



Published in final edited form as:

J Bone Miner Res. 2020 May ; 35(5): 883–893. doi:10.1002/jbmr.3958.

Effects of Supplemental Vitamin D on Bone Health Outcomes in Women and Men in the VITamin D and OmegA-3 Trial (VITAL)

Meryl S. LeBoff, M.D.^{a,b}, Sharon H. Chou, M.D.^a, Elle M. Murata, B.A.^a, Catherine M. Donlon, B.S.^a, Nancy R. Cook, Sc.D.^{b,c,d}, Samia Mora, M.D.^{b,c,e}, I-Min Lee, Sc.D.^{c,d}, Gregory Kotler, Ph.D.^c, Vadim Bubes, Ph.D.^c, Julie E. Buring, Sc.D.^{b,c,d}, JoAnn E. Manson, M.D., Dr.P.H.^{b,c,d}

^aDivision of Endocrinology, Diabetes and Hypertension, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital Boston, MA 02115, United States

^bHarvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, United States

^cDivision of Preventive Medicine, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02215, United States

^dDepartment of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA 02115, United States

^eDivision of Cardiovascular Medicine, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, United States

Abstract

Although supplemental vitamin D is used to promote bone health in the general population, data from randomized controlled trials (RCTs) have been inconsistent. We determined whether daily, vitamin D₃ supplementation improves bone mineral density (BMD) and/or structure. VITamin D and OmegA-3 Trial (VITAL) is a double-blind, placebo-controlled RCT of supplemental vitamin D₃ (2,000 IU/day) and/or omega-3 fatty acids (1 g/day) in 25,871 adults nationwide. This ancillary study included a subcohort of 771 participants (men 50 and women 55 years; not taking bone active medications) evaluated at baseline and 2-years follow-up (89% retention). Total 25(OH)D levels were measured by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (Quest Diagnostics, CA). Free 25(OH)D (FVD) levels were measured using the ELISA assay by Future Diagnostics Solutions B.V. (Wijchen Netherlands). Primary endpoints were 2-year changes in areal (a)BMD at the spine, hip, and whole body determined by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Secondary endpoints were 2-year changes in volumetric (v)BMD and cortical thickness at the radius and tibia assessed by peripheral quantitative computed tomography. Supplemental vitamin D₃ vs. placebo had no effect on 2-year changes in aBMD at the spine (0.33% vs. 0.17%; p=0.55), femoral neck (−0.27% vs. −0.68%; p=0.16), total hip (−0.76% vs. −0.95%; p=0.23), or whole body (−0.22% vs. −0.15%; p=0.60), or on measures of bone structure. Effects did not vary by sex, race/ethnicity, BMI, or 25(OH)D levels. Among participants with baseline FVD levels below the median (<14.2

Corresponding author and person to who reprint requests should be addressed Meryl S. LeBoff, MD, Chief of the Calcium and Bone Section, Professor of Medicine, Harvard Medical School, Division of Endocrinology, Diabetes and Hypertension, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, 221 Longwood Avenue, Boston, MA 02115, Phone: (617) 732-6155, Fax: (617) 264-5220, mleboff@bwh.harvard.edu.

Clinical Trial Registration Number: NCT01747447, NCT01704859

pmol/L), there was a slight increase in spine aBMD (0.75% vs. 0%; $p=0.043$) and attenuation in loss of total hip aBMD (-0.42% vs. -0.98% ; $p=0.044$) with vitamin D₃. Whether baseline FVD levels help to identify those more likely to benefit from supplementation warrants further study. Supplemental vitamin D₃ vs. placebo for two years in general healthy adults not selected for vitamin D insufficiency did not improve BMD or structure.

Keywords

DXA; Bone QCT; PTH/VitD/ FGF23; General population studies; Osteoporosis

Introduction

Osteoporosis is a major health problem and primary prevention strategies are needed. Vitamin D supplements are widely recommended and prescribed in the general population to promote bone health. In the past decade, vitamin D supplement use has increased four-fold.⁽¹⁾ Mechanisms by which vitamin D may support skeletal health include improved mineralization of bone through increased intestinal calcium absorption, prevention of secondary hyperparathyroidism, and direct effects on osteoblast formation.^(2–6) Observational studies have indicated that high 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25-(OH)D] levels are positively associated with areal bone mineral density (aBMD).^(7–10) Data from large meta-analyses and systematic reviews that support use of supplemental vitamin D alone (without calcium) to benefit bone are lacking.^(11–15) The few randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of vitamin D alone vs. placebo have not shown significant changes in aBMD at the spine, but showed small benefits at the femoral neck and/or a level of total 25(OH) D below which supplemental vitamin D increased spine and hip aBMD.^(16–18) While RCTs provide the highest quality data, most previous RCTs of vitamin D vs. placebo on aBMD were limited by design, including bolus dosing,^(17,19,20) short duration,^(21,22) small sample sizes,^(21,22) participants selected for vitamin D insufficiency,⁽²⁰⁾ and/or inability to separate effects of supplemental vitamin D from calcium.^(23–25)

Bone strength depends on bone density and quality. Components of bone quality include cortical and trabecular structure, which can be assessed using peripheral quantitative computed tomography (pQCT). Some but not other studies suggest an association of 25(OH)D levels with improved bone structure, though there are no large, long-term RCTs of supplemental vitamin D vs. placebo on bone structure.^(26,27) A recent study from Canada raised concerns that high doses (4,000 IU/day or 10,000 IU/day) vs. a low dose of vitamin D (400 IU/day) resulted in loss of volumetric bone density at the radius and tibia.⁽²⁸⁾

Recent estimates of vitamin D status among U.S. middle-age to older adults show that approximately 20% have 25(OH)D levels <50 nmol/L.⁽²⁹⁾ Higher proportions of vitamin D insufficiency or deficiency have been reported among black adults (reduced cutaneous vitamin D synthesis),⁽³⁰⁾ obese individuals (vitamin D sequestration in fat tissue),⁽³¹⁾ and older adults.⁽³²⁾

While serum 25(OH)D levels have been considered the clinical biomarker for vitamin D status, vitamin D circulates primarily bound to vitamin D binding protein. It is the free

25(OH) vitamin D (FVD) that may exert biological effects on bone.^(33–37) At present, there is no consensus on the optimal circulating total 25(OH)D or FVD level for bone, and it is unclear whether FVD may better predict effects of supplemental vitamin D on BMD and structure. The ancillary study, *VITamin D and Omega-3 Trial (VITAL): Effects on Bone Structure and Architecture*, addresses these knowledge gaps, evaluating whether vitamin D₃ supplementation (2,000 IU/day), compared with placebo in the generally healthy population not selected for vitamin D insufficiency, produces small increases or reduces bone loss in spine, hip, and whole body aBMD or improves volumetric (v)BMD and bone strength measures at the radius and tibia. We also examined whether intervention effects were modified by baseline levels of total 25(OH)D and FVD.

Materials and Methods

Trial Design and Oversight

VITAL is a randomized, placebo-controlled trial with a two-by-two factorial design investigating effects of vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol 2,000 IU/day) and/or omega-3 fatty acids (1 g/day) supplements in the primary prevention of cancer and cardiovascular disease. Calendar packs with trial capsules were mailed to the participants. This study included men 50 and women 55 years from 50 U.S. states and had a median follow-up of 5.3 years. To ensure compliance, participants completed a 3-month placebo run-in phase and personal use of vitamin D₃ was limited to 800 IU/day (U.S. Recommended Dietary Allowance for older adults).⁽³⁸⁾ More comprehensive protocol details have been reported.^(39,40)

The VITAL study was a hybrid design with the overall cohort of 25,871 participants and a subcohort of 1,054 participants who lived within driving distance of the Harvard Clinical and Translational Science Center (CTSC) in Boston. Participants were eligible for this ancillary study if they were not on bisphosphonates within the past 2 years or other bone active agents (Appendix) within the past year. Of the CTSC participants, 771 completed assessments for bone and body composition at baseline, exceeding the enrollment goal of 600.^(41,42) Participants received annual questionnaires evaluating risk factors for bone loss and fragility fractures, falls, medication/supplement use, and physical activity. Fasting blood samples were collected at baseline and year 2, matched by season, and levels of calcium, albumin, total 25(OH)D, and plasma phospholipid omega-3 fatty acids were assayed by Quest Diagnostics (San Juan Capistrano, CA). Total 25(OH)D, including both 25(OH)D₂ and 25(OH)D₃, and plasma phospholipid omega-3 fatty acids levels were measured by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry. Total 25(OH)D was calibrated to Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) standards. FVD levels, including both 25(OH)D₂ and 25(OH)D₃, were measured using the new ELISA assay by Future Diagnostics Solutions B.V. (Wijchen Netherlands). See Appendix for serum measurement methods. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Partners HealthCare–Brigham and Women’s Hospital (BWH).

Ancillary Study End Points

In 771 participants at baseline and 687 at 2-year follow-up (89% retention), aBMD was assessed by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA; Discovery W, APEX Software

Version 4.2, Hologic, Bedford, MA). If participants were found to have osteoporosis on DXA scans, they were sent letters indicating they had osteoporosis and recommending follow-up with their health care providers. Participants who started treatment with bone active agents were not eligible to complete the 2-year DXA scan and were excluded from 2-year analyses. Primary end points were 2-year changes in aBMD at the lumbar spine (L1-L4), non-dominant hip (total, femoral neck), and whole body. Least significant change at BWH is 0.024 g/cm² at the spine, 0.021 g/cm² at the femoral neck, 0.017 g/cm² at the total hip, and 0.008 g/cm² for males and 0.010 g/cm² for females at the whole body. Guidelines from Hologic and the International Society for Clinical Densitometry were followed for all DXA scans. Detailed descriptions of the DXA protocol and reproducibility have been published.⁽⁴¹⁾ Inclusion and exclusion criteria for DXA scans are described in the Appendix.

In 677 participants at baseline and in 600 at 2-year follow-up (89%), pQCT scans were performed on the non-dominant radius and tibia. Secondary end points included 2-year changes in total, trabecular, and cortical vBMD, cortical thickness, and bone strength measures as assessed by pQCT (XCT 3000; Stratec Medizintechnik GmbH). At our site, precision (%CV) ranges from 0.02% to 2.87% at the radius and tibia.⁽⁴³⁾ Details of pQCT measures are in the Appendix.

Statistical Analysis

The intention-to-treat principle was used to analyze treatment effects between vitamin D₃ and placebo groups. This ancillary study was designed to have 80% power to detect differences of 1.03, 1.22, and 0.42% in spine, femoral neck, and whole body aBMD, respectively, with a planned sample size of 600 and 10% loss to follow-up.⁽²⁴⁾ By exceeding this planned enrollment to 771 participants, detectable differences were reduced to 0.91, 1.08, and 0.37%, respectively. To assess whether balance was achieved by randomization among this subcohort, baseline characteristics were compared by treatment assignment. Continuous variables were first examined for normality. Means (standard deviation) or median (25th, 75th percentiles) are reported as appropriate. We used t-tests and analysis of variance (or the Wilcoxon rank sum and Kruskal Wallis tests) to compare continuous variables across randomized groups. Chi-square tests were used to compare proportions, using trend tests for ordinal data.

The primary analysis compared the effects of vitamin D₃ vs. placebo on changes in bone health measures, adjusted for the omega-3 fatty acids intervention, age, sex and race/ethnicity. Tests of significance for treatment effects were based on time by treatment interactions in repeated measures analyses. Thus, those with no follow-up data were considered missing at random given their observed baseline data. Differences in treatment effects according to sex, race/ethnicity, BMI, fat mass index (FMI), baseline and achieved total 25(OH)D and FVD level were specified a priori. Adherence-based and other analyses were performed as secondary analyses. All analyses were generated using SAS. Results were considered statistically significant when p<0.05. There was no control for multiple hypothesis testing, and no formal adjustment was made to the p-values. Thus, results regarding secondary, subgroup and exploratory end points should be interpreted with caution.

Results

Ancillary Study Participants

The parent trial randomized 25,871 participants into 4 treatment groups (vitamin D₃, omega-3 fatty acids, both agents, or both placebos) between November 2011 and March 2014. A subcohort of 771 participants in the Boston area had detailed in-person assessments at baseline. Testing at 2-year follow-up was completed by 687 participants (89% retention; Figure 1). Follow-up scans were not conducted for 19 participants who started taking bone active medications between baseline and 2-year follow-up. Other reasons for study discontinuation include lost to follow up, withdrawal of consent, subjects moved, did not want to drive back to Boston, were too busy, or did not want to return for a follow-up visit.

Among participants answering the compliance question by questionnaire, 94.3% in the vitamin D group and 93.2% in the placebo group reported adherence to study pills at year 1. At 2 years, 93.0% of the vitamin D group and 92.1% of the placebo group reported study pill adherence (Appendix Table 5).

Table 1 shows baseline characteristics of the bone health subcohort; most characteristics were balanced between the two groups. Of the 771 participants, 46.7% were women and 53.3% were men. The mean age was 63.8 years. At baseline, 42.3% were taking supplemental vitamin D (800 IU/day) and 17.1% were taking supplemental calcium (1200 mg/day). At baseline, 7.9% of participants had a history of fracture. A total of eighty participants had osteoporosis defined as a T-score ≤ -2.5 at the spine or non-dominant hip (n=75) and/or reporting a fragility fracture at the hip, spine, forearm or shoulder at baseline (n=16). A total of 19 participants elected to start treatment for osteoporosis and were not included in the 2-year follow-up analyses. There were 402 participants who had osteopenia defined as a T-score between -1 and -2.5 at the spine or non-dominant hip. The vitamin D₃ group had a slightly lower total 25(OH)D level at baseline (67.4 vs. 71.1 nmol/L, $p=0.025$).

Compared to the overall VITAL cohort of 25,871 participants,⁽³⁹⁾ the bone health subcohort was slightly younger (mean age 63.8 vs. 67.1 years) and healthier with fewer participants with obesity, hypertension, or diabetes. While the overall cohort included an oversampling of black participants (20.2%), only 8.9% of the bone health subcohort was black given regional demographics of New England.⁽⁴¹⁾

At baseline, the mean serum total 25(OH)D level was 69.1 nmol/L, and 18.0% of participants had total 25(OH)D levels <50 nmol/L (n=770). In the vitamin D₃ group, mean total 25(OH)D levels increased by 46.2% to 98.6 nmol/L (n=359). The total 25(OH)D level in the placebo group was similar at baseline and 2-year follow-up (71.1 nmol/L and 70.6 nmol/L, respectively; n=354). Mean FVD level was 14.6 pmol/L at baseline (n=770). FVD increased by 55.5% to 22.3 pmol/L at year 2 in the vitamin D₃ group (n=359). Calcium levels did not change in either group between baseline and year 2 ($p=0.27$).

There were no increased incidences of hypercalcemia, kidney stones, or other adverse effects in the vitamin D₃ vs. placebo groups.⁽³⁹⁾

Primary Outcome: aBMD Measures

Daily supplemental vitamin D₃ did not increase aBMD or reduce bone loss at the spine, femoral neck, total hip, or whole body, compared to placebo (Figure 2, Appendix). Overall, 2-year changes in aBMD at all sites were minimal at <1%.

Secondary Outcomes: pQCT Measures

There were no effects of daily supplemental vitamin D₃ on pQCT outcomes at the radius or tibia. Changes in bone structure (total, cortical, and trabecular vBMD, cortical thickness) and bone strength indices (polar stress strength index, bone strength index) were similar for the vitamin D₃ and placebo groups (Table 3).

Subgroup analyses of aBMD on primary outcomes

Subgroup analyses are presented in Table 2 and the Appendix. The effect of vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo on 2-year changes in aBMD at all sites did not significantly differ by race/ethnicity, BMI, FMI, or baseline use of supplemental vitamin D (800 IU/day). In pre-specified analyses, when stratified by sex, vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo in women resulted in a trend for smaller decreases in aBMD at the spine (p=0.062; p for interaction=0.067). In exploratory analyses, we did not find any significant differences in response to vitamin D₃ supplementation, compared to placebo, in those with osteopenia or osteoporosis vs. those with normal aBMD. In participants taking calcium supplements (1,200 IU/day) at baseline, there was attenuation of femoral neck aBMD loss with vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo (p=0.029); however, there was no significant interaction (p=0.10; Appendix).

The vitamin D₃ intervention had a slight benefit on spine and total hip aBMD among participants with baseline FVD levels below the median (14.2 pmol/L; prespecified) with significant interaction at both sites (p=0.026 and 0.047, respectively). There were small increases in spine aBMD (0.75% vs. 0.00%; p=0.043) and smaller decreases in total hip aBMD (-0.42% vs. -0.98%; p=0.044) with vitamin D₃ compared to placebo in those with low FVD. In participants with baseline total 25(OH)D levels below the median (69.9 nmol/L; prespecified), there was a trend for greater attenuation of aBMD loss at the spine (p=0.066) and total hip (p=0.065) with vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo. Using thresholds that were not pre-specified (<75, <50, <37 or <30 nmol/L), there were no differences in changes in aBMD between the vitamin D₃ and placebo groups (Table 2). Only 24 participants had 25(OH)D levels <30 nmol/L.

In exploratory analyses (Appendix), among participants in the vitamin D₃ group, there was no beneficial effect on aBMD at any site between those who achieved 25(OH)D levels above vs. below the median (97.3 nmol/L) or FVD levels above or below the median (21.3 pmol/L) at 2 years.

Discussion

Supplemental vitamin D₃ (2,000 IU/day for two years) without calcium, compared with placebo, did not significantly benefit bone density or structure in this large VITAL ancillary

study. In contrast to our hypotheses, supplemental vitamin D₃ did not increase aBMD or prevent bone loss at the spine, hip, or whole body. Vitamin D₃ also did not improve or adversely affect total, trabecular, or cortical vBMD, cortical thickness, or bone strength at the radius or tibia compared to placebo. These effects were not modified by baseline BMI, FMI, age, race/ethnicity, or personal use of vitamin D supplements.

This VITAL ancillary study makes significant contributions to the literature as it is different than prior studies. This is the largest randomized, placebo-controlled study that assessed effects of daily, supplemental vitamin D on bone density and structure in the general U.S. population unselected for vitamin D insufficiency, and it is the first large RCT that measured FVD levels at baseline and 2-years follow-up.

RCTs of daily supplemental vitamin D on aBMD in the general population have shown either no benefits of vitamin D on aBMD or small improvements that have been interpreted as not clinically meaningful, consistent with our findings from our placebo-controlled VITAL ancillary study. A meta-analysis of RCTs found minimal differences (ranging 0.16% –0.76%) in aBMD between vitamin D and placebo groups at the spine, total hip, and femoral neck with no differences at the whole body.⁽¹⁵⁾ Another meta-analysis also did not support vitamin D supplementation for primary prevention of osteoporosis in healthy adults.⁽¹⁴⁾ In the New Zealand Vitamin D Assessment (ViDA) trial, bolus vitamin D supplementation of 100,000 IU/month vs. placebo for 2 years in community-dwelling older adults [baseline 25(OH)D ~55 nmol/L] attenuated bone loss at the hip by 0.5%.⁽¹⁷⁾ In a 1-year RCT among postmenopausal women in Scotland [baseline 25(OH)D 33.7 nmol/L], 1,000 IU/day, but not 400 IU/day, of vitamin D prevented bone loss of ~0.6% at the hip but not at the spine.⁽⁴⁴⁾ However, two additional studies found no effect of vitamin D supplements on aBMD.^(20,45)

A larger benefit may be seen in those with high fracture risk. While we found no benefit of vitamin D₃ supplementation in participants with osteopenia or osteoporosis, most were mildly osteopenic. Jennings et al. showed that vitamin D₃ supplementation (400 IU/day) had no effect on aBMD but, in exploratory analyses, attenuated femoral neck bone loss only in those with osteoporosis.⁽⁴⁶⁾ In a U.K. study in elderly women after osteoporotic hip fractures, vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo also improved aBMD at the femoral neck by 1.1–3.3% and at the total hip by 2.1–4.6%.⁽⁴⁷⁾ In a RCT in the Netherlands of 348 elderly women at high fracture risk [mean age 80 years; baseline 25(OH)D ~26.0 nmol/L], 400 IU/day of vitamin D₃ vs. placebo improved femoral neck aBMD by 1.9% over two years.^(16,48)

There may be a total 25(OH)D threshold below which vitamin D supplementation benefits bone health, but this level is debated. While the Institute of Medicine recommends 25(OH)D levels ≥50 nmol/L for 97.5% of the population and suggests <30 nmol/L as deficient,⁽⁴⁹⁾ the Endocrine Society and National Osteoporosis Foundation have recommended 25(OH)D levels >75 nmol/L and define 52–75 nmol/L as insufficient, particularly in those with osteoporosis.^(50–54) Total 25(OH)D levels <25 nmol/L are associated with osteomalacia, reduced bone mineralization, low aBMD, and secondary hyperparathyroidism.^(3,4) The ViDA trial found that among participants with low baseline 25(OH)D <30 nmol/L (n=25),

the placebo group had significant spine and femoral neck aBMD loss (~2%), compared to stable aBMD in the vitamin D₃ group; there was no difference in aBMD in participants with baseline 25(OH)D >30 nmol/L.⁽¹⁷⁾ Post-hoc analyses of a United Kingdom (U.K.) trial in those with baseline total 25(OH)D levels ≤ 30 nmol/L, vitamin D supplements had a small treatment effect on spine and hip aBMD (0.6%).⁽⁴⁴⁾ In contrast to the studies in New Zealand and the U.K., in our VITAL ancillary study, we were unable to identify a vitamin D threshold for bone health using baseline total 25(OH)D levels of <30, <50 or <75 nmol/L. It is possible that our participants may have already reached the vitamin D level needed for bone health. The mean baseline 25(OH)D level of participants in this VITAL ancillary study was 69.1 nmol/L, 18.0% had 25(OH)D levels <50 nmol/L, and 3.1% <30 nmol/L (n=25). This is consistent with recent U.S. National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey data (2011–2014) showing that 2.9% of the population ≥ 60 years have 25(OH)D levels <30 nmol/L.⁽²⁹⁾ Since a small percentage of older U.S. adults have profound vitamin D deficiency,⁽²⁹⁾ it would be neither ethical nor feasible to perform a supplemental vitamin D₃ placebo-controlled study in this population.

There is limited research investigating the relationship between FVD levels and effects of supplemental vitamin D on aBMD. In a vitamin D dose-ranging study in 273 older women in the U.S. with low baseline total 25(OH)D levels ≤ 50 nmol/L, aBMD changes were not associated with baseline total 25(OH)D or FVD levels; however, the study was not powered to detect changes in aBMD with each of the 7 tested vitamin D doses.⁽⁵⁵⁾ We found that baseline FVD levels, compared to total 25(OH)D levels, may better predict improvements in aBMD at the spine and total hip, though changes were small (0.56–0.75%). Whether baseline FVD levels help to identify those more likely to benefit from supplementation warrants further study. Given multiple comparisons, these results should be interpreted with caution.

This VITAL ancillary study evaluated the surrogate mechanisms through which supplemental vitamin D affects bone health and potential fracture risk. Other factors such as poor physical performance or balance, certain medical conditions (poor vision, cognitive impairment, neurological diseases, hypotension, diabetes, among others) or other intrinsic and environmental factors that contribute to falls can impact the risk of fractures.^(56–58) In a parallel ancillary study, we are adjudicating incident fractures in the overall VITAL cohort (n=25,871) for a median of 5.3 years to determine whether long-term vitamin D₃ supplementation reduces fracture risk in men and women nationwide.

This ancillary study to VITAL has many strengths, including being the largest RCT of supplemental vitamin D₃ on aBMD at the spine and hip, and vBMD, structure, and strength measures at the radius and tibia. This study had high retention (89%) and adherence (~92%) and power to detect small effects on aBMD, the primary outcome. This study also evaluated effects of vitamin D₃ supplementation vs. placebo on bone health measures and analyzed outcomes according to FVD levels. Additionally, the vitamin D assays were calibrated to CDC standards. There were also limitations. The timeline for the bone density and structure outcomes was limited to 2-years of follow-up. The results were not adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing, so the findings from the secondary and subgroup analyses should be interpreted as exploratory. These results do not generally apply to younger people or adults

with osteoporosis or those with profound vitamin D deficiency, who otherwise warrant treatment.

In summary, this placebo-controlled RCT found that daily vitamin D₃ supplementation for 2 years did not improve bone density or structure in the general population of older adults in the U.S. not selected for vitamin D insufficiency.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the trial participants, staff, and investigators. This project was supported by grants R01 AR059775, R01 AR070854, and R01 AR060574 (PI, M.S. LeBoff) from National Institute of Arthritis Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases (NIAMS/NIH). This research was also supported by the VITAL parent grants and U01 CA138962 and R01 CA138962 (PIs, J. Manson and J. Buring) from the National Cancer Institute, the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, the Office of Dietary Supplements, the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, and the National Center for Complementary and Integrative Health. Its contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the NIAMS or NIH. This work was conducted with support from the Harvard Catalyst CTSC (NCRR and NCATS, NIH Award UL1TR001102) and the Office of Dietary Supplements. We would also like to acknowledge; Cindy Yu for her precision and dedication in performing bone density and body composition scans, and Daniel Schiferl for his expertise on pQCT measurements and analysis. This study and the parent study are registered at clinicaltrials.gov (NCT01747447, NCT01169259). We also thank Quest Diagnostics that performed the 25(OH)D, calcium, and omega-3 laboratory measurements at no additional costs to the VITAL study. Pharmavite LLC of Northridge, California (vitamin D) and Pronova BioPharma of Norway and BASF (Omacor fish oil) donated the study agents, matching placebos, and packaging in the form of calendar packs. We also thank the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Dr. Hubert Vesper and Dr. Julianne Cook Botelho) for their collaboration on the standardization and calibration of the 25(OH)D measurements throughout the study.

Potential conflicts of interest:

- Dr. LeBoff reports grants from NIH, during the conduct of the study.
- Dr. Chou has nothing to disclose.
- Ms. Murata has nothing to disclose.
- Ms. Donlon has nothing to disclose.
- Dr. Cook reports grant support from NIH, during the conduct of the study.
- Dr. Mora reports grants from NIH (DK112940, R01HL134811, and K24 HL136852), non-financial institutional support from Quest Diagnostics, during the conduct of the study; personal fees (modest) from Quest Diagnostics, and an institutional research grant from Atherotech Diagnostics, outside the submitted work.
- Dr. Lee reports grants from NIH, during the conduct of the study.
- Dr. Buring reports grants from National Institutes of Health, non-financial support from Pharmavite LLC of Northridge, CA, non-financial support from Pronova BioPharma of Norway and BASF, non-financial support from Quest Diagnostics (San Juan Capistrano, CA), during the conduct of the study; other from Pharmavite, outside the submitted work.
- Dr. Bubes reports grants from NIH, during the conduct of the study.
- Dr. Kotler has nothing to disclose.
- Dr. Manson reports grants from National Institutes of Health, non-financial support from Pharmavite LLC of Northridge, California, non-financial support from Pronova BioPharma of Norway and BASF, non-financial support from Quest Diagnostics (San Juan Capistrano, CA), during the conduct of the study.

References

1. Kantor ED, Rehm CD, Du M, White E, Giovannucci EL. Trends in Dietary Supplement Use Among US Adults From 1999–2012. *JAMA*. 2016;316(14):1464–74. [PubMed: 27727382]
2. Demay MB. Physiological insights from the vitamin D receptor knockout mouse. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 2013;92(2):99–105. Epub 2012/08/21. [PubMed: 22903507]
3. El-Desouki MI, Othman SM, Fouda MA. Bone mineral density and bone scintigraphy in adult Saudi female patients with osteomalacia. *Saudi medical journal*. 2004;25(3):355–8. Epub 2004/03/30. [PubMed: 15048176]
4. Parfitt AM, Qiu S, Rao DS. The mineralization index--a new approach to the histomorphometric appraisal of osteomalacia. *Bone*. 2004;35(1):320–5. [PubMed: 15207773]
5. Geng S, Zhou S, Glowacki J. Effects of 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3) on proliferation and osteoblast differentiation of human marrow stromal cells require CYP27B1/1 α -hydroxylase. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2011;26(5):1145–53. Epub 2011/05/05. [PubMed: 21542014]
6. DeLuca HF. Overview of general physiologic features and functions of vitamin D. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80(6 Suppl):1689S–96S. Epub 2004/12/09. [PubMed: 14684401]
7. Cranney A, Horsley T, O'Donnell S, Weiler H, Puil L, Ooi D, et al. Effectiveness and Safety of Vitamin D in Relation to Bone Health. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)* - Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ). 2007(158):p. 73 <http://www.ahrq.gov/downloads/pub/evidence/pdf/vitamind/vitad.pdf>.
8. Bischoff-Ferrari HA, Dietrich T, Orav EJ, Dawson-Hughes B. Positive association between 25-hydroxy vitamin D levels and bone mineral density: a population-based study of younger and older adults. *Am J Med*. 2004;116(9):634–9. Epub 2004/04/20. [PubMed: 15093761]
9. Chung M, Balk EM, Brendel M, Ip S, Lau J, Lee J, et al. Vitamin D and Calcium: A Systematic Review of Health Outcomes. *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)* - Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ).. 2009:p. 109 <http://www.ahrq.gov/downloads/pub/evidence/pdf/vitadcal/vitadcal.pdf>.
10. Frost M, Abrahamsen B, Nielsen TL, Hagen C, Andersen M, Brixen K. Vitamin D status and PTH in young men: a cross-sectional study on associations with bone mineral density, body composition and glucose metabolism. *Clinical endocrinology*. 2010;73(5):573–80. Epub 2010/08/20. [PubMed: 20718769]
11. Chung M, Lee J, Terasawa T, Lau J, Trikalinos TA. Vitamin D with or without calcium supplementation for prevention of cancer and fractures: an updated meta-analysis for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;155(12):827–38. [PubMed: 22184690]
12. Newberry SJ, Chung M, Shekelle PG, Booth MS, Liu JL, Maher AR, et al. Vitamin D and Calcium: A Systematic Review of Health Outcomes (Update). *Evid Rep Technol Assess (Full Rep)*. 2014(217):1–929. Epub 2014/09/01.
13. Avenell A, Mak JC, O'Connell D. Vitamin D and vitamin D analogues for preventing fractures in post-menopausal women and older men. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*. 2014(4):CD000227 Epub 2014/04/15.
14. Reid IR, Bolland MJ, Grey A. Effects of vitamin D supplements on bone mineral density: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2014;383(9912):146–55. Epub 2013/10/15. [PubMed: 24119980]
15. Bolland MJ, Grey A, Avenell A. Effects of vitamin D supplementation on musculoskeletal health: a systematic review, meta-analysis, and trial sequential analysis. *The lancet Diabetes & endocrinology*. 2018;6(11):847–58. Epub 2018/10/09. [PubMed: 30293909]
16. Ooms ME, Roos JC, Bezemer PD, van der Vijgh WJ, Bouter LM, Lips P. Prevention of bone loss by vitamin D supplementation in elderly women: a randomized double-blind trial. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1995;80(4):1052–8. [PubMed: 7714065]
17. Reid IR, Horne AM, Mihov B, Gamble GD, Al-Abuws F, Singh M, et al. Effect of monthly high-dose vitamin D on bone density in community-dwelling older adults substudy of a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of internal medicine*. 2017;282(5):452–60. Epub 2017/07/12. [PubMed: 28692172]

18. Macdonald HM, Reid IR, Gamble GD, Fraser WD, Tang JC, Wood AD. 25-Hydroxyvitamin D Threshold for the Effects of Vitamin D Supplements on Bone Density: Secondary Analysis of a Randomized Controlled Trial. 2018;33(8):1464–9.
19. Hollis BW, Wagner CL. Clinical review: The role of the parent compound vitamin D with respect to metabolism and function: Why clinical dose intervals can affect clinical outcomes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 12 2013;98(12):4619–28. [PubMed: 24106283]
20. Hansen KE, Johnson RE, Chambers KR, Johnson MG, Lemon CC, Vo TN, et al. Treatment of Vitamin D Insufficiency in Postmenopausal Women: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA internal medicine.* 10 2015;175(10):1612–21. Epub 2015/08/04. [PubMed: 26237520]
21. Wamberg L, Pedersen SB, Richelsen B, Rejnmark L. The effect of high-dose vitamin D supplementation on calciotropic hormones and bone mineral density in obese subjects with low levels of circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin d: results from a randomized controlled study. *Calcif Tissue Int.* 7 2013;93(1):69–77. Epub 2013/04/18. [PubMed: 23591713]
22. Bislev LS, Langagergaard Rodbro L, Rolighed L, Sikjaer T, Rejnmark L. Bone Microstructure in Response to Vitamin D3 Supplementation: A Randomized Placebo-Controlled Trial.(Clinical report). *Calcified Tissue International.* 2019;104(2):160.
23. Jackson RD, LaCroix AZ, Gass M, Wallace RB, Robbins J, Lewis CE, et al. Calcium plus vitamin D supplementation and the risk of fractures. *N Engl J Med.* 2 16 2006;354(7):669–83. [PubMed: 16481635]
24. Dawson-Hughes B, Harris SS, Krall EA, Dallal GE. Effect of calcium and vitamin D supplementation on bone density in men and women 65 years of age or older. *N Engl J Med.* 9 4 1997;337(10):670–6. [PubMed: 9278463]
25. Chapuy MC, Arlot ME, Duboeuf F, Brun J, Crouzet B, Arnaud S, et al. Vitamin D3 and calcium to prevent hip fractures in the elderly women. *N Engl J Med.* 12 3 1992;327(23):1637–42. [PubMed: 1331788]
26. Callegari ET, Garland SM, Gorelik A, Wark JD. Determinants of bone mineral density in young Australian women; results from the Safe-D study. *Osteoporos Int.* 9 2017;28(9):2619–31. Epub 2017/07/01. [PubMed: 28660495]
27. Martin EN, Haney EM, Shannon J, Cauley JA, Ensrud KE, Keaveny TM, et al. Femoral volumetric bone density, geometry, and strength in relation to 25-hydroxy vitamin D in older men. *J Bone Miner Res.* 3 2015;30(3):562–9. Epub 2014/11/25. [PubMed: 25418140]
28. Burt LA, Billington EO, Rose MS, Raymond DA, Hanley DA, Boyd SK. Effect of High-Dose Vitamin D Supplementation on Volumetric Bone Density and Bone Strength: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Effect of High-Dose Vitamin D Supplementation on Volumetric Bone Density and Bone Strength.* *JAMA.* 2019;322(8):736–45. [PubMed: 31454046]
29. Herrick KA, Storandt RJ, Afful J, Pfeiffer CM, Schleicher RL, Gahche JJ, et al. Vitamin D status in the United States, 2011–2014. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 5 10 2019 Epub 2019/05/12.
30. Alzaman NS, Dawson-Hughes B, Nelson J, D'Alessio D, Pittas AG. Vitamin D status of black and white Americans and changes in vitamin D metabolites after varied doses of vitamin D supplementation. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 7 2016;104(1):205–14. Epub 2016/05/20. [PubMed: 27194308]
31. Wortsman J, Matsuoka LY, Chen TC, Lu Z, Holick MF. Decreased bioavailability of vitamin D in obesity. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 9 2000;72(3):690–3. Epub 2000/09/01. [PubMed: 10966885]
32. Chapuy MC, Preziosi P, Maamer M, Arnaud S, Galan P, Hercberg S, et al. Prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency in an adult normal population. *Osteoporos Int.* 1997;7(5):439–43. [PubMed: 9425501]
33. Powe CE, Ricciardi C, Berg AH, Erdenesanaa D, Colterone G, Ankers E, et al. Vitamin D-binding protein modifies the vitamin D-bone mineral density relationship. *J Bone Miner Res.* 7 2011;26(7):1609–16. [PubMed: 21416506]
34. Schwartz JB, Lai J, Lizaola B, Kane L, Markova S, Weyland P, et al. A comparison of measured and calculated free 25(OH) vitamin D levels in clinical populations. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 5 2014;99(5):1631–7. Epub 2014/02/04. [PubMed: 24483159]

35. Chun RF, Peercy BE, Orwoll ES, Nielson CM, Adams JS, Hewison M. Vitamin D and DBP: the free hormone hypothesis revisited. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 10 2014;144 Pt A:132–7. Epub 2013/10/08. [PubMed: 24095930]
36. Jemielita TO, Leonard MB, Baker J, Sayed S, Zemel BS, Shults J, et al. Association of 25-hydroxyvitamin D with areal and volumetric measures of bone mineral density and parathyroid hormone: impact of vitamin D-binding protein and its assays. *Osteoporos Int.* 2 2016;27(2):617–26. Epub 2015/09/12. [PubMed: 26359185]
37. Bikle D, Bouillon R, Thadhani R, Schoenmakers I. Vitamin D metabolites in captivity? Should we measure free or total 25(OH)D to assess vitamin D status? *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 10 2017;173:105–16. Epub 2017/01/18. [PubMed: 28093353]
38. Institute of Medicine Committee to Review Dietary Reference Intakes for Vitamin D, Calcium. The National Academies Collection: Reports funded by National Institutes of Health In: Ross AC, Taylor CL, Yaktine AL, Del Valle HB, editors. *Dietary Reference Intakes for Calcium and Vitamin D.* Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US) National Academy of Sciences; 2011.
39. Manson JE, Cook NR, Lee IM, Christen W, Bassuk SS, Mora S, et al. Vitamin D Supplements and Prevention of Cancer and Cardiovascular Disease. *N Engl J Med.* 1 3 2019;380(1):33–44. Epub 2018/11/13. [PubMed: 30415629]
40. Bassuk SS, Manson JE, Lee IM, Cook NR, Christen WG, Bubes VY, et al. Baseline characteristics of participants in the VITamin D and Omega-3 Trial (VITAL). *Contemp Clin Trials.* 3 2016;47:235–43. Epub 2016/01/16. [PubMed: 26767629]
41. Donlon CM, LeBoff MS, Chou SH, Cook NR, Copeland T, Buring JE, et al. Baseline characteristics of participants in the VITamin D and Omega-3 Trial (VITAL): Effects on Bone Structure and Architecture. *Contemp Clin Trials.* 2 22 2018;67:56–67. Epub 2018/02/07. [PubMed: 29408561]
42. LeBoff MS, Yue AY, Copeland T, Cook NR, Buring JE, Manson JE. VITAL-Bone Health: Rationale and design of two ancillary studies evaluating the effects of vitamin D and/or omega-3 fatty acid supplements on incident fractures and bone health outcomes in the VITamin D and Omega-3 Trial (VITAL). *Contemp Clin Trials.* 1 23 2015;41C:259–68.
43. Rinaldi G, Wisniewski CA, Setty NG, Leboff MS. Peripheral quantitative computed tomography: optimization of reproducibility measures of bone density, geometry, and strength at the radius and tibia. *J Clin Densitom.* Jul-Sep 2011;14(3):367–73. Epub 2011/07/05. [PubMed: 21723765]
44. Macdonald HM, Wood AD, Aucott LS, Black AJ, Fraser WD, Mavroeidi A, et al. Hip bone loss is attenuated with 1000 IU but not 400 IU daily vitamin D3: a 1-year double-blind RCT in postmenopausal women. *J Bone Miner Res.* 10 2013;28(10):2202–13. Epub 2013/04/16. [PubMed: 23585346]
45. Iuliano-Burns S, Ayton J, Hillam S, Jones G, King K, Macleod S, et al. Skeletal and hormonal responses to vitamin D supplementation during sunlight deprivation in Antarctic expeditioners. *Osteoporos Int.* 10 2012;23(10):2461–7. Epub 2012/01/05. [PubMed: 22215183]
46. Jennings A, Cashman KD, Gillings R, Cassidy A, Tang J, Fraser W, et al. A Mediterranean-like dietary pattern with vitamin D3 (10 µg/d) supplements reduced the rate of bone loss in older Europeans with osteoporosis at baseline: results of a 1-y randomized controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 9 1 2018;108(3):633–40. Epub 2018/07/15. [PubMed: 30007343]
47. Harwood RH, Sahota O, Gaynor K, Masud T, Hosking DJ. A randomised, controlled comparison of different calcium and vitamin D supplementation regimens in elderly women after hip fracture: The Nottingham Neck of Femur (NONOF) Study. *Age Ageing.* 1 2004;33(1):45–51. Epub 2003/12/30. [PubMed: 14695863]
48. Lips P, Graafmans W, Ooms M, Bezemer P, Bouter L. Vitamin D Supplementation and Fracture Incidence in Elderly Persons: A Randomized, Placebo-Controlled Clinical Trial. *Ann Intern Med.* 1996;124(4):400–6. [PubMed: 8554248]
49. Medicine Io. Dietary Reference Intakes for Calcium and Vitamin D. Ross AC, Taylor CL, Yaktine AL, Del Valle HB, editors. Washington DC: National Academy of Sciences.; 2011.
50. Rosen CJ, Gallagher JC. The 2011 IOM report on vitamin D and calcium requirements for north america: clinical implications for providers treating patients with low bone mineral density. *J Clin Densitom.* Review Apr-Jun 2011;14(2):79–84. Epub 2011/07/27.

51. Holick MF, Binkley NC, Bischoff-Ferrari HA, Gordon CM, Hanley DA, Heaney RP, et al. Evaluation, treatment, and prevention of vitamin D deficiency: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab. Practice Guideline Research Support, Non-U.S. Gov't* 7 2011;96(7):1911–30. Epub 2011/06/08.
52. Dawson-Hughes B, Mithal A, Bonjour JP, Boonen S, Burckhardt P, Fuleihan GE, et al. IOF position statement: vitamin D recommendations for older adults. *Osteoporos Int. Research Support, U.S. Gov't, Non-P.H.S* 7 2010;21(7):1151–4. Epub 2010/04/28.
53. Cosman F, de Beur SJ, LeBoff MS, Lewiecki EM, Tanner B, Randall S, et al. Clinician's Guide to Prevention and Treatment of Osteoporosis. *Osteoporos Int.* 10 2014;25(10):2359–81. [PubMed: 25182228]
54. Rosen CJ. Clinical practice. Vitamin D insufficiency. *N Engl J Med.* 1 20 2011;364(3):248–54. Epub 2011/01/21. [PubMed: 21247315]
55. Smith LM, Gallagher JC, Kaufmann M, Jones G. Effect of increasing doses of vitamin D on bone mineral density and serum N-terminal telopeptide in elderly women: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of internal medicine.* 12 2018;284(6):685–93. Epub 2018/08/24. [PubMed: 30137647]
56. Prevention CfDCa. Take a Stand on Falls. 2017.
57. Prevention CfDCa. National Center for Injury Prevention and control. 2016.
58. Tinetti ME, Speechley M, Ginter SF. Risk Factors for Falls among Elderly Persons Living in the Community. *New England Journal of Medicine.* 1988;319(26):1701–7. [PubMed: 3205267]

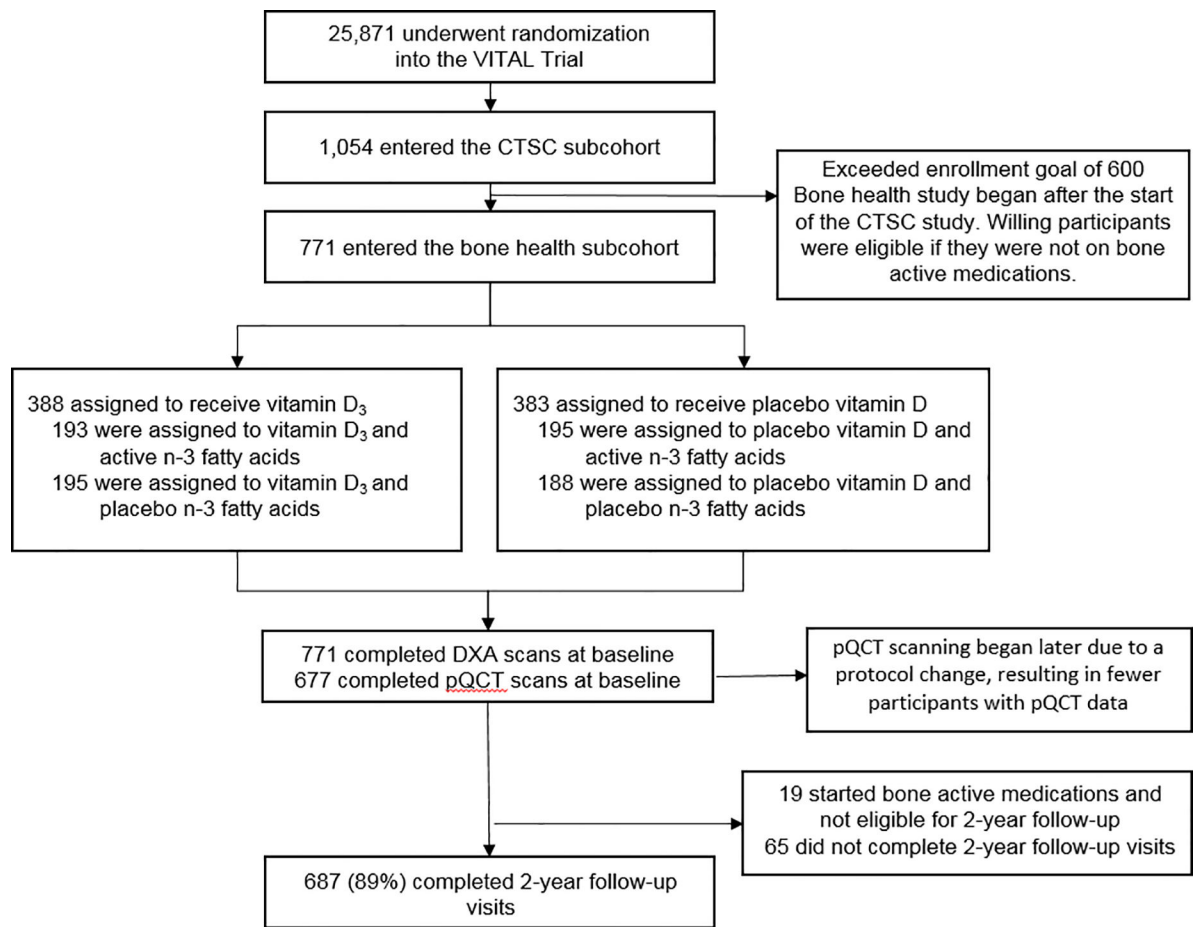


Figure 1.
Randomization and Follow-up of Participants

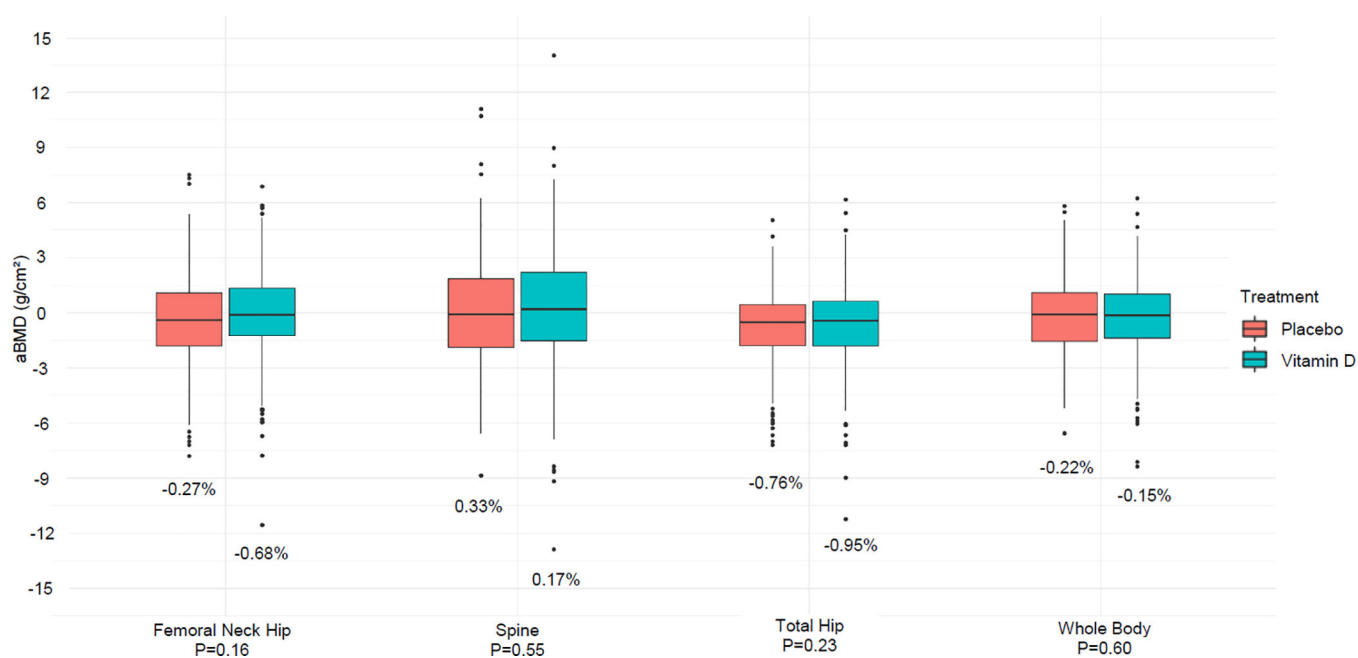


Figure 2. Mean absolute changes in aBMD from baseline to 2 years in the vitamin D₃ and placebo groups. Percentages represent the percent change in aBMD over 2 years. All analyses adjusted for age, sex and race.

Table 1.

Characteristics of the Bone Health Subcohort at Baseline According to Randomized Assignment to Vitamin D₃ vs. Placebo Groups

Characteristic	Total (N=771)	Vitamin D ₃ Group (N=388)	Placebo Group (N=383)	P-value
Female sex – no. (%) N=771	360 (46.7%)	179 (46.1%)	181 (47.3%)	0.76
Age – mean (SD) N=771	63.8 (6.1)	63.7 (6.0)	63.9 (6.3)	0.53
Race or ethnic group [*] – no. (%)	755 (97.9%)			0.28
Non-Hispanic white	630 (83.4%)	317 (82.8%)	313 (84.1%)	
Black	67 (8.9%)	35 (9.1%)	32 (8.6%)	
Nonblack Hispanic	26 (3.4%)	11 (2.9%)	15 (4.0%)	
Asian	15 (2.0%)	9 (2.4%)	6 (1.6%)	
Native American or Alaskan native	5 (0.7%)	2 (0.5%)	3 (0.8%)	
Other or unknown	12 (1.6%)	9 (2.4%)	3 (0.8%)	
Body mass index – mean (SD) kg/m ² N=771	27.2 (4.8)	27.2 (4.7)	27.3 (4.8)	0.91
Fat mass index – mean (SD) kg/m ² N=767	10.27 (3.89)	10.26 (4.03)	10.28 (3.74)	0.94
Leisure time physical activity – median (Interquartile Range) MET- hours/week N= 767	21.47 (7.86 – 37.11)	21.61 (7.86 – 37.80)	20.99 (7.97 – 36.00)	0.62
Diabetes history – no. (%) N= 770	84 (10.9%)	44 (11.4%)	40 (10.4%)	0.68
Current smoking – no. (%) N=766	48 (6.3%)	26 (6.8%)	22 (5.8%)	0.33
Any Fracture History [†] – no. (%) N=771	61 (7.9%)	32 (8.3%)	29 (7.6%)	0.73
Parental history of hip fracture – no. (%) N=733	102 (13.9%)	54 (14.8%)	48 (13.0%)	0.49
Baseline Calcium Supplement Use [‡] – no. (%) N=771	132 (17.1%)	69 (17.8%)	63 (16.5%)	0.62
Baseline Vitamin D Supplement Use [‡] – no. (%) N=771	326 (42.3%)	157 (40.5%)	169 (44.1%)	0.30
Baseline Total 25(OH)D [§] – mean (SD) nmol/L N=770	69.1 (22.7)	67.4 (22.2)	71.1 (23.2)	0.025
Baseline FVD – mean (SD) pmol/L N=770	14.6 (4.7)	14.4 (4.5)	14.8 (4.8)	0.21

^{*} Race and ethnic groups self-reported by participants

[†] Of those who reported fractures, 16 had a history of a fragility fracture (hip, spine, shoulder and/or forearm fracture)

[‡] Calcium supplement intake 1200 mg/day, Vitamin D intake 800 IU/day

[§] To convert values of 25(OH)D to ng/ml, multiply by 0.4

Table 2.

Absolute 2-year Change in aBMD according to Subgroup, Comparing the Vitamin D₃ Group with the Placebo group

Subgroup	Spine aBMD					P-value for Interaction
	Vitamin D ₃ Group		Placebo Group		P-value	
	N	Absolute Change (SD) g/cm ²	N	Absolute Change (SD) g/cm ²		
Sex						0.067
Female	149	−0.001 (0.036)	133	−0.008 (0.033)	P=0.062	
Male	177	0.007 (0.036)	174	0.010 (0.035)	P= 0.46	
Low Bone Density						0.040
Normal	110	0.002 (0.038)	114	0.009 (0.039)	P= 0.17	
Osteopenia/ Osteoporosis	209	0.003 (0.035)	192	−0.003 (0.032)	P= 0.067	
Race						0.83
Non-Hispanic White	267	0.003 (0.036)	248	0.002 (0.036)	P= 0.79	
Black	28	0.004 (0.044)	28	0.005 (0.035)	P= 0.89	
BMI (median)						0.13
< Median (26.45 kg/m ²)	165	0.000 (0.038)	152	−0.006 (0.032)	P= 0.12	
Median (26.45 kg/m ²)	161	0.006 (0.034)	155	0.009 (0.037)	P= 0.52	
FMI						0.90
< Median (9.42 kg/m ²)	175	0.002 (0.036)	149	−0.001 (0.033)	P= 0.50	
Median (9.42 kg/m ²)	149	0.006 (0.038)	158	0.004 (0.037)	P= 0.74	
Vitamin D supplement use at baseline 800 IU/day						0.88
Yes	134	0.003 (0.031)	138	0.000 (0.034)	P= 0.56	
No	192	0.004 (0.040)	169	0.003 (0.037)	P= 0.76	
Calcium supplement use at baseline 1200 mg/day						0.40
Yes	58	0.001 (0.033)	51	−0.007 (0.033)	P= 0.28	
No	268	0.004 (0.037)	256	0.003 (0.035)	P= 0.83	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.09
< 75 nmol/L	209	0.006 (0.037)	165	0.000 (0.037)	P=0.10	
75 nmol/L	116	−0.001 (0.036)	142	0.004 (0.034)	P=0.24	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.061
< Median (70 nmol/L)	179	0.006 (0.038)	138	−0.001 (0.035)	P= 0.066	
Median (70 nmol/L)	146	0.001 (0.035)	169	0.004 (0.035)	P= 0.30	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.42
<50 nmol/L	60	0.002 (0.040)	57	0.005 (0.036)	P= 0.76	
50 nmol/L	265	0.004 (0.036)	250	0.001 (0.035)	P= 0.39	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.92

<37 nmol/L	29	0.005 (0.040)	20	0.005 (0.045)	P= 0.77	
37 nmol/L	296	0.003 (0.036)	287	0.002 (0.035)	P= 0.59	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.14
<30 nmol/L	12	-0.014 (0.052)	10	0.017 (0.051)	P=0.17	
30 nmol/L	313	0.004 (0.036)	297	0.001 (0.035)	P=0.30	
Baseline FVD						0.026
< Median 14.2 pmol/L	171	0.008 (0.040)	149	-0.000 (0.034)	P= 0.043	
Median 14.2 pmol/L	154	-0.001 (0.032)	158	0.003 (0.036)	P= 0.170	
Subgroup	Total Hip aBMD					
	Vitamin D₃ Group		Placebo Group		LSmean, (95% CI), P-value	P-value for Interaction
	N	Absolute Change (SD) g/cm²	N	Absolute Change (SD) g/cm²		
Sex						0.48
Female	152	-0.012 (0.024)	150	-0.016 (0.022)	P= 0.20	
Male	188	-0.003 (0.023)	189	-0.004 (0.020)	P= 0.684	
Low Bone Density						0.32
Normal	112	-0.003 (0.025)	118	-0.007 (0.021)	P= 0.12	
Osteopenia/ Osteoporosis	214	-0.009 (0.023)	206	-0.010 (0.022)	P= 0.73	
Race						0.81
Non-Hispanic White	282	-0.008 (0.024)	277	-0.009 (0.021)	P= 0.44	
Black	27	-0.003 (0.022)	28	-0.006 (0.018)	P= 0.56	
BMI (median)						0.31
< Median (26.45 kg/m ²)	173	-0.007 (0.020)	166	-0.007 (0.018)	P= 0.96	
Median (26.45 kg/m ²)	167	-0.007 (0.027)	173	-0.010 (0.024)	P= 0.13	
FMI						0.52
< Median (9.42 kg/m ²)	183	-0.005 (0.021)	161	-0.006 (0.019)	P= 0.84	
Median (9.42 kg/m ²)	154	-0.009 (0.027)	178	-0.012 (0.023)	P= 0.19	
Vitamin D supplement use at baseline 800 IU/day						0.79
Yes	141	-0.008 (0.024)	148	-0.009 (0.020)	P= 0.67	
No	199	-0.007 (0.024)	191	-0.009 (0.022)	P= 0.24	
Calcium supplement use at baseline 1200 mg/day						0.73
Yes	59	-0.009 (0.027)	54	-0.012 (0.019)	P= 0.46	
No	281	-0.007 (0.023)	285	-0.008 (0.022)	P= 0.32	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.09
< 75 nmol/L	216	-0.005 (0.026)	183	-0.009 (0.023)	P=0.09	
75 nmol/L	123	-0.010 (0.020)	156	-0.008 (0.020)	P=0.59	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.064
< Median (70 nmol/L)	185	-0.005 (0.025)	148	-0.010 (0.022)	P= 0.065	
Median (70 nmol/L)	154	-0.010 (0.022)	191	-0.008 (0.021)	P= 0.68	

Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.18
<50 nmol/L	62	-0.003 (0.029)	60	-0.011 (0.022)	P= 0.12	
50 nmol/L	277	-0.008 (0.023)	279	-0.008 (0.021)	P= 0.61	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.12
<37 nmol/L	30	0.000 (0.028)	20	-0.013 (0.024)	P= 0.096	
37 nmol/L	309	-0.008 (0.024)	319	-0.009 (0.021)	P= 0.49	
Baseline Total 25(OH)D Level						0.36
<30 nmol/L	13	0.002 (0.026)	10	-0.010 (0.028)	P=0.29	
30 nmol/L	326	-0.007 (0.024)	329	-0.009 (0.021)	P=0.33	
Baseline FVD						0.047
< Median 14.2 pmol/L	175	-0.004 (0.024)	159	-0.009 (0.023)	P= 0.044	
Median 14.2 pmol/L	164	-0.010 (0.024)	180	-0.008 (0.020)	P= 0.62	

All analyses adjusted for age, sex, and race

Table 3.

2-year Changes in pQCT Measurements

	Vitamin D ₃ Group		Placebo Group		
pQCT Measurements	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	P-value
Radius					
Total vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	326	369.678 (69.484)	321	373.903 (72.498)	
Year 2	282	376.236 (74.480)	278	382.252 (71.676)	
% Change	277	2.16%	269	1.23%	P=0.31
Trabecular vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	326	196.447 (43.156)	321	202.796 (46.074)	
Year 2	282	199.563 (44.647)	278	205.112 (46.019)	
% Change	277	0.59%	269	-0.21%	P=0.099
Bone Strength Index (mg*mm)					
Baseline	326	46.429 (19.223)	321	46.160 (18.378)	
Year 2	282	47.066 (19.627)	278	47.722 (18.932)	
% Change	277	1.48%	269	0.76%	P=0.44
Cortical vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	311	1197.75 (31.572)	308	1196.98 (30.816)	
Year 2	258	1199.41 (33.686)	257	1201.55 (30.098)	
% Change	246	0.16%	239	0.22%	P=0.49
Cortical Thickness (mm)					
Baseline	311	3.271 (0.584)	308	3.221 (0.595)	
Year 2	258	3.248 (0.605)	257	3.200 (0.603)	
% Change	246	-1.59%	239	-1.64%	P=0.997
Polar Stress Strength Index (mm ³)					
Baseline	311	291.559 (98.278)	308	277.702 (91.069)	
Year 2	258	297.382 (103.180)	257	280.804 (94.408)	
% Change	246	0.23%	239	0.18%	P=0.94
Tibia					
Total vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	331	295.291 (48.045)	330	299.232 (49.285)	
Year 2	294	296.756 (49.312)	284	303.213 (48.755)	
% Change	291	0.05%	283	0.26%	P=0.30
Trabecular vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	331	246.626 (40.741)	330	250.139 (42.283)	
Year 2	294	249.300 (41.539)	284	254.067 (42.019)	
% Change	291	0.47%	283	0.42%	P=0.76
Bone Strength Index (mg*mm)					

	Vitamin D ₃ Group		Placebo Group		
pQCT Measurements	N	Mean (SD)	N	Mean (SD)	P-value
Baseline	331	105.338 (38.119)	330	106.355 (38.763)	
Year 2	294	106.951 (39.314)	284	109.583 (39.621)	
% Change	291	0.26%	283	0.48%	P=0.56
Cortical vBMD (mg/cm ³)					
Baseline	322	1167.39 (32.258)	329	1162.02 (30.375)	
Year 2	294	1169.98 (32.739)	285	1166.38 (30.624)	
% Change	283	0.24%	285	0.25%	P=0.92
Cortical Thickness (mm)					
Baseline	322	5.670 (0.881)	329	5.648 (0.907)	
Year 2	294	5.645 (0.914)	285	5.659 (0.905)	
% Change	283	-0.74%	285	-0.56%	P=0.24
Polar Stress Strength Index (mm ³)					
Baseline	322	1922.60 (542.988)	329	1867.05 (520.903)	
Year 2	294	1948.58 (557.398)	285	1904.76 (529.863)	
% Change	283	0.42%	285	0.41%	P=0.65

All analyses adjusted for age, sex, and race