

Aortic Calcification and Arterial Stiffness Burden in a Chronic Kidney Disease Cohort with High Cardiovascular Risk: Baseline Characteristics of the IMPact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-Points in Chronic Kidney Disease Trial

Nicole M. Lioufas^{a-c} Eugenia Pedagogos^{b-d} Carmel M. Hawley^{e,f}
Elaine M. Pascoe^e Grahame J. Elder^{g,h} Sunil V. Badve^{i,j} Andrea Valks^e
Nigel D. Toussaint^{a,b} on behalf of the IMPROVE-CKD Investigators

^aDepartment of Nephrology, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia; ^bDepartment of Medicine (RMH), University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia; ^cDepartment of Nephrology, Western Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; ^dDepartment of Nephrology, Alfred Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; ^eAustralasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; ^fDepartment of Nephrology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Woolloongabba, QLD, Australia; ^gDepartment of Renal Medicine, Westmead Hospital, Westmead, NSW, Australia; ^hDivision of Osteoporosis and Bone Biology, Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Darlinghurst, NSW, Australia; ⁱDepartment of Nephrology, St. George Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia; ^jDivision of Renal and Metabolic, The George Institute for Global Health, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW, Australia

Keywords

Arterial compliance · Cardiovascular disease · Chronic kidney disease · Chronic kidney disease mineral and bone disorder · Phosphate · Vascular calcification

Abstract

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is associated with excess cardiovascular morbidity and mortality compared to the general population. Hyperphosphataemia, associated with vascular calcification and arterial stiffness, may play a key role in the pathogenesis of cardiovascular disease (CVD) associated with CKD, although phosphate reduction strategies have not consistently proven to beneficially affect clinically relevant outcomes. The IMPact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in CKD (IMPROVE-CKD) study is an international, multi-centre, randomized, placebo-controlled trial in-

vestigating the effect of the phosphate binder lanthanum carbonate on intermediate cardiovascular markers in patients with stage 3b–4 CKD. The primary end-point is change in carotid-femoral pulse wave velocity (PWV, SphygmoCor) after 96 weeks. Secondary outcomes include change in abdominal aortic calcification (AAC, computed tomography), serum phosphate and fibroblast growth factor 23 (FGF-23). In total, 278 participants were recruited and randomized, mean age 63 ± 13 years, 69% male, 45% diabetes, 32% CVD, 33% stage 3b CKD and 67% stage 4 CKD. Mean estimated glomerular filtration rate and serum phosphate were 26.6 ± 8.3 mL/min/1.72 m² and 1.25 ± 0.20 mmol/L, respectively. Median (interquartile range) intact and c-terminal FGF-23 levels were 133.0 (89.1–202) pg/mL and 221.1 (154.3–334.1) RU/mL, respectively. Mean PWV was 10.8 ± 3.6 m/s and 81% had AAC (median Agatston score 1,535 [63–5,744] Hounsfield units). PWV ≥ 10 m/s was associated with older age,

diabetes, CVD, presence of AAC, higher systolic blood pressure (BP), larger waist circumference and higher alkaline phosphatase. AAC was associated with older age, male sex, diabetes, CVD, higher diastolic BP, dyslipidaemia (and use of statins), smoking, larger waist circumference and increased PWV. In conclusion, IMPROVE-CKD participants had high baseline risk for cardiovascular events, as suggested by high baseline PWV and AAC values.

© 2020 S. Karger AG, Basel

Introduction

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is increasingly identified as a common comorbidity, with a prevalence of 8–10% of the global population [1]. Cardiovascular disease (CVD) increases 3- to 30-fold in patients with advanced CKD compared to the general population [1, 2], and an intimate relationship exists between CVD and abnormalities of bone and mineral metabolism. CKD – mineral and bone disorder (CKD-MBD) is a complication of progressive CKD comprising abnormalities of mineral metabolism, bone disease and extra-osseous calcification. It is closely associated with cardiovascular mortality, in part due to the contribution of bone and mineral disturbances to vascular calcification and arterial stiffness [2, 3]. The active process of vascular calcification is promoted by a concurrent reduction in calcification inhibitors and is associated with reduced arterial compliance. These changes provide potential pathophysiological mechanisms linking CKD to increases in cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events.

Abnormalities of serum calcium, phosphate, parathyroid hormone (PTH) and vitamin D are common laboratory disturbances associated with CKD-MBD, and hyperphosphataemia has been associated with increased cardiovascular mortality in patients with CKD-MBD and in the general population [4, 5]. Nevertheless, the benefit of reducing serum phosphate remains unclear and few evidence-based recommendations exist to guide management. Initial treatment strategies usually include dietary phosphate restriction followed by phosphate-lowering medication, with calcium-containing phosphate binders used most frequently. However, calcium-containing binders have recently been associated with excess mortality and the progression of vascular calcification. Consequently, recent guidelines have suggested a reduction in these medications or their avoidance [6, 7]. Lanthanum carbonate, a non-calcium-containing phosphate binder, has been associated with a reduction in the progression of

vascular calcification compared to calcium-based binders [7, 8], but few placebo-controlled trials have shown benefit of lanthanum carbonate to date beyond lowering serum phosphate [9, 10].

The Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in CKD (IMPROVE-CKD) trial seeks to address the potential beneficial effects of lanthanum carbonate on arterial compliance and vascular calcification in patients with non-dialysis CKD [11]. We describe baseline characteristics of participants recruited to the IMPROVE-CKD trial and compare this cohort to other patients with CKD reported in observational and interventional studies in which arterial compliance and vascular calcification have been measured.

Methods

IMPROVE-CKD Trial

The IMPROVE-CKD study is an investigator-initiated, multi-centre, international, randomized, placebo-controlled trial in participants with stage 3b–4 CKD (estimated glomerular filtration rate [eGFR] 15–44 mL/min/1.73 m²) to assess the intervention of fixed-dose lanthanum carbonate on surrogate cardiovascular end-points over 96 weeks. The protocol for the IMPROVE-CKD study has been published [11]. In brief, the study is co-ordinated by the Australasian Kidney Trials Network (AKTN) and has been registered as a clinical trial (ACTRN12610000650099). Participants were recruited from sites in Australia, New Zealand and Malaysia, with recruitment between 2011 and 2017. Final participant visits were completed in December 2018. Ethics approval was obtained at each participating site.

Inclusion criteria were participants with stage 3b–4 CKD who had a serum phosphate concentration >1.00 mmol/L (3.10 mg/dL) on at least one occasion over the 6-month period prior to enrolment, were 18 years or over and had the ability to give informed consent. Exclusion criteria included medical conditions other than CKD affecting calcium and phosphate metabolism (e.g., primary hyper- or hypo-parathyroidism), gastrointestinal/malabsorption disorders or liver dysfunction, kidney transplantation, presence of atrial fibrillation, serum phosphate ≤0.8 mmol/L (2.48 mg/dL) at screening, pregnancy or breastfeeding or having a hospitalization or cardiovascular event within 1 month. Participants were stratified according to centre, age, presence of diabetes and CKD stage.

Data were collected prospectively from participants, including demographic information, comorbidities and medications. Comorbidities, including CVD, hypertension and dyslipidaemia, were recorded by site investigators and not adjudicated centrally. The primary end-point was change in carotid-femoral pulse wave velocity (PWV) measured using a SphygmoCor device (AtCor, PWV Inc., Westmead, Sydney, Australia) at 96 weeks. Secondary end-points included serum and urinary markers of bone mineralization and turnover (including PTH and fibroblast growth factor 23 [FGF-23]), and computed tomography (CT)-based measurement of abdominal aortic calcification (AAC; Agatston score, AAC over 10 cm z-axis below the level of the upper end-plate of L2 lumbar vertebral body with CT data sets centrally analyzed on

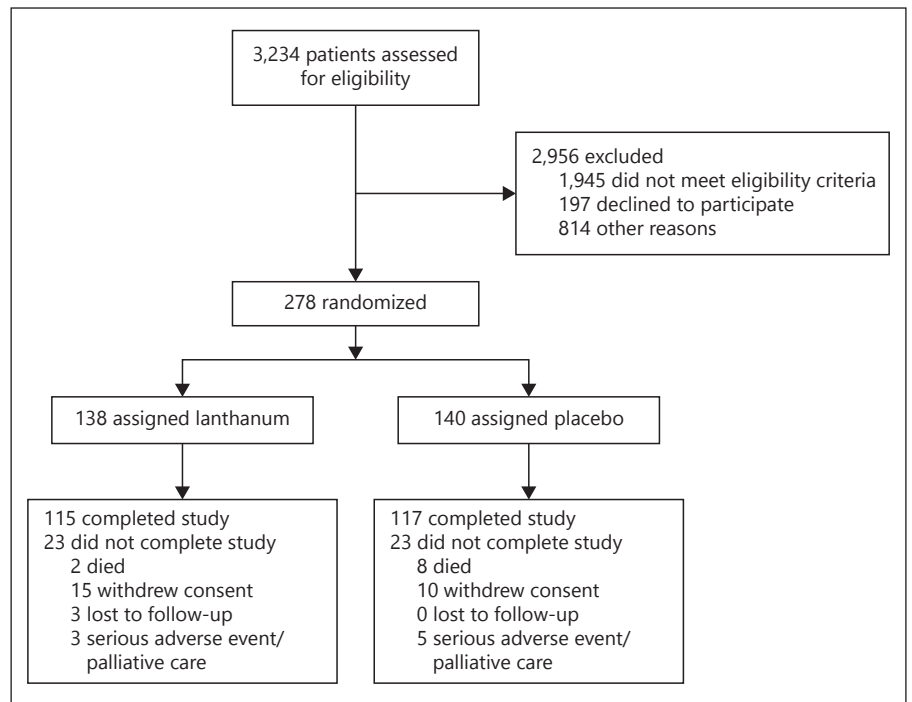


Fig. 1. Participant flow chart for the IMPROVE-CKD trial.

a single workstation [Intelli-space portal, Philips Healthcare, Cleveland, OH, USA]). Two sub-studies of the IMPROVE-CKD trial were also conducted on a proportion of participants – a dietary sub-study analyzing the dietary intake of phosphate as assessed by dietary survey and a sub-study assessing changes in left ventricular mass using cardiac magnetic resonance imaging.

This paper presents baseline characteristics of participants recruited to the IMPROVE-CKD study. A number of CKD registries describe characteristics of patient cohorts, but only a limited number include PWV, a surrogate marker of vascular events [12], and determination of vascular calcification. Several other observational and interventional studies involving patients with CKD have assessed PWV and AAC [13, 14], and we compare characteristics of participants in the IMPROVE-CKD study to this published literature.

Statistics

The IMPROVE-CKD trial was designed to detect a clinically meaningful difference of 1 m/s in PWV between study groups at 96 weeks, and the sample size calculation has been outlined in the published protocol [11]. Participants in this study were categorized according to baseline PWV (<10 m/s, ≥10 m/s) and AAC (absent, present – as determined by an Agatston score of zero or non-zero at any level of the abdominal aorta imaged). Baseline characteristics of all participants, and by PWV and AAC groups, are presented as number (percent) for categorical variables and mean ± SD and median (interquartile range [IQR]) for continuous variables. Groups were compared on categorical variables using chi-square tests of independence and on continuous variables using independent-samples *t* tests for normally distributed variables and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests for non-normally distributed variables. Analyses were performed using SAS software (version 9.4; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

Results

Baseline Characteristics

Screening (predominantly chart-based) of 3,234 potential patients with CKD was undertaken to recruit participants for the IMPROVE-CKD study with 1,945 being deemed ineligible (Fig. 1). The IMPROVE-CKD study subsequently enrolled and randomized 278 participants. Mean age of the cohort was 63.1 ± 12.7 years, with 69% male predominance (Table 1). Participants were mainly of Caucasian ethnicity (64%). The most common aetiology of CKD was diabetic nephropathy (30%), followed by hypertensive nephropathy (16%) and glomerulonephritis (14%). With regard to traditional cardiovascular risk factors, 44% of patients were former smokers, 7% were current smokers, 45% had diabetes mellitus (Type 1 and 2) and 79% had dyslipidaemia. Mean body mass index (BMI) was 29.9 ± 6.0 kg/m² with 75% of the cohort classified as overweight or obese (BMI >25 kg/m²).

Mean systolic blood pressure (BP) was 140 ± 19 mm Hg and mean diastolic BP 76 ± 10 mm Hg, and 90% of participants had a diagnosis of hypertension. Established CVD was observed in a significant proportion (32%), with 7% having cerebrovascular disease and 10% peripheral vascular disease. Anti-hypertensive therapy was prescribed to 91% of participants, being predominantly calcium channel blockers (51%), angiotensin receptor block-

Table 1. Demographic and clinical data for the IMPROVE-CKD cohort

Demographic	Total (n = 278)
Age, years	63.1±12.7
Gender, male	193 (69)
Ethnicity	
White/Caucasian	177 (64)
Asian	63 (23)
Other	37 (13)
Former smoker	121 (44)
Current smoker	19 (7)
Cause of CKD	
Diabetic nephropathy	84 (30)
Glomerulonephritis	38 (14)
APKD	14 (5)
Renovascular	45 (16)
Reflux nephropathy	9 (3)
Other	42 (15)
Unknown	45 (16)
Stage of CKD	
CKD 3b	91 (33)
CKD 4	187 (67)
Hypertension	249 (90)
Dyslipidaemia	218 (79)
CVD	89 (32)
Cerebrovascular disease	18 (7)
PVD	27 (10)
Diabetes	125 (45)
SBP, mm Hg	139.5±18.7
DBP, mm Hg	76.3±10.4
Weight, kg	84.4±19.1
BMI, kg/m ²	29.9±6.0
Waist circumference, cm	102.7±15.5

Results presented as mean ± SD or number (percentage).

CKD, chronic kidney disease; IMPROVE-CKD, IMPact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in CKD; APKD, autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease; BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; PVD, peripheral vascular disease; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

ers (43%) and angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (33%; Table 2). Cholesterol-lowering medications were administered to 73% of participants at baseline. Medications affecting mineral metabolism prescribed to participants at baseline included cholecalciferol in 23%, calcitriol 9% and calcium carbonate 5%.

Mean serum creatinine for the cohort at baseline was 221 ± 59 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ with an eGFR of 26.6 ± 8.3 mL/min/1.73 m² (Table 3); the majority of participants were classified as stage 4 CKD (67%). Median urinary protein excretion of participants was 718 mg/24 h (IQR 182–1,710). Mean serum phosphate at baseline was 1.25 ± 0.20 mmol/L,

with mean serum calcium 2.32 ± 0.13 mmol/L, mean alkaline phosphatase (ALP) 89 ± 31 U/L, median intact PTH 12.0 pmol/L (IQR 7.7–20.6), mean 25-hydroxy-vitamin D level 70 ± 31 nmol/L and mean 1,25-dihydroxy-vitamin D level 78 ± 27 pmol/L (normal range 35–120 pmol/L). Median intact FGF-23 and c-terminal FGF-23 were 133 (89–202) pg/mL and 221 (154–334) RU/mL, respectively. In healthy adults, the 95% reference limits for intact FGF-23 is 11.7–48.6 pg/mL and for c-terminal FGF-23 21.6–91.0 RU/mL [15]. Twenty-four-hour urinary phosphate excretion was 24 ± 11 mmol/day, which is consistent with urinary phosphate excretion from reported studies of patients with CKD [16, 17].

Pulse Wave Velocity

The mean carotid-femoral PWV at baseline for the cohort was 10.8 ± 3.6 m/s. Presence of PWV >10 m/s is associated with increased cardiovascular risk in the general population [18], and measurements above this PWV level were noted in 127 participants (49%) at baseline (Table 4). Participants with PWV ≥ 10 m/s were of older age, had greater waist circumference, higher systolic BP, and increased diabetes and cardiovascular co-morbidities including CVD and peripheral vascular disease (Table 4). Although a diagnosis of hypertension was not associated with PWV ≥ 10 m/s, mean systolic BP was significantly higher in those with greater PWV (145 ± 19 vs. 134 ± 17 mm Hg for PWV ≥ 10 and <10 m/s, respectively, $p < 0.001$). Cerebrovascular disease, BMI, eGFR and CKD stage were not associated with PWV, nor were any specific medications, apart from a greater proportion of participants on calcium channel blockers in those with PWV ≥ 10 m/s ($p = 0.04$).

Baseline biochemical data including serum creatinine, albumin, cholesterol, calcium, phosphate, PTH, FGF-23 and 25-hydroxyvitamin D and urinary protein excretion were not significantly associated with baseline PWV (Table 4). Biochemical parameters associated with a PWV ≥ 10 m/s were fasting serum glucose (as expected from the association to diabetes) and serum ALP. The presence of AAC and the degree of AAC were greater in participants with PWV ≥ 10 m/s. The median Agatston score for PWV <10 m/s was 256.6 (0–1,955) Hounsfield Units (HU) vs. 3,906 (1,347–8,009) HU for PWV ≥ 10 m/s ($p < 0.0001$).

Pulse wave analysis, a technique that records peripheral arterial waveforms and generates a corresponding central waveform, was also measured. The augmentation index (AI), which represents the difference between early and late systolic peaks of the systolic pulse wave contour, divided by pulse pressure (%) was derived from the pulse wave analysis and provides additional information on ar-

Table 2. Medications at baseline for the IMPROVE-CKD cohort

Medications	Total (n = 278)
ACE inhibitors	92 (33)
ARB	119 (43)
Beta blockers	99 (36)
Diuretics	52 (19)
Calcium channel blockers	141 (51)
Spironolactone	24 (9)
Statin	202 (73)
Calcitriol	25 (9)
Cholecalciferol	63 (23)
Calcium carbonate	15 (5)

IMPROVE-CKD, Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in Chronic Kidney Disease; ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; ARB, angiotensin II receptor blocker.

Table 3. Biochemical and surrogate cardiovascular data for the IMPROVE-CKD cohort

Biochemical* and surrogate cardiovascular parameters	
General biochemical parameters	
Haemoglobin, g/L	124.3±16.1
Bicarbonate, mmol/L	23.5±3.5
Urea, mmol/L	16.0±5.2
Uric acid, mmol/L	0.46±0.11
eGFR, mL/min/1.72 m ²	26.6±8.3
Creatinine, µmol/L	221.4±59.4
Albumin, g/L	38.9±4.3
CRP, mg/L	4.7±6.3
Cholesterol, mmol/L	4.5±1.1
Triglycerides, mmol/L	2.1±1.4
Glucose, mmol/L	6.3±3.0
Urinary protein excretion, mg/24 h	718 (182–1,710)
Markers of CKD-MBD	
Calcium, mmol/L	2.32±0.13
Phosphate, mmol/L	1.25±0.20
ALP, U/L	88.9±30.5
PTH, pmol/L	12.0 (7.2–17.8)
25-hydroxyvitamin D, nmol/L	70.1±30.7
1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, pmol/L	77.8±26.8
Intact FGF-23, pg/mL	133.0 (89.1–202.0)
C-terminal FGF-23, RU/mL	221.1 (154.3–334.1)
Urinary phosphate excretion, mmol/24 h	24.4±11.4
Intermediate cardiovascular markers	
PWV, m/s	10.8±3.6
AI, %	27.3±9.6
Aortic calcification (presence, Agatston score >0)	191 (81)
Agatston score of AAC (HU)	1,535 (63.2–5,744)

Results presented as mean ± SD, median (IQR) or number (percentage).

* Serum levels were tested in the fasting state.

IMPROVE-CKD, Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in Chronic Kidney Disease; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; CRP, C-reactive protein; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; PTH, parathyroid hormone; FGF-23, fibroblast growth factor 23; PWV, pulse wave velocity; AI, augmentation index; AAC, abdominal aortic calcification; HU, Hounsfield units.

terial stiffness. The mean AI was 27.3 ± 9.6%, which is consistent with previous reports of older individuals at increased cardiovascular risk [19].

Vascular Calcification

Of the 235 participants with useable abdominal CT scans to determine AAC scores, 191 (81%) had vascular calcification, with a median Agatston score of 1,535 HU (IQR 63–5,744; Table 5). Similar to higher PWV, older age, increased waist circumference and the presence of CVD and diabetes were associated with the presence and extent of AAC. Smoking history, male gender, a diagnosis of hypertension (as well as higher diastolic BP), dyslipidaemia (as well as use of a statin) and lower urinary phosphate excretion were also significantly associated with the presence of AAC. CKD stage and eGFR were not associated with the presence of AAC. Participants with AAC had higher PWV than those with no AAC (11.4 ± 3.5 vs. 8.0 ± 2.2 m/s respectively, $p < 0.0001$).

Discussion

We present baseline characteristics of participants with CKD recruited to the IMPROVE-CKD clinical trial. This cohort has a high burden of CVD, with significantly reduced arterial compliance (mean PWV ≥10 m/s), and a high prevalence of vascular calcification (81% with AAC on CT). Results from IMPROVE-CKD participants highlight risk factors for the development of AAC, which have been previously reported, as well as the strong relationship between PWV and AAC.

Clinical Significance of PWV

PWV is a surrogate measure of cardiovascular risk. A higher velocity is associated with increased risk, with the European Society of Hypertension suggesting that a value above 10 m/s is associated with clinically significant cardiovascular risk [20]. PWV increases with ageing, increased vascular comorbidity, hypertension and diabetes [21]. PWV data from 16,867 individuals across 8 European countries established reference ranges for a general population cohort and reported a mean PWV of 9.7 m/s for those aged between 60 and 69 years with normal BP [21]. PWV increases with deteriorating kidney function and at a greater rate over time than the general population [22, 23]. Cross-sectional and prospective observational studies of patients with CKD have shown an increase in PWV in keeping with greater and progressive arterial stiffness [14, 24, 25].

Table 4. Clinical and biochemical data of the IMPROVE-CKD cohort stratified by PWV

Demographics	PWV <10 m/s (<i>n</i> = 131)	PWV ≥10 m/s (<i>n</i> = 127)	<i>p</i> value
Age, years	57.2±13.9	68.7±8.6	<0.001
Gender, male	88 (67)	90 (71)	0.81
Smoker (former)	50 (38)	61 (48)	0.51
Smoker (current)	11 (8)	6 (5)	0.51
Cause of CKD			0.0001
Diabetic nephropathy	22 (17)	55 (43)	
Glomerulonephritis	28 (21)	9 (7)	
APKD	11 (8)	2 (2)	
Renovascular	18 (14)	25 (20)	
Reflux nephropathy	8 (6)	1 (1)	
Other	20 (15)	16 (13)	
Unknown	24 (18)	19 (15)	
Hypertension	116 (89)	114 (90)	0.91
Dyslipidaemia	98 (75)	104 (82)	0.38
CVD	28 (21)	51 (40)	0.005
PVD	6 (5)	17 (13)	0.05
Diabetes	37 (28)	77 (61)	<0.001
SBP, mm Hg	133.6±17.1	145.4±18.6	<0.001
DBP, mm Hg	76.9±10.8	75.7±9.9	0.37
Waist circumference, cm	99.1±15.3	104.6±14.3	0.003
BMI, kg/m ²	29.2±6.4	29.8±5.1	0.39
<i>Medications</i>			
ACE inhibitor	50 (38)	32 (25)	0.08
ARB	56 (43)	53 (42)	0.98
Calcium channel blockers	57 (44)	75 (59)	0.04
Statin	90 (69)	98 (77)	0.31
<i>Biochemical parameters</i>			
eGFR, mL/min/1.72 m ²	27.1±8.2	26.6±8.6	0.64
Creatinine, µmol/L	222.8±59.8	216.4±57.1	0.38
Urinary protein excretion, mg/24 h	784.8 (200–1,770)	650 (171.5–1,700)	0.99
Cholesterol, mmol/L	4.5±1.0	4.5±1.2	0.67
Triglycerides, mmol/L	2.0±1.3	2.2±1.5	0.30
Glucose, mmol/L	5.6±1.9	7.2±3.7	<0.0001
Calcium, mmol/L	2.33±0.12	2.32±0.13	0.89
Phosphate, mmol/L	1.24±0.19	1.26±0.21	0.36
PTH, pmol/L	12.0 (7.8–16.1)	12.9 (6.8–19.4)	0.95
ALP, U/L	84.8±27.6	92.8±33.1	0.04
25-hydroxyvitamin D, nmol/L	73.6±28.8	67.2±31.8	0.15
1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, pmol/L	75.7±27.7	79.9±26.5	0.35
Intact FGF-23, pg/mL	145.0 (98.9–230.3)	119.4 (85.5–194.2)	0.06
C-terminal FGF-23, RU/mL	235.8 (160.5–353.1)	209.5 (139.7–309.9)	0.19
Urinary phosphate excretion, mmol/24 h	24.4±11.5	24.3±12.0	0.92
<i>Intermediate cardiovascular markers</i>			
PWV, m/s	8.0±1.3	13.6±2.9	<0.0001
AI, %	25.7±9.4	28.7±9.7	0.05
Aortic calcification	76 (67)	102 (94)	<0.0001
Agatston score of AAC (HU)	256.6 (0–1,955)	3,906 (1,347–8,009)	<0.0001

Results presented as mean ± SD, median (IQR) or number (percentage).

CKD, chronic kidney disease; IMPROVE-CKD, Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in CKD; AAC, abdominal aortic calcification; AI, augmentation index; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; APKD, autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease; BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; HU, Hounsfield units; IHD, ischemic heart disease; PTH, parathyroid hormone; PVD, peripheral vascular disease; PWV, pulse wave velocity; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

Table 5. Clinical and biochemical data of the IMPROVE-CKD cohort stratified by vascular calcification

Demographic	No AAC (n = 44)	AAC (n = 191)	p value
Age, years	45.9±12.8	67.1±9.3	<0.0001
Gender, male	24 (55)	139 (73)	0.02
Smoker (former)	14 (32)	91 (48)	0.02
Smoker (current)	1 (2)	17 (9)	0.02
Cause of CKD			<0.0001
Diabetic nephropathy	4 (9)	63 (33)	
APKD	5 (11)	7 (4)	
Renovascular	4 (9)	36 (19)	
Glomerulonephritis	11 (25)	19 (10)	
Reflux nephropathy	4 (9)	4 (2)	
Other	11 (25)	26 (14)	
Unknown	5 (11)	36 (19)	
Hypertension	35 (80)	174 (91)	0.03
Dyslipidaemia	29 (66)	155 (81)	0.03
CVD	5 (11)	77 (40)	0.0003
PVD	1 (2)	19 (10)	0.1
Diabetes	7 (16)	95 (50)	<0.0001
SBP, mm Hg	134.9±19.6	139.6±18.0	0.13
DBP, mm Hg	82.4±12.0	74.3±9.2	<0.0001
BMI, kg/m ²	30.9±8.4	29.7±5.3	0.22
Waist circumference, cm	98.5±20.0	103.8±14.2	0.04
<i>Medications</i>			
ACE inhibitor	15 (34)	61 (32)	0.78
ARB	18 (41)	84 (44)	0.71
Statin	22 (50)	150 (79)	0.0001
<i>Biochemical data</i>			
eGFR, mL/min/1.72 m ²	28.0±9.5	26.5±8.0	0.30
Creatinine, µmol/L	227.1±75.0	217.7±54.7	0.34
Urinary protein excretion, mg/24 h	1,370 (630–2,290)	536 (142–1,500)	0.03
Cholesterol, mmol/L	4.7±1.1	4.4±1.2	0.12
Triglycerides, mmol/L	2.2±2.1	2.1±1.2	0.56
Glucose, mmol/L	5.8±3.6	6.5±3.0	0.16
Calcium, mmol/L	2.32±0.11	2.32±0.13	0.99
Phosphate, mmol/L	1.24±0.18	1.26±0.21	0.54
ALP, U/L	86.0±35.4	89.8±29.5	0.47
PTH, pmol/L	12.3 (9.1–19.4)	12.3 (7.0–17.7)	0.25
25-hydroxyvitamin D, nmol/L	67.3±24.9	69.6±31.3	0.67
1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, pmol/L	67.5±25.0	78.2±27.6	0.11
Intact FGF-23, pg/mL	178.9 (100.7–250.3)	132.0 (89.1–200.0)	0.11
C-terminal FGF-23, RU/mL	236.3 (162.8–425.8)	219.4 (154.0–331.8)	0.12
Urinary phosphate excretion, mmol/24 h	28.8±14.1	24.3±10.8	0.03
<i>Intermediate vascular markers</i>			
Pulse wave velocity, m/s	8.0±2.2	11.4±3.5	<0.0001
AI, %	24.1±7.9	27.6±9.5	0.08
Aortic calcification	0 (0)	191 (100)	<0.0001
Agatston score of AAC (HU)	0	2,665 (658–7,393)	<0.0001

Results presented as mean ± SD, median (IQR) or number (percentage).

CKD, chronic kidney disease; IMPROVE-CKD, Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in CKD; AAC, abdominal aortic calcification; AI, augmentation index; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; APKD, autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease; BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; FGF-23, fibroblast growth factor 23; HU, Hounsfield units; PTH, parathyroid hormone; PVD, peripheral vascular disease; PWV, pulse wave velocity; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

At baseline, participants in the IMPROVE-CKD trial show that higher PWV values are associated with older age, diabetes, CVD and higher systolic BP. Indeed, 49% of the cohort had a baseline PWV above 10 m/s, which is indicative of significant CVD risk. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in PWV between participants in stage 3b or 4 CKD, possibly due to the reasonably narrow range of measured eGFR values. There were also no associations between greater PWV and markers of mineral metabolism, including serum phosphate, PTH and FGF-23 levels, except for serum ALP. This is perhaps unsurprising, as vascular calcification and arterial stiffness develop over many years and we assessed these biomarkers at a single timepoint.

AAC was associated with greater PWV, with both presence and extent of AAC being associated with increased arterial stiffness. This finding has consistently been reported [26, 27] and can be explained by arteriosclerosis partly resulting from direct structural changes including elastin fragmentation and medial calcification [28]. Vascular calcification can either take place in the intima or in the media of the vessel wall – calcification of the intima is a part of atherosclerosis, while medial calcification is the hallmark of arteriosclerosis. Both are prominent in CKD but arteriosclerosis has an important and primary role in the development of arterial stiffness in this population [3].

PWV has been utilized as an end-point in several phosphate reduction studies in patients with CKD [29, 30]. These studies did not demonstrate a significant change in PWV, although PWV was not their primary end-point. Other randomized clinical trials have focused on interventions to address mineral metabolism and utilized PWV as a primary outcome. Two placebo-controlled studies assessing the influence of vitamin D therapy (cholecalciferol, calcifediol and calcitriol) on arterial compliance showed improvement in vascular function [31, 32], one with a similar CKD cohort to our study population (mean age 66 years, 71% male, 40% diabetic, with mean PWV 11.5 m/s) and the other, a younger cohort with no diabetes and lower PWV (mean age 44 years, 71% male, mean PWV 8 m/s).

AI is a measure of pulse wave reflection that calculates how much of the central pulse pressure is accounted for by the reflected pulse wave and is an indirect measure of arterial stiffness. AI has not been as thoroughly investigated as PWV in relation to CVD but is related to known risk factors for CVD [33, 34]. The mean AI of IMPROVE-CKD participants (27%) was similar to 367 patients from the United States reported in the Chronic Renal Insuffi-

ciency Cohort (CRIC; 26%, with mean age 60 years and mean eGFR 48.4 mL/min/1.73 m²). In a study of older patients on dialysis, AI was associated with all-cause and cardiovascular mortality [35]; however, the ability of AI to predict mortality in patients with CKD remains controversial.

Aortic Calcification

The majority of participants in our cohort showed evidence of vascular calcification at baseline, consistent with observational studies of patients with advanced CKD [36]. The CRIC study reported that 60% of patients with stage 3a CKD and 70% of those with stage 4 CKD had coronary artery calcification, defined as a non-zero Agatston score on CT coronary angiogram [14]. We measured AAC in IMPROVE-CKD participants and, although there may potentially be differences in the pathophysiological influences of aortic calcification compared to coronary artery calcification, associations are probably similar with regard to cardiovascular risk factors [37]. AAC in our cohort was associated with older age and CVD as well as with traditional cardiovascular risk factors including diabetes, hypertension, dyslipidaemia and smoking. These findings are consistent with previous reported risk factors for vascular calcification [38].

AAC is associated with increased cardiovascular risk and, similar to coronary artery calcification, is associated with heightened cardiovascular mortality [39]. The Agatston score describes the degree of calcification at both sites; however, the range of values for AAC in patients with CKD has not been well established. In cohorts of patients without CKD, including the Jackson Heart study and the Framingham offspring cohorts, a median score for AAC of 1,000–1,200 HU was observed, with a wide range of values (maximal Agatston score >12,000 HU) [38–41]. The range is significantly larger than for coronary artery calcification, in part due to the length of the aorta and the size of calcifications [42]. The baseline characteristics of participants in our study reveal a higher median score, which may be reflective of more progressive vascular calcification in the CKD cohort in contrast to a non-CKD cohort.

As expected, there was a strong relationship between AAC and PWV, with higher Agatston scores correlating with stiffer arteries. Moreover, significant differences in PWV were observed in participants with and without vascular calcification. This has been reported in cohorts with and without CKD and has generally corresponded to the rate of decline of kidney function in patients with progressive CKD [43, 44]. We found no significant difference

in kidney function between patients with and without AAC at baseline. However, this is again likely due to the inclusion criteria of the trial with only participants with stages 3b and 4 CKD enrolled and a relatively narrow range of measured eGFR values.

The high prevalence of AAC in participants involved in the IMPROVE-CKD trial, with a mean PWV of 11.4 m/s in the 81% of individuals with AAC present, are important baseline characteristics indicating that these patients are at extremely high cardiovascular risk CKD. The Kidney Disease Improving Global Outcomes CKD-MBD guidelines published in 2009 suggested that patients with stage 3–5 CKD with known vascular calcification need to “be considered as having the highest possible cardiovascular risk” [45]. Evaluation of vascular calcification may help with prediction and potential prevention of cardiovascular events, and x-ray-based evaluation of AAC has been reported as a relatively simple tool in the CKD population [45].

Markers of Bone and Mineral Metabolism

Participants in the IMPROVE-CKD study had predominantly normal serum phosphate levels, with a mean serum phosphate at baseline of 1.25 ± 0.20 mmol/L. Other biochemical parameters of bone and mineral metabolism were also predominantly within the normal range, particularly serum calcium, with no significant associations with the majority of bone and mineral metabolism markers and PWV or presence of AAC. The median PTH was elevated indicating a mild degree of secondary hyperparathyroidism, which is not surprising given their relatively advanced CKD.

Alterations in FGF-23, klotho and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D occur early in the progression of CKD [45], and vascular calcification and remodelling likely occur prior to abnormalities in serum phosphate. This is highlighted by the majority of patients having notable AAC on abdominal CT despite their normal serum phosphate values. Interventions to address abnormalities of mineral metabolism at an earlier stage of CKD may be important in improving outcomes such as CVD and bone disease. It is important to note that AAC in IMPROVE-CKD participants may, to a significant extent, also be atherosclerotic in nature, especially with the high prevalence of diabetes, hypertension, dyslipidaemia and other traditional cardiovascular risk factors in this cohort.

Hyperphosphataemia has been associated with increased cardiovascular mortality in the CKD population [4]. Epidemiological studies have also consistently shown that higher serum phosphate levels even within

the normal range are independently correlated with CVD and mortality in both the general and CKD populations [5, 46]. Unfortunately, randomized studies of phosphate binders in non-dialysis and dialysis CKD patients have not been conducted to evaluate a mortality benefit of lowering serum phosphate compared to placebo. Meta-analyses in the CKD population as a whole, mostly including patients on dialysis, suggest that there may be an improvement in mortality with non-calcium-containing binders in comparison to calcium-containing binders or possibly a worsening of mortality with calcium-containing binders compared with non-calcium binders [47–49]. The difference between the 2 agents may potentially represent a benefit of non-calcium binders, a harm of calcium binders or both. Therapy with non-calcium-containing phosphate binders has demonstrated reductions in FGF-23 levels. However, the recently reported COMBINE randomized controlled trial that assessed lanthanum carbonate and nicotinamide versus placebo did not demonstrate an effect on change in serum phosphate or FGF-23 over a 12-month period [10].

The IMPROVE-CKD trial has targeted surrogate cardiovascular outcomes as the primary and key secondary end-points, in contrast to biochemical parameters, because if lanthanum carbonate has a beneficial effect on surrogate markers, relating to improvement of CKD-MBD, this will provide support for the hypothesis that phosphate binders, and lowering of serum phosphate, may mitigate adverse cardiovascular outcomes in patients with CKD. Although a larger trial would be required to demonstrate a benefit on mortality, the use of surrogate cardiovascular outcomes should provide clinicians with improved evidence regarding treatment strategies. Few randomized clinical trials of phosphate reduction strategies have reported a beneficial impact on clinically relevant outcomes. However, one recent study reported potential beneficial effects of the phosphate binder ferric citrate in 203 patients with CKD, demonstrating improvement in hospitalization and the composite end-point of death and need for renal replacement therapy after 9 months [50].

FGF-23 is a phosphaturic hormone that is an important regulator of both phosphate and calcitriol levels [51]. It is upregulated from an early stage of CKD and is an important biomarker in CKD-MBD. Intact and c-terminal FGF-23 can both be measured in serum, but there is no consensus regarding the optimal assay for use in vivo [15]. Both intact and c-terminal FGF-23 levels in this study cohort are greater than those of a healthy popula-

Table 6. Comparison between the IMPROVE-CKD cohort and other reported CKD cohorts with PWV data

Characteristic	IMPROVE-CKD (<i>n</i> = 278)	CRIC (<i>n</i> = 2,564)	KNOW-CKD (<i>n</i> = 2,101)
Gender, male	69	57	61
Age, years	63.1±12.7	60.7±11.0	53.6±12.2
Diabetes	45	45	34
eGFR, mL/min/1.72 m ²	26.6±8.3	40.7±15.9	53.0±30.7
Unadjusted PWV, m/s	10.8±3.6	9.5±3.0	10.2±2.7 (heart femoral)

Results presented as mean ± SD or percentage.

CRIC, Chronic Renal Insufficiency Cohort [47].

KNOW-CKD, Korean Cohort for Study of Outcomes in Patients with Chronic Kidney Disease [45].

IMPROVE-CKD, Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in Chronic Kidney Disease; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; PWV, pulse wave velocity.

tion, similar to findings reported in other studies of patients with CKD [15]. Increased FGF-23 levels are associated with mortality and AAC in CKD patients; however, an independent association between FGF-23 and arterial stiffness has not been confirmed [52–54]. The IMPROVE-CKD trial will aim to demonstrate the impact of lanthanum carbonate on FGF-23, a finding that has only previously been reported in smaller cohorts and over shorter study periods [55, 56], and therefore should IMPROVE-CKD not achieve a separation in serum phosphate values between the two arms of the trial, any differences in intermediate cardiovascular outcomes may reflect differences in FGF-23.

Generalizability of Data in Comparison to Other CKD Cohorts

Globally, the majority of CKD registries are primarily for patients with end-stage kidney disease on dialysis or kidney transplant recipients [57]. Registries addressing non-dialysis CKD patients include the CRIC and the Korean Cohort for Study of Outcomes in Patients with CKD [13, 14] (Table 6). CRIC is a registry based in the United States, which has recruited thousands of patients with stages 2–5 CKD, and data collection includes information on PWV and aortic calcification. Korean Cohort for Study of Outcomes in Patients with CKD is a Korean registry, which has also recorded PWV data in patients with stages 2–5 CKD. Both cohorts have been followed over many years. Participants in the IMPROVE-CKD study had generally more advanced CKD in comparison to these 2 cohorts. Thus, it is not surprising that the mean PWV was higher than that observed in those registries (Table 6). The increased PWV may also have been due to the greater proportion of patients with diabetes and the older age of IMPROVE-CKD participants.

The IMPROVE-CKD study focuses on participants with advanced CKD and at significant cardiovascular risk. Our cohort highlights risk factors for the development of AAC, confirming previous reports, and the strong relationship between PWV and AAC. Given similarities between our study participants and other CKD cohorts with increased cardiovascular risk, arterial stiffness and high prevalence of vascular calcification, results of the IMPROVE-CKD trial may be widely relevant to patients with stages 3b and 4 CKD.

Acknowledgements

Support

This work was supported by research grants from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (APP1044302, APP1092957, and ID 631731) and Shire Pharmaceuticals. Both NHMRC Australia and Shire Pharmaceuticals did not have any role in study design, collection, analysis and interpretation of data, writing the report and the decision to submit the report for publication.

Trial Steering Committee

Nigel D. Toussaint, Department of Medicine, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia and The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia; Eugenia Pedagogos, Western Health, St Albans, VIC, Australia and Alfred Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; Sunil V. Badve, Department of Renal Medicine, St George Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia and Division of Renal and Metabolic, The George Institute for Global Health, University of New South Wales Medicine, Sydney, NSW, Australia; Geoffrey A. Block, Reata Pharmaceuticals, Irving, TX, USA; Neil C. Boudville, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Perth, WA, Australia and Medical School, University of Western Australia, Perth, WA, Australia; Sharan Burton, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Woolloongabba, QLD, Australia; James D. Cameron, Monash Cardiovascular Research Centre, MonashHeart, Monash Health and Department of Medicine (SCS at Monash Health), Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; Katrina L. Campbell, Menzies Health Institute,

Griffith University, QLD, Australia and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; Sylvia S.M. Chen, Epworth Healthcare, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; Grahame J. Elder, Department of Renal Medicine, Westmead Hospital, Westmead, NSW, Australia and Division of Osteoporosis and Bone Biology, Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Sydney, NSW, Australia; Randall J. Faull, University of Adelaide and Central Northern Adelaide Renal and Transplantation Services, Adelaide, SA, Australia; Samantha R. Hand, Concord Repatriation and General Hospital, Concord, NSW, Australia; Carmel M. Hawley, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Woolloongabba, QLD, Australia and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; Kathleen E. Hill, Renal Unit, Flinders Medical Centre, Bedford Park, SA, Australia and School of Nursing and Midwifery, University of South Australia, SA, Australia; Stephen G. Holt, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, Australia; Meg J. Jardine, Concord Repatriation and General Hospital, Concord, NSW, Australia and The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, NSW, Australia; Peter G. Kerr, Monash Health and Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia; Kenneth K. Lau, Monash Imaging, Monash Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia and Southern Clinical School, Faculty of Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; Alicia Morrish, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; Elaine M. Pascoe, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; Vlado Perkovic, The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, NSW, Australia; Kevan R. Polkinghorne, Department of Nephrology, Monash Medical Centre, Monash Health, Clayton, VIC, Australia and Department of Medicine, Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia and Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia; Carol A. Pollock, Kolling Institute, Royal North Shore Hospital, University of Sydney, NSW, Australia; Donna Reidlinger, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; Hooi L.S., Sultanah Aminah Hospital, Johor Bahru, Malaysia; Edward R. Smith, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, Australia; Robert J. Walker, Dunedin School of Medicine, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand; Angela Yee-Moon Wang, University of Hong Kong, Queen Mary Hospital Hong Kong.

Data and Safety Monitoring Board

Bruce Neal (Chair), The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW Sydney, Australia; Andrew Forbes, School of Public Health and Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia; Christoph Wanner, Department of Medicine, University Hospital, Wuerzburg, Germany; and David C. Wheeler, Department of Renal Medicine, University College London, London, United Kingdom.

Project Management Team

The Australasian Kidney Trials Network, Brisbane, Australia: Sunil V. Badve, Hayley B. Candler, Yeoung Jee Cho, Darsy Darssan, Magid Fahim, Carmel M. Hawley, David W. Johnson, Charani Kiriwandeniya, Rathika Krishnasamy, Alicia Morrish, Elaine M. Pascoe, Peta-Anne Paul-Brent, Donna Reidlinger, Laura Robison, Anish Scaria, Andrea Valks, Liza Vergara, and Andrea Viecelli.

Klinsel Sdn Bhd were engaged as a contract research organization responsible for the clinical management of the Malaysian aspect of the trial.

The Australasian Kidney Trials Network Executive Committee Members

Carmel M. Hawley (Chair), Department of Nephrology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Woolloongabba, Australia and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia; David W. Johnson (Deputy Chair), Department of Nephrology, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Woolloongabba, Australia and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia; Sunil V. Badve, Department of Renal Medicine, St. George Hospital, Sydney, Australia and Renal and Metabolic Division, The George Institute for Global Health, University of New South Wales Medicine, Sydney, Australia; Neil C. Boudville, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Perth, Australia and Medical School, University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia; Alan Cass, Menzies School of Health Research, Charles Darwin University, Darwin, Australia; Meg J. Jardine, Concord Repatriation and General Hospital, Concord, Australia and The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, Australia; Alicia Morrish, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia; Vlado Perkovic, The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, Australia; Elaine M. Pascoe, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia; Donna Reidlinger, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Collaborating Sites and Investigators

Australia: New South Wales: Concord Repatriation and General Hospital (Roger Wyndham, Jenny Burman, Sarah Gallagher, Samantha R. Hand); John Hunter Hospital (Eswari Vilayur, Leanne Garvey); Royal North Shore Hospital (Bruce Cooper, Muh Geot Wong, Margery Chan, Jacqueline Pearse, Anna Tam, Stephanie Tan, Christine Weichselberger); Westmead Hospital (Grahame J. Elder, Helen Heathwood, Penelope Murie, Jing Zhang); *Queensland:* Logan Hospital (Ken-Soon Tan, Erica Lennan); Princess Alexandra Hospital (Carolyn Van Eps, Yeoungjee Cho, Venita Bali, Sharan Burton, Ann King); *South Australia:* Flinders Medical Centre (Jeffrey Barbara, Kathleen E. Hill, Susan Murray, Margaret Pummeroy); Royal Adelaide Hospital (Randall J. Faull, Eileen Scott); *Victoria:* Austin Health (Kathy Paizis, Pascal Bisscheroux, Marieke Veenendaal); Eastern Health (Lawrence P. McMahon, Annette B. Kent); Royal Melbourne Hospital (Nigel D. Toussaint, Eugenia Pedagogos, Connie Karschimbus, Gloria Sepe); Western Health (Craig Nelson, Jason Bennier, Debra Broomfield).

Malaysia: Hospital Sultanah Aminah Johor Bahru (Hooi L.S., Liu Wen Jiun); Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia Medical Centre (Abdul Halim Abdul Gafur); Hospital Pulau Pinang (Ong Loke Meng); Hospital Tuanku Ja'afar Seremban (Lily Mushahar).

New Zealand: Dunedin Hospital (Robert J. Walker, Ines Becker, Liz Berry); North Shore Hospital (Emad Maher, Chao Cheng, Grace Muyoma, Beula Vincent).

Investigational Product

The active and placebo intervention used in the trial was provided by Takeda. Provision of the investigational product labelling and packaging was by Pharmaceutical Professionals Packaging Pty Ltd.

Data Capture

Study data were collected and managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools hosted at Vanderbilt University [58, 59]. REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture) is a secure, web-based software platform designed to support data capture for research studies, providing (1) an intuitive interface for validated data capture; (2) audit trails for tracking data manipulation and export procedures; (3) automated export procedures for seamless data downloads to common statistical packages and (4) procedures for data integration and interoperability with external sources.

Vanderbilt Institute for Clinical and Translational Research grant support (UL1 TR000445 from NCATS/NIH).

Author Contributions

All authors (N.M.L., E.P., C.M.H., G.J.E., E.M.P., A.V., S.V.B., N.D.T., G.A.B., N.C.B., K.C., J.D.C., S.C., R.J.F., S.G.H., L.S.H., D.J., M.J.J., D.W.J., P.G.K., K.K.L., O.N., V.P., K.R.P., C.A.P., D.R., L.R., E.R.S., R.J.W., and A.Y.M.W.) were involved in study design and concept. N.D.T., E.P., N.M.L., C.M.H., G.J.E., E.M.P., A.V., and S.V.B. drafted the manuscript, and all authors approved the final version of the manuscript. Each author contributed important intellectual content during manuscript drafting or revision and accepts accountability for the overall work by ensuring that questions pertaining to the accuracy or integrity of any portion of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

IMPROVE-CKD Investigators

Nigel D. Toussaint, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, Victoria, Australia; and The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia.

Eugenia Pedagogos, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia; Western Health, St. Albans, VIC, Australia; and Alfred Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia.

Nicole M. Lioufas, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia; The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia; and Western Health, St. Albans, VIC, Australia.

Carmel M. Hawley, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia.

Grahame J. Elder, Westmead Hospital, Westmead, NSW, Australia; and Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

Elaine M. Pascoe, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Andrea Valks, Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Sunil V. Badve, St. George Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia; and The George Institute for Global Health, University of New South Wales Medicine, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

Geoffrey A. Block, Reata Pharmaceuticals, Irving, TX, USA.

Neil C. Boudville, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Perth, WA, Australia; and Medical School, University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia.

James D. Cameron, Monash Cardiovascular Research Centre, MonashHeart, Monash Health; and Department of Medicine (SCS at Monash Health), Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia.

Katrina L. Campbell, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia.

Sylvia S.M. Chen, Epworth Healthcare, Melbourne, VIC, Australia.

Randall J. Faull, University of Adelaide and Central Northern Adelaide Renal and Transplantation Services, Adelaide, SA, Australia.

Stephen G. Holt, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia; and The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC, Australia.

Dana Jackson, Monash Medical Centre, Clayton, VIC, Australia.

Meg J. Jardine, Concord Repatriation and General Hospital, Concord, NSW, Australia; and The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

David W. Johnson, Princess Alexandra Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia; and Australasian Kidney Trials Network, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia; and Translational Research Institute, Brisbane, Australia.

Peter G. Kerr, Monash Health and Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia.

Kenneth K. Lau, Monash Imaging, Monash Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia; and Southern Clinical School, Faculty of Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia.

Hooi L.S., Sultanah Aminah Hospital, Johor Bahru, Malaysia.

Om Narayan, Monash Cardiovascular Research Centre, MonashHeart, Monash Health; and Department of Medicine (SCS at Monash Health), Monash University, VIC, Australia.

Vlado Perkovic, The George Institute for Global Health, UNSW, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

Kevan R. Polkinghorne, Department of Nephrology, Monash Medical Centre, Monash Health, Clayton, VIC, Australia; Department of Medicine, Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia; and Department of Epidemiology and Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Clayton, VIC, Australia.

Carol A. Pollock, Kolling Institute, Royal North Shore Hospital, University of Sydney, NSW, Australia.

Donna Reidlinger, AKTN, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia.

Laura Robison, AKTN, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia.

Edward R. Smith, The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Parkville, VIC, Australia.

Robert J. Walker, Dunedin School of Medicine, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

Angela Yee Moon Wang, The University of Hong Kong, Queen Mary Hospital, Hong Kong.

Disclosure Statement

Dr. Nicole M. Lioufas reports support for research from the Australian Commonwealth with an RTP scholarship. Dr. Eugenia Pedagogos reports honoraria, travel support and research funding

from Amgen, Shire and Sanofi. Dr. Nigel D. Toussaint reports honoraria, travel support and research funding from Amgen, Shire and Sanofi. Dr. Carol A. Pollock reports being a speaker for AstraZeneca, Janssen Cilag, Sanofi, Novartis, Vifor, Otsuka, and an Advisory Board member for AstraZeneca, Merck Sharp and Dohme, Eli Lilly, Novartis, Vifor and Otsuka. Dr. Grahame J. Elder reports research funding from Amgen and travel support and honoraria from Roche and Takeda. Ms. Katrina L. Campbell reports consultancy fees from Nestle Health Sciences. Dr. Sunil V. Badve reports grants from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia, personal fees from Bayer AG and Amgen Australia and non-financial support from Bayer AG during the conduct of the study. Dr. Neil C. Boudville reports personal fees from Baxter, travel grants from Amgen and Roche and grants from Amgen and Baxter. Dr. Carmel M. Hawley reports personal fees from Otsuka, research funding to her institution from Baxter Healthcare, Fresenius Medical Care and Shire, consultancy fees from Janssen, Glaxo Smith Kline and Otsuka paid to her institution and research grants from the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia. Dr. Vlado Perkovic reports personal fees from Retrophin, Janssen, Merck, Servier, AbbVie, Astellas, AstraZeneca, Bayer, Baxter, BMS, Boehringer Ingelheim, Dimerix, DURECT, Eli Lilly, Gilead, GSK, Mitsubishi Tanabe, Novartis, Novo Nordisk, Pfizer, PharmaLink, Relypsa, Sanofi, Vifor Pharma and Tricida outside the submitted work. Dr. David W. Johnson reports grants from Baxter Healthcare, Fresenius Medical Care and the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia; personal fees from Baxter Healthcare, Fresenius Medical Care, AWAK and

AstraZeneca and other support from Amgen during the conduct of the study. Dr. Stephen G. Holt reports honoraria, travel support and research funding from Amgen, AstraZeneca, Baxter and Sanofi. Dr. Geoffrey A. Block reports being an employee of Reata Pharmaceuticals, past Research Funding from Keryx; past Consulting with Kirin, Amgen, Akebia, Keryx, OPKO, Ardelyx and current equity ownership of Ardelyx and Reata. Dr. Kevan R. Polkinghorne reports honoraria from Medtronic. Dr. Meg J. Jardine reports support by a Medical Research Future Fund Next Generation Clinical Researchers Program Career Development Fellowship, unrestricted funding from Gambro, Baxter, CSL, Amgen, Eli Lilly and MSD; has served on advisory boards sponsored by Akebia, Baxter, Boehringer Ingelheim and Vifor; serves on Steering Committee for a trial sponsored by Janssen and CSL; spoken at scientific meetings sponsored by Janssen, Amgen, Roche and Vifor; with any consultancy, honoraria or travel support paid to her institution. Dr. Edward R. Smith reports research funding from Amgen and Sanofi and owns stock in Calciscon. Dr. Angela Yee-Moon Wang reports speaker honorarium from Fresenius Kabi and grants from Sanofi. Authors not named here have disclosed no conflicts of interest.

Funding Sources

The funders had no role in the study design, writing of the report or the decision to submit the report for publication.

References

- 1 Jha V, Garcia-Garcia G, Iseki K, Li Z, Naicker S, Plattner B, et al. Chronic kidney disease: global dimension and perspectives. *Lancet*. 2013 Jul;382(9888):260–72.
- 2 USRDS. *Annual Report*. Bethesda (MD): The National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases; 2017.
- 3 Lioufas N, Hawley CM, Cameron JD, Toussaint ND. Chronic kidney disease and pulse wave velocity: A narrative review. *Int J Hypertens*. 2019 Feb;2019:9189362.
- 4 Block GA, Klassen PS, Lazarus JM, Ofsthun N, Lowrie EG, Chertow GM. Mineral metabolism, mortality, and morbidity in maintenance hemodialysis. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2004 Aug;15(8):2208–18.
- 5 Tonelli M, Sacks F, Pfeffer M, Gao Z, Curhan G; Cholesterol And Recurrent Events Trial Investigators. Relation between serum phosphate level and cardiovascular event rate in people with coronary disease. *Circulation*. 2005 Oct;112(17):2627–33.
- 6 Elder GJ, Center J. The role of calcium and non calcium-based phosphate binders in chronic kidney disease. *Nephrology (Carlton)*. 2017 Mar;22 Suppl 2:42–6.
- 7 Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) CKD-MBD Update Work Group. KDIGO 2017 Clinical Practice Guideline Update for the Diagnosis, Evaluation, Prevention, and Treatment of Chronic Kidney Disease-Mineral and Bone Disorder (CKD-MBD). *Kidney Int Suppl*. 2017;7(1):1–59.
- 8 Toussaint ND, Lau KK, Polkinghorne KR, Kerr PG. Attenuation of aortic calcification with lanthanum carbonate versus calcium-based phosphate binders in haemodialysis: A pilot randomized controlled trial. *Nephrology (Carlton)*. 2011 Mar;16(3):290–8.
- 9 Block GA, Wheeler DC, Persky MS, Kestenbaum B, Ketteler M, Spiegel DM, et al. Effects of phosphate binders in moderate CKD. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2012 Aug;23(8):1407–15.
- 10 Ix JH, Isakova T, Larive B, Raphael KL, Raj DS, Cheung AK, et al. Effects of nicotinamide and lanthanum carbonate on serum phosphate and fibroblast growth factor-23 in CKD: the COMBINE Trial. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2019 Jun;30(6):1096–108.
- 11 Lioufas N, Toussaint ND, Pedagogos E, Elder G, Badve SV, Pascoe E, et al.; IMPROVE-CKD Writing Committee. Can we IMPROVE cardiovascular outcomes through phosphate lowering in CKD? Rationale and protocol for the Impact of Phosphate Reduction On Vascular End-points in Chronic Kidney Disease (IMPROVE-CKD) study. *BMJ Open*. 2019 Feb;9(2):e024382.
- 12 Liu FX, Rutherford P, Smoyer-Tomic K, Prichard S, Laplante S. A global overview of renal registries: a systematic review. *BMC Nephrol*. 2015 Mar;16(1):31.
- 13 Kim H, Yoo TH, Choi KH, Oh KH, Lee J, Kim SW, et al.; KNOW-CKD Group. Baseline cardiovascular characteristics of adult patients with chronic kidney disease from the KoreaN cohort study for Outcomes in patients With Chronic Kidney Disease (KNOW-CKD). *J Korean Med Sci*. 2017 Feb;32(2):231–9.
- 14 Townsend RR. Arterial stiffness and chronic kidney disease: lessons from the Chronic Renal Insufficiency Cohort study. *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens*. 2015 Jan;24(1):47–53.
- 15 Smith ER, Cai MM, McMahon LP, Holt SG. Biological variability of plasma intact and C-terminal FGF23 measurements. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2012 Sep;97(9):3357–65.
- 16 Tan SJ, Smith ER, Cai MM, Holt SG, Hewitson TD, Toussaint ND. Relationship between timed and spot urine collections for measuring phosphate excretion. *Int Urol Nephrol*. 2016 Jan;48(1):115–24.
- 17 Robinson-Cohen C, Ix JH, Smits G, Persky M, Chertow GM, Block GA, et al. Estimation of 24-hour urine phosphate excretion from spot urine collection: development of a predictive equation. *J Ren Nutr*. 2014 May;24(3):194–9.

- 18 Van Bortel LM, Laurent S, Boutouyrie P, Chowienczyk P, Cruickshank JK, De Backer T, et al.; Artery Society; European Society of Hypertension Working Group on Vascular Structure and Function; European Network for Noninvasive Investigation of Large Arteries. Expert consensus document on the measurement of aortic stiffness in daily practice using carotid-femoral pulse wave velocity. *J Hypertens*. 2012 Mar;30(3):445–8.
- 19 Janner JH, Godtfredsen NS, Ladelund S, Vestbo J, Prescott E. Aortic augmentation index: reference values in a large unselected population by means of the SphygmoCor device. *Am J Hypertens*. 2010 Feb;23(2):180–5.
- 20 Williams B, Mancia G, Spiering W, Agabiti Rosei E, Azizi M, Burnier M, et al.; ESC Scientific Document Group. 2018 ESC/ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. *Eur Heart J*. 2018 Sep;39(33):3021–104.
- 21 Reference Values for Arterial Stiffness' Collaboration. Determinants of pulse wave velocity in healthy people and in the presence of cardiovascular risk factors: 'establishing normal and reference values'. *Eur Heart J*. 2010 Oct;31(19):2338–50.
- 22 Tholen S, Klofat K, Pan CR, Schmaeder C, Lutz J, Heemann U, et al. Progression of aortic pulse wave velocity in patients with chronic kidney disease. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2013 Nov;15(11):833–8.
- 23 Ford ML, Tomlinson LA, Chapman TP, Rajkumar C, Holt SG. Aortic stiffness is independently associated with rate of renal function decline in chronic kidney disease stages 3 and 4. *Hypertension*. 2010 May;55(5):1110–5.
- 24 Blacher J, Safar ME, Guerin AP, Pannier B, Marchais SJ, London GM. Aortic pulse wave velocity index and mortality in end-stage renal disease. *Kidney Int*. 2003 May;63(5):1852–60.
- 25 Safar ME, London GM, Plante GE. Arterial stiffness and kidney function. *Hypertension*. 2004 Feb;43(2):163–8.
- 26 Shin MC, Lee MY, Huang JC, Tsai YC, Chen JH, Chen SC, et al. Association of brachial-ankle pulse wave velocity and cardiomegaly with aortic arch calcification in patients on hemodialysis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2016 May;95(19):e3643.
- 27 Guo J, Fujiyoshi A, Willcox B, Choo J, Vishnu A, Hisamatsu T, et al.; ERA JUMP Study Group. Increased aortic calcification is associated with arterial stiffness progression in multiethnic middle-aged men. *Hypertension*. 2017 Jan;69(1):102–8.
- 28 Smith ER, Tomlinson LA, Ford ML, McMahon LP, Rajkumar C, Holt SG. Elastin degradation is associated with progressive aortic stiffening and all-cause mortality in predialysis chronic kidney disease. *Hypertension*. 2012 May;59(5):973–8.
- 29 Seifert ME, de las Fuentes L, Rothstein M, Di-etzen DJ, Bierhals AJ, Cheng SC, et al. Effects of phosphate binder therapy on vascular stiffness in early-stage chronic kidney disease. *Am J Nephrol*. 2013;38(2):158–67.
- 30 Chue CD, Townsend JN, Moody WE, Zehnder D, Wall NA, Harper L, et al. Cardiovascular effects of sevelamer in stage 3 CKD. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2013 Apr;24(5):842–52.
- 31 Levin A, Tang M, Perry T, Zalunardo N, Beaulieu M, Dubland JA, et al. Randomized controlled trial for the effect of vitamin D supplementation on vascular stiffness in CKD. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2017 Sep;12(9):1447–60.
- 32 Kumar V, Yadav AK, Lal A, Kumar V, Singhal M, Billot L, et al. A Randomized trial of vitamin D supplementation on vascular function in CKD. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2017 Oct;28(10):3100–8.
- 33 van Trijp MJ, Bos WJ, van der Schouw YT, Muller M, Grobbee DE, Bots ML. Non-invasively measured structural and functional arterial characteristics and coronary heart disease risk in middle aged and elderly men. *Atherosclerosis*. 2006 Jul;187(1):110–5.
- 34 Van Trijp MJ, Uitterwaal CS, Bos WJ, Oren A, Grobbee DE, Bots ML. Noninvasive arterial measurements of vascular damage in healthy young adults: relation to coronary heart disease risk. *Ann Epidemiol*. 2006 Feb;16(2):71–7.
- 35 London GM, Blacher J, Pannier B, Guérin AP, Marchais SJ, Safar ME. Arterial wave reflections and survival in end-stage renal failure. *Hypertension*. 2001 Sep;38(3):434–8.
- 36 Biyik Z, Selcuk NY, Tonbul HZ, Anil M, Uyar M. Assessment of abdominal aortic calcification at different stages of chronic kidney disease. *Int Urol Nephrol*. 2016 Dec;48(12):2061–8.
- 37 Kimani C, Kadota A, Miura K, Fujiyoshi A, Zaid M, Kadowaki S, et al.; SESSA Research Group. Differences Between Coronary Artery Calcification and Aortic Artery Calcification in Relation to Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors in Japanese Men. *J Atheroscler Thromb*. 2019 May;26(5):452–64.
- 38 Chuang ML, Massaro JM, Levitzky YS, Fox CS, Manders ES, Hoffmann U, et al. Prevalence and distribution of abdominal aortic calcium by gender and age group in a community-based cohort (from the Framingham Heart Study). *Am J Cardiol*. 2012 Sep;110(6):891–6.
- 39 Tullios BW, Sung JH, Lee JE, Criqui MH, Mitchell ME, Taylor HA. Ankle-brachial index (ABI), abdominal aortic calcification (AAC), and coronary artery calcification (CAC): the Jackson heart study. *Int J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2013 Apr;29(4):891–7.
- 40 Budoff MJ, Nasir K, Katz R, Takasu J, Carr JJ, Wong ND, et al. Thoracic aortic calcification and coronary heart disease events: the multiethnic study of atherosclerosis (MESA). *Atherosclerosis*. 2011 Mar;215(1):196–202.
- 41 Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Allison M, Kalyani RR, Sims M, Bertoni AG, Golden SH. Abdominal aortic calcification among individuals with and without diabetes: The Jackson Heart Study. *Diabetes Care*. 2017 Aug;40(8):e106–7.
- 42 Chuang ML, Leslie RW, Massaro JM, Manders ES, Fox CS, Hoffmann U, et al. Distribution of abdominal aortic calcium by computed tomography: impact of analysis method on quantitative calcium score. *Acad Radiol*. 2013 Nov;20(11):1422–8.
- 43 Sigrist M, Bungay P, Taal MW, McIntyre CW. Vascular calcification and cardiovascular function in chronic kidney disease. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2006 Mar;21(3):707–14.
- 44 Odink AE, Mattace-Raso FU, van der Lugt A, Hofman A, Hunink MG, Breteler MM, et al. The association of arterial stiffness and arterial calcification: the Rotterdam study. *J Hum Hypertens*. 2008 Mar;22(3):205–7.
- 45 Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) CKD-MBD Work Group. KDIGO clinical practice guideline for the diagnosis, evaluation, prevention, and treatment of Chronic Kidney Disease-Mineral and Bone Disorder (CKD-MBD). *Kidney Int Suppl*. 2009 Aug;(113):S1–130.
- 46 Dhingra R, Sullivan LM, Fox CS, Wang TJ, D'Agostino RB Sr, Gaziano JM, et al. Relations of serum phosphorus and calcium levels to the incidence of cardiovascular disease in the community. *Arch Intern Med*. 2007 May;167(9):879–85.
- 47 Jamal SA, Vandermeer B, Raggi P, Mendelssohn DC, Chatterley T, Dorgan M, et al. Effect of calcium-based versus non-calcium-based phosphate binders on mortality in patients with chronic kidney disease: an updated systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2013 Oct;382(9900):1268–77.
- 48 Sekercioglu N, Thabane L, Díaz Martínez JP, Nesrallah G, Longo CJ, Busse JW, et al. Comparative effectiveness of phosphate binders in patients with chronic kidney disease: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *PLoS One*. 2016 Jun;11(6):e0156891.
- 49 Palmer SC, Gardner S, Tonelli M, Mavridis D, Johnson DW, Craig JC, et al. Phosphate-binding agents in adults with CKD: A network meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2016 Nov;68(5):691–702.
- 50 Block GA, Block MS, Smits G, Mehta R, Isakova T, Wolf M, et al. A pilot randomized trial of ferric citrate coordination complex for the treatment of advanced CKD. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2019 Aug;30(8):1495–504.
- 51 Jüppner H. Phosphate and FGF-23. *Kidney Int*. 2011 Apr;79(2):S24–7.
- 52 Nasrallah MM, El-Shehaby AR, Salem MM, Osman NA, El Sheikh E, Sharaf El Din UA. Fibroblast growth factor-23 (FGF-23) is independently correlated to aortic calcification in haemodialysis patients. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2010 Aug;25(8):2679–85.
- 53 Hsu JJ, Katz R, Ix JH, de Boer IH, Kestenbaum B, Shlipak MG. Association of fibroblast growth factor-23 with arterial stiffness in the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2014 Nov;29(11):2099–105.

- 54 Gutiérrez OM, Mannstadt M, Isakova T, Rauh-Hain JA, Tamez H, Shah A, et al. Fibroblast growth factor 23 and mortality among patients undergoing hemodialysis. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Aug;359(6):584–92.
- 55 Block GA, Fishbane S, Rodriguez M, Smits G, Shemesh S, Pergola PE, et al. A 12-week, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of ferric citrate for the treatment of iron deficiency anemia and reduction of serum phosphate in patients with CKD Stages 3–5. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2015 May;65(5):728–36.
- 56 Shigematsu T, Negi S; COLC Research Group. Combined therapy with lanthanum carbonate and calcium carbonate for hyperphosphatemia decreases serum FGF-23 level independently of calcium and PTH (COLC Study). *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2012 Mar;27(3):1050–4.
- 57 Bello AK, Levin A, Lunney M, Osman MA, Ye F, Ashuntanang GE, et al. Status of care for end stage kidney disease in countries and regions worldwide: international cross sectional survey. *BMJ*. 2019 Oct;367:l5873.
- 58 Harris PA, Taylor R, Thielke R, Payne J, Gonzalez N, Conde JG. Research electronic data capture (REDCap) – a metadata-driven methodology and workflow process for providing translational research informatics support. *J Biomed Inform*. 2009 Apr;42(2):377–81.
- 59 Harris PA, Taylor R, Minor BL, Elliott V, Fernandez M, O’Neal L, et al.; REDCap Consortium. The REDCap consortium: building an international community of software platform partners. *J Biomed Inform*. 2019 Jul;95:103208.