

## Solar radiation, vitamin D and survival rate of colon cancer in Norway

Johan Moan <sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Alina Carmen Porojnicu <sup>a,c</sup>, Trude Eid Robsahm <sup>d</sup>, Arne Dahlback <sup>b</sup>, Asta Juzeniene <sup>a</sup>, Steinar Tretli <sup>d</sup>, William Grant <sup>e</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Avdeling for strålingsbiologi, Institutt for kreftforskning, Montebello, N-0310 Oslo, Norway*

<sup>b</sup> *Fysisk institutt, Universitetet i Oslo, N-0316 Oslo, Norway*

<sup>c</sup> *Catedra de Biofizica si Biotehnologie Celulara, Universitatea de Medicina si Farmacie Carol Davila, 15-205 Bucuresti, Romania*

<sup>d</sup> *Kreftregisteret, Institutt for populasjonsbasert kreftforskning, Montebello, 0310 Oslo, Norway*

<sup>e</sup> *Sunlight, Nutrition and Health Research Center, 2107 Van Ness Avenue, suite 403 B, San Francisco, CA 94109-2529, USA*

Received 30 September 2004; received in revised form 11 October 2004; accepted 11 November 2004

Available online 7 January 2005

### Abstract

Solar radiation contributes significantly to the status of serum calcidiol (25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub>, 25-(OH)D<sub>3</sub>) in humans, even at the high latitudes of northern Norway. Thus, in late summer the serum concentration of calcidiol is roughly 50% larger than that in late winter, when the solar radiation in Norway contains too little ultraviolet radiation to induce any synthesis of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> in human skin. This seems to influence the prognosis of colon cancer. We here report that the survival rate of colon cancer in men and women, assessed 18 months after diagnosis, is dependent on the season of diagnosis. A high serum concentration of calcidiol at the time of diagnosis, i.e. at the start of conventional therapy, seems to give an increased survival rate. This agrees with cell and animal experiments reported in the literature, as well as with epidemiological data from some countries relating colon cancer survival with latitude and vitamin D<sub>3</sub> synthesis in skin. One possible interpretation of the present data is that, the level of calcidiol, or its derivative calcitriol (1 $\alpha$ ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub>, 1 $\alpha$ ,25-(OH)<sub>2</sub>D<sub>3</sub>), may act positively in concert with conventional therapies of colon cancer.

© 2004 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Vitamin D<sub>3</sub>; Cancer progression; Colon cancer; Solar radiation

### 1. Introduction

Cell experiments, as well as animal experiments and epidemiological studies, indicate that vitamin D<sub>3</sub> can protect against cancer induction and/or slow down tumor progression [1–8]. In several countries on the northern hemisphere, the death and/or incidence rates of breast cancer, prostate cancer and colon cancer are larger in north than in south [9–16]. Several investigators have related this to vitamin D<sub>3</sub>, since solar

radiation plays a significant role for the status of this vitamin [17].

Norway covers a large distance from north to south and the Norwegian population is relatively homogeneous, both with respect to ethnical origin and clothing and sun exposure habits. Thus, the country is well suited for epidemiological investigations of the relationship between solar radiation and cancer, as we have demonstrated for skin cancer [18–20].

The annual exposure to ultraviolet radiation (UV) is about 50% larger in the south than in the north [18]. This is the main reason for the three times larger incidence rates of skin cancer in the south than in the north

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +47 22 934 268; fax +47 22 934 270.  
E-mail address: [johan.moan@labmed.uio.no](mailto:johan.moan@labmed.uio.no) (J. Moan).

[18–20]. In any case, the gradient of skin cancer incidence rates clearly indicates that not only the measured UV exposures, but also the exposures obtained by the population, are larger in the south than in the north. It is commonly believed that skin cancer is mainly induced by UVB radiation (280–315 nm) [21], and so is vitamin D<sub>3</sub> [22]. Some investigations suggest that UVA may also play a role in the induction of skin cancer [23,24], although this issue is controversial.

In addition to the expected north–south gradient of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> induction, there is a clear seasonal variation of the vitamin D<sub>3</sub> metabolite calcidiol in Norway [25,26].

In the present work we have attempted to investigate if the variation of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> induction from north to south, as well as through the year, plays any role for the survival of colon cancer as determined 18 months after diagnosis.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Calculation of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> induction in skin

Since only the overall annual variation of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> in Norway, and not specifically the fraction related to solar radiation, has been measured, we attempted to calculate this fraction, using the action spectrum of production of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> from 7-dehydrocholesterol [27]. These calculations were compared with the measured annual variation of calcidiol in Norway and Denmark [25,26,28,29]. Calcidiol is present in the nanomolar range in human serum, and, since calcitriol, the active hormone in bone metabolism [17], is present only in the picomolar range, calcidiol is the vitamin D<sub>3</sub> metabolite considered in most investigations, as in those cited in the present work [25,26,28,29].

### 2.2. Calculation of ambient solar UV

The erythema action spectrum [17,27,30] is often used to estimate the skin carcinogenic potential of solar radiation [18–20]. This spectrum is almost similar to the action spectrum we have used for previtamin D<sub>3</sub> production. For comparison we have carried out calculations to determine north–south gradient also for erythemogenic exposures. This was done to estimate how dependent our calculations are on the choice of action spectrum. The details of the method of calculation have been described earlier [18–20].

### 2.3. Epidemiological approach

The epidemiological investigations were carried out as follows: The time points of diagnosis are grouped in four seasons: winter (1st of December–30th of Febru-

ary), spring (1st of March–31st of May), summer (1st of June–31st of August) and autumn (1st of September–31st of November).

The registration of patients was carried out via ID numbers. Since 1960, all Norwegian inhabitants have been assigned a unique personal identification number (11 digits) and recorded in The Central Population Register. This enabled us to register year of birth, living place, occupation, education and number of childbirths. The Cancer Registry of Norway has registered all cancer diagnosis since 1953 [8]. In the present work 12,823 men with colon cancer are included. The corresponding number for women is 14,922. All were born in the period 1900–1966. The period of observation is from 1964 to 1992. The relative death risks 18 months after diagnosis (RR) are given in relative numbers. A time as short as 18 months was chosen since the effect of therapy on the survival of cancer patients often decreases with time. Whenever seasons are compared, winter is normalized to RR = 1. The incidence rates for the same seasons are also shown. These are normalized so that one on the ordinate equals 25% of the annual rates. 95% confidence intervals are given. Since vitamin D<sub>3</sub> synthesis decreases with age [26,31], only persons younger than 68 years at the time point of diagnosis are included.

## 3. Results

We found no significant annual variation of the incidence rates of colon cancer (Fig. 1(a) and (b)). In each season we found  $25 \pm 1.5\%$  of the annual incidence rates. However, with respect to death rates, as measured 18 months after diagnosis, there was a clear seasonal variation, with the lowest death rates in the autumn (Fig. 1(a) and (b)). This was true for women (Fig. 1(a)) and for men (Fig. 1(b)). Thus, two parallel sets of data show the same trend. No significant north–south gradient was found for the death rate of colon cancer, neither for men nor for women.

The seasonal variation of calcidiol (25-(OH)D<sub>3</sub>) is strong in Norway as well as in Denmark (Fig. 1(c)) and in other countries. According to this figure, the maximal concentration of calcidiol is found in July–September and is about 50% larger than the base level of the winter. The time point of maximal measured calcidiol concentration occurs 1–2 months after the time point of calculated maximal induction of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> by solar radiation (Fig. 1(d)). A north–south gradient in the production of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> is expected (Figs. 1(d), 2). As estimated from Fig. 2, the annual production of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> is about 40% larger in south Norway than in north Norway while the erythemogenic dose is about 30% larger in the south. Thus, for the present investigation the choice of action spectrum in the calculations is not crucial.

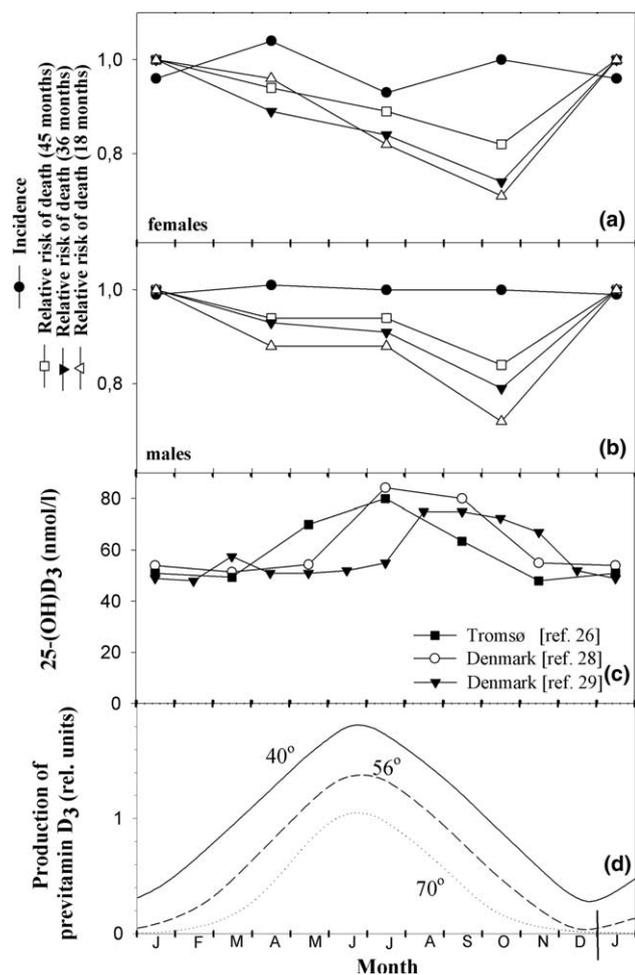


Fig. 1. The relative risk of death during the first 18 months after diagnosis of colon cancer ( $\Delta$ ). Data for females (a) and for males (b) for the period 1964–1992 are shown. Four seasons of diagnosis are considered, as described in Section 2.3: winter, spring, summer and autumn. The rates are normalized to unity for the winter. Similar data for 36 months ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) and for an average of 45 months ( $\square$ ) (end of the registration) are included from [8]. The incidence rates for the same seasons are also shown ( $\bullet$ ). These are normalized so that unity equals 25% of the annual rates. Calcidiol levels reported for Tromsø [26] and Denmark [28,29] are shown (c). Calculated production of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> in human skin, using the action spectrum given in [27] is illustrated. Three latitudes are considered: 40°, (Spain); 56°, (Denmark); 70°, (Tromsø) (d).

#### 4. Discussion

There is a clear annual variation in the serum level of calcidiol in the Nordic countries (Fig. 1(c)) as in practically all countries where such measurements have been performed. In most studies, as in those cited here [26,28,29], the maximal calcidiol level is found in July–August. However, it should be noted that the time points of maximal calcidiol levels are different from investigation to investigation (Fig. 1(c)). Nevertheless, there is a lag-time of approximately one month between the time point of the maximal rate of synthesis of previ-

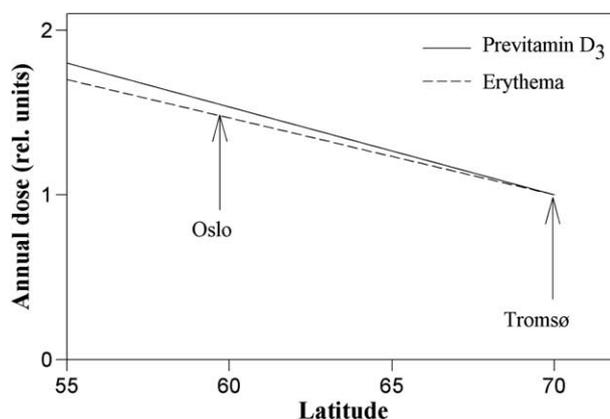


Fig. 2. Annual production of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> in human skin (—) and annual erythemogenic dose for different latitudes (- -).

tamin D<sub>3</sub> in the skin and the time point of appearance of the maximal amount of calcidiol in the serum. It is known that some time is needed for previtamin D<sub>3</sub> to be thermally isomerized to vitamin D<sub>3</sub>, and that vitamin D<sub>3</sub> stays for some time in the skin before it is bound to D-binding proteins, transported in the blood to the liver and hydroxylated to calcidiol [17]. Surprisingly, the contribution of sun-induced vitamin D<sub>3</sub>, as well as the average annual level of calcidiol, is similar in Tromsø and in Denmark, in spite of the large difference in latitude. Assuming a constant, basic level of calcidiol obtained from the food ( $\approx 50$  nmol/l, Fig. 1(c)) and a latitude-dependent variation of sun-induced production as shown in Fig. 2, we can estimate that the annual mean of calcidiol should be 8–12% larger in Denmark and south Norway than in Tromsø. However, there are at least three mechanisms that contribute to make the difference smaller: First, while they stay in the skin both previtamin D<sub>3</sub> and vitamin D<sub>3</sub> are degraded by large sun exposures [22]. Second, regulatory mechanisms in the body may make the sun contribution of calcidiol smaller than that of vitamin D<sub>3</sub>. Thus, after a large single exposure to UV radiation the concentration of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> was found to increase by a factor of 5 while that of calcidiol increased by only 50% [17]. Third, the intake of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> through the food may be larger in Tromsø (and generally in north Norway) than in south Norway and Denmark. According to report No. 30 of The Institute for Nutrition Research of Oslo University (1983), the intake of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> was 13% larger in north Norway than in the southern and mid-regions of Norway. This is certainly related to cod-fishing in the north. Unfortunately, we have no comparable data from Denmark. According to this, we should not expect to find any significant north–south gradient of the annual average of the vitamin D<sub>3</sub> status in Norway. This conclusion is supported by the similarity of the reported values of calcidiol in Norway and Denmark [25,26,28,29].

We found no north–south gradient for the 18 months survival of colon cancer in Norway. Neither did we find any gradient for the 36 months survival nor for the overall case fatality when the closing date of follow-up was date of death, migration from Norway or cut-off date of the follow-up study (31st of December 1992), with an average of 3.9 years [8]. Furthermore, there is no significant north–south gradient of incidence rates of colon cancer in Norway. In fact slightly below average relative incidence rates were reported for the northern regions of Norway and Sweden [32].

The present work shows a strong seasonal variation of the 18 months death rates of colon cancer in Norway (Fig. 1(a) and (b)). The lowest death rates were found for diagnosis in the autumn. The annual variation of the 18 months data was slightly larger than those of the 36 and 45 months (Fig. 1(a) and (b)). The latter data correspond to the over-all data (average follow-up 45 months) [8]. The annual variation of death rates clearly decreases with increasing observation times. This is not unexpected, since many forms of cancer therapy have a delaying effect on prognosis rather than a curative effect. Since the incidence rates are constant through the year, the seasonal variation of prognosis cannot be due to variations in the detection rates, i.e. to variations of the level of progression at the time point when diagnosis is made.

It is tempting to associate the good prognosis for colon cancer diagnosed in the autumn with the high calcidiol levels in the season (Fig. 1). This association is supported by a number of cell and animal experiments, as well as by epidemiological and clinical reports [1–7,14]. Clearly, the present data constitute no solid proof for the role of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> in cancer progression, but should contribute to initiate further research. Other factors than vitamin D<sub>3</sub> may play significant roles for colon cancer prognosis, and some of these might vary with the season. For instance, the intake of vegetables and fruit, which is known to reduce colon cancer risk [33,34], might be largest in summer and autumn. Alcohol intake is a risk factor [35] and may be highest in the winter season, notably during Christmas [36,37]. Finally, the level of physical activity may be lower in the winter than in summer. Physical activity is also considered a protective factor for colon cancer [38–40]. To our knowledge no investigation of the seasonal variation of the above mentioned factors (intake of fruits, vegetables, alcohol and physical activity) have been performed in Norway.

Calcitriol, rather than calcidiol, is known to be the vitamin D<sub>3</sub> derived hormone that is involved in bone metabolism and calcium homeostasis [17]. Calcitriol was earlier believed to be formed mainly in the kidneys, but, in fact, is produced in a number of tissues [41]. However, its serum level is about one thousand

times smaller than that of calcidiol and is quite tightly regulated [17]. Thus, an UV exposure leading to a five-fold increase of the serum level of vitamin D<sub>3</sub> and a 50% increase of the level of calcidiol, gave only a minor increase of the level of calcitriol [17]. In view of the present data (Fig. 1) it should, therefore, be considered if serum calcidiol, rather than serum calcitriol, is the protective agent with respect to colon cancer progression. Calcidiol may act either directly [42,43] or by being hydroxylated to calcitriol in the tumors [44–46].

## 5. Abbreviations

1 $\alpha$ ,25-(OH) <sub>2</sub> D <sub>3</sub>	calcitriol
25-(OH)D <sub>3</sub>	calcidiol
ID numbers	personal identification numbers
RR	relative death risk
UV	ultraviolet
UVA	ultraviolet A (400–315 nm)
UVB	ultraviolet B (315–280 nm)

## Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the Research Council of Norway and Norwegian Cancer Society for providing financial support for Alina Carmen Porojnicu and Asta Juzeniene.

## References

- [1] G.P. Studzinski, D.C. Moore, Sunlight – can it prevent as well as cause cancer?, *Cancer Res.* 55 (1995) 4014–4022.
- [2] R.G. Mehta, R.R. Mehta, Vitamin D and cancer, *J. Nutr. Biochem.* 13 (2002) 252–264.
- [3] S.C. Manolagas, Vitamin D and its relevance to cancer, *Anticancer Res.* 7 (1987) 625–638.
- [4] H.F. DeLuca, V. Ostrem, The relationship between the vitamin D system and cancer, *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.* 206 (1986) 413–429.
- [5] X.Y. Zhao, D. Feldman, The role of vitamin D in prostate cancer, *Steroids* 66 (2001) 293–300.
- [6] W.B. Grant, C.F. Garland, Reviews: a critical review of studies on vitamin D in relation to colorectal cancer, *Nutr. Cancer* 48 (2004) 115–123.
- [7] C.F. Garland, G.W. Comstock, F.C. Garland, K.J. Helsing, E.K. Shaw, E.D. Gorham, Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D and colon cancer: eight-year prospective study, *Lancet* 2 (1989) 1176–1178.
- [8] T.E. Røsbak, S. Tretli, A. Dahlback, J. Moan, Vitamin D<sub>3</sub> from sunlight may improve the prognosis of breast-, colon- and prostate-cancer (Norway), *Cancer Causes Control* 15 (2004) 149–158.
- [9] F.C. Garland, C.F. Garland, E.D. Gorham, J.F. Young, Geographic variation in breast cancer mortality in the United States: a hypothesis involving exposure to solar radiation, *Prev. Med.* 19 (1990) 614–622.

- [10] E.D. Gorham, F.C. Garland, C.F. Garland, Sunlight and breast cancer incidence in the USSR, *Int. J. Epidemiol.* 19 (1990) 820–824.
- [11] W.B. Grant, An ecologic study of dietary and solar ultraviolet-B links to breast carcinoma mortality rates, *Cancer* 94 (2002) 272–281.
- [12] W.B. Grant, An estimate of premature cancer mortality in the US due to inadequate doses of solar ultraviolet-B radiation, *Cancer* 94 (2002) 1867–1875.
- [13] W.B. Grant, Geographic variation of prostate cancer mortality rates in the United States: implications for prostate cancer risk related to vitamin D, *Int. J. Cancer* 111 (2004) 470–471.
- [14] C.L. Hanchette, G.G. Schwartz, Geographic patterns of prostate cancer mortality. Evidence for a protective effect of ultraviolet radiation, *Cancer* 70 (1992) 2861–2869.
- [15] E.M. John, G.G. Schwartz, D.M. Dreon, J. Koo, Vitamin D and breast cancer risk: the NHANES I epidemiologic follow-up study, 1971–1975 to 1992. National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, *Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.* 8 (1999) 399–406.
- [16] P. Tuohimaa, L. Tenkanen, M. Ahonen, S. Lumme, E. Jellum, G. Hallmans, P. Stattin, S. Harvei, T. Hakulinen, T. Luostarinen, J. Dillner, M. Lehtinen, M. Hakama, Both high and low levels of blood vitamin D are associated with a higher prostate cancer risk: a longitudinal, nested case-control study in the Nordic countries, *Int. J. Cancer* 108 (2004) 104–108.
- [17] M.F. Holick, Vitamin D: photobiology, metabolism and clinical application, in: I.M. Arias, J.L. Boyer, N. Fausto, W.B. Jakoby, D. Schachter, D.A. Shafritz (Eds.), *The Liver: Biology and Photobiology*, Raven Press, New York, 1994, pp. 543–562.
- [18] J. Moan, A. Dahlback, T. Henriksen, K. Magnus, Biological amplification factor for sunlight-induced nonmelanoma skin cancer at high latitudes, *Cancer Res.* 49 (1989) 5207–5212.
- [19] J. Moan, A. Dahlback, The relationship between skin cancers, solar radiation and ozone depletion, *Brit. J. Cancer* 65 (1992) 916–921.
- [20] J. Moan, A. Dahlback, Ultraviolet radiation and skin cancer: epidemiologic data from Scandinavia, in: L.O. Bjørn, J. Moan, W. Nultsch, A.R. Young (Eds.), *Environmental UV Photobiology*, Plenum Press, New York, 1993, pp. 192–255.
- [21] F.R. de Grujil, Photocarcinogenesis: UVA vs. UVB radiation, *Skin Pharmacol. Appl. Skin Physiol.* 15 (2002) 316–320.
- [22] H. Lal, Vitamin D: non-skeletal actions and effects on growth, *Nutr. Res.* 19 (1999) 1683–1718.
- [23] J. Moan, A. Dahlback, R.B. Setlow, Epidemiological support for a hypothesis for melanoma induction, *Photochem. Photobiol.* 70 (1999) 243–247.
- [24] C.S. Sander, H. Chang, F. Hamm, P. Elsner, J.J. Thiele, Role of oxidative stress and the antioxidant network in cutaneous carcinogenesis, *Int. J. Dermatol.* 43 (2004) 326–335.
- [25] M. Brustad, E. Alsaker, O. Engelsen, L. Aksnes, E. Lund, Vitamin D status of middle-aged women at 65–71 degrees N in relation to dietary intake and exposure to ultraviolet radiation, *Public Health Nutr.* 7 (2004) 327–335.
- [26] T. Vik, K. Try, J.H. Stromme, The vitamin D status of man at 70 degrees north, *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest.* 40 (1980) 227–232.
- [27] J.A. MacLaughlin, R.R. Anderson, M.F. Holick, Spectral character of sunlight modulates photosynthesis of previtamin D<sub>3</sub> and its photoisomers in human skin, *Science* 216 (1982) 1001–1003.
- [28] C. Brot, P. Vestergaard, N. Kolthoff, J. Gram, A.P. Hermann, O.H. Sorensen, Vitamin D status and its adequacy in healthy Danish perimenopausal women: relationships to dietary intake, sun exposure and serum parathyroid hormone, *Brit. J. Nutr.* 86 (Suppl 1) (2001) S97–S103.
- [29] B. Lund, O.H. Sorensen, Measurement of 25-hydroxyvitamin D in serum and its relation to sunshine, age and vitamin D intake in the Danish population, *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest.* 39 (1979) 23–30.
- [30] A.F. McKinlay, B.L. Diffey, A reference action spectrum for ultraviolet-induced erythema in human skin, in: D.L. Paschier, B.F. Bosnjakovic (Eds.), *Human Exposure to Ultraviolet Radiation: Risks and Regulations*, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1987, pp. 83–87.
- [31] M.J. McKenna, Differences in vitamin D status between countries in young adults and the elderly, *Am. J. Med.* 93 (1992) 69–77.
- [32] M.O. Jensen, E. Glattre, B. Malker, E. Pukkala, H. Tulinus, *Atlas of Cancer Incidence in the Nordic Countries*, Nordic Cancer Union, 2004.
- [33] L.R. Ferguson, M. Philpott, N. Karunasinghe, Dietary cancer and prevention using antimutagens, *Toxicology* 198 (2004) 147–159.
- [34] J.A. Satia, M.K. Campbell, J.A. Galanko, A. James, C. Carr, R.S. Sandler, Longitudinal changes in lifestyle behaviors and health status in colon cancer survivors, *Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.* 13 (2004) 1022–1031.
- [35] E.K. Wei, E. Giovannucci, K. Wu, B. Rosner, C.S. Fuchs, W.C. Willett, G.A. Colditz, Comparison of risk factors for colon and rectal cancer, *Int. J. Cancer* 108 (2004) 433–442.
- [36] Y.I. Cho, T.P. Johnson, M. Fendrich, Monthly variations in self-reports of alcohol consumption, *J. Stud. Alcohol* 62 (2001) 268–272.
- [37] D.G. Uitenbroek, Seasonal variation in alcohol use, *J. Stud. Alcohol* 57 (1996) 47–52.
- [38] I.M. Lee, Physical activity and cancer prevention – data from epidemiologic studies, *Med. Sci. Sports Exer.* 35 (2003) 1823–1827.
- [39] J. Quadrilatero, L. Hoffman-Goetz, Physical activity and colon cancer. A systematic review of potential mechanisms, *J. Sports Med. Phys. Fit.* 43 (2003) 121–138.
- [40] M.L. Slattery, S. Edwards, K. Curtin, K. Ma, R. Edwards, R. Holubkov, D. Schaffer, Physical activity and colorectal cancer, *Am. J. Epidemiol.* 158 (2003) 214–224.
- [41] D. Zehnder, R. Bland, M.C. Williams, R.W. McNinch, A.J. Howie, P.M. Stewart, M. Hewison, Extrarenal expression of 25-hydroxyvitamin d(3)-1 alpha-hydroxylase, *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* 86 (2001) 888–894.
- [42] Y.R. Lou, I. Laaksi, H. Syvala, M. Blauer, T.L. Tammela, T. Ylikomi, P. Tuohimaa, 25-hydroxyvitamin D<sub>3</sub> is an active hormone in human primary prostatic stromal cells, *FASEB J.* 18 (2004) 332–334.
- [43] A. Zittermann, Vitamin D in preventive medicine: are we ignoring the evidence?, *Brit. J. Nutr.* 89 (2003) 552–572.
- [44] T.M. Beer, A. Myrthue, Calcitriol in cancer treatment: from the lab to the clinic, *Mol. Cancer Ther.* 3 (2004) 373–381.
- [45] L.V. Stewart, N.L. Weigel, Vitamin D and prostate cancer, *Exp. Biol. Med.* (Maywood) 229 (2004) 277–284.
- [46] D.L. Trump, P.A. Hershberger, R.J. Bernardi, S. Ahmed, J. Muindi, M. Fakih, W.D. Yu, C.S. Johnson, Anti-tumor activity of calcitriol: pre-clinical and clinical studies, *J. Steroid Biochem. Mol. Biol.* 89–90 (2004) 519–526.