

1 **Resolution of, and risk of incident non-alcoholic fatty liver disease with changes in**
2 **serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D status**

3 **Short title:** Serum 25(OH)D and NAFLD

4

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57 **Abbreviation list**

58 25(OH)D, 25-hydroxyvitamin D; BMI, body mass index; BP, blood pressure; CI, confidence

59 interval; CVD, cardiovascular disease; HEPA, health-enhancing physical activity; HOMA-IR,

60 homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; HR, hazard ratio; hs-CRP, high-

61 sensitivity C-reactive protein; NAFLD, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; PY, person-years

62

63 **Keywords:** non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; cohort study; serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D;

64 incidence; resolution

ABSTRACT

65

66 **Context:** A protective or causative role of vitamin D status on the risk of non-alcoholic fatty
67 liver disease (NAFLD) remains inconclusive.

68 **Objective:** To evaluate the association between changes in serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D
69 [25(OH)D] status during follow-up and the risk of incident NAFLD and resolution of pre-
70 existing NAFLD

71 **Design:** A retrospective cohort study

72 **Setting:** Kangbuk Samsung Health Study based on routine health screening examinations

73 **Participants:** Korean adults (mean age, 36.8 years; range, 18–96 years) who underwent
74 comprehensive health examinations including assessment of serum 25(OH)D levels

75 **Main Outcome Measures:** The main outcomes were a) incidence and b) resolution of
76 NAFLD assessed by liver ultrasound. Cox proportional hazard models were used to estimate
77 hazard ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for outcomes according to serum
78 25(OH)D levels.

79 **Results:** Among 139,599 participants without NAFLD at baseline, 27,531 developed NAFLD
80 during follow-up. Serum 25(OH)D levels were significantly and inversely associated with
81 NAFLD development. Among 48,702 participants with NAFLD at baseline, 13,449 showed
82 NAFLD resolution. Multivariable-adjusted HR (95% CI) for NAFLD resolution comparing
83 25(OH)D 10–<20, 20–<30, and ≥ 30 ng/mL to <10 ng/mL were 1.09 (1.03–1.15), 1.13 (1.06–
84 1.21), and 1.21 (1.09–1.35), respectively. Additionally, an increase in 25(OH)D levels
85 between baseline and the subsequent visit (median, 1.8 years) was associated with decreased
86 NAFLD incidence, while persistently adequate 25(OH)D levels over time was associated
87 with decreased incidence and increased resolution of NAFLD.

88 **Conclusions:** Maintaining adequate serum 25(OH)D concentrations may be beneficial for
89 both prevention as well as resolution of NAFLD.

INTRODUCTION

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is considered a multisystem disease that is positively associated with cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors, CVD mortality, and all-cause mortality (1,2). Despite its burden and impact, the absence of approved pharmaceutical treatment indicates that management of NAFLD consists of lifestyle modifications, which are effective in ameliorating the early stages of liver disease and improving the associated cardiometabolic risk factors (3).

A growing body of evidence has suggested a link between vitamin D deficiency, characterized by low serum levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D [25(OH)D], and increased risk of various cardiometabolic diseases, including metabolic syndrome (4), coronary artery disease (5), chronic liver disease (6-8), and mortality (9). The therapeutic potential of vitamin D supplementation in NAFLD has been investigated in clinical trials; however, the findings are conflicting and limited by small sample sizes and the short duration of follow-up. A meta-analysis of mainly cross-sectional and case-control studies has demonstrated an association between low vitamin D levels and the presence of NAFLD (10,11). However, we have not identified any previous cohort studies that have investigated the role of vitamin D levels in the development of incident NAFLD, or in the resolution of NAFLD.

The present study aimed to evaluate the association between repeated measurements of serum 25(OH)D levels and both the risk of incident NAFLD and the resolution of pre-existing NAFLD.

METHODS

Study participants

The present study was conducted as part of the Kangbuk Samsung Health Study which is a cohort study of Korean men and women aged ≥ 18 years who underwent

115 comprehensive annual or biennial examinations at Kangbuk Samsung Hospital Total
116 Healthcare Center in Seoul and Suwon, South Korea, as previously described. The present
117 cohort study included participants who underwent a comprehensive health examination
118 including serum vitamin D levels between January 2011 and December 2018 and had at least
119 one follow-up visit before 31 December 2019 (n = 251,687)

120 A total of 112,088 subjects were excluded based on the following criteria shown in
121 **Figure 1**. Exclusion criteria included: excessive alcohol consumption, liver steatogenic
122 medication, medication for hepatitis, history of hepatitis, serologic positivity for hepatitis B
123 virus and hepatitis C virus, liver cirrhosis based on ultrasound, history of cancer, and missing
124 information on alcohol consumption, fatty liver, or serum 25(OH)D levels. Some participants
125 satisfied more than one exclusion criterion, and a total of 139,599 participants with no
126 NAFLD were included in the NAFLD-free cohort, and 48,702 participants with NAFLD were
127 included in the NAFLD cohort. In the analyses regarding the association of 25(OH)D level
128 changes with the risk of incident NAFLD, and with the resolution of existing NAFLD, those
129 who had an initial baseline and subsequent visit and who did not have at least one follow-up
130 visit were further excluded (in addition to the aforementioned exclusion criteria). In addition,
131 subjects with missing data on 25(OH)D, as well as subjects who were diagnosed with
132 NAFLD (for assessing incident NAFLD) and who had NAFLD resolution (for assessing
133 NAFLD resolution) on the second visit were also excluded.

134 The study was approved by the institutional review board of Kangbuk Samsung
135 Hospital (IRB No. KBSMC 2021-08-045), which waived the requirement for informed
136 consent since de-identified retrospective data from routine health screening were used.

137

138 *Measurement*

139 Standardized, self-administered questionnaires, diet, physical measurements,

140 abdominal ultrasonography, and serum biochemical measurements were collected at each
141 visit as part of the basic health check-up program (12,13). The current average alcohol
142 consumption per day was assessed using the frequency of alcohol consumption per week and
143 the amount of alcohol consumed per drinking day. Physical activity levels were assessed
144 using the validated Korean version of the International Physical Activity Questionnaire Short
145 Form (14). Physical activity levels were classified into three categories: inactive, minimally
146 active, and health-enhancing physical activity (HEPA). HEPA was defined as follows: (1)
147 vigorous activity ≥ 3 days/week with $\geq 1,500$ accumulated metabolic equivalent (MET)-
148 min/week, or (2) a combination of walking, moderate, or vigorous-intensity activities for
149 seven days and accumulating $\geq 3,000$ MET-min/week (14).

150 Sitting blood pressure (BP), height, weight, and waist circumference were measured
151 by trained nurses. Obesity was defined as a body mass index (BMI) ≥ 25 kg/m², the proposed
152 cut-off for the diagnosis of obesity in Asians (15). Hypertension was defined as a systolic BP
153 ≥ 140 mmHg, diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg, or current use of antihypertensive medications.

154 Blood and urine specimens were collected after at least 10 h of fasting. Fasting blood
155 sample measurements included: total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, high-
156 density lipoprotein cholesterol, triglycerides, aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine
157 aminotransferase (ALT), gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT), glucose, hs-CRP, albumin, and
158 platelet count. The serum total cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations were determined
159 using an enzymatic colorimetric assay. High-density lipoprotein and low-density lipoprotein
160 cholesterol levels were directly measured using a homogenous enzymatic colorimetric assay.
161 AST, ALT, and GGT were measured using the modified IFCC method, and serum fasting
162 glucose levels were measured using the hexokinase method on Modular DPP systems (Roche
163 Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) until 2015, and the Cobas 8000 c702 (Roche Diagnostics)
164 thereafter. Hemoglobin A1c levels were determined using a turbidimetric inhibition

165 immunoassay on the Cobas Integra 800 (Roche Diagnostics) until January 2018 and the
166 Cobas 8000 c513 (Roche Diagnostics) thereafter (RRID: [AB_2909460](#) and [AB_2909459](#)).
167 Serum insulin levels were measured using an electrochemiluminescence immunoassay with
168 the sandwich principle on the Modular E170 (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) until April
169 2015, and the Cobas 8000 e801 (Roche Diagnostics) thereafter (RRID: [AB_2756877](#) and
170 [AB_2909455](#)). The homeostatic model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) index
171 was calculated as follows: fasting blood insulin (mU/mL) × fasting blood glucose
172 (mmol/L)/22.5.

173 Total 25(OH)D measurement using the Elecsys Vitamin D Total assay demonstrated
174 acceptable performance compared to using liquid chromatography-tandem mass
175 spectrometry, the reference standard for 25(OH)D measurement (16-19). When the analytical
176 performance for precision was evaluated according to CLSI-EP15-A2 guidelines (20), the
177 inter-assay coefficients of variation for quality control specimens of lower and higher levels
178 of total 25(OH)D were 2.01-5.94% and 2.69%-5.03%, respectively, during the study period.
179 The detection limit was determined according to the CLSI EP17-A2 guidelines (21) and was
180 reported to be <3 ng/mL.

181 To assess serum 25(OH)D status, total 25(OH)D levels, including 25(OH)D₂ and
182 25(OH)D₃, were measured with a competitive immunoassay using an Elecsys Vitamin D
183 Total assay on the Modular E170 (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) until April 2015 and
184 Cobas e801 (Roche Diagnostics) thereafter (18). (RRID: [AB_2909604](#) and [AB_2909456](#))

185 Serum 25(OH)D levels were categorized as <10, 10-<20, 20-<30, and ≥30 ng/mL
186 (For conversion to SI units: ng/mL×2.5=nmol/L; e.g., <25, 25-<50, 50-<75, and ≥75 nmol/L)
187 (22). Vitamin D insufficiency is defined as serum 25(OH)D level <20 ng/mL; serum
188 25(OH)D levels ≥20 ng/mL were considered vitamin D sufficient, according to the
189 recommendation for the healthy general population (23-27). The change in 25(OH)D status

190 from baseline to the second visit was analyzed in the following four groups based on the
191 presence/absence of insufficient serum 25(OH)D (defined as serum 25(OH)D level <20
192 ng/mL [50 nmol/l]): a) insufficient 25(OH)D level at baseline and follow-up (persistently
193 low); b) insufficient 25(OH)D level at baseline but no insufficiency at follow-up (increased);
194 c) no insufficiency at baseline but insufficiency at follow-up (decreased); and d) no 25(OH)D
195 insufficiency at baseline and also follow-up (persistently adequate).

196

197 ***Diagnosis of hepatic steatosis***

198 Diagnosis of fatty liver was made based on an abdominal ultrasound performed by an
199 experienced radiologist using standard criteria, including a diffuse increase in fine echoes in
200 the liver parenchyma in comparison with the kidney or spleen, deep beam attenuation, and
201 bright vessel walls (28). NAFLD was defined as the presence of mild to severe fatty liver in
202 the absence of excessive alcohol use (<20 and <30 g/day for women and men, respectively)
203 or any other identifiable cause (29). The inter-observer and intra-observer reliability values
204 for hepatic steatosis diagnosis were substantial (kappa statistic of 0.74) and excellent (kappa
205 statistic of 0.94), respectively (13). The severity of hepatic steatosis was also recorded as
206 mild, moderate, or severe steatosis on sonography.

207

208 ***Statistical analyses***

209 Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the participants' characteristics
210 according to 25(OH)D levels as follows: <10, 10–19, 20–29 and ≥30 ng/mL (<25, 25–50, 50–
211 75, and ≥75 nmol/L) based on categories of 25(OH)D levels with adequate levels defined as
212 ≥20 ng/mL (≥50 nmol/L) (22,30). To describe potential linear trends in NAFLD incidence,
213 the four categories were treated as a continuous variable in regression models.

214 We examined the association between serum 25(OH)D levels and the development

215 and resolution of NAFLD. The primary endpoints were a) the development of NAFLD and b)
216 NAFLD resolution. The follow-up duration for each participant extended from the baseline
217 examination until the development of the endpoint or the last health examination conducted
218 prior to 31 December 2019; whichever came first. Incidence rates were calculated as the
219 number of incident cases divided by person-years of follow-up. Cox proportional hazard
220 models were used to estimate the hazard ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for
221 the development of incident NAFLD, or resolution of existing NAFLD. We initially adjusted
222 for age and sex. Model 1 was further adjusted for the study center (Seoul, Suwon), year of
223 screening examination, alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake,
224 education level, and BMI. Model 2 was further adjusted for medications for hyperlipidemia,
225 medications for diabetes, multi-vitamin supplements, 25(OH)D supplements, and calcium
226 supplements. To evaluate the effects of changes in serum 25(OH)D levels and other
227 covariates during the follow-up period, we performed additional analyses by introducing
228 serum 25(OH)D levels, season, BMI, and other factors as time-varying covariates in the
229 models. For each analysis, we further adjusted for HOMA-IR, glucose, and waist
230 circumference, in addition to the variables considered in model 2, and tested the effects of
231 serum 25(OH)D and its change on incident NAFLD or resolution of existing NAFLD. The
232 proportional hazards assumption was assessed via estimated log (-log) survival curves, and no
233 violation of the assumption was found.

234 To assess the relationship between the serum 25(OH)D as a continuous variable and
235 NAFLD risk, we modelled the serum 25(OH)D as restricted cubic splines with knots at the 5th,
236 35th, 65th, and 95th percentiles of the sample distribution to provide a flexible estimate of the
237 concentration-response relationship between the serum 25(OH)D concentration and incident
238 NAFLD. Models were adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening exam, alcohol
239 consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, medication for

240 hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D
241 supplements, calcium supplements, season, and BMI.

242 Statistical analyses were performed using STATA version 16.0 (StataCorp LP, College
243 Station, TX, USA). Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

244

245

RESULTS

246 The baseline characteristics of the study participants are presented according to
247 25(OH)D levels at baseline and subsequent visits (**Table 1, eTables 1–3**) (31). The mean (SD)
248 age of the subjects was 36.8 (7.3) years. The 25(OH)D levels were positively associated with
249 age, alcohol intake, HEPA, education level, medication use for hyperlipidemia, use of multi-
250 vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, calcium supplements, BP, total cholesterol, and
251 ALT (**Table 1**). The baseline characteristics of participants according to NAFLD status are
252 described in **eTables 4 and 5** (31). Compared to those who did not develop NAFLD, those
253 who developed NAFLD were older, more likely to be male, alcohol drinkers, current smokers,
254 obese, have a history of diabetes, hypertension, or CVD, receive glucose-lowering medication
255 or hyperlipidemia medication, and take multi-vitamin supplements; these individuals also had
256 higher BP, total cholesterol, glucose, GGT, ALT, HOMA-IR, and total energy intake (**eTable**
257 **4**) (31).

258 Compared to those with no NAFLD resolution, individuals with NAFLD resolution
259 were more likely to be: older, female, alcohol drinkers, regular exercisers, have higher
260 education levels, take multi-vitamin supplements, and have a higher total energy intake
261 (**eTable 5**) (31).

262 **Table 2** shows the risk of NAFLD development according to 25(OH)D levels among
263 the cohort of people without NAFLD at baseline ($n=139,599$). Within 581,021 person-years
264 of follow-up (median, 4.1 years; interquartile range, 2.1–6.0 years), 48,702 subjects

265 developed NAFLD (incidence rate, 45.9 per 1,000 person-years). The median (interquartile
266 range) follow-up frequencies for the NAFLD-free and NAFLD cohorts were 4 visits (3-5) and
267 4 visits (3-6), respectively. Overall, baseline 25(OH)D levels were inversely associated with
268 the risk of incident NAFLD. After adjusting for age, sex, center, year of screening exam,
269 alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, and
270 BMI (Model 1), the HRs (95% CI) for incident NAFLD at baseline 25(OH)D levels of 10–
271 <20, 20–<30, and \geq 30 ng/mL compared to <10 ng/mL (reference group) were 0.91 (0.88–
272 0.94), 0.85 (0.81–0.88) and 0.75 (0.70–0.81), respectively. The associations remained
273 significant when the model was further adjusted for medications for hyperlipidemia,
274 medications for diabetes, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, and calcium
275 supplements (Model 2), as well as when 25(OH)D levels, BMI and other potential
276 confounders were treated as time-varying covariates. After further adjustment for glucose and
277 HOMA-IR (**eTable 6**) (31) and waist circumference (**eTable 7**) (31), all associations
278 remained statistically significant. In spline regression models, the NAFLD risk decreased
279 across the range of the 25(OH)D levels (**Figure 2**).

280 **Table 3** presents the association between 25(OH)D levels and resolution of NAFLD.
281 Among 48,702 participants with NAFLD at baseline, 13,449 had resolution of NAFLD. The
282 multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) in subjects with 25(OH)D levels of 10–<20, 20–<30,
283 and \geq 30 ng/mL for NAFLD resolution were 1.09 (1.03–1.15), 1.13 (1.06–1.21), and 1.21
284 (1.09–1.35), respectively, as compared with the reference group (Model 2). All associations
285 were similar after further adjustment for glucose and HOMA-IR (**eTable 6**) (31) and waist
286 circumference (**eTable 7**) (31) as well as when 25(OH)D levels, BMI and other potential
287 confounders were treated as time-varying covariates. When participants were stratified by
288 vitamin D supplement use status, we found significant associations between higher serum
289 25(OH)D and NAFLD resolution only in vitamin D supplement non-users, whereas the

290 associations were non-significant among vitamin D supplement users (**eTable 8**) (31).

291 The associations of the changes in 25(OH)D levels from baseline to the second visit
292 with the risk of incident NAFLD are presented in **Table 4**. The mean interval between the 1st
293 and 2nd visits was 1.8 years (interquartile range, 1.1–2.1 years). The multivariable-adjusted
294 HRs (95% CI) for “decreased”, “increased”, and “persistently adequate” groups versus
295 “persistently low” group for NAFLD development were 0.92 (0.87–0.98), 0.87 (0.82–0.91),
296 and 0.76 (0.76–0.85), respectively (Model 2). For the association between 25(OH)D level
297 change with NAFLD resolution in subjects with NAFLD at baseline (**Table 5**), the
298 multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) for “decreased”, “increased”, and “persistently
299 adequate” 25(OH)D groups versus the “persistently low” group for NAFLD development
300 were 0.97 (0.88–1.07), 1.02 (0.94–1.11), and 1.10 (1.01–1.19), respectively. All associations
301 remained materially unchanged after further adjustment for glucose and HOMA-IR (**eTable 9**)
302 (31) and waist circumference (**eTable 10**) (31). In the analysis of the effect of the changes in
303 25(OH)D levels on NAFLD resolution by vitamin D supplement use status, persistently
304 adequate serum 25(OH)D levels were significantly associated with NAFLD resolution only in
305 the supplement non-users (**eTable 11**) (31).

306 We also performed subgroup analyses stratified by glucose-lowering medication
307 status (no medication usage vs. medication usage) and assessed the association between
308 serum 25(OH)D levels and both NAFLD development and resolution. In this analysis, we
309 found a similar inverse association between 25(OH)D levels and incident NAFLD, and a
310 significant positive association with NAFLD resolution in the “no medication use” group; the
311 trends of these associations remained similar in the “medication use” group, and no
312 significant differences were found between the two groups ($P = 0.674$ for incident NAFLD; P
313 = 0.152 for NAFLD resolution) (**eTable 12**) (31). Similarly, the trends of associations
314 observed in the original analyses were mostly retained for both groups when the effects of

315 25(OH)D changes were assessed, with no significant differences between the groups ($P =$
316 0.944 for incident NAFLD; $P = 0.490$ for NAFLD resolution) (**eTable 13**) (31).

317 In analyses after further exclusion of individuals with abnormally high ALT levels
318 ($ALT > 35$ IU/L (32,33), as the upper limit of normal is usually regarded as 35 IU/L), the
319 main results were similar, showing a significant decrease in the risk of incident NAFLD and
320 an increase in NAFLD resolution with increasing 25(OH)D levels (**eTable 14**) (31).
321 Consistent trends were observed when we assessed the changes in 25(OH)D levels (**eTable**
322 **15**) (31). In addition, when the outcome was defined as high ALT level instead of an
323 ultrasonographic diagnosis of NAFLD, the trends were similar, showing decreased risks of
324 high ALT and increased resolution of high ALT with increasing categories of 25(OH)D levels
325 (**eTable 16**) (31). Regarding the changes in 25(OH)D levels, persistently adequate serum
326 25(OH)D levels were associated with a significantly lower risk of elevated ALT; no
327 significant associations were found between the changes in serum 25(OH)D levels and high
328 ALT (**eTable 17**) (31).

329

330

DISCUSSION

331 In this large cohort study of 139,599 individuals without NAFLD at baseline, serum
332 25(OH)D levels were inversely associated with the development of NAFLD, while in those
333 with NAFLD at baseline, serum 25(OH)D levels were positively associated with the
334 resolution of NAFLD in a dose-response manner. Importantly, an increase in 25(OH)D from
335 an insufficient level (<20 ng/mL) at baseline to adequate levels (≥ 20 ng/mL) at subsequent
336 visits; as well as persistently adequate levels of 25(OH)D at both visits, were both associated
337 with a decreased risk of incident NAFLD. In addition, persistently adequate levels of ≥ 20
338 ng/mL were also associated with the resolution of NAFLD in subjects with pre-existing
339 NAFLD at baseline. Our study results suggest that maintaining sufficient serum 25(OH)D

340 levels may be an effective approach to both primary and secondary prevention of NAFLD; a
341 strategy that could be easily achieved by the use of supplements (or potentially also by
342 increased sun exposure).

343 The protective or causative role of vitamin D in the risk of NAFLD has been highly
344 controversial with conflicting results. It is relatively well established that vitamin D
345 deficiency is prevalent among patients with NAFLD (6,10,34). A recent meta-analysis
346 suggested that low serum vitamin D levels might play a role in NAFLD pathogenesis (11).
347 Although data on the potential effect of vitamin D to prevent NAFLD are scarce, in a recent
348 cross-sectional study, higher levels of serum vitamin D were associated with a decreased
349 prevalence of controlled attenuation parameter-defined NAFLD, compared to low levels of
350 serum vitamin D (35). However, not only are existing studies limited by small sample sizes
351 and a cross-sectional study design, but there is also considerable heterogeneity between
352 existing studies with respect to the prevalence of comorbidities. Our study, the largest cohort
353 study to date, supports the idea that higher serum 25(OH)D levels are prospectively
354 associated with a reduced risk of incident NAFLD in relatively healthy young adults whose
355 mean age was 36.8 years (interquartile range, 31.3-40.5 years), with a much lower prevalence
356 of comorbid conditions than in previous studies. Although outdoor activities and sunlight
357 exposure were not specifically measured in our study, our population predominantly
358 consisted of urban office workers who were likely to spend most of the daytime indoors and
359 whose sun exposure was likely to be particularly insufficient even in the summer (36-38).
360 Moreover, the association of serum 25(OH)D with the risk of NAFLD was not significantly
361 altered and remained significant when we accounted for other, possibly more relevant, factors,
362 such as BMI, physical activity, vitamin D, or calcium supplementation, season during the
363 venesection, and the changing status of 25(OH)D. However, owing to the observational
364 nature of our study, we were not able to establish causality, though our study findings align

365 with a recent Mendelian randomization study of three populations of European descent that
366 reported a significant inverse correlation between genetically predicted serum 25(OH)D
367 levels and NAFLD (39).

368 We also observed that higher serum 25(OH)D concentration was associated with
369 resolution of NAFLD in people with pre-existing NAFLD at baseline; and to date, there have
370 been no comparable studies. Several clinical trials have examined the benefits of vitamin D
371 supplementation in individuals with NAFLD, with conflicting results (40-45). These studies
372 are mostly small clinical trials with a short follow-up duration ranging from 4 to 48 weeks.
373 Also, due to the limitations such as heterogeneity of NAFLD at diagnosis, the presence of
374 comorbidities, and the use of biochemical parameters to define NAFLD, such as liver enzyme
375 levels, with sub-optimal specificity and sensitivity, it is difficult to draw a conclusion from
376 these findings (46,47). Large statistical power and longer duration of follow-up in our study
377 allowed us to account for potential confounders and observe the incidence and resolution of
378 hepatic steatosis, and these data suggest potential temporality of the association between
379 25(OH)D status and NAFLD. Although there remains a possibility of residual confounding
380 due to the observational nature of our study, based on our findings, we suggest that vitamin D
381 may confer therapeutic benefits for those with established NAFLD. Thus, we suggest that our
382 study results highlight that further longer-term studies are still needed to confirm (or refute)
383 whether there are causal associations between serum 25(OH)D levels and NAFLD.

384 In the present study, both groups of participants whose serum 25(OH)D levels
385 increased from low to adequate levels and those with persistently adequate 25(OH)D levels
386 over time showed a reduced risk of NAFLD development compared to the group with
387 persistently low levels. As many of the previous clinical trials examining the effects of
388 vitamin D did not assess vitamin D levels by repeat measurements (48), the effect of the
389 changes in vitamin D status on NAFLD risk has been uncertain. A strength of our study is

390 that we incorporated the changes in serum measurements of vitamin D status based on
391 repeated measurements at each follow-up visit. Another important consideration is that a
392 substantial proportion (approximately 77%) of our study cohort had sub-optimal 25(OH)D
393 levels (<20 ng/mL) at baseline. This proportion is markedly higher than the prevalence range
394 of 24%–40% in the US and European countries (48). That said, the prevalence of sub-optimal
395 25(OH)D levels in our cohort is similar to the nationwide prevalence of suboptimal 25(OH)D
396 levels, reported from the Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (38,49).
397 The reason for the disparity might be a substantially higher number of indoor office workers
398 or differences in nutrition or patterns of supplement use with respect to other populations.
399 This is likely to be clinically relevant since it underlines the benefit of improving 25(OH)D
400 status in the prevention of NAFLD in a population with a high prevalence of 25(OH)D
401 deficiency. We also observed that people with persistently adequate serum 25(OH)D levels
402 were more likely to experience resolution of NAFLD than those with persistently low levels,
403 whereas those in the “increased group” who had insufficient 25(OH)D levels at baseline but
404 no insufficiency at follow-up, did not. The implication of this observation is not clear, but a
405 previous meta-analysis of randomized-controlled trials has suggested that sufficient duration
406 of vitamin D supplementation is essential in achieving vitamin D levels that can have
407 therapeutic effects on NAFLD (50). Based on our study results, it may be speculated that
408 having an adequate level of serum 25(OH)D, even within a low-normal range, at any point in
409 time may be beneficial in protecting against incident NAFLD, but maintaining the levels for a
410 prolonged duration of time would be needed in order to reverse the disease course in patients
411 with pre-existing NAFLD. Further large-scale observational and interventional studies are
412 warranted to confirm our findings.

413 The mechanisms by which serum 25(OH)D exerts benefits in NAFLD are not fully
414 understood. Numerous studies have suggested that a pivotal pathway whereby vitamin D

415 improves liver parameters, involves the resolution of insulin resistance and reduction in blood
416 glucose levels (45,51). However, in our study, the associations between 25(OH)D levels and
417 NAFLD were not fully attenuated by adjustment for glucose or insulin resistance. An
418 alternative explanation may involve the anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties
419 of 25(OH)D. In pre-clinical studies in rats, low 25(OH)D levels led to the exacerbation of
420 hepatic steatosis and lobular inflammation (52). Low serum 25(OH)D levels are implicated in
421 upregulating the hepatic inflammatory response via the effects of adipocytokines, such as
422 adiponectin, leptin, and resistin; which can directly affect the pathogenesis of NAFLD (53).
423 Low serum 25(OH)D levels may also activate the Toll-like receptor signaling pathway as well
424 as downstream inflammatory signaling molecules, subsequently leading to the accumulation
425 of hepatic fat (52). Importantly, it has been reported that activation of vitamin D receptors in
426 liver macrophages by vitamin D ligands ameliorated liver inflammation as well as hepatic
427 steatosis in a mouse model, which may partly explain the resolution of NAFLD (54). Further
428 studies are required to elucidate the mechanisms involved in the benefits of vitamin D in
429 NAFLD pathophysiology.

430 Several limitations of our study must be considered. First, ultrasonography was used
431 instead of liver biopsy and histology, which is still the reference standard for the diagnosis of
432 NAFLD. However, the use of liver ultrasound to diagnose liver fat is an accepted proxy in
433 large epidemiological studies, and the use of liver biopsy was not feasible or ethically
434 acceptable in the routine health screening setting involving repeat measurements in our cohort
435 study. Second, although we had information on the use of vitamin D or multivitamin
436 supplements, we did not have detailed information on dose, type, frequency of
437 supplementation, outdoor activities, or sunlight exposure, and therefore, the potential for
438 residual confounding remains. Nevertheless, we directly measured serum 25(OH)D levels,
439 which are considered to reflect the overall vitamin D status in the body and the cumulative

440 effect of sunlight exposure and dietary intake of vitamin D. Third, our study participants
441 mainly represent a relatively young and healthy Korean working population. Although this
442 could be perceived as a limitation, it also represents a strength of our study, since relatively
443 few study participants had existing comorbidities that are known to be associated with low
444 levels of serum 25(OH)D. Fourth, detailed information on glucose-lowering medications,
445 such as specific types of medication and their treatment duration, was not collected. Finally,
446 the generalizability of our findings to other populations with different sociodemographic
447 characteristics and other ethnic groups is limited. The body's capacity to synthesize vitamin
448 D, vitamin D status, and even optimal vitamin D levels may differ across different ethnicities.
449 In addition, genetic polymorphisms, dietary and sociocultural factors, and geographic
450 locations can also influence vitamin D status (55-57). Future investigations should focus on
451 extending our findings to large populations comprising different ethnicities in diverse
452 geographical locations.

453 Our study has several notable strengths. The longitudinal, prospective design enabled
454 us to examine temporal associations of serum 25(OH)D status and changes in 25(OH)D levels
455 with the risk of incident NAFLD and NAFLD resolution. In addition, we were able to control
456 for the effects of changes with different covariates during follow-up in our time-dependent
457 model in which 25(OH)D levels and other covariates were treated as time-dependent
458 variables. Also, the large sample size, the use of carefully standardized clinical, imaging, and
459 laboratory procedures, the inclusion of lifestyle factors, and repeated measurements allowed
460 us to account for possible confounders such as supplementation use in investigating the
461 associations between change in vitamin D status and both incident NAFLD and resolution of
462 NAFLD.

463 In conclusion, in this large cohort study, we demonstrated that serum 25(OH)D levels
464 were inversely associated with the risk of incident NAFLD and were positively associated

465 with NAFLD resolution. In addition, maintaining sufficient serum levels of 25(OH)D, even at
466 a low-normal range, had favorable effects not only in prevention but also in the resolution of
467 NAFLD. With the recent prevalence of vitamin D deficiency occurring in parallel with the
468 rising incidence of NAFLD, our findings highlight that improved serum 25(OH)D levels may
469 be beneficial in NAFLD prevention and treatment. These data also emphasize that better-
470 designed, longer term, vitamin D intervention trials are required, in order to prove
471 unequivocally whether inexpensive vitamin D supplements are beneficial in the primary and
472 secondary prevention of NAFLD, in patients with low levels of vitamin D.

473

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476

477 **Data availability statement:** The data will not be made available to other researchers for
478 purposes of reproducing the results. However, analytical methods are available from
479 corresponding author on reasonable request.

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Figure 1. Flow chart for the selection of the study participants

Figure 2. Multivariable-adjusted hazard ratios for NAFLD

Curves represent adjusted hazard ratios for NAFLD based on restricted cubic splines with knots at the 5th, 35th, 65th, and 95th percentiles of serum 25(OH)D distribution.

Table 1. Estimated^a mean values (95% confidence intervals) and adjusted^a proportion (95% confidence intervals) of baseline characteristics by baseline 25(OH)D levels among participants without NAFLD at baseline (n = 139 599)

Characteristics	Vitamin D levels (ng/mL)				p-trend
	<10	10-19	20-29	≥30	
Number of participants	25 975	81 269	26 348	6 007	
Age (years)	35.2 (35.2–35.3)	35.9 (35.8–35.9)	37.1 (37.0–37.2)	39.2 (39.0–39.3)	<0.001
Male (%)	23.0 (22.5–23.5)	42.3 (42.0–42.7)	53.8 (53.2–54.4)	48.0 (46.7–49.3)	<0.001
Alcohol intake (%) ^b	22.6 (22.1–23.2)	24.8 (24.5–25.1)	27.3 (26.8–27.7)	27.5 (26.4–28.5)	<0.001
Current smoker (%)	11.7 (11.2–12.2)	12.6 (12.4–12.9)	14.2 (13.9–14.6)	13.8 (13.1–14.6)	<0.001
HEPA (%)	12.3 (11.9–12.7)	14.5 (14.2–14.7)	17.3 (16.9–17.8)	19.1 (18.1–20.1)	<0.001
Education level (%) ^c	80.6 (80.1–81.1)	84.5 (84.3–84.8)	86.2 (85.7–86.6)	86.5 (85.6–87.3)	<0.001
History of diabetes (%)	0.6 (0.5–0.7)	0.7 (0.6–0.7)	0.7 (0.6–0.8)	0.7 (0.6–0.9)	<0.001
History of hypertension (%)	3.7 (3.4–3.9)	3.4 (3.3–3.5)	3.6 (3.4–3.8)	3.3 (2.9–3.6)	<0.001
History of CVD (%)	0.6 (0.5–0.7)	0.5 (0.5–0.6)	0.6 (0.5–0.7)	0.6 (0.5–0.8)	<0.001
Glucose-lowering medication (%)	0.4 (0.3–0.5)	0.4 (0.4–0.5)	0.4 (0.3–0.5)	0.4 (0.3–0.5)	0.635
Anti-lipid medication use (%)	0.9 (0.8–1.1)	1.0 (0.9–1.0)	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	1.4 (1.2–1.6)	<0.001
Multi-vitamin supplement (%)	6.7 (6.4–7.0)	11.5 (11.3–11.7)	17.9 (17.5–18.4)	22.7 (21.7–23.8)	<0.001
Vitamin D supplement (%)	0.4 (0.3–0.5)	0.9 (0.8–1.0)	2.4 (2.2–2.6)	6.3 (5.7–6.9)	<0.001
Calcium supplement (%)	0.3 (0.2–0.4)	0.7 (0.6–0.8)	1.5 (1.4–1.7)	2.9 (2.5–3.4)	<0.001
Season					
Spring	38.3 (37.7–38.9)	26.9 (26.6–27.2)	16.4 (15.9–16.8)	17.5 (16.5–18.4)	<0.001
Summer	22.1 (21.6–22.6)	31.2 (30.9–31.5)	39.6 (39.0–40.2)	38.4 (37.2–39.7)	<0.001
Fall	20.9 (20.4–21.4)	30.2 (29.9–30.5)	36.5 (36.0–37.1)	34.1 (32.9–35.3)	<0.001
Winter	19.1 (18.6–19.6)	11.7 (11.5–12.0)	7.7 (7.4–8.1)	10.2 (9.3–10.8)	<0.001
Obesity (%) ^d	12.2 (11.7–12.6)	12.8 (12.6–13.0)	13.6 (13.2–14.0)	12.0 (11.2–12.7)	<0.001
BMI (kg/m ²)	21.8 (21.8–21.9)	22.0 (21.9–22.0)	22.0 (22.0–22.0)	21.8 (21.7–21.8)	<0.001
SBP (mmHg)	104.3 (104.1–104.4)	104.6 (104.5–104.7)	104.8 (104.7–104.9)	104.9 (104.7–105.2)	<0.001
DBP (mmHg)	66.6 (66.5–66.7)	66.8 (66.8–66.9)	66.9 (66.9–67.0)	66.9 (66.7–67.1)	<0.001
Glucose (mg/dl)	91.4 (91.3–91.5)	91.5 (91.4–91.6)	91.4 (91.3–91.5)	91.1 (90.9–91.3)	0.075
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	183.4 (183.1–183.8)	186.8 (186.6–187.1)	188.0 (187.6–188.3)	188.3 (187.5–189.0)	<0.001
GGT (U/L)	19.5 (19.2–19.7)	20.6 (20.4–20.7)	21.7 (21.5–21.9)	21.2 (20.8–21.7)	<0.001
ALT (U/L)	16.6 (16.4–16.7)	17.2 (17.2–17.3)	18.0 (17.8–18.1)	18.5 (18.2–18.8)	<0.001
HOMA-IR	1.21 (1.20–1.22)	1.20 (1.19–1.20)	1.19 (1.18–1.20)	1.18 (1.16–1.20)	<0.001

Total energy intake (kcal/d) ^f	1502 (1494–1511)	1505 (1500–1510)	1471 (1463–1480)	1415 (1396–1433)	<0.001
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^aAdjusted for age and sex; ^b ≥10 g/day; ^c ≥ college graduate; ^dBMI ≥ 25 kg/m²; ^e waist circumference ≥90 cm for men and ≥85 cm for women; ^f among 103,514 participants with plausible estimated energy intake levels (within three standard deviations from the log-transformed mean energy intake).

Abbreviations: ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BMI, body mass index; CVD, cardiovascular disease; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; GGT, gamma-glutamyl transferase; HEPA, health-enhancing physical activity; hs-CRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

Table 2. Development of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) by 25(OH)D levels among participants without NAFLD at baseline (n = 139 599)

25(OH)D levels (ng/mL)	Person-years (PY)	Incident cases	Incidence density (/ 10 ³ PY)	Age sex-adjusted HR (95% CI)	Multivariable-adjusted HR ^a (95% CI)		HR (95% CI) ^b in a model with time-dependent variables
					Model 1	Model 2	
<10	114 688.6	4310	37.6	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
10-19	343 136.6	16 487	48.0	0.95 (0.92–0.99)	0.91 (0.88–0.94)	0.89 (0.86–0.92)	0.86 (0.83–0.89)
20-29	102 627.3	5740	55.9	0.91 (0.88–0.95)	0.85 (0.81–0.88)	0.81 (0.78–0.85)	0.74 (0.71–0.77)
≥30	20 569.0	994	48.3	0.76 (0.71–0.82)	0.75 (0.70–0.81)	0.72 (0.67–0.77)	0.60 (0.56–0.64)
<i>p</i> -trend				<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

^a Estimated from Cox proportional hazards models. Multivariable model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening examination, alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, and BMI; model 2: model 1 plus adjustment for medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements.

^b Estimated from Cox proportional hazard models with quintiles of vitamin D levels, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, total energy intake, BMI, medication for hyperlipidemia, medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, season, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements as time-dependent variables, baseline age, center, year of screening exam, and education level as time-fixed variables.

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio

Table 3. Resolution of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) by 25(OH)D levels among subjects with NAFLD at baseline (n = 48 702)

25(OH)D levels (ng/mL)	Person-years (PY)	Resolution cases	Resolution rate (/ 10 ³ PY)	Age sex-adjusted HR (95% CI)	Multivariable-adjusted HR ^a (95% CI)		HR (95% CI) ^b in a model with time-dependent variable
					Model 1	Model 2	
<10	25 318.4	1819	71.8	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
10-19	118 651.4	8202	69.1	1.12 (1.06–1.18)	1.09 (1.03–1.14)	1.09 (1.03–1.15)	1.07 (1.01–1.12)
20-29	41 262.9	2929	71.0	1.17 (1.10–1.24)	1.13 (1.06–1.20)	1.13 (1.06–1.21)	1.07 (1.01–1.14)
≥30	6140.4	499	81.3	1.23 (1.12–1.36)	1.20 (1.08–1.33)	1.21 (1.09–1.35)	1.03 (0.93–1.13)
<i>p</i> -trend				<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.265

^a Estimated from Cox proportional hazards models. Multivariable model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening examination, alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, and BMI; model 2: model 1 plus adjustment for medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements.

^b Estimated from Cox proportional hazard models with quintiles of vitamin D levels, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity, total energy intake, BMI, medication for hyperlipidemia, medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, season, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements as time-dependent variables, baseline age, center, year of screening exam, and education level as time-fixed variables.

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio

Table 4. Development of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) by binary categories of 25(OH)D concentration at two examinations, in subjects without NAFLD at baseline (n = 92 792)

25(OH)D concentrations (ng/mL)		Person-years (PY)	Incident cases	Incidence density (/ 10 ³ PY)	Age sex-adjusted HR (95% CI)	Multivariable-adjusted HR ^a (95% CI)	
Visit 1	Visit 2					Model 1	Model 2
<20	<20	215 164.6	8419	39.1	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
≥20	<20	30 123.8	1390	46.1	0.96 (0.90–1.01)	0.94 (0.89–1.00)	0.92 (0.87–0.98)
<20	≥20	45 558.3	1678	36.8	0.89 (0.84–0.94)	0.87 (0.82–0.91)	0.87 (0.82–0.91)
≥20	≥20	35 618.6	1656	46.5	0.87 (0.82–0.92)	0.82 (0.78–0.87)	0.80 (0.76–0.85)

^a Estimated from Cox proportional hazards models. Multivariable model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening examination, alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, and BMI; model 2: model 1 plus adjustment for medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements. Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio

Table 5. Resolution of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) by binary categories of 25(OH)D levels at two visits, among subjects with NAFLD at baseline (n = 30 848)

25(OH)D concentrations (ng/mL)		Person-years (PY)	Resolution cases	Resolution rate (/ 10 ³ PY)	Age sex-adjusted HR (95% CI)	Multivariable-adjusted HR ^a (95% CI)	
Visit 1	Visit 2					Model 1	Model 2
<20	<20	68 831.8	3352	48.7	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
≥20	<20	11 386.1	521	45.8	0.98 (0.90–1.08)	0.98 (0.89–1.07)	0.97 (0.88–1.07)
<20	≥20	12 970.5	620	47.8	1.02 (0.93–1.11)	1.02 (0.94–1.11)	1.02 (0.94–1.11)
≥20	≥20	14 786.6	772	52.2	1.11 (1.02–1.20)	1.10 (1.02–1.20)	1.10 (1.01–1.19)

^a Estimated from Cox proportional hazards models. Multivariable model 1 was adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening examination, alcohol consumption, smoking, physical activity, total energy intake, education level, and BMI; model 2: model 1 plus adjustment for medication for hyperlipidemia, glucose-lowering medication, multi-vitamin supplements, vitamin D supplements, and calcium supplements. Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; HR, hazard ratio

