🛱 perplexity

Bacterial Infections Fought by Vitamin D and Glutathione

Both vitamin D and glutathione serve as important antimicrobial agents against various bacterial infections through distinct but complementary mechanisms. These compounds enhance the body's innate immune responses and directly combat bacterial pathogens through multiple pathways.

Vitamin D Against Bacterial Infections

Mechanisms of Action

Vitamin D exerts its antimicrobial effects primarily through the induction of antimicrobial peptides, particularly cathelicidin (LL-37) and β -defensin 2 ^{[1] [2] [3]}. When immune cells such as macrophages encounter bacterial pathogens, toll-like receptor activation upregulates both the vitamin D receptor (VDR) and the enzyme CYP27B1, which converts inactive vitamin D to its active form ^{[1] [2]}. This leads to increased production of cathelicidin, which can directly kill pathogens by forming ion channels and creating greater membrane permeability ^[1].

Specific Bacterial Infections

Tuberculosis

Vitamin D plays a particularly important role in combating *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infections [1] [4] [5]. Studies have demonstrated that vitamin D deficiency is associated with increased susceptibility to tuberculosis, while adequate vitamin D levels enhance macrophage killing of *M*. *tuberculosis* through cathelicidin production [4] [5] [6]. Patients with active pulmonary tuberculosis consistently show lower vitamin D levels compared to healthy individuals [5] [6].

Staphylococcus aureus Infections

Vitamin D supplementation enhances immunity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, particularly in skin and soft tissue infections ^[7]. Children with vitamin D deficiency are more likely to experience recurrent rather than primary *S. aureus* infections ^[7]. The antimicrobial peptide LL-37, induced by vitamin D, demonstrates bactericidal activity specifically against *S. aureus* ^[7].

Streptococcus pneumoniae (Pneumococcal) Infections

Research shows that vitamin D enhances neutrophil killing of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* while modulating inflammatory responses ^[8]. Vitamin D upregulates pattern recognition receptors (TLR2, NOD2) and induces antimicrobial peptides including alpha-defensins (HNP1-3) and LL-37, resulting in increased bacterial killing ^[8]. Supplementation of sera from patients with

recurrent respiratory tract infections with vitamin D enhanced neutrophil killing of pneumococci [8].

Respiratory Tract Infections

Multiple studies demonstrate that vitamin D deficiency increases susceptibility to respiratory tract infections $^{[1]}$ $^{[9]}$ $^{[10]}$ $^{[11]}$. Meta-analyses show that vitamin D supplementation significantly decreases the risk of respiratory tract infections, with particular effectiveness when given as daily doses rather than large intermittent doses $^{[10]}$. The protective effect appears stronger in individuals with baseline vitamin D deficiency $^{[10]}$ $^{[11]}$.

Urinary Tract Infections

Vitamin D deficiency is significantly associated with increased risk of urinary tract infections, especially in children $\frac{[12] \ [13]}{13}$. The mechanism involves vitamin D's stimulation of cathelicidin LL-37 production in urinary tract epithelial cells, which provides protection against bacterial infection by uropathogenic *E. coli* and other pathogens $\frac{[12] \ [13]}{13}$.

Sepsis and Bloodstream Infections

Vitamin D deficiency is common in critically ill patients and correlates with increased mortality in sepsis ^[14] ^[15] ^[16]. Low vitamin D levels are associated with higher incidence of bacterial infections following medical procedures such as kidney transplantation ^[14]. Supplementation may help reduce inflammatory markers and improve outcomes in septic patients ^[15].

Glutathione Against Bacterial Infections

Mechanisms of Action

Glutathione (GSH) exhibits antimicrobial properties through multiple mechanisms, including direct bactericidal effects, biofilm disruption, and synergistic enhancement of antibiotic effectiveness $\frac{[17] [18] [19]}{19}$. At concentrations above 30 mM, GSH creates acidic conditions that inhibit bacterial growth, while lower concentrations demonstrate bacteriostatic effects $\frac{[17] [18] [20]}{10}$.

Specific Bacterial Infections

Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA)

Glutathione demonstrates significant antibacterial activity against both methicillin-sensitive and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* strains $\frac{[17] \ [19] \ [21]}{[21]}$. Studies show that GSH has minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of 15-20 mM and minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBCs) of 25-40 mM against clinical MRSA isolates $\frac{[19] \ [21]}{[21]}$. Additionally, subinhibitory concentrations of GSH synergistically enhance the effectiveness of conventional antibiotics against MRSA $\frac{[19]}{[21]}$.

Escherichia coli

GSH exhibits concentration-dependent antibacterial effects against *E. coli*, with 30 mM concentrations showing approximately 94% growth inhibition ^[18] ^[20]. Glutathione also enhances antibiotic susceptibility in multidrug-resistant *E. coli* strains when used in combination with aminoglycosides ^[22]. However, some studies indicate that GSH can also interfere with certain antibiotics like streptomycin in *E. coli* ^[23].

Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Glutathione demonstrates particularly effective biofilm disruption capabilities against *P. aeruginosa* ^[18] ^[20] ^[24]. GSH can rapidly destroy *P. aeruginosa*-associated biofilms while simultaneously assisting in host cell recovery ^[24]. The combination of GSH with DNase I and antibiotics showed up to 90% reduction in biofilm biomass in cystic fibrosis isolates ^[24]. GSH also enhances the effectiveness of aminoglycosides against multidrug-resistant *P. aeruginosa* strains ^[22].

Acinetobacter baumannii

Multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* (MRAB) shows significant susceptibility to glutathione treatment ^[18] ^[20]. GSH at 30 mM concentrations demonstrates approximately 52% growth inhibition and greater than 50% biofilm viability reduction ^[18] ^[20]. The combination of GSH with amikacin and DNase-I shows the greatest reduction in MRAB biofilm viability ^[18].

Streptococcus pyogenes

Streptococcus pyogenes demonstrates exceptional sensitivity to glutathione, with nearly 100% growth inhibition at 30 mM concentrations ^[18] ^[20]. Interestingly, *S. pyogenes* can also hijack host glutathione for its own growth and virulence factor production, making GSH levels a double-edged factor in these infections ^[25].

Resistant Bacteria

Some bacterial species show resistance to glutathione treatment, particularly *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Enterobacter* species, which remain highly resistant even to 30 mM GSH concentrations ^[18] ^[20]. This resistance may be due to bacterial mechanisms for confronting low pH conditions, such as proton pumps and protective enzymes ^[20].

Clinical Implications and Therapeutic Potential

Both vitamin D and glutathione represent promising therapeutic approaches for bacterial infections, particularly in the era of increasing antibiotic resistance ^{[22] [26]}. Vitamin D supplementation may be especially beneficial for preventing respiratory tract infections, tuberculosis, and urinary tract infections in deficient populations ^{[1] [10] [12]}. Glutathione shows potential as both a standalone antimicrobial agent and as a synergistic enhancer of conventional antibiotics, particularly against biofilm-forming bacteria ^{[17] [18] [19]}.

The safety profiles of both compounds are generally favorable, with glutathione showing minimal cytotoxicity even at high concentrations ^[17]. However, further clinical trials are needed to

establish optimal dosing regimens and to fully characterize their therapeutic potential in treating specific bacterial infections [1] [18].

**

- 1. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC3756814/
- 2. https://www.mdpi.com/2072-6643/7/6/4170
- 3. https://academic.oup.com/jbmrplus/article/5/1/e10405/7486312
- 4. https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/immunology/articles/10.3389/fimmu.2022.1038960/full
- 5. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34115790/
- 6. https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0252762
- 7. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25860535/
- 8. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6738809/
- 9. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34322844/
- 10. https://www.who.int/tools/elena/commentary/vitamind-pneumonia-children
- 11. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6756683/
- 12. http://www.annclinlabsci.org/content/49/1/134.full
- 13. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC9221777/
- 14. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC5432788/
- 15. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC9917708/
- 16. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6377223/
- 17. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24196336/
- 18. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6730566/
- 19. <u>https://www.scirp.org/journal/paperinformation?paperid=121823</u>
- 20. https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/microbiology/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02000/full
- 21. https://www.scirp.org/pdf/aim_2022121514361514.pdf
- 22. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6798578/
- 23. https://journals.asm.org/doi/10.1128/aac.00779-06
- 24. https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/microbiology/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2017.02429/full
- 25. https://journals.asm.org/doi/10.1128/mbio.00676-22
- 26. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC3256336/