



**Optimizing the management  
of your patients' vitamin D deficiency**  
*The value of vitamin D testing*



# Vitamin D deficiency

**Vitamin D deficiency is highly prevalent, particularly in the elderly and people with osteoporosis.<sup>1,2</sup>**

## **Epidemiology**

A high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency has been documented in many studies worldwide irrespective of age, health status or latitude.<sup>1</sup> However, vitamin D deficiency is particularly common in elderly populations, where osteoporosis is a frequent comorbidity (Table 1, Figure 1).<sup>1,2</sup> Clinical consequences of vitamin D deficiency in this population include an increased risk of falls<sup>3</sup> and fractures.<sup>4,5</sup> Clinical risk factors for vitamin D deficiency include decreased intake, principally due to limited sunlight exposure, and abnormalities in gastrointestinal, kidney and liver function.<sup>2</sup> Sufficient sunlight exposure is essential for maintaining adequate vitamin D levels, thus, features of 'modern living,' such as clothing habits, reduced time spent outdoors and the use of sunscreen, predispose individuals to vitamin D deficiency.<sup>2</sup> Factors influencing vitamin D status are shown in Table 2.<sup>6</sup>

**Patient population**

Nursing home or housebound residents, mean age 81 years

Elderly ambulatory women, aged > 80 years

Women with osteoporosis, aged 70–79 years

Patients with hip fractures, mean age 77 years

African American women, aged 15–49 years

Adult hospitalized patients, mean age 62 years

**Vitamin D deficiency (% patients)**

25–50%

44%

30%

23%

42%

57%

Table 1: Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency in commonly encountered clinical patient populations in the USA.<sup>2</sup>

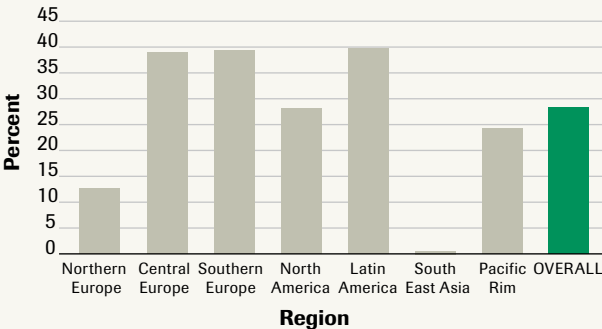


Figure 1: Prevalence of 25(OH) vitamin D < 20 ng/mL among 7,564 postmenopausal women with osteoporosis aged 31–80 years, by region.<sup>1</sup>

## A number of biological and environmental factors combine to influence vitamin D status.<sup>6</sup>

Table 2: Factors influencing vitamin D status.<sup>6</sup>

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### Factors influencing vitamin D status

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#### Synthesis of vitamin D from sunlight

Exposure to ultraviolet radiation

- Latitude
- Season
- Use of sunscreen
- Clothing

Skin

- Pigmentation
  - Temperature
  - Scarring e.g. burns
  - Age
- 

#### Bioavailability of vitamin D

Gastrointestinal malabsorption of vitamin D

- Celiac disease
- Biliary obstruction
- Chronic pancreatitis
- Liver failure
- Cystic fibrosis
- Crohn's disease
- Gastric bypass
- Bile acid-binding medication (e.g. colestyramine, colestipol)

Obesity

Enzyme activity

- 1- $\alpha$ -hydroxylase: Serum phosphorus, Parathyroid hormone, Genetic mutations
  - 25-hydroxylase: Concentration of 25(OH) vitamin D
  - Cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYP24, CYP3A4): Medications (phenobarbital, phenytoin, carbamazepine, rifampicin, antiretrovirals)
- 

#### Other factors

Kidney disease

- Chronic kidney disease
- Nephrotic syndrome

Liver disease

- Cholestatic liver disease
- Parenchymal liver disease
- Hepatic failure

Granulomatous disorders and malignancies

- Sarcoidosis, tuberculosis, fungal granulomas, berylliosis
  - Certain tumors (tumor-induced osteomalacia)
-

# Vitamin D plays a crucial role in calcium and bone metabolism.<sup>6</sup>

## Biological role of vitamin D

Vitamin D has been recognized as a vital component in bone metabolism and bone health since it was discovered almost a century ago. 1,25 (OH)<sub>2</sub> vitamin D, the only active form of vitamin D, plays a crucial role in calcium and bone metabolism by increasing bone turnover, increasing intestinal calcium absorption and decreasing parathyroid hormone (PTH) secretion (Figure 2).<sup>4,6</sup> In addition, vitamin D plays an important role in skeletal muscle function.<sup>4,5,7</sup> It is now thought that a combination of bone and muscle effects contribute to increased risk of falls and fractures associated with vitamin D deficiency.<sup>5,8</sup>

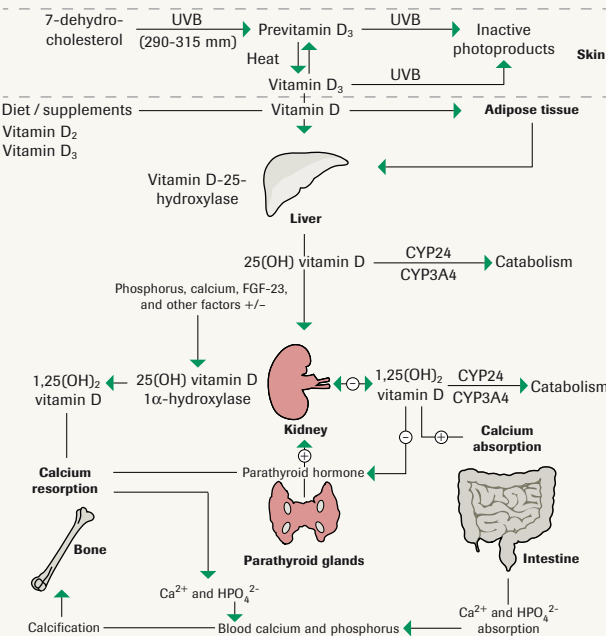


Figure 2: Vitamin D metabolism and effects.<sup>4</sup> Ca<sup>2+</sup>: calcium; FGF-23: fibroblast growth factor 23; HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>: phosphorus; UVB: ultraviolet B.

# Clinical benefits of vitamin D supplementation

## Vitamin D supplementation improves muscle strength, balance and mobility in the elderly.<sup>9–12</sup>

Supplementation with high-dose vitamin D has been shown to improve muscle strength, balance and mobility in elderly people with impaired muscle function.<sup>9–11</sup> The effect of vitamin D supplementation on muscle strength and mobility in elderly women (aged 70–90 years) was assessed in a 1-year, population-based, double-blind, randomized, controlled trial (RCT).<sup>9</sup> A total of 302 community-dwelling women with vitamin D deficiency were randomized to receive either vitamin D<sub>2</sub> (1,000 IU/day) plus calcium citrate (1 g/day) or calcium citrate (1 g/day) plus placebo. In those with baseline values in the lowest tertile of strength, vitamin D improved muscle strength (hip extensors 22.6%, hip adductors 13.5% [Table 3]). Mobility (timed up and go test) was significantly improved in those with impaired mobility at baseline (17.5%,  $p < 0.05$  [Fig. 3]).<sup>9</sup>

In addition, a meta-analysis of data from RCTs in elderly men and women aged  $\geq 60$  years demonstrated that vitamin D supplementation (800–1,000 IU/day) reduced postural sway ( $p = 0.04$ ), improved mobility (TUAG,  $p = 0.03$ ) and increased lower extremity strength ( $p = 0.04$ ).<sup>10</sup> In a 16-week, double-blind, placebo controlled trial in elderly men and women (aged  $\geq 70$  years) with vitamin D deficiency, vitamin D supplementation (8,400 IU/week) significantly ( $p = 0.047$ ) improved balance in a subgroup of patients who had a high level of mediolateral body sway at baseline.<sup>11</sup>

Tertile of strength (kg)	Mean (Standard Error) % difference in change (vitamin D vs placebo)
<b>Hip extensor</b>	
Lowest	22.6 % (9.5 %)*
Middle	-3.8 % (5.9 %)
Highest	-1.1 % (5.1 %)
<b>Hip adductor</b>	
Lowest	13.5 % (6.7 %)*
Middle	-6.8 % (4.5 %)
Highest	-0.2 % (4.2 %)

Values are mean (standard error), \* $p < 0.05$ .  
 Extensor: low =  $\leq 11$  kg, medium = 12-15 kg, high =  $\geq 16$  kg  
 Adductor: low =  $\leq 12$  kg, medium = 13-16 kg, high =  $\geq 17$  kg

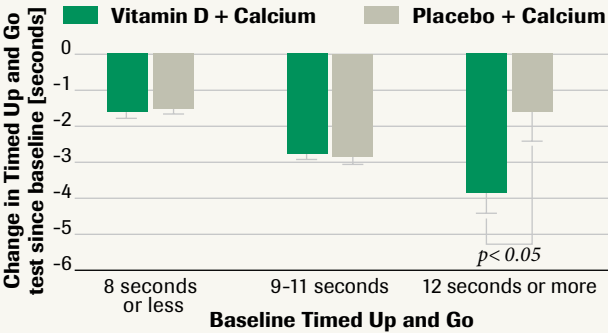


Table 3: Supplementa-  
 tion with high-dose  
 vitamin D (1,000 IU/  
 day) improves muscle  
 strength in elderly  
 women with vitamin D  
 deficiency and impaired  
 muscle strength.<sup>9</sup>

Figure 3: Supplementa-  
 tion with high-dose  
 vitamin D (1,000 IU/  
 day) improves mobility  
 in elderly women with  
 vitamin D deficiency  
 and impaired mobility.<sup>9</sup>

## High-dose vitamin D supplementation, in combination with calcium, significantly reduces the risk of falls in the elderly.<sup>12–16</sup>

### Prevention of falls

High-dose vitamin D supplementation ( $\geq 700$  IU/day), in combination with calcium, effectively reduces the risk of falling in elderly people ( $> 63$  years).<sup>12–15</sup> Supplementation with high-dose vitamin D reduces the number of fall incidents,<sup>12–15</sup> the number of people who fall,<sup>12,13</sup> the number of people with multiple falls<sup>14,16</sup> and the number of falls that require medical attention.<sup>16</sup> The reductions in the risk of falling have been demonstrated in community-dwelling elderly people<sup>12,15</sup> and in inhabitants of nursing homes.<sup>13,14,15</sup> A key factor in management of vitamin D deficiency is long-term maintenance dosing once the patient's 25(OH)D level is in the optimal range.<sup>2</sup> Adherence to a daily dose of at least 800 to 2,000 IU is required to avoid recurrence of vitamin D deficiency.<sup>2</sup>

In a study of 242 men and women (aged  $\geq 70$  years) with serum 25(OH) vitamin D levels below 31 ng/mL, supplementation with vitamin D (800 IU/day) and calcium (1,000 mg/day) reduced the number of people with first falls after 20 months by 39% compared with calcium alone ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Figure 4).<sup>12</sup>



In a meta-analysis of seven RCTs in men and women over 65 years of age, vitamin D supplementation ( $\geq 700$  IU/day,  $n = 1,921$ ) reduced the number of falls by 19%.<sup>15</sup> Furthermore, the analysis demonstrated that the higher the achieved level of 25(OH) vitamin D, the more pronounced the reduction in fall incidents. With 25(OH) vitamin D levels  $> 24$  ng/mL there was a significant reduction (23%) in falls whereas no significant effect was observed with 25(OH) vitamin D levels  $< 24$  ng/mL.<sup>15</sup>

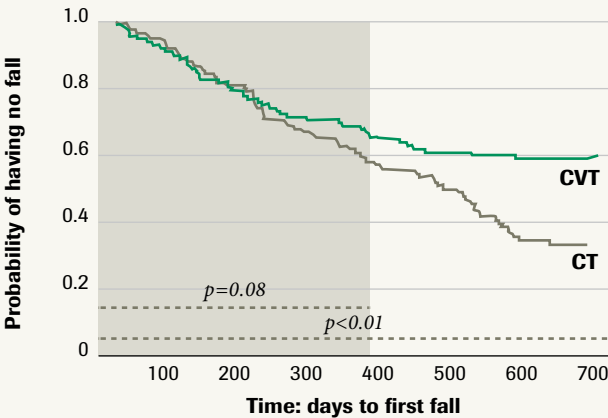


Figure 4: The probability of having a fall is significantly lower with calcium (1,000 mg/day) + vitamin D (800 IU/day) [CVT] compared with calcium alone (1,000 mg/day) [CT] in men and women aged  $\geq 70$  years.<sup>12</sup>

## High-dose vitamin D supplementation significantly reduces the risk of non-vertebral and hip fractures in the elderly and in postmenopausal women.<sup>17,18</sup>

### Prevention of fractures

A meta-analysis of double-blind RCTs demonstrated that high-dose vitamin D supplementation (482-770 IU/day) significantly reduced the risk of hip and nonvertebral fractures in elderly men and women ( $\geq 65$  years) by approximately 20%.<sup>17</sup> The relative risk (RR) [95% confidence interval, CI] was 0.80 [0.72–0.89] ( $n = 33,265$  individuals from 9 trials) for nonvertebral fractures and 0.82 [0.69–0.97] ( $n = 31,872$  individuals from 5 trials) for hip fractures (Figure 5). High-dose vitamin D supplementation reduced the risk of nonvertebral fractures in community-dwelling and institutionalized older individuals by 29% and 15% respectively, and the effects were independent of additional calcium supplementation. Hip fracture reduction was significant among community-dwelling individuals (21%) and among institutionalized individuals receiving cholecalciferol (28%).

In addition, the analysis found that the reduction in fracture risk increased with the 25(OH) vitamin D level achieved (Figure 6).<sup>17</sup>

In another meta-analysis of RCTs, high-dose vitamin D supplementation ( $> 700$  IU/day), in combination with calcium, significantly reduced the risk of nonvertebral

and hip fractures in postmenopausal women by 17.0% and 29.1% respectively.<sup>18</sup> RR [95% CI] was 0.77 [0.63–0.93, 4 studies] for nonvertebral fractures and 0.70 [0.53–0.90, 5 studies] for hip fractures.<sup>18</sup>

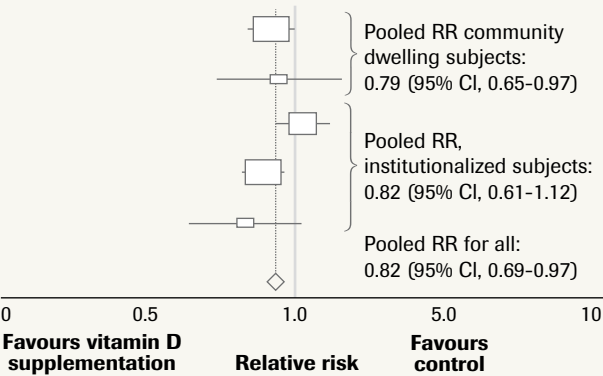


Figure 5: A meta-analysis of double-blind RCTs demonstrated that high-dose vitamin D supplementation (600–800 IU/day) reduces the risk of hip fractures in elderly men and women ( $\geq 65$  years).<sup>17</sup>

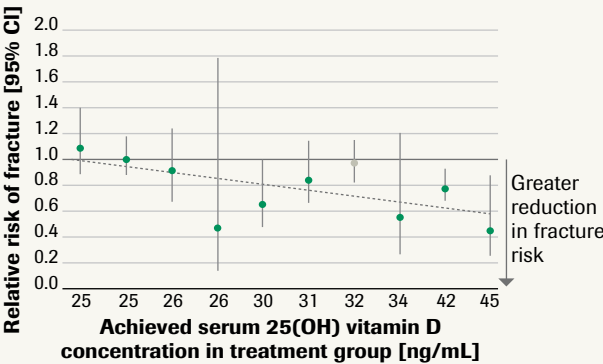


Figure 6: The reduction in non-vertebral fracture risk following high-dose vitamin D supplementation (482–770 IU/day) increases with the level of 25(OH) vitamin D achieved.<sup>17</sup> Each data point along the X-axis represents an individual trial.

● trials with cholecalciferol (D<sub>3</sub>)    ● trial with ergocalciferol (D<sub>2</sub>)  
----- trend line through the point estimates of all trials.<sup>17</sup>

# Vitamin D measurement

**Due to large interindividual variability, measurement of 25(OH) vitamin D is necessary, both before and during supplementation, to ensure optimal levels are reached.<sup>19–23</sup>**

## **Clinical rationale**

Measurement of 25(OH) vitamin D, before and during supplementation, is necessary for effective patient management.<sup>19–23</sup> Indeed, standard supplementation, in the absence of 25(OH) vitamin D measurement, can result in unnecessary polypharmacy for some elderly patients<sup>19</sup> as well as to the under-treatment of severe deficiencies.<sup>20</sup>

The need for accurate measurement of vitamin D levels during follow-up is related to the substantial interindividual variation in 25(OH) vitamin D serum levels post-supplementation (Figure 7).<sup>21–23</sup> Potential factors influencing vitamin D levels are listed in Table 4. However, interindividual variation has also been shown to remain after correction for body weight and baseline vitamin D levels.<sup>21</sup> Moreover, in a RCT in 60 community-dwelling women aged  $\geq 65$  years, 37% of the participants receiving vitamin D supplementation remained deficient in vitamin D after 6 months (Table 5).<sup>21</sup> These data highlight that one post-supplementation measurement may not be sufficient; further testing may enable the physician to adjust dosage and also ascertain patient compliance.

Given the large variations in vitamin D metabolism<sup>21–23</sup> and response,<sup>21</sup> alongside the documented dose-dependent

effect both of received and achieved dose,<sup>17</sup> effective measurement and monitoring of vitamin D has the potential to improve dose individualization and encourage compliance with therapy.

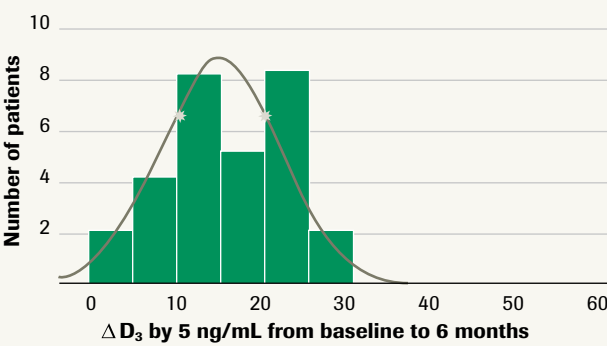


Figure 7: Substantial interindividual variation in serum levels of 25(OH) vitamin D following supplementation with vitamin D (1,000 IU/day).<sup>21</sup>

**Factors that may influence post-supplementation serum level of 25(OH) vitamin D**

Absorption rate
Adherence
Assay used
Body mass index
Dose/dosing frequency of supplementation
Endogenous vitamin D status (see table 2)
Pregnancy and lactation
Vitamin D baseline level
Vitamin D supplement type
Other medications

Table 4: Factors that may influence serum levels of 25(OH) vitamin D following supplementation.  
2,8,21,23,24,26,27

25(OH) vitamin D at 6 months, ng/mL	Patients % (n)
< 20	37% (10)
20-29.9	43% (13)
≥ 30	20% (6)

Table 5: Vitamin D deficiency persists in a high percentage of elderly women (≥ 65 years) despite high-dose vitamin D supplementation (1,000 IU/day).<sup>21</sup>

## **Expert opinion-based recommendations support the testing of high-risk groups in clinical practice at baseline and at 3 month intervals.<sup>2,8,24</sup>**

### **Target groups – Expert recommendations**

A number of recently published guidelines provide practical guidance on vitamin D measurement.<sup>2,8,24,25,26</sup> There is general consensus of expert opinion regarding the high-risk groups that would benefit from vitamin D testing (Table 6). Expert opinion is also generally similar for the recommended frequency of testing (baseline and at 3 months until a desirable level is achieved), although the precise target levels for serum 25(OH) vitamin D are a matter of debate (Figure 8).<sup>2,8,24,25,26,28</sup>

Furthermore, whilst serum 1,25(OH)<sub>2</sub>D testing can provide useful information in selected patients (e.g. with acquired/inherited disorders of vitamin D and phosphate metabolism), the Endocrine Society Task Force guidelines recommend performing serum 25(OH) D testing in patients at risk of vitamin D deficiency.<sup>26</sup>

Recommended populations for vitamin D testing

Patients likely to have (or be at risk of) bone loss due to:

- Osteoporosis or risk of osteoporosis<sup>8,24,26,29</sup>
- Osteomalacia or rickets<sup>8,26,29</sup>
- Fractures<sup>2,26</sup>
- Older age and a recent fall<sup>8,26,29</sup>
- Hyperparathyroidism<sup>26,29</sup>

Patients with decreased endogenous production of 25(OH)D, such as:

- Institutionalized or homebound patients<sup>8,24</sup>
- Individuals with decreased sunlight exposure or dark skin<sup>2,24</sup>

Patients with non-standard metabolism/catabolism of 25(OH)D due to:

- Obesity in children and adults (BMI >30kg/m<sup>2</sup>)<sup>8,26</sup>
- Pregnancy and lactation in women<sup>8,26</sup>
- Corticosteroid treatment<sup>8,26</sup>
- Malabsorption syndromes<sup>2,24,26,29</sup>
- Hepatic failure<sup>2,26</sup>
- Granulomatomas<sup>26,29</sup>
- Chronic kidney disease and transplant recipients<sup>2,8,26,29</sup>

Table 6: Consensus of expert recommendations for target populations for vitamin D testing.<sup>2,8,24,26,29</sup>

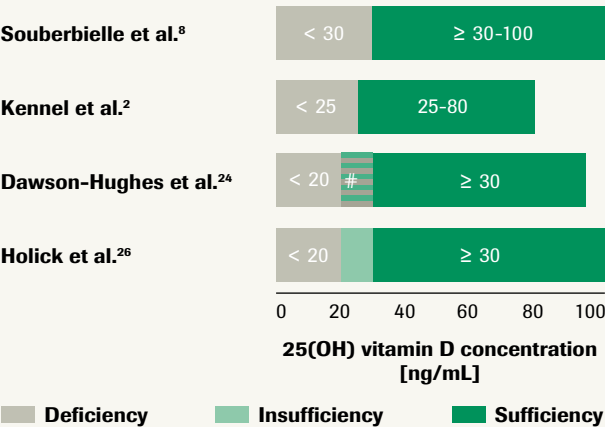


Figure 8: Expert recommendations for target levels of serum 25(OH) vitamin D. In this figure adaptation, vitamin D concentrations are expressed in ng/mL, where 1 ng/mL is equal to 2.496 nmol/L.<sup>2,8,25,26</sup>

#8 out of 10 of IOF Working Group agreed 30 ng/mL, remaining 2 felt target is 20-30 ng/mL

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