



Vitamin D Deficiency and Psychotic Features in Mentally Ill Patients: A Systematic Review

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KEYWORDS

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ABSTRACT:

Objectives: To compile the literature's findings and shed light on how vitamin D deficiency affects psychological traits in individuals with mental illnesses

Methods: A thorough search of pertinent databases was done in order to find studies that satisfied the requirements for inclusion. A thorough search of PubMed, Web of Science, SCOPUS, and Science Direct was conducted to find pertinent literature.

Results: Fifteen studies, including a total of 2196 participants diagnosed with psychiatric illness, and 1115 (50.8%) of them were males, were included in our data. The prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among patients with mental illnesses ranged from 22% in schizophrenia patients to 76% in AD patients. In AD patients, vitamin D may be useful short- and long-term predictors of cognitive deterioration, motoric cognitive risk, and depression. In bipolar patients, a manic episode may be triggered by a decreased vitamin D level and the worsening of depression. Patients with first-episode schizophrenia should have their plasma vitamin D levels tested, particularly if they have a longer duration of untreated psychosis and more pronounced negative and severe depressive symptoms.

Conclusion: Low vitamin D levels are found in neurological and psychiatric patients, but the significance of these findings is not entirely clear because low vitamin D levels are also frequently found in healthy subjects or because several study flaws severely reduce the significance of the findings. Future studies' primary objective would be to map out the variables affecting supplementing efficacy and identify people who benefit from taking vitamin D analogs. This may contribute to the advancement of vitamin D understanding to practical therapeutic needs.

Introduction

One naturally occurring substance that is a member of the steroid hormone class is vitamin D. A tiny quantity of active Vitamin D can also be obtained by diet, although humans synthesize it from a precursor found on the skin. When vitamin D was discovered in a variety of organs, tissues, and cytotypes that both produced and received the hormone, its metabolism was drastically altered. This discovery occurred at the beginning of the 20th century. It originated during the period known as Vitamin D "non-skeletal activities," when a growing body of research revealed the hormone's functions, including the control of immunological response and brain function [1].

The idea behind looking for a possible connection between these disorders and vitamin D was that the hormone could affect and change a number of brain functions, such as the degree to which certain brain circuits related to memory, emotion, and thought processes are connected. It can also control a wide range of immune responses from T helper cells' cytokine generation to the antimicrobial activities of neutrophils and macrophages in both the innate and adaptive arms of immunity. Regular measurements of vitamin D circulating levels in autoimmune disease patients have shown, among other things, a wide range of variations in the frequency and severity of some pathologies, as well



as a high frequency of low vitamin D concentrations in these patients [2].

It is suggested that vitamin D functions as a membrane antioxidant. Additionally, it raises the levels of antioxidant agent gene expression [3]. By inhibiting the activation and expression of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) and other associated genes, vitamin D also reduces the synthesis of cytokines [4]. Based on available data, vitamin D may enhance behavior and mood by influencing the synthesis of neurotrophic factors and neurotransmitters [5].

The purpose of this systematic review was to compile the literature's findings and shed light on how vitamin D deficiency affects psychological traits and mental health measures in individuals with mental illnesses by synthesizing current literature, identifying knowledge gaps, and offering insights for future research and clinical practice

Methods

We followed the recommendations in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) [6] for this systematic review. An electronic search was performed on databases like PubMed, Web of Science, SCOPUS, and Science Direct in order to find English-language research. Relevant keywords were included in the search strategy for these situations; "mental disorders," "Psychiatric disorders," "Vitamin D levels," "Hypovitaminosis D," and "25 (OH) D." Independently, reviewers went through the search results, chose pertinent papers, collected data, and used the right assessment methods to determine how good the included research was.

Eligibility Criteria:

Inclusion Criteria:

1. Studies published in the English language.
2. Studies reported the association between vitamin D levels and psychiatric disorders' progression.
3. Studies reported the association between vitamin D levels and psychiatric features.
4. Only adults aged >18 years.
5. Studies involving human participants.

6. Randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, case-control studies, and cross-sectional studies.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. Studies not published in English.
2. Animal studies, in vitro studies, and review articles without original data.
3. Studies with insufficient data or unclear methodology.
4. Case reports and case series with fewer than five participants.
5. Studies with overlapping data or duplicate publications.

Data Extraction

Rayyan (QCRI) was used to validate the search results in order to guarantee accuracy [7]. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were used to determine the relevancy of the titles and abstracts that the search produced. Papers that satisfied the inclusion requirements were carefully examined by the study team. Consensus was used to settle disagreements. Using a predetermined data extraction form, key study data, such as titles, authors, publication year, study location, gender distribution, participant demographics, diagnostic tool of psychiatric features, diagnostic tool of vitamin D level, type of psychiatric disorder, prevalence of vitamin D deficiency, and main outcomes were documented. To evaluate the possibility of bias, an impartial assessment instrument was created.

Data Synthesis Strategy

Summaries of the research findings and elements were created utilizing information taken from pertinent studies in order to offer a qualitative assessment. The best method for making use of the data from the studies that were included was decided upon after the data collection for the systematic review was finished.

Risk of Bias Assessment

The Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) [8] critical assessment criteria for studies reporting prevalence data were utilized to assess the study's quality. This tool had nine questions. A score of one was given for a positive



response, while a score of zero was given for a negative, ambiguous, or irrelevant response. The following scores will be categorized as low, moderate, and high quality, respectively: below 4, between 5 and 7, and above 8. The quality of the studies was evaluated by researchers independently, and differences were settled through discussion.

Results

Systematic search outcomes

After 798 duplicates were removed, a total of 1314 study papers were found through a systematic search. After 516 studies had their titles and abstracts evaluated, 456 papers were discarded. Merely 2 articles were not located out of the 60 reports that were required to be retrieved. 58 articles passed the screening process for full-text evaluation; 10 were rejected due to incorrect study results, 31 due to incorrect population type, and 2 articles were editor's letters. Fifteen research publications in this systematic review satisfied the requirements for eligibility. An overview of the procedure used to choose the research is illustrated in **Figure 1**.

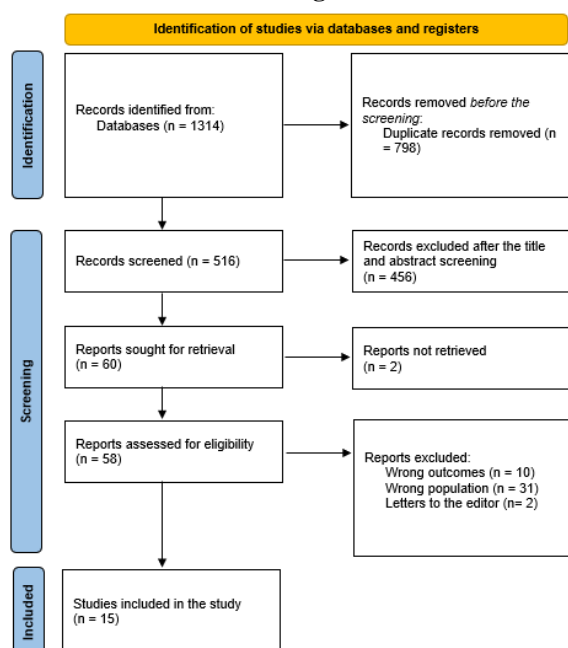


Figure (1): Study decision is summed up in a PRISMA diagram.

Sociodemographic features of the comprised studies

The research publications' sociodemographic information is displayed in **Table 1**. Fifteen studies, including a total of 2196 participants diagnosed with psychiatric illness, and 1115 (50.8%) of them were males, were included in our data. Six studies were cross-sectional [11, 12, 16, 20, 22, 23], five were case-controls [10, 13, 14, 15, 17], two were prospective cohorts [9, 18], and two were retrospective cohorts [19, 21]. Three studies were conducted in Italy [9, 20, 21], two in the Netherlands [11, 22], one in France [10], one in Greece [12], one in Germany [13], one in Turkey [14], one in China [15], one in Lebanon [16], one in Egypt [17], one in Finland [18], one in Korea [19], and one in Serbia [23]. The earliest study was conducted in 2016 [22] and the latest in 2024 [15].

Clinical outcomes

Four studies included patients with AD [9-12], three included patients with bipolar disorder [13-15], two included patients with Schizophrenia [16, 17], and the rest included multiple psychiatric disorders [18-23]. Fourteen studies used chemiluminescence Immunoassay (CLIA) to assess vitamin D levels [9-22] and only one used high-performance liquid chromatography [23]. However, multiple scales were used to assess the psychiatric features. The prevalence of vitamin D deficiency among patients with mental illnesses ranged from 22% in schizophrenia patients [17] to 76% in AD patients [11].

Regarding multiple mental illnesses, vitamin D deficiency is significantly associated with hypoperfusion in brain areas [19] and the acute phase of mental relapses [20]. In AD patients, vitamin D may be useful short- and long-term predictors of cognitive deterioration [9, 12], motoric cognitive risk [10], and depression [11]. In bipolar patients, a manic episode may be triggered by a decreased vitamin D level [14] and the worsening of depression [15]. Patients with first-episode schizophrenia should have their plasma vitamin D levels tested, particularly if they have a longer duration of untreated psychosis (410 weeks) and more pronounced negative and severe depressive symptoms [17].



Table (1): The sociodemographic attributes of the participating populations.

Study	Study design	Country	Participants	Mean age/ range	Males (%)
Murdaca et al., 2021 [9]	Prospective cohort	Italy	118	86 ± 5	30 (25.4%)
Le Floch et al., 2022 [10]	Case-control	France	244	71.4 ± 3.7	145 (59.4%)
Richter et al., 2023 [11]	Cross-sectional	The Netherlands	25	81.2 ± 8	13 (52%)
Mavraki et al., 2020 [12]	Cross-sectional	Greece	138	75.5	71 (51.4%)
Leser et al., 2023 [13]	Case-control	Germany	86	45.17 ± 13.15	47 (54.7%)
İmre et al., 2023 [14]	Case-control	Turkey	34	37.8 ± 10.4	15 (44.1%)
Zheng et al., 2024 [15]	Case-control	China	149	29.2 ± 14.4	63 (42.3%)
Zoghbi et al., 2020 [16]	Cross-sectional	Lebanon	196	37.3 ± 11.7	118 (60.2%)
El Taweel et al., 2017 [17]	Case-control	Egypt	50	23.8	50 (100%)
Ikonen et al., 2019 [18]	Prospective cohort	Finland	328	27.9	152 (46.3%)
Sultana et al., 2022 [19]	Retrospective cohort	Korea	19	28.4 ± 9.2	3 (16%)
Fabrazzo et al., 2022 [20]	Cross-sectional	Italy	152	47.3 ± 14.4	75 (49.3%)
Cuomo et al., 2019 [21]	Retrospective cohort	Italy	290	47.8	127 (43.8%)
Boerman et al., 2016 [22]	Cross-sectional	The Netherlands	320	47	186 (58%)
Ristic et al., 2017 [23]	Cross-sectional	Serbia	47	45.6	20 (42.6%)

Table (2): Clinical features and results of the included research.

Study ID	Depression scale	Anxiety scale	Vitamin D level diagnosis	Prevalence of vitamin D deficiency	Conclusions	JBI
Murdaca et al., 2021 [9]	AD	MMSE	CLIA	NM	In AD patients, VD may be useful short- and long-term predictors of cognitive deterioration.	Moderate



Le Floch et al., 2022 [10]	AD	MMSE	CLIA	59 (24.2%)	The motoric cognitive risk was linked to hypovitaminosis D in elderly community dwellers who were free of dementia.	Moderate
Richter et al., 2023 [11]	AD	the Middelheim Frontality Score (MFS), Behavioral Pathology in AD Rating Scale, and Cornell Scale for Depression in Dementia (CSDD)	CLIA	19 (76%)	Serum 5-HT levels were linked favorably with aggression, frontal behavior, depression, and somewhat cognitive function, while serum 25(OH)D3 concentrations correlated inversely with CSF amyloid-beta (A β 1-42).	Moderate
Mavraki et al., 2020 [12]	AD	MMSE	CLIA	62 (44.9%)	Patients with AD disease and participants with mild cognitive impairment have considerably lower serum vitamin D levels.	Moderate
Leser et al., 2023 [13]	Bipolar disorder	the Trail Making Test Part A/B, the Color-Word Interference Test, and the California Verbal Learning Test (CVLT)	CLIA	35 (40.7%)	In euthymic bipolar patients, the current study does not support vitamin D metabolism as a modifying factor of cognitive performance.	High
İmre et al., 2023 [14]	Bipolar disorder	Depression Rating Scale (HAM-D) and Young Mania Rating Scale (YMRS)	CLIA	19 (55.8%)	A manic episode may be triggered by a decreased vitamin D level; a vitamin D shortage may result from inadequate sunlight exposure or malnourishment during the manic phase.	Moderate
Zheng et al., 2024 [15]	Bipolar disorder	the Zung Self-Rating Depression Scale (SDS)	CLIA	93 (62.4%)	When compared to a medium-level profile, there was a significant nonlinear link (P for trend <0.05) between the improvement in depression and the vitamin D high-level profile.	Moderate
Zoghbi et al., 2020 [16]	Schizophrenia	BCRS and MRSS	CLIA	111 (56.6%)	After controlling for variables, there was a significant correlation identified between	Moderate



					severe VD insufficiency and a rise in the Morningside Rehabilitation Status Scale (MRSS) score and no significant correlation with the score on the Brief Cognitive Rating Scale (BCRS).	
El Taweel et al., 2017 [17]	Schizophrenia	The MADRS	CLIA	11 (22%)	When compared to healthy controls, serum 25(OH)D levels were lower in patients with schizophrenia. Patients with first-episode schizophrenia should have their plasma 25(OH)D levels tested, particularly if they have a longer duration of untreated psychosis (410 weeks) and more pronounced negative and severe depressive symptoms.	Moderate
Ikonen et al., 2019 [18]	Schizophrenia, psychosis, and non-psychotic depression	A questionnaire	CLIA	161 (49.1%)	Vitamin D scores in the outpatient population do not differ between the groups with schizophrenia, other psychoses, non-psychotic depression, and controls.	Moderate
Sultana et al., 2022 [19]	Neuropsychiatric lupus	MMSE	CLIA	12 (63.2%)	There is a noteworthy positive connection ($p < 0.05$) between the level of vitamin D and hypoperfusion in brain areas associated with cognitive performance.	Moderate
Fabrazzo et al., 2022 [20]	Psychosis	Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS)	CLIA	NM	Lower serum levels of PTH and 25-OH-Vit D may have a different correlation with the acute phase of mental relapses than with psychiatric outpatients who have reached pharmacological and psychopathological stabilization.	Moderate
Cuomo et al., 2019 [21]	Patients with mental illness	NM	CLIA	89 (30.7%)	Vitamin D levels have no correlation with psychiatric drugs ($p = 0.935$).	Moderate
Boerman et al., 2016 [22]	Bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, or schizoaffective disorder	DSM-IV	CLIA	97 (30.3%)	Outpatients with bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, or schizoaffective disorder had a 4.7-fold higher prevalence of	Moderate



					vitamin D deficiency. Outpatients with bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, or schizoaffective disorder should be thought of as potentially at risk for low vitamin D levels due to the high prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency.	
Ristic et al., 2017 [23]	Schizophrenia, mood disorders, and other disorders	MMSE	HPLC	32 (68%)	It was much more common than anticipated for people with mental illnesses to be vitamin D deficient. A further link between the deficit and several electrolyte homeostasis problems was found.	High

*NM=Not-mentioned

Discussion

This comprehensive review investigated the association between vitamin D levels the progression of mental illnesses and the associated psychological features. The highest prevalence of hypovitaminosis D was found among AD patients (76%) [11]. We found that in AD patients, vitamin D may be useful short- and long-term predictors of cognitive deterioration [9, 12], motoric cognitive risk [10], and depression [11]. **Annweiler et al.** reported that Serum vitamin D concentrations were lower in AD individuals than in matched controls. This supports the idea that vitamin D is a "neurosteroid hormone" and that it may be a biomarker for AD [24]. **Pinzon et al.** also presented evidence of the link between low vitamin D levels and the risk of AD. According to the random effects model study, having low vitamin D levels (less than 25 ng/ml) increases the chance of getting AD [25].

There are two possible neuropathology changes that contribute to the pathomechanism of AD. A positive lesion resulting from the buildup of amyloid plaques, neurofibrillary tangles, and other deposits in the brain of an AD patient is the initial neuropathology alteration. The loss of neuropil, neuronal, and synaptic, is the cause of the second alteration in neuropathology. Furthermore, oxidative stress and neuroinflammation are two more variables that might lead to neurodegeneration [26]. Numerous studies have documented the possible advantages of vitamin D and its connection to AD.

Studies on humans and animals have shown that vitamin D may influence the initial neuropathology alteration by encouraging the removal of amyloid plaques [27]. Although its exact mechanism is yet unknown, vitamin D also prevents cognitive impairment through its functions in neuroprotection, neurotropy, neurotransmission, and neuroplasticity [28]. In in vitro experiments, vitamin D also demonstrated the ability to reduce neuroinflammation by blocking the synthesis of TNF-a and IL 6 [29].

This study found that in bipolar patients, a manic episode may be triggered by a decreased vitamin D level [14] and the worsening of depression [15]. Extensive research on vitamin D deficiency in individuals experiencing depression has been published in the literature, with findings indicating that the pathophysiology of depression is significantly impacted by vitamin D deficiency [30, 31]. Still, not enough research has been done on the potential connection between vitamin D and manic episodes.

Because it keeps the equilibrium between pro- and anti-inflammatory processes, vitamin D is known as a neuromodulator molecule [32]. The active form of vitamin D, 1,25-dihydroxy vitamin D₃, has been shown to have anti-inflammatory properties, and a shortage of it can exacerbate inflammatory processes [33]. Vitamin D₃ is regulated by the enzymes tryptophan hydroxylase and tyrosine hydroxylase. The synthesis of serotonin, dopamine, norepinephrine, and epinephrine is rate-



limited by these two enzymes. Furthermore, vitamin D inhibits the enzyme inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) to produce antioxidant effects [34]. Through the previously indicated processes, vitamin D insufficiency may contribute to the genesis of psychiatric diseases, particularly bipolar manic episodes.

The current study found that patients with first-episode schizophrenia should have their plasma vitamin D levels tested, particularly if they have a longer duration of untreated psychosis (410 weeks) and more pronounced negative and severe depressive symptoms [17]. In a meta-analysis by *Zhu et al.*, schizophrenia was more common in those who were deficient in vitamin D [35]. Despite the fact that multiple epidemiological research have looked at the effect of vitamin D on schizophrenia, the results are inconsistent. As one study recorded the lowest prevalence of vitamin D deficiency (22%) [17] and the other recorded that over half of schizophrenic patients (56.6%) [16] had vitamin D deficiency.

It is currently unknown what processes vitamin D insufficiency may have in relation to schizophrenia. The fact that these individuals tend to spend less time outside could be the cause of their low vitamin D levels [36]. Some researchers think that there may be a connection between vitamin D and schizophrenia in the early stages of life. According to certain theories, schizophrenia may be predisposed by embryonic vitamin D insufficiency [37, 38]. The dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia appears to be a plausible pathway in the pathology of schizophrenia, according to findings from animal models that indicate developmental vitamin D deficiency during the gestational period affects dopamine metabolism and modifies the dopamine system in the developing brain of rats [39, 40].

Some limitations of the current review are that just a portion of the neurodegenerative and psychiatric illnesses are considered, and it is not a systematic review. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, it makes clear that, according to the papers we looked at, there is no evidence to support vitamin D's function as a biomarker in these illnesses.

Conclusion

One of the vitamins that has been researched the most globally is vitamin D, and research on its biological

function in humans is still quite interesting. Low vitamin D levels are found in neurological and psychiatric patients, but the significance of these findings is not entirely clear because low vitamin D levels are also frequently found in healthy subjects or because several study flaws severely reduce the significance of the findings. Future studies' primary objective would be to map out the variables affecting supplementing efficacy and identify people who benefit from taking vitamin D analogs. This may contribute to the advancement of vitamin D understanding in relation to practical therapeutic needs.

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