

The Role of Vitamin D on the Immune System - A Review

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ABSTRACT

Vitamin D, which is notable for its exemplary part in the upkeep of immune body, has an essential effect on the body's immune system. It also balances both innate and adaptive immunity and manages the fiery course. Vitamin D has gotten expanded consideration as of late for its pleiotropic activities on numerous chronic diseases. The significance of Vitamin D on the control of cells of the immune system has increased expanded increase over the previous decade with the disclosure of the Vitamin D receptor and key Vitamin D using compounds communicated by cells of the immune system. In this article, discoveries showing that Vitamin D is a key factor in managing both innate and adaptive immunity with an emphasis on the atomic systems included.

Key words: Vitamin D, Immune system, T cells, B cells, Innate immunity, Adaptive immunity.

1. INTRODUCTION

Vitamin D is generally known for its advantageous consequences for calcium homeostasis and bone metabolism. In any case, over 30 years prior, non-established elements of Vitamin D have been distinguished, basically in connection to its anti-proliferative consequences for tumor cells communicating the Vitamin D receptor (VDR) [1]. From that point forward, Vitamin D insufficiency has been related not just with bone-related osteomalacia and rickets disease, yet in addition with various other obsessive conditions. Developing confirmation recommends that Vitamin D is effectively engaged with the direction of both innate and adaptive immune responses [2]. Indeed, most researches support the notion that Vitamin D plays an extensive immunomodulatory role in immune-mediated disorders, including infections, autoimmune diseases, and cancer [3]. By and large, these reports feature the pleiotropic impacts of Vitamin D on immune response regulation; however, the underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms remain not entirely characterized. The reactions of Vitamin D with define arms of the immune response become even more complicated, considering that Vitamin D does not act exclusively through VDR's transcriptional impacts inside the cell nucleus, yet applies, rapidly induced, and non-genomic impacts when the VDR is arranged on the cell membrane and cytoplasm [4]. The aim of this article is to recognize the sub-atomic activities of Vitamin D in a few parts of the immune system with a specific spotlight on the innate immune system and the adaptive immune system as it relates to autoimmune disease.

2. SOURCES AND METABOLISM OF VITAMIN D

In humans, Vitamin D might make acquired from two unique sources, possibly starting with diet or by UV-mediated synthesis in the epidermal layer of the skin. Hence, by definition, Vitamin D cannot be considered as a genuine vitamin but instead as a prohormone. Two types of Vitamin D can be acquired by dietary intake: Vitamin D₂ (also known as ergocalciferol) is available in fungi/yeast, same time Vitamin D₃ (also known as cholecalciferol) may be discovered on sustenance from origins in the animal. Just some foods normally contain noteworthy measures of Vitamin D. For instance, cod-liver oil and sleek fish

are considered as rich sources, though cream, butter, and egg yolk contain only little amounts. Human and cow's milk, on the contrary, are poor wellsprings of Vitamin D [5]. Notwithstanding, the way that Vitamin D₃ can be gotten by nutrition, the most essential wellspring of this prohormone is the skin, which has an extraordinary ability to create Vitamin D₃ on daylight exposure. In the skin, UV beams advance photolytic cleavage of 7-dihydrocholesterol (7-DHC) into pre-Vitamin D₃, which is in this way changed over by an unconstrained thermal isomerization into Vitamin D₃ [6].

Vitamin D from the diet and skin is mutability in the liver to 25-hydroxyvitamin D (Figure 1), which is utilized to decide a patient's Vitamin D status; 25 hydroxyvitamin D is metabolized in the kidneys by the catalyst 25-hydroxyvitamin D-1 α -hydroxylase (CYP27B1) to its active frame, 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D. The renal generation from claiming 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D may be firmly controlled eventually by plasma parathyroid hormone (PTH) levels and phosphorus levels and serum calcium. Fibroblast growth factor 23, fibroblast growth factor 23, discharged from those bone, makes those sodium-phosphate cotransporter should make internalized toward those cells of the kidney also small intestine, furthermore also suppresses 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D synthesis. The productivity of the ingestion of renal calcium and intestinal calcium and phosphorus is expanded within sight of 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D. It likewise actuates the outflow of the enzyme 25-hydroxyvitamin D-24-hydroxylase (CYP24), which catabolizes both 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D into organically inert, water-dissolvable calcitric acid [7].

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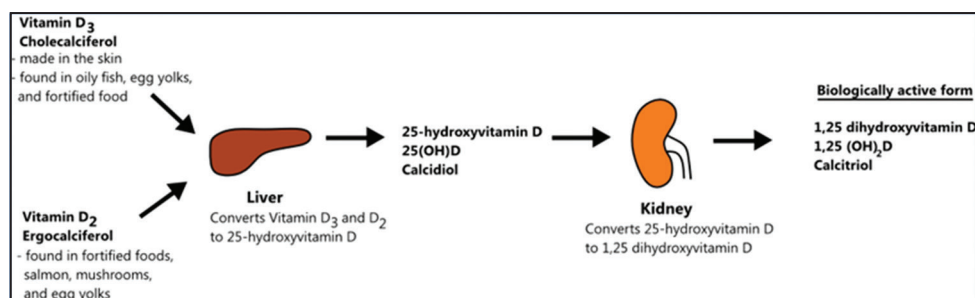


Figure 1: Vitamin D metabolism.

3. DEFINITIONS AND PREVALENCE OF VITAMIN DEFICIENCY

In spite of the fact that there is no agreement on ideal levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D as estimated in serum, Vitamin D insufficiency is characterized by most specialists as a 25-hydroxyvitamin D level of under 20 ng for each milliliter (50 nmol per liter) [8]. 25-Hydroxyvitamin D levels are contrarily connected with PTH levels until the previous achieve 30–40 ng for every milliliter (75–100 nmol per liter), in which purpose PTH levels start will level off. Besides, intestinal calcium transport expanded by 45–65% in women when 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels were expanded from a normal of 20–32 ng for every milliliter (50–80 nmol per liter) [9]. Given such information, a level of 25-hydroxyvitamin D of 21–29 ng for every milliliter (52–72 nmol per liter) can be considered to show a relative inadequacy of Vitamin D, and a level of 30 ng for each milliliter or more prominent can be considered to demonstrate adequate Vitamin D [10]. Vitamin D inebriation is detected when serum levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D are more noteworthy than 150 ng for every milliliter (374 nmol per liter). With the utilization of such definitions, it has been assessed that 1 billion individuals worldwide have vitamin D inadequacy or deficiency [11]. Over half of postmenopausal ladies taking the drug for osteoporosis had problematic levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D beneath 30 ng for every milliliter (75 nmol per liter). Youngsters and youthful grown-ups are additionally possibly at high risk for lack of Vitamin D. Likewise in danger was pregnant and lactating ladies who were believed to be immune to Vitamin D insufficiency since they took a day by day pre-birth multivitamin containing 400 IU of Vitamin D (70% took a pre-birth vitamin, 90% ate fish, and 93% drank around 2.3 glasses of milk for every day); 73% of the women and 80% of their babies were Vitamin D inadequate (25-hydroxyvitamin D level, <20 ng/ml) at the time of birth [12].

4. VITAMIN D REGULATION

The term Vitamin D refers to a group of fat-soluble secosteroids, which are essential for the metabolic control of calcium, iron, magnesium, phosphate and zinc. For humans, this gathering comprises for the most of two active structures, the animal-originating Vitamin D₃, also called cholecalciferol, and the plant-originating Vitamin D₂, distinguished similarly as ergocalciferol (Figure 2a and b). Both Vitamin D structures can be gotten through diet, while cholecalciferol can be additionally created in the skin on adequate exposure of mammals to sunlight, through UVB-mediated ring-opening electrocyclic response of its precursor molecule, 7-DHC. Since the term vitamin by definition alludes to a crucial component, organisms cannot deliver Vitamin D ought not to be considered as a vitamin but instead as a hormone.

Vitamin D₃ may be further metabolized in the liver, where it undergoes hydroxylation to deliver its pre-hormonal cognate calcifediol, also called calcidiol, 25-hydroxycholecalciferol or 25-hydroxyvitamin

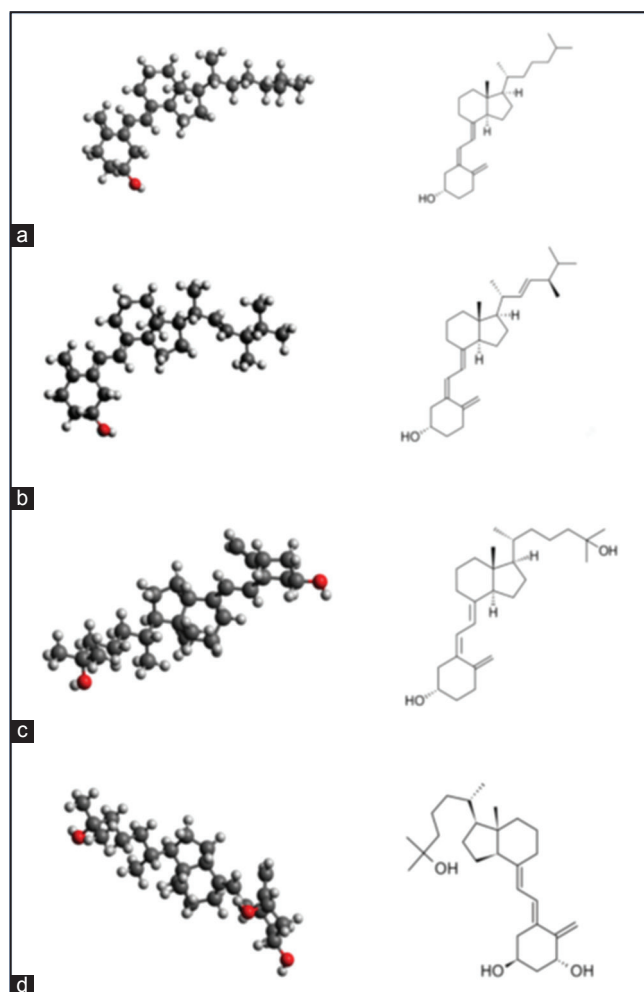


Figure 2: (a-d) Structures of the Vitamin D group components.

D (25(OH) D) (Figure 2c). Circle calcifediol constitutes that marker for identifying Vitamin's D status over people. It will be further metabolized eventually by the mitochondrial catalyst 25(OH)D-1 α -hydroxylase (CYP27B1) in the renal proximal tubules to prepare its active metabolite calcitriol (Figure 2d), otherwise called 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol alternately 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ (1,25(OH)₂D₃) [13]. Liver hydroxylation is an inadequately controlled process that is specifically corresponding to the measure of Vitamin D₃ ingested or synthesized. Renal hydroxylation is entirely managed by PTH and by calcitriol itself through a negative input mechanism [14]. Additional renal creation of calcitriol happens in an extensive number of tissues communicating the CYP27B1 compound and the VDR, specifically by epithelial cells of the skin, bone, lung, intestine, parathyroid organ cells, and also, by a variety of immune cells [15]. Calcitriol's established capacities incorporate the advancement of dietary calcium assimilation from the

gastrointestinal tract, the expansion of renal tubular reabsorption of calcium, the upregulation of osteoblastic movement and the restraint of calcitonin, and all prompting raised calcium levels in the serum. Calcitriol has a short half-existence of around 4 h, is immediately metabolized to calcitric acid through the activity of 24-hydroxylase, and excreted in the urine [16].

5. VITAMIN D AND IMMUNITY

Along the numerous essential tissues and cells in which the VDR was found are the immune system specialists: Lymphocytes, monocytes, and dendritic cells (DCs); subsequently, the following stage developing, particularly amid the most recent decade, was to illustrate the function of Vitamin D as a positive immunomodulatory on the immune system. The effects of Vitamin D inadequacy in the pathogenesis of immunomediated disease and the critical part of pharmacological doses of Vitamin D in autoimmune disease have been featured. Up until this point, in excess of 30 beneficial outcomes of Vitamin D on the immune system have been announced [3].

The cozy association with the creation of the active metabolite of Vitamin D on introduction to UVB radiation has been outstanding for quite a long time. Vitamin D has parts in the development of macrophages, including the production of macrophage-particular surface antigens and the excretion of the lysosomal chemical corrosive phosphatase and hydrogen peroxide. These highlights of antimicrobial capacity are impeded in the setting of the lack of Vitamin D [17]. Accordingly, Vitamin D has a critical part in expanding the impacts of innate immune processes while restraining the adaptive immune system, leading to improved results in autoimmune diseases and conceivably lowering risk of autoimmune disease [18]. Vitamin D has a section in molding immune response by T and B cells. For example, the quantity of VDR on CD4+ T cells connects with the level of cell activation. The expansion of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ to CD4+ T cells restrains the multiplication of T-helper-1 cells and cytokine production. Moreover, suppression of T-helper-1 cytokines, such as interleukin (IL)-2, IL-12, and interferon γ , and increased production of T-helper-2 cytokines, such as IL-5 and IL-10, has been observed, recommending that T-aide 2 cells are more predominant than T-helper-17 cells [19].

Vitamin D also modulates the reactions from claiming T-helper-17 cells, which would fundamental will immune system responses. A nonhypercalcemic VDR agonist, eocalcitol, was shown to decrease T-helper-1-type and T-helper-17-type cytokine secretion and to promote T-helper-2-type cytokine expression. Autoantibody production was also suppressed by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ [20].

The generation of bone marrow DCs is not hindered by the lifted levels of 1,25(OH)₂D₃, however, development is delebrated. *In vitro*, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ represses IL-12 emission and separation of monocytes into DCs, and it impedes the stimulatory impacts that T cells have on their activity. While 1,25(OH)₂D₃ invigorates phagocytosis and the killing of microorganisms by macrophages, it smothers the antigen-showing limit of these cells, it smothers the antigen-showing limit of these cells, introducing dichotomic reactions toward the innate and adaptive arms of the immune system. Besides, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ instigates monocytic separation to macrophages and reductions the arrival of provocative cytokines and chemokines by these cells [19].

Provided for this understanding of the mechanisms whereby Vitamin D lessens those dangers about infection, it is worthwhile to look at some of the evidence that Vitamin D reduces the risk of infectious diseases. There are a few bacterial diseases that Vitamin D ensures against other than tuberculosis. One that has been examined numerous years is the counteractive action of dental caries due to the activity of oral microscopic organisms. Concentrates in the 1930s–1950s found

that young people living in sunnier areas in the United States had less dental caries than those living in less bright areas [21].

The impact of Vitamin D in diminishing danger of intense respiratory infections has been the focal point of a few ongoing studies. An investigation in Connecticut discovered levels “of 38 ng/mL” or more were related with a huge ($p < 0.0001$) two-set decrease in the danger of creating intense respiratory tract infections and with a stamped decrease in the rates of days sick [22].

In a supplementation examine in Sweden including 140 patients with visit respiratory tract contaminations (RTIs) utilizing 4000 IU/day Vitamin D₃, those on the supplementation arm expanded their serum 25(OH)D level to 53 ng/mL while those in the placebo arm had 25(OH)D levels of 27 ng/mL [23]. Those taking Vitamin D₃ had a 23% (95% confidence interval, 1–40%) decrease in RTIs and a half decrease in the quantity of days utilizing anti-infection agents. There is mounting proof that Vitamin D decreases the danger of sepsis [24].

While the impacts of Vitamin D have been discovered for the most part for bacterial diseases, some have likewise been accounted for viral infections, for example, flu, HIV, and hepatitis C [25]. There is, additionally, solid proof that Vitamin D ensures against the immune system sickness, different sclerosis. Epstein Barr infection is an imperative hazard factor for this illness [26].

Subsequently, it appears that Vitamin D might be instrumental in the invulnerable framework homeostasis, and in counteracting immune system maladies and bringing down the danger of contaminations. The standard solution of Vitamin D in these conditions is strongly recommended [19].

6. FUNCTIONS OF VITAMIN D IN INNATE IMMUNITY

Vitamin D has gotten much consideration amid the most recent years due to its unforeseen and significant consequences on immune response regulation. Experimental *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies have revealed that Vitamin D, and its metabolites, control immune responses mediated by key innate immune cells, such as macrophages and DCs [16].

7. MECHANISMS BY WHICH 1,25(OH)₂D MAY REGULATE IMMUNE CELL FUNCTION

It is generally believed that all immune cell types can respond to 1,25(OH)₂D. This discovery is driven by acknowledgment of cell articulation of the VDR, the finding of different essential 1,25(OH)₂D target genes in immune cells and the discovery that many immune cells (macrophages, DCs, T and B lymphocytes) can convert 25(OH)D to 1,25(OH)₂D through cytochrome P450 family 27 subfamily B member 1 (CYP27B)1. The measure of 1,25(OH)₂D created may rely on the capacity of immune cells to express CYP27B1 and other enzymatic apparatus of the Vitamin D pathway, including the CYP24A1 deactivation enzyme. For instance, *in vitro* animated macrophages delivered more 1,25(OH)₂D than DCs, which communicated truncated CYP27B1 transcripts bringing about lower CYP27B1 protein levels, and furthermore communicated expanded levels of CYP24A1 mRNA [27]. Notwithstanding, *in vitro* ponders announcing noteworthy biological impacts of 1,25(OH)₂D on immune cells (much of the time under perfect conditions utilizing possibly supra-physiological concentrations of 1,25(OH)₂D), the inquiry stays with regard to the real biological effects of 1,25(OH)₂D *in vivo*.

Introduction of separating DCs to 1,25(OH)₂D keeps their full development [28]. In spite of that, the debate remains encompassing the properties of these “tolerogenic” DCs and their capacity to meddle with T cell division and advancement of T administrative cell (TReg) production and extension [29]. Lymphocytes may likewise



straightforwardly react to $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$. Naïve T cells ($\text{T}_\text{H}0$ cell) express low levels of the VDR that is up-managed by antigen-particular activating of T cell receptors and adds to preparing of Naïve cells. As VDR expression can also inhibit the transcription of the IL-2 gene, this may represent another purpose of immune regulation by $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$. Homing receptors on T cells might be changed by $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ [30].

It is found that $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ prevented accumulation of inflammatory cells into the central nervous system, albeit $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ did not influence the activation of the pathogenic interferon- γ and IL-17-creating T cells in lymph hubs, spleen or the immunization site, that is, the sensational fundamental immune response to myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein was not adjusted [31].

Flowing levels of $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ are a log overlay lower than those of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ and are not adequate for immune regulation; it is, for the most part, suggested that $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ is changed over locally to adequate levels of $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ to accomplish the biological activity. Mast cells have recently been identified, with macrophages, DCs, and T and B lymphocytes, to express CYP27B1 for local $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ production. In any case, the level of Vitamin D binding protein (VDBP), and its partiality to $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$, can also limit the accessibility of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ to DCs and potentially different cells. Cells from individuals with different VDBP variants were studied and for individuals with the strong $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ binding variant, the availability of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ to DCs was limited, bringing about less dendritic cell-T cell interaction [32].

8. THE ROLE OF VITAMIN D IN AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE

In spite of the fact that the common history of autoimmunity remains to a great extent obscure, the across the board hypothesis is that both hereditary vulnerability and ecological components assume a part in the improvement of the clinical malady. Both exploratory perceptions and clinical investigations recommend a key part for Vitamin D as a modifiable natural factor in immune system sickness (Figure 3) [33]. Vitamin D has known immunomodulatory consequences for an extensive variety of safe cells, including T lymphocytes, B lymphocytes, and DCs [34]. Every immune cell of this type is composed of express VDR and creates the enzymes $1\alpha\text{-OHase}$ and 24-hydroxylase , which are able to do locally producing active $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ [35]. The autocrine and paracrine functions of $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ are under tight immune system regulation and are dependent on an adequate supply of circulating $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$, making the plague of Vitamin D lack basic to address for immune system health.

9. SPECIFIC IMPACTS ON T AND B CELLS

Actuation for $\text{CD}4^+$ T cells results in a five-fold increment in VDR articulation, empowering direction of no $<10^2$ recognized qualities receptive to $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ [36]. $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ smothers T cell receptor prompted T cell expansion and changed their cytokine articulation profile. The general move is far from a T helper (Th)1 phenotype toward a more tolerogenic $\text{Th}2$ phenotype. $\text{IFN}\gamma$ and IL-2 creation by T cells is decreased by disclosure to $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ while IL-5 and IL-10 are expanded, predictable with a shift toward a $\text{Th}2$ reaction. The generation of the $\text{Th}2$ cytokine IL-4 is up-managed by $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ in most, however, not all, ponders. Vitamin D appears to straightforwardly repress $\text{Th}1$ cells and may moreover adjust a skewing toward a $\text{Th}2$ reaction by its inhibitory impacts on IL-12 [37].

$\text{Th}17$ cells are a subset of $\text{CD}4^+$ T cells engaged with organ-particular autoimmunity, assuming a part in keeping up irritation which can prompt tissue harm. In animal models of immune system uveitis and provocative gut infection, $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ stifles autoimmunity and tissue decimation by repressing the $\text{Th}17$ reaction at a few levels, including the capacity

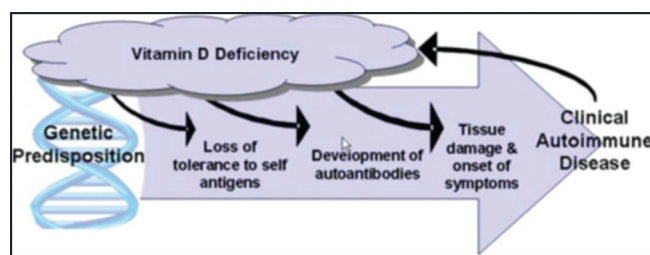


Figure 3: Proposed mechanism for Vitamin D's influence on the development and progression of autoimmunity. $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ regulates dendritic cells maturation and the differentiation and activity of $\text{CD}4^+$ T cells to prevent the loss of self-tolerance. In a genetically predisposed individual, it is more likely that autoantibodies will develop and proliferate in the setting of Vitamin D deficiency. Ultimately, deficiency of Vitamin D may act as an environmental trigger of clinical disease. Left untreated, the cycle of Vitamin D deficiency will continue as many autoimmune diseases and several medications used to treat them lead to sun avoidance from photosensitivity. The role of Vitamin D status in the natural history of autoimmunity warrants further investigation.

of DCs to help preparing of $\text{Th}17$ cells and the capacity of $\text{Th}17$ cells to deliver IL-17. Vitamin D hinders the outflow of IL-6, a cytokine which animates $\text{Th}17$ cell geneses, and stifles IL-12p70, IL-23p19, and assist IL-6 and IL-17 articulation. Notwithstanding impacts on $\text{CD}4^+$ cells, Vitamin D encourages the enlistment of $\text{Foxp}3^+$ TReg, and there is a positive connection between serum $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ levels and the capacity of T regulatory cells to stifle T cell multiplication. By and large, the confirmation bolsters an imperative part for Vitamin D in affecting T cell reactions and in treating aggravation and tissue harm [38].

Vitamin D directly affects B cells and represses immunoglobulin creation. Besides, when presented *in vitro* to $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$, separation of B lymphocytes is interfered with the study of Chen *et al.* [35]. Fringe blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from patients with SLE are delicate to the impacts of Vitamin D; expansion of $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ to SLE PBMCs results in a critical decrease of both unconstrained polyclonal antibody creation and pathogenic anti-dsDNA autoantibody generation by SLE B cells [20].

10. VITAMIN D AND AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE

There have been a few animal models of autoimmunity in which infection could either be avoided or improved with the organization of either $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ or one of its analogs. These creature models incorporate immune system encephalomyelitis, collagen instigated joint inflammation, type-1 diabetes mellitus, provocative gut ailment, immune system uveitis, and lupus [38]. These investigations exhibit that treatment with hormonally active Vitamin D is compelling in balancing safe capacity and emphatically affecting immune system ailment.

Vitamin D inadequacy is a hazardous factor for the advancement of various immune system illnesses. A significant number of clinical examinations assess Vitamin D status utilizing dietary polls, which is a deficient surrogate without considering sun exposure and skin pigmentation [39]. This is particularly valid in later examinations as expanded consciousness of skin cancer has brought about more prominent general utilization of sunscreen and sun avoidance. These methodological impediments can clarify a portion of the conflicting outcomes found in vast epidemiologic investigations of Vitamin D allow on the rate of rheumatoid joint inflammation [4,38].

11. OPTIMAL LEVELS OF 25-HYDROXYVITAMIN D

Unmistakably 1,25(OH)₂D has physiologic impacts past that of bone and mineral homeostasis and that the disturbing commonness of Vitamin D lack seen worldwide might contribute to immune-mediated diseases. In view of bone-related biomarkers, for example, flawless PTH, calcium absorption, and bone mineral thickness, keeping up a 25(OH)D level of no <32 ng/ml seems adequate. The forthcoming examinations expected to test whether comparative levels are essential for optimal immune health have not yet been finished. Possibly higher shorts of 25(OH)D will be required, and a superior comprehension will probably be accessible soon as research advances [38].

12. CONCLUSION

As the paper indicated in detail, it can be said that 25(OH)VitD and 1,25(OH)₂VitD are more than just key players in the autoimmune system. This has unmistakably demonstrated that the cell segment of the two arms of the immune system is not just focuses for the active type of Vitamin D also able to activate circulating 25(OH)VitD contending for intracranial and paracrine activities notwithstanding the exemplary endocrine pathway. Strong immunomodulatory activities of Vitamin D on both innate and adaptive immune have been recently discovered. While innate immunity is improved against “high partiality” outside antigens, Vitamin D adequacy has a housing impact on the handling of “low-affinity” self-antigens. In spite of the fact that the exact instruments are as yet being found, the important role of Vitamin D in maintaining immune homeostasis ought not to be neglected. Interventional concentrates to additionally characterize the immunomodulatory impacts of Vitamin D in people should be finished.

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