

Associations of Serum 25-Hydroxyvitamin D₃ Levels with Visceral Adipose Tissue in Chinese Men with Normal Glucose Tolerance

Yaping Hao^{1,2}, Xiaojing Ma^{1,2}, Yun Shen¹, Jie Ni¹, Yuqi Luo¹, Yunfeng Xiao², Yuqian Bao^{1*}, Weiping Jia¹

1 Department of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People's Hospital, Shanghai Clinical Center for Diabetes, Shanghai Key Clinical Center for Metabolic Disease, Shanghai Diabetes Institute, Shanghai Key Laboratory of Diabetes Mellitus, Shanghai, China, **2** Department of Radiology, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People's Hospital, Shanghai, China

Abstract

Objective: Decreased serum vitamin D level is a common observation in obese adults. Since no Chinese population-based study has yet evaluated the relationship between serum vitamin D levels and the accurate adiposity variables, this study investigated the association of serum vitamin D (assessed by 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ [25(OH)D₃]) levels with precise body fat content and distribution in a cohort of Chinese men.

Methods: Serum samples were collected from a total of 567 men with normal glucose tolerance (NGT) for assessment by electrochemiluminescence immunoassay to measure 25(OH)D₃ levels. In addition, each participant underwent bioelectrical impedance analysis to quantify total body fat and magnetic resonance imaging to measure visceral fat area (VFA) and subcutaneous fat area (SFA).

Results: Overweight/obese (BMI ≥ 25 kg/m²) subjects had significantly lower serum 25(OH)D₃ levels than non-overweight/non-obese (BMI < 25 kg/m²) subjects ($P = 0.029$). Greater fat mass and VFA were accompanied by a downward trend in serum 25(OH)D₃ levels (P for trend < 0.01). Among overweight/obese subjects, those with body fat percent $\geq 25\%$ also had significantly lower serum 25(OH)D₃ levels ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, participants with VFA ≥ 80 cm² had significantly lower serum 25(OH)D₃ ($P < 0.05$), regardless of BMI value. VFA was independently correlated with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels ($\beta = -0.023$, $P < 0.001$), even after adjustments for confounding factors. In addition, serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were found to decrease by 0.26 ng/mL per 10 cm² increment of VFA.

Conclusions: Serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were inversely associated with VFA in Chinese men with NGT.

Citation: Hao Y, Ma X, Shen Y, Ni J, Luo Y, et al. (2014) Associations of Serum 25-Hydroxyvitamin D₃ Levels with Visceral Adipose Tissue in Chinese Men with Normal Glucose Tolerance. PLoS ONE 9(1): e86773. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086773

Editor: Andrzej T. Slominski, University of Tennessee, United States of America

Received: September 30, 2013; **Accepted:** December 13, 2013; **Published:** January 22, 2014

Copyright: © 2014 Hao et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: Funding provided by 973 Program of China (2013CB530606), Key Project of Science and Technology of Shanghai (13XD1403000), Project of National Natural Science Foundation of China (81100563), National Key Technology Research & Development Program of China (2012BAI02B03), Key Discipline of Public Health of Shanghai (Epidemiology) (12GWZX0104) and Drug Innovation Program of National Science and Technology Project (2011ZX09307-001-02). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: byq522@163.com

These authors contributed equally to this work.

Introduction

The primary biological role of vitamin D, a lipid-soluble vitamin, is the regulation of calcium and phosphorus metabolism; as such, proper levels of vitamin D are critical for establishment of bone health and its maintenance throughout life [1]. Recent studies have indicated that perturbed vitamin D status may also contribute to obesity, metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease [2].

In recent years, the relationship between Vitamin D and obesity has received extensive attention. Animal studies found that when mouse 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were exposed to vitamin D, the formation of adipocytes was suppressed as a result of inhibited proliferation and differentiation [3]. In addition, when high-dose vitamin D was delivered as a dietary supplement, along with high

whey protein and calcium, male Wistar rats experienced a reduction in fat mass and an increase in lean mass [4].

As the main circulating form of vitamin D, serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D], consisted of 25(OH)D₂ and 25(OH)D₃, is used as a clinical marker to evaluate vitamin D nutritional status. Additionally, more than 95% of 25(OH)D, measurable in serum, is 25(OH)D₃ [5]. Consistent with the experimental studies, clinical evidence has indicated that serum 25(OH)D levels decrease significantly in obese subjects and has shown that this decrease is closely correlated with fat distribution [6,7]. Still other studies have implicated the decreased level of serum 25(OH)D as a risk factor for obesity and its related metabolic disorders [8].

Anthropometric indices for obesity and abdominal obesity, such as body mass index (BMI) and waist circumference (WC), have

been used widely in the previous studies examining the relationship between obesity and vitamin D. Additionally, the differences in serum 25(OH)D levels associated with sex and race are well established [9]. However, the associations of serum vitamin D levels with accurate adiposity variables remain unknown within the Chinese population.

Therefore, in the present study, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was used to evaluate visceral fat area (VFA) and subcutaneous fat area (SFA) as accurate measurements for visceral obesity. Body composition (as a precise evaluation of total body fat content) was determined by bioelectrical impedance. The study was designed to evaluate the association between serum vitamin D levels (assessed by serum 25(OH)D₃) and body fat as well as fat distribution in a cohort of Chinese men with normal glucose tolerance (NGT), in order to minimize the known influence of hyperglycemia, including impaired glucose regulation (IGR) and diabetes, on serum 25(OH)D₃ levels [10].

Subjects and Methods

Study subjects

The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Ethics Committee of Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People's Hospital. All study participants provided written informed consent prior to enrollment.

The 1003 adult men with no previous history of diabetes who participated in the Shanghai Obesity Study (SHOS) were considered for study enrollment [11]. This overall population included 289 subjects from the Gonghexin community who participated during August to September in 2010 and 714 subjects from the Tianmuxi and Daning communities who participated during April to September in 2011. All of the participants underwent MRI scan to obtain abdominal fat area measurements and completed a standardized questionnaire to identify history of present and previous illness, medical therapy, physical activity, and smoking status.

This study participants was filtered according to the following exclusion criteria: newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes mellitus or IGR ($n = 266$); liver and kidney dysfunction ($n = 45$); hyperthyroidism or hypothyroidism ($n = 31$); serum calcium levels ≥ 10.5 mg/dL ($n = 4$) [12]; current corticosteroids therapy or supplemental calcium/vitamin D intake ($n = 4$); psychiatric disease, severe disability or occurrence of bone fracture within the past six months ($n = 3$); history of cardiovascular disease ($n = 27$); recent infection ($n = 24$); serum C reactive protein > 10 mg/L ($n = 22$); presence of tumor ($n = 5$); severe anemia ($n = 5$). Finally, 567 subjects with NGT were included in the analysis.

Anthropometric measurements

BMI (kg/m^2) was calculated based on the height (to the nearest 0.1 cm) and weight (to the nearest 0.1 kg). Waist circumference was measured starting at the midpoint of the inferior border of the lowest rib and following the iliac crest on the mid-axillary line by around the abdomen. Resting blood pressure was calculated as the average value of three measurements taken at 3 min intervals.

Body fat measurements

Body composition, consisting of fat mass (FM) and free fat mass (FFM), was estimated by the BC-420 Tanita Body Composition Analyzer (Tanita Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Percentage of body fat (fat%) was calculated as $\text{FM (kg)}/[\text{FM (kg)}+\text{FFM (kg)}]$. Abdominal MRI scans were performed on the Archiva 3.0T Clinical MRI Scanner (Philips Medical System, Amsterdam, The Netherlands)

at the level between the L4 and L5 vertebrae with the participant in the supine position [13]. VFA and SFA were calculated using the Slice-O-Matic Image Analysis Software (version 4.2; Tomovision Inc., Montreal, QC, Canada).

Biochemical assessments

All subjects underwent a 75-g oral glucose tolerance test after 10-h overnight fasting, and blood samples were collected to measure 25(OH)D₃ levels as well as other biochemical parameters. Fasting plasma glucose (FPG) and 2h postprandial glucose (2hPG) were measured by the glucose oxidase method. Lipid profiles, including total cholesterol (TC) and triglycerides (TG), were determined using the standard enzymatic methods, while low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-c) and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-c) were determined by the direct assay method. All of the above measurements were carried out on a Hitachi 7600-120 auto-analyser (Tokyo, Japan). Serum fasting insulin (FINS) level was measured by electrochemiluminescence immunoassay, and the intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation were 1.7% and 2.5%, respectively. Insulin resistance (IR) was estimated by the homeostasis model assessment index (HOMA-IR) [14]. Only serum 25(OH)D₃ levels, but not the total 25(OH)D, was measured by electrochemiluminescence immunoassay (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany), and the intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation were 5.6% and 8.0%, respectively. The lower limit of 25(OH)D₃ detection was < 4 ng/mL.

Definition

Levels of physical activity were classified as light, moderate or high according to the 2001 International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) [15]. Hypertension was defined as systolic blood pressure (SBP) ≥ 140 mmHg and/or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) ≥ 90 mmHg, or current treatment for hypertension, according to the 1999 World Health Organization's (WHO) Hypertension Guidelines [16]. Overweight/obesity was diagnosed when BMI was ≥ 25.0 kg/m^2 , according to the 1999 WHO criteria [17], and as fat% $\geq 25\%$, according to the WHO definition of obesity for men [18]. In addition, visceral obesity was defined as VFA ≥ 80 cm^2 . Dyslipidemia was defined as receipt of treatment of lipid abnormalities or lipid values over the boundary value according to the following criteria published by the Joint Committee for Developing Chinese Guidelines on Prevention and Treatment of Dyslipidemia in Adults [19]: hypercholesterolemia: TC ≥ 5.18 mmol/L; hypertriglyceridemia: TG ≥ 1.70 mmol/L; high LDL-c: LDL-c ≥ 3.37 mmol/L; low HDL-c: HDL-c < 1.04 mmol/L.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed by SPSS statistical software (version 16.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine data normality; normally distributed data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) and skewed data were expressed as median with interquartile range. For continuous variables, the unpaired Student's *t*-test and the Mann-Whitney U-test were used for between-group comparisons of normally distributed and skewed data, respectively. For categorical variables, the χ^2 test was used for between-group comparisons. Correlation coefficients between serum 25(OH)D₃ levels and clinical parameters were determined by simple and partial correlation analyses, as appropriate. Multiple stepwise regression analysis was performed to identify independent associations of obesity-related variables and other parameters with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels, after adjusting

for potential confounders, while linear regression analysis was carried out to estimate the relationship between serum 25(OH)D₃ levels and VFA. The threshold for statistical significance was a two-tailed *P*-value of <0.05.

Results

Clinical characteristics of study participants

The median level of age was 56.4 years old (interquartile range: 50.7–61.0). As shown in Table 1, there were no differences between overweight/obese (BMI ≥25 kg/m²) and non-overweight/non-obese (BMI <25 kg/m²) groups in age, 2hPG, TG or LDL-c levels, dyslipidemia (including hypercholesterolemia, hypertriglyceridemia, high LDL-c and low HDL-c) frequency, physical activity, smoking status, or lipid-lowering therapy (all *P* >0.05). The serum 25(OH)D₃ concentrations (overall range: 4.3–40.6 ng/mL) were lower in the overweight/obese individuals than in their non-overweight/non-obese counterparts. In addition, the overweight/obese individuals exhibited lower TC, HDL-c (both *P* <0.01) and higher BMI, WC, FM, FFM, fat%, VFA, SFA, SBP, DBP, FPG, FINS, HOMA-IR, and frequency of both hypertension as well as antihypertensive therapy (all *P* <0.05).

Association of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels with anthropometric and biochemical parameters

Serum 25(OH)D₃ levels showed a significantly inverse correlation with obesity-related parameters (BMI, WC, FM, fat%, VFA and SFA) and TG (*P* <0.05). However, after adjustment for age and BMI, only FM, fat%, VFA and TG retained the significant inverse correlation with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels (all *P* <0.01) (Table 2).

Relationship between 25(OH)D₃ and total body fat and VFA

When the overall subjects were stratified by 5 kg increments of FM, the serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were found to decrease in accordance with the increment, as expected (*P* for trend <0.01) (Fig. 1a). Moreover, when the groups were stratified by 20 cm² increments of VFA, the same trend of descending serum 25(OH)D₃ levels was observed (*P* for trend <0.01) (Fig. 1b).

When the overweight/obese and non-overweight/non-obese groups were stratified by fat% (<25% vs. ≥25%), among the overweight/obese individuals, those with fat% ≥ 25% showed significantly lower serum 25(OH)D₃ levels compared to those with fat% < 25% (*P* <0.05) (Fig. 2a). The non-overweight/non-obese individuals showed no significant difference in serum 25(OH)D₃ levels between the fat% stratified subgroups.

Finally, when the overweight/obese and non-overweight/non-obese groups were further stratified according to the cutoff of visceral obesity, it was found that within the same BMI categories, serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were significantly lower for those individuals with VFA ≥80 cm², compared to those with VFA <80 cm² (*P* < 0.05) (Fig. 2b).

Variables independently associated with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels

In order to assess the variables independently associated with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels, multiple stepwise regression analysis identified the following variables as independent variables: obesity-related parameters (including BMI, WC, FM, FFM, fat%, VFA, and SFA), age, SBP, DBP, FPG, 2hPG, TC, TG, LDL-c, HDL-c, FINS, physical activity, smoking status, and receipt of lipid-lowering therapy or antihypertensive therapy. Three regression models

were established according to the selection of different obesity-related variables. In model 1, the anthropometric variables (BMI and WC) were applied. We found that WC ($\beta = -0.065$, *P* = 0.017) and TG ($\beta = -0.524$, *P* = 0.009) showed independent associations with serum 25(OH)D₃. Both model 2 (using accurate adiposity parameters including FM, FFM, fat%, VFA and SFA) and the expanded model 3 (using the additional anthropometric variables including BMI and WC) showed independent associations of serum 25(OH)D₃ with VFA ($\beta = -0.023$, *P* <0.001) and TG ($\beta = -0.415$, *P* = 0.041).

In addition, linear regression analysis, with serum 25(OH)D₃ levels set as the dependent variable and VFA set as the independent variable, estimated serum 25(OH)D₃ levels to be decreased by 0.26 ng/mL for each 10 cm² incremental change in VFA.

Discussion

To our knowledge, the study described herein has provided the first evidence of an association of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels with precise body fat content and distribution in Chinese men with normal glucose tolerance. In particular, the data demonstrated that serum 25(OH)D₃ levels decreased with increment of FM and VFA, and that the inverse influence of obesity on serum 25(OH)D₃ levels might be mostly attributable to the effects of VFA, irrespective of BMI.

Several demographic factors have been recognized for their effects on serum 25(OH)D concentrations, including sex, age, race, and even the season during which blood sampling occurred [20]. In a previous study of a large Caucasian population, decreased serum 25(OH)D levels (<75 nmol/L) were found to exist in significantly more of the obese subjects than in the non-obese subjects [21]. Another study of various ethnicities demonstrated inverse correlations of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels with body weight, BMI, and WC [22]. In the current study, the subjects were selected to help minimize the effects of potential confounding factors (as detailed above); for example, each subject had NGT and resided in a single geographic region, were of a single race, reported similar dietary status, provided blood samples in a single season (to help ensure similar daily sunshine duration and potential exposure). The results indicated that serum 25(OH)D₃ levels decreased in the overweight/obese and were negatively correlated with WC; these findings are consistent with the previous studies.

Although BMI is an adequate estimator of whole body fat and is used commonly in clinical analysis, it cannot distinguish fat mass from lean blocks. The accurate variables (FM and fat%) can help to compensate for the deficiency. Studies revealed that serum 25(OH)D levels were inversely correlated with fat% in adolescents and healthy women [23,24]. The present study found that a decreasing trend for serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were accompanied by increased levels of FM. Moreover, among the overweight/obese group in the present study, serum 25(OH)D₃ levels were 14.17% lower for those individuals with a higher level of fat% compared to those with a lower level of fat%. These results indicate that whole body fat may exert an inverse impact on the levels of 25(OH)D₃, to a certain extent.

Although WC can be considered as a brief anthropometric index of abdominal obesity, it cannot accurately reflect the content or location of the abdominal fat clearly or directly. As such, the International Diabetes Federation has recommended using computed tomography (CT) and MRI as the standard quantification methods for VFA and SFA [25]. Indeed, in a study of non-diabetic Caucasians, serum 25(OH)D levels were found to be indepen-

Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of study participants.

Variables	Total	BMI<25 kg/m ²	BMI≥25 kg/m ²	P
N	567	404	163	-
Age (year)	56.4(50.7–61.0)	56.5(50.4–61.1)	55.9(51.3–60.5)	0.906
BMI (kg/m ²)	23.8±2.8	22.4±1.8	27.2±2.0	<0.001
WC (cm)	84.9±8.6	81.5±6.5	93.3±7.1	<0.001
FM (kg)	15.1(11.6–18.2)	13.2(10.7–15.8)	20.1(17.0–24.3)	<0.001
FFM (kg)	53.6±5.6	51.7±4.4	58.5±5.5	<0.001
Fat% (%)	21.9±5.1	20.2±4.1	26.2±4.6	<0.001
VFA (cm ²)	91.4±38.7	79.6±33.5	120.7±35.3	<0.001
SFA (cm ²)	138.3(110.0–175.6)	122.7(101.2–148.9)	190.0(157.7–223.2)	<0.001
SBP (mmHg)	122.0(114.7–131.7)	120.7(112.4–130.0)	129.3(120.0–140.0)	<0.001
DBP (mmHg)	80.0(72.7–84.7)	79.3(71.3–82.0)	80.7(77.3–88.7)	<0.001
FPG (mmol/L)	5.2±0.4	5.2±0.4	5.3±0.4	<0.001
2hPG (mmol/L)	5.8±1.1	5.8±1.1	5.9±1.1	0.526
TC (mmol/L)	5.1±0.9	5.1±0.9	4.9±0.8	0.006
TG (mmol/L)	1.4(1.0–1.9)	1.4(1.0–1.9)	1.5(1.1–2.1)	0.052
HDL-c (mmol/L)	1.3(1.1–1.5)	1.3(1.1–1.5)	1.1(1.0–1.3)	<0.001
LDL-c (mmol/L)	3.2±0.8	3.2±0.8	3.1±0.7	0.288
FINS (mU/L)	6.5(4.5–9.2)	5.7(4.0–7.6)	8.9(6.4–12.6)	<0.001
HOMA-IR	1.5(1.0–2.2)	1.3(0.9–1.9)	2.1(1.5–3.1)	<0.001
25(OH)D ₃ (ng/mL)	15.5±5.6	15.8±5.7	14.7±5.3	0.029
Hypercholesteremia, N(%)	234(41.3)	173(42.8)	61(37.4)	0.259
Hypertriglyceridemia, N(%)	195(34.4)	134(33.2)	61(37.4)	0.379
High LDL-c, N(%)	209(36.9)	153(37.9)	56(34.4)	0.444
Low HDL-c, N(%)	109(19.2)	71(17.6)	38(23.3)	0.126
Hypertension, N(%)	187(33.0)	109(27.0)	78(47.9)	<0.001
Physical activity (high), N(%)	219(38.6)	153(37.9)	66(40.5)	0.844
Current smoking, N(%)	322(56.8)	235(58.2)	87(53.4)	0.557
Lipid-lowering therapy, N(%)	6(1.1)	3(0.7)	3(1.8)	0.361
Anti-hypertensives, N(%)	85(15.0)	51(12.6)	34(20.9)	0.019

Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index; WC, waist circumference; FM, fat mass; FFM, free fat mass; Fat%, percentage of body fat; VFA, visceral fat area; SFA, subcutaneous fat area; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; FPG, fasting plasma glucose; 2hPG, 2-h postprandial plasma glucose; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglyceride; HDL-c, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-c, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; FINS, fasting insulin; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance; 25(OH)D₃, 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃. Data were expressed as mean ±SD for normal distribution variables or median (interquartile range) for skewed distribution variables.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086773.t001

dently associated with CT-determined SFA and VFA, but only the relationship with VFA remained significant after further stratified by BMI [26]. These results indicated that serum 25(OH)D concentrations were inversely correlated with visceral adiposity. In the present study, regional adipose deposits were measured in a precise manner using MRI and the results of analysis indicated that serum 25(OH)D₃ levels decreased in conjunction with the increment of VFA. This finding is in accordance with the previous studies in diverse ethnicities [27,28].

A particularly intriguing finding from the present study is that, regardless of overweight/obesity status (i.e. BMI category), individuals with higher VFA showed lower serum 25(OH)D₃ levels and that only VFA and TG were identified as independent risk factors of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels after adjustment for conventional confounders. Thus, it appears that, compared with total fat content, increased VFA may contribute more to decreased levels of serum 25(OH)D₃.

Several putative mechanisms may explain the association observed between the decreased levels of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels and the clinical measures of adiposity. For example, since vitamin D is fat-soluble, the increased adipose tissue that occurs in the obese state will expand the distribution of the pool of vitamin D, thereby reducing the overall concentration of serum vitamin D levels [29]. In turn, Vitamin D deficiency is also an important risk factor of obesity. Reduced levels of serum vitamin D can lead to a secondary elevation of parathyroid hormone (PTH), which may promote calcium influx into adipocytes and increase lipogenesis and reduce lipolysis [30,31]. In addition, vitamin D is capable of inhibiting differentiation of preadipocytes via its suppression of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) expression and activation, thereby causing an increase in lipogenesis when serum vitamin D levels decrease [32].

Perturbed vitamin D status also appear to increase the risks of dyslipidemia. A previous study of Spanish subjects with BMI ≥ 40 kg/m² showed that individuals with serum vitamin D

Table 2. Correlation of 25(OH)D₃ with anthropometric parameters and biochemical indexes.

variables	25(OH)D ₃		25(OH)D ₃ (adjust for age and BMI)	
	r	P	R	P
Age	0.002	0.968	-	-
BMI	-0.101	0.016	-	-
WC	-0.115	0.006	-0.055	0.192
FM	-0.132	0.002	-0.156	<0.001
FFM	-0.044	0.291	0.036	0.398
Fat%	-0.165	<0.001	-0.137	0.001
VFA	-0.182	<0.001	-0.154	<0.001
SFA	-0.112	0.008	-0.061	0.148
SBP	0.010	0.820	0.007	0.872
DBP	-0.007	0.861	-0.006	0.882
FPG	0.038	0.367	0.062	0.143
2hPG	-0.010	0.820	-0.003	0.938
TC	-0.009	0.837	-0.017	0.679
TG	-0.108	0.010	-0.113	0.007
HDL-c	0.033	0.438	0.016	0.713
LDL-c	-0.013	0.762	-0.011	0.801
FINS	-0.063	0.134	-0.033	0.430
HOMA-IR	-0.053	0.209	-0.025	0.558
Physical activity	0.065	0.122	0.069	0.103
Current smoking	0.015	0.718	0.016	0.702

Abbreviation: 25(OH)D₃, 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃; BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; Fat%, percentage of body fat; FFM, free fat mass; FINS, fasting insulin; FPG, fasting plasma glucose; FM, fat mass; HDL-c, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance; 2hPG, 2h postprandial plasma glucose; LDL-c, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SFA, subcutaneous fat area; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglyceride; VFA, visceral fat area; WC, waist circumference.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086773.t002

deficiency had higher levels of TG [33]. Furthermore, a study of elderly Chinese demonstrated that serum 25(OH)D levels were inversely associated with TG in men, but not in women [34]. Consistent with these previous findings, the present study of adult Chinese men with NGT identified TG as an independent risk factor of serum 25(OH)D₃ levels. The mechanism underlying this phenomenon may involve intracellular Ca²⁺; in this manner, an antilipolytic effect may be exerted, mainly by the activation of phosphodiesterase, leading to a decrease in cAMP and hormone-sensitive lipase phosphorylation [35].

Previous studies have also indicated that serum 25(OH)D levels are positively correlated with physical activity and negatively correlated with age [36]. However, this relationship was not observed in the current study population, possibly as a result of the relatively narrow age range which may have weakened the impact of age and physical exercise on 25(OH)D₃.

Some limitations inherent to the current study's design may have influenced the overall findings. First, the sample size was relatively small and the subjects recruited were mainly middle-aged and elderly, limiting the ability to generalize these findings to the more heterogeneous population. Second, the fact that PTH levels were not measured precluded the ability to determine whether or not the relationship between 25(OH)D₃ and clinical measures of adiposity was caused by secondary hyperparathyroidism. Previous studies, however, have demonstrated that the relationship between serum 25(OH)D levels and obesity is independent of serum PTH levels [27]. In addition, individuals with abnormal serum calcium or taking calcium/vitamin D supplements were excluded from the study enrollment, which could have partially compensated for this deficiency. Finally, the cross-sectional design precluded the ability to identify the exact causal relationship between 25(OH)D₃ and the clinical measures of adiposity.

Conclusions

This study has provided the first evidence of adipose tissue, especially increased visceral adipose, being related to marked decreases in serum 25(OH)D₃ levels in Chinese men with NGT.

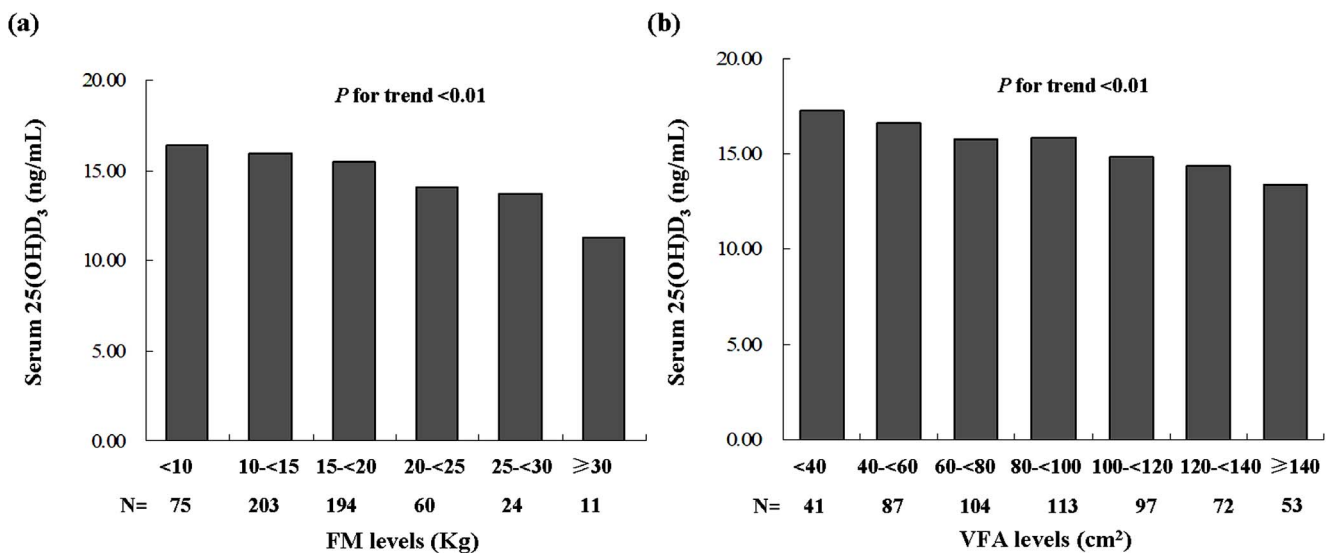


Figure 1. Serum 25(OH)D₃ with FM (a) or VFA (b) levels. (a) Subjects were stratified into 6 subgroups according to FM levels (5 kg increments). (b) Subjects were stratified into 7 subgroups according to VFA levels (20 cm² increments). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086773.g001

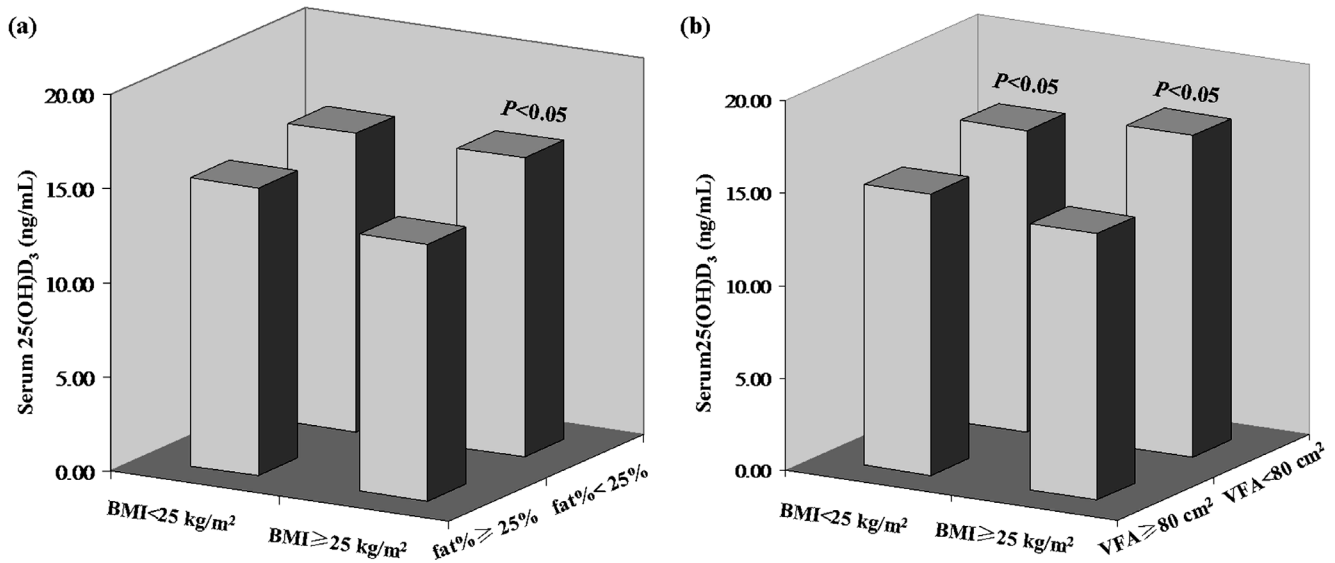


Figure 2. Serum 25(OH)D₃ according to different fat% (a) / VFA (b) levels within similar BMI categories. (a) In the same BMI category, subjects were stratified into fat% $\geq 25\%$ and fat% $< 25\%$ subgroups. (b) In the same BMI category, subjects were stratified into VFA $\geq 80 \text{ cm}^2$ and VFA $< 80 \text{ cm}^2$ subgroups.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086773.g002

Acknowledgments

We are very grateful to all staff of Gonghexin, Tianmuxi, and Daning communities for helping with the present study. We are also extremely grateful to all participants for their dedication in data collections and laboratory measurements.

References

1. Blum M, Dolnikowski G, Seyoum E, Harris SS, Booth SL, et al. (2008) Vitamin D(3) in fat tissue. *Endocrine* 33: 90–94.
2. Reis AF, Hauache OM, Velho G (2005) Vitamin D endocrine system and the genetic susceptibility to diabetes, obesity and vascular disease. A review of evidence. *Diabetes Metab* 31: 318–325.
3. Kong J, Li YC (2006) Molecular mechanism of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 inhibition of adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 290: E916–E924.
4. Siddiqui SM, Chang E, Li J, Burlage C, Zou M, et al. (2008) Dietary intervention with vitamin D, calcium, and whey protein reduced fat mass and increased lean mass in rats. *Nutr Res* 28: 783–790.
5. Hart GR, Furniss JL, Laurie D, Durham SK (2006) Measurement of vitamin D status: background, clinical use, and methodologies. *Clin Lab* 52: 335–343.
6. Rodríguez-Rodríguez E, Navia-Lombán B, López-Sobaler AM, Ortega RM (2010) Associations between abdominal fat and body mass index on vitamin D status in a group of Spanish school children. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 64: 461–467.
7. Nam GE, Kim do H, Cho KH, Park YG, Han KD, et al. (2012) Estimate of a predictive cut-off value for serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D reflecting abdominal obesity in Korean adolescents. *Nutr Res* 32: 395–402.
8. Mai XM, Chen Y, Camargo CA Jr, Langhammer A (2012) Cross-sectional and prospective cohort study of serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D level and obesity in adults: the HUNT study. *Am J Epidemiol* 175: 1029–1036.
9. Looker AC (2005) Body Fat and Vitamin D Status in Black Versus White Women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 90: 635–640.
10. Dalgård C, Petersen MS, Weihe P, Grandjean P (2011) Vitamin D status in relation to glucose metabolism and type 2 diabetes in septuagenarians. *Diabetes Care* 34: 1284–1288.
11. Bao Y, Ma X, Yang R, Wang F, Hao Y, et al. (2013) Inverse relationship between serum osteocalcin levels and visceral fat area in Chinese men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 98: 345–351.
12. Paschoalin RP, Torregrosa JV, Sánchez-Escuredo A, Barros X, Durán CE, et al. (2012) Cinacalcet treatment for stable kidney transplantation patients with hypercalcemia due to persistent secondary hyperparathyroidism: a long-term follow-up. *Transplant Proc* 44: 2588–2589.
13. Wang Y, Ma X, Zhou M, Zong W, Zhang L, et al. (2012) Contribution of visceral fat accumulation to carotid intima-media thickness in a Chinese population. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 36: 1203–1208.
14. Matthews DR, Hosker JP, Rudenski AS, Naylor BA, Treacher DF, et al. (1985) Homeostasis model assessment: insulin resistance and beta-cell function from

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: YB WJ. Performed the experiments: XM YH YS JN YL. Analyzed the data: YH XM. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: YX. Wrote the paper: YH.

- fasting plasma glucose and insulin concentrations in man. *Diabetologia* 28: 412–419.
15. Craig CL, Marshall AL, Sjöström M, Bauman AE, Booth ML, et al. (2003) International physical activity questionnaire: 12-country reliability and validity. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 35: 1381–1395.
16. Chalmers J, MacMahon S, Mancia G, Whitworth J, Beilin L, et al. (1999) 1999 World Health Organization-International Society of Hypertension Guidelines for the management of hypertension. Guidelines sub-committee of the World Health Organization. *Clin Exp Hypertens* 21: 1009–1060.
17. World Health Organization (2000) Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report of a WHO consultation. World Health Organ Tech Rep Ser 894: 1–253.
18. Frankenfield DC, Rowe WA, Cooney RN, Smith JS, Becker D (2001) Limits of body mass index to detect obesity and predict body composition. *Nutrition* 17: 26–30.
19. Joint Committee for Developing Chinese Guidelines on Prevention and Treatment of Dyslipidemia in adults (2007) Chinese guidelines on prevention and treatment of dyslipidemia in adults. *Zhonghua Xin Xue Guan Bing Za Zhi* 35: 390–419.
20. van der Meer IM, Karamali NS, Boeke AJ, Lips P, Middelkoop BJ, et al. (2006) High prevalence of vitamin D deficiency in pregnant non-Western women in The Hague, Netherlands. *Am J Clin Nutr* 84: 350–353.
21. Hyppönen E, Power C (2006) Vitamin D status and glucose homeostasis in the 1958 British birth cohort: the role of obesity. *Diabetes Care* 29: 2244–2246.
22. McGill AT, Stewart JM, Lithander FE, Strik CM, Poppitt SD (2008) Relationships of low serum vitamin D3 with anthropometry and markers of the metabolic syndrome and diabetes in overweight and obesity. *Nutr J* 7: 4.
23. Lenders CM, Feldman HA, Von Scheven E, Merewood A, Sweeney C, et al. (2009) Relation of body fat indexes to vitamin D status and deficiency among obese adolescents. *Am J Clin Nutr* 90: 459–467.
24. Arunabh S, Pollack S, Yeh J, Aloia JF (2003) Body Fat Content and 25-Hydroxyvitamin D Levels in Healthy Women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 88:157–161.
25. Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J (2006) Metabolic syndrome—a new world-wide definition. A Consensus Statement from the International Diabetes Federation. *Diabet Med* 23: 469–480.
26. Cheng S, Massaro JM, Fox CS, Larson MG, Keyes MJ, et al. (2010) Adiposity, cardiometabolic risk, and vitamin D status: the Framingham Heart Study. *Diabetes* 59: 242–248.

27. Seo JA, Cho H, Eun CR, Yoo HJ, Kim SG, et al. (2012) Association between visceral obesity and sarcopenia and vitamin D deficiency in older Koreans: the AnsanGeriatric Study. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 60: 700–706.
28. Young KA, Engelman CD, Langefeld CD, Hairston KG, Haffner SM, et al. (2009) Association of plasma vitamin D levels with adiposity in Hispanic and African Americans. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 94: 3306–3313.
29. Wortsman J, Matsuoka LY, Chen TC, Lu Z, Holick MF (2000) Decreased bioavailability of vitamin D in obesity. *Am J Clin Nutr* 72: 690–693.
30. Lu HK, Zhang Z, Ke YH, He JW, Fu WZ, et al. (2012) High prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency in China: relationship with the levels of parathyroid hormone and markers of bone turnover. *PLoS One* 7: e47264.
31. McCarty MF, Thomas CA (2003) PTH excess may promote weight gain by impeding catecholamine-induced lipolysis-implications for the impact of calcium, vitamin D, and alcohol on body weight. *Med Hypotheses* 61: 535–542.
32. Wood RJ (2008) Vitamin D and adipogenesis: new molecular insights. *Nutr Rev* 66: 40–46.
33. Botella-Carretero JJ, Alvarez-Blasco F, Villafruela JJ, Balsa JA, Vázquez C, et al. (2007) Vitamin D deficiency is associated with the metabolic syndrome in morbid obesity. *Clin Nutr* 26: 573–580.
34. Lu L, Yu Z, Pan A, Hu FB, Franco OH, et al. (2009) Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration and metabolic syndrome among middle-aged and elderly Chinese individuals. *Diabetes Care* 32: 1278–1283.
35. Xue B, Greenberg AG, Kraemer FB, Zemel MB (2001) Mechanism of intracellular calcium ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) inhibition of lipolysis in human adipocytes. *FASEB J* 15: 2527–2529.
36. Ardawi MS, Qari MH, Rouzi AA, Maimani AA, Raddadi RM (2011) Vitamin D status in relation to obesity, bone mineral density, bone turnover markers and vitamin D receptor genotypes in healthy Saudi pre- and postmenopausal women. *Osteoporos Int* 22: 463–475.