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**Vitamin D status and prevalent diabetic retinopathy in African Americans and
Caucasians: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Cohort Study**

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Short running title: Vitamin D status and diabetic retinopathy

Abbreviations:

25[OH]D	25-hydroxyvitamin D
ARIC	Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study
BMI	Body mass index
DR	Diabetic retinopathy
HBA _{1c}	Glycosylated hemoglobin A _{1c}
HDL	High density lipoprotein
LDL	Low density lipoprotein
NPDR	Non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy
PDR	Proliferative diabetic retinopathy
VDR	Vitamin D receptor

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background:** Vitamin D status has been hypothesized to protect against development of diabetic
3 retinopathy via its anti-inflammatory and anti-angiogenic properties. Additionally, *in vitro* and *in*
4 *vivo* studies suggest vitamin D favorably influences blood pressure and blood glucose control,
5 strong risk factors for diabetic retinopathy.

6 **Objective:** We examined the association between vitamin D status and prevalent diabetic
7 retinopathy in participants with diabetes from a population-based cohort.

8 **Design:** Among participants in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study with diabetes at
9 visit 3 (1993-1995), 1,339 (906 Caucasians, 433 African Americans) had serum 25-
10 hydroxyvitamin (25[OH]D) concentrations assessed at visit 2 (1989-1992) and nonmydriatic
11 retinal photographs taken at visit 3. Dietary intake of vitamin D was assessed at visit 1 (1987-
12 1989). Logistic regression was used to estimate odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals
13 (CIs) for diabetic retinopathy by categories of season-adjusted 25(OH)D (<30 [referent], 30-<50,
14 50-<75 and ≥ 75 nmol/L), by quartile of vitamin D intake (IU/day), and use of vitamin D or fish
15 oil supplements (yes/no). P for trend was estimated using continuous 25(OH)D or vitamin D
16 intake. ORs were adjusted for race, and duration of diabetes. We further adjusted for HBA_{1c} and
17 hypertension to examine if 25(OH)D influenced diabetic retinopathy via its effects on either
18 glycemic control or blood pressure.

19 **Results:** ORs (95% CIs) for retinopathy, adjusted for race and duration, were 0.77 (0.45-1.32),
20 0.64 (0.37-1.10), and 0.39 (0.20-0.75), p for trend=0.001, for participants with 25(OH)D of 30-
21 <50, 50-<75, and ≥ 75 nmol/L, respectively. Further adjustment for hypertension minimally
22 influenced results (data not show), but adjustment for HBA_{1c} attenuated the OR among those

23 with 25(OH)D \geq 75 (0.47 [0.23-0.96], p for trend=0.030). No statistically significant association
24 was observed between vitamin D intake from foods or supplements and retinopathy.

25 **Conclusions:** 25(OH)D concentrations \geq 75 nmol/L were associated with lower odds of any
26 retinopathy assessed three years later, perhaps in part via vitamin D's influence on blood glucose
27 control.

28

29 INTRODUCTION

30 Diabetic retinopathy is the leading cause of blindness in adults aged 20-74 years in the
31 United States. Among individuals with diabetes it has direct influences on quality of life and
32 functional independence of aging, affecting ~28.5% of people with diabetes \geq 40 years (1).
33 Modifiable nutritional factors may influence risk for diabetic retinopathy, but they have been
34 relatively understudied in epidemiologic investigations (2). Accumulating evidence from some
35 (3-12), but not all (13-19), epidemiologic studies suggest that vitamin D status may be a novel
36 modifiable risk factor for diabetic retinopathy.

37 Vitamin D status is hypothesized to affect risk for retinopathy (4) due to its
38 immunomodulatory properties (20) as chronic low grade inflammation is hypothesized to
39 promote the development of retinopathy (21). Vitamin D is also hypothesized to positively
40 regulate hypertension (22) and blood glucose control (23), both of which are strong risk factors
41 for retinopathy (24, 25).

42 Using data from the prospective, population-based Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities
43 (ARIC) Study, we investigated associations between vitamin D status, assessed with the blood
44 biomarker of serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D), and prevalent diabetic retinopathy
45 assessed from graded fundus photographs taken three years later among Caucasian and African
46 American participants with primarily type 2 diabetes (n=1,339). 25(OH)D reflects vitamin D
47 from all sources (sunlight, diet and supplements). We hypothesized that individuals with higher
48 25(OH)D concentrations would have lower odds of retinopathy than participants with lower
49 concentrations. We examined the extent to which this association was mediated by blood
50 pressure or blood glucose control. We also explored associations between self-reported intake of
51 vitamin D from foods and the odds of retinopathy.

52 **SUBJECTS AND METHODS**

53 *Study Sample*

54 The ARIC Study, a population-based prospective study (26), recruited participants from
55 Forsyth County, North Carolina; Jackson, Mississippi; the northwestern suburbs of Minneapolis,
56 Minnesota; and Washington County, Maryland. Eligible participants were between 45 and 65
57 years of age at visit 1(1987-1989) and intended to remain in the community in which they lived.
58 All participants provided signed informed consent and the study protocol was approved by the
59 institutional review boards at each ARIC study site.

60 The present analyses use data collected at visits 1 (1987-1989), 2 (1990-1992) and 3
61 (1993-1995). This study sample consists of Caucasian and African American participants who
62 were classified as having diabetes (fasting blood glucose of 126 mg/dl or non-fasting blood
63 glucose of 200 mg/dl; self-report of a diabetes diagnosis; or use of medication for diabetes in the
64 2 weeks prior to the visit) at study visit 3, had gradable retinal fundus photos at visit 3 and serum
65 25(OH)D measures at visit 2.

66 There were 15,792 participants enrolled at visit 1, of which 12,887 attended visit 3. We
67 excluded 796 participants who did not consent to use of their data to study outcomes other than
68 cardiovascular disease. Of the remaining 12,091 participants, 1,899 were classified as having
69 diabetes of whom 350 were missing data on retinopathy status (301 missing retinal photos and
70 49 with upgradable photos), 186 were missing serum 25(OH)D, 8 identified as neither African
71 American nor Caucasian, and 16 were missing data on pertinent covariates (glycosylated
72 hemoglobin A_{1c} [HBA_{1c}] or hypertension), providing a sample of 1,339 participants. Analyses
73 involving dietary vitamin D data had 1,305 participants due to missing data on diet at visit 1.

74 *Retinal Photography*

75 Diabetic retinopathy was determined from grading of fundus photographs taken at visit 3
76 of one randomly selected eye. Participants sat in a dark room for 5 minutes to allow for
77 nonpharmacological pupil dilation (27). One 45-degree nonmydriatic retinal photograph was
78 taken with a Canon CR-45UAF nonmydriatic film camera (Canon USA, Itasca, IL) and was
79 centered to include the optic disc and the macula (27). Fundus photographs were graded for the
80 presence and severity of retinopathy at the University of Wisconsin Fundus Photograph Reading
81 Center using a standard grading system, the modified Arlie House classification scheme (28).
82 Twenty-one percent (n=280 of 1,339) of participants had any retinopathy, of which 207 had mild
83 non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR), 44 had moderate to severe NPDR, 29 had
84 proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR), and 3 had macular edema.

85 *Assessment of 25(OH)D and other biomarkers*

86 Vitamin D status was assessed by analyzing participants' serum from fasting blood draws
87 taken at visit 2 for 25(OH)D concentrations (sum of 25[OH]D₂ and 25[OH]D₃) using liquid
88 chromatography in tandem with high-sensitivity mass spectrometry (LC-MS) (Waters Alliance
89 e2795; Waters, Milford, MA, USA) at the Collaborative Studies Clinical Laboratory at Fairview
90 University Medical Center (Minneapolis, MN), as previously described (29). The coefficient of
91 variation, representing sample processing and laboratory error was 10.9%. Differences in
92 25(OH)D concentrations due to season were accounted for using local regression (30). 25(OH)D
93 was regressed on day of blood draw and was conducted separately for Caucasians and African
94 Americans. Residuals were added back to the sample mean (60.09 and 47.43 nmol/L for
95 Caucasian and African Americans, respectively) and the season-adjusted values were used in all
96 further mentioned analyses.

97 *Assessment of dietary and supplemental vitamin D intake*

98 Dietary intake of vitamin D was assessed at visit 1 using a reliable and previously
99 validated Willett 66-item semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) (31, 32). At visit
100 3, participants were asked about their use of vitamin D and fish oil supplements, as source of
101 vitamin D. They were asked if they took fish oil (including omega-3 fatty acids,
102 eicosapentaenoic acid [EPA], cod liver oil), the duration of use, and the dose per week.
103 Participants were also asked whether or not they took vitamin D “on a regular basis,” but no
104 additional information was asked on duration of use or dose. There were 48 participants who
105 reported use of either vitamin D or fish oil at visit 3.

106 *Assessment of Covariates*

107 At each visit trained study personnel collected information on participants’ demographic
108 factors, health history, family health history, smoking, medication use and other potential risk
109 factors for cardiovascular disease (26). Blood collected at visit 2 (33) was assessed for serum
110 glucose, HBA_{1c} (34), hematocrit level (33), total plasma cholesterol, plasma triglyceride, low
111 density lipoprotein (LDL) and high density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol concentrations (35).

112 Physical activity was assessed at visit 1 using a modified version (36) of the previously
113 validated (37, 38) Baecke questionnaire from which we created a composite physical activity
114 index score ranging from 0 (low overall physical activity) to 6. Duration of diabetes was defined
115 as < 6 years and \geq 6 years determined using data on self-reported diabetes diagnosis, fasting and
116 non-fasting blood glucose levels, and diabetes medication use collected at visits 1, 2 or 3.
117 25(OH)D concentrations and other covariate data used in these analyses were assessed at visit 2
118 with the exception of information on education, diet, physical activity (visit 1), and duration of
119 diabetes (visit 3).

120 *Statistical Analysis*

121 Guided by the Institute of Medicine, vitamin D status was defined using 25(OH)D
122 concentrations (nmol/L) as deficient (<30), inadequate (>30 to ≤50), and using two categories
123 within the concentrations considered adequate (>50 to <75 and ≥75) (39). Participant
124 characteristics and risk factors for retinopathy were examined by vitamin D status, as well as by
125 presence of retinopathy (any versus none), using t-tests, ANOVAs or chi-square tests.

126 Logistic regression was used to estimate the odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence
127 intervals (95% CIs) for any prevalent retinopathy (both NPDR and PDR) by vitamin D status
128 with the referent category of deficient status (<30 nmol/L) (39). We also estimate the odds of
129 having PDR or macular edema (n=31) among participants with 25(OH)D ≥50 compared to <50
130 nmol/L. We had to apply the Firth bias-correction method for quasi-complete separation(40) due
131 to the low number of outcomes. The ORs and 95% CIs for retinopathy per 10 nmol/L difference
132 in 25(OH)D are also presented and p-for trend analyses were conducted using 25(OH)D as a
133 continuous variable.

134 Age, sex, race, education, duration of diabetes, smoking status, drinking status, ethanol
135 intake, physical activity index score, body mass index (BMI), waist circumference, hematocrit
136 level, LDL, HDL, total cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations were assessed as potential
137 confounders of the vitamin D status and retinopathy association. If these variables were
138 associated with either vitamin D status or prevalent retinopathy at a p-value of 0.20 or less, we
139 considered them for inclusion in the multivariable model. Using a forward, stepwise procedure,
140 only potential confounders that changed the ORs ≥10% were included in the adjusted model.
141 The multivariable model was also adjusted for hypertension status and HBA_{1c} (as a measure of
142 blood glucose control) to examine whether these variables mediated the 25(OH)D and
143 retinopathy association.

144 A sensitivity analysis was conducted restricting our sample to include only individuals
145 defined as having diabetes at both visits 2 (when 25[OH]D was measured) and 3. We wanted to
146 examine if the association between vitamin D status and retinopathy would change when the
147 sample was limited to those who were diagnosed with diabetes when 25(OH)D measures were
148 assessed. Effect modification of the vitamin D and retinopathy association by age, sex, race,
149 duration of diabetes and blood glucose control was explored by adding an interaction term to our
150 logistic regression models. A p-value <0.10 for the interaction term was considered statistically
151 significant.

152 Variation in 25(OH)D concentrations explained by dietary intake of vitamin D was
153 estimated using linear regression with season-adjusted 25(OH)D concentrations as the dependent
154 variable and dietary vitamin D intake as the independent variable. Adjusted ORs and 95% CIs
155 for retinopathy in quartiles 2 through 4 (with quartile 1 as the referent) for dietary vitamin D
156 intake (IU/day) and by category of reported frequency of consumption of vitamin D rich foods
157 (never consumers as the referent) were estimated. A p for trend using continuous vitamin D
158 intake or frequency of consumption, respectively, was estimated. We also estimated the odds of
159 retinopathy in those who reported using vitamin D or fish oil supplements.

160 **RESULTS**

161 Seven percent of participants had deficient vitamin D status (25[OH]D<30 nmol/L) and
162 59% and 16% had adequate status with 25(OH)D concentrations ≥ 50 and ≥ 75 nmol/L,
163 respectively (**Table 1**). Participants with adequate (≥ 75 nmol/L) compared to deficient vitamin
164 D status were less likely to have retinopathy, be women, be from Jackson, MS, and have
165 graduated high school, and they were more likely to be older and Caucasian. There was a greater
166 proportion of former (compared to never or current) smokers with adequate versus deficient

167 status. Individuals with adequate status had greater vitamin D intake, smaller waist
168 circumferences, were less likely to be obese, and more likely to be physical active. On average
169 their systolic blood pressure, HDL, glucose, and HBA_{1c} were lower, and their hematocrit and
170 triglycerides were higher. Those with adequate status were also less likely to have used insulin in
171 the last two weeks.

172 Of the 1,339 diabetic participants, 21% (n=280) had DR. In crude analyses, individuals
173 with 25(OH)D concentrations 50 to < 75 and ≥ 75 nmol/L had lower odds of retinopathy than
174 deficient individuals (**Table 2**). Only adjustment for race and duration of diabetes changed the
175 odds ratio greater than 10% and were included in the multivariable model. Adjustment for age
176 had no additional influence on the model and thus was not adjusted for in these analyses. After
177 adjustment for these covariates there was a significant 61% lower odds of retinopathy for those
178 with 25(OH)D concentrations ≥ 75 nmol/L, with a significant p for trend of 0.001 and a 13%
179 lower odds of retinopathy with each additional 10 nmol/L in serum 25(OH)D concentrations.
180 Further adjustment for HBA_{1c} attenuated the association, but did not remove statistical
181 significance. The odds of participants having proliferative diabetic retinopathy or macular edema
182 among those with 25(OH)D ≥ 50 nmol/L (19 out of 789 at risk) compared to those with
183 25(OH)D < 50 nmol/L (12 out of 550 at risk) was 1.48 (0.70-3.12) adjusted for race, duration,
184 HBA_{1c} and hypertension status. The adjusted odds ratio per 10 nmol/L difference in 25(OH)D
185 was 1.07 (0.89-1.29), p for trend=0.473.

186 The observed lower odds of retinopathy among participants with adequate compared to
187 deficient vitamin D status remained regardless of age, sex, race, duration of diabetes and
188 glycemic control, except for observations in the youngest age group (54 years and younger)
189 (**Table 3**). There were not statistically significant interactions. A sensitivity analysis removing

190 participants who were not classified as having diabetes at visit 2 (n=336), when 25(OH)D
191 concentrations were measured, did not substantially change the main findings. The odds of
192 retinopathy in participants with 25(OH)D ≥ 75 compared to < 30 nmol/L was 0.43 (0.21-0.88), p
193 for trend=0.005 after adjustment for race and duration and 0.54 (0.25-1.15), p for trend=0.055
194 with further adjustment for HBA_{1c} and hypertension status.

195 Dietary vitamin D intake of vitamin D from foods accounted for 1% of the between
196 person variation in 25(OH)D concentrations in this sample. No statistically significant
197 associations were found between vitamin D intake from foods and retinopathy (**eTable 1**).
198 Intake of 1 serving (3-5 ounces) of dark fish > 1 /week compared to never was associated with a
199 68% lower odds of retinopathy with a p for continuous trend of 0.060. Further adjustment by
200 intake of Ω -3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) did not attenuate this association (data not
201 shown). The odds of retinopathy among vitamin D and fish oil supplement users compared to
202 nonusers was 0.63 (0.25-1.64) with adjustment for race, duration of diabetes, HBA_{1c}, and
203 hypertension status.

204 **DISCUSSION**

205 We observed a dose-response association between 25(OH)D concentrations and diabetic
206 retinopathy, suggesting that individuals with higher 25(OH)D concentrations have lower odds of
207 prevalent retinopathy, primarily NPDR. No statistically significant association was observed
208 between 25(OH)D and severe disease (PDR or macular edema) although the number of cases
209 was small (n=31). A protective association with intake of vitamin D from all foods combined
210 was not observed. Assessment of dietary vitamin D intake does not likely reflect or enhance
211 vitamin D status as we found vitamin D intake only explained a minimal amount of the between
212 person variation in 25(OH)D concentrations in this sample. We did observe that frequent

213 consumption (>1 time per week) of dark fish compared to never eating this type of fish was
214 associated with a decreased odds for retinopathy. Fish are a rich source of vitamin D as well as
215 Ω -3 PUFAs (eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acid). Ω -3 have anti-inflammatory
216 properties (41), but adjustment for intake of Ω -3 PUFAs did not confound this association.

217 Previous research on the association between vitamin D status and diabetic retinopathy
218 has predominantly focused on samples of individuals with type 2 diabetes (3-8, 11-16, 18),
219 similar to ARIC, with some research focused on individuals with type 1 diabetes (9, 10, 17, 19).
220 A number of studies have compared groups of patients with diabetes to healthy controls,
221 examining 25(OH)D concentrations between those with and without diabetes and by prevalent
222 microvascular complications among those with diabetes (3, 5, 11, 13, 14, 16, 19). Evidence of a
223 protective association of 25(OH)D on prevalent retinopathy was found in three studies (3, 5, 11).
224 Limitations of these case-control studies include selection of individuals with diabetes from
225 clinic settings, small sample sizes ($n \leq 150$ for samples of individuals with diabetes) (5, 11, 13, 14,
226 16), lack of multivariate adjusted analysis (13, 16), possible overadjustment for strong
227 determinants of 25(OH)D concentrations and covariates in the causal pathway (19), and
228 assessment of retinopathy status from ophthalmologist examination rather than from
229 standardized grading of retinal fundus photographs (3, 5, 11, 13, 14, 16).

230 Results from cross-sectional studies using nationally representative surveys or cohorts
231 have generally suggested consistent protective associations between retinopathy status and
232 25(OH)D in individuals with type 1 (9, 10) and 2 diabetes (4, 6). Recent cross-sectional clinic-
233 based studies also support protective associations between 25(OH)D concentrations and diabetic
234 retinopathy (12, 18). Strengths of these studies include the use of graded, retinal photos (4, 6, 9,
235 10), adjustment for other confounding factors, and with the exception of a few (10, 18), were

236 relatively large (~500+ participants). These cross-sectional studies cannot establish temporality
237 of the vitamin D and retinopathy association, similar to the present study.

238 Only three studies to date have examined prospective associations between vitamin D
239 status and risk of retinopathy (8, 15, 17). No statistically significant association was observed
240 between 25(OH)D concentrations and the 26-year incidence of either background or proliferative
241 retinopathy among 220 patients with type 1 diabetes attending a diabetes center (17) or with the
242 5-year incidence or progression of retinopathy in the Veterans Affairs Diabetes Trial (n=955)
243 (15). A recent study of 9,524 participants with type 2 diabetes from the Fenofibrate intervention
244 and Event Lowering Diabetes (FIELD) Trial were followed for development microvascular
245 complications, including retinopathy determined by on-study laser treatment (not fundus
246 photography). (8) They observed a significant 13% (p=0.03) lower odds of microvascular
247 complications with each baseline 50 nmol/L difference in 25(OH)D. Further adjustment of the
248 multivariable model for HBA_{1c}, physical activity or seasonal variability attenuated the
249 association and removed its statistical significance. In our study, the association between
250 vitamin D status and retinopathy was also attenuated after adjustment for glycemic control. It is
251 unclear whether adjustment for HBA_{1c} confounds the observed association or results in over
252 adjustment because vitamin D protects against retinopathy via its influence on glycemic control.

253 Vitamin D is proposed to have a role in ocular health. Expression of the vitamin D
254 receptor (VDR) in the retina (42) and in human cultured retinal endothelial cells (43), support
255 this hypothesis. Further, the enzyme 1- α -hydroxylase, responsible for synthesis of 1,25(OH)₂D,
256 is expressed in the retina suggesting a local action of the hormone calcitriol (1,25(OH)₂D) in the
257 eye (42).

258 We propose vitamin D may help ameliorate the inflammatory state that is hypothesized to
259 promote retinopathy (21, 44). *In vitro* studies (45) and animal models of diabetes (46) suggest
260 that chronic low grade inflammation plays a role in the development of diabetic retinopathy.
261 Vitreous concentrations of cytokines have been found to be higher in patients with proliferative
262 retinopathy compared to persons without retinopathy (47) although evidence of associations
263 between biomarkers of systemic inflammation and diabetic retinopathy in epidemiologic studies
264 still remains inconclusive (48). The state of high blood glucose found in individuals with
265 diabetes is thought to increase adhesion of leukocytes to microvascular endothelial cells leading
266 to cell damage and impaired blood flow (46, 49) and consequential retinopathy lesions (50, 51).
267 We hypothesize that vitamin D may down regulate a localized, ocular, pro-inflammatory state of
268 retinopathy by suppressing pro-inflammatory cytokines and other toxic agents, as *in vitro* studies
269 suggest (52-54). This is supported by data showing that cells of the human immune system
270 express VDR (20) and a study in cultured endothelial cells showing that vitamin D reduces the
271 damaging effects of AGEs, thought to induce an inflammatory response (55).

272 The VDR is expressed in human pancreatic beta-cells (56) and the human insulin
273 receptor gene's promoter has a vitamin D response element (57), suggesting a possible role in
274 blood glucose control, however both *in vitro* studies cell cultures and *in vivo* studies of animal
275 model of diabetes examining the effect of 1,25(OH)₂D on beta cell function, insulin receptor
276 gene expression, and glucose uptake are inconclusive (58). A recent meta-analysis suggests no
277 association between randomized controlled vitamin D supplementation trials in humans and
278 glucose homeostasis or diabetes prevention, however this study could not make conclusions with
279 respect to the effect of long-term supplementation and micro- or macro-vascular complications
280 of diabetes (59).

281 Our study is limited by its cross-sectional design and the availability of retinal
282 photographs taken of one field from only one eye. There may be misclassification of endpoints
283 ascertained at visit 3. However, as the photographed eye was chosen randomly, we would expect
284 nondifferential misclassification of our endpoint which would bias our observed risk estimates
285 toward the null. We also could not adequately explore the association between vitamin D and
286 proliferative retinopathy due to the small number of participants with this outcome. Vitamin D
287 has been shown to inhibit angiogenesis in an animal model of oxygen-induced ischemic
288 retinopathy (60) and inhibit vascular endothelial growth factor and transforming growth factor- β_1
289 expression in retinal tissues of experimentally induced diabetes in rats (61).

290 Our study's strength include a well-defined population of individuals with diabetes and
291 availability of numerous, measured covariates that we could adjust for as potential confounding
292 factors, although we realize that residual confounding may exist. Our study was population-
293 based making it generalizable to the population of individuals with diabetes residing in the four
294 geographic areas in which the ARIC study was conducted. However, our results are most
295 generalizable to individuals with type 2 diabetes who comprised the majority of our sample. We
296 were able to examine this association in both Caucasians and African Americans, showing that
297 associations did not vary by race. We had retinal photographs, graded in a standardized fashion,
298 to assess retinopathy and 25(OH)D and assessed using LC-MS, the gold standard for vitamin D
299 assessment (62), with standardized, quality control measures taken. Our study contributes to the
300 body of evidence supporting a protective, association between 25(OH)D and prevalent diabetic
301 retinopathy that is consistent across racial groups. In conclusion, adequate vitamin D status,
302 25(OH)D concentrations ≥ 75 nmol/L, may be associated with reduced odds of diabetic

303 retinopathy. The influence of vitamin D on diabetic retinopathy may be, in part, via its influence
304 on blood glucose control.

305

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308 Public Health for providing data on HbA1c.

309

310 **FINANCIAL DISCLOSURE(S)/CONFLICT(S) OF INTEREST**

311 Kristin Meyers' affiliation was with the University of Wisconsin during her efforts on this
312 manuscript. As of February 2015, she has been an employee of Eli Lilly and Company and her
313 efforts on this manuscript have been limited to critical review. Other co-authors had not
314 conflicts of interest to disclose.

315

316 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

317 Dr. Amy Millen had full access to all of the data in the study and takes primary
318 responsibility for the final content of this manuscript.

319 Contribution of authors: AEM, MJL, PLL, JAM, BEKK, KJM, CAA, RK designed the
320 research study. AEM directed analyses with MWS and JN conducting the analyses and aiding in
321 data interpretation. AEM and MWS wrote the primary manuscript, with all co-authors aiding in
322 the interpretation of the data analysis and drafting of the manuscript. All authors read and
323 approved the final manuscript.

Reference to prior publication of the study in abstract form:

324 This work was previously presented as a poster at the 74th American Diabetes Association
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Table 1: Characteristics* by vitamin D status of Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes,† with gradable eye photo at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

	N	Vitamin D status defined by serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-value	r (p-value)‡
		<30 Deficient n=96 (7%)	30 to <50 Inadequate n=454 (34%)	50 to <75 Adequate n=577 (43%)	≥75 Adequate n=212 (16%)		
Season-adjusted serum 25(OH)D, mean (SD)	1339	24.5 (4.9)	41.7 (5.5)	61.2 (6.9)	88.6 (15.2)	<0.001	NA
Prevalence of retinopathy, n (% yes)	280	28 (29.2%)	111 (24.4%)	115 (19.9%)	26 (12.3%)	<0.001	§
Severity of retinopathy, n (%)						0.005	§
None	1059	68 (70.8%)	343 (75.6%)	462 (80.1%)	186 (87.7%)		
Mild NPDR	207	22 (22.9%)	82 (18.1%)	88 (15.3%)	15 (7.1%)		
Moderate/severe NPDR	44	3 (3.1%)	21 (4.6%)	15 (2.6%)	5 (2.4%)		
Proliferative DR	29	3 (3.1%)	8 (1.8%)	12 (2.1%)	6 (2.8%)		
Demographics							
Age (years), mean (SD)	1339	56.4 (5.7)	57.0 (5.6)	57.7 (5.6)	57.9 (5.5)	0.046	0.08 (0.003)
Sex, n (% women)	710	78 (81.3%)	293 (64.5%)	254 (44.0%)	85 (40.1%)	<0.001	§
Race, n (% Caucasians)	906	38 (39.6%)	249 (54.8%)	428 (74.2%)	191 (90.1%)	<0.001	§
Field center, n (%)						<0.001	§
Forsyth County, NC	308	20 (20.8%)	92 (20.3%)	136 (23.6%)	60 (28.3%)		
Jackson, MS	374	50 (52.1%)	168 (37.0%)	137 (23.7%)	19 (9.0%)		
Minneapolis, MN	286	14 (14.6%)	83 (18.3%)	136 (23.6%)	53 (25.0%)		
Washington County, MD	371	12 (12.5%)	111 (24.4%)	168 (29.1%)	80 (37.7%)		
Education , n (%) - visit 1						0.025	§
Basic or 0 years	370	25 (26.0%)	126 (27.9%)	154 (26.7%)	65 (30.7%)		
Intermediate	559	34 (35.4%)	193 (42.8%)	230 (39.9%)	102 (48.1%)		
Advanced	407	37 (38.5%)	132 (29.3%)	193 (33.4%)	45 (21.2%)		
Health and Lifestyle Characteristics							
Duration of diabetes, n (%) - visit 3						0.572	§
<3 years	300	26 (27.1%)	89 (19.6%)	131 (22.7%)	54 (25.5%)		
3 to 6 years	293	18 (18.8%)	106 (23.3%)	125 (21.7%)	44 (20.8%)		
≥6 years	746	52 (54.2%)	259 (57.0%)	321 (55.6%)	114 (53.8%)		
Smoking status, n (%)						0.034	§
Current	257	21 (21.9%)	97 (21.5%)	105 (18.2%)	34 (16.0%)		
Former	535	30 (31.3%)	168 (37.2%)	232 (40.2%)	105 (49.5%)		
Never	545	45 (46.9%)	187 (41.4%)	240 (41.6%)	73 (34.4%)		

Table 1: Characteristics* by vitamin D status of Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes,† with gradable eye photo at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

	N	Vitamin D status defined by serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-value	r (p-value)‡
		<30 Deficient n=96 (7%)	30 to <50 Inadequate n=454 (34%)	50 to < 75 Adequate n=577 (43%)	≥75 Adequate n=212 (16%)		
Vitamin D intake (IU/day), mean (SD) - visit 1	1305	164.2 (117.3)	232.5 (154.4)	239.7 (151.7)	261.8 (147.4)	<0.001	0.16 (<0.001)
Vitamin D supplement, n (% yes) - Visit 3	23	0 (0.0%)	8 (1.8%)	9 (1.6%)	6 (2.8%)	0.352	§
Fish oil supplement use, n (% yes) - Visit 3	31	0 (0.0%)	13 (2.9%)	12 (2.1%)	6 (2.8%)	0.362	§
Drinking status, n (%)						0.056	§
<i>Current</i>	616	37 (38.5%)	191 (42.2%)	277 (48.0%)	111 (52.4%)		
<i>Former</i>	364	24 (25.0%)	131 (28.9%)	155 (26.9%)	54 (25.5%)		
<i>Never</i>	358	35 (36.5%)	131 (28.9%)	145 (25.1%)	47 (22.2%)		
Waist circumference (cm), mean (SD)	1337	112.2 (15.5)	109.2 (15.8)	106.9 (13.2)	102.9 (12.5)	<0.001	-0.16 (<0.001)
BMI category (kg/m ²), n (%)						<0.001	-0.19 (<0.001)
<i>Under/normal weight (<25 kg/m²)</i>	164	6 (6.3%)	45 (10.0%)	70 (12.2%)	43 (20.4%)		
<i>Overweight (25-30 kg/m²)</i>	427	24 (25.0%)	135 (29.9%)	182 (31.6%)	86 (40.8%)		
<i>Obese (≥30 kg/m²)</i>	744	66 (68.8%)	272 (60.2%)	324 (56.3%)	82 (38.9%)		
Composite physical activity index - visit 1, mean (SD)	1335	2.2 (1.4)	2.7 (1.5)	3.0 (1.5)	3.3 (1.4)	<0.001	0.20 (<0.001)
Average diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg), mean (SD)	1339	73.3 (9.3)	73.4 (11.3)	72.7 (10.3)	72.1 (9.5)	0.435	-0.03 (0.238)
Average systolic blood pressure (mm Hg), mean (SD)	1339	127.9 (19.4)	129.0 (20.4)	126.0 (18.6)	125.1 (16.9)	0.028	-0.07 (0.008)
Hypertension¶, n (% yes)	738	56 (58.3%)	258 (56.8%)	317 (54.9%)	107 (50.5%)	0.424	§
Hematocrit (%), mean (SD)	1333	39.7 (4.2)	40.6 (3.8)	41.7 (3.7)	41.9 (3.4)	<0.001	0.17 (<0.001)
Total cholesterol (mg/dL), mean (SD)	1337	213.8 (38.0)	210.2 (40.5)	213.6 (41.9)	212.8 (42.5)	0.586	0.02 (0.406)
HDL (mg/dL), mean (SD)	1336	44.7 (12.0)	44.2 (14.4)	41.0 (13.4)	42.6 (14.2)	0.001	-0.09 (0.002)
LDL (mg/dL), mean (SD)	1279	138.8 (36.0)	133.2 (35.0)	135.5 (36.6)	133.9 (37.5)	0.504	0.01 (0.668)
Triglycerides (mg/dL), mean (SD)	1336	155.3 (82.2)	166.2 (98.3)	192.0 (132.0)	182.7 (104.9)	<0.001	0.08 (0.004)
Glucose (mg/dL), mean (SD)	1339	184.2 (89.5)	177.6 (76.6)	171.6 (74.7)	156.1 (62.3)	0.002	-0.11 (<0.001)
Glycosylated hemoglobin (%), mean (SD)	1339	7.8 (2.1)	7.7 (2.1)	7.4 (1.9)	6.9 (1.6)	<0.001	-0.14 (<0.001)
Insulin use in the past 2 weeks, n (% yes)	192	16 (16.7%)	81 (17.8%)	70 (12.1%)	25 (11.8%)	0.039	§

* Characteristics assessed at visit 2 unless otherwise noted.

† Individuals with diabetes were participants who had one of the following: 1) an 8 hour fasting glucose ≥126 mg/dL, 2) a non- fasting glucose ≥200 mg/dL, 3) use of diabetes medication in the past 2 weeks, or 4) self-reported being told by a doctor that they had diabetes.

Table 1: Characteristics* by vitamin D status of Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes,† with gradable eye photo at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

N	Vitamin D status defined by serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-value	r (p-value)‡
	<30 Deficient n=96 (7%)	30 to <50 Inadequate n=454 (34%)	50 to < 75 Adequate n=577 (43%)	≥75 Adequate n=212 (16%)		

‡ Spearman correlation coefficient and associated p-value for the correlation between season-adjusted serum 25(OH)D and the respective continuous variable.

§ Correlation coefficient not presented because characteristic was not a continuous variable.

|| Education defined as Basic or 0 years (≤11 years or less, i.e., high school with no degree or less), Intermediate (12-16 years, i.e., high school graduate or vocational school), Advanced (17-21 years, i.e., college or higher).

¶ Average systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mm Hg, or diastolic ≥ 90 mm Hg, or high blood pressure medication use in the past 2 weeks.

Table 2: Crude and adjusted OR and 95% CIs for the diabetic retinopathy by vitamin D status among Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes and having gradable eye photos at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

Model	Vitamin D status defined by serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-trend*	Continuous, Per 10 nmol/L
	<30 Deficient	30 to <50 Inadequate	50 to < 75 Adequate	≥75 Adequate		
# with retinopathy / # in category	28/96	111/454	115/577	26/212		
Crude Model	1	0.79 (0.48-1.28)	0.61 (0.37-0.98)	0.34 (0.19-0.62)	<0.001	0.85 (0.79-0.92)
Model 1 [†]	1	0.77 (0.45-1.32)	0.64 (0.37-1.10)	0.39 (0.20-0.75)	0.001	0.87 (0.81-0.95)
Model 1 + HBA _{1c} [‡]	1	0.81 (0.45-1.45)	0.70 (0.39-1.27)	0.47 (0.23-0.96)	0.030	0.91 (0.83-0.99)
Model 1 + hypertension status [‡]	1	0.77 (0.45-1.32)	0.63 (0.37-1.09)	0.38 (0.20-0.75)	0.001	0.87 (0.81-0.95)
Model 1 + HBA _{1c} + hypertension status	1	0.81 (0.45-1.46)	0.70 (0.39-1.25)	0.47 (0.23-0.96)	0.026	0.91 (0.83-0.99)

* p for trend calculated using season adjusted serum 25(OH)D as a continuous variable.

[†] Model 1: adjusted for race and duration of diabetes.

[‡] HBA_{1c} was entered as a continuous variable; hypertension status is defined as in Table 1.

Table 3: Adjusted OR and 95% CIs for diabetic retinopathy by vitamin D status stratified by age, sex, race, duration of diabetes, and HbA1c levels among Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes, with gradable eye photo at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

	Vitamin D status assessed with serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-trend*	Continuous, Per 10 nmol/L
	<30 Deficient	30 to <50 Inadequate	50 to < 75 Adequate	≥75 Adequate		
Age Group						
<i>47 to 54 years (n=471)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	8/40	40/172	33/195	10/64		
Adjusted OR (95% CI) [†]	1	1.20 (0.42-3.44)	0.90 (0.31-2.64)	1.44 (0.39-5.25)	0.800	1.02 (0.87-1.20)
<i>55-59 years (n=356)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	6/26	24/124	30/147	7/59		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.84 (0.23-3.04)	1.12 (0.31-4.08)	0.88 (0.19-4.07)	0.686	0.96 (0.80-1.16)
<i>60-64 years (n=332)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	9/19	30/103	35/149	5/61		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.43 (0.14-1.36)	0.39 (0.12-1.20)	0.10 (0.02-0.45)	0.011	0.80 (0.68-0.95)
<i>65 to 68 years (n=180)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	5/11	17/55	17/86	4/28		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.64 (0.13-3.09)	0.38 (0.08-1.81)	0.27 (0.04-1.69)	0.203	0.86 (0.68-1.08)
<i>p for interaction</i>	0.372					
Sex						
<i>Men (n=629)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	5/18	38/161	64/323	12/127		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.67 (0.19-2.36)	0.52 (0.15-1.79)	0.23 (0.06-0.89)	0.019	0.85 (0.75-0.97)
<i>Women (n=710)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	23/78	73/293	51/254	14/85		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.80 (0.41-1.59)	0.68 (0.33-1.38)	0.78 (0.31-1.97)	0.262	0.93 (0.82-1.05)
<i>p for interaction</i>	0.320					
Race						
<i>Caucasian (n= 906)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	10/38	55/249	73/428	23/191		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.72 (0.29-1.81)	0.52 (0.21-1.28)	0.40 (0.15-1.07)	0.072	0.91 (0.82-1.01)
<i>African American (n= 433)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	18/58	56/205	42/149	3/21		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.89 (0.42-1.89)	0.98 (0.45-2.16)	0.45 (0.10-2.15)	0.268	0.91 (0.77-1.08)
<i>p for interaction</i>	0.555					

Table 3: Adjusted OR and 95% CIs for diabetic retinopathy by vitamin D status stratified by age, sex, race, duration of diabetes, and HbA1c levels among Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes, with gradable eye photo at visit 3 (1993-95), and available serum 25(OH)D concentrations at visit 2 (1990-92) (N=1339)

	Vitamin D status assessed with serum 25(OH)D concentrations (nmol/L)				p-trend*	Continuous, Per 10 nmol/L
	<30 Deficient	30 to <50 Inadequate	50 to < 75 Adequate	≥75 Adequate		
Duration of diabetes						
<i>< 6 years (n=593)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	5/44	13/195	15/256	1/98		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.53 (0.17-1.60)	0.48 (0.16-1.45)	0.08 (0.01-0.72)	0.014	0.77 (0.62-0.95)
<i>≥6 years (n=746)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	23/52	98/259	100/321	25/114		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.99 (0.50-1.95)	0.84 (0.43-1.65)	0.68 (0.30-1.52)	0.219	0.94 (0.85-1.04)
<i>p for interaction</i>	0.417					
HbA_{1c} levels						
<i>≤ 7% (adequate control) (n=756)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	5/47	21/241	16/326	4/142		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.75 (0.26-2.13)	0.44 (0.15-1.29)	0.26 (0.06-1.07)	0.091	0.86 (0.73-1.02)
<i>> 7% (inadequate control) (n=583)</i>						
# with DR / # in group	23/49	90/213	99/251	22/70		
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.93 (0.47-1.83)	0.89 (0.45-1.77)	0.65 (0.28-1.51)	0.163	0.93 (0.83-1.03)
<i>p for interaction</i>	0.290					
*p for trend calculated using serum 25(OH)D as a continuous variable.						
†Model adjusted for race, duration of diabetes, HbA1c (continuous), and hypertension status. Strata of HbA1c are further adjusted for continuous levels of HbA _{1c} .						

The following table is meant to be online supporting material.

eTable 1. Adjusted* ORs and 95%CI for diabetic retinopathy by reported quartile (Q) of dietary vitamin D intake from foods (IU/day) and by frequency of consumption of vitamin D rich foods at visit 1 (1987-1989) among Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes and having gradable eye photos at visit 3 (1993-95) and dietary data at visit 1 (N=1305[†])

eTable 1: Adjusted* ORs and 95%CI for diabetic retinopathy by reported quartile (Q) of dietary vitamin D intake from foods (IU/day) and by frequency of consumption of vitamin D rich foods at visit 1 (1987-1989) among Caucasian and African American ARIC study participants classified as having diabetes and having gradable eye photos at visit 3 (1993-95) and dietary data at visit 1 (N=1305[†])

	Category of selected food intake by frequency of consumption				p-trend [‡]
Vitamin D intake (Q): (range)	Q1: (11.2 - 132.8)	Q2: (132.9 -203.5)	Q3: (203.5 - 300.5)	Q4: (301.0 - 1041.5)	
# with DR / # in group	58/326	69/326	77/327	70/326	
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	1.38 (0.88-2.17)	1.56 (1.00-2.44)	1.20 (0.76-1.89)	0.740
Skim or low fat milk (8 oz.)	Never	1/month to <1/day	1/day	>1/day	
# with DR / # in group	85/482	67/289	89/364	33/170	
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	1.65 (1.08-2.51)	1.72 (1.15-2.57)	1.13 (0.67-1.91)	0.596
Whole milk (8 oz.)	Never	1/month to <1/day	1/day	>1/day	
# with DR / # in group	185/880	59/294	22/95	8/36	
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	1.01 (0.69-1.49)	1.44 (0.80-2.57)	0.88 (0.35-2.23)	0.434
Dark fish (3 to 5 oz.)[§]	Never	1/month to <1/week	1/week	>1/week	
# with DR / # in group	139/687	85/374	41/188	9/56	
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	1.00 (0.70-1.43)	0.95 (0.60-1.51)	0.32 (0.14-0.78)	0.060
Other fish (3 to 5 oz.)[§]	Never	1/month to <1/week	1/week	>1/week	
# with DR / # in group	75/365	77/407	76/356	46/177	
Adjusted OR (95% CI)	1	0.76 (0.50-1.16)	0.80 (0.52-1.25)	1.16 (0.70-1.92)	0.638

* Odds ratios were adjusted for race, duration of diabetes, HBA_{1c} (continuous), and hypertension status.

[†] There were 34 participants of the 1,339 with missing dietary vitamin D data at visit 1

[‡] p for trend was calculated using dietary vitamin D intake or frequency of consumption of selected food at visit 1 as a continuous variable.

[§] Dark meat fish such as salmon, mackerel, swordfish, sardines, bluefish; other fish, such as cod, perch, catfish, etc.