Efficacy of vitamin D supplementation in depression in adults: a systematic review

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Context: Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) investigating the efficacy of vitamin D (Vit D) in depression provided inconsistent results.

Objective: We aim to summarize the evidence of RCTs to assess the efficacy of oral Vit D supplementation in depression compared to placebo.

Data sources: Electronic databases, two conferences proceedings, and grey literature by contacting authors of included studies.

Study selection: Parallel RCTs investigating the effect of oral Vit D supplementation compared with placebo on depression in adults at risk of depression, with depression symptoms or a primary diagnosis of depression.

Data extraction: Two reviewers independently extracted data from relevant literature.

Data synthesis: Classical and Bayesian random-effects meta-analyses were used to pool relative risk (RR), odds ratio (OR) and standardized mean difference (SMD). Quality of evidence was assessed using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) tool.

Results: Six RCTs were identified with 1,203 participants (72% for females) including 71 depressed patients, of which five studies involved adults at risk of depression and one trial used depressed patients. Results of the classical meta-analysis showed no significant effect of Vit D supplementation on post-intervention depression scores (SMD = -0.14, 95% CI: -0.41 to 0.13, P = 0.32; OR = 0.93, 95% CI: 0.54 to 1.59, P = 0.79). The quality of evidence was low. No significant differences were demonstrated in subgroup or sensitivity analyses. Similar results were found when Bayesian meta-analyses were applied.

Conclusions: There is insufficient evidence to support the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression symptoms, and more RCTs using depressed patients are warranted.

Depression is highly prevalent worldwide, and is associated with increased morbidity, mortality and decreased quality of life (QOL) (1–4). Major depressive disorder is the second ranking cause of years lived with disability in USA in 2010 (5), and it is anticipated that depression will become the leading cause of disease burden and morbidity worldwide by 2030 (6, 7). Nevertheless, it is not uncommon that older adults with depression are underdiagnosed and untreated in primary care settings (8). Furthermore, poor acceptability of treatment (9) and side
effects of antidepressants (10, 11) result in suboptimal therapy and treatment discontinuation for depressed patients. Simpler and more acceptable pharmacological interventions are urgently required.

Vitamin D (Vit D) can be produced endogenously in the skin by sun exposure, and humans also obtain Vit D from the diet and from supplements to a minor extent. Vit D is well-known for its role in maintaining calcium homeostasis and bone health (12). However, Vit D insufficiency (defined as serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D (25[OH]D) level from 50 to 75 nmol/l approximately) has been reported in many Western countries with astonishingly high prevalence (13), and it is projected that about one billion people globally have Vit D deficiency (defined as serum 25[OH]D level less than 50 nmol/l) or insufficiency (12).

Because Vit D receptor is found in areas of the brain that are involved in the pathophysiology of depression (14) and cross-talk between Vit D and glucocorticoids in the hippocampus is demonstrated (15), the promising and intriguing role of Vit D as a therapeutic agent in depression is being investigated. Recently, many studies have examined the relationship between Vit D and depression symptoms, especially given the complexity of treating depression and the high prevalence of Vit D deficiency. A systematic review summarizing the evidence from observational studies concluded that Vit D deficiency is positively associated with depression in adults (16). However based on these observations, it is not possible to conclude a causal relationship between Vit D and depression due to potential confounders including age, dietary intake, time spent outdoors, physical activity, smoking, alcohol use, etc., (17). Many randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of Vit D supplementation in depression have been reported, but their findings have been inconsistent. While some RCTs indicate a promising effect of Vit D supplementation on depression symptoms (18, 19), others show no such effect (20, 21).

In the light of these discrepancies, we conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis of RCTs to clarify the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression in adults. Specifically, we aimed to evaluate whether Vit D supplementation compared with placebo improves depression symptoms in patients diagnosed with depression, or prevents depression in adults who are at risk of depression or have depression symptoms.

Materials and Methods

We conducted the systematic review in accordance with the recommendations of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (22). Data was reported following PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses) statement recommendations (23). The methods have been described in detail in a published protocol (24).

Search strategy

Briefly, we searched the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL), MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL, PsychINFO and ClinicalTrials.gov (up to April 2013). An additional search of PubMed (up to 10 July 2013) was conducted to retrieve relevant studies. Unpublished work was identified by searching two major conference proceedings: the International Vitamin Conference (from 2010), the Anxiety Disorders and Depression Conference (from 2008), while gray literature was acquired by contacting authors of included studies (up to July 2013).

Eligibility criteria

Parallel RCTs investigating the effect of oral Vit D supplementation on depression in adults (18 years of age and over) were included in this review. To be eligible for inclusion in this review, studies’ participants were adults at risk of depression, having depression symptoms, or a primary diagnosis of depression based on the authors’ definition. Because recognizing that some studies would use different scales to measure depression symptoms and they would choose various cut-off points to dichotomize participants into depressed and nondepressed, we adopted the original authors’ definition of the differentiation between nondepressed and depressed participants in their respective studies (25, 26). To meet our inclusion criteria, at least one of the arms had to include oral Vit D as an intervention arm. Only trials using placebos in their control groups were included. Specifically, the primary comparison was oral Vit D supplementation vs placebo.

Outcomes

The primary outcomes were the postintervention scores of depression symptoms measured by scales (for continuous outcome) and the proportion of patients with symptomatic improvement according to original authors’ definition (for dichotomous outcome), comparing Vit D supplementation with placebo. Secondary outcomes included QOL, adverse events and treatment discontinuation.

Data collection

Two authors (GL and SZ) independently screened and selected studies for possible inclusion in the study. Any disagreements were resolved by discussion and consensus between the two reviewers, and all the other reviewers were available to help if consensus was not reached. Initial agreement was quantified using the Kappa statistic.

Data extraction was completed by two authors (GL and SZ) using specially developed data extraction forms that included: (i) participant characteristics (eg, age, sex, number of participants, diagnosis or symptoms of depression, etc.,); (ii) intervention details (eg, number of arms in the trial, sample size for each arm, dose and type of supplementation, drop-outs, etc.,); (iii) outcome measures (eg, results of intervention including scores of depression and interim/final serum 25[OH]D levels, adverse outcomes, etc.,). If the study authors reported data of depression scores
using several different scales corresponding with our definition of outcomes, we gave preference to the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) for self-rating questionnaires and the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) for rater administered scales.

**Statistical analysis**

A random-effects meta-analysis was performed to synthesize the data by pooling the postintervention scores and the proportion of patients with symptomatic improvement in depression. Heterogeneity among included studies was assessed using both the Q test and the I² statistic (27, 28). In addition, we synthesized the results from the RCTs using a hierarchical Bayesian random-effects model (29–31) combined with observational studies included in a recent systematic review (16).

We analyzed the data using Review Manager (RevMan) version 5.2 for windows (the Nordic Cochrane Center, the Cochrane Collaboration, Copenhagen, Denmark) (32). We calculated the pooled risk ratio (RR) or the odds ratio (OR) for dichotomous data, and the standardized mean difference (SMD) for continuous data measured on different scales (22). We used the software WinBUGS 1.4 (MRC Biostatistics Unit, Cambridge, UK) (33) to apply three prior distributions to the Bayesian random-effects model: a “noninformative” prior distribution (34, 35), an “informative” prior distribution (29, 36) and a “sceptical” prior distribution (35), the latter two being based on the pooled observational studies (16). The intervention efficacy was acquired from the posterior distribution of the Bayesian analysis, presented as a SMD, RR or OR and the relevant 95% credible intervals (CrI).

The six identified RCTs included adults with a diagnosis of depression (19) or at risk of depression (18, 20, 21, 43, 44). The risk factors for depression in these studies were: obesity for adults (18), female sex for the elderly (21, 44), as well as Vit D deficiency in older adults (20, 43), which had been identified in other systematic reviews as a risk factor for depression (16, 45, 46). Baseline serum 25(OH)D varied from 47 nmol/l (20) to 100 nmol/l (21) approximately. All studies applied Vit D3 (cholecalciferol) with dosages ranging from 1,500 IU/d (19) to 7,100 IU/d roughly (43), except for one study using calcitriol in the intervention arm (21). The duration of Vit D supplementation varied from 8 weeks (19, 43) to 3–5 years (44).

The extracted scales used to measure depression in the identified studies included the BDI (18, 20), the Fibromyalgia Impact Questionnaire (FIQ) (43), the World Health Organization Well-Being Index (WHO Well-Being Index) (44), the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) (21) and the HDRS (19). One study used both BDI and HDRS to assess depression, however we only extracted HDRS scores because it was for the primary outcome measures (19).

**Quality assessment**

We assessed the quality of evidence of this systematic review using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) tool (42). We examined risk of bias for each included study by an adapted Cochrane Collaboration ‘Risk of bias’ assessment tool, including sequence generation, allocation concealment, blinding, incomplete outcome data/loss to follow-up, use of intention-to-treat analysis, selective outcome reporting, and other issues (22).

**Results**

**Study identification**

We identified 1,251 citations. After removing 121 duplicates, 1,130 citations remained for title and abstract screening from which 31 articles were retrieved for full-text screening. Additional 8 studies identified from PubMed and reference list led to a total of 39 full-text papers assessed against the eligibility criteria. There were eight discrepancies resolved by discussion between reviewers (unweighted k = 0.88, 95% confidence interval (CI) [CI]: 0.80 to 0.96). No further studies were identified from unpublished or gray literature. Six studies (18–21, 43, 44) met the inclusion criteria and were included in the final meta-analyses (see Supplemental figure 1 for the flow diagram showing the study selection process).

**Characteristics of included studies**

Among the six RCTs (Table 1), two were conducted in Norway (18, 20), two in USA (21, 43), one in Australia (44) and one in Iran (19). A total of 1,203 participants (72% for females) including 71 depressed patients were randomized in total, with mean/median ages varying from 38.1 year (19) to 75.0 years (44). All studies were published between 2008 and 2013.

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Table 1. Characteristics of included RCTs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study, year</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Intervention</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amland, 2009</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>68/68</td>
<td>Placebo group: 53.3 (10.1)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 53.3 (10.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>120 (36)</td>
<td>Vit D group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
<td>Vit D group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanders, 2011</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>127 (65)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 47.7 (15.5)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 47.7 (15.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>207 (120)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 47.4 (15.8)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 47.4 (15.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>286 (36)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>215 (36)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>62 (40)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
<td>Placebo group: 56.0 (11.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 SD: standard deviation; 2 CI: confidence interval; MD: mean difference, defined as post-intervention scores in Vit D group minus that in placebo group; 3 results from per protocol analysis since no sufficient information could be extracted for intention-to-treat analysis; 4 median (minimum to maximum range); 5 for participants took two capsules of Vit D and one capsule of placebo; 6 for participants took one capsule of Vit D and one capsule of placebo; 7 Beck Depression Inventory; 8 Fibromyalgia Impact Questionnaire; 9 median (interquartile range); 10 results estimated from graphs; 11 World Health Organization Well-Being Index, lower scores indicating more severe depressive symptoms; 12 MD calculated from 3-month scores; 13 participants extracted for analysis as all-subjects randomized, since no exact post-intervention number of participants in Vit D and placebo groups reported; 14 Geriatric Depression Scale; 15 24-item Hamilton Depression Rating Scale; 16 MD calculated from week 8 scores

(18, 20). Compared to the postintervention scores in placebo groups, for adults at risk of depression, postintervention measures in the Vit D group did not show significantly lower scores, where mean differences were not significant as presented in Table 1. However, for adults with depression diagnosis, postintervention scores using HDRS in the Vit D group in week 8 were significantly lower than in placebo group (mean difference: −5.50, 95% CI: −8.22 to −2.78) (19).

Assessment of risk of bias showed low risk of bias in one RCT (20), moderate risk of bias in four RCTs (18, 19, 43, 44) and high risk of bias in one trial (21). The reasons for moderate risk of bias were mainly due to unclear reporting of allocation concealment (18, 19), unclear selective outcome reporting (18, 44) and intention-to-treat analyses plans (19, 43). A trial was assessed as high risk of bias because of clear reporting of selective outcomes and unclear reporting of dropouts (21).

Efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression

The point estimate of efficacy for each RCT and the total meta-analysis result for the Vit D group vs placebo are shown in Figure 1A. There was no significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression, with the SMD of −0.14 (95% CI: −0.41 to 0.13, P = .32). The heterogeneity among studies was substantial (I² = 77.9%, χ² = 21.79, P < .001).

Data on proportion of patients with symptomatic improvement were not available in the included studies. However, there were two trials reporting the effect of Vit D supplementation on depression with the use of dichotomized depression scores (cut-off point of 10 on GDS in one trial (21), and cut-off of 13 or any score below 2 for any item on WHO Well-Being Index in the other trial (44)). Vit D supplementation had no effect on depression in any trial (Figure 1B). There was no overall effect of Vit D supplementation on depression based on the meta-analysis of the two trials using a fixed-effects model (OR = 0.93, 95% CI: 0.54 to 1.59, P = .79).

When the Bayesian approach was applied using a ‘non-informative’ prior distribution (gamma distribution for the between-study variance), the SMD was −0.15 (95% Crl: −0.61 to 0.23), with the posterior probability of fa-
voring Vit D supplementation of 0.81 (Figure 2). These findings were similar to classical analysis results (Figure 1a).

The ‘informative’ prior distribution was from one case-control study based on a recent systematic review (16), with SMD of –0.60 (95% CI: –0.97 to –0.23). When data of the 6 trials were meta-analyzed using the ‘informative’ prior distribution, there was a significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression (SMD: –0.39, 95% CrI: –0.75 to –0.09). The posterior probability of symptomatic improvement comparing Vit D supplementation with placebo was very close to 1 (Figure 2).

With the use of ‘sceptical’ prior distribution, the SMD was –0.11 (95%CrI: –0.44 to 0.20), and the posterior probability of favoring Vit D supplementation was 0.79 (Figure 2).

Bayesian sensitivity analyses using a different prior distribution (uniform distribution for the between-study SD) led to similar results to those based on the gamma prior distribution (Figure 2) (see Supplemental Table 1 for codes of Bayesian models and initial values).

Assessment of heterogeneity

Subgroup analyses

We performed subgroup analysis stratified by Vit D dosages, sex, study location, different sampling and population, using both classical and Bayesian random-effects approaches with a ‘noninformative’ prior (gamma distribution for the between-study variance). However, none of subgroup analyses showed any significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression (Table 2). When random-effects models were conducted, there was substantial heterogeneity: for studies with low Vit D dosage ($I^2 = 87\%$, $\chi^2 = 15.76$, $P < 0.001$) (19, 20, 44), for studies located in low latitude ($I^2 = 80\%$, $\chi^2 = 15.25$, $P = .002$) (19, 21, 43, 44), for studies with community sampling ($I^2 = 52\%$, $\chi^2 = 6.29$, $P = .10$) (18, 20, 21, 44), and for studies using general population as participants ($I^2 = 55\%$, $\chi^2 = 8.79$, $P = .07$) (18, 20, 21, 43, 44).

Three trials used adults with Vit D deficiency whose baseline serum 25(OH)D levels were approximately 47 (20), 57 (43) and 74 (19) nmol/l respectively. We conducted a post hoc subgroup analysis stratified by dichotomized baseline 25(OH)D levels (ie, sufficient vs deficient baseline Vit D levels). No significant difference was observed between the deficient Vit D levels and depression (SMD: –0.39, 95% CI: –0.87 to 0.50 for the classical analysis; SMD: –0.39, 95% CrI: –2.13 to 1.60 for the Bayesian analysis) (19, 20, 43). There was a marginal but not statistically significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression symptoms in subjects without Vit D deficiency at baseline: SMD: –0.16, 95% CI: –0.32 to 0.01, $P = .06$ for the classical analysis; SMD: –0.17, 95% CrI: –0.50 to 0.14, posterior probability of favoring Vit D sup-
implementation = 0.91 for the Bayesian analysis (18, 21, 44) (Table 2).

Sensitivity analyses

Three a priori sensitivity analyses were conducted by excluding studies with 1) high risk of bias, 2) short duration of intervention, and 3) by applying a fixed-effects model. In all three analyses, there was no statistically significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression (Table 2).

Moreover, since one trial also reported the changed scores of depression from baseline (20), we performed another post hoc sensitivity analysis after imputing SDs of the changed scores for the other trials based on the recommendation of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (22). The results did not favor Vit D supplementation (SMD: -0.12, 95% CI: -0.39 to 0.15 for the classical analysis; SMD: -0.13, 95% CrI: -0.56 to 0.26 for the Bayesian analysis; Table 2), which was very similar to the pooled results using postintervention scores (SMD: -0.14, 95% CI: -0.41 to 0.13 for the classical analysis; SMD: -0.15, 95% CrI: -0.61 to 0.23 for the Bayesian analysis) (Figure 2).

However, the heterogeneity among studies was statistically significant for the analysis excluding studies with high risk of bias ($I^2=81\%$, $\chi^2=21.55$, $P < .001$) (18–20, 43, 44), short duration of intervention ($I^2=52\%$, $\chi^2=6.29$, $P = .10$) (18, 20, 21, 44) and using changed scores from baseline ($I^2=75\%$, $\chi^2=20.24$, $P = .001$) (18–21, 43, 44).

Secondary outcomes

Quality of life

Only one trial reported the effect of Vit D on QOL (44). No significant association was found between Vit D supplementation and QOL as measured by General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) (OR: 1.06, 95% CI: 0.81 to 1.37) (44).

Adverse events

As reported in the included RCTs, no participants reported adverse events related to Vit D supplementation (19, 43), or no significant difference in adverse events was found between placebo and the Vit D groups (18, 20, 44).

Treatment discontinuation

The rate of withdrawal from the trials was low, except for one trial with a dropout rate of 22.7% (18). The reported withdrawal and discontinuation reasons were: one

### Table 2. Results of subgroup analysis and sensitivity analysis for SMD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Classical analysis</th>
<th>Bayesian approach ¹</th>
<th>Probability of SMD&lt;0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subgroup analysis</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Different Vit D dosage</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High²</td>
<td>-0.08 (-0.31, 0.14)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.38 (-2.03, 1.13)</td>
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<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
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<td>0.30</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>-0.13 (-0.31, 0.09)</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Study location</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High latitude</td>
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<td>0.76</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low latitude</td>
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<td>0.29</td>
<td>-0.25 (-1.15, 0.33)</td>
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<td><strong>Sampling</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
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<td>0.50</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>-0.08 (-0.28, 0.12)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-0.08 (-0.37, 0.18)</td>
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<td><strong>Population</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Clinical²</td>
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<td>0.79</td>
<td>-0.03 (-0.26, 0.22)</td>
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<td>-0.16 (-0.32, 0.01)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.17 (-0.50, 0.14)</td>
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<td><strong>Baseline Vit D level</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sufficient⁶</td>
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<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.20 (-2.13, 1.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deficient⁶</td>
<td>-0.12 (-0.39, 0.15)</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>-0.13 (-0.56, 0.26)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sensitivity analysis</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excluding studies with high risk of bias</td>
<td>-0.18 (-0.53, 0.17)</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>-0.19 (-0.83, 0.37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excluding studies with short duration²</td>
<td>-0.08 (-0.28, 0.12)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-0.08 (-0.37, 0.18)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fixed effects model</td>
<td>-0.07 (-0.20, 0.06)</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using changed scores from baseline</td>
<td>-0.12 (-0.39, 0.15)</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>-0.13 (-0.56, 0.26)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ non-informative priors (γ distribution for the between-study variance) were used; ² > 4,000 IU/day; ³ no Bayesian random effects model was conducted because of only two studies included; ⁴ no meta-analysis was applied because no data could be extracted from included studies; ⁵ no meta-analysis was conducted because of only one study included; ⁶ based on original authors’ definition in included studies; ⁷ less than six months; ⁸ no Bayesian random effects approach was applied
participant discontinued Vit D supplementation due to personal reasons (dropout rate: 0.8%) (20), two lost to follow-up (4%) (43), 116 withdrew from study (10.3%) (44), and one was excluded from study because of anxiety (5%) (19).

Besides, there were three trials (18, 20, 21) reporting high compliance with the Vit D, which varied from 93% (21) to 95% (18).

Assessment of quality of evidence across studies

The quality of evidence obtained from the included trials was graded as low, because of consistently unexplained heterogeneity and risk of selective outcome reporting bias (see Supplemental Table 2 for the summary of findings for efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression) (42). The Q tests and I² statistics for assessment of heterogeneity among studies were statistically significant, as found for the overall effect of Vit D supplementation (Figure 1a) and the subgroup and sensitivity analyses when random-effects models were used. Meanwhile, there was unclear risk of selective outcome reporting bias in two trials (18, 44), and clear risk of bias in one RCT (21).

Assessment of publication bias

Publication bias was examined by the construction of a funnel plot showing the relationship between the SMD and the standard error of logarithmic SMD, the Begg’s rank correlation and Egger’s regression tests. The symmetric funnel plot suggested no evidence of publication bias (see Supplemental figure 2 for the funnel plot to assess publication bias). Egger’s test and Begg’s test yielded similar results to the visual inspection for symmetry of funnel plot: Egger P = .258; Begg P = .546.

Discussion

Main findings

Six RCTs were identified in this systematic review investigating the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression. The results of the classical meta-analysis showed no significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression symptoms (SMD = -0.14, 95% CI: -0.41 to 0.13, P = .32; OR = 0.93, 95% CI: 0.54 to 1.59, P = .79). These findings were consistent in subgroup analyses stratified by Vit D dosages, sex, study location, different sampling and population, and robust in sensitivity analyses that excluded studies with high risk of bias and short intervention duration, applied a fixed-effects model and used changed scores from baseline for analysis. When Bayesian meta-analyses were conducted, the results remained nonsignificant with the use of ‘noninformative’ or ‘sceptical’ prior distributions.

We also dichotomized Vit D level into sufficient and deficient based on the definitions used in the selected articles recognizing that there is no consensus on what is the optimal serum 25(OH)D level (12). There was a marginal but not statistically significant effect observed on depression symptoms in participants without Vit D deficiency at baseline (SMD = -0.16, 95% CI: -0.32 to 0.01, P = .06), in which the posterior probability of a beneficial effect of Vit D supplementation was very high (0.91) using a Bayesian analysis with a ‘noninformative’ prior (Table 2). Compared with those with Vit D deficiency (19, 20, 43), participants with normal serum 25(OH)D levels were elderly women (mean age: 73 years approximately) (21, 44), or obese adults (18). It was possible that, these participants consciously or unconsciously consumed other supplementation or food which could help mitigate depression, but they failed to report to the data collectors, such that the marginal but not significant effect of Vit D was observed. However, taking into account the criteria of evaluating subgroup effect especially that the analysis (including hypothesis and direction of subgroup effect) was not specified a priori but post hoc (47), we would place uncertainty to this subgroup finding and interpret the result with caution. Also we conducted the sensitivity analyses by choosing the cut-off points of 25(OH)D levels based on clinical relevance as 50 and 75 nmol/l respectively, however, no significant effect of Vit D supplementation on depression could be found.

The populations included in the current systematic review were diverse, varying from obese adults (18), elderly females (21, 44), Vit D-deficient adults (20, 43) to depressed patients (19). The duration of intervention in two studies (19, 43) was very short (ie, 8 weeks) (Table 1), which may fail to observe the intervention effect over time because they stopped early (48). Moreover, there was one trial at high risk of bias (21), and four trials at moderate risk of bias (18, 19, 43, 44). All the aforementioned issues in the quality of the included studies, as well as the quantitative assessment of heterogeneity, resulted in the low quality of evidence for this systematic review.

The scales to measure depression symptoms in the included trials consisted of BDI (18, 20), GDS (21), FIQ (43), HDRS (19), and WHO Well-Being Index (44). In Arvold’s study, they used FIQ to measure depression symptoms in older outpatients, in which the FIQ was not a specific scale of depression even though it covered the domain of depression. However, the participants in the study were not diagnosed as fibromyalgia, but only with Vit D deficiency. According to the authors’ statement, ‘vitamin D deficiency can cause bone pain, muscle weakness, and a symptom complex that can mimic fibromyalgia, myopathy, or chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS)’, therefore...
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Comparison with other reviews

Vitamin D is essential for the maintenance of calcium homeostasis and for bone health (12). However, the plausibility of association between vitamin D and depression has not yet been confirmed. Several narrative reviews suggested an association between vitamin D and depression (49–55), while a recent systematic review based on observational studies has substantiated the significant association (16). Nevertheless, it is difficult to identify the causal relation given the observational design and the numerous potential confounders, especially when there was reverse causality between serum vitamin D level and depression (e.g., less outdoor activity/nutrient intake and thus low vitamin D) in observational studies (17, 54–58).

In this systematic review of RCTs, no effect of vitamin D supplementation was found on depression, which was supported by the pooled SMD and OR. Furthermore, as shown in Table 1 for each specific study, despite the higher levels of vitamin D observed post hoc in the intervention groups (18, 20, 43, 44), no significant mean differences of postintervention scores could be obtained, which meant that the depression scores were not significantly different in vitamin D and placebo groups after intervention.

Bayesian meta-analysis can synthesize the evidence of RCTs in conjunction with observational studies (35, 59). Using a ‘noninformative’ prior distribution, the posterior probability of favoring vitamin D supplementation was 0.81 with the SMD of −0.15, which was very similar to the results of the classical meta-analysis. When we used results from observational studies as the ‘informative’ prior distribution, there was a significant effect of vitamin D supplementation on depression with the posterior probability of almost 1. However, if we placed uncertainty on the results from observational studies, again the posterior results of the ‘sceptical’ prior distribution were not significant, and the posterior probability was only 0.79. Similar results could be found when another prior distribution for the between-study SD (uniform distribution) was performed, which presented the robustness of Bayesian analyses (Figure 2). Hence there was convincing evidence that exaggerated results from observational studies failed to unveil the true association between vitamin D and depression, and no efficacy of vitamin D supplementation in depression could be clarified, based on the findings of RCTs in conjunction with observational research.

Limitation and strengths

There are certain limitations to this systematic review. Initially, the heterogeneity persisted significantly in the overall analysis, subgroup and sensitivity analyses. The unexplained heterogeneity may be, at least in part related to the different scales used and the diverse populations at risk of depression. Moreover, there was only one trial with a low risk of bias (20). Thus the underlying risk of bias may influence the estimate of effect of vitamin D supplementation.

In this systematic review, most included studies were conducted in developed countries (18, 20, 21, 43, 44), whereas only one trial was performed in developing country (19). Lack of studies in developing countries may limit the generalizability and weaken the findings. Furthermore, most included trials examined a nonclinical sample, which may have decreased the likelihood of success, because participants without a diagnosis of depression would have a high placebo response rate and less likelihood of response to vitamin D supplementation than patients with depression (60). Significant symptomatic improvement was reported in the study with a clinical sample from week 2 to week 8 compared to placebo (Table 1) (19). However, only one trial using depressed patients could be retrieved and analyzed in this review (19), while data of another trial could not be extracted due to insufficient information even though it included 12 and 17 patients with depression in vitamin D and placebo group respectively (21). Therefore, given all the analyses, there is insufficient evidence to corroborate efficacy of vitamin D supplementation in depression at present, and more evidence for effect of...
Vit D as an adjunct to antidepressants in depressed patients is urgently needed.

To our knowledge, this is the first systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression in RCTs. We performed a comprehensive and exhaustive search to retrieve all relevant studies. We extracted and managed data in duplicate with a good level of consensus. A priori and post hoc subgroup analyses and sensitivity analyses were carried out to better synthesize the available evidence. The particular strength of the review was use of the Bayesian approach, which allowed us to incorporate external information from observational studies in our synthesis while exploring the robustness of the results under different assumptions (i.e., with different prior distributions) and to calculate the posterior probability of Vit D efficacy.

**Implications of the study**

The existing body of evidence does not support the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression. More RCTs using mildly, moderately or severely depressed patients are needed to identify efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression.

This systematic review does not provide enough information to update the current guidelines on the use of Vit D, given that there is no attested evidence of Vit D for prevention effect on depression symptoms or enough studies investigating treatment effect on depressed patients. Depressed patients and participants at risk of depression with Vit D deficiency should consume Vit D supplementation (12, 61). However, for those participants without Vit D deficiency, they are not recommended Vit D supplementation for the purpose of prevention or treatment of depression.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, in our systematic review there is insufficient evidence to support the efficacy of Vit D supplementation in depression symptoms, and more RCTs using depressed patients are imperative and warranted.

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