




Vitamin D supplementation ameliorates severity of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD)

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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of vitamin D supplementation on Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) clinical symptoms and neurochemical biomarkers including serotonin, neopterin and kynurenine. Thirty male and female patients diagnosed with GAD and had vitamin D deficiency were recruited from the psychiatric clinic at King Abdulaziz University Hospital and divided into two groups; one group of patients ($n=15$) received standard of care (SOC) plus 50,000 IU vitamin D (once/week) for 3 months, while the other group ($n=15$) received SOC alone. Biochemical parameters including serum vitamin D, serotonin, neopterin and kynurenine were measured for all patients enrolled in the trial. In addition, the Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-item (GAD-7) scale was used to measure the severity of GAD symptoms in both vitamin D treated- and untreated-patients. Significant improvements in GAD scores were observed in the vitamin D-treated group compared to the group that did not receive vitamin D. In addition, serum serotonin concentrations were significantly increased while serum neopterin were significantly decreased in vitamin D-treated vs. untreated patients. In contrast, no significant differences were found in serum kynurenine concentrations at the end of the study period between the two groups. No changes either in GAD-7 scores or in any of the biochemical measurements were observed in the group that received only SOC after 3 months. Vitamin D supplementation was effective in ameliorating the severity of GAD symptoms by increasing serotonin concentrations and decreasing the levels of the inflammatory biomarker neopterin in GAD patients.

Keywords Vitamin D · Generalized anxiety disorder · Serotonin · Neopterin · Kynurenine

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Introduction

Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD) is one of a multitude of anxiety disorders that affect 0.8%–6.4% of world population (Kirmayer 2001; Lieb et al. 2005; Grant et al. 2005; Kessler and Wang 2008). Patients with GAD usually experience long-term anxiety with no obvious reason or external cause (Portman et al. 2012) and exhibit excessive worry, restlessness and concentration difficulty (Hoffman et al. 2008). GAD is often severe enough leading to impairments in daily functioning, including work productivity, social interactions, and self-care (Wittchen and Hoyer 2001).

GAD pathophysiology may encompass psychological, environmental, and neurobiological factors. One of the neurobiological factors that may underlie the pathophysiology of GAD is serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine; 5-HT) (Ionescu et al. 2013, Berger et al. 2009). Several

studies proposed that imbalances in 5-HT neurotransmission may contribute to the development and persistence of anxiety disorders, including GAD (Eison 1990; Griebel 1995). Lesch and Gutknecht (2005) reported that patients with anxiety disorder have genetic polymorphisms in the 5-HT transporter (5-HT_T) gene. This transporter is located on the plasma membrane of the serotonergic neurons and is responsible for the reuptake of synaptic 5-HT into the neuron (Piñeyro and Blier 1999). Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) and serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) mediate their clinical antidepressant activities by blocking the presynaptic 5-HT_T and enhancing 5-HT neurotransmission (Stahl 1998). Oxidative stress may also play a role in the neurobiology of anxiety disorders (Boldrini et al. 2018; Gautam et al. 2012; Bouayed et al. 2009, 2011). Sustained stress can promote neuroinflammation and trigger an increase in reactive oxygen species and other markers of neuroinflammation such as pro-inflammatory cytokines, neopterin and kynurenine (Stone 2001; Murr et al. 2002; Kim and Jeon 2018).

Vitamin D is well known for its essential roles in bone metabolism but has been found to also play a role in brain health as a neurosteroid (DeLuca 2004; Groves et al. 2014). Circulating 25-hydroxy vitamin D crosses the blood-brain barrier and enters glial and neuronal cells where it is converted into its active form, 1,25-hydroxy vitamin D (DeLuca et al. 2013). 1,25-hydroxy vitamin D binds to vitamin D receptors (VDRs) found in more than 30 cell types throughout the body, including neurons (Holick et al. 2007). Several recent studies have demonstrated an association between low serum 25-hydroxy-vitamin D concentrations and affective disorders, particularly depression (Hoogendijk et al. 2008; Hoang et al. 2011; Milaneschi et al. 2014; Pu et al. 2018; Hansen et al. 2014; Fedotova et al. 2017; Bicikova et al. 2015). Limited number of studies suggests that vitamin D deficiency may contribute to the expression of anxiety symptoms (Bicikova et al. 2015). Nonetheless, the association between vitamin D deficiency, anxiety and stress is still debated and require further investigation.

This study explored the role of vitamin D deficiency (vitamin D serum levels 25–50 nmol/L) in the pathophysiology of GAD by studying the clinical and biochemical effects of vitamin D supplementation in a sample of GAD patients from Saudi Arabia, a country where both low vitamin D levels and anxiety disorders are prevalent (Al-Daghri 2018, Hariri 2016, Al-Modayfer and Alatiq 2015). We hypothesized that improving vitamin D levels by vitamin D supplementation will ameliorate the severity of GAD symptoms and alter neurochemical biomarkers of anxiety and oxidative stress, including serotonin, neopterin and kynurenine.

Materials and methods

Trial design

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board and done in accordance with the ethical standards of the Ethical committee of the Faculty of Medicine at King Abdulaziz University. All participants gave written informed consent to enroll in the trial. We recruited 30 adult Saudi patients (ages 18–65 years old) with GAD and vitamin D deficiency (vitamin D level 25–50 nmol/L) from the psychiatric clinics at the King Abdulaziz University Hospital in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. The study period was from February to November 2017. A board-certified psychiatrist made the diagnosis of GAD according to the criteria of the 5th version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM5). We measured serum levels of vitamin D in all subjects and excluded patients with a vitamin D level > 50 nmol/L (vitamin D-replete patients) or < 25 nmol/L (vitamin D-deficient patients who were treated with vitamin D but not included in the study). We also measured baseline serum levels of parathyroid hormone (PTH) and excluded those with abnormal levels of PTH from the study. Patients with other comorbid conditions including major depression, bipolar disorder and substance abuse were also excluded from the study. All enrolled patients received standard of care (SOC) treatment for GAD including antidepressant and anxiolytic medications. We randomized patients into two groups. First group ($n = 15$) received SOC plus 50,000 IU Vitamin D3 (once/week) for 3 months, while the second group ($n = 15$) received only SOC for 3 months. We recorded demographic data related to each patient, including gender, age, marital status, level of education, smoking status and BMI. The level of education and smoking status were included to reflect the social heterogeneity among the enrolled patients and not as an indicator or a side effect of GAD. We assessed the severity of GAD symptoms using the Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 item (GAD-7) scale. The GAD-7 total score ranges from 0 to 21, with three levels of severity, mild (5–9), moderate (10–14) and severe (15–21) (Spitzer et al. 2006).

Biochemical measurements

All participants donated fasting blood samples. Serum samples were separated and stored at -80°C for later measurements of biochemical parameters including vitamin D, serotonin, neopterin and kynurenine. Serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D3 was measured by the electrochemiluminescence immunoassay method using COBAS e411 automated machine analyzer (Roche company, USA). An enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit (ab133053- serotonin in vitro competitive ELISA kit) was used to quantitatively determine serum serotonin according to the manufacturer's protocol. Serum neopterin and

kynurenine levels were measured quantitatively by using human Neopterin ELISA kit (cat no. K10554, SingoGeneClon Biotech Co., Ltd) and human kynurenine ELISA kit (cat no. k10619, SingoGeneClon Biotech Co., Ltd), respectively.

Statistical analysis

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine whether there were significant differences in GAD7 scores, serum vitamin D, serotonin, neopterin, and kynurenine levels between the SOC + vitamin D group vs. SOC group treatment at baseline and after 3 months. We performed statistical analyses using GraphPad Prism version 6 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA. Data are presented as means \pm SEM, with p value <0.05 set as the criterion of significance.

Results

Table 1 shows demographic characteristics of study participants and their GAD7 scores. The mean age of enrolled patients (17 males and 13 females) was 40 years. More than 75% of the patients were non-smokers and more than 70% had a

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of study participants

	Mean	SEM
Age (years)	40.1	2.00
Height (cm)	161	2.40
Body mass (kg)	74.8	3.23
	N	%
BMI (kg/m ²)		
< 18.9	0	0
19–24.9	8	26
25–29.9	11	37
> 30.0	11	37
Marital status		
Married	21	70
Single	9	30
Level of education		
Early childhood education	6	20
Primary education	5	17
Secondary education	9	30
Collage education	10	33
Smoking status		
Smoker	6	20
Non-smoker	24	80
GAD score		
Mild (5–9)	4	14
Moderate (10–14)	17	59
Sever (15–21)	11	38

BMI above 25 kg/m². There was no significant difference between males and females with regard to age, BMI or baseline GAD7 scores. The majority of the participants had moderate to severe anxiety. Baseline GAD7 scores were not significantly different between the group that received SOC + vitamin D vs. the group that received SOC alone (mean scores were 13.6 and 13.8, respectively). Similarly, baseline vitamin D serum levels were indifferent between the group that received SOC + vitamin D vs. the group that received SOC alone (mean levels were 41.7 and 43.5 nmols/L, respectively).

At the 3-month follow up visit, the GAD7 scores of the group that received both SOC and vitamin D were significantly decreased (mean = 9.5) compared to their baseline level (mean 13.6; $p < 0.0001$). In contrast, follow-up GAD7 score of the SOC group did not change significantly from baseline (mean = 14.1 vs. 13.8 at baseline; $p = 0.77$) (Fig. 1). The follow-up vitamin D serum levels of the first group expectedly increased in comparison to their baseline level (90.1 mean = nmol/L, $p < 0.0001$), and was significantly higher than that of the SOC group at their 3-month follow up visit (mean = 36.54 nmol/L, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 2). In the SOC + vitamin D group, serum serotonin levels significantly increased in comparison to their baseline levels (means 155 and 135 mmol/L respectively, $p < 0.01$). In the SOC group, there was no statistically significant difference between baseline and 3-month follow up visit (means 182.1 and 176.6 mmol/L respectively, $p = 0.94$) (Fig. 3). Serum neopterin concentrations significantly decreased in the SOC + vitamin D group by approximately five folds compared with the baseline levels (means 68 and 12 respectively, $p < 0.001$). On the other hand, the SOC group had higher serum neopterin levels at their follow up visit in comparison to their baseline levels (Fig. 4). In contrast to serotonin and neopterin, serum kynurenine concentrations did not change at the follow up visit in comparison to the baseline levels in both SOC + vitamin D (means 2.2 ± 0.21 and 2.2 ± 0.23 , $p = 0.98$) and SOC (means 2.3 ± 0.26 and 2.2 ± 0.31 , $p = 0.98$) groups (Fig. 5).

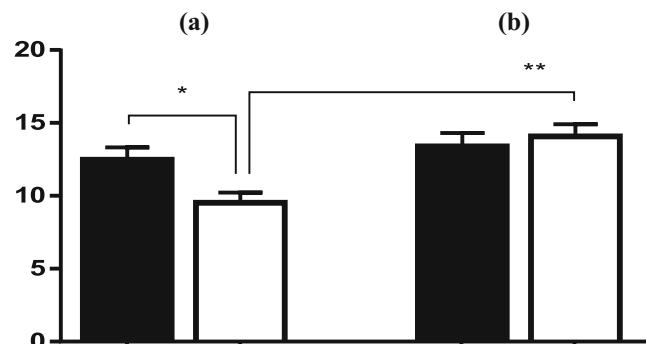


Fig. 1 GAD7 scores in GAD patients. GAD7 scores (mean \pm SEM) in (a) patients treated with SOC + vitamin D and (b) patients treated with SOC alone. Baseline levels are represented by black bars. Follow up levels at 3-months are represented by white bars. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

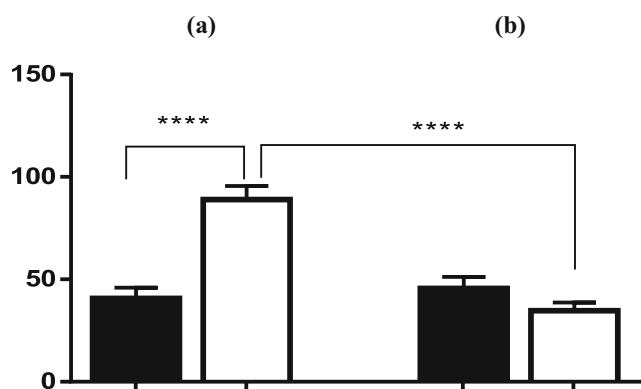


Fig. 2 Serum vitamin D levels in GAD patients. Serum vitamin D levels (mean \pm SEM) expressed in nmol/L in (a) patients treated with SOC + vitamin D and (b) patients treated with SOC alone. Baseline levels are represented by black bars. Follow up levels at 3-months are represented by white bars. **** $p < 0.0001$

Discussion

The potential role of vitamin D in anxiety disorders has not been adequately investigated. This is in contrast to its role in depression where a large body of research demonstrated an association between low vitamin D levels and depression (Hoang et al. 2011; Bicikova et al. 2015), and showed that vitamin D supplementation improved depressive symptoms (Jorde et al. 2008). This study is the one of the first few studies to investigate the effect of vitamin D supplementation on GAD clinical symptomology, and the first to our knowledge that investigated associated changes in neurochemical biomarkers including serotonin, neopterin and kynurenine in the same patients. The study took place in a population of patients who displayed both GAD symptoms and vitamin D deficiency, raising the question of whether there is an association between them. The results demonstrate that, in the presence of vitamin D deficiency, augmenting SOC of GAD by weekly vitamin D supplementation of 50,000 IU for 3 months

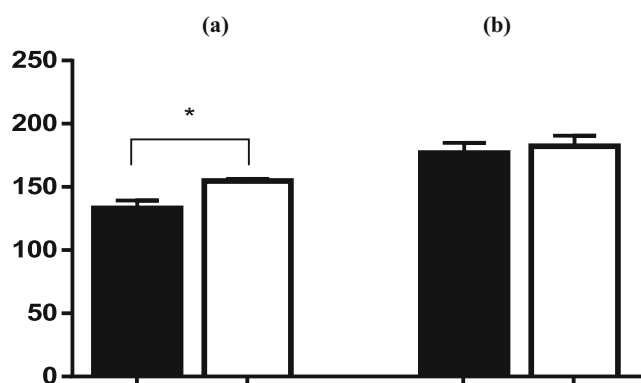


Fig. 3 Serum serotonin levels in GAD patients. Serum serotonin levels (mean \pm SEM) expressed in nmol/L in (a) patients treated with SOC + vitamin D and (b) patients treated with SOC alone. Baseline levels are represented by black bars. Follow up levels at 3-months are represented by white bars. **** $p < 0.0001$

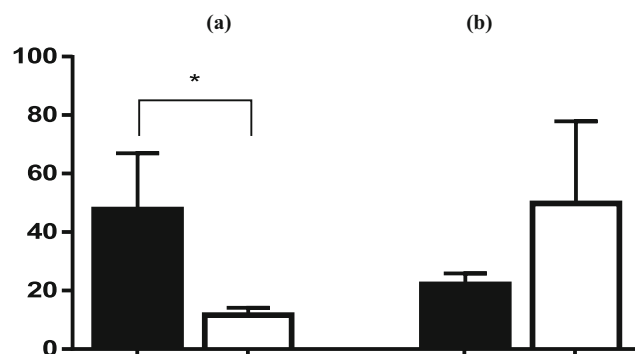


Fig. 4 Serum neopterin levels in GAD patients. Serum neopterin levels (mean \pm SEM) expressed in nmol/L in (a) patients treated with SOC + vitamin D and (b) patients treated with SOC alone. Baseline levels are represented by black bars. Follow up levels at 3-months are represented by white bars. * $p < 0.005$

significantly reduced the severity of anxiety symptoms. We also demonstrated that the clinical improvement in anxiety symptoms was associated with neurochemical changes that were not detected in the group that received SOC only. Serum serotonin levels increased significantly in the vitamin D-treated vs. non-treated group. This may be mediated through vitamin D established role in activating transcription of the tryptophan hydroxylase-2 gene, leading to increased conversion of tryptophan to serotonin in the brain (Patrick and Ames 2014). Furthermore, our study demonstrates that patients with GAD treated with vitamin D had a reduction in serum levels of neopterin, a mediator of cellular immunity and a biomarker for oxidative stress (which is in turn a potential culprit mechanism of stress, anxiety and neuroinflammation). This supports the hypothesis that vitamin D actions in GAD may be partly mediated through its anti-inflammatory effects that reduce oxidative stress, a mechanism previously suggested to contribute to vitamin D antidepressant effects. Hellmuth and colleagues showed a significant relationship between baseline plasma neopterin and depression scores

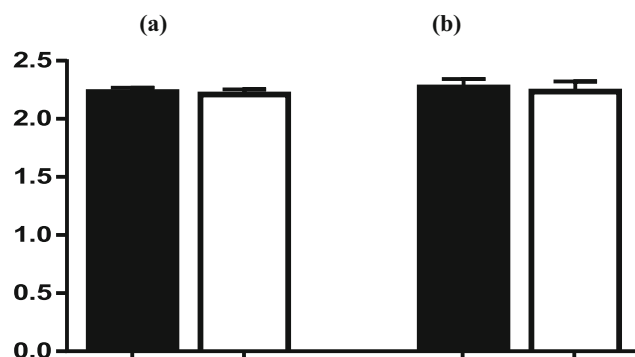


Fig. 5 Serum kynurenine levels in GAD patients. Serum kynurenine levels (mean \pm SEM) expressed in nmol/L in (a) patients treated with SOC + vitamin D and (b) patients treated with SOC alone. Baseline levels are represented by black bars. Follow up levels at 3-months are represented by white bars. **** $p < 0.0001$

(Hellmuth et al. 2017). Our study did not find significant changes in the levels of kynurenine, which contrasts with prior findings in patients with anxiety and depression, requiring further study in a larger group of patients (Kim and Jeon 2018; Maes et al. 2002).

Limitations

The study had several limitations. The lack of placebo control group prevented the definitive conclusion that the observed clinical and neurochemical benefits were solely attributed to vitamin D supplementation. The small number of patients enrolled in the trial might have masked any significant changes in GAD7 scores in non-treatment group. Finally, this trial was conducted in a clinical context, meaning that healthcare providers were permitted to alter SOC according to the clinical necessities of every patient, making it hard to ascertain that this did not confound the comparison between vitamin D-treated and non-treated groups.

Conclusion

This clinical trial demonstrated that augmenting SOC of GAD in vitamin D-deficient patients with vitamin D supplements resulted in significant improvement in GAD symptoms, an increase in serotonin levels, and a reduction in neopterin levels. This study provides clinical and biochemical data that point to a potential neurochemical and therapeutic role for vitamin D in GAD. A larger scale, placebo-controlled clinical trial is needed to validate whether vitamin D is therapeutically beneficial in the improved treatment of GAD.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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