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## A collaborative analysis of individual participant data from 19 prospective studies assesses circulating vitamin $D$ and prostate cancer risk

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Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; EHNBPCCG, Endogenous Hormones, Nutritional Biomarkers and Prostate Cancer Collaborative Group; IGF-I, insulin-like growth factor-I; IGFBP3, IGF binding protein-3; OR, odds ratio; PSA, prostate-specific antigen; SHBG, sex hormone-binding globulin; TNM, tumor-node-metastasis; 1,25(OH) 2 D, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D; 25(OH)D, 25hydroxyvitamin D.


#### Abstract

Previous prospective studies assessing the relationship between circulating concentrations of vitamin D and prostate cancer risk have shown inconclusive results, particularly for risk of aggressive disease. In this study, we examine the association between pre-diagnostic concentrations of 25hydroxyvitamin $\mathrm{D}(25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D})$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ and the risk of prostate cancer overall and by tumor characteristics. Principal investigators of 19 prospective studies provided individual participant data on circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ for up to 13,462 men with incident prostate cancer and 20,261 control participants. Odds ratios (OR) for prostate cancer by study-specific fifths of seasonstandardized vitamin D concentration were estimated using multivariable-adjusted conditional logistic regression. $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration was positively associated with risk for total prostate cancer (multivariable-adjusted OR comparing highest versus lowest study-specific fifth was 1.22 , 95\% CI 1.13-1.31; P trend<0.001). However, this association varied by disease aggressiveness ( $\mathrm{P}_{\text {heterogeneity }}=0.014$ ); higher circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ was associated with a higher risk of non-aggressive disease (OR per 80 percentile increase=1.24, 1.13-1.36) but not with aggressive disease (defined as stage 4 , metastases, or prostate cancer death, $0.95,0.78-1.15) .1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentration was not associated with risk for prostate cancer overall or by tumor characteristics. The absence of an association of vitamin D with aggressive disease does not support the hypothesis that vitamin D deficiency increases prostate cancer risk. Rather, the association of high circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration with a higher risk of non-aggressive prostate cancer may be influenced by detection bias.


## Statement of significance

This international collaboration comprises the largest prospective study on blood vitamin D and prostate cancer risk and shows no association with aggressive disease but some evidence of a higher risk of non-aggressive disease.

## Introduction

It has been hypothesized that vitamin D deficiency may increase prostate cancer risk (1,2). A meta-analysis of 6 prospective studies published up to 2010 reported that circulating vitamin D concentrations were not related to prostate cancer risk (3); however, it was insufficiently powered to provide robust estimates of risk, especially for important disease subgroups. While the active hormonal form of vitamin D is 1,25 -dihydroxyvitamin $\mathrm{D}\left(1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}\right)$, which is mainly formed by hydroxylation of 25 -hydroxyvitamin $\mathrm{D}(25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D})$ in the kidney under the control of parathyroid hormone, circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration is regarded as the most informative indicator of vitamin D status.

The Endogenous Hormones, Nutritional Biomarkers and Prostate Cancer Collaborative Group (EHNBPCCG) was established to conduct collaborative reanalyzes of individual data from prospective studies on the relationships of circulating hormone concentrations and nutritional biomarkers with prostate cancer risk $(4,5)$. With pooled individual participant data on pre-diagnostic circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations from 19 prospective studies (with up to 13,462 men with incident prostate cancer), this analysis aimed to provide precise estimates of the association of circulating vitamin D with prostate cancer risk and to investigate whether these associations differed by tumor characteristics or time from blood collection to diagnosis. We also examined the cross-sectional relationships between lifestyle factors and vitamin D concentrations.

## Material and methods

## Data collection

Published and unpublished studies were eligible for the current analysis if they had data on pre-diagnostic circulating concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ or $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ and incident prostate cancers.

Studies were identified using literature search methods from computerized bibliographic systems and by discussion with collaborators, as described previously (4,5). Data were available for 19 prospective studies by dataset closure in May 2018.

Individual participant data were requested on circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, date, age and fasting status at sample collection, marital status, ethnicity, educational attainment, family history of prostate cancer, height, weight, waist and hip circumference, smoking status, alcohol intake, and vital status. Each study also provided data on prostate cancer stage and grade and death, if available, and the data were harmonized in a central database. Further details on data collection and processing are provided in the Supplementary Methods.

## Study designs and data processing

The characteristics of the included studies are shown in Supplementary Table 1 and details of the assay methods are shown in Supplementary Table 2. Most of the studies were case-control studies nested within prospective cohort studies. Data on the control participants from The Prostate Testing for Cancer and Treatment (ProtecT) trial are included in cross-sectional analyses of vitamin D concentrations in relation to participant characteristics, but because cases were diagnosed at the start of the study rather than during follow-up, these data were not included in the main risk analyses. Written informed consent was obtained from study participants at entry into each cohort or was implied by participants' return of the enrolment questionnaire. The study protocols were approved by institutional review boards of each study center.

Prostate cancer was defined as being 'early' stage if it was tumor-node-metastasis (TNM) stage T1 with no reported lymph node involvement or metastases, or stage I; ‘other localized' stage if it was TNM stage T2 with no reported lymph node involvement or metastases, stage II, or the equivalent; 'advanced' stage if it was TNM stage T3 or T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1, stage III-IV, or the equivalent; or stage unknown. Aggressive disease was categorized as "no" for TNM stage T0,

T1, T2 or T3 with no reported lymph node involvement and no metastases or equivalent, "yes" for TNM stage T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1 and/or stage IV disease and/or death from prostate cancer, or "unknown". Histological grade was defined as 'low-intermediate' if the Gleason sum was < 8 or equivalent, 'high' grade if the Gleason sum was $\geq 8$ or equivalent, or grade "unknown". Fatal cases were men who died of prostate cancer during follow-up.

## Statistical analyses

$25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations were log-transformed to approximate a normal distribution for parametric analyses. To allow for the influence of month of blood draw on circulating concentrations, a regression model of log-transformed vitamin D concentration by month of blood collection was fitted for each study. All results are presented by season-standardized vitamin D, unless otherwise specified.

The main method of analysis was logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables within each study. Men were categorized into fifths of the distribution of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, with cut-points defined by the study-specific quintiles of the distribution within control participants, to allow for any systematic differences between the studies in assay methods and blood sample types (6). Linear trends were calculated by replacing the categorical variable representing the fifths of each analyte with a continuous variable that was scored as $0,0.25,0.5,0.75$, and 1 ; a unit increase in this variable can be taken to represent an 80 percentile increase in the study-specific concentration of vitamin D. To examine the effects of potential confounders (other than the matching criteria, which were taken into account in the study design and matched analyses), conditional logistic regression analyses included the following covariates: age at blood collection, body mass index (BMI), height, marital status, educational status, and cigarette smoking, all of which were associated with prostate cancer risk in these analyses.

In a sensitivity analysis, conditional logistic regression models were also fitted using quintile cut-points defined by the overall distribution among the control participants in all studies combined. The analyses were also repeated using predefined categories for concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ of $<30$, $30-<50,50-<75$ and $\geq 75 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, in order to investigate risks associated with very low (deficiency), low (insufficiency), moderate (sufficiency) and high circulating concentrations of vitamin D based on the Institute of Medicine recommendations (7).

For each analyte, heterogeneity in linear trends between studies was assessed by comparing the $\chi^{2}$ values for models with and without a (study) x (linear trend) interaction term. Tests for heterogeneity for the case-defined factors were obtained by fitting separate models for each subgroup and assuming independence of the ORs using a method analogous to a meta-analysis, in which controls in each matched set were assigned to the category of their matched case. Tests for heterogeneity for non-case defined factors were assessed with $\chi^{2}$ tests of interaction between subgroups and the binary variable.

In order to assess potential effect modification with different biomarkers, a $\chi^{2}$ test of interaction was used to determine whether risks by study-specific thirds of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ varied according to study-specific thirds of $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ (and vice versa), and according to study-specific thirds of circulating concentrations of insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF)-I, IGF binding protein-3 (IGFBP3), testosterone, free testosterone, sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) and prostatespecific antigen (PSA), where these data were available.

The cross-sectional associations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ with participant characteristics (among controls only) were examined using analyses of variance to calculate geometric mean concentrations and 95\% confidence intervals (CIs), adjusting for study and age at blood collection, as appropriate.

All tests of statistical significance were two-sided, and statistical significance was set at the 5\% level. All statistical tests were carried out with Stata Statistical Software, Release 14 (StataCorp, LP, College Station, Texas). Full details of the statistical analyses are provided in the Supplementary Methods.

## Results

Details of the 19 participating studies are shown in Table 1. Data on $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D concentrations were available for 13,462 men who subsequently developed prostate cancer and 20,261 control participants, and for $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations for 1,885 case and 2,114 control participants. Mean age at blood collection across the studies ranged from 46.5 ( $\mathrm{SD}=4.2$ ) to 76.3 (3.6) years. Blood collection preceded prostate cancer diagnosis by an average of 8.5 years ( $\mathrm{SD}=6.0$ years), although there was a wide variation among the studies (Table 2). On average, cases were 67.5 years old (SD = 7.3 years) at diagnosis and most ( $87.1 \%$ ) were diagnosed after 1994. The majority of cases with information on stage and grade of disease had localized (early or other localized) disease (ranging from $47.8 \%$ to $99.0 \%$ of case patients across studies) and low-intermediate grade tumors (ranging from $75.8 \%$ to $100 \%$ of case patients). Concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ varied significantly by month among both the cases and controls (Supplementary Figure 1).

Associations between circulating vitamin D concentrations and prostate cancer risk
$25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration was linearly positively associated with risk for total prostate cancer (Figure 1); the multivariate-OR for prostate cancer for men in the highest compared with the lowest study-specific fifth was 1.22 ( $95 \%$ CI 1.13 to 1.31 ; P trend $<0.001$ ). The association was similar when only the matching factors were taken into account (Supplementary Figure 2) and there was no evidence of heterogeneity between the contributing studies (Figure 2A). When 25(OH)D was
categorized into study-specific tenths, the OR for the highest versus the lowest tenth was 1.34 (1.20 to 1.49 ; P trend $<0.001$, Supplementary Table 3).

There was no evidence of an association between $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentration and risk for total prostate cancer (see Figures 1 and 2B). The association was similar when only the matching-factors were taken into account (Supplementary Figure 2).

In sensitivity analyses that used overall quintile cut-points of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ across all studies combined (rather than study-specific cut-points), the ORs for total prostate cancer were materially unchanged (Supplementary figure 3). When the analyses were repeated using predefined cut-points for $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$, multivariable-adjusted ORs for total prostate cancer were $0.84(0.76-0.93), 0.89(0.84-$ 0.95 ) and 1.07 (1.00-1.13), respectively, for men with $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}<30$ (at risk for deficiency), 30-49 and $\geq 75 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ compared to those with concentrations of 50-74 nmol/L (Supplementary Table 4).

While there was no evidence of heterogeneity in the association of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ with risk by stage of disease, there were differences by disease aggressiveness ( P heterogeneity $=0.014$ ): the OR for an 80 -percentile increase in $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D was $1.24,1.13-1.36$ for non-aggressive disease (T1T3/N0/M0) and 0.95, 0.78-1.15 for aggressive disease (T4, N1, M1 and/or fatal prostate cancer). Similar differences were also seen between low-intermediate and high-grade disease, although these differences were not statistically significant (Figure 3). There was no association between circulating $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D concentrations and fatal prostate cancer (Figure 3). Supplementary Figure 4 shows results from categorical analyses of the associations of study-specific fifths of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ with risk for advanced stage, aggressive disease and high-grade prostate cancer.

There was no evidence of heterogeneity in risk of total prostate cancer associated with $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ according to time to diagnosis or other participant characteristics (Figure 3), including season of blood draw (Figure 4A) or by circulating concentrations of 1,25(OH) 2 D, IGF-I, IGFBP-3, testosterone, free testosterone, SHBG or PSA (Supplementary Table 5A to 5G).

For $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, there was no evidence of heterogeneity by season of blood draw (Figure 4B), time to diagnosis or other tumor characteristics (Supplementary Figure 5). There was some evidence of heterogeneity by family history of prostate cancer, with a positive association for men with a positive family history of the disease ( P heterogeneity $=0.03$; multivariable-adjusted OR for an 80 percentile increase $=2.26,95 \%$ CI 1.19-4.32, Supplementary Figure 4), although this was based on small numbers. There was no evidence of heterogeneity by season of blood draw (Figure 4).

Vitamin D concentrations in relation to other participant and sample characteristics

Concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ were significantly but not strongly correlated with each other $(\mathrm{r}=0.13, \mathrm{p}<0.001)$. In the subset of control participants with data available on other analytes, circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration was weakly correlated with sex hormones and other analytes (Supplementary Table 6), but neither $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ nor $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentration was correlated with PSA ( $\mathrm{r}=0.01$ for both). After adjustment for age, $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration was lower in men who were obese, current smokers, poorly educated, unmarried and non-drinkers (Figure 5). $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ displayed generally similar associations (Supplementary Figure 6).

## Discussion

This collaborative analysis of individual participant data does not support the hypothesis that vitamin D deficiency and/or insufficiency increases the risk of prostate cancer. Higher 25(OH)D levels were associated with an increased risk of non-aggressive disease, with no association for aggressive disease. We also found no evidence that circulating concentration of $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ was related to risk for prostate cancer, overall or by tumor characteristics.

This collaborative analysis includes information from the vast majority (>90\%) for $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $85 \%$ for $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ of the published prospective data. Of the 24 studies with published data on
$25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$, seven did not contribute data to this collaboration, all of which had fewer than 200 incident cases and reported inconsistent findings (8-13). Combining the results of the current analyses with those of six of the seven additional studies (for whom data could be extracted to perform a meta-analysis), did not change the overall finding (summary relative risk of highest compared with the lowest fifth of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}=1.21,95 \%$ CI 1.13-1.30), suggesting that inclusion of participant-level data from these studies would not have materially altered the results. Two studies with published data on $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ did not contribute data, one of which reported an inverse association (based on 181 cases, RR not given for $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ alone) $(10,14)$ and another that found no association (based on 136 cases) (9). Including these two studies would not have materially changed our results. Thus, we believe that the findings from the current study provide a reliable summary of the totality of the evidence on the association between circulating vitamin D concentrations and prostate cancer risk.

Our findings do not appear to support the evidence from experimental research using cell lines and animal models that vitamin D compounds may promote cell differentiation, inhibit prostate cancer cell growth and invasion, and stimulate apoptosis $(15,16)$. While there are no published data from adequately powered randomized controlled trials for the effects of vitamin D supplementation on prostate cancer incidence, two large recent studies have exploited GWAS-identified variation in genes related to vitamin-D synthesis, metabolism and binding to study the possible relationship with prostate cancer risk. A Mendelian randomization analysis of data from up to 69,837 prostate cancer cases in the PRACTICAL and GAME-ON consortia found no evidence for an association with risk for either total (OR in PRACTICAL per genetically-determined $25 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ increase in 25(OH)D concentration $=0.95,95 \%$ CI $0.80-1.13 ; \mathrm{P}=0.55)$ or aggressive prostate cancer $(\mathrm{OR}$ in GAME-ON $=1.14,0.85-1.54 ; \mathrm{P}=0.38)(17)$.

It is possible that our finding of a positive association between overall and non-aggressive prostate cancer risk and circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentration may be explained by detection bias, in that health-conscious men who may be more likely to have a higher sun exposure, a higher dietary intake of vitamin D and/or vitamin D supplementation, are more likely to have a PSA test or to seek medical attention with early symptoms. The observation that vitamin D deficiency was associated with a reduced risk of prostate cancer and higher levels with an increased risk (particularly for nonaggressive disease) supports this hypothesis. Nonetheless, a positive association between $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and prostate cancer risk was reported in both the PLCO and PCPT studies, in which almost all men had either regular PSA testing (as data were provided solely from the screening arm in PLCO and PCPT) or had an end-of-study biopsy (PCPT), suggesting that factors other than detection bias may be involved.

It is difficult to draw conclusions from the current pooled analyses of $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ as only a small number of prospective studies have measured this analyte. While circulating $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations are considered to be tightly regulated within a narrow range (18), we found some evidence of seasonal variation in $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations, similar to that of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$, and also differences in concentrations according to age, adiposity, cigarette smoking status and alcohol consumption. It is difficult to determine the extent to which these associations are due to crossreactivity of the $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ assay with $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ (or other molecules), although the correlation between $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ was weak $(\mathrm{r}=0.13)$ and there was no evidence for an association between $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ and prostate cancer risk.

A number of previous studies have evaluated the joint association of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ with prostate cancer risk $(9,19-21)$, but their sample sizes were small. We found no evidence that the association of prostate cancer risk with $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ is modified by circulating concentrations of $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, although even in this collaborative pooled dataset, there are still
relatively few cases $(\mathrm{n}=1,885)$ with data on both vitamin D analytes. It has also been hypothesized that vitamin D may influence tumor growth by modulating the action of growth factors, such as IGFI, that normally stimulate proliferation (16), for example by stimulating the release of IGFBP-3 (22). We observed weak correlations of circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ or $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations with IGF-I, IGFBP-1, IGFBP-2 and IGFBP-3 concentrations and with levels of other blood biomarkers (e.g. free testosterone or PSA), and there was no evidence of modification of the association of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ with risk according to these biomarkers.

This study has some limitations. The calculated relative risks were based on single measurements of vitamin D , which may not accurately reflect long-term circulating concentration. Several studies have found moderate correlations between two measures of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$, even when the samples were not taken at the same time of the year, with correlations between 0.42 and 0.70 in blood taken between 3 to 14 years apart (reviewed in (23)). These findings suggest that a single measure of circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ is an informative measure of vitamin D status, at least over the medium term. The published prospective data on vitamin D and risk for aggressive prostate cancer subtypes are still relatively limited. Thus, even in this pooled analysis, the total number of cases with aggressive disease and data on $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ is relatively small $(\mathrm{n}=1,446)$, therefore the results by tumor sub-type should be interpreted with some caution. Moreover, we don't have detailed data on other sun exposure measures, such as solar radiation levels in each study location, which would also vary within each individual study depending on where each participant lives. Finally, more than $95 \%$ of participants included in this pooled analysis were of White ethnicity, and results may therefore not be generalizable to non-White populations.

In summary, this collaborative analysis of the worldwide data on circulating vitamin D and prostate cancer risk suggests that a high vitamin D concentration is not associated with a lower risk of prostate cancer. Rather, the findings suggest that men with elevated circulating concentrations of
$25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ are more likely to be diagnosed with non-aggressive prostate cancer, though this may be due to detection bias. There was no evidence for an association with aggressive disease, suggesting that vitamin $D$ is not casually related to the risk of prostate cancer.

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Table 1. Participant characteristics by study and case-control status ${ }^{\text {a }}$

| Prospective studies (First author, year) | Casecontrol status | Number | Age at recruitment (y) | $\text { BMI }\left(\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$ | Married or cohabiting (\%) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Higher education (\%) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Current smoker (\%) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Intake of alcohol (g/d) | Family history of prostate cancer (\%) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Geometric mean concentration ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}$ ) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{2 F O H}^{\mathbf{2 5}(\mathrm{OH}) \mathbf{D}^{\mathbf{c}}} \\ (\mathrm{nmol}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathbf{1 , 2 5 ( \mathrm { OH } ) _ { 2 } \mathrm { D } ^ { \mathbf { c } }} \\ (\mathrm{pmol} / \mathrm{L}) \end{gathered}$ |
| ARIC (Unpublished) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Case | 700 | 55.4 (5.7) | 27.5 (4.0) | 88.3 | 17.9 | 20.6 | 9.1 (15.9) | 13.3 | 60.1 (58.6-61.7) | - |
|  | Control | 2752 | 55.2 (5.7) | 27.5 (4.2) | 85.8 | 11.6 | 26.9 | 9.9 (18.3) | 6.2 | 59.7 (58.8-60.5) | - |
| ATBC (Albanes et al., 2011) | Case | 996 | 58.4 (5.2) | 26.3 (3.6) | 82.5 | 6.1 | 100 | 17.3 (23.2) | 7.3 | 32.6 (31.4-33.8) | - |
|  | Control | 996 | 58.4 (5.1) | 26.1 (3.7) | 81.4 | 4.3 | 100 | 15.4 (19.5) | 3.5 | 31.4 (30.2-32.6) | - |
| CLUE 1 (Braun et al., 1995) | Case | 61 | 58.3 (8.5) | - | 91.8 | 11.5 | 29.5 | - | - | 82.1 (76.3-88.2) | 94 (87-102) |
|  | Control | 122 | 58.3 (8.5) | - | 86.9 | 9.8 | 25.4 | - | - | 79.0 (74.7-83.4) | 91 (85-97) |
| EPIC (Travis et al., 2010) | Case | 652 | 60.4 (6.3) | 26.7 (3.4) | 88.8 | 24.9 | 20.3 | 19.1 (23.9) | - | 53.8 (52.3-55.3) | - |
|  | Control | 752 | 59.9 (6.3) | 26.8 (3.5) | 88.6 | 19.8 | 22.6 | 17.0 (19.9) | - | 53.2 (51.8-54.7) | - |
| ESTHER (Ordonez-Mena et al., 2013) | Case | 216 | 64.3 (5.1) | 27.3 (3.1) | 83.9 | - | 13.9 | 16.6 (19.7) | 5.1 | 55.3 (51.7-59.1) | - |
|  | Control | 841 | 64.3 (5.1) | 28.0 (4.2) | 84.6 | - | 14.6 | 14.2 (15.3) | 3.8 | 54.2 (52.6-55.8) | - |
| FMC (Unpublished) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Case | 161 | 57.9 (10.4) | 25.8 (3.1) | 90.6 | - | 29.0 | - | - | 51.5 (47.6-55.6) | - |
|  | Control | 286 | 57.2 (10.4) | 26.1 (3.6) | 85.0 | - | 34.9 | - | - | 50.4 (47.8-53.0) | - |
| HIMS (Wong et al., 2014) | Case | 332 | 76.4 (3.7) | 26.4 (3.5) | 86.7 | 22.9 | 4.5 | 11.7 (15.5) | - | 66.8 (64.5-69.2) | - |
|  | Control | 1317 | 76.3 (3.6) | 26.5 (3.7) | 86.2 | 21.7 | 4.6 | 11.8 (16.1) | - | 64.3 (63.1-65.5) | - |
| HPFS (Platz et al., 2004; Mikkah et al., 2007; Shui et al., 2012) | Case | 1326 | 63.8 (7.8) | 26.0 (3.3) | 92.7 | 100 | 4.4 | 11.8 (15.4) | 14.4 | 68.1 (66.5-69.7) | 83 (81-86) |
|  | Control | 1326 | 63.7 (7.8) | 26.1 (3.5) | 93.0 | 100 | 3.5 | 11.6 (15.8) | 10.6 | 66.2 (64.4-68.0) | 83 (81-85) |
| Janus part 1 (Tuohimaa et al., 2004) | Case | 575 | 46.5 (4.3) | 25.4 (3.1) | - | - | 60.6 | - | - | 52.1 (50.6-53.7) | - |
|  | Control | 2233 | 46.5 (4.2) | 25.1 (3.2) | - | - | 62.3 | - | - | 49.7 (49.0-50.4) | - |
| Janus part 2 (Meyer et al., 2013) | Case | 2106 | 47.7 (9.2) | 25.5 (3.0) | - | - | 32.8 | - | - | 60.4 (59.6-61.3) | - |
|  | Control | 2106 | 47.7 (9.2) | 25.6 (3.0) | - | - | 34.5 | - | - | 58.7 (57.9-59.6) | - |
| JPHC (Sawada et al., 2017) | Case | 201 | 59.5 (6.4) | 23.4 (2.4) | 100 | - | 34.3 | 26.9 (31.7) | 0.5 | 86.9 (82.7-91.3) | - |
|  | Control | 402 | 59.2 (6.6) | 23.3 (2.6) | 100 | - | 40.8 | 31.6 (47.6) | 0.0 | 85.6 (82.7-88.6) | - |
| MCCS (Unpublished) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Case | 818 | 58.4 (7.4) | 27.1 (3.4) | 82.7 | 30.7 | 8.3 | 17.9 (22.8) | - | 52.5 (51.3-53.8) | - |
|  | Control | 1151 | 56.4 (7.7) | 26.9 (3.4) | 78.2 | 26.9 | 12.9 | 17.8 (23.9) | - | 50.2 (49.1-51.2) | - |
| MDCS (Brandstedt et al., 2012) | Case | 910 | 61.3 (6.4) | 26.3 (3.3) | 77.8 | 14.6 | 22.2 | 14.9 (14.6) | - | 83.4 (81.8-85.0) | - |
|  | Control | 910 | 61.1 (6.4) | 26.1 (3.3) | 75.7 | 12.6 | 26.7 | 14.6 (14.2) | - | 82.0 (80.4-83.6) | - |
| MEC (Park et al., 2010) | Case | 329 | 68.9 (7.1) | 26.6 (4.0) | 77.1 | 34.0 | 14.1 | 23.3 (44.1) | 13.9 | 77.6 (74.2-81.2) | - |
|  | Control | 656 | 68.7 (7.2) | 26.8 (4.0) | 78.6 | 32.9 | 12.6 | 22.5 (39.1) | 8.8 | 75.6 (73.2-78.0) | - |


| PCPT (Schenk et al., 2014) | Case | 915 | 63.3 (5.5) | 27.5 (4.2) | 87.5 | 38.5 | 6.7 | 9.6 (15.8) | 21.7 | 58.6 (57.2-60.0) | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Control | 915 | 63.3 (5.5) | 27.6 (4.0) | 87.2 | 37.7 | 6.8 | 8.9 (13.7) | 21.6 | 56.0 (54.7-57.4) | - |
| PHS (Gann et al., 1996; Ma et al., 1998; | Case | 501 | 58.6 (7.6) | 24.6 (2.5) | - | 100 | 7.8 | 7.2 (6.0) | - | 72.6 (70.3-75.0) | 79 (77-80) |
| Li et al., 2007) | Control | 669 | 59.1 (7.6) | 24.6 (2.5) | - | 100 | 7.0 | 7.1 (6.3) | - | 71.3 (69.3-73.3) | 79 (77-80) |
| PLCO (Ahn et al., 2008) | Case | 747 | 64.8 (5.0) | 27.3 (3.6) | 88.0 | 43.3 | 6.4 | 15.7 (29.5) | 12.3 | 56.1 (54.8-57.4) | - |
|  | Control | 727 | 64.5 (4.9) | 27.6 (3.9) | 85.8 | 39.5 | 9.8 | 16.2 (30.1) | 5.2 | 54.0 (52.7-55.4) | - |
| SELECT (Kristal et al., 2014) | Case | 1732 | 63.5 (6.1) | 28.5 (4.3) | 84.1 | 54.9 | 5.4 | 9.4 (15.7) | 31.2 | 64.9 (63.6-66.3) | - |
|  | Control | 1732 | 63.6 (6.4) | 28.7 (4.7) | 82.6 | 51.0 | 7.1 | 9.2 (20.0) | 15.3 | 63.8 (62.5-65.2) | - |
| SU.VI.MAX (Deschasaux et al., 2016) | Case | 184 | 54.1 (4.8) | 25.5 (3.1) | 93.3 | 30.2 | 11.1 | 25.1 (19.2) | 12.7 | 44.1 (41.2-47.2) | - |
|  | Control | 368 | 53.8 (4.4) | 25.7 (3.2) | 89.3 | 26.8 | 12.8 | 25.5 (18.9) | 4.4 | 45.9 (43.7-48.2) | - |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Values are mean (SD) unless otherwise indicated. Numbers are for men with a $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ measurement and in complete matched case-control sets.
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Percentages exclude men with missing values.
${ }^{\text {c }} 25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ concentrations are season-standardised.
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Unpublished vitamin D and prostate cancer data, Study references: Joshu et al., 2018 for ARIC, Knekt et al., 2008 for FMC and Milne et al., 2017 for MCCS




 Minéraux Antioxydants; 25(OH)D,25-hydroxyvitamin D ; 1,25(OH) ${ }_{2} \mathrm{D}$, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D.

Table 2. Characteristics of participants with prostate cancer ${ }^{\text {a }}$

| Prospective studies | Time from blood collection to diagnosis (\%) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | Age at diagnosis (\%) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | Year of diagnosis (\%) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | Disease stage, aggressiveness and grade (\%) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $<3 \mathrm{y}$ | 3-6 y | $\geq 7 \mathrm{y}$ | $<60 \mathrm{y}$ | 60-69 y | $\geq 70 \mathrm{y}$ | Before 1990 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1990- \\ & 1994 \end{aligned}$ | 1995- <br> Onward | Advanced stage ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Unknown stage | Aggressive disease ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | High grade ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Unknown grade |
| ARIC | 3.6 | 13.1 | 83.3 | 9.7 | 48.9 | 41.4 | 1.1 | 12.4 | 86.4 | 16.6 | 21.6 | 10.9 | - | 15.0 |
| ATBC | 4.0 | 10.6 | 85.3 | 3.5 | 44.4 | 52.1 | 5.3 | 15.2 | 79.5 | 52.2 | 19.3 | 39.1 | 11.8 | 21.5 |
| CLUE I | 0.0 | 1.6 | 98.4 | 8.2 | 23.0 | 68.9 | 59.0 | 41.0 | 0.0 | 23.5 | 16.4 | 37.7 | 5.1 | 3.3 |
| EPIC | 33.1 | 50.9 | 16.0 | 17.2 | 62.6 | 20.3 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 99.2 | 26.2 | 28.7 | 21.3 | 10.4 | 16.1 |
| ESTHER | 24.1 | 38.4 | 37.5 | 2.3 | 44.0 | 53.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | - | 100 | 11.6 | - | 100 |
| FMC | 6.2 | 16.8 | 77.0 | 10.6 | 34.2 | 55.3 | 87.0 | 13.0 | 0.0 | - | 100 | 42.2 | - | 100 |
| HIMS | 42.2 | 45.8 | 12.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | - | 100 | 11.5 | - | 100 |
| HPFS | 23.9 | 42.8 | 33.3 | 12.5 | 37.5 | 50.0 | 0.0 | 6.0 | 94.0 | 4.3 | 8.6 | 7.7 | 8.6 | 11.2 |
| Janus part 1 | 1.2 | 5.0 | 93.7 | 20.7 | 69.2 | 10.1 | 27.0 | 56.2 | 16.9 | - | 100 | - | - | 100 |
| Janus part 2 | 2.0 | 4.2 | 93.7 | 40.6 | 32.1 | 27.3 | 0.7 | 6.0 | 93.4 | 27.7 | 29.4 | 22.8 | - | 100 |
| JPHC | 9.0 | 17.4 | 73.6 | 7.0 | 39.8 | 53.2 | 0.0 | 3.5 | 96.5 | 28.5 | 24.9 | 22.9 | 24.2 | 69.2 |
| MCCS | 15.4 | 22.7 | 61.9 | 16.6 | 47.8 | 35.6 | 0.0 | 6.2 | 93.8 | 11.4 | 7.1 | 15.0 | 13.6 | 6.4 |
| MDCS | 12.2 | 30.0 | 57.8 | 5.9 | 47.8 | 46.3 | 0.0 | 2.7 | 97.3 | - | 100 | - | - | 100 |
| MEC | 82.1 | 15.8 | 2.1 | 7.9 | 34.7 | 57.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | - | 100 | 10.9 | 0.3 | 5.2 |
| PCPT | 11.5 | 27.7 | 60.9 | 1.5 | 50.5 | 48.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 99.7 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 0.8 | 4.9 | 2.5 |
| PHS | 7.6 | 17.0 | 75.5 | 11.8 | 50.7 | 37.5 | 25.6 | 59.9 | 14.6 | 13.7 | 3.8 | 24.6 | 10.1 | 3.6 |
| PLCO | 56.4 | 39.1 | 4.6 | 7.5 | 52.2 | 40.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | 18.6 | 0.0 | 7.6 | 10.7 | 0.3 |
| SELECT | 39.9 | 58.3 | 1.8 | 10.4 | 56.3 | 33.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 7.0 | 13.6 |
| SU.VI.MAX | 7.1 | 20.7 | 72.3 | 26.6 | 66.9 | 6.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 100 | - | 100 | 2.2 | 9.9 | 6.5 |

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Percentages exclude cases with missing values. Percentages may not add up to 100 because of rounding. Stage and grade of disease are unavailable for some case patients; the percentages are shown in the "unknown stage" and "unknown grade" columns.
${ }^{\text {b }}$ A tumour was categorised as advanced stage if it was tumor-node-metastasis (TNM) stage T3 or T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1, stage III-IV, or the equivalent. Aggressive disease was defined as tumours with TNM stage T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1 and/or stage IV disease and/or death from prostate cancer. High grade was defined as Gleason sum 8 or higher, or equivalent (undifferentiated).
For expansion of study names see Table 1. Abbreviation: y, year.

## Figure legends

Figure 1. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with study-specific fifths of season-standardised 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration in prospective studies.
Estimates are from logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index. Ptrend was calculated by replacing the fifths of vitamin D with a continuous variable that was scored as $0,0.25,0.5,0.75$ and 1 in the conditional logistic regression model. Abbreviations: $80 \%$ le $=80$ percentile; $\mathrm{CI}=$ confidence interval; $\mathrm{Ptr}=P$ trend.

Figure 2. Study-specific odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with an 80 percentile increase in season-standardised 25 -hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration. A) Blood season-standardised 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration; B) Blood season-standardised 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration.
Estimates are from logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables within each study and without mutual adjustment for the other analytes. Heterogeneity in linear trends between studies was tested by comparing the $\mathrm{X}^{2}$ values for models with and without a (studies) x (linear trend) interaction term. For expansion of study names see Table 1.

Figure 3. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with a study-specific 80 percentile increase in season-standardised 25-hydroxyvitamin D in prospective studies for selected subgroups. The odds ratios were conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index. Tests for heterogeneity for the case-defined factors were obtained by fitting separate models for each subgroup and assuming independence of the ORs using a method analogous to a meta-analysis. Tests for heterogeneity for the other factors were assessed with a $\chi^{2}$-test of interaction between the subgroup and continuous trend test variable. Note that the number of cases for each tumour subtype may be fewer than shown in the baseline tables since here the analysis for each subgroup of a case-defined factor is restricted to complete matched sets for each category of the factor in turn; some matched sets contain a mixture of subtypes and while controls are allocated case-defined characteristics in equal proportion to the cases, $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ may be unknown for some participants, leading to incomplete matched sets.
Stage (early, T1 and/or stage I; other localized, T2/N0/M0 and/or stage II, and advanced, T3-T4/N1/M1 and/or stage III-IV), grade (low-intermediate, Gleason sum was $<8$ or equivalent; high, Gleason sum was $\geq 8$ or equivalent, and aggressive (T4/N1/M1 and/or stage IV and/or prostate cancer death). White ethnicity ( $89.4 \%$ yes, $10.6 \%$ no).

Figure 4. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with a study-specific 80 percentile increase in 25-hydroxyvitamin D (A) and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamind D (B) concentration by season.
The odds ratios were conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index. Tests for heterogeneity were assessed with a $\chi^{2}$-test of interaction between the subgroup and continuous trend test variable. A) Blood 25 -hydroxyvitamin D concentration; B) Blood 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration

Figure 5. Geometric mean concentrations ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) of season-standardised 25hydroxyvitamin D ( $\mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ ) for controls from all studies by various factors, adjusted for study and age at blood collection.

Means are scaled to, and depicted as a proportion of, the overall geometric mean concentration (dotted line). P values are for tests of heterogeneity and, where applicable in parentheses, trend.


Figure 2


Test of heterogeneity between studies: $x^{2}+8=14.17 ; P=0.718$

B


Figure 3


Figure 4

A

| Factor and subset | Cases/Controls | OR (95\% CI) | Odd | \& 95\% CI |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| All studies | 13462/20261 | 1.22 (1.13-1.31) |  | -- |
| Season of blood collection |  |  |  |  |
| Winter | 3101/4781 | 1.17 (1.02-1.35) |  |  |
| Spring | 2977/4605 | 1.20 (1.04-1.39) |  |  |
| Summer | 3546/4773 | 1.32 (1.14-1.52) |  |  |
| Autumn | 3838/6102 | $1.20 \text { (1.05-1.36) }$ |  |  |
|  |  | $\chi_{3}$ 尤 $=1.56, \mathrm{P}=0.669$ | 1 | 1 |
|  |  | 0.25 | 0.5 | 12 |



Figure 5

| Factor and subset | n | Mean ${ }^{*}(95 \% \mathrm{Cl})$ | $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Supplementary methods

## Data collection

The EHNBPCCG is described in detail elsewhere [1-7]. Published and unpublished studies were eligible for the current collaborative individual participant meta-analysis if they had data on pre-diagnostic circulating concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ or $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ and incident prostate cancers. Studies were identified through searches using the terms "vitamin D", "25-hydroxyvitamin D", "1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D", and "prostate cancer" on computerized bibliographic systems, including PubMed, Web of Science, Cochrane Library, and CancerLit, through the reference lists of publications identified in this search, and through correspondence with study investigators.

Individual participant data on circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ for 13,462 men with prostate cancer and 20,261 control participants were available from 19 prospective cohort studies by the date of dataset closure (May 2018): the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study (unpublished, study described in [8], Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Study (ATBC) [9]; Campaign Against Cancer and Stroke ("Give Us a Clue to Cancer") Study (CLUE) I [10]; Epidemiologische Studie zu Chancen der Verhütung, Früherkennung und optimierten THerapie chronischer ERkrankungen in der älteren Bevölkerung (ESTHER) [11]; European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) [12]; Finnish Mobile Clinic Health Examination Survey (FMC) (unpublished, study described in [13]); Health Professionals Follow-up Study (HPFS) [14-16]; Health In Men Study (HIMS) [17]; the Janus study that formed part of the of the Nordic Biological Specimen Biobank Working Group (Janus part 1) [18]; a second study using the Janus Serum Bank (Janus part 2) [19]; Japan Public Health Center-based Prospective (JPHC) Study [20]; Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study (MCCS) (unpublished, study described in [21]); Malmö Diet and Cancer Study (MDCS) [22]; Multiethnic Cohort (MEC) [23]; Prostate Cancer Prevention Trial (PCPT) [24]; Physicians' Health Study (PHS) [25-27]; Prostate, Lung, Colorectal and Ovarian Cancer Screening Trial (PLCO) [28]; Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT) [29]; and the SUpplémentation en VItamines et Minéraux AntioXydants (SU.VI.MAX) trial [30]. Data on $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D from seven relatively small studies (with a combined total of 1,047 cases) were not available for pooling: Helsinki Heart Study (HHS) [18, 31], Japan-Hawaii Cancer Study (JHCS) [32], Kaiser Permanente Medical Care Programme (KPMCP) [33, 34], The Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (MrOS) Study [35], Nutritional Prevention of Cancer (NPC) Trial [36], Northern Sweden Health and Disease Cohort (NSHDC) [18], and the Troms $\varnothing$ cohort study [37].

Individual participant data on circulating $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ for 1885 men with prostate cancer and 2114 control participants were available from three studies (CLUE I, HPFS and PHS) [10, 14, 25], but were not available for KPMCP [33, 34] or JHCS [32].

Individual participant data were requested on circulating $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH}) 2 \mathrm{D}$, date, age and fasting status at sample collection, marital status, ethnicity, educational attainment, family history of prostate cancer, height, weight, waist and hip circumference, smoking status, alcohol intake, and vital status. Each study also provided data on prostate cancer stage and grade and death, if available, and the data were harmonized in a central database.

## Study designs and data processing

Most of the studies were case-control studies nested within prospective cohort studies, with some variation between the studies in the case mix, related for example to the prevalence of Prostate Specific Antigen (PSA)-testing within that population during follow-up. Four studies (ARIC, ESTHER, HIMS, and MCCS) provided cohort data; therefore cases and controls were matched at the pooling center (University of Oxford) (for details about the matching criteria please see Supplementary Table 1). Two studies (PCPT and PLCO) were observational investigations based within randomized controlled trials that included organized screening for prostate cancer [24, 28]. For both these studies, men with a raised prostate specific antigen (PSA) or abnormal digital rectal examination at recruitment were excluded, and the majority of cases were detected either through subsequent PSA-screening (PLCO and PCPT) or by end-of-study biopsy (PCPT). Data on circulating 25(OH)D and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ for 1,424 prostate cancer cases and 1,440 control participants from a cross-sectional study within The Prostate Testing for Cancer and Treatment (ProtecT) trial were also available for analysis. In this study, all men with a $\mathrm{PSA} \geq 3 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ at recruitment were offered diagnostic biopsy and those diagnosed at this time were included as cases for the observational study [38, 39]. Data on the control participants are included in crosssectional analyses of vitamin D concentrations in relation to participant characteristics, but because cases were diagnosed at the start of the study rather than during follow-up data, these data were not included in the main risk analyses.

Details of the recruitment of participants, informed consent and ethics approvals are provided in the original publications [8-12, 14-20, 22-30, 38, 39].

## Statistical analyses

The methods of analysis were similar to those described previously by this collaborative group [3,5]. $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ concentrations were used as provided by the authors and were $\log$-transformed to approximate a normal distribution for parametric analyses. To allow for the influence of month of blood draw on circulating concentrations, a regression model of log-transformed vitamin D concentration by month of blood collection (as a categorical variable) was fitted for each study; the "season-standardized" concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ were then calculated by subtracting the residuals from each regression model from the study-specific mean $\log$ vitamin D concentration, and then exponentiating these values. Thus, the "seasonstandardized" values represent vitamin D concentration 'corrected' for month of blood collection. All results are presented by season-standardized vitamin D, unless otherwise specified.

The main method of analysis was logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables within each study. Men were categorized into fifths of the distribution of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, with cut-points defined by the study-specific quintiles of the distribution within control participants, to allow for any systematic differences between the studies in assay methods and blood sample types [40]. In order to provide a summary measure of the OR, a linear trend was calculated by replacing the categorical variable representing the fifths of each analyte with a continuous variable that was scored as $0,0.25,0.5,0.75$, and 1 ; because the mid-points of the lowest and highest fifths are the $10^{\text {th }}$ and $90^{\text {th }}$ percentiles of the study-specific vitamin D concentration, a unit increase in this variable can be taken to represent an 80 percentile increase in the study-specific concentration of vitamin $D$. To assess the risk for prostate cancer risk in men with very low vitamin D concentrations, seasonstandardized $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D was also categorized into study-specific tenths.

To examine the effects of potential confounders (other than the matching criteria, which were taken into account in the study design and matched analyses), conditional logistic regression analyses were performed that included the following covariates: age at blood collection (continuous), body mass index (BMI, continuous), height (continuous), marital status (married or cohabiting, not married or cohabiting, or not known), educational status (did not graduate from high school/secondary school/college, high school/secondary school/college graduates, university graduates, or not known) and cigarette smoking (never smoker, past smoker, current, or not known), all of which were associated with prostate cancer risk in these analyses.

In a sensitivity analysis, conditional logistic regression models were also fitted using quintile cut-points defined by the overall distribution among the control participants in all studies combined; this approach maximizes the ability to examine associations across the full distribution of biomarker concentration across all
studies but assumes that the differences in absolute values between studies are due to true population differences, rather than due to assay differences between the studies. The analyses were also repeated using predefined categories for concentrations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ of $<30,30-<50,50-<75$ and $\geq 75 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, in order to investigate risks associated with very low (deficiency), low (insufficiency), moderate (sufficiency) and high circulating concentrations of vitamin D based on the Institute of Medicine (IoM) recommendations [41]. We also assessed whether circulating concentrations of vitamin D were related to death from prostate cancer.

For each analyte, heterogeneity in linear trends between studies was assessed by comparing the $\chi^{2}$ values for models with and without a (study) x (linear trend) interaction term. To test whether the estimates for each analyte varied according to case characteristics, ORs were estimated within a series of subsets for the following characteristics: age at diagnosis, years from blood collection to diagnosis, year of diagnosis, stage of disease, aggressive disease, and grade of disease. Controls in each matched set were assigned the value of their matched case for the case-defined factors (e.g. age at diagnosis, years from blood collection to diagnosis). For the multimatched sets in PLCO in which the case characteristics varied (e.g. some low-intermediate grade, some high grade), controls were randomly allocated to cases in the same proportions. Tests for heterogeneity for the casedefined factors (were obtained by fitting separate models for each subgroup and assuming independence of the ORs using a method analogous to a meta-analysis. Subgroup analyses were also conducted by age at blood draw, PSA at blood draw, university or higher education, BMI, cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, season of blood draw, ethnicity and family history of prostate cancer. Tests for heterogeneity for these factors were assessed with a $\chi^{2}$-test of interaction between subgroup and the continuous trend test variable.

In order to assess potential effect modification with different biomarkers, a $\chi^{2}$-test of interaction was used to determine whether risks by study-specific thirds of $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D varied according to study-specific thirds of $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ (and vice versa), and according to study-specific thirds of circulating concentrations of insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF)-I, IGF binding protein-3 (IGFBP3), testosterone, free testosterone, sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) and prostate-specific antigen (PSA), where these data were available.

To explore the relationships between analytes, partial correlation coefficients between seasonstandardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ and other selected circulating biomarkers were calculated using standardized log-transformed concentrations among controls from each study, adjusting for age at blood collection and, in a second analysis, also for BMI. Standardization (by subtracting the mean log concentration and
dividing by the standard deviation of the $\log$ concentration) was performed to minimize for any systematic differences in the biomarker concentration between studies owing to differences in the assays.

The cross-sectional associations of $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ with participant characteristics (among the controls) were examined using analyses of variance to calculate geometric mean concentrations and $95 \%$ confidence intervals (CIs), adjusting for study and age at blood collection, as appropriate. F tests were used to test for heterogeneity in the geometric mean analyte concentrations between the categories, and where appropriate, to test for trends across the categories, with the ordered categories scored from 1 to the maximum number of categories.

All tests of statistical significance were two-sided, and statistical significance was set at the $5 \%$ level. All statistical tests were carried out with Stata Statistical Software, Release 14 (StataCorp, LP, College Station, Texas).

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## Supplementary tables and figures

Supplementary Table 1. Study characteristics

| Study (First author, year) | Sample population | Location | Recruitment period | Prostate cancer ascertainment method | Nested case-control study characteristics |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Ratio of case patients to control participants | Matching criteria and comments |
| ARIC (Unpublished) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Population-based cohort study | USA | 1987-1989 | Cancer registry linkage supplemented with medical records; death certificates | 1:1-4 ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Age at and date of blood collection (each $\pm 24$ months), ethnicity, and requiring that controls had a vitamin D measurement if the matched case had one. |
| ATBC (Albanes et al., 2011) | Randomized trial of $\alpha$-tocopherol and $\beta$-carotene among smokers | Finland | 1985-1988 | Cancer registry linkage | 1:1 | Age at randomization ( $\pm 1$ year) and date of baseline blood collection ( $\pm 30$ days) |
| CLUE 1 (Braun et al., 1995) | Population-based cohort study | USA | 1974 | Cancer registry linkage | 1:2 | Age ( $\pm 1$ year) |
| EPIC (Travis et al., 2009) | Population-based cohort study | Europe | 1991-2001 | Cancer registry linkage; health insurance record linkage; Self-report with medical record review | 1:1 except for the Umeå center which was 1:2 | Study center, age enrolment ( $\pm 6$ months), time of blood draw ( $\pm 1$ hour), time between blood draw and last consumption of food/drink ( $<3,3-6,>6$ hours; for Umeå $<4,4-8,>8$ hours) |
| ESTHER (Ordonez-Mena et al., 2013) | Population-based cohort study | Germany | 2000-2002 | Active follow-up and record linkage with national and regional cancer registries | $1: 4{ }^{\text {b }}$ | Age at blood collection ( $\pm 12$ months), month of the year (but not necessarily year) of blood collection ( $\pm 1$ month), fasting status, ethnicity, and family history of prostate cancer (where known for the case). |
| FMC (unpublished) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Population-based cohort study | Finland | 1968-1972 | Cancer registry linkage | 1:2 | Municipality (including time for blood collection), age (exact matching) |
| HIMS (Wong et al., 2014) | Population-based cohort study | Australia | 1996-2004 | Cancer registry linkage | $1: 4^{\text {b }}$ | Age at blood collection ( $\pm 12$ months), date of blood collection ( $\pm 12$ months), fasting status, and diabetes, and requiring that the controls in each matched set be 'alive and at risk' beyond the case's date of diagnosis |
| HPFS (Platz et al., 2004; <br> Mikkah et al., 2007; Shui I et al., 2012) | Cohort study of male dentists, optometrists, osteopathic physicians, podiatrists, pharmacists, and veterinarians | USA | 1986 | Self-report with medical record review; death certificates (for fatal) | 1:1 | Year of birth ( $\pm 1$ year), date of recruitment (same year), time of blood collection (12 a.m.- 9 a.m., 9 a.m. -12 p.m., 12 p.m. -4 p.m., 4 p.m. -12 a.m.), PSA test before blood draw ( $\mathrm{y} / \mathrm{n}$ ), season of blood draw, control participants had $\geq 1$ screening PSA test after the date of blood draw |
| Janus part 1 (Tuohimaa et al., 2004) | Population-based cohort study of participants in county health examinations and blood donors | Norway | 1973-onward | Cancer registry linkage | 1:4 | Age ( $\pm 2$ years), date ( $\pm 6$ months) and season of blood draw and region |
| Janus part 2 (Meyer et al., 2012) | Participants in population-based health studies and had serum in the Janus Serum Bank | Norway | 1981-1991 | Cancer registry linkage | 1:1 | Age at serum sampling ( $\pm 6$ months), date of serum sampling ( $\pm 2$ months) and county of residence (i.e. health examination) |

$1: 1$ or $1: 2^{b}$

MDCS (Brandstedt et al., 2012)

MEC (Park et al., 2010)

PCPT (Schenk et al., 2014)

PHS (Gann et al., 1996; Ma et al., 1998; Li et al., 2007)

Population-based randomized controlled multicenter trial of methods for early detection of cancer of the prostate, lung, colorectal and ovary.

ProtecT (Gilbert et al., 2011)
Population-based PSA testing and randomized, controlled trial of treatments of localized prostate cancer
Randomized, placebo-controlled trial of finasteride and prostate cancer

Randomized trial of aspirin and $\beta$ carotene among physicians

Medical and pathology record review after screening and self-report with medical record review

Diagnosed as part of trial protocol. PSA test at recruitment followed by diagnostic biopsy if PSA $\geq 3 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$

Most cases detected by PSA

Sweden
991-1996

1993-1996
Blood
collection
2001-2006)
994-1997

Diagnosed as part of trial protocol. Annual digital rectal examinations and PSA measurements. Biopsy if abnormal DRE or reported PSA level >4.0ng/ml. End-ofstudy prostate biopsy

Self-report with medical record review
Cancer registry linkage

Cancer registry linkage
$1: 1$

## 1:1 stratum

 matchedAge ( $\pm 3$ years), area (town or city, and village), public health center area, the date and time of day of blood collection (within 60 days and within 3 hours, respectively) and length of fasting time at blood sampling (within 3 hours).

Age at blood collection ( $\pm 24$ months) and date of blood collection ( $\pm 24$ months), and requiring that the controls in each matched set be 'alive and at risk' beyond the case's date of diagnosis, and that controls had a vitamin D measurement if the matched case had one. Up to 2 controls were matched with each case.

Calendar time at inclusion ( $\pm 15$ days), age at inclusion ( $\pm 2$ years)

Geographical location (California/Hawaii), ethnicity, birth year ( $\pm 1$ year), date blood draw ( $\pm 6$ months), time blood draw ( $\pm 2$ hours), fasting status $(0<6,6-<8,8-<10$, 10+ hours)

Frequency matched: age (5-year age groups); PCPT treatment arm; positive family history for first-degree relative with prostate cancer. Controls required to have completed end of study biopsy procedure and had no evidence of prostate cancer

Age ( $\pm 1$ year and $\pm 5$ years for older men), smoking status (never, former, current), length of follow-up. Participants included men from both placebo and treatment arms. Cases and controls were not matched by treatment arm but interaction analyses showed no modification of the vitamin D prostate cancer association by treatment arm.

Age at cohort entry (5-year intervals), time since initial screening (1-year time window), and calendar year of cohort entry. All study participants selected from trial screening arm, i.e. offered PSA at recruitment and annually for 5 years, plus DRE at recruitment and annually for three years.

5-year aged-band (age at PSA test) and GP/family practice, also by time and season of blood draw due to timing of recruitment clinic. (Vitamin D study nested within the prostate cancer detection phase of trial, controls with PSA $<3.0 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ or raised PSA $\geq 3.0 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ combined with at least 1 negative biopsy)

For each case men were selected for a subcohort at
trial of selenium and vitamin E in relation to prostate cancer risk

Canada,
May 2004
Rico

SU.VI.MAX (Deschasaux et al., 2016)

Population-based, double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized trial of supplementation with antioxidant vitamins and minerals (vitamin C, $\alpha$-tocopherol, $\beta$ carotene, selenium, and zinc)

## France

## 1994

and/or DRE screening, which was suggested annually but not required. Pathology reports and slides were obtained where possible.

Self-reported in a monthly questionnaire on healthrelated events or detected through PSA screening of baseline bloods analyzed at the end of trial. PSA values PSA $\geq 4.0 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{L}$ were
followed up.
random from the same age/race group.
Note that the SELECT intervention assignment wa included as a covariate in the original multivariable regression models

Men were matched on age at inclusion (<40/40-44/45-49/50-54/55-65 years), intervention group of the initia SU.VI.MAX trial (placebo/antioxidants) and season of blood draw (a priori defined periods: June-
October/November-May)
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Unpublished vitamin D and prostate cancer data, Study references: Joshu et al., 2018 for ARIC, Knekt et al., 2008 for FMC and Milne et al., 2017 for MCCS
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Cases and controls were matched at the pooling center (University of Oxford) from the cohort study data provided.
For expansion of study names see Table 1.

Supplementary Table 2. Assay details for 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D measurements

| Study (First author, year) | Sample | 25(OH)D assay |  |  | $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ assay |  |  | Blinded | Same batch ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Method (Manufacturer/ Laboratory) | Intra-assay CV | Inter-assay CV | Method (Manufacturer/ Laboratory) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Intra-assay } \\ & \text { CV } \end{aligned}$ | Inter-assay CV |  |  |
| ARIC (Unpublished) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | Serum | Liquid chromatography-tandem highsensitivity mass spectrometry (University of Minnesota Molecular Epidemiology and Biomarker Research Laboratory, Minneapolis, MN, USA) | - | 20.8\% | - | - | - | Yes | Not applicable - cohort |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ATBC (Albanes et al., } \\ & \text { 2011) } \end{aligned}$ | Serum | DiaSorin Liaison platform Direct competitive chemiluminescence IA (Heartland Assays, Inc.) | 10.5\% | 12.3\% | - | - | - | Yes | Yes |
| CLUE 1 (Braun et al., 1995) | Serum | RIA (Hollis) | 22.01\% | 11.1\% | RRA (Hollis) | 21.3\% | 14.3\% | Yes | Yes |
| EPIC (Travis et al., 2010) | Serum | EIA (Immunodiagnostic Systems, Ltd.) | 3.9\%-14.8\% | 10.8\%-12.0\% | - | - | - | Yes | Yes |
| ESTHER (Ordonez-Mena et al., 2013) |  | IDS-iSYS (Immunodiagnostic) | <7.3\% | <8.9\%. |  | - | - | Yes | Not applicable - cohort |
| FMC (unpublished) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Serum | EIA (Immuno Diagnostic Systems) | - | - | - | - | - | Yes | NK |
| HIMS (Wong et al., 2014) | Plasma | LIAISON 25 OH Vitamin D TOTAL chemiluminescence IA (DiaSorin Inc.) | - | $11.3-13.2 \%$ | - | - | - | Not stated | Not applicable - cohort |
| HPFS (Platz et al., 2004; <br> Mikkah et al., 2007; Shui et al., 2012) | EDTA plasma | RIA (Hollis) | 5.4\%-14.8\% | - | RIA (Hollis) | 5.3\%-7.3\% | - | Yes | Yes |
| Janus part 1 (Tuohimaa et al., 2004) | Serum | RIA (Incstar) | 8.5\% | 16\% | - | - | - | Yes | Yes |
| Janus part 2 (Meyer et al., 2013) | Serum | HPLC atmospheric pressure chemical ionisation mass spectrometry (Vitas) |  | $7.6 \%$ at 47.8 nmol/L, $6.9 \%$ at $83 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ | - | - | - | NK | Yes |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { JPHC (Sawada et al., } \\ & \text { 2017) } \end{aligned}$ | Plasma | RIA (Mitsubishi Kagaku Bio-Clinical Laboratories Inc, Tokyo) | 8.9\% | - | - | - | - | Yes | Yes |
| MCCS (unpublished) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | Dried <br> blood spots ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | LC-MS/MS (Queensland Brain Institute, University of Queensland) | - | 8.5\% | - | - | - | Yes | Not applicable - cohort |
| MDCS (Brandstedt et al., 2012) | Serum | HPLC (Department of Clinical Chemistry, Skåne University Hospital) | CVs were 8\% at $65 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, $6.8 \%$ at 190 $\mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ for $25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ | CVs were 8.5\% at $70 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, $7.1 \%$ at $210 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$ for $25(\mathrm{OH})_{3} \mathrm{D}$ | - | - | - | NK | Yes |
| MEC (Park et al., 2010) | Plasma | IA (Immunodiagnostic Systems, Ltd.) | 2\% | 3\% | - | - | - | Not stated | Yes |


| Serum | LIAISON 25 OH Vitamin D TOTAL CV 8.3\% |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | Assay (DiaSorin Inc.) |

PHS (Gann et al., 1996;
Ma et al., 1998; Li et al. 2007)

PLCO (Ahn et al., 2008)
ProtecT (Gilbert et al 2011)

SELECT (Kristal et al., 2014)

SU.VI.MAX (Deschasaux et al., 2016)
Plasma RIA (Hollis) 7.9\%

| Serum | RIA (Heartland Assays) |
| :--- | :--- |
| Heparin <br> plasma | Tandem MS |
| Plasma | LIAISON®25 OH Vitamin D TOTAL <br> Assay (DIaSorin Inc., Stillwater) |
| Plasma | Roche Cobas® <br> electrochemiluminescence total <br> $25(O H) D$ assay (Roche Diagnostics) |

7.9\%
Overall CV $5.9 \%$
$-\quad 4.2 \%-5.7 \%$
$12.1 \%$ for the low
QC and $6.9 \%$ for the high QC

RIA (Hollis)
8.1\%
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Cases and controls were assayed in the same batch
${ }^{\text {b }}$ Unpublished vitamin D and prostate cancer data, Study references: Joshu et al., 2018 for ARIC, Knekt et al., 2008 for FMC and Milne et al., 2017 for MCCS.
${ }^{\mathrm{c}}$ For MCCS, plasma concentrations were estimated from dried blood spots following the approach detailed in Heath AK et al., 2014.
 chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry; MS, mass spectrometry; NK, not known; RIA, radioimmunoassay; RRA, radioreceptor assay; 25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; 1,25(OH) 2 , $1,25-$ dihydroxyvitamin D.
For expansion of study names see Table 1.

Supplementary Table 3. Odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific tenths of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies, conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index.

|  |  |
| :--- | :---: |
| Tenth | $\mathbf{2 5 ( \mathbf { O H } ) \mathbf { D }}$ |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{O R}(\mathbf{9 5 \%} \mathbf{~ C I})$ |
| $\mathbf{2}$ | $1($ reference $)$ |
| $\mathbf{3}$ | $1.12(1.01-1.25)$ |
| $\mathbf{4}$ | $1.13(1.01-1.25)$ |
| $\mathbf{5}$ | $1.14(1.02-1.27)$ |
| $\mathbf{6}$ | $1.27(1.14-1.42)$ |
| $\mathbf{7}$ | $1.16(1.04-1.29)$ |
| $\mathbf{8}$ | $1.27(1.14-1.41)$ |
| $\mathbf{9}$ | $1.28(1.15-1.42)$ |
| $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $1.24(1.12-1.39)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for trend | $1.34(1.20-1.49)$ |

Supplementary Table 4. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer in prospective studies by pre-specified categories of season-standardized 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration

| Category <br> (nmol/L) | Cases/Controls |  | Season-standardized <br> 25-hydroxyvitamin D |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | OR | $\mathbf{( 9 5 \% ~ C I ) ~}$ |
| $<30$ | $919 / 1431$ | 0.84 | $(0.76-0.93)$ |
| $30-49$ | $3043 / 5163$ | 0.89 | $(0.84-0.95)$ |
| $50-74$ (reference) | $5318 / 8018$ | 1.00 | $($ ref $)$ |
| $\geq 75$ | $4182 / 5649$ | 1.07 | $(1.00-1.13)$ |

The odds ratios were conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height, and body mass index. Median concentrations of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ in each group were 23.8, 42.0, 61.5 and 89.7 $\mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, respectively.

Supplementary Table 5A. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and season-standardized $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$, among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 1885 cases and 2114 controls from 3 studies (CLUE I, HPFS, PHS).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(OH)D |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |  |
| Third of $\mathbf{1 , 2 5 ( O H})_{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{D}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | 1 (reference) | $0.96(0.72-1.27)$ | $1.00(0.75-1.34)$ |
|  | $\mathbf{2}$ | $0.91(0.69-1.20)$ | $1.32(1.01-1.73)$ | $1.16(0.87-1.54)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{3}$ | $1.12(0.83-1.52)$ | $1.21(0.91-1.59)$ | $1.06(0.81-1.39)$ |

Supplementary Table 5B. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D and IGF-I among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 3050 cases and 4354 controls from 7 studies (EPIC phase 1, HIMS, HPFS, MEC, PCPT, PHS, SU.VI.MAX).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(OH)D |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |
| Third of IGF-I | $\mathbf{2}$ | $1.07(0.87-1.33)$ | $1.12(0.91-1.39)$ | $1.19(0.96-1.46)$ |
|  | $\mathbf{3}$ | $1.10(0.88-1.37)$ | $1.27(1.03-1.57)$ | $1.22(0.99-1.56)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{0 . 9 5}$ |  |  | $1.31(1.06-1.61)$ |

Supplementary Table 5C. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and IGFBP-3 among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 2971 cases and 4212 controls from 6 studies (EPIC phase 1, HIMS, HPFS, MEC, PCPT, PHS).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(OH)D |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |
| Third of IGFBP-3 | $\mathbf{1}$ | $1.05(0.84-1.30)$ | $1.13(0.91-1.42)$ |  |
|  | $\mathbf{2}$ | $1.09(0.87-1.35)$ | $1.32(1.06-1.63)$ | $1.38(1.11-1.70)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{3}$ | $1.18(0.95-1.48)$ | $1.31(1.06-1.63)$ | $1.38(1.11-1.72)$ |

Supplementary Table 5D. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and testosterone among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 3003 cases and 6062 controls from 8 studies (EPIC phase 1, FMC, HIMS, JPHC, Janus part 1, MEC, PCPT, PHS).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(0H)D |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |  |
| Third of testosterone | $\mathbf{1}$ | 1 (reference) | $1.03(0.85-1.24)$ | $1.28(1.05-1.55)$ |
|  | $\mathbf{2}$ | $0.98(0.80-1.19)$ | $1.05(0.86-1.28)$ | $1.27(1.05-1.54)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{3}$ | $0.98(0.80-1.20)$ | $1.06(0.87-1.29)$ | $1.08(0.89-1.30)$ |

Supplementary Table 5E. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}$ and free testosterone among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 2969 cases and 6062 controls from 8 studies (EPIC phase 1, FMC, HIMS, JPHC, Janus part 1, MEC, PCPT, PHS).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{T h i r d}$ of 25(OH)D |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | 1 (reference) | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |
| Third of free | $\mathbf{2}$ | $1.08(0.88-1.31)$ | $1.07(0.88-1.30)$ | $1.10(0.91-1.34)$ |
| testosterone | $\mathbf{3}$ | $0.98(0.80-1.21)$ | $1.07(0.87-1.31)$ | $1.27(1.05-1.57)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{0 . 9 5}$ |  | $1.18(0.97-1.43)$ |  |

Supplementary Table 5F. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D and SHBG among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 3088 cases and 6254 controls from 8 studies (EPIC phase 1, FMC, HIMS, JPHC, Janus part 1, MEC, PCPT, PHS).

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(OH)D |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ |  |
| Third of SHBG | $\mathbf{1}$ | 1 (reference) | $0.97(0.80-1.17)$ | $1.14(0.94-1.38)$ |
|  | $\mathbf{2}$ | $0.91(0.75-1.10)$ | $0.96(0.80-1.16)$ | $1.15(0.95-1.38)$ |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$ for interaction | $\mathbf{3}$ | $0.81(0.66-0.99)$ | $0.93(0.76-1.13)$ | $1.03(0.85-1.25)$ |

Supplementary Table 5G. Multivariable-adjusted odds ratios for prostate cancer by study-specific thirds of concentration of season-standardized $25(\mathrm{OH})$ D and PSA among cases and their matched controls in prospective studies. Data on both analytes were available for a total of 4470 cases and 5111 controls from 8 studies (EPIC phase 1, Janus part 1, MEC, PCPT, PHS, PLCO, SELECT, SU.VI.MAX)

|  |  | Odds ratio (95\% confidence interval) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Third of 25(OH)D |  |  |
|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Third of PSA | 1 | 1 (reference) | 1.38 (1.00-1.88) | 1.09 (0.78-1.52) |
|  | 2 | 3.01 (2.26-4.01) | 3.13 (2.36-4.16) | 3.33 (2.51-4.43) |
|  | 3 | 14.1 (10.8-18.4) | 16.0 (12.2-20.9) | 17.6 (13.5-23.1) |
| $P$ for interaction | 0.36 |  |  |  |

Supplementary Table 6. Partial correlations among controls in all studies between log-transformed concentrations of circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D and other analytes, standardized within each study and adjusted for age at blood collection (5 age-groups).

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Observed } \\ & 25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}^{\mathbf{c}} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Season- } \\ \text { standardized } \\ \mathbf{2 5 ( O H ) D} \end{gathered}$ | 1,25(OH) ${ }_{2} \mathrm{D}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Season- } \\ \text { standardized } \\ \mathbf{1 , 2 5 ( O H})_{2} \mathrm{D} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Season-standardized 25(OH)D | $\begin{gathered} 0.95^{\mathrm{b}} \\ (21,701) \end{gathered}$ | - | - | - |
| 1,25(OH) $)_{2} \mathrm{D}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.14^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (3398) \end{aligned}$ | $0.13{ }^{\text {b }}$ | - | - |
| Season-standardized 1,25(OH)2D | $\begin{gathered} 0.12^{b} \\ (3398) \end{gathered}$ | $0.13{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.99^{b} \\ (3384) \end{gathered}$ | - |
| IGF-I | $\begin{gathered} 0.05^{b} \\ (5660) \end{gathered}$ | $0.06{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.03 \\ (1893) \end{gathered}$ | 0.04 |
| IGF-II | $\begin{aligned} & 0.06^{a} \\ & (3061) \end{aligned}$ | $0.07{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.03 \\ (1101) \end{gathered}$ | 0.03 |
| IGFBP-1 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.11^{b} \\ & (2761) \end{aligned}$ | $0.12{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.10^{\mathrm{a}} \\ & (834) \end{aligned}$ | $0.11^{\text {a }}$ |
| IGFBP-2 | $\begin{gathered} 0.10^{b} \\ (1996) \end{gathered}$ | $0.10^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.04 \\ (1019) \end{gathered}$ | -0.04 |
| IGFBP-3 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.05^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (5326) \end{aligned}$ | $0.06{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.06^{a} \\ (1882) \end{gathered}$ | $0.07{ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| SHBG | $\begin{aligned} & 0.08^{b} \\ & (6307) \end{aligned}$ | $0.08{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.04 \\ (219) \end{gathered}$ | 0.04 |
| Testosterone | $\begin{aligned} & 0.09^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (6256) \end{aligned}$ | $0.10^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.01 \\ & (219) \end{aligned}$ | -0.01 |
| Free testosterone | $\begin{aligned} & 0.05^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (6235) \end{aligned}$ | $0.06{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.02 \\ & (219) \end{aligned}$ | -0.01 |
| Estradiol | $\begin{aligned} & -0.01 \\ & (2224) \end{aligned}$ | -0.01 | (<10 obs) | (<10 obs) |
| Free Estradiol | $\begin{aligned} & -0.04^{a} \\ & (2220) \end{aligned}$ | $-0.04{ }^{\text {a }}$ | (<10 obs) | (<10 obs) |
| Insulin | $\begin{aligned} & -0.08^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (3441) \end{aligned}$ | $-0.08{ }^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.09 \\ (33) \end{gathered}$ | -0.11 |
| C-peptide | $\begin{aligned} & -0.11^{b} \\ & (2166) \end{aligned}$ | $-0.12^{\text {b }}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.13^{\mathrm{b}} \\ (849) \end{gathered}$ | $-0.13{ }^{\text {b }}$ |
| Lycopene | $\begin{aligned} & 0.07^{\mathrm{b}} \\ & (3483) \end{aligned}$ | $0.05^{\text {a }}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.00 \\ (1192) \end{gathered}$ | 0.00 |
| Prostate-specific antigen | $\begin{gathered} 0.01 \\ (6768) \end{gathered}$ | 0.01 | $\begin{gathered} 0.01 \\ (1816) \end{gathered}$ | 0.01 |

${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ Two -sided significance level $P<0.05$
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Two-sided significance level $P<0.001$
${ }^{c}$ Numbers in parentheses are numbers of controls with data on both analytes
Abbreviations: IGF, insulin-like growth factor; IGFBP, insulin-like growth factor binding protein; SHBG, sex hormone binding globulin;
$25(\mathrm{OH}) \mathrm{D}, 25$-hydroxyvitamin $\mathrm{D} ; 1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}, 1,25$-dihydroxyvitamin D .

B. $\mathbf{1 , 2 5}$ dihydroxyvitamin D (pmol/L)


Supplementary Figure 1. Geometric mean concentrations ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) of 25 -hydroxyvitamin D (nmol/L) and 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D (pmol/L) for all prospective studies by month of blood collection (corrected for hemisphere so that January is treated as July, February as August, and so on for the HIMS and MCCS studies) and case-control status, adjusted for study and age at blood collection. The geometric means among case patients are depicted by solid circles and among control participants by open circles.
A. Study-specific cut-points

B. Overall cut-points (across all prospective studies combined)


Supplementary Figure 2. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with study-specific and overall fifths of concentrations of season-standardised 25 -hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25 -dihydroxyvitamind D concentration in prospective studies.

Estimates are from logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables within each study, and without mutual adjustment for the other analyte. Ptrend was calcuated by replacing the fifths of concentration with a continuous variable that was scored $0,0.25,0.5,0.75$ and 1 in the conditional logistic regression model. Median concentrations in each fifth (using overall cut-points) are: 33.6, 48.6, 60.1, 73.3 and $96.1 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, respectively, for season-standardized 25 -hydroxyvitamin D and 57.2, 72.8, 84.7, 97.7 and $122.2 \mathrm{pmol} / \mathrm{L}$, respectively, for season-standardized 1,25 -dihydroxyvitamind D. Abbreviations: $80 \%$ le $=80$ percentile; $\mathrm{CI}=$ confidence interval; $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{tr}}=P$ trend .


Supplementary Figure 3. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with overall (across all prospective studies combined) fifths of season-standardized 25 -hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D concentration in prospective studies.

Estimates are from logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index. Ptrend was calculated by replacing the fifths of vitamin D with a continuous variable that was scored as $0,0.25$, $0.5,0.75$ and 1 in the conditional logistic regression model. Median concentrations in each fifth are: 33.2, 48.6, 60.3, 74.0 and $97.8 \mathrm{nmol} / \mathrm{L}$, respectively, for season-standardized 25 -hydroxyvitamin D and 57.2, 72.8, 84.7, 97.7 and $122.2 \mathrm{pmol} / \mathrm{L}$, respectively, for season-standardized 1,25-dihydroxyvitamind D. Abbreviations: $80 \%$ le $=80$ percentile; $\mathrm{CI}=$ confidence interval; $\mathrm{Ptr}=P \operatorname{trend}$.
A. Advanced stage prostate cancer ${ }^{\text {a }}$

B. Aggressive prostate cancer ${ }^{b}$

C. High grade prostate cancer ${ }^{\text {c }}$


Supplementary Figure 4. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for advanced stage, aggressive and high grade prostate cancer associated with study-specific fifths of season-standardized 25 -hydroxyvitamin in prospective studies.
Estimates are from logistic regression conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index ${ }^{\text {a }}$. Abbreviations: $80 \%$ le $=80$ percentile; $\mathrm{CI}=$ confidence interval; $\mathrm{Ptr}=P$ trend .
$P$ trend $\left(P_{\mathrm{tr}}\right)$ was calculated by replacing the fifths of vitamin D with a continuous variable that was scored as $0,0.25,0.5,0.75$ and 1 in the conditional logistic regression model.
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Prostate cancer was defined as being "advanced" stage if it was tumor-node-metastasis (TNM) stage T3 or T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1, stage IIIIV, or the equivalent (that is, a tumor extending beyond the prostate capsule and/or lymph node involvement and/or distant metastases).
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ Prostate cancer was defined as being aggressive disease if it was TNM stage T4 and/or N1+ and/or M1 and/or stage IV disease and/or death from prostate cancer.
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Prostate cancer was defined as high-grade if the Gleason sum was at least 8 or equivalent (i.e. undifferentiated).


Supplementary Figure 5. Odds ratios ( $95 \%$ confidence intervals) for prostate cancer associated with an 80 percentile increase in season-standardized 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin $D$ in prospective studies for selected subgroups.
The odds ratios were conditioned on the matching variables and adjusted for exact age, marital status, education, smoking, height and body mass index. Tests for heterogeneity for the case-defined factors were obtained by fitting separate models for each subgroup and assuming independence of the ORs using a method analogous to a meta-analysis. Tests for heterogeneity for the other factors were assessed with a $\chi 2$-test of interaction between the subgroup and continuous trend test variable. Note that the number of cases for each tumor subtype may be fewer than shown in the baseline tables since here the analysis for each subgroup of a case-defined factor is restricted to complete matched sets for each category of the factor in turn; some matched sets contain a mixture of subtypes and while controls are allocated case-defined characteristics in equal proportion to the cases, $1,25(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \mathrm{D}$ may be unknown for some participants, leading to incomplete matched sets.
Stage (early, T1 and/or stage I; other localized, T2/N0/M0 and/or stage II, and advanced, T3-T4/N1/M1 and/or stage III-IV), grade (lowintermediate, Gleason sum was < 8 or equivalent; high, Gleason sum was $\geq 8$ or equivalent, and aggressive (T4/N1/M1 and/or stage IV and/or prostate cancer death).

| Factor and subset | n | Mean* (95\% CI) | P values* | Relative mean ${ }^{+}$\& 95\% CI |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age at blood collection ${ }^{\text {@ }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| under 60 | 1190 | 89.4 (87.3-91.6) | 0.016 |  |  |  |  |
| 60-64 | 882 | 89.1 (86.7-91.6) | (0.001) |  |  |  |  |
| 65-69 | 878 | 86.2 (83.8-88.6) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 70-74 | 327 | 83.7 (79.9-87.7) |  |  | - |  |  |
| 75 and over | 107 | 81.4 (75.1-88.1) |  |  | - |  |  |
| Time of blood collection |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0000-0959 | 1019 | 85.9 (83.9-88.0) | 0.050 |  |  |  |  |
| 1000-1259 | 608 | 89.3 (86.6-92.1) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1300-2359 | 289 | 90.6 (86.6-94.8) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Time since last meal (hours) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| under 3 | 506 | 87.4 (84.5-90.5) | 0.384 |  |  |  |  |
| 3-5 | 449 | 89.9 (86.7-93.2) | (0.392) |  |  |  |  |
| 6-11 | 344 | 87.9 (84.3-91.6) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12 or more | 673 | 86.2 (83.7-88.9) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Married or cohabiting |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| yes | 1309 | 87.9 (85.9-90.0) | 0.361 |  |  |  |  |
| no | 105 | 84.4 (77.7-91.8) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Educational attainment |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| below secondary/HS | 61 | 84.5 (76.7-93.0) | 0.326 |  |  |  |  |
| secondary/HS/college | 49 | $93.5 \text { (83.8-104.3) }$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| university | 12 | 81.4 (65.3-101.6) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Father or brother with prostate cancer |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| no | 2268 | 87.8 (86.2-89.5) | 0.555 |  |  |  |  |
| yes | 205 | 86.1 (80.9-91.6) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Body mass index ( $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <22.5 | 364 | 90.4 (86.6-94.3) | 0.001 |  |  |  |  |
| 22.5-24.9 | 916 | 89.8 (87.4-92.3) | (<0.001) |  |  |  |  |
| 25.0-27.4 | 839 | 88.6 (86.2-91.2) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 27.5-29.9 | 493 | 84.8 (81.7-88.0) |  |  | - |  |  |
| $\geq 30.0$ | 320 | 80.8 (77.2-84.6) |  |  | -- |  |  |
| Cigarette smoking 1246 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| never | 1246 | 87.2 (85.2-89.2) | 0.002 |  |  |  |  |
| previous | 1529 | 89.3 (87.4-91.1) |  |  |  |  |  |
| current | 244 | 80.5 (76.4-84.9) |  |  | - |  |  |
| Usual alcohol consumption |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| none | 648 | 84.9 (82.2-87.7) | 0.034 |  |  |  |  |
| 1-9 g/d | 848 | 86.7 (84.2-89.2) | (0.003) |  |  |  |  |
| 10-19 g/d | 683 | 88.9 (86.2-91.8) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20-39 g/d | 443 | 88.3 (84.9-91.9) |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\geq 40 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{d}$ | 287 | 93.0 (88.5-97.8) |  |  |  |  |  |
| $*$         <br> * means are scaled to the overall geometric mean concentration  0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0 1.2  1.5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| \# P values for tests of heterogeneity and, where applicable and in parenthesis, trend |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| + values are depicted as a propo <br> ${ }^{@} \mathrm{P}<0.05$ for test of interaction w | withon of | verall geometric mean | ncentration (dotted |  |  |  |  |

Supplementary Figure 6. Geometric mean concentrations (95\% confidence intervals) of season-standardized 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D ( $\mathrm{pmol} / \mathrm{L}$ ) for controls from all studies by various factors, adjusted for study and age at blood collection. Means are scaled to, and depicted as a proportion of, the overall geometric mean concentration (dotted line). P values are for tests of heterogeneity and, where applicable in parentheses, trend.


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