

1 **Circulating vitamin D level and mortality in prostate cancer**
2 **patients: a dose-response meta-analysis**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Previous studies investigating the association of circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D level with
24 prognosis of prostate cancer yielded controversial results. We conducted a dose-response
25 meta-analysis to elucidate the relationship. PubMed and Embase were searched for eligible
26 studies up to July 15, 2018. We performed a dose-response meta-analysis using random-effect
27 model to calculate the summary hazard ratio (HR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) of
28 mortality in patients with prostate cancer. Seven eligible cohort studies with 7,808 participants
29 were included. The results indicated that higher vitamin D level could reduce the risk of death
30 among prostate cancer patients. The summary HR of prostate cancer-specific mortality
31 correlated with an increment of every 20 nmol/L in circulating vitamin D level was 0.91, with
32 95% CI 0.87-0.97, P=0.002. The HR for all-cause mortality with the increase of 20 nmol/L
33 vitamin D was 0.91 (95% CI: 0.84-0.98, P=0.01). Sensitivity analysis suggested the pooled
34 HRs were stable and not obviously changed by any single study. No evidence of publications
35 bias was observed. This meta-analysis suggested that higher 25-hydroxyvitamin D level was
36 associated with a reduction of mortality in prostate cancer patients and vitamin D is an
37 important protective factor in the progression and prognosis of prostate cancer.

38

39 **Keywords:** Vitamin D; Mortality; Prostate cancer; Meta-analysis

40 **Introduction**

41 Prostate cancer (PCa) is one of the most common malignant tumors in male. In 2017,
42 American Cancer Society reported 161,360 cases of newly diagnosed PCa, accounting for 20%
43 of male tumors. Furthermore, its incidence and mortality ranked the first place and third
44 respectively [1]. The mortality of PCa was proposed to be associated with obesity, physical

45 activity, smoking, antioxidants, etc. [2]. At present, the treatment of PCa have caused serious
46 economic burden [3]. More useful treatment measures are urgently needed by people to
47 improve the survival rate of prostate cancer patients.

48 The major circulating form of vitamin D in human body is 25-hydroxyvitamin D
49 (25(OH)D), which comes from vitamin D via 25-hydroxylation process in the liver. 25(OH)D
50 can be converted into 1,25(OH)₂D by 1 α -hydroxylase, which is the most active hormonal
51 metabolite of vitamin D. As a hormone, 1,25(OH)₂D binds to vitamin D receptor located in
52 nucleus and functions. It's reported to play an important role in cellular proliferation [4],
53 differentiation, apoptosis [5], angiogenesis [6] and metastasis [7]. All these processes may
54 regulate the development and progression of cancer.

55 A number of researches have been done to clarify the association between vitamin D and
56 PCa. Some experimental studies indicated that vitamin D might play a crucial role in the
57 occurrence and progression of PCa. One study demonstrated mutations of vitamin D receptor
58 gene were associated with Gleason score [8]. Furthermore, study showed that genetic variants
59 in the vitamin D pathway had effects on the risk of progression, prostate cancer-specific
60 mortality and recurrence of PCa [9]. Recent studies have reported controversial results about
61 the association of vitamin D with the survival rate of prostate cancer. For example, in newly
62 diagnosed stage IV prostate cancer patients, no significant association of 25-hydroxyvitamin
63 D with the prognosis of them was found [10]. In contrast, other studies reported that higher
64 25-hydroxyvitamin D was related to improved prostate cancer prognosis [11, 12].

65 Therefore, it's still unclear the relationship between 25-hydroxyvitamin D level and
66 mortality of PCa. Hence, we conducted this analysis to explore whether circulating

67 25-hydroxyvitamin D level was correlated with the survival of PCa through a dose-response
68 meta-analysis.

69 **Materials and Methods**

70 **Search strategy**

71 We searched PubMed and Embase databases from inception to July 15, 2018 for eligible
72 studies on the relationship between vitamin D and mortality in prostate cancer patients. The
73 terms used to retrieve literatures were the following: (vitamin D OR 25-hydroxyvitamin D
74 OR 25(OH)D) and (prostate cancer OR prostate carcinoma). We also referred to the reference
75 lists from reviews or relevant papers to get more eligible researches. There was no language
76 restriction.

77 **Selection criteria**

78 Reports were included in this dose–response meta-analysis if they met the criteria as
79 follows: (1) the association between vitamin D and mortality in prostate cancer patients was
80 reported; (2) the study type was cohort; (3) The risk estimates of mortality in prostate cancer
81 patients, like hazard ratio (HR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) were reported. If the same
82 data were used in several studies, we selected the publication with the largest number of cases
83 or more details.

84 **Data extraction**

85 Data were extracted from eligible studies by two researchers independently. The
86 information collected from each study contained of the first author’s last name, publication
87 year, country, follow-up time, number of cases and person-year, risk estimates with
88 corresponding 95% confidence intervals and confounding factors adjusted in multivariable

89 analysis. We extracted the risk estimates from the most completed adjusted model to decrease
90 the risk of possible confounding. Disagreements were resolved by consensus among authors.

91 **Quality assessment**

92 We evaluated the quality of studies by use of the Newcastle Ottawa Scale (NOS) [13].
93 According to its criteria, studies were assessed on basis of three perspectives: selection,
94 comparability and outcomes. If studies got 7 or more stars, they were regarded as high quality.
95 Differences were resolved by discussion.

96 **Statistical analysis**

97 We performed data analyses separately for two outcomes, namely all-cause mortality and
98 prostate cancer-specific mortality. Pooled hazard ratios (HRs) were calculated to assess the
99 impact of vitamin D level on the prognosis of patients. The method proposed by Greenland
100 and Longnecker [14] and Orsini [15] was used to estimate the HR per 20 nmol/L increase of
101 vitamin D level. Statistical heterogeneity among studies was evaluated with the use of Q and
102 I^2 statistic [16, 17]. For the Q statistic, we regarded P value < 0.10 as statistically significant
103 heterogeneity among studies. As to the I^2 statistic, I^2 more than 50% also suggested obvious
104 heterogeneity. We utilized the random-effects model to combine HRs from single studies if
105 obvious heterogeneity was observed [18]. In the sensitivity analysis, studies were omitted one
106 by one and the others were analyzed to evaluate the effect of single study on the summary risk
107 estimates. Publication bias was assessed with the use of funnel plot and the Egger's test [19].
108 We utilized Stata (Version 12.0) to perform this dose-response analysis. P value < 0.05 was
109 reckoned as statistically significant difference.

110 **Results**

111 **Study selection and characteristics**

112 The selection process was showed in Figure 1. We retrieved 2,650 articles from PubMed
113 and Embase databases (Figure 1). A majority of them were excluded from our analysis
114 because they did not belong to cohort studies, or because outcomes were not associated with
115 our analysis, leaving 19 articles for detailed evaluation by reading full-texts [20-38]. 12
116 studies were then removed after reading their full-texts. Two studies were excluded because of
117 inadequate study design [22, 24]. Nine studies were excluded because they did not contain
118 prognosis data among prostate cancer patients [20, 21, 26, 27, 29, 33, 36, 38]. One study was
119 not qualified as a result of unusable data [37]. Finally, a total of 7 studies were included into
120 our meta-analysis. The 7 studies were published between 2009 and 2016 and the total number
121 of prostate cancer participants was 7,808. All of them were performed in developed countries,
122 written in English (Table 1). Among them, three studies were conducted in USA [30, 31, 35],
123 two in Norway [23, 32], one in Finland [28], one in Sweden [34]. All studies were prospective
124 cohort type, except one from Tretli S. It's also a cohort study but hard to define it belongs to
125 prospective or retrospective type. Meanwhile, the vitamin D assessments were performed
126 after diagnosis in three studies, while the others were before diagnosis of prostate cancer. All
127 studies reported adjusted HRs. Every research was adjusted for many confounding factors,
128 such as age, BMI, drinking history and so forth. Participants were followed up from 4 to 21
129 years. Five studies contained HRs of all-cause mortality among prostate cancer patients, and
130 six reported HRs of prostate cancer-specific mortality. The quality assessment of those studies
131 according to NOS criteria was also presented in the Table 1.

132 **25-hydroxyvitamin D and all-cause mortality**

133 We observed significant heterogeneity among 5 studies on all-cause mortality
134 ($I^2=68.9\%$). Figure 2-A displayed the results of the dose-response analyses on all-cause
135 mortality (Figure 2-A). A nonlinear relationship existed between 25-hydroxyvitamin D and
136 risk of all-cause mortality in prostate cancer patients, suggesting higher 25-hydroxyvitamin D
137 level was associated with decreased risk of death from all causes among prostate cancer
138 patients ($p=0.038$). The summary HR of all-cause mortality correlated with an increment of
139 every 20 nmol/L in circulating vitamin D level was 0.91 (95% CI: 0.84-0.98, $P=0.01$) (Figure
140 3-A). Sensitivity analysis suggested the pooled HRs were stable and not obviously changed
141 by any individual study (Figure 4-A).

142 **25-hydroxyvitamin D and prostate cancer-specific mortality**

143 There was obvious heterogeneity observed among those 6 studies on prostate
144 cancer-specific mortality ($I^2=53.4\%$). A nonlinear relationship between 25-hydroxyvitamin D
145 and risk of prostate cancer-specific mortality was also presented in Figure 2-B, indicating
146 higher vitamin D level could decrease the mortality from prostate cancer (Figure 2-B). The
147 summary HR of prostate cancer-specific mortality correlated with an increment of every 20
148 nmol/L in circulating vitamin D level were 0.91 (95% CI: 0.87-0.97, $P=0.002$) (Figure 3-B).
149 The sensitivity analysis showed the summary HRs were not markedly changed by any
150 individual study (Figure 4-B), indicating no significant influence of single study on the
151 results.

152 **Publication bias**

153 No risk of publication bias was observed in the funnel plots (Figure 5). The outcomes
154 from Egger's test also suggested that there were no publication bias for the analysis of

155 all-cause mortality ($P=0.143$) and prostate cancer-specific mortality ($P=0.301$).

156 **Subgroup analysis and meta-regression**

157 We conducted the subgroup analysis and meta-regression to detect the source of
158 heterogeneity, which was presented in Table 2. Stratifying by the time of vitamin D
159 assessment, the HR of prostate cancer-specific mortality was 0.91 (95% CI: 0.88-0.95) for
160 prediagnosis studies and 0.84 (95% CI: 0.58-1.21) for postdiagnosis ones. The HR of all-cause
161 mortality was 0.94(95% CI: 0.88-0.98) in prediagnosis subgroup. Restricting the analysis
162 among more than 10 years follow-up yielded a HR of 0.92 (95% CI: 0.89, 0.96) and 0.94 (95%
163 CI: 0.89-0.98) for prostate cancer-specific mortality and all-cause mortality respectively,
164 which was slightly higher than the overall results. Moreover, there was no evidence of
165 significant heterogeneity between subgroups with the use of meta-regression analyses.

166 **Discussion**

167 The role of circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D and survival outcomes among prostate
168 cancer patients remains unclear and controversial. This meta-analysis is the first one to focus
169 on the relationship between 25-hydroxyvitamin D and mortality in prostate cancer, involving
170 7,808 participants with survival outcomes. The results calculated from 7 eligible studies
171 indicated higher vitamin D level was significantly associated with decreased all-cause
172 mortality and prostate cancer-specific mortality. Further dose-response analysis showed that
173 every 20nmol/L increment in 25-hydroxyvitamin D level was associated with a 9% lower risk
174 of all-cause mortality and prostate cancer-specific mortality. By conducted the subgroup
175 analysis, we found the results were consistent in prediagnosis and more-than 10 years
176 follow-up subgroups. The assessment of vitamin D before diagnosis was more likely to get rid

177 of the influence of prostate cancer on the level of vitamin D and long follow-up time enabled
178 researchers to calculate the outcome events more precisely. Based on the above findings, we
179 conclude that higher circulating vitamin D level is associated with a lower risk of death from
180 prostate cancer.

181 Numerous experimental studies have been done to elucidate the mechanism by which
182 vitamin D affect the prostate cancer survival. According to previous studies, $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$
183 could cause cell cycle arrest and induce apoptosis, inhibiting cell proliferation in several
184 prostate cancer cell lines [39-41]. $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ played a protective role in preventing normal
185 human prostate epithelial cell lines from oxidative stress in since it increased both the
186 expression and activity of antioxidants, such as Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and
187 glutathione [42]. Ben-Shoshan and colleagues demonstrated that $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ inhibited
188 angiogenesis by reducing HIF-1 α expression in various human prostate cancer cell lines [43].
189 In terms of animal model evidence, Ray and colleagues indicated that a diet deficient in
190 vitamin D rather than vitamin D-sufficient diet accelerated growth of human prostate cancers
191 insensitive to androgen therapy in athymic mice [44]. Another study reported that a higher
192 vitamin D₃-supplemented diet led to significant tumor shrinkage in mice bearing PC-3
193 prostate cancer xenografts [45]. Moreover, vitamin D could prevent the metastasis of prostate
194 cancer according to several animal and cell experiments [46, 47]. Therefore, there is some
195 evidence supporting the protective effect of vitamin D in prostate cancer. However, the
196 underlying molecular mechanisms are still not fully clarified, and more studies are needed to
197 explore them.

198 Some studies reported that 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration was correlated with

199 prostate cancer pathology. Researchers found lower 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations
200 were positively correlated with higher Gleason grade and tumor stage [48, 49]. The findings
201 above provide some explanations for the prognostic role of 25-hydroxyvitamin D in prostate
202 cancer.

203 Previous studies reported conflicting results about the vitamin D and prostate cancer
204 incidence. One meta-analysis showed positive association between high level of vitamin D
205 and increased incidence of prostate cancer [50]. Some studies also suggested that high
206 incidence of aggressive prostate cancer in African Americans might be partly due to deficient
207 concentrations of serum vitamin D [51, 52]. In the contrast, one Mendelian randomization
208 study showed null relationship between vitamin D and risk of prostate cancer [53]. Other
209 studies also failed to find a positive relationship between vitamin D and prostate cancer risk
210 [48, 54]. The conflicting findings in the relationship between vitamin D and prostate cancer
211 risk may result from the some factors, such as different populations, various study design, and
212 different confounding factors. The findings in our study suggest that vitamin D is more likely
213 to be a suppressive and protective factor during the development of prostate cancer. Therefore,
214 there is still controversy on the role of vitamin D in prostate cancer, which need to be
215 elucidated in future researches.

216 There is also some evidence from clinical trials on the roles of vitamin D in prostate
217 cancer. In a clinical trial, low-grade prostate cancer patients took 4000 IU of vitamin D3 every
218 day for a whole year and had a biopsy after the supplementation [55]. Results of biopsy
219 revealed a decreased number of positive cores and no increase in Gleason Score [55]. Several
220 randomized clinical trials showed that oral vitamin D3 modestly decreased the level of PSA

221 [56], and reduced the PSA rise rate [57, 58]. However, a vitamin D supplementation trial
222 showed no influence on free or total PSA level in African American population [59]. At
223 present, the evidence from clinical trials on the roles of vitamin D in prostate cancer is still
224 limited, and more clinical trials are needed.

225 There are potential limitations existing in our study which should be considered. For one
226 thing, although all studies adjusted for confounding factors, some potential confounding
227 factors related to vitamin D remained residual. For another, some studies included in our
228 meta-analysis tested the circulating vitamin D level post-diagnosis or post-treatment, thus it's
229 difficult to get rid of the possibility of reverse causality. What's more, the limited number of
230 included studies restricted us to find the source of heterogeneity.

231 Based on the results mentioned above, we can draw the conclusion that higher vitamin D
232 level is significantly associated with a risk reduction of all-cause mortality and prostate
233 cancer-specific mortality, indicating vitamin D may exert a protective effect in the progression
234 and prognosis of prostate cancer. More cohort studies and randomized clinical trial are needed
235 to further illustrate the role of vitamin D in the pathogenesis and prognosis of prostate cancer.

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241 Author contributions

242 Zhen-yu Song designed the study. Qiuming Yao, Zhi-yuan Zhuo and Zhe Ma extracted the

243 data. Zhen-yu Song and Qiuming Yao performed the analyses. Zhen-yu Song wrote the draft.

244 Gang Chen revised it critically.

245

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249 Conflict of interests

250 The authors declare no conflicts of interests. They are all responsible for the content of the

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Figure 1 Flowchart of study selection in the meta-analysis

Figure 2-A Risk estimates with 95% CI for the association between 25(OH)D and all-cause mortality

Figure 2-B Risk estimates with 95% CI for the association between 25(OH)D and prostate cancer-specific mortality

Figure 2 Dose-response relationships between 25(OH)D and risk estimates of all-cause mortality and prostate cancer-specific mortality

Figure 3-A Funnel plot of risk estimates of all-cause mortality of prostate cancer with the increment of 20 nmol/L in 25(OH)D level

Figure 3-B Funnel plot of risk estimates of prostate cancer-specific mortality with the increment of 20 nmol/L in 25(OH)D level

Figure 3 Summary risk estimates of mortality in prostate cancer patients associated with 20 nmol/L increment in 25(OH)D level

Figure 4-A Sensitivity analysis of the association between 25(OH)D and all-cause mortality of prostate cancer

Figure 4-B Sensitivity analysis of the association between 25(OH)D and prostate cancer-specific mortality

Figure 4 Sensitivity analysis by excluding studies by turns suggested that the pooled HRs were not significantly changed by any individual study

Figure 5-A Publication bias of the association between 25(OH)D and all-cause mortality of prostate cancer

Figure 5-B Publication bias of the association between 25(OH)D and prostate cancer-specific mortality

Figure 5 Publication bias

Table 1 The main characteristics of the included studies in the meta-analysis

| Study | Country | Study design | Time of vitamin D assessment | Participants | Follow-up | Outcomes | Age at diagnosis (years) | Adjustments | Quality |
|-------------------|---------|--------------------|------------------------------|--------------|------------|-----------|--------------------------|--|---------|
| Tretli S 2009 | Norway | Cohort | postdiagnosis | 160 | 44 months | ACM; PCSM | 64.5 | patient group and age, tumor differentiation grade and the patient functional status at the time of blood collection | 7 |
| Fang F 2011 | USA | Prospective cohort | prediagnosis | 1822 | 10 years | ACM; PCSM | 68.9 | age at diagnosis, body mass index, physical activity, and smoking, Gleason score, and TNM stage | 9 |
| Holt SK 2013 | USA | Prospective cohort | postdiagnosis | 1476 | 10.8 years | PCSM | 60 | season of blood draw, age and race, BMI, smoking status, and weekly exercise stage, Gleason score and primary treatment | 9 |
| Gupta D 2015 | USA | Prospective cohort | postdiagnosis | 125 | 31 months | ACM; PCSM | 60 | age, ECOG performance status, body mass index(BMI), prostate specific antigen (PSA), season of blood draw, CTCA hospital, serum albumin, corrected serum calcium, bone metastasis and nutritional status | 7 |
| Mondul AM 2016 | Finland | Prospective cohort | prediagnosis | 1000 | 23 years | PCSM | 69.2 | age, physical activity, cigarettes per day, and family history of prostate cancer | 9 |
| Meyer HE 2016 | Norway | Prospective cohort | prediagnosis | 2282 | 21.2 years | ACM | NA | age, month of blood sampling and examination physical activity, BMI, smoking and education | 9 |
| Brandstedt J 2016 | Sweden | Prospective cohort | prediagnosis | 943 | 16.6 years | ACM; PCSM | 69.3 | season and year of inclusion, age at baseline, age at diagnosis, body mass index (BMI), and tumor characteristics (TNM and Gleason score) | 9 |

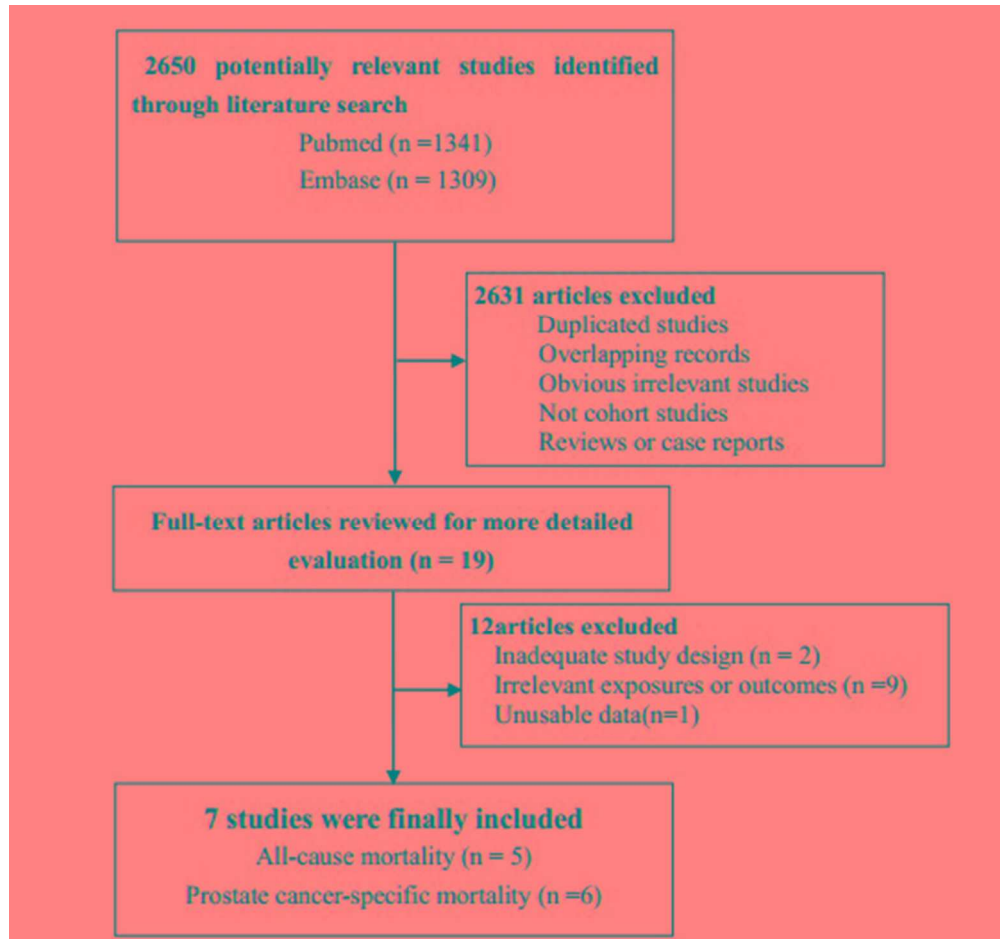
Abbreviation: (ACM, all-cause mortality; PCSM, prostate cancer-specific mortality; BMI, body mass index; PSA, prostate specific antigen; ECOG, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group; CTCA, Cancer Treatment Centers of America; NA, not available)

Table 2. Summary risk estimates of the associations between vitamin D level and prostate cancer mortality

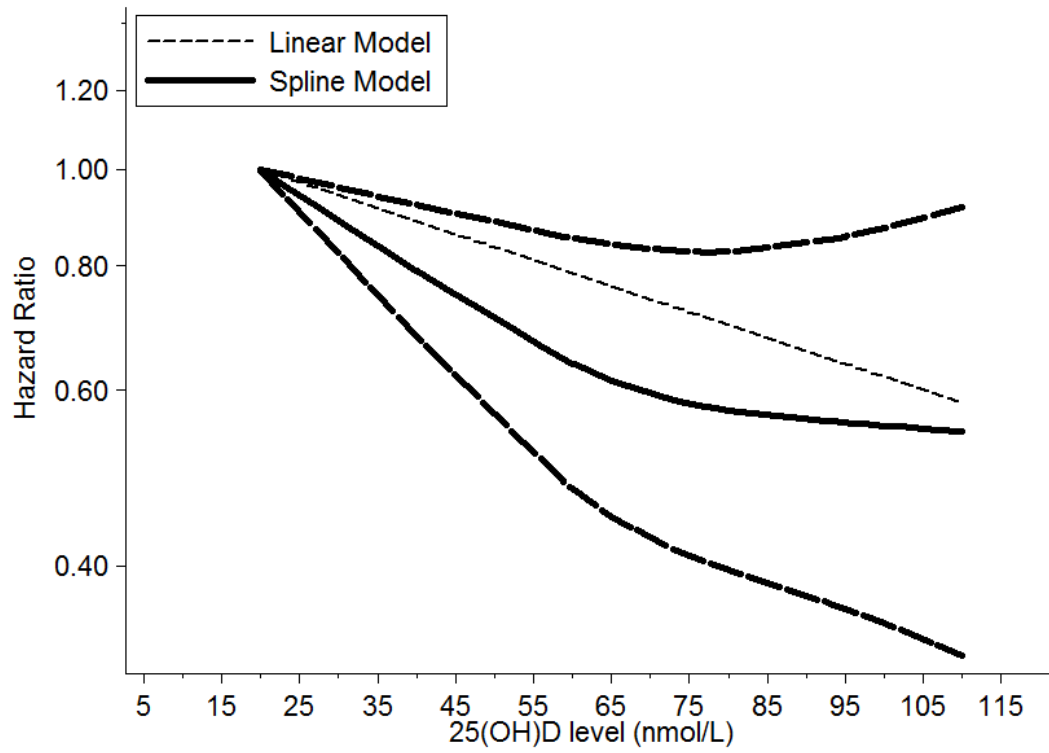
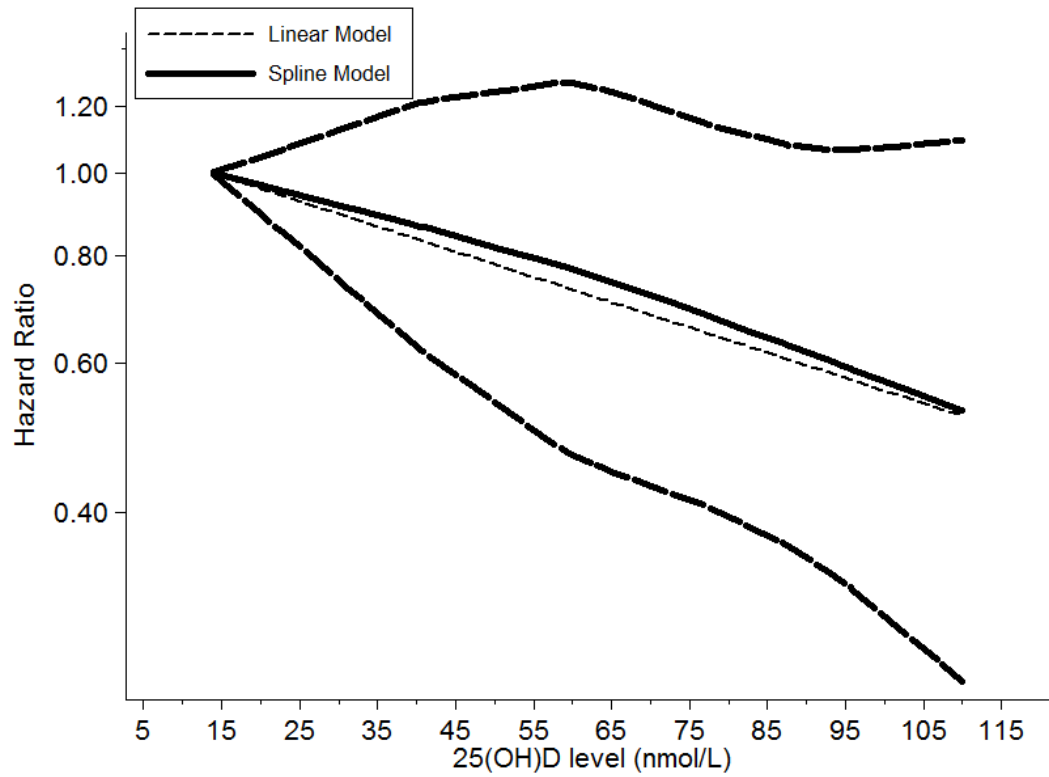
| Study characteristics | No. of studies | HR | 95% CI | I^2 (%) | p-Value 1 | p-Value 2 |
|------------------------------|----------------|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Studies of PCM | 6 | 0.91 | 0.87-0.97 | 53.4 | 0.057 | |
| Country | | | | | | 0.294 |
| Europe | 4 | 0.88 | 0.81-0.95 | 57.9 | 0.068 | |
| USA | 2 | 0.96 | 0.90-1.03 | 0 | 0.389 | |
| Time of vitamin D assessment | | | | | | 0.36 |
| postdiagnosis | 2 | 0.84 | 0.58-1.21 | 89.1 | 0.002 | |
| prediagnosis | 4 | 0.91 | 0.88-0.95 | 0 | 0.675 | |
| Follow-up | | | | | | 0.055 |
| Less than 10 years | 1 | | | | | |
| More than 10 years | 5 | 0.92 | 0.89-0.96 | 0 | 0.479 | |
| Studies of ACM | 5 | 0.91 | 0.84-0.98 | 68.9 | 0.012 | |
| Country | | | | | | 0.295 |
| Europe | 3 | 0.87 | 0.79 | 68.5 | 0.042 | |
| USA | 2 | 0.98 | 0.93-1.03 | 0 | 0.576 | |
| Time of vitamin D assessment | | | | | | 0.246 |
| postdiagnosis | 2 | 0.83 | 0.66-1.04 | 71.5 | 0.061 | |
| prediagnosis | 3 | 0.94 | 0.89-0.98 | 53.9 | 0.114 | |
| Follow-up | | | | | | 0.246 |
| Less than 10 years | 2 | 0.83 | 0.66-1.04 | 71.5 | 0.061 | |
| More than 10 years | 3 | 0.94 | 0.89-0.98 | 53.9 | 0.114 | |

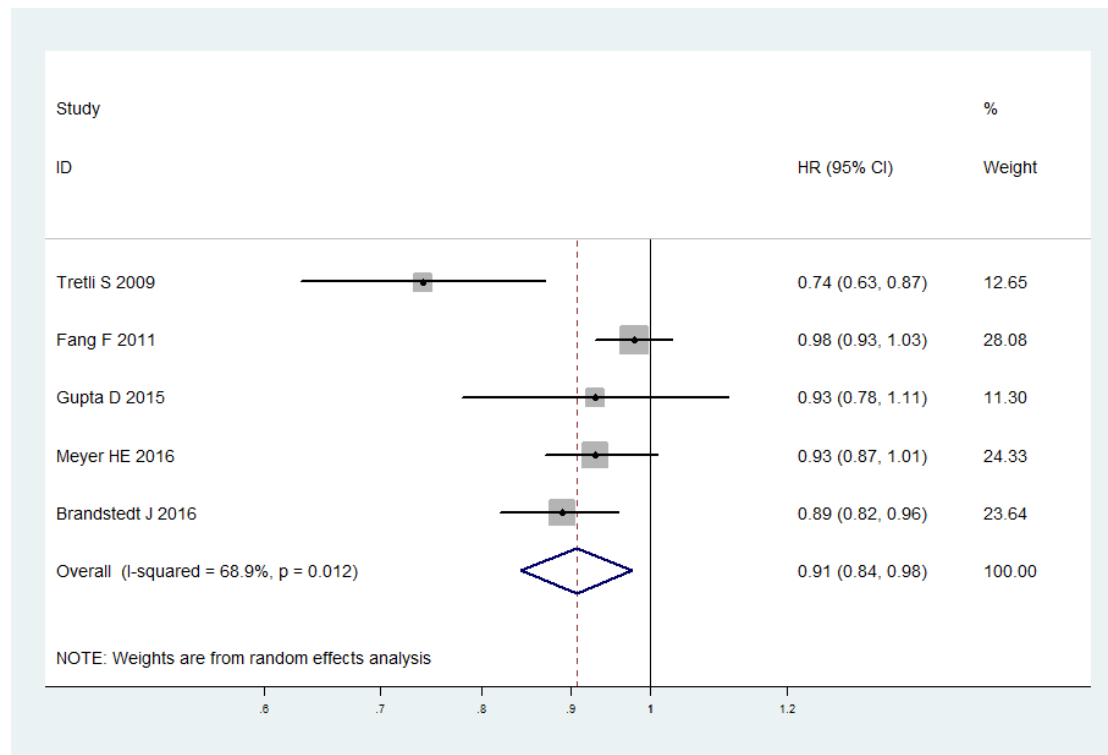
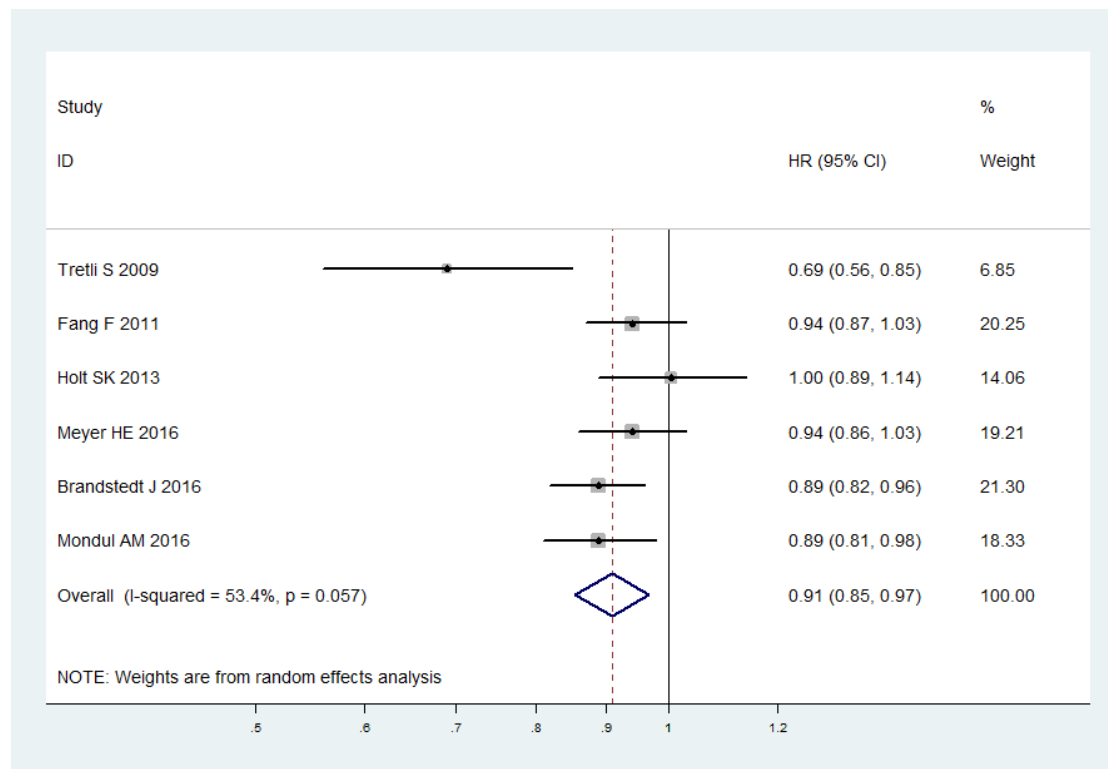
p-Value 1 for heterogeneity within each subgroup. p-Value 2 for heterogeneity between subgroups with meta-regression analysis.

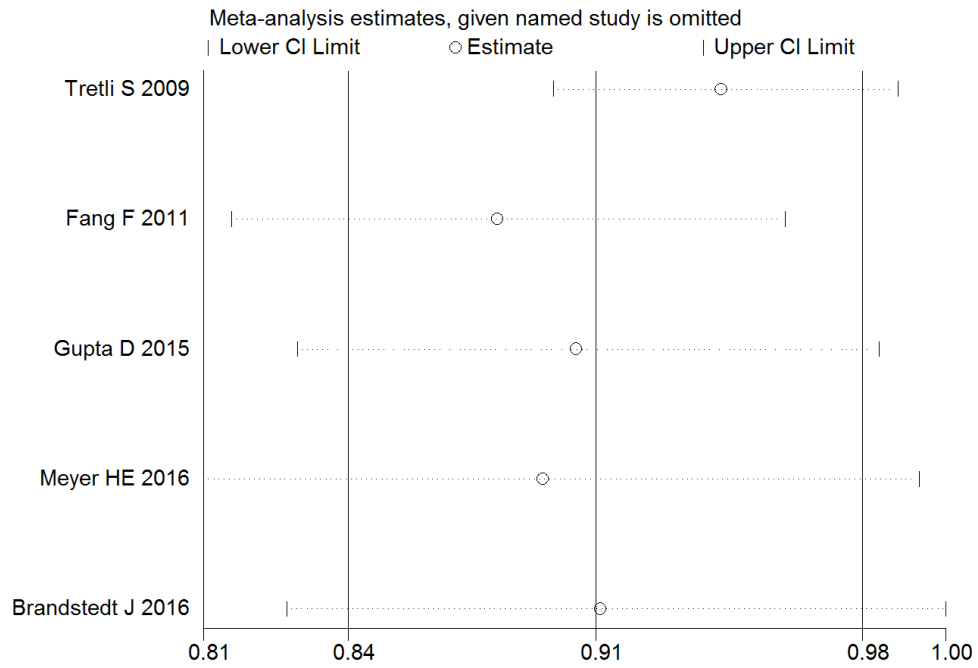
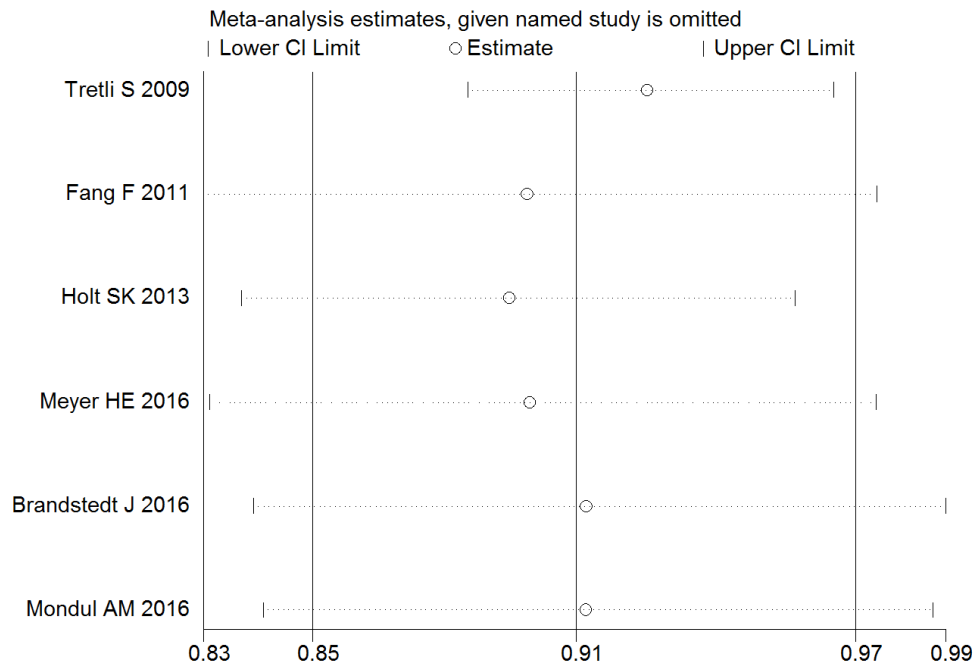
Abbreviation: (ACM, all-cause mortality; PCSI, prostate cancer-specific mortality; HR, summary hazard ratio; CI, confidence interval)



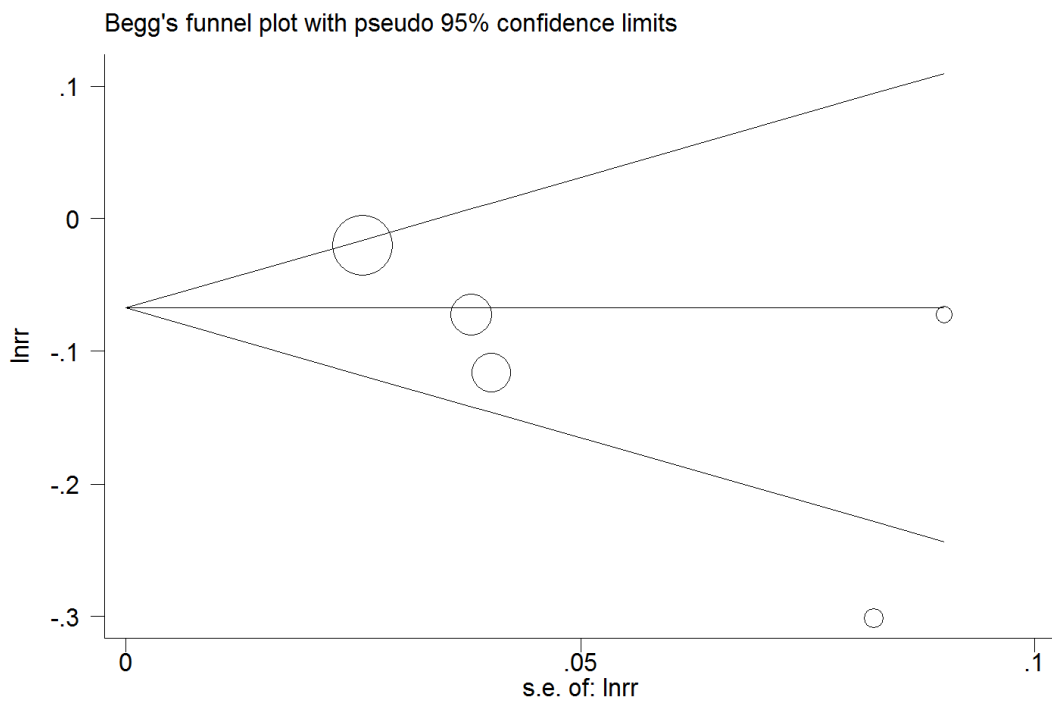
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A



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