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## **T A B L E O F C O N T E N T S**



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### **[Intervention Review]**

# **Interventions for metabolic bone disease in children with chronic kidney disease**

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### **A B S T R A C T**

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**Background**

Bone disease is common in children with chronic kidney disease (CKD) and when untreated may result in bone deformities, bone pain, fractures and reduced growth rates. This is an update of a review first published in 2010.

### **Objectives**

This review aimed to examine the benefits (improved growth rates, reduced risk of bone fractures and deformities, reduction in PTH levels) and harms (hypercalcaemia, blood vessel calcification, deterioration in kidney function) of interventions (including vitamin D preparations and phosphate binders) for the prevention and treatment of metabolic bone disease in children with CKD.

### **Search methods**

We searched the Cochrane Kidney and Transplant Specialised Register to 8 September 2015 through contact with the Trial's Search Coordinator using search terms relevant for this review.

#### **Selection criteria**

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs) comparing different interventions used to prevent or treat bone disease in children with CKD stages 2 to 5D.

#### **Data collection and analysis**

Data were assessed for study eligibility, risk of bias and extracted independently by two authors. Results were reported as risk ratios (RR) or risk differences (RD) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) for dichotomous outcomes. For continuous outcomes the mean difference (MD) or standardised mean difference (SMD) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) was used. Statistical analyses were performed using the randomeffects model.

#### **Main results**

This review included 18 studies (576 children); three new studies were added for this update. Adequate sequence generation and allocation concealment were reported in 12 and 11 studies respectively. Only four studies reported blinding of children, investigators or outcome assessors. Nine studies were at low risk of attrition bias and 12 studies were at low risk of selective reporting bias.

Eight different interventions were compared. Two studies compared intraperitoneal (IP) with oral calcitriol. PTH levels were significantly lower with IP compared with oral calcitriol(1 study:MD-501.00 pg/mL, 95% CI-721.54 to -280.46) butthe number of children with abnormal bone histology did not differ between treatments. Three studies compared intermittent with daily oral calcitriol. The change in mean height SDS (1 study: MD 0.13, 95% CI -0.22 to 0.48) and the percentage fall in parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels at eight weeks (1 study: MD -5.50%, 95% CI -32.37 to 21.37) and 12 months (1 study: MD -6.00% 95% CI -25.27 to 13.27) did not differ between treatments.

Four studies compared active vitamin D preparations (calcitriol, paricalcitol, 1α-hydroxyvitamin D) with placebo or no specific treatment. One study reported vitamin D preparations significantly reduced PTH levels (-55.00 pmol/L, 95% CI -83.03 to -26.97). There was no significant difference in hypercalcaemia risk with vitamin D preparations compared with placebo or no specific treatment (4 studies, 103 children: RD 0.08 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.08 to 0.24). However, there was heterogeneity (I 2 = 55%) with one study showing a significantly greater risk of hypercalcaemia with intravenous (IV) calcitriol administration. Two studies (97 children) compared calcitriol with other vitamin D preparations and both found no significant differences in growth between preparations.

Two studies compared ergocalciferol in patients with CKD and vitamin D deficiency. Elevated PTH levels developed significantly later in ergocalciferol treated children (1 study: hazard ratio 0.30, 95% CI 0.09 to 0.93) though the number with elevated PTH levels did not differ between groups (1 study, 40 children: RR 0.33, 95% CI 0.11 to 1.05).

Two studies compared calcium carbonate with aluminium hydroxide as phosphate binders. One study (17 children: MD -0.86 SDS, 95% CI-2.24 to 0.52) reported no significant difference in mean final height SDS between treatments. Three studies compared sevelamer with calcium-containing phosphate binders. There were no significant differences in the final calcium, phosphorus or PTH levels between binders. More episodes of hypercalcaemia occurred with calcium-containing binders. One study reported no significant differences between calcitriol and doxercalciferol in bone histology or biochemical parameters.

### **Authors' conclusions**

Bone disease, assessed by changes in PTH levels, is improved by all vitamin D preparations. However, no consistent differences between routes of administration, frequencies of dosing or vitamin D preparations were demonstrated. Although fewer episodes of high calcium levels occurred with the non-calcium-containing phosphate binder, sevelamer, compared with calcium-containing binders, there were no differences in serum phosphorus and calcium overall and phosphorus values were reduced to similar extents. All studies were small with few data available on patient-centred outcomes (growth, bone deformities) and limited data on biochemical parameters or bone histology resulting in considerable imprecision of results thus limiting the applicability to the care of children with CKD.

### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**P L A I N L A N G U A G E S U M M A R Y**

### **Interventions for metabolic bone disease in children with chronic kidney disease**

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) resulting in reduced kidney function and the need for dialysis and kidney transplant is associated with abnormalities in serum calcium and phosphorus levels leading to high levels of the parathyroid hormone (PTH) and to bone disease. This may result in bone deformities, bone pain, fractures and reduced growth rates. Commonly used treatments (vitamin D compounds and phosphate binders) aim to prevent or correct these outcomes. However, these treatments may raise levels of blood calcium, allow calcium and phosphorus deposition in blood vessels and lead to early cardiovascular disease, which is known to be a problem in adults with CKD.

This review identified 18 small randomised studies involving 576 children comparing different vitamin D compounds administered via different routes and frequencies and different phosphate binders. Only five studies reported growth rates and no differences were detected between treatments. Bone disease, as assessed by changes in PTH levels, was improved by all vitamin D preparations regardless of preparation or route or frequency of administration. Fewer episodes of high blood calcium levels occurred with the non-calcium-containing binder, sevelamer, compared with calcium-containing binders. As newer treatments for renal bone disease are developed, comparisons with the current standard therapies will be required in well-designed randomised studies in children using outcome measures including those of direct clinical relevance to children and their families such as rates of growth, reduction in bone fractures and bone pain and reduction in calcification in blood vessels.

### <span id="page-5-0"></span>**B A C K G R O U N D**

### **Description of the condition**

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) causes disordered regulation of mineral metabolism ([Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-1) 2013). Because this disorder results in renal osteodystrophy and vascular and/or soft tissue calcification, the manifestations of the disorder are now known as chronic kidney disease mineral and bone disorder (CKD-MBD) [\(Moe 2006](#page-23-0)). CKD-MBD is defined as a systemic disorder of bone and mineral metabolism due to CKD and manifested by one or a combination of:

- abnormalities of calcium. phosphorus, parathyroid hormone (PTH) or vitamin D metabolism;
- abnormalities in bone turnover, mineralization, volume, linear growth or strength; and
- vascular or other soft tissue calcification.

In children CKD-MBD may be associated with increased fracture rates, reduced linear growth, bony deformities and chronic pain. In a review of 890 children on peritoneal dialysis, 5% had limb deformities, 1.4% had bone pain and 1.5% had vascular calcification [\(Borzych](#page-23-1) 2010). Abnormalities of bone turnover, mineralization and volume in CKD-MBD can be quantitated using bone histomorphometry. The predominant lesion noted on bone biopsy in children on dialysis is one of high bone turnover (in 57% to 100% of patients) with low turnover bone disease much less common (4% of patients) [\(Bakkaloglu](#page-22-0) 2010; [Hodson 1982](#page-23-2); [Salusky](#page-21-0) [2005a\)](#page-21-0). Abnormal skeletal mineralization is commonly associated with both high and low turnover bone disease in dialysis patients. Among children with CKD stages 2-4, high turnover bone disease was seen in 29% of children with CKD stage 4 but was not seen in children with stage 2 disease and was uncommon in children with stage 3 disease ([Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-2) 2012; [Hodson 1982\)](#page-23-2). In contrast mineralization abnormalities occurred in 43% children with stage 2 CKD and in 86% of children with stage 4 CKD [\(Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-2) [2012](#page-24-2)); these findings confirm previous findings in early stages of CKD [\(Hodson 1982\)](#page-23-2). Low turnover bone disease is rare in children not on dialysis.

Although bone disease may not be evident on bone histology in early CKD and plasma levels of calcium and phosphorus are normal, increased levels of the hormone fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF23) [\(Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-1) 2013) increase renal phosphate excretion and inhibit 1α-hydroxylase activity thus suppressing circulating levels of 1, 25  $(OH)_2D$  leading to increased levels of parathyroid hormone (PTH).

Bone biopsy is an invasive procedure and is now generally limited to research studies so that radiological and biochemical abnormalities are used as surrogate measures of bone disease in CKD-MBD. Radiological diagnosis is insensitive and cannot distinguish low-turnover or adynamic bone disease from the high turnover state of secondary hyperparathyroidism. Biochemical abnormalities of parathyroid hormone, serum calcium and phosphate levels are frequently used as markers of bone disease if outside of the recommended KDOQI or European guideline parameters ([KDOQI 2005](#page-23-3); [Klaus 2006](#page-23-4)). Abnormalities of these values, suggestive of histological changes, have been demonstrated in 28% to 81% of children with CKD stages 2-5 [\(Blaszak](#page-23-5) 2005; [Seikaly](#page-23-6) 2003). These biochemical abnormalities

have also been used to specifically diagnose low turnover bone disease. In 41 dialysed children (31 peritoneal dialysis), low turnover bone disease was diagnosed in 48% based on the presence of elevated serum calcium with parathyroid hormone (PTH) values below recommended levels [\(Avila-Diaz](#page-22-1) 2006). PTH levels are most commonly used to monitor the effectiveness of therapy. However optimal target ranges are unclear in part because earlier PTH assays measured active and inactive PTH fragments and newer assays still show considerable variation between PTH assays.

In the absence of clinical symptoms and signs, it has been unclear until recently what impact CKD-MBD has on the outcome for children with CKD. Recent data have demonstrated an increased risk of coronary arterial calcification in young adults on dialysis [\(Goodman 2000](#page-23-7)) while elevated levels of PTH and phosphate are independent risk factors for left ventricular hypertrophy [\(Bakkaloglu](#page-22-2) 2011). These factors have been associated with increased mortality in children and young adults with CKD.

### **Description of the intervention**

Treatment of CKD-MBD aims to normalise mineral metabolism and minimise progression of extraskeletal calcification by maintaining blood levels of calcium and phosphorus close to the normal range for age and maintaining PTH levels at levels considered to be appropriate for the stage of CKD. The mainstays of treatment are with phosphate binders (calcium or non-calcium containing) and vitamin D metabolites (calcitriol, 1α-hydroxyvitamin D, newer vitamin D analogues). Dietary measures are instituted to reduce phosphate intake while maintaining adequate calcium and vitamin Dintake. Also calcium levels in the dialysis fluid can be manipulated to maintain normocalcaemia. New agents include calcimimetic agents (cinacalcet), which control secondary hyperparathyroidism. For medically unresponsive patients, parathyroidectomy may be required.

#### **How the intervention might work**

Early in the development of CKD, circulating levels of 1,25 (OH)<sub>2</sub> vitamin D falls following suppression of the renal enzyme 1-ɑhydoxylase by FGF23, resulting in reduced calcium absorption from the gut and increased PTH levels ([Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-1) 2013). Increased PTH levels initially maintain serum calcium levels by increasing bone resorption and by stimulating 1-ɑ-hydoxylase activity. With further decline in glomerular filtration rate (GFR), phosphate levels rise. These lower calcium levels and further suppress renal enzyme 1-ɑ-hydoxylase levels so PTH levels rise further. PTH increases bone turnoverleading to renal osteodystrophy. Therefore therapies which increase gut absorption of calcium, reduce phosphate levels and increase circulating levels of 1,25 (OH) $_2$  vitamin D will reduce PTH levels. However both calcium-containing phosphate binders and vitaminD metabolites may cause hypercalcaemia and elevated calcium-phosphorus product and predispose to vascular and soft tissue calcification. Calcimimetic agents modulate the calcium sensitive receptor in parathyroid glands, increase intracellular calcium and decrease PTH release.

#### **Why it is important to do this review**

There are a large number of studies reporting the efficacy of various medications and dietary manipulations to prevent and treat CKD-MBD in children and there is extensive clinical experience confirming that current treatment of CKD-MBD has reduced the



severity of bony deformities and fractures over the past few decades. However there remains considerable uncertainty in children about the vascular outcomes related to treatment or nontreatment of CKD-MBD. In addition because of the recognised severity of potential side-effects and the uncertain efficacy of some of the therapeutic agents used to treat CKD-MBD, it is appropriate to critically review the treatment options.

### <span id="page-6-0"></span>**O B J E C T I V E S**

This review aimed to examine the benefits (improved growth rates, reduced risk of bone fractures and deformities, reduction in PTH levels) and harms (hypercalcaemia, blood vessel calcification, deterioration in kidney function) of interventions (including vitamin D preparations and phosphate binders) for the prevention and treatment of metabolic bone disease in children with CKD.

### <span id="page-6-1"></span>**M E T H O D S**

### **Criteria for considering studies for this review**

### **Types of studies**

All randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and quasi-RCTs (studies in which allocation to treatment was obtained by alternation, use of alternate medical records, date of birth or other predictable methods) examining treatments for the prevention and treatment of CKD-MBD in children and adolescents were included**.**

### **Types of participants**

### *Inclusion criteria*

- Studies involving children with CKD stages 2 to 5D (glomerular filtration rate < 90 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>)
- Childhood was defined according to the definitions applied in the included studies, but did not exceed 21 years of age.

### *Exclusion criteria*

Studies of children with CKD secondary to primary tubulopathies, e.g. cystinosis, or with diseases known to directly affect bones e.g. primary hyperoxaluria, and studies in children following kidney transplant were excluded. However it is possible that individual children with the above disorders might be included within an eligible study but not specifically specified. Studies of recombinant human growth hormone in children with CKD were excluded as these are included in a separate Cochrane Review (Growth Hormone in children with chronic kidney disease) [\(Hodson 2012](#page-23-8)).

### **Types of interventions**

Interventions considered for inclusion were as follows.

- Dietary
- Pharmacological specifically vitamin D or metabolites, calcimimetic and phosphate binding agents
- **Surgical**
- Herbal or alternative treatments
- Changes in dialysis prescription.

For each of these interventions the following comparisons were considered.

• Intervention versus placebo

- Intervention A versus intervention B
- Frequency and mode of administration (e.g. oral or intravenous (IV))
- Dose and duration of treatment.

### **Types of outcome measures**

### *Primary outcomes*

#### **Patient-centred outcome measures**

- Growth
- Bone fractures
- Bone deformities
- Symptoms related to hypercalcaemia
- Parathyroidectomy

### *Secondary outcomes*

#### **Patient-centred outcome measures**

- Commencing dialysis treatment
- Dialysis-related clinical events
- Parathyroidectomy.

#### **Surrogate outcomes**

• Change in bone histology

- Changes in radiological abnormalities
- Changes in PTH levels
- Changes in alkaline phosphatase (ALP) levels
- Changes in serum calcium, phosphorus and calciumphosphorus product
- Changes in FGF23 levels

### **Adverse events**

- Vascular or extraosseous calcifications
- Deterioration of kidney function
- Hyperphosphataemia
- Hypercalcaemia
- Elevation of calcium-phosphorus product
- Radiological deterioration of CKD-MBD
- Development of adynamic bone disease on bone histomorphometry
- Hypertension or hypotension
- Aggravation of anaemia.

### **Search methods for identification of studies**

### **Electronic searches**

We searched the Cochrane Kidney and Transplant Specialised Register to 8 September 2015 through contact with the Trials Search Co-ordinator using search terms relevant to this review. The Specialised Register contains studies identified from the following sources.

- 1. Monthly searches of the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL)
- 2. Weekly searches of MEDLINE OVID SP
- 3. Handsearching of kidney-related journals and the proceedings of major kidney conferences

- 4. Searching of the current year of EMBASE OVID SP
- 5. Weekly current awareness alerts for selected kidney journals
- 6. Searches of the International Clinical Trials Register (ICTRP) Search Portal and ClinicalTrials.gov.

Studies contained in the Specialised Register are identified through search strategies for CENTRAL, MEDLINE, and EMBASE based on the scope of Cochrane Kidney and Transplant. Details of these strategies, as well as a list of handsearched journals, conference proceedings and current awareness alerts, are available in the Specialised Register section of information about the [Cochrane](http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/o/cochrane/clabout/articles/RENAL/frame.html) Kidney and [Transplant.](http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/o/cochrane/clabout/articles/RENAL/frame.html)

See [Appendix 1](http://archie.cochrane.org/sections/documents/view?document=13925506130498709040110327035142%26format=REVMAN#APP-01) for search terms used in strategies for this review.

#### **Searching other resources**

- 1. Reference lists of clinical practice guidelines review articles and relevant studies.
- 2. Letters seeking information about unpublished or incomplete studies to investigators known to be involved in previous studies.

### **Data collection and analysis**

#### **Selection of studies**

In the previous version of this review [\(Geary](#page-24-3) 2009) all electronically derived abstracts and study titles were assessed for subject relevance and methodological quality. All possible RCTs or quasi-RCTs which were relevant were assigned specific topic keywords in Reference Manager and the full published paper was obtained for full assessment. The review was undertaken by four authors. The search strategy described was used to obtain titles and abstracts of studies that were relevant to the review. The titles and abstracts were screened independently by DG, EH and DH, who discarded studies that were not applicable. However studies and reviews that might include relevant data or information on studies were retained initially. Three authors independently assessed retrieved abstracts, and if necessary, the full text of these studies to determine which studies satisfied the inclusion criteria.

In this update, study titles and abstracts were reviewed by two authors. Full text articles of studies considered relevant were obtained and assessed for eligibility by the same authors.

#### **Data extraction and management**

A data abstraction form was devised to record details of data elements such as outcome measures, participants and intervention of each included study for the 2009 review. Only comparisons and outcomes which were pre-specified in the protocol were included. For this review, data were abstracted by a single assessor and a sample was double checked.

For this update, data extraction and assessment of risk of bias were performed by two authors using standardised data abstraction forms. Disagreements not resolved by discussion between authors were referred to a third author. Studies reported in languages other than English were to be translated before data extraction, but no foreign language reports were identified. Where more than one report of a study was identified, data were extracted from all reports. Where there were discrepancies between reports, data

from the primary source were used. Study authors were contacted for additional information about studies.

### **Assessment of risk of bias in included studies**

Hard copies of studies were independently assessed for the methodological quality by two assessors for the 2010 review. Quality assessments were made for allocation concealment, blinding, description of withdrawals and drop-outs, numbers lost to follow-up, and whether intention-to-treat (ITT) analysis was possible.

In the 2014 update, the following terms were assessed using the risk of bias assessment tool ([Higgins 2011](#page-23-9)) (see [Appendix 2\)](#page-71-0).

- Was there adequate sequence generation (selection bias) ?
- Was allocation adequately concealed (selection bias)?
- Was knowledge of the allocated interventions adequately prevented during the study?
	- Participants and personnel (performance bias)
	- Outcome assessors (detection bias)
- Were incomplete outcome data adequately addressed (attrition bias)?
- Are reports of the study free of suggestion of selective outcome reporting (reporting bias)?
- Was the study apparently free of other problems that could put it at a risk of bias?

#### **Measures of treatment effect**

For dichotomous outcomes (number of children with improved growth, radiological bone changes, improved bone histology) results were expressed as risk ratio (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI). For numbers of children experiencing adverse effects, risk difference (RD) with 95% CI was used. For continuous outcomes scales of measurement were used to assess the effects of treatment (levels of PTH, serum levels of calcium, phosphorus and calciumphosphorus product, and creatinine clearance (CrCl), the mean difference (MD) with 95% CI were calculated unless the scales were different; in this instance, standard mean difference (SMD) was used.

#### **Unit of analysis issues**

Data from the first phase of cross-over RCTs could not be separated so results from cross-over studies were reported qualitatively.

#### **Dealing with missing data**

We aimed to analyse available data in meta-analyses using intention-to-treat (ITT) data. However, where ITT data were only available graphically or not provided and additional information could not be obtained from study authors, per-protocol (PP) data were used in analyses.

#### **Assessment of heterogeneity**

Heterogeneity was analysed using a Chi<sup>2</sup> test on N-1 degrees of freedom, with an alpha of 0.05 used for statistical significance and with the I<sup>2</sup> test [\(Higgins 2003\)](#page-23-10). I<sup>2</sup> values of 25%, 50% and 75% correspond to low, medium and high levels of heterogeneity respectively.



#### **Assessment of reporting biases**

Because of the few studies available for each intervention, it was not possible to use funnel plots to assess forthe potential existence of small study bias ([Higgins 2011](#page-23-9)).

#### **Data synthesis**

Data were pooled using a random-effects model for dichotomous and continuous data.

#### **Subgroup analysis and investigation of heterogeneity**

We had planned subgroup analyses to examine certain betweenstudy differences in participants (age, stage of CKD, type of dialysis), interventions (agent, dose and duration of treatment) and risk of bias hypothesised to explain any observed heterogeneity of treatment effects but there were insufficient studies for these to be performed.

### **Sensitivity analysis**

We wished to perform sensitivity analyses in order to explore the influence of the following factors on effect size.

- Repeating the analysis excluding unpublished studies
- Repeating the analysis taking account ofrisk of bias, as specified
- Repeating the analysis excluding any very long or large studies to establish how much they dominate the results
- Repeating the analysis excluding studies using the following filters: diagnostic criteria, language of publication, source of funding (industry versus other), and country.

However except for one analysis, the maximum number of studies included in any analysis was two so we were not able to carry out any sensitivity analyses.

### <span id="page-8-0"></span>**R E S U L T S**

### **Description of studies**

### **Results of the search**

#### *2009 review*

In the 2009 review, of the 1137 titles and abstracts identified, 19 studies were identified for full text review. Of these 15 studies (26 reports) ([Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; Eke [1983;](#page-18-2) GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) [2005;](#page-19-0) [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; [Hodson 1985;](#page-19-2) [Jones 1994;](#page-19-3) [Klaus 1995;](#page-19-4) [Mak 1985](#page-19-5); [Pieper 2006;](#page-19-6) [Salusky 1991](#page-19-7); [Salusky 1998;](#page-19-8) [Salusky 2005;](#page-20-0) [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988) involved the defined populations and addressed relevant interventions and were included in the review. A copy ofthe completed manuscript was provided before publication by [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007. Three studies were cross-over studies [\(Jones](#page-19-3) [1994;](#page-19-3) [Mak 1985;](#page-19-5) [Pieper 2006\)](#page-19-6), and one study [\(Klaus 1995\)](#page-19-4) was available in abstract form only. Four studies (nine reports) were excluded for ineligible intervention [\(Ardissino](#page-22-3) 2000a), ineligible population ([El Husseini 2004](#page-22-4); [Ferraris](#page-22-5) 2000) and uncertainty as to whether the study was an RCT [\(Bettinelli](#page-22-6) 1986). There was no disagreement between authors regarding inclusion of studies. The 2009 review included 15 studies (26 reports) with 472 children.

#### *2015 update*

For the 2015 update 47 new reports were identified [\(Figure](#page-9-0) [1](#page-9-0)). Of these, four reports were of three new studies [\(Gulati](#page-19-9) [2010;](#page-19-9) [Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013; Shroff 2012) and 38 reports were of seven previously included studies (Eke [1983](#page-18-2); GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Salusky 1991;](#page-19-7) [Salusky 1998](#page-19-8); [Salusky 2005;](#page-20-0) [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). The remaining five new reports were excluded. Two studies were excluded as the populations were ineligible [\(Choudhary](#page-22-7) 2014; [Kim 2006b](#page-22-8)), and in one study [\(Witmer 1976](#page-22-9)) randomisation was unclear. The remaining three reports were from two previously excluded studies ([Ardissino](#page-22-3) 2000a; [Ferraris](#page-22-5) 2000).



### <span id="page-9-0"></span>**Figure 1. Study flow diagram**



Re-evaluation of [Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000 and [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003 indicated that the data in [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003 represented a 12 month follow-up of 29 prepubertal children treated in [Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000. For ease of identification, we have continued to report these studies as two studies.

To allow analyses of comparisons between calcitriol and doxercalciferol and for separate reporting of the comparison between sevelamer and calcium carbonate in this 2 x 2 longitudinal factorial study, we have divided [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0) into three studies [\(Salusky 2005;](#page-20-0) [Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0); [Salusky 2005b\)](#page-21-4). [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0) includes the groups treated with sevelamer or calcium carbonate irrespective of vitamin D preparation used. [Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0) includes the two groups treated with doxercalciferol while [Salusky 2005b](#page-21-4) includes the two groups treated with calcitriol.

Therefore the 2015 update included 18 studies (68 reports) with 576 enrolled children.

### **Included studies**

The 18 included studies were divided into eight treatment comparisons ([Figure](#page-9-0) 1).

#### *Intraperitoneal calcitriol versus oral calcitriol*

Two studies (40 enrolled; 40 evaluated) compared intraperitoneal comparedwith oral calcitriol. Children receiving continuous cycling or continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis were treated for 12 months ([Salusky 1998\)](#page-19-8) or 3 months [\(Jones 1994\)](#page-19-3). The study by [Jones 1994](#page-19-3) was a cross-over study and data could not be metaanalysed.

#### *Intermittent oral calcitriol versus daily oral calcitriol*

Three studies (109 enrolled; 104 evaluated) compared intermittent oral administration of calcitriol with daily oral administration in children with CKD stages 2 to 5 for 8 to 10 weeks ([Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000), 12 months ([Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003), or from 2 to 36 weeks [\(Klaus 1995\)](#page-19-4).



### *Dierent vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no specific treatment*

Four studies (104 enrolled; 103 evaluated) compared different vitamin D preparations administered orally or IV with placebo/no specific treatment in CKD patients stages 3 and 4 (Eke [1983](#page-18-2)) and in patients receiving peritoneal or haemodialysis ([Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988).

#### *Dierent vitamin D preparations*

Two studies (106 enrolled; 97 evaluated) compared different vitamin D preparations. GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990 compared oral calcitriol with oral dihydrotachysterol in children with CKD stages 3 and 4 treated for 12 months. [Hodson 1985](#page-19-2) compared oral calcitriol with oral ergocalciferol in children on dialysis or CKD stages 2 to 4.

One study (60 enrolled; 51 evaluated) compared doxercalciferol [\(Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0)) and calcitriol [\(Salusky 2005b\)](#page-21-4) in combination with either sevelamer or calcium carbonate. Comparisons were reported for vitamin D preparations irrespective of the phosphate binder given.

#### *Ergocalciferol versus placebo/control*

Two studies (67 enrolled; 60 evaluated) compared ergocalciferol with placebo/no specific treatment in patients with CKD stages 2 to 5D ([Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013; Shroff 2012). In Rianthavorn 2013 the primary outcome was reduction in the dose of erythrocytestimulating agent (ESA).

### *Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide*

Two studies (34 enrolled; 29 evaluated) compared calcium hydroxide with calcium carbonate in pre-dialysis children [\(Mak](#page-19-5) [1985](#page-19-5)) or those receiving peritoneal dialysis [\(Salusky 1991](#page-19-7)).

#### *Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders*

Three studies (98 enrolled; 66 evaluated) compared sevelamer with calcium-containing phosphate binders in children with CKD stages 2 to 4 [\(Gulati 2010](#page-19-9)) or receiving dialysis ([Pieper 2006;](#page-19-6) [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0)) compared the non-calcium-containing sevelamer with calcium carbonate ([Salusky 2005](#page-20-0)) or calcium acetate [\(Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Pieper](#page-19-6) [2006\)](#page-19-6). In [Salusky 2005,](#page-20-0) children were also randomised to receive doxercalciferol or calcitriol. Factorial analysis provided no evidence of treatment interaction between the two sterols so comparisons were reported for phosphate binders irrespective of vitamin D sterol given.

No RCTs examining interventions with dietary changes, surgery, alterations in dialysis prescription or calcimimetic agents were identified.

### **Excluded studies**

Seven studies were excluded ([Ardissino](#page-22-3) 2000a; [Bettinelli](#page-22-6) 1986; [Choudhary](#page-22-7) 2014; [El Husseini 2004;](#page-22-4) [Ferraris](#page-22-5) 2000; [Kim 2006b;](#page-22-8) [Witmer](#page-22-9) [1976\)](#page-22-9). One cross-over study ([Ardissino](#page-22-3) 2000a) in children with CKD examined calcium absorption only after oral or IV calcitriol. Two studies examined bone mineral density in kidney transplant patients treated with calcitonin, alendronate or 1α-hydroxyvitamin D ([El Husseini 2004](#page-22-4)) or with methylprednisolone or deflazacort [\(Ferraris](#page-22-5) 2000). Randomisation was unclear and data was no longer available in [Witmer 1976](#page-22-9).

### **Risk of bias in included studies**

[Figure](#page-10-0) 2; [Figure](#page-11-0) 3

### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**Figure 2. Methodological quality graph: review authors' judgements about each methodological quality item presented as percentages across all included studies**





<span id="page-11-0"></span>Figure 3. Risk of bias summary: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item for each included study



#### **Figure 3. (Continued)**



#### **Allocation**

Sequence generation was deemed to be at low risk of bias in 12 studies [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; [Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Hodson 1985](#page-19-2); [Pieper 2006](#page-19-6); [Salusky](#page-19-8) [1998](#page-19-8); [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0); [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003; Shroff 2012; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). One study was at high risk of bias as patients were randomised sequentially [\(Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013). In the remaining five studies, the sequence generation methodology was unclear.

Allocation concealment was at low risk of bias in 11 studies [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) [2007](#page-19-1); [Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Pieper 2006](#page-19-6); [Salusky 1998](#page-19-8); [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0); [Schmitt](#page-21-1) [2003](#page-21-1); Shroff 2012; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). Two studies [\(Hodson 1985](#page-19-2); [Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013) were considered at high risk of bias. Allocation concealment methodology was unclear in the remaining five studies (Eke [1983](#page-18-2); [Jones 1994;](#page-19-3) [Klaus 1995](#page-19-4); [Mak 1985;](#page-19-5) [Salusky 1991\)](#page-19-7).

#### **Blinding**

Four studies were blinded and considered to be at low risk of bias for performance bias ( GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; Shroff 2012). Blinding was unclear in one study, which was reported to be double-blinded but did not clarify how this was achieved (Eke [1983](#page-18-2)). The remaining thirteen studies were not blinded and were considered at high risk of performance bias.

Since the primary outcomes (PTH level, bone mineralization) in all studies were based on laboratory assessment, and unlikely to be influenced by blinding, all included studies were considered to be at low risk of detection bias.

#### **Incomplete outcome data**

Nine studies were considered at low risk of attrition bias [\(Eke](#page-18-2) [1983](#page-18-2); [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; [Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Jones 1994](#page-19-3); [Mak 1985;](#page-19-5) [Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013; Shroff 2012; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). Seven studies were considered at high risk of attrition bias with more than 15% loss to follow-up or exclusion from analysis [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Hodson 1985](#page-19-2); [Pieper 2006;](#page-19-6) [Salusky 1991;](#page-19-7) [Salusky](#page-20-0) [2005](#page-20-0); [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003). In the remaining two studies attrition bias was considered unclear ([Klaus 1995](#page-19-4); [Salusky 1998](#page-19-8)). Loss to followup or exclusion resulted commonly when children on dialysis underwent kidney transplant. Other reasons for exclusion were non-adherence to treatment, protocol violation or withdrawal by families or physicians.

#### **Selective reporting**

Studies were considered to be at high risk of reporting bias if they did not provide data on final or change in PTH, calcium, phosphorus, calcium-phosphorus product or ALP levels, bone histology, patient centred outcomes such as fractures or growth, adverse events such as hypercalcaemia or all-cause mortality. Seven studies were considered at high risk of reporting bias [\(Eke](#page-18-2) [1983](#page-18-2); GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Jones 1994](#page-19-3); [Klaus 1995;](#page-19-4) [Mak 1985;](#page-19-5) [Pieper](#page-19-6) [2006](#page-19-6); [Salusky 2005\)](#page-20-0). The remaining 11 studies were considered to be at low risk of reporting bias.

#### **Other potential sources of bias**

Eleven studies appeared to be free of other potential sources of bias ([Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; Eke [1983](#page-18-2); GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Gulati 2010;](#page-19-9) [Hodson 1985;](#page-19-2) [Mak 1985;](#page-19-5) [Salusky 1991](#page-19-7); [Salusky 1998;](#page-19-8) [Salusky 2005;](#page-20-0) [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003; Shroff 2012). Five studies were funded by industry and considered at high risk of bias ([Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) [2007;](#page-19-1) [Jones 1994;](#page-19-3) [Pieper 2006;](#page-19-6) [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). In the remaining two studies, it was unclear whether the study was free of other potential sources of bias ([Klaus 1995;](#page-19-4) [Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013).

### **Effects of interventions**

#### **Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol**

Two studies investigated this comparison ([Salusky 1998](#page-19-8); [Jones](#page-19-3) [1994\)](#page-19-3) ([Table](#page-65-1) 1). The first study ([Jones 1994\)](#page-19-3) compared IP with oral calcitriol in a cross-over study including seven children and reported that mean height standard deviation score (SDS) did not differ between groups at the end of the study. The data for each part of the cross-over could not be separated.

[Salusky 1998](#page-19-8) reported no significant differences in the number of children overall with abnormal bone histology ([Analysis 1.1.](#page-49-0)1 (1 study, 33 children): RR 1.06, 95% CI 0.70 to 1.61), the number with adynamic bone disease ([Analysis 1.1.](#page-49-0)2 (1 study, 33 children): RR 1.49, 95% CI 0.59 to 3.74), osteitis fibrosa ([Analysis 1.1](#page-49-0).3 (1 study, 33 children): RR 0.35, 95% CI 0.08 to 1.51), mixed or mild disease [\(Analysis 1.1.](#page-49-0)4 (1 study, 33 children): RR 0.46, 95% CI 0.14 to 1.46) or normal/reduced bone formation rates [\(Analysis 1.1.](#page-49-0)5 (1 study, 33 children): RR 1.06, 95% CI 0.66 to 1.72).

[Salusky 1998](#page-19-8) reported bone formation rates did not differ significantly between treatment groups ([Analysis 1.2](#page-50-0) (1 study, 33 children): MD -289.00 μm2/mm2/d, 95% CI -806.13 to 228.13).

[Jones 1994](#page-19-3) (cross-over RCT) reported that no significant differences were found in PTH levels, the number of children with hypercalcaemia and the number of peritonitis episodes between groups ([Table](#page-65-1) 1). [Salusky 1998.](#page-19-8) reported mean PTH levels were significantly lower with IP calcitriol compared with oral [\(Analysis](#page-50-1) [1.3](#page-50-1) (1 study, 33 children): MD -501.00 pg/mL, 95% CI -721.54 to -280.46).

[Salusky 1998](#page-19-8) reported maximum serum calcium levels ([Analysis 1.4](#page-50-2) (1 study, 33 children): MD 0.70 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.55 to 1.95) and the number of children with hypercalcaemia ([Analysis 1.5.](#page-50-3)1 (1 study, 33 children): RD 0.21, 95% CI -0.12 to 0.53) or hyperphosphataemia [\(Analysis 1.5](#page-50-3).2 (1 study, 33 children): RD -0.05, 95% CI -0.29 to 0.19) did not differ between treatment groups. The number of peritonitis episodes/patient-month did not differ between treatment groups [\(Analysis 1.6](#page-51-0) (1 study, 33 children): RD 0.01, 95% CI -0.24 to 0.26).

#### **Intermittent oral versus daily oral calcitriol**

Three parallel studies (104 evaluated children) compared intermittent oral with daily oral calcitriol [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; [Klaus](#page-19-4) [1995;](#page-19-4) [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003) ([Table](#page-66-0) 2).

[Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003 reported no significant difference in change in mean height SDS [\(Analysis 2.1](#page-51-1) (1 study, 24 children): MD 0.13, 95% CI -0.22 to 0.48). No significant differences between treatment routes were found for any surrogate biochemical outcome.

[Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000 and [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003 reported no significant differences in the fall in PTH levels at 8 weeks [\(Analysis 2.2.](#page-52-0)1 [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000, 59 children): MD -5.50%, 95% CI -32.37 to 21.37) and 12 months [\(Analysis 2.2](#page-52-0),2 [\(Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003, 48 children):MD-6.00%, 95% CI-25.27 to 13.27), the number with reduction in PTH [\(Analysis 2.3](#page-52-1) ([Ardissino](#page-18-1) [2000](#page-18-1), 59 children): RR 0.88, 95% CI 0.65 to 1.19) and the mean integrated PTH levels [\(Analysis 2.4](#page-52-2) ([Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003, 24 children): MD -58.00 pg/mL, 95% CI -212.55 to 96.55). In [Klaus 1995](#page-19-4), median (range) PTH levels fell significantly in both treatment groups with no differences between treatment groups [\(Table](#page-66-0) 2).

There were no significant differences in CrCl at eight weeks [\(Analysis 2.5](#page-52-3).1 [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000, 59 children): MD 0.50 mL/min/1.73 m2, 95% CI -5.72 to 6.72) or 12 months [\(Analysis 2.5](#page-52-3).2 [\(Schmitt](#page-21-1) [2003](#page-21-1), 24 children): MD 1.50 mL/min/1.73 m2, 95% CI -2.04 to 5.04,), or in numbers with hypercalcaemia ([Analysis 2.6.](#page-52-4)1 (2 studies, 80 children): RD -0.02, 95% CI -0.17 to 0.13; I 2 = 19%) or hyperphosphataemia ([Analysis 2.6.](#page-52-4)2 [\(Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000, 59 children): RD 0.03, 95% CI -0.06 to 0.12). [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003 reported no difference in the number of episodes of hypercalcaemia or hyperphosphataemia between the treatment groups.

### **Active vitamin D preparations versus placebo or no specific treatment**

Four parallel studies compared active vitamin D preparations (calcitriol, paricalcitol, 1α-hydroxyvitamin D) with placebo or no specific treatment ([Table](#page-66-1) 3) (Eke [1983;](#page-18-2) [Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005; [Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007; [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). None of the studies reported any data for patient-centred outcomes.

Two parallel studies (28 children) compared 1α-hydroxyvitamin D with no specific treatment (Eke [1983](#page-18-2); [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988). Though only 1/8 children treated with 1α-hydroxyvitamin D versus 5/7 not treated had abnormal bone histology at the end of treatment, the difference was not significant due to small numbers [\(Analysis 3.1](#page-54-0)) (Eke [1983,](#page-18-2) 15 patients): RR 0.17, 95% CI 0.03 to 1.16). This study reported no significant difference in PTH levels at the end of the study [\(Table](#page-66-1) 3). [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988 reported children treated with 1αhydroxyvitamin D showed reduced osteoid volume and both the number of children with PTH levels above the normal range of 3 to 25 pmol/L [\(Analysis 3.2](#page-54-1) (12 children): RR 0.23, 95% CI 0.06 to 0.97) and the mean PTH levels [\(Analysis 3.3](#page-54-2) (12 children): MD -55.00 pmol/L, 95% CI -83.03 to -26.97) were significantly lower in treated children compared with controls.

Two parallel studies (57 children) compared IV calcitriol [\(Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005) or IV paricalcitol ([Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007) given three times/week with placebo. IV vitamin D preparations (calcitriol or paricalcitol) significantly increased the number of children who achieved a 30% fall in PTH levels on at least two occasions during the study [\(Analysis 3.4](#page-54-3) (2 studies, 76 children): RR 2.75, 95% CI 1.39 to 5.47;  $1^2$  = 0%). However changes in mean PTH levels during treatment were not significantly different in children treated with IV calcitriol compared with placebo [\(Analysis 3.5](#page-55-0) (1 study, 47 children): MD -203.00 pg/mL, 95% CI -506.34 to 100.34). An analysis of mean PTH levels following paricalcitol therapy was not possible as standard deviations were not provided.

Overall there was no significant difference in the risk of hypercalcaemia with vitamin D preparations compared with placebo/no specific treatment ([Analysis 3.6](#page-55-1) (4 studies, 103 children): RD 0.08, 95% CI-0.08 to 0.24; I<sup>2</sup> = 55%). However there was heterogeneity with one study showing a significantly greater risk of hypercalcaemia in children treated with IV calcitriol. Following IV calcitriol, the number of children with elevated serum calciumphosphorus products ([Analysis 3.7](#page-55-2) [\(Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005, 47 children): RD 0.34, 95% CI 0.12 to 0.56) was increased compared with placebo while there was no significant difference in number with hyperphosphataemia ([Analysis 3.8](#page-55-3) [\(Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005, 47 children): RD 0.25, 95% CI -0.02 to 0.52). Mean changes in levels of serum calcium [\(Analysis 3.9.](#page-56-0)1 (2 studies, 76 children): MD 0.10 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.45 to 0.65;  $12 = 50\%$ ), serum calcium-phosphorus product [\(Analysis 3.9](#page-56-0).2 (2 studies. 76 children): MD 0.45 mg2/dL2, 95% CI  $-7.94$  to 8.83;  $1^2 = 42\%)$  and serum phosphorus [\(Analysis 3.9.](#page-56-0)3 (2) studies, 76 children): MD -0.01 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.66 to 0.63; I 2  $= 0\%$ ) did not differ between children treated with IV calcitriol or paricalcitol and placebo. Bone ALP was significantly reduced following IV calcitriol([Analysis 3.9](#page-56-0).4 ([Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005, 41 children): MD -47.70 µg/L, 95% CI -88.54 to -6.86). In the studies of 1αhydroxyvitamin D no differences were reported in mean serum calcium or phosphorus levels at the end of treatment but only graphical data or data without standard deviations were provided [\(Table](#page-66-1) 3).

### **Calcitriol versus dihydrotachysterol or ergocalciferol**

One study (82 children) compared the effect of calcitriol and dihydrotachysterol on growth, GFR and the number of episodes of hypercalcaemia (GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990). Data on growth and GFR were reported as changes in slopes of growth rates sowere not amenable to meta-analysis. Growth rates did not differ between treatment groups. GFR fell during treatment in both groups but there was no difference between groups. There was no significant difference in the number of episodes of hypercalcaemia between groups [\(Table](#page-67-0) [4](#page-67-0)).

[Hodson 1985](#page-19-2) compared calcitriol with ergocalciferol and found no significant differences between treatments in the number with height velocity ≥ expected [\(Analysis 4.1](#page-57-0) (15 children): RR 0.22, 95% CI 0.03 to 1.53), in the number with improved bone histology [\(Analysis 4.2](#page-57-1) (15 children): RR 1.53, 95% CI 0.77 to 3.06) and in final PTH levels ([Analysis 4.3](#page-57-2) (15 children): MD -0.48 ng/mL, 95% CI -1.23 to 0.27). The number of children with hypercalcaemia did not differ between groups ([Analysis 4.4](#page-57-3) (15 children): RR 1.75, 95% CI 0.68 to 4.50). The mean levels of serum calcium [\(Analysis 4.5](#page-57-4).1 (15 children): MD 0.18 mmol/L, 95% CI 0.01 to 0.35), serum phosphorus [\(Analysis 4.5.](#page-57-4)2 (15 children): MD -0.34 mmol/L, 95% CI -0.76 to 0.08) and serum ALP ([Analysis 4.5.](#page-57-4)3 (15 children): MD -39.00 U/L, 95% CI-116.63 to 38.63) at the end of the study did not differ between groups.

### **Ergocalciferol (replacement doses) versus placebo or no treatment**

Two studies [\(Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013; Shroff 2012) compared ergocalciferol in patients with CKD and vitamin D deficiency. Fewer children treated with ergocalciferol developed secondary hyperparathyroidism but the difference was not significant due to small patient numbers ([Analysis 5.1](#page-58-0) (Shroff 2012, 40 children): RR 0.33, 95% CI 0.11 to 1.05). However the time to development of hyperparathyroidism was significantly longer in children treated



with ergocalciferol compared with placebo (hazard ratio 0.30, 95% CI 0.09-0.93) (Shroff 2012). There were no significant differences between treatment groups in final PTH [\(Analysis 5.2](#page-58-1) [\(Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) [2013](#page-19-10), 20 children): MD -1.16 pg/mL, 95% CI -1.04 to 0.71), phosphorus levels [\(Analysis 5.4](#page-59-0) (2 studies, 60 children): MD -0.29 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.96 to 0.39; I 2 = 0%) and final calcium ([Analysis](#page-58-2) [5.3](#page-58-2) (2 studies, 60 children): MD 0.26 mg/dL, 95% CI -0.28 to 0.81; I 2  $= 42$ %). Vitamin D (1,25 (OH)) levels ([Analysis 5.5](#page-59-1) (Shroff 2012, 40 children): MD27.00 pmol/L, 95%CI 17.35 to 36.65) were significantly higher in the treatment group compared to control group though the differences were not clinically important. Both studies reported no adverse effects related to ergocalciferol and no child developed hypercalcaemia.

### **Phosphate binders: calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide**

Two studies [\(Salusky 1991](#page-19-7) (parallel study); [Mak 1985](#page-19-5) (cross-over study) compared calcium carbonate with aluminium hydroxide as phosphate binders ([Table](#page-68-0) 5). [Salusky 1991](#page-19-7) reported no significant difference in mean final height SDS between treatments ([Analysis](#page-60-0) [6.1](#page-60-0) (17 children): MD -0.86 SDS, 95% CI -2.24 to 0.52). The number with abnormal bone biopsies at the end of treatment was significantly lower in children treated with calcium carbonate compared with aluminium hydroxide [\(Analysis 6.2](#page-60-1) (17 children): RR 0.35, 95% CI 0.13 to 0.95). Bone aluminium levels ([Analysis](#page-60-2) [6.3](#page-60-2) (17 children): MD -1.00 mg/kg dry weight, 95% CI -12.29 to 10.29), final PTH levels [\(Analysis 6.4](#page-60-3) (17 children): MD -187.00 mLeq/L, 95% CI -1089.25 to 715.25) and final ALP [\(Analysis 6.5](#page-60-4) (17 children): MD 21.00 U/L, 95% CI -216.62 to 258.62) did not differ significantly between groups. The number with hypercalcaemia did not differ between groups ([Analysis 6.6](#page-60-5) (17 children): RD 0.31, 95% CI -0.14 to 0.77). In the cross-over study by [Mak 1985](#page-19-5) (12 children), results were not reported separately for each group. PTH levels normalised in both treatment groups. Serum calcium and phosphorus levels did not differ between groups. Plasma aluminium levels were significantly higher at the end of aluminium treatment compared with calcium carbonate treatment. Results of bone histology (overall no change), GFR (improved) and growth velocity SDS (improved) were not reported separately for treatment groups.

#### **Phosphate binders: sevelamer compared with calcium carbonate or calcium acetate**

Two parallel group ([Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Salusky 2005\)](#page-20-0) and one cross-over study ([Pieper 2006](#page-19-6)) compared sevelamer with calcium carbonate or calcium acetate ([Table](#page-68-1) 6). No study reported any patient-centred outcomes. There were no significant differences in the final PTH levels [\(Analysis 7.1](#page-61-0) ( 2 studies, 48 children): MD 51.92 pg/mL, 95% CI -77.53 to 181.36; I 2 = 34%), final ALP levels [\(Analysis 7.2](#page-62-0) (2 studies, 48 children): MD 90.48 IU/L, 95% CI -139.38 to 320.35; I 2 = 30%), mean serum calcium-phosphorus product ([Analysis 7.3](#page-62-1) (2 studies, 48 children): MD -1.12 mg<sup>2</sup>/dL<sup>2</sup>, 95% CI, -5.88 to 3.64; I<sup>2</sup> = 0%), mean serum calcium levels [\(Analysis 7.4](#page-62-2) (2 studies, 48 children): MD -0.40 mg/dL, 95% CI -1.16 to 0.36;  $1^2$  = 59%) or mean serum phosphorus levels ([Analysis 7.5](#page-62-3) (2 studies, 48 children): MD 0.17 mg/dL, 95% CI 0.37 to 0.71;  $1^2 = 0\%$ ) between groups.

[Salusky 2005](#page-20-0) reported bone histology parameters of bone formation rates, % fall in bone formation rates, eroded perimeter, osteoid seam width, and bone area did not differ between treatments [\(Analysis 7.6](#page-63-0)). Osteoid area ([Analysis 7.6.](#page-63-0)4 (1 study, 29

children); MD 4.20%, 95% CI 0.99 to 7.41) and osteoid perimeter [\(Analysis 7.6](#page-63-0).5 (1 study, 29 children): MD 13.00%, 95% CI 3.81 to 22.19) were significantly higher in sevelamer treated children but the differences were of no clinical significance. In the crossover study by [Pieper 2006](#page-19-6) the change in PTH levels and serum ALP did not differ between groups. Similarly the change in mean serum calcium-phosphorus product, serum calcium and serum phosphorus levels did not differ between therapy groups. [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0) reported 22 episodes of hypercalcaemia with calcium carbonate comparedwith five in children receiving sevelamerwhile [Pieper 2006](#page-19-6) reported six episodes of hypercalcaemia with calcium carbonate compared with one in children receiving sevelamer. No hypercalcaemic episodes were reported by [Gulati 2010](#page-19-9).

#### **Calcitriol versus doxercalciferol**

[Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0) and [Salusky 2005b](#page-21-4) compared doxercalciferol plus calcium carbonate or sevelamer to calcitriol plus calcium carbonate or sevelamer [\(Table](#page-67-0) 4). Bone histology parameters of bone formation rate ([Analysis 8.1](#page-64-0).1 (51 children): MD 10.29 µm3/ µm2/d, 95% CI -53.07 to 73.65), percentage eroded bone [\(Analysis](#page-64-0) [8.1.](#page-64-0)2 (51 children): MD 0.76%, 95% CI -6.19 to 7.71), percentage osteoid volume ([Analysis 8.1.](#page-64-0)3 ( 51 children): MD -0.16%, 95% CI -9.16 to 8.83), percentage osteoid surface [\(Analysis 8.1.](#page-64-0)4 (51 children): MD 1.04%, 95% CI -29.63 to 31.71), osteoid maturation time [\(Analysis 8.1.](#page-64-0)5 (51 children): MD 0.82 days, 95% CI -14.41 to 16.05) and percentage bone volume [\(Analysis 8.1.](#page-64-0)6 (51 children): MD 2.19%, 95% CI-9.82 to 13.91) did not differ significantly between treatment groups. Final levels of PTH, calcium, phosphorus, serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and FGF23 did not differ between groups (dataonly showngraphically instudy reports). ValuesofPTH and ALP fell significantly while values of FGF23 rose significantly with either vitamin D preparation. No differences in episodes of hypercalcaemia were seen between the two vitamin D therapies.

#### **Outcomes not reported**

No studies reported fractures, bone deformities, need for parathyroidectomy, dialysis-related events, symptoms related to hypercalcaemia or vascular/extra osseous calcification.

#### <span id="page-14-0"></span>**D I S C U S S I O N**

#### **Summary of main results**

We were only able to identify 18 RCTs of all interventions used for CKD-MBD in children over a period of 30 years. All identified studies examined phosphate binders or vitamin D sterols. No studies specifically examining dietary or surgical interventions, changes in dialysis prescription or calcimimetics were identified. Six studies of treatment of CKD-MBD involved phosphate binders (aluminium hydroxide) or vitamin D sterols (ergocalciferol, dihydrotachysterol) or routes of administration (intraperitoneal) which are no longer used or are uncommonly used in current clinical practice except for the small doses of ergocalciferol recommended for children with CKD and low 25 hydroxyvitamin D levels [\(KDOQI 2009\)](#page-23-11). There were few data to assist clinicians with the prevention of complications of renal bone disease since the only patient-centred-outcome reported was growth. This was reported in five studies (GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) [1990;](#page-18-3) [Hodson 1985;](#page-19-2) [Jones 1994;](#page-19-3) [Salusky 1991](#page-19-7); [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003) with no significant differences identified between treatments.

Treatment with calcitriol by both intraperitoneal and oral routes was effective in improving bone histology [\(Salusky 1998\)](#page-19-8) but

growth rates did not differ between routes [\(Jones 1994](#page-19-3)). The number of hypercalcaemic episodes did not differ between treatment routes although intraperitoneal calcitriol lowered PTH levels significantly more than oral calcitriol ([Salusky 1998\)](#page-19-8). However both treatments used intermittently and in high dose increased the number of children with adynamic bone disease ([Salusky 1998\)](#page-19-8). Intraperitoneal calcitriol is no longer recommended.

No differences in height SDS, PTH levels and frequency of hypercalcaemia were found between oral daily or oral intermittent calcitriol therapy ([Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000; [Klaus 1995;](#page-19-4) [Schmitt](#page-21-1) 2003). Oral intermittent therapy is no longer recommended.

Vitamin D sterols given orally or IV resulted in reduced PTH levels compared with placebo or no specific treatment. Hypercalcaemic episodes were more common with IV calcitriol in one study [\(Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005). Increased risk of hypercalcaemia was not reported with 1α-hydroxyvitamin D or paricalcitol. Qualitative description of bone histology indicated improvement in children treated with vitamin D sterols (Eke [1983](#page-18-2); [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988).

No significant differences in growth rates (GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990; [Hodson 1985\)](#page-19-2) or bone histology ([Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0); [Salusky 2005b\)](#page-21-4) were detected in studies comparing different vitamin D sterols.

Two studies [\(Rianthavorn](#page-19-10) 2013; Shroff 2012) compared ergocalciferol in patients with CKD and vitamin D deficiency. Although there was no significant difference in the number of children, who developed secondary hyperparathyroidism, the development of secondary hyperparathyroidism was significantly delayed while calcium levels were significantly increased with ergocalciferol compared with placebo.

Overall we found that phosphate binders (aluminium hydroxide, calcium carbonate or acetate and sevelamer) had indistinguishable effects in lowering serum phosphorus, reducing PTH and on mean height SDS but that hypercalcaemia was more common with calcium-containing binders [\(Gulati 2010](#page-19-9); [Mak 1985](#page-19-5); [Pieper](#page-19-6) [2006](#page-19-6); [Salusky 1991;](#page-19-7) [Salusky 2005\)](#page-20-0). One study suggested that bone histology remained abnormal less commonly in calcium carbonate treated children compared with those treated with aluminium hydroxide ([Salusky 1991](#page-19-7)).

#### **Overall completeness and applicability of evidence**

There were significant gaps between the interventions and outcomes that we had planned to study in this systematic review and the available data. In particular, no study provided data on patient-centred outcomes such as fractures, deformities and bone pain with only three studies providing numerical data on changes in height. The majority of studies only provided surrogate biochemical outcomes of PTH, serum ALP, calcium and phosphorus levels with a few early studies also reporting on radiological changes. We did not identify any studies, which considered nonpharmacological or surgical interventions or any studies, which evaluated calcimimetic agents in children.

There were many limitations in the available data which precluded combining results across studies in meta-analyses in many cases. Criteria for diagnosis of CKD-MBD varied between studies. As well as variation in the interventions examined, there was variation on outcomes reported and in how the outcomes were measured. Many studies reported the point estimate of the results but not the SD or

95% CI. The cross-over studies only presented the combined data for both arms, rather than each arm separately, and so could not be included in the meta-analyses. Some inconsistencies in outcome reporting are inevitable when comparing studies published in different eras. Early studies tended to focus only on the incidence of hypercalcaemia as an adverse consequence of both vitamin D and phosphate binders whereas more recent studies included hyperphosphataemia and elevated serum calcium-phosphorus product, since recognition of the adverse consequences of these parameters. Similarly, reporting of radiological abnormalities was a common outcome measure historically which has now largely been discarded. The relevance of certain outcome measures has changed over time. For example, measurements of plasma or bone aluminium levels, which were of relevance when aluminium hydroxide was used as a phosphate binder is no longer relevant.

Bone histomorphometry has been considered the reference standard to assess treatment efficacy in this setting, but only two of 18 included studies [\(Salusky 1998](#page-19-8); [Salusky 2005](#page-20-0); [Salusky 2005a;](#page-21-0) [Salusky 2005b](#page-21-4)) provided adequate and comparable bone biopsy data making the value of bone histomorphometry in assessing treatment response difficult to assess in this systematic review. In addition, bone histomorphometry of trabecular bone does not reflect the effects of CKD on cortical bone. CKD reduces cortical bone volume and alters its architecture increasing the risk of fractures in long bones.

Though a surrogate measure, reduction in PTH levels is the most commonly used measure of efficacy of therapies in CKD-MBD. However in the reported studies there was considerable variation in the way in which PTH levels were measured. PTH values were variably reported as end of study mean or median values, percentage fall in PTH, the number of children with a fall in PTH levels, the mean integrated PTH value, the mean change in PTH levels during the study and the number of children with two consecutive falls of ≥ 30% in PTHvalues. The potential for outcomes reporting bias is high when children are reported as having a successful outcome if their PTH value has fallen by an apparently arbitrary proportion at any time during the study period, rather than reporting whether the benefit was transient, or sustained, or what the primary outcome measure was. Also, the comparison of PTH values between studies is limited because different PTH assays have been used in different studies reflecting the variations in PTH assays over the past 30 years ([Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-1) 2013).

Comparisons of new therapeutic agents or a new method for their administration against placebo are of little clinical relevance if alternative agents are already recognised as successfully treating the disorder. Such a comparison was described in four studies. Two of these studies (Eke [1983;](#page-18-2) [Watson](#page-21-2) 1988) were published in the 1980s when alternative successful treatments for renal bone disease were not confirmed. However two recently published studies reported that IV calcitriol ([Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005) or IV paricalcitol ([Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007) reduce PTH values more effectively than placebo. These results are not remarkable because it is generally agreed that vitamin D analogues are beneficial for biochemical abnormalities associated with CKD-MBD. Of more relevance to the clinician would be knowing whether IV calcitriol or IV paricalcitol are associated with improvements in patient-centred outcomes such as improved growth rates as well as fewer episodes of hypercalcaemia and reduction in PTH levels compared with oral calcitriol. In studies evaluating newer agents, or alternative modes

of administration, it is important to compare a new agent, or its mode of administration with agents considered to represent the current standard of care using patient-centred outcomes as the primary outcomes.

### **Quality of the evidence**

Included studies were commonly reported incompletely and were of poor methodological quality, although this may reflect pre-2001 CONSORT (Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials) practices [\(www.consort-statement.org](http://www.consort-statement.org)). Sequence generation and allocation concealment was adequate in 12 and 11 of 18 studies respectively. Four studies reported blinding of participants, investigators or outcome assessors. All studies were considered at low risk of detection bias because they measured laboratory-based outcomes unlikely to be influenced by lack of blinding. Seven studies reported loss of follow-up or exclusion from data analysis (attrition bias) exceeding 10% and six studies were at high risk of selective reporting bias. Absence of allocation concealment, blinding and intention-to-treat analysis tends to lead to an over-estimate of the observed treatment effects ([Schulz 1995](#page-23-12); [Wood 2008\)](#page-24-4). Many studies were too small to detect any differences between treatments even if differences did exist. Several studies provided outcome data qualitatively as normal or not statistically different without providing the numeric results. Although this under-reporting of data was more common in the earlier studies, it was still evident in the most recent studies ([Figure](#page-11-0) 3).

Studies included small numbers of patients. Few studies used the same interventions and/or reported outcomes in the same way so therefore they could not be combined in the meta-analyses. Therefore there were insufficient data to create summary of findings tables.

### **Potential biases in the review process**

Since the study was commenced, the literature search has been run several times up to September 2015 making it unlikely that any studies have been missed. However 40% of study reports in the Cochrane Kidney and Transplant Specialised Register have been identified by handsearching of conference proceedings so it remains possible that further studies of therapies for CKD-MBD in children will be identified as conference proceedings from different congresses are searched.

The inability to include any data from cross-over studies in metaanalyses may have resulted in bias towards the results from parallel studies. However results from cross-over studies have been included in the additional tables as well as being referred to in the text [\(Table](#page-65-1) 1; [Table](#page-66-0) 2; [Table](#page-66-1) 3; [Table](#page-67-0) 4; [Table](#page-68-0) 5; [Table](#page-68-1) 6).

### **Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews**

Systematic reviews evaluating the use of vitamin D compounds in adults identified similar limitations to their review as we did ([Palmer](#page-23-13) 2009a; [Palmer](#page-23-14) 2009b). In particular few studies reported patient-centred outcomes, few studies compared the newer vitamin D preparations with established ones and for each comparison there were limited numbers of studies and patients limiting the conclusions that could be drawn. While established vitamin D preparations (calcitriol,1α-hydroxyvitamin D) were not demonstrated to reduce PTH levels significantly, there was considerable heterogeneity in the analyses. Newer

vitamin D preparations including paricalcitol significantly reduced mean PTH levels. All vitamin D preparations increased the risk of hypercalcaemia compared with placebo. The authors concluded that the value of vitamin D therapy on important clinical outcomes in patients with CKD remains uncertain.

In a systematic review of nutritional vitamin D compounds of four RCTs (90 participants), which included both dialysis and nondialysis CKD patients, the PTH levels decreased significantly with vitamin D therapy ([Kandula 2011\)](#page-23-15).

Two systematic reviews [\(Navaneethan](#page-23-16) 2011; [Tonelli](#page-24-5) 2007), comparing sevelamer with calcium-containing phosphate binders, identified no differences between binders for all-cause mortality or cardiovascular mortality. Following sevelamer treatment the risk of hypercalcaemia was reduced and serum calcium levels were lower. However serum phosphate levels were higher and levels of serum calcium-phosphorus product did not differ. End of treatment PTH levels were significantly higher with sevelamer compared with calcium salts ([Navaneethan](#page-23-16) 2011).

As in our review, the primary outcomes reported in these systematic reviews were surrogate biochemical markers rather than patient-centred outcomes so that the clinical value of vitamin D compounds or non-calcium-containing phosphate binders in patients with CKD remains uncertain.

### <span id="page-16-0"></span>**A U T H O R S ' C O N C L U S I O N S**

### **Implications for practice**

In conclusion, this review confirms that renal bone disease, assessed by changes in PTH levels, is improved by all vitamin D preparations. However we do not know whether a reduction in PTH levels translates to a an improvement in clinical outcomes such as improved growth rate, reduction in fracture rates or reduced risk of cardiovascular calcification. No consistent differences between different routes of administration, different frequencies of dosing or different vitamin D preparations have been demonstrated in existing RCTs. Though fewer episodes of high serum calcium levels occurred with the non-calcium-containing binder, sevelamer, compared with calcium-containing binders, both were effective in lowering serum phosphorus levels and there were no differences in serum phosphorus though calcium levels were lower in sevelamer treated children. Six existing studies evaluated agents that are no longer in general clinical use. Studies evaluating new agents, such as the phosphate binder lanthanum carbonate, new vitamin D preparations or calcimimetic agents, are required in children. However recently a sponsored study assessing efficacy and safety of cinacalcet in children with CKD and secondary hyperparathyroidism receiving dialysis was terminated by the US Food and Drug Administration because of adverse effects [\(NCT01277510\)](#page-23-17).

### **Implications for research**

Existing RCTs provide limited data on the efficacy of interventions for the prevention and treatment of CKD-MBD in children other than for surrogate biochemical outcomes so there remains considerable uncertainty about the benefits and harms of interventions. As newer vitamin D sterols, calcimimetic agents and phosphate binders are developed, head-to-head comparisons with the current standard therapies will be required in well-designed adequately powered paediatric RCTs using standardised outcome measures

including those of direct clinical relevance to children and their

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families such as growth, fractures, bone deformities and measures of bone health as well as surrogate biochemical markers.

Ideally efficacy studies should utilise an accurate non-invasive quantitative assessment of bone health that includes assessment of both cortical and trabecular bone and correlates with patientcentred outcomes such as fractures. Peripheral quantitative computed tomography may be more beneficial in determining fracture risk in kidney failure as it provides a more accurate estimate of volumetric bone mineral density (g/cm<sup>3</sup>) with improved differentiation between cortical and trabecular bone ([Sanchez](#page-23-18) [2008](#page-23-18)). It is known kidney failure affects cortical bone more significantly than trabecular bone. Paediatric data is however limited and therefore these investigations are not established in the paediatric setting [\(Bacchetta](#page-22-10) 2011). MicroMRI could also be investigated as a marker of bone health.

The value of new surrogate markers such as serum FGF23 should also be evaluated ([Wesseling-Perry](#page-24-1) 2013).

### <span id="page-17-0"></span>**A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S**

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### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**C H A R A C T E R I S T I C S O F S T U D I E S**

#### **Characteristics of included studies** *[ordered by study ID]*

#### <span id="page-24-4"></span>**Wood 2008**

Wood L, Egger M, Gluud LL, Schulz KF, Juni P, Altman DG, et al. Empirical evidence of bias in treatment effect estimates in controlled trials with different interventions and outcomes: meta-epidemiological study. *BMJ* 2008;**336**(7644):601-5. [MEDLINE: 18316340]

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<span id="page-24-6"></span>\* Indicates the major publication for the study





**[Ardissino](#page-18-1) 2000**  *(Continued)*

- ALP and PTH levels presented as median and range
- Data on serum Ca x P graphical only

*Risk of bias*











### *Risk of bias*

l,



### **GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990**





### **GFRD [Study](#page-18-3) 1990**  *(Continued)*



• Exclusion criteria: nephrotic syndrome; SLE; treatment with steroids; diseases requiring vitamin D

### *Risk of bias*



### **[Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005**



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**[Greenbaum](#page-19-0) 2005**  *(Continued)*

Other bias **High risk** Supported by Abbott Laboratories



### **[Greenbaum](#page-19-1) 2007**  *(Continued)*







### **[Gulati 2010](#page-19-9)**  *(Continued)*



### **[Hodson 1985](#page-19-2)**





# • Biochemistry: PTH, ALP, Ca, P **[Hodson 1985](#page-19-2)**  *(Continued)*

- Notes  **Number of exclusions unclear. Reported that 6/24 excluded (4 calcitriol, 2 ergocalciferol) but only** 15/24 analysed so 9/24 excluded
	- Only patients undergoing pre and post biopsies were included

### *Risk of bias*



## Methods • Study design: cross-over RCT • Time frame: 1993 to 1994 • Follow-up period: 7 months including 1 month run-in • Loss to follow-up/exclusions: 0% (0/7) Participants • Country: Canada • Setting: Single centre • CCPD or CAPD • Number: 7 • Mean age  $\pm$  SD: 7.2  $\pm$  5.2 years • Sex (M/F): 5/2 • Exclusion criteria: not reported Interventions Treatment/control group • IP or oral calcitriol 0.01-0.02 µg/kg/d for 3 months, then crossed over for 3 months Co-interventions **[Jones 1994](#page-19-3)**



### **[Jones 1994](#page-19-3)**  *(Continued)*

## • CaCO<sub>3</sub> as phosphate binder, Dietary phosphorus restriction



### *Risk of bias*



### **[Klaus 1995](#page-19-4)**





### **[Klaus 1995](#page-19-4)**  *(Continued)*

l,

• Exclusion criteria: not reported



### *Risk of bias*



### **[Mak 1985](#page-19-5)**

Methods • Study design: cross-over study

• Time frame: 1983 to 1984

• Follow-up period: 15 months including 3 months run-in





### *Risk of bias*






#### **[Pieper 2006](#page-19-0)** *(Continued)*







#### **[Rianthavorn](#page-19-1) 2013**  *(Continued)*









#### **[Salusky 1991](#page-19-2)** *(Continued)*

- Plasma aluminium levels
- Number of patients with Ca > 2.8mmol/L



*Risk of bias*



#### **[Salusky 1998](#page-19-3)**







*Risk of bias*



## **[Salusky 2005](#page-20-0)**





**Cochrane Library**







#### **[Salusky 2005a](#page-21-0)**  *(Continued)*

#### *Risk of bias*









influenced results

Other bias Low risk USPH grants and Casey Lee Ball Foundation but Bone Care International pro-

graphically

#### **[Schmitt](#page-21-2) 2003**

All outcomes

(attrition bias) All outcomes

porting bias)

Incomplete outcome data

Selective reporting (re-

Methods • Study design: RCT; data from a subset of prepubertal participants with GFR < 40 mL/min/1.73 m2 included in [Ardissino 2000](#page-18-0)

vided medications and other unrestricted support for the study

High risk 9/60 (15%) did not complete study. Lack of data on these patients could have

High risk Primary outcome was bone histology; secondary outcomes only reported

- Time frame: 1998 to 2003
- Follow-up period: 12 months

# • Loss to follow-up/excluded post randomisation: 17% (5/29) Participants • Country: Europe • Setting: International, multicentre study • eGFR < 40 mL/min/1.73 m2; PTH > 70 pg/mL • Number (randomised/analysed): treatment group (14/12); control group (15/12) • Mean age, range (years): treatment group (5.5, 2.4 to 8.4); control group (5.1, 1.4 to 9.1) • Sex (M/F): treatment group (11/1); control group (10/2) • Exclusion criteria: Ca < 8.5 mg/dL or > 11.5 mg/dL; P < 3.8 mg/dL or > 7.5 mg/dL; underlying serious disease; rhGH or corticosteroids treatment; dialysis Interventions Treatment group • Intermittent oral calcitriol 35 ng/kg twice weekly for 12 month. After 1 month dose adjusted for PTH level Control group • Daily oral calcitriol 10 ng/kg for 12 months. After 1 month dose adjusted for PTH levels Co-interventions • Phosphate binders and other medications according to clinical requirements Outcomes • Change in height SDS • Average time integrated mean plasma PTH; % maximal fall in mean PTH levels; number with reduced PTH levels • Change in estimated CrCl • Change in median ALP levels • Serum Ca x P; number with hypercalcaemia or hyperphosphataemia Notes • Serum Ca x P shown graphically only *Risk of bias* **Bias Authors' judgement Support for judgement** Random sequence generation (selection bias) Low risk Centrally randomised according to PTH levels Allocation concealment (selection bias) Low risk Centrally randomised according to PTH levels Blinding of participants and personnel (performance bias) All outcomes High risk Not blinded and lack of blinding could influence patient management Blinding of outcome assessment (detection bias) All outcomes Low risk not blinded but lack of blinding unlikely to influence patient management Incomplete outcome data (attrition bias) All outcomes High risk 5/29 (17%) left study (RRT 4, rhGH 1). Could have influenced results Selective reporting (reporting bias) Low risk **Data reported on all expected outcomes [Schmitt](#page-21-2) 2003**  *(Continued)*



**[Schmitt](#page-21-2) 2003**  *(Continued)*

Other bias **Low risk** No evidence of other bias



#### **Shroff 2012** *(Continued)*





#### **[Watson](#page-21-4) 1988**  *(Continued)*



AKI - acute kidney injury; ALP - alkaline phosphatase; AKI - acute kidney injury; BMD - bone mineral density; Ca - serum calcium; Ca x P - calcium-phosphorus product; CAPD - continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis; CCPD - continuous cycling peritoneal dialysis; CKD - chronic kidney disease; CrCl - creatinine clearance; DHT - dihydrotachysterol; eGFR - estimated glomerular filtration rate; HD haemodialysis; HVSDS - height velocity standard deviation score; IP - intraperitoneal; IV - intravenous; K - serum potassium; M/F - male/ female; PD - peritoneal dialysis; PTH - parathyroid hormone; SLE - systemic lupus erythrocytosis; RCT - randomised controlled trial; rhGH - growth hormone; RRT - renal replacement therapy; SDS - standard deviation score

#### **Characteristics of excluded studies** *[ordered by study ID]*



# **D A T A A N D A N A L Y S E S**

## **Comparison 1. Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol**



# <span id="page-49-0"></span>**Analysis 1.1. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 1 Bone disease on bone histology.**







## **Analysis 1.2. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 2 Bone formation rate.**

<span id="page-50-0"></span>

#### **Analysis 1.3. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 3 PTH.**

<span id="page-50-1"></span>

#### **Analysis 1.4. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 4 Maximum calcium level.**

<span id="page-50-2"></span>

#### **Analysis 1.5. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 5 Adverse events.**

<span id="page-50-3"></span>

## <span id="page-51-0"></span>**Analysis 1.6. Comparison 1 Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol, Outcome 6 Peritonitis episodes/patient-months.**



## **Comparison 2. Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol**



## <span id="page-51-1"></span>**Analysis 2.1. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 1 Change in heightSDSat 12 months.**



<span id="page-52-0"></span>

#### **Analysis 2.2. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 2 Fall in PTH.**

# <span id="page-52-1"></span>Analysis 2.3. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 3 Number with fall in PTH at 8 weeks.



#### <span id="page-52-2"></span>Analysis 2.4. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 4 Mean integrated PTH at 12 months.



## **Analysis 2.5. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 5 Kidney function.**

<span id="page-52-3"></span>

#### **Analysis 2.6. Comparison 2 Intermittent versus daily oral calcitriol, Outcome 6 Adverse events.**

<span id="page-52-4"></span>





# **Comparison 3. Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment**







#### **Analysis 3.1. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 1 Abnormal bone histology.**

<span id="page-54-0"></span>

#### **Analysis 3.2. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 2 Elevated PTH.**

<span id="page-54-1"></span>

#### **Analysis 3.3. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 3 PTH.**

<span id="page-54-2"></span>

## **Analysis 3.4. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/ no treatment, Outcome 4 Number with 30% fall in PTH on two occasions.**

<span id="page-54-3"></span>

#### **Analysis 3.5. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/ no treatment, Outcome 5 Change in PTH with IVcalcitriol.**

<span id="page-55-0"></span>

## <span id="page-55-1"></span>**Analysis 3.6. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 6 Hypercalcaemia.**



## **Analysis 3.7. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/ no treatment, Outcome 7 Calcium-phosphorus product > 7.5 mg2/dL2.**

<span id="page-55-2"></span>

# **Analysis 3.8. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 8 Phosphorus > 6.5 mg/dL.**

<span id="page-55-3"></span>

# **Analysis 3.9. Comparison 3Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 9 Change in biochemical values.**

<span id="page-56-0"></span>

# **Comparison 4. Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol**







#### **Analysis 4.1. Comparison 4 Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol, Outcome 1 Height velocity ≥ expected.**

<span id="page-57-0"></span>

# **Analysis 4.2. Comparison 4 Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol, Outcome 2 Improved bone histology.**

<span id="page-57-1"></span>

# **Analysis 4.3. Comparison 4 Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol, Outcome 3 PTH.**

<span id="page-57-2"></span>

#### **Analysis 4.4. Comparison 4 Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol, Outcome 4 Hypercalcaemia.**

<span id="page-57-3"></span>

## **Analysis 4.5. Comparison 4 Calcitriol versus ergocalciferol, Outcome 5 Biochemical values.**

<span id="page-57-4"></span>





#### **Comparison 5. Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment**



# **Analysis 5.1. Comparison 5 Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 1 Number developing hyperparathyroidism.**

<span id="page-58-0"></span>

## **Analysis 5.2. Comparison 5 Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 2 PTH.**

<span id="page-58-1"></span>

#### **Analysis 5.3. Comparison 5 Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 3 Calcium.**

<span id="page-58-2"></span>





# **Analysis 5.4. Comparison 5 Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 4 Phosphorus.**

<span id="page-59-0"></span>

## **Analysis 5.5. Comparison 5 Ergocalciferol versus placebo/no treatment, Outcome 5 End 1.25(OH)D3 levels.**

<span id="page-59-1"></span>

#### **Comparison 6. Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide**



#### **Analysis 6.1. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 1 HeightSDS.**

<span id="page-60-0"></span>

#### <span id="page-60-1"></span>**Analysis 6.2. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 2 Abnormal bone biopsy.**



#### **Analysis 6.3. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 3 Bone aluminium.**

<span id="page-60-2"></span>

#### **Analysis 6.4. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 4 PTH.**

<span id="page-60-3"></span>

#### **Analysis 6.5. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 5 ALP.**

<span id="page-60-4"></span>

#### **Analysis 6.6. Comparison 6 Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide, Outcome 6 Hypercalcaemia.**

<span id="page-60-5"></span>



## **Comparison 7. Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders**

## **Analysis 7.1. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders, Outcome 1 PTH.**

<span id="page-61-0"></span>

#### **Analysis 7.2. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders, Outcome 2 ALP.**

<span id="page-62-0"></span>

Sevelamer -1000 -500 0 500 1000 Calcium carbonate/acetate

# **Analysis 7.3. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders, Outcome 3 Calcium-phosphorus product.**

<span id="page-62-1"></span>

**Analysis 7.4. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders, Outcome 4 Calcium.**

<span id="page-62-2"></span>

<span id="page-62-3"></span>**Analysis 7.5. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calcium-containing phosphate binders, Outcome 5 Phosphorus.**







# **Analysis 7.6. Comparison 7Sevelamer versus calciumcontaining phosphate binders, Outcome 6 Bone histomorphometry.**

<span id="page-63-0"></span>

# **Comparison 8. Calcitriol versus doxercalciferol**







## **Analysis 8.1. Comparison 8 Calcitriol versus doxercalciferol, Outcome 1 Bone histomorphometry.**

<span id="page-64-0"></span>





#### **A D D I T I O N A L T A B L E S**

#### **Table 1. Intraperitoneal versus oral calcitriol in children on peritoneal dialysis**



*a* Cross-over study

*b* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95% CI; cross-over studies excluded

*c* Experimental intervention

*d* Comparative intervention

PTH - parathyroid hormone; SDS - standard deviation score

## **Table 2. Intermittent oral versus daily oral calcitriol**



*a* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95%

*b* Experimental intervention

*c* Comparative intervention

CrCl - creatinine clearance; PTH - parathyroid hormone; SDS - standard deviation score

## **Table 3. Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment**



## **Table 3. Vitamin D preparations versus placebo/no treatment** *(Continued)*



*a* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95% CI

*b* Experimental intervention

*c* Comparative intervention

ALP - alkaline phosphatase; Ca x P - calcium-phosphorus product; PTH - parathyroid hormone





#### **Table 4. Calcitriol versus other active vitamin D preparations**  *(Continued)*



*a* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95% CI

*b* Experimental intervention

*c* Comparative intervention

ALP - alkaline phosphatase; GFR - glomerular filtration rate; PTH - parathyroid hormone

## **Table 5. Calcium carbonate versus aluminium hydroxide**



*a* Cross-over study

*b* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95% CI; cross-over studies excluded

*c* Experimental intervention

*d* Comparative intervention

ALP - alkaline phosphatase; GFR - glomerular filtration rate; PTH - parathyroid hormone; SDS - standard deviation score

#### **Table 6. Sevelamer versus calcium carbonate or calcium acetate**



#### **Table 6. Sevelamer versus calcium carbonate or calcium acetate**  *(Continued)*



*a* Cross-over study

*b* Summary estimate (RR, RD, MD) and 95% CI; cross-over studies excluded

*c* Experimental intervention

*d* Comparative intervention

ALP - alkaline phosphatase; Ca x P - calcium-phosphorus product; PTH - parathyroid hormone

# **A P P E N D I C E S**

#### **Appendix 1. Electronic search strategies**









## **Appendix 2. Risk of bias assessment tool**




**Trusted evidence. Informed decisions.**



#### **W H A T ' S N E W**



### **C O N T R I B U T I O N S O F A U T H O R S**

- Elisabeth M. Hodson: concept and design, data extraction, analysis and interpretation, writing the manuscript
- Deirdre Hahn: data extraction, analysis and interpretation, writing the manuscript
- Jonathan C. Craig: concept and design, interpretation of the data, writing the manuscript

## **D E C L A R A T I O N S O F I N T E R E S T**

- Elisabeth Hodson: I was the lead author on a study published in 1985 [\(Hodson 1985](#page-19-0)), which was eligible for and included in this review. Data extraction was carried out independently by Dr Geary and myself and all data included in the review was agreed on by both authors.
- Deirdre Hahn: none declared
- Jonathan Craig: none declared

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## **I N D E X T E R M S**

# **Medical Subject Headings (MeSH)**

Aluminum Hydroxide [therapeutic use]; Bone Density Conservation Agents [\*therapeutic use]; Bone Diseases, Metabolic [blood] [\*drug therapy] [etiology]; Calcitriol [therapeutic use]; Calcium [blood]; Calcium Carbonate [therapeutic use]; Chronic Disease; Ergocalciferols [therapeutic use]; Kidney Diseases [\*complications]; Parathyroid Hormone [blood]; Phosphorus [blood]; Polyamines [therapeutic use]; Randomized Controlled Trials as Topic; Sevelamer [therapeutic use]; Vitamin D [therapeutic use]

#### **MeSH check words**

Child; Humans