.

Mineralized bone histology and bone histomorphometry

For double labelling of bone, patients received oral tetracycline hydrochloride 500 mg twice daily for 2 days followed by a 10-day tetracycline-free interval and another course of tetracycline hydrochloride at the same dosage for 4 days. Posterior iliac crest bone biopsies were performed after an additional 4 days (bone samples = 0.3 cm diameter \times 2 cm length). Iliac crest bone samples were fixed with ethanol at room temperature, dehydrated and embedded in methyl methacrylate as described previously [15]. Serial sections of 3- and 7- μ m thickness were cut with a microtome (Model HM360, Microm, Walldorf, Germany) equipped with a carbide-edged knife. Sections were stained with the modified Masson–Goldner trichrome stain [16], the aurintricarboxylic acid stain [17] and solochrome azurine stain [18]. Unstained sections were prepared for phase-contrast and fluorescence light microscopy. Bone histomorphometry for static and dynamic parameters of bone structure, formation and resorption was done at a magnification $\times 200$ using the Osteoplan II system (C. Zeiss, New York, NY). All bone samples were processed and analysed at the Bone Diagnostic and Research Laboratory, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY, USA. All measured histomorphometric parameters were in compliance with the recommendations of the nomenclature committee of the American Society of Bone and Mineral Research [19].

The classification of ‘low’, ‘normal’ and ‘high’ bone turnover was based on our normative database [20–22]. The outcome group ‘low’ bone turnover was defined as activation frequency (Ac.f.) < 0.49 year⁻¹ and/or bone formation rate/bone surface (BFR/BS) < 1.8 mm³/cm²/year. The outcome group ‘normal’ bone turnover was defined as Ac.f. 0.49 – 0.72 year⁻¹ and/or BFR/BS 1.8 – 3.9 mm³/cm²/year. The outcome group ‘high’ bone turnover

was defined as Ac.f. $>0.72 \text{ year}^{-1}$ and/or BFR/BS $>3.9 \text{ mm}^3/\text{cm}^2/\text{year}$. Bone volume (BV/TV) was classified as “low” ($<16.8\%$), “normal” ($16.8\text{--}22.9\%$), and “high” ($>22.9\%$).

Coronary artery calcification score

CAC score was measured by a dual-score 64-slice MSCT scanner (Aquilion 16, Toshiba Medical Systems Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) using a calcium-scoring programme (Terarecon 3.4.2.11, San Mateo, CA, USA). MSCT scans were performed with quad-slice technique. All radiological examinations were performed between two dialysis sessions at the same institution by using the same device and assessed by the same operator. Scan slices of 3.0 mm thickness were acquired under the following conditions: 250 mA of tube current 62 mAs effective. Images were obtained during a single breath-hold of 12–15 s. Data obtained during the diastolic phase of the cardiac cycle were used for image reconstruction with the use of ECG monitoring. Threshold calcium determination was set using a density of at least 130 Hounsfield units. The CAC score was calculated by summing the calcification score in the left main coronary artery, left anterior descending artery, left circumflex and right coronary artery. The CAC score was evaluated according to the originally described method of Agatston *et al.* [23].

Laboratory measurements

In all patients, blood samples were obtained using uniform techniques in all centres under fasting conditions immediately before their scheduled dialysis sessions. Blood chemistry including high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP) were done by using standardized and automated techniques (Architect C8000 auto-analyser, Abbott, Chicago, IL, USA) in the same laboratory keeping external quality control programmes. Intact PTH (iPTH) level was measured by radioimmunoassay (Scantibodies Inc., Santee, CA, USA): normal range is 14–66 pg/mL; intra-assay and inter-assay coefficients of variation are $<5\%$ and $<7\%$, respectively.

Statistical analysis

Continuous variables are expressed as mean \pm SD and frequency counts as percentages. P-values ≤ 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant. Between-group comparisons for continuous variables were performed using ANOVA; χ^2 or Fisher's exact test was used for categorical variables. Spearman correlation coefficients were used to assess the bivariate relationships between CAC scores and demographic, laboratory or bone parameters. Multiple ordinal logistic (proportional odds) regression was used to determine independent associations of predictor

variables with CAC score categories (1–100, 101–400 and >400). Proportional odds assumption did not hold. The regression models considered had different primary predictor variables (Ac.f. or BFR/BS or bone volume/tissue volume [BV/TV]). Independent variables for inclusion were selected using a backward stepwise algorithm with $P \leq 0.10$ to enter the model and $P < 0.05$ to remain in the model. The starting models contained one of the primary predictor variables and smoking, age, gender, HD duration, presence of diabetes mellitus, vitamin D usage and all two-way interaction terms involving the primary predictor.

All statistical calculations were performed with SAS version 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA) and R version 2.7.1 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

Results

Characteristics of the study population

Demographic and laboratory parameters of the study population ($N = 207$) categorized by absence or presence of CAC are summarized in Table 1. Between patients with and without CAC, there were no statistically significant differences in vitamin D treatment, dose of calcium-based binder hypertension and in blood levels of calcium, phosphorus, iPTH, triglycerides and cholesterol. There were more smokers among the patients with CAC, but this difference did not reach statistical difference. However, patients with CAC were older, had higher serum levels of C-reactive protein (hs-CRP), were more likely to be male, had diabetes mellitus and had a history of coronary artery disease.

In all patients, low bone turnover was found in 71%, normal bone turnover in 17% and high bone turnover in 12% (determined by Ac.f. and BFR/BS). BV/TV was low in 42% of patients, normal in 32% and high in 26%. None of the biopsy specimen stained positive for aluminium.

Mean CAC score was 444 ± 877 [range of 0–6106]. In patients with CAC ($N = 143$), histomorphometric parameters of bone showed significantly lower BFR/BS and lower Ac.f., although the latter did not reach statistical significance

Table 1. Demographic and biochemical characteristics of the study population stratified according to CAC = 0 or CAC > 0

	CAC = 0, $N = 64$	CAC > 0 , $N = 143$	P-value
Age (years)	47 \pm 15	63 \pm 12	<0.0001
Gender (male, %)	41	57	0.05
HD duration (months)	46 \pm 33	53 \pm 41	0.40
Diabetes (%)	6	26	0.002
CVD (%)	5	27	0.0001
Hypertension (%)	6	14	0.16
Smoking (%)	23	38	0.06
Elementary calcium dosage (g/day)	1.035 \pm 0.716	0.940 \pm 0.545	0.92
Vitamin D treatment ($\mu\text{g}/\text{week}$)	3.75 \pm 1.50	3.45 \pm 1.29	0.67
25(OH) vitamin D (ng/mL)	41.1 \pm 3.3	38.6 \pm 1.9	0.71
Albumin (g/dL)	4.0 \pm 0.3	3.9 \pm 0.3	0.05
Calcium (mg/dL)	9.2 \pm 0.9	9.2 \pm 0.9	0.88
Phosphorus (mg/dL)	5.2 \pm 1.6	5.0 \pm 1.5	0.72
iPTH (pg/mL)	187 \pm 188	220 \pm 265	0.74
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	181 \pm 36	185 \pm 47	0.68
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	147 \pm 75	167 \pm 109	0.42
Hs-CRP (mg/dL)	0.97 \pm 1.85	1.30 \pm 2.02	0.03

Between-group comparisons for continuous variables were performed using ANOVA; χ^2 or Fisher's exact test was used for categorical variables. HD, haemodialysis; CVD, cardiovascular disease; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; hs-CRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein.

Table 2. Static and dynamic bone parameters stratified according to CAC = 0 versus CAC > 0

	CAC = 0, N = 64	CAC > 0, N = 143	P-value
Obs/BS (%)	1.54 ± 2.15	1.74 ± 3.43	0.26
OcS/BS (%)	1.49 ± 1.64	1.19 ± 1.26	0.25
BFR/BS (mm ³ /cm ² /year)	1.85 ± 1.71	1.53 ± 2.27	0.05
Ac.f. (year ⁻¹)	0.39 ± 0.36	0.33 ± 0.45	0.07
BV/TV (%)	20.32 ± 8.07	19.05 ± 7.31	0.27

Between-group comparisons for continuous variables were performed using ANOVA. CAC score, coronary artery calcification score; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; Obs/BS, osteoblasts/bone surface; OcS/BS, osteoclasts/bone surface; BFR/BS, bone formation rate/bone surface; Ac.f., activation frequency; BV/TV, bone volume/tissue volume.

(Table 2). Because of these differences, patients with CAC were evaluated separately from patients without CAC.

Among patients with CAC, increasing CAC scores were associated with older age, male gender, longer HD vintage and lower albumin (Table 3). It is of note that there were no statistically significant differences between CAC score groups in smoking, diabetes mellitus, history of coronary artery disease, hypertension and blood levels of calcium, phosphorus, iPTH, triglycerides, total cholesterol and hs-CRP. Histomorphometric parameters of bone formation, resorption and turnover were not different between different CAC score groups (Table 4).

Associations between bone and coronary artery calcification in patients with and without CAC

Ordinal logistic regression analysis revealed that age ($P < 0.001$), dialysis vintage ($P = 0.039$) and bone turnover measured by Ac.f. ($P = 0.026$) or BFR/BS ($P = 0.013$) were significantly and *positively* correlated with CAC score.

When the histomorphometric parameter cancellous BV/TV was entered into the model instead of turnover parameters, lower BV/TV was associated with higher CAC score ($P = 0.036$). The presence of diabetes mellitus ($P = 0.02$) and male gender ($P = 0.004$) were also associated with higher CAC score groups in addition to older age ($P = 0.001$) and longer dialysis vintage ($P = 0.044$). There was an interaction between BV/TV and age ($P = 0.044$): more advanced age increased the effect of lower bone volume on CAC score.

Associations between bone and coronary artery calcification in patients with CAC

For analysis of bone turnover, patients with CAC were analysed after stratification into low, normal and high bone turnover groups. In patients with low bone turnover, there was a negative association between Ac.f. and CAC scores ($P = 0.03$) and BFR/BS and CAC scores ($P = 0.01$). This relationship was not found in patients with normal bone turnover ($P = 0.46$ and $P = 0.38$, respectively), whilst in patients with high bone turnover, a positive association was seen ($P = 0.03$ and $P = 0.01$, respectively).

For analysis of cancellous bone volume, BV/TV was entered as a continuous variable into linear regression models. No relationship between BV/TV and CAC scores could be identified ($P = 0.98$), whilst age ($P = 0.001$), dialysis vintage ($P = 0.0047$) and male gender ($P = 0.044$) were associated with CAC.

Discussion

The presented data in 207 CKD-5 patients on HD adjusted for traditional risk factors of vascular calcifications demonstrate intricate associations between bone turnover, bone volume and coronary calcifications. The strength of the

Table 3. Demographic and biochemical characteristics of the study population stratified according to CAC score group

	CAC score			P-value
	1–100, N = 47	101–400, N = 39	>400, N = 57	
Age (years)	60 ± 12	60 ± 12	65 ± 10	0.04
Gender (male, %)	38	72	61	0.005
HD duration (months)	38 ± 29	61 ± 43	61 ± 45	0.007
Diabetes (%)	22	26	29	0.73
CVD (%)	22	29	30	0.66
Hypertension (%)	13	13	16	0.65
Smoking (%)	30	41	42	0.39
Elementary calcium dosage (g/day)	0.949 ± 0.521	1.030 ± 0.554	0.860 ± 0.560	0.11
Vitamin D treatment (µg/week)	4.0 ± 1.73	3.0 ± 0.01	3.33 ± 1.37	0.11
25(OH) vitamin D (ng/mL)	34.5 ± 2.9	42.1 ± 3.7	39.2 ± 3.4	0.30
Albumin (g/dL)	4.0 ± 0.3	3.8 ± 0.2	3.8 ± 0.3	0.01
Calcium (mg/dL)	9.0 ± 0.6	9.1 ± 0.7	9.4 ± 1.2	0.09
Phosphorus (mg/dL)	4.8 ± 1.4	5.1 ± 1.5	5.2 ± 1.6	0.40
iPTH (pg/mL)	174 ± 173	229 ± 265	249 ± 320	0.34
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	188 ± 46	176 ± 47	187 ± 46	0.43
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	178 ± 139	158 ± 81	164 ± 97	0.68
Hs-CRP (mg/dL)	1.08 ± 1.74	1.58 ± 2.41	1.29 ± 1.95	0.52

Between-group comparisons for continuous variables were performed using ANOVA; χ^2 or Fisher's exact test was used for categorical variables. HD, haemodialysis; CVD, cardiovascular disease; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; hs-CRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein.

Table 4. Static and dynamic bone parameters stratified according to CAC score group

	CAC score			P-value
	1–100, N = 47	101–400, N = 39	>400, N = 57	
ObS/BS (%)	1.46 ± 1.95	1.94 ± 3.85	1.84 ± 4.07	0.79
OcS/BS (%)	1.25 ± 1.36	1.33 ± 1.31	1.05 ± 1.13	0.54
BFR/BS (mm ³ /cm ² /year)	1.40 ± 1.44	2.82 ± 2.10	2.37 ± 3.63	0.32
Ac.f. (year ⁻¹)	0.31 ± 0.31	0.62 ± 0.47	0.49 ± 0.65	0.21
BV/TV (%)	19.58 ± 8.50	17.81 ± 5.92	19.45 ± 7.14	0.47

Between-group comparisons for continuous variables were performed using ANOVA. CAC, score coronary artery calcification score; iPTH, intact parathyroid hormone; OBS/BS, osteoblasts/bone surface; OCS/BS, osteoclasts/bone surface; BFR/BS, bone formation rate/bone surface; Ac.f., activation frequency; BV/TV, bone volume/tissue volume.

current study comes from the large number of HD patients which allows adjusting for many traditional risk factors of vascular calcifications such as age, gender, diabetes mellitus, smoking, hypertension, serum lipids, history of CVD and hs-CRP. The high number of patients also allowed us to separately analyse patients with and without CAC and to further evaluate associations between degree of calcifications and directions of changes in bone turnover in patients with CAC.

There were significant demographic differences between our patients with and without CAC, justifying our approach to stratify analysis based on the presence or absence of CAC. This approach is supported by the observation that patients entering dialysis without CAC did not develop CAC during 30 months, whilst those who present with CAC show almost invariably progression of CAC [24].

When analysing all patients together, that is with and without CAC, we found a positive correlation between bone turnover and CAC. This correlation was, however, not found when patients without CAC were excluded from the analysis. Analyses using linear regression do not account for the different clinical presentations of patients with low, normal and high bone turnover. Clinical experience in the past teaches an association between extraosseous calcifications and hyperparathyroidism [14,25,26] and reversal of extraosseous calcifications with reduction of bone turnover after parathyroidectomy [27–29]. In contrast, an association between low bone turnover and vascular calcifications was described in recent years [5]. Therefore, we have analysed our patient cohort separately for patients with low, normal and high bone turnover. Our results in patients with CAC reveal that low bone turnover showed a negative correlation with CAC, whilst high bone turnover correlated positively. No association was found in patients with normal bone turnover. These data call for consideration of the level of bone turnover in the evaluation of patients with CAC. Although the choice of a higher dialysate calcium concentration used in our study population than that in the US could have contributed to the relatively high prevalence of low bone turnover, a longitudinal study evaluating changes in the pattern of different bone turnover states reported a significantly increased prevalence of low bone turnover in dialysis patients observed between 1995 (<15%) and 2001 (>45%), highlight-

ing the importance of recognizing oversuppression of bone turnover and related complications as entities with great clinical relevance [30].

Analysing all studied patients, we confirm the finding of an interaction between cancellous bone volume and age in their associations with CAC [6]. Even though it is known that advanced age is associated with cardiovascular calcifications in the general population [31], the observed interactions should prompt nephrologists to be sensitive to the problem in the dialysis population which, over recent years, has shown a trend to include more advanced age groups. Whilst the observed independent associations of dialysis vintage on CAC in addition to the known factors age, diabetes mellitus and male gender are all non-modifiable risk factors of CAC, cancellous bone volume could potentially be influenced by guided therapeutic endeavours. It awaits prospective studies are required to discern whether changes in cancellous bone volume are associated with alterations in CAC.

We want to acknowledge the following limitations of our study: (i) Because of the cross-sectional study design, we were not able to draw inferences on changes of CAC overtime; of course, cross-sectional studies cannot address pathogenetic mechanisms. However, the reported specific associations between bone turnover, bone volume and CAC evaluated separately in patients with and without CAC are novel and provide justification for more complex prospective studies evaluating different therapeutic interventions. (ii) Patients were recruited from several centres in Turkey, limiting generalizability of our findings to other ethnic/racial populations.

Our findings on the significance of bone turnover and volume for coronary calcifications do not imply that known traditional risk factors do not play a role in the development of vascular calcifications. One can surmise that avoidance of abnormal bone turnover and low bone volume may increase the relevance of traditional cardiovascular risk factors established in the general population.

Our study results are of great clinical importance for the practicing nephrologist. In addition to demonstrating non-modifiable predictors of CAC in HD patients such as age, HD duration, male gender and diabetes mellitus, we report bone turnover and bone volume as non-traditional risk factors that are amenable to therapeutic endeavours. Thus, there might be avenues to broaden the goal of bone man-

agement beyond its customary horizon by appreciating the link between bone metabolism and coronary calcifications. The latter represent a major cause of morbidity and mortality in patients receiving chronic maintenance dialysis.

Acknowledgements. Fresenius Medical Care supported this study. FMC have not been involved in any way in the study design, data management or manuscript preparation. Data from this study were presented at the XLIV Congress of the European Renal Association–European Dialysis and Transplant Association; June 24 through 27, 2007; Barcelona, Spain. We thank Ebru Sevinc, MD; Fatih Kircelli, MD; and Mumtaz Yilmaz, MD for the support in performing bone biopsies and Timur Kose for the statistical advice. The study was supported by the Dean's Clinical Research Scholar Program, University of Kentucky, no. 1012112710 (to J.H.), by NIH RO1 DK080770-01 (to H.H.M.) and by the Kentucky Nephrology Research Trust (to M-C.M-F.). We thank Guodong Wang, MD, Richard Wheaton and Julia Van Willigen for their technical support.

Conflict of interest statement. E.O. is scientific advisor for Fresenius Medical Care, Turkey. All other authors have no competing financial interest in the manuscript.

References

- Malluche H, Faugere MC. Renal bone disease 1990: an unmet challenge for the nephrologist. *Kidney Int* 1990; 38: 193–211
- Braun J, Oldendorf M, Moshage W *et al.* Electron beam computed tomography in the evaluation of cardiac calcification in chronic dialysis patients. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1996; 27: 394–401
- Goodman WG, Goldin J, Kuizon BD *et al.* Coronary-artery calcification in young adults with end-stage renal disease who are undergoing dialysis. *N Engl J Med* 2000; 342: 1478–1483
- Eknoyan G, Lameire N, Barsoum R *et al.* The burden of kidney disease: improving global outcomes. *Kidney Int* 2004; 66: 1310–1314
- London GM, Marty C, Marchais SJ *et al.* Arterial calcifications and bone histomorphometry in end-stage renal disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2004; 15: 1943–1951
- Adragao T, Herberth J, Monier-Faugere MC *et al.* Low bone volume—a risk factor for coronary calcifications in hemodialysis patients. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol* 2009; 4: 450–455
- Moe SM, O'Neill KD, Fineberg N *et al.* Assessment of vascular calcification in ESRD patients using spiral CT. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2003; 18: 1152–1158
- Hujairi NM, Afzali B, Goldsmith DJ. Cardiac calcification in renal patients: what we do and don't know. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2004; 43: 234–243
- Blacher J, Guerin AP, Pannier B *et al.* Arterial calcifications, arterial stiffness, and cardiovascular risk in end-stage renal disease. *Hypertension* 2001; 38: 938–942
- Stenvinkel P, Pecoits-Filho R, Lindholm B. Coronary artery disease in end-stage renal disease: no longer a simple plumbing problem. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2003; 14: 1927–1939
- Moe S, Drueke T, Cunningham J *et al.* Definition, evaluation, and classification of renal osteodystrophy: a position statement from Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). *Kidney Int* 2006; 69: 1945–1953
- Fahrleitner-Pammer A, Herberth J, Browning SR *et al.* Bone markers predict cardiovascular events in chronic kidney disease. *J Bone Miner Res* 2008; 23: 1850–1858
- Verberckmoes R, Bouillon R, Krempien B. Disappearance of vascular calcifications during treatment of renal osteodystrophy. Two patients treated with high doses of vitamin D and aluminum hydroxide. *Ann Intern Med* 1975; 82: 529–533
- Mazzaferro S, Coen G, Bandini S *et al.* Role of ageing, chronic renal failure and dialysis in the calcification of mitral annulus. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 1993; 8: 335–340
- Malluche HH, Faugere MC. *Atlas of Mineralized Bone Histology*. New York: Karger, 1986
- Goldner J. A modification of the Masson trichrome technique for routine laboratory purposes. *Am J Pathol* 1938; 14: 237–243
- Lillie PD, Fullmer HM. *Histopathologic Technique and Practical Histochemistry*. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976
- Denton J, Freemont AJ, Ball J. Detection of distribution of aluminum in bone. *J Clin Pathol* 1984; 37: 136–142
- Parfitt AM, Drezner MK, Glorieux FH *et al.* Bone histomorphometry: standardization of nomenclature, symbols and units. *J Bone Miner Res* 1987; 6: 595–610
- Malluche HH, Monier-Faugere MC, Wang G *et al.* An assessment of cinacalcet HCl effects on bone histology in dialysis patients with secondary hyperparathyroidism. *Clin Nephrol* 2008; 69: 269–278
- Sawaya BP, Butros R, Naqvi S *et al.* Differences in bone turnover and intact PTH levels between African American and Caucasian patients with end-stage renal disease. *Kidney Int* 2003; 64: 737–742
- Ferreira A, Frazao JM, Monier-Faugere MC *et al.* Effects of sevelamer hydrochloride and calcium carbonate on renal osteodystrophy in hemodialysis patients. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2008; 19: 405–412
- Agatston AS, Janowitz WR, Hildner FJ *et al.* Quantification of coronary artery calcium using ultrafast computed tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1990; 15: 827–832
- Bellasi A, Kooienga L, Block GA *et al.* How long is the warranty period for nil or low coronary artery calcium in patients new to hemodialysis? *J Nephrol* 2009; 22: 255–262
- Ritz E, Krempien B, Mehls O *et al.* Skeletal abnormalities in chronic renal insufficiency before and during maintenance hemodialysis. *Kidney Int* 1973; 4: 116–127
- Eastwood JB. Renal osteodystrophy—a radiological review. *CRC Crit Rev Diagn Imaging* 1977; 9: 77–104
- Ritz E, Malluche HH, Roher HD *et al.* Some topical problems of subtotal parathyroidectomy in patients on haemodialysis. *Dtsch Med Wochenschr* 1973; 98: 484–496
- Di Leo C, Gallieni M, Bestetti A *et al.* Cardiac and pulmonary calcification in a hemodialysis patient: partial regression 4 years after parathyroidectomy. *Clin Nephrol* 2003; 59: 59–63
- Zouboulis CC, Blume-Peytavi U, Lennert T *et al.* Fulminant metastatic calcinosis with cutaneous necrosis in a child with end-stage renal disease and tertiary hyperparathyroidism. *Br J Dermatol* 1996; 135: 617–622
- Malluche HH, Mawad H, Monier-Faugere MC. The importance of bone health in end-stage renal disease: out of the frying pan, into the fire? *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2004; 19: i9–i13
- Schulz E, Arfai K, Liu X *et al.* Aortic calcification and the risk of osteoporosis and fractures. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2004; 89: 4246–4253

Received for publication: 27.5.10; Accepted in revised form: 19.7.10