

Combined Use of Probiotics and Vitamin D Against Neurotoxicity: Traditional Review

Nörotoksositeye Karşı Probiyotik ve D Vitamininin Birlikte Kullanımı: Geleneksel Derleme

 Fatma Hazan GÜL^a

^aDepartment of Nutrition and Dietetics, Mersin University Faculty of Health Science, Mersin, Türkiye

This study was prepared based on the findings of Fatma Hazan Gül's doctoral thesis study titled "In vitro investigation of the neuroprotective effect of probiotics and vitamin D against neurotoxicity" (Kayseri: Erciyes University; 2023).

ABSTRACT Neurodegeneration caused by neurotoxicity is a condition influenced by many factors such as increased reactive oxygen species, protein misfolding, and ubiquitin-proteasome pathway dysfunction. The brain-gut axis is one of the primary systems affected by neurodegeneration. This axis is a bidirectional system consisting of neurological, endocrine, and immunological elements. Disruption of microbial balance in the gut leads to poor inflammation, increased oxidative stress, disruption of energy homeostasis, and cellular degeneration. Probiotics, which are important for maintaining this balance, are beneficial bacteria that, when ingested in sufficient quantities, positively affect host health and play an active role in maintaining microbial homeostasis in the gut. Another substance that impacts neurodegeneration is vitamin D. It is clearly stated in the literature that vitamin D supplementation, a fat-soluble micronutrient that falls into the steroid hormone category, or adequate sun exposure positively reduces the risk of developing/progressing neurodegenerative disorders. Vitamin D achieves this effect by inhibiting the synthesis of nitric oxide synthase and increasing the stimulation of gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase. Moreover, vitamin D exerts this beneficial effect by binding to vitamin D receptors in the intestine. It is known that probiotics and vitamin D have separate neuroprotective effects against neurotoxicity, but it is not well enough known that their beneficial effects are enhanced when probiotics and vitamin D are taken together. The aim of this study is to show that the beneficial effects of probiotics and vitamin D against neurotoxicity are enhanced when they are taken together.

Keywords: Probiotics; vitamin D; microbiota; brain-gut axis; neurotoxicity syndromes

ÖZET Nörotoksitenin neden olduğu nörodejenerasyon, reaktif oksijen türlerinin artması, proteinlerin yanlış katlanması ve ubiquitin-proteozom yolunun disfonksiyonu gibi birçok faktörden etkilenen bir durumdur. Nörojenerasyondan etkilenen sistemlerin başında beyin-bağırsak aksı gelir. Bu aks nörolojik, endokrin ve immünojik unsurlardan oluşan çift yönlü bir sistemdir. Bağırsağın mikrobiyal dengesinin bozulması düşük dereceli inflamasyona, oksidatif strese artışa, enerji homeostazının bozulmasına ve hücrel dejenerasyonun artmasına neden olur. Bu dengenin korunmasında önemli olan probiyotikler, yeterli miktarda alındığında konakçı sağlığını olumlu yönde etkileyen ve bağırsaklarda mikrobiyal homeostazın sağlanmasında aktif rol oynayan yararlı bakterilerdir. Nörodejenerasyon üzerine etkisi olduğu bilinen bir diğer madde D vitamini. Steroid hormon kategorisine giren ve yağda çözünen bir mikro besin olan D vitamini takviyesinin veya yeterli güneş ışığına maruz kalmanın, nörodejeneratif bozuklukların gelişme/ilerleme riskini olumlu yönde azalttığı literatürde açıkça belirtilmektedir. D vitamini bu etkisini nitrik oksit sentezini inhibe ederek ve gama-glutamyl transpeptidazın stimülasyonunu artırarak gerçekleştirmektedir. Ayrıca D vitamini bu yararlı etkisini bağırsaktaki D vitamini reseptörlerine bağlanarak gösterir. Probiyotikler ve D vitamininin nörotoksositeye karşı ayrı ayrı nöroprotektif etkisi olduğu bilinmekle birlikte, probiyotikler ve D vitamini birlikte alındığında bu protektif etkinin arttığı yeterince bilinmemektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, nörotoksositeye karşı probiyotiklerin ve D vitamininin birlikte kullanıldığında yararlı etkilerinin arttığını ortaya koymaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Probiyotikler; D vitamini; mikrobiyota; beyin-bağırsak aksı; nörotoksosite sendromları

NEUROTOXICITY

Neurotoxicity is defined as disruption of a nervous system function by an endogenous and exogenous compound or a combination thereof. Exposure to

these acutely or chronically toxic chemicals during the fetal period may result in permanent damage that may cause neurodevelopmental disorders in the future.¹ Grandjean and Landrigan, identified 214 chemicals that damage the adult nervous system

TO CITE THIS ARTICLE:

Gül FH. Combined use of probiotics and vitamin D against neurotoxicity: Traditional review. Türkiye Klinikleri J Health Sci. 2024;9(1):210-6.

Correspondence: Fatma Hazan GÜL

Department of Nutrition and Dietetics, Mersin University Faculty of Health Science, Mersin, Türkiye

E-mail: hazangul@erciyes.edu.tr

Peer review under responsibility of Türkiye Klinikleri Journal of Health Sciences.

Received: 26 Jul 2023

Received in revised form: 13 Oct 2023

Accepted: 18 Oct 2023

Available online: 26 Dec 2023

2536-4391 / Copyright © 2024 by Türkiye Klinikleri. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).



and 12 industrial chemical groups (toluene, lead, arsenic, manganese, methylmercury, fluoride, polychlorinated compounds, chlorpyrifos, biphenyls, brominated diphenyl ethers), dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane/ dichlorodiphenidichloroethylene, trichloroethylene. More than 1,000 chemicals have been shown to be neurotoxic in *in vivo* studies.^{2,3}

NEUROTOXINS AND THEIR TYPES

Any substance that causes atrophy or demyelination by damaging neurons, nerve fibers, glia, and myelin in the nervous system is considered a neurotoxin. These substances are usually of endogenous or exogenous origin. Endogenous are made by the human body, while exogenous are toxins that enter the human body from the external environment.⁴ Endogenous toxins are primarily aging and genetic factors, exogenous toxins are pesticides and heavy metals.⁴⁻⁶

ENDOGENOUS NEUROTOXINS

Endogenous neurotoxins are substances that normally have a specific physiological function in the body but cause toxic effects in the central nervous system when produced in excess.

Glutamate, for example, is responsible for chemical transport at synapses and is one of the most important neurotransmitters in the nervous system. An increase in glutamate concentration causes toxicity in neurons by rising the permeability to calcium ions. As this increase in cellular calcium concentration stimulates calcium-related enzymes, apoptosis and necrosis occur in neurons.⁷ Another example of this situation is nitric oxide (NO). NO is the secondary neurotransmitter synthesized by neuronal NO and is widely distributed in neurons. It also controls synaptic plasticity of the nervous system and muscular and neurovascular dilation in the nervous and vascular systems.⁸ Abnormal NO concentration is associated with several neurological diseases (asthma, schizophrenia, and Huntington's disease). Endogenous neurotoxins inhibit ion channels of neurotransmitters (e.g., K^+ , Ca^{+2} , Na^+), receptors (e.g., acetylcholine receptors) and enzymatic activities (e.g., tyrosine hydroxylase).⁹⁻¹¹

EXOGENOUS NEUROTOXINS

Exogenous neurotoxins include heavy metals, microbial neurotoxins, biotoxins, and chemical toxoids. The mechanisms of action of each toxin in the nervous system are different. Heavy metals (lead, cadmium and aluminum) generally reach the brain via the bloodstream by disrupting the blood-brain barrier or inhibiting the blood-brain barrier.¹² After these neurotoxins cross the blood-brain barrier and reach the brain, they cause brain damage, resulting in learning difficulties, motor coordination disorders, and the onset of diseases such as Alzheimer diseases.^{4,13,14} Microbial neurotoxins (botulinum, tetanus toxin, and lipopolysaccharide) are mostly produced by bacteria. These substances, which stimulate the nervous system, prevent the deliver of neurotransmitters from synaptic vesicles and block communication between neurons.¹⁵ Bioneurotoxins are toxins such as tetrodotoxin, found in the puffer fish, snake venom, and chlorotoxin. Some of them inhibit neuronal communication by reducing the permeability of ion channels in neurons. The target ion channel of each bioneurotoxin differs from each other.¹⁶⁻²⁰

PROBIOTICS

Probiotics are beneficial microorganisms that have a positive effect on human health when ingested in sufficient quantities and play a role in maintaining microbial homeostasis in the gut.²¹ At the beginning of these beneficial microorganisms are bacteria, fungi, and algae that have the property of being probiotics. Probiotic microorganisms can be accepted with the characteristics defined by the European Food Safety Authority. These characteristics are: (i) colonize intestinal epithelial cells in the human body, (ii) have the ability to attach to mucus or intestinal epithelial cells, (iii) be non-pathogenic and non-toxic, (iv) have a proven effect on health, (v) interact with the target host being isolated from the same species, (vi) being viable while passing through the upper gastrointestinal tract.²²

One of the systems affected by neurodegeneration is the brain-gut axis. This axis is a bidirectional system consisting of neurological, endocrine, and immunological elements. When the microbial balance of the gut is disturbed, communication between it and

the brain is impaired. This is accompanied by poor inflammation, increased oxidative stress, impaired energy homeostasis, and increased cellular degeneration.²³ Probiotics, which primarily provide gut microbial balance, are beneficial bacteria that have a positive impact on host health when ingested in adequate amounts and play a role in ensuring gut microbial homeostasis.²¹ In an *in vitro* study, Lab4 (*Lactobacillus acidophilus* CUL21, *L. acidophilus* CUL60, *Bifidobacterium bifidum* CUL20, and *B. animalis subsp. lactis* CUL34) and Lab4b (*L. acidophilus* CUL08, *lactis* CUL34) and Lab4b co-incubated and post-incubated neuroprotective effects of two consortia of bacteria known as *B. bifidum* CUL20 and *B. animalis subsp. lactis* CUL34 were investigated. Looking at the post-incubation results of the study, cell viability was 70.9% in the rotenone group, while it increased to 86.7% in Lab4 and 90.3% in Lab4b. When bacterial consortia were used simultaneously, it was found that both strains reduced apoptosis and necrosis, with Lab4b having even a greater effect on reducing apoptosis and necrosis. In addition, the same consortia were found to reduce the upregulation of genes encoding antioxidant enzymes and the accumulation of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) in SH-SY5Y cells.²⁴ SH-SY5Y is a human-derived neuroblastoma cell line used in experimental neurodegenerative studies. Because it morphologically resembles neuronal cells, it is used in *in vitro* neurodegenerative disease studies.^{25,26} In another study, the effect of *L. fermentum* KU200060, *L. delbrueckii* KU200171, and *L. buchneri* KU200793 isolated from Korean fermented foods on SH-SY5Y cells were investigated. The cell line that caused neurotoxicity with MPP⁺ was incubated with bacterial strains for about 4 hours. It was found that all strains showed neuroprotective effects on the SH-SY5Y cell line.²⁷ In another study, *L. plantarum* 200655 added to SH-SY5Y cells induced with H₂O₂ significantly decreased apoptosis-related Bax/Bcl-2 ratio and increased brain-derived neurotrophic factor and tyrosine hydroxylase mRNA expression. That's why, *L. plantarum* 200655 can be used as a prophylactic component to avoid neurodegenerative diseases.²⁸ In a study investigating the neuroprotective effects of *Ruminococcus albus*, which has probiotic

properties, on SH-SY5Y cells and living organisms, neuronal proliferation was reduced in SH-SY5Y cells induced simultaneously with *R. albus* and H₂O₂ by inhibiting proteins related to cell proliferation, and *R. albus* by lowering ROS levels. It was observed to protect neurons from oxidative damage by increasing antioxidant enzyme levels.²⁹ The original probiotic formulation DSF has been shown to control the expression of various genes in the cerebral cortex of older animals, reducing inflammation and improving neuronal performance.³⁰ As can be seen, various probiotic formulations alleviate inflammation by producing cytokines in different ways and reduce oxidative stress by lowering ROS levels.^{31,32} Administration of probiotics to mice with Parkinson disease has been shown to protect dopaminergic neurons and improve behavioral disorders.³³ This proves that probiotics can reduce the production of ROS by showing an antioxidant effect and have a neuroprotective effect by modulating the brain-gut axis in different ways.

VITAMIN D

Vitamin D is a fat-soluble steroid hormone and an anti-oxidant. It has two forms, D₃ (cholecalciferol) and D₂ (ergocalciferol). Cholecalciferol, the main source of vitamin D, is synthesized in the skin from 7-dehydrocholesterol by ultraviolet (UV) rays then converted to 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ (25(OH)D₃) in the liver by the enzyme 25-hydroxylase, and then 25(OH)D₃ is converted to 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ (1,25(OH)₂D) in the kidneys. It undergoes hydroxylation to produce 1,25(OH)₂D.³⁴ The effects on the immune system of the enzyme 1- α -hydroxylase, which converts the major form of vitamin D, 25-hydroxycholecalciferol, to its active form, calcitriol, are evidence that vitamin D has a broader spectrum of biological effects and acts as an antioxidant.³⁵ The body uses the cholecalciferol produced by UV light by either storing it in body tissues or activating it in the liver and kidneys to utilise it. Most of the vitamin D requirement in the body (90%) is met in this way. This situation is controlled by the parathyroid hormone, serum calcium and phosphorus levels. A small portion (10%) of vitamin D is absorbed through food (liver, egg yolk, fatty fish, etc.). Ergocalciferol, on

the other hand, is found in foods of plant origin and is formed in the presence of UV rays. The inability of people to adequately use sunlight due to lifestyle changes is leading to vitamin D deficiency in society.³⁶ Virtually all of the body's tissues and organs contain receptors that are influenced by vitamin D. The receptor-mediated mechanism of vitamin D activity is facilitated by the presence of active vitamin D.³⁷ The best known effect of vitamin D relates to the skeletal system. Vitamin D provides homeostasis in bone mineralization by balancing calcium and phosphorus absorption. Studies show that vitamin D supplementation can reduce the incidence of hip fractures and other non-vertebral fractures.³⁸ Vitamin D is thought to have a protective effect against neurological disease because of its immunomodulatory role. It controls calcium-mediated neuronal excitotoxicity in the nervous system by lowering oxidative stress and promoting synaptic structural proteins, neurotrophic factors, and neurotransmitters.³⁹ In the presence of vitamin D, it inhibits the synthesis of NO synthase, which acts as a catalyst for the free radical NO, which can damage cells. Vitamin D also increases the stimulation of gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase, an enzyme important for the synthesis of the antioxidant glutathione, which protects against cell damage by neutralizing free radicals.⁴⁰ In a study using rats, the fact that calcitriol reduces oxidative stress and increases the levels of antioxidant enzymes shows that its antioxidant effect is also valid in *in vivo* studies.⁴¹ In another study conducted in rats with PD, it was shown that vitamin D administration increased glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor expression and led to an increase in central dopamine levels compared to the control group.⁴² A further mechanism through which vitamin D provides protection against neurological diseases is through its immunomodulatory function. By reducing oxidative stress and increasing synaptic structural proteins, neurotrophic factors, and neurotransmitters, vitamin D helps control calcium-mediated neuronal excitotoxicity in the nervous system.³⁹ In another study, the protective effect of calcitriol against 6-OHDA-induced dopaminergic neuron damage was investigated *in vivo* and *in vitro*. In the rat model (n=32) generated with 6-OHDA (8 µg), half of the animals received 1

µg/mL/kg/day vitamin D₃ for 8 days, while the other half received saline (154 mM NaCl, 1 mL/kg/day). It was observed that 6-OHDA decreased locomotor activity in the saline-treated group, while the lesions produced by 6-OHDA in the other group were significantly restored by vitamin D₃. Vitamin D₃ (10⁻¹⁰ M) has been found to have a neuroprotective effect against neurotoxicity induced by 6-OHDA or H₂O₂ in rat embryo cell cultures.⁴³ Vitamin D supplementation can also modulate the gut microbiota by regulating the host immune response.⁴⁴ 1,25(OH)₂D, can be produced by colonocytes, and it is suggested that inadequate calcium intake or vitamin D concentration may cause inflammatory bowel disease and colon cancer development due to decreased synthesis in the gut.⁴⁵ In addition, vitamin D receptor (VDR) deficiency decreases intestinal tract T cells and the response of non-pathogenic bacteria to inflammation. Colonization with bacteria in the colon affects the distribution and expression of VDR, and intestinal VDR directly suppresses bacterial nuclear factor kappa B activation.⁴⁶

COMBINED USE OF PROBIOTICS AND VITAMIN D

Probiotics and vitamin D have been shown to have independent neuroprotective effects on neurotoxicity in many studies.^{24,40-42,47} However, there are very few studies that have investigated the protective effects of taking both substances together. The gut microbiota can be modulated by vitamin D/VDR pathway. Increased VDR expression has been shown to reduce microbial dysbiosis, improve gut barrier function, express more antimicrobial peptides, and produce more short-chain fatty acids in commensals.^{48,49} There is no *in vitro* study in the literature in which vitamin D and a probiotic preparation were administered together. In clinical or *in vivo* studies, it has been found that co-administration of probiotics and vitamin D showed more effective results not only in neurodegenerative diseases but also in various disease groups. In a study of sixty patients diagnosed with chronic schizophrenia, subjects received 50.000 IU of vitamin D₃ every two weeks and 8×10⁹ CFU/day of probiotics (*L. acidophilus*, *B. bifidum*, *L. reuteri*, and *L. fermentum*) (n=30) or placebo (n=30) for 12 weeks. Considering the results of the study, it was found that concomitant administration of probiotics

and vitamin D increased the total antioxidant capacity of plasma and decreased the levels of C-reactive protein (CRP) and malondialdehyde.⁵⁰ The effect of probiotics+vitamin D on mental health parameters and metabolic status in subjects with Type 2 diabetes mellitus (n=60; aged 45-85 years) with coronary artery disease was studied. Subjects received 50.000 IU vitamin D₃ every 2 weeks and 8×10⁹ CFU/day probiotic (n=30) or placebo (n=30) for 12 weeks. After the intervention, significant improvements in Total Beck Depression and Beck Anxiety Inventory scores and general health questionnaire scores were observed in the vitamin D and probiotic-supplemented group compared with the placebo group. Serum insulin levels and insulin resistance decreased significantly; vitamin D levels and serum high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol increased. In addition, positive effects on serum CRP, plasma NO, total antioxidant capacity, and glycemic control were noted.⁵¹ In an *in vivo* study, rats were separated into four groups: a control group, an obese control group, an obese group supplemented with probiotics, and an obese group supplemented with probiotics and vitamin D. The rats receiving probiotic and probiotic+vitamin D supplements had decreased levels of insulin, Homeostatic Model Assessment for Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR), triglycerides, interleukin 6 (IL-6), CRP, and leptin. The results of the study suggest that probiotics and vitamin D reduced weight gain more and had a more positive effect on fasting plasma glucose, insulin, HOMA-IR, triglycerides, IL-6, CRP, and leptin levels.⁵² Glucose homeostasis, inflammation, oxidative stress, and pregnancy outcomes were investigated in another study that examined the effects of concomitant administration of vitamin D and probiotics on metabolism and pregnancy outcomes in women with gestational diabetes. Subjects participating in the study (n=87) received every 2 weeks 50.000 IU vitamin D₃+8×10⁹ CFU/day probiotics (*L. acidophilus*, *B. bifidum*, *L. reuteri*, and *L. fermentum*) (n=30), 8×10⁹ CFU/day probiotics (*L. acidophilus*, *B. bifidum*, *L. reuteri*, and *L. fermentum*) (n=29) were divided into 3 groups receiving placebo (n=28). The study intervention lasted 6 weeks. Vitamin D and probiotics supplementation significantly decreased fasting plasma glucose levels, serum in-

sulin levels, and the HOMA-IR; it was found that the quantitative control index of insulin sensitivity significantly increased. In addition, this supplement decreased triglyceride levels, very low-density lipoprotein levels, HDL-to-total cholesterol ratio, CRP, and malondialdehyde levels; it was found to increase HDL cholesterol and total antioxidant capacity but did not alter NO and total glutathione levels. In addition, the incidence of hyperbilirubinemia and hospitalization was found to be lower in neonates born to mothers from this group after delivery.⁵³ Consistent with the results of this study, it was observed that 90-day supplementation with vitamin D and *L. reuteri* reduced bronchial inflammation in children with allergic asthma.⁵⁴ Ostadmohammadi et al., in a study of women with polycystic ovary syndrome, found that concomitant administration of vitamin D and probiotics had beneficial effects on hormonal, inflammatory, and antioxidant parameters, as well as mental health parameters such as depression, anxiety, and stress, compared with placebo.⁵⁵ The only study in which the simultaneous administration of probiotics and vitamin D was not found to be effective enough is the study by Tazzyman et al. According to this study, no statistically significant group differences were found that received probiotics and vitamin D together and the groups that received only vitamin D or only placebo.⁵⁶

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, neurotoxicity is a very serious condition that leads to neurodegenerative diseases. Since there is no definitive medical treatment to prevent these diseases, natural supplements are resorted to. It is known that probiotics and vitamin D have a positive effect on neurotoxicity. Recent studies have clearly shown that a stronger protective effect is obtained when the two agents are used together. In fact, studies conducted in the literature at the clinical level or *in vivo* have found that taking probiotics and vitamin D together shows more effective results not only in neurodegenerative diseases but also in different disease groups.

Source of Finance

During this study, no financial or spiritual support was received neither from any pharmaceutical company that has a direct con-

nection with the research subject, nor from a company that provides or produces medical instruments and materials which may negatively affect the evaluation process of this study.

Conflict of Interest

No conflicts of interest between the authors and / or family members of the scientific and medical committee members or mem-

bers of the potential conflicts of interest, counseling, expertise, working conditions, share holding and similar situations in any firm.

Authorship Contributions

This study is entirely author's own work and no other author contribution.

REFERENCES

- Lopez-Suarez L, Awabdh SA, Coumoul X, Chauvet C. The SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cell line, a relevant in vitro cell model for investigating neurotoxicology in human: Focus on organic pollutants. *Neurotoxicology*. 2022;92:131-55. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Grandjean P, Landrigan PJ. Developmental neurotoxicity of industrial chemicals. *Lancet*. 2006;368(9553):2167-78. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Grandjean P, Landrigan PJ. Neurobehavioural effects of developmental toxicity. *Lancet Neurol*. 2014;13(3):330-8. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Tseng CY. Effects of atypical neurotoxins on the developing fetal brain. In: Erkekoglu P, Ogawa T, eds. *Medical Toxicology*. 1st ed. United Kingdom: IntechOpen; 2021. [[Link](#)]
- Abdel-Aal RA, Assi AA, Kostandy BB. Memantine prevents aluminum-induced cognitive deficit in rats. *Behav Brain Res*. 2011;225(1):31-8. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Eiser AR. Why does Finland have the highest dementia mortality rate? Environmental factors may be generalizable. *Brain Res*. 2017;1671:14-7. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Zádori D, Klivényi P, Szalárdy L, Fülöp F, Toldi J, Vécsei L. Mitochondrial disturbances, excitotoxicity, neuroinflammation and kynurenines: novel therapeutic strategies for neurodegenerative disorders. *J Neurol Sci*. 2012;322(1-2):187-91. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Hardingham N, Dachtler J, Fox K. The role of nitric oxide in pre-synaptic plasticity and homeostasis. *Front Cell Neurosci*. 2013;7:190. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Kim YH, Sol IS, Yoon SH, Kim MJ, Kim KW, Sohn MH, et al. Association of extended nitric oxide parameters with bronchial hyperresponsiveness and bronchodilator response in children with asthma. *J Breath Res*. 2017;11(4):046003. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Kumar P, Kalonia H, Kumar A. Cyclosporine A attenuates 3-nitropropionic acid-induced Huntington-like symptoms in rats: possible nitric oxide mechanism. *Int J Toxicol*. 2010;29(3):318-25. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Nasyrova RF, Ivashchenko DV, Ivanov MV, Neznanov NG. Role of nitric oxide and related molecules in schizophrenia pathogenesis: biochemical, genetic and clinical aspects. *Front Physiol*. 2015;6:139. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Rönnbäck C, Hansson E. The importance and control of low-grade inflammation due to damage of cellular barrier systems that may lead to systemic inflammation. *Front Neurol*. 2019;10:533. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Ghose AK, Herberich T, Hudkins RL, Dorsey BD, Mallamo JP. Knowledge-Based, Central Nervous System (CNS) lead selection and lead optimization for CNS drug discovery. *ACS Chem Neurosci*. 2012;3(1):50-68. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Zhu X, Liu X, Wei F, Wang F, Merzenich MM, Schreiner CE, et al. Perceptual training restores impaired cortical temporal processing due to lead exposure. *Cereb Cortex*. 2016;26(1):334-45. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Hassel B. Tetanus: pathophysiology, treatment, and the possibility of using botulinum toxin against tetanus-induced rigidity and spasms. *Toxins (Basel)*. 2013;5(1):73-83. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Chulanetra M, Bangphoomi K, Sookrung N, Thanongsaksrikul J, Srimanote P, Sakolvaravee Y, et al. Human ScFv that block sodium ion channel activity of tetrodotoxin. *Toxicon*. 2012;59(2):272-82. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Huang W, Booth DM, Cane MC, Chvanov M, Javed MA, Elliott VL, et al. Fatty acid ethyl ester synthase inhibition ameliorates ethanol-induced Ca²⁺-dependent mitochondrial dysfunction and acute pancreatitis. *Gut*. 2014;63(8):1313-24. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Kiecker C. The chick embryo as a model for the effects of prenatal exposure to alcohol on craniofacial development. *Dev Biol*. 2016;415(2):314-25. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Luo J. Autophagy and ethanol neurotoxicity. *Autophagy*. 2014;10(12):2099-108. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Roux A, Jackson SN, Muller L, Barbacci D, O'Rourke J, Thanos PK, et al. Ethanol induced brain lipid changes in mice assessed by mass spectrometry. *ACS Chem Neurosci*. 2016;7(8):1148-56. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Scott KP, Antoine JM, Midtvedt T, van Hemert S. Manipulating the gut microbiota to maintain health and treat disease. *Microb Ecol Health Dis*. 2015;26:25877. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- EFSA Panel on Additives and Products or Substances used in Animal Feed (FEEDAP); Rychen G, Aquilina G, Azimonti G, Bampidis V, Bastos ML, Bories G, et al. Guidance on the characterisation of microorganisms used as feed additives or as production organisms. *EFSA J*. 2018;16(3):e05206. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Lee SHF, Ahmad SR, Lim YC, Zulkipli IN. The use of probiotic therapy in metabolic and neurological diseases. *Front Nutr*. 2022;9:887019. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Michael DR, Davies TS, Loxley KE, Allen MD, Good MA, Hughes TR, et al. In vitro neuroprotective activities of two distinct probiotic consortia. *Benef Microbes*. 2019;10(4):437-47. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Cheng B, Lu H, Bai B, Chen J. d-β-Hydroxybutyrate inhibited the apoptosis of PC12 cells induced by H₂O₂ via inhibiting oxidative stress. *Neurochem Int*. 2013;62(5):620-5. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
- Xie HR, Hu LS, Li GY. SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cell line: in vitro cell model of dopaminergic neurons in Parkinson's disease. *Chin Med J (Engl)*. 2010;123(8):1086-92. [[PubMed](#)]
- Cheon MJ, Lim SM, Lee NK, Paik HD. Probiotic Properties and Neuroprotective Effects of Lactobacillus buchneri KU200793 Isolated from Korean Fermented Foods. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020;21(4):1227. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
- Cheon MJ, Lee NK, Paik HD. Neuroprotective effects of heat-killed lactobacillus plantarum 200655 isolated from kimchi against oxidative stress. *Probiotics Antimicrob Proteins*. 2021;13(3):788-95. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

29. Park J, Lee J, Yeom Z, Heo D, Lim YH. Neuroprotective effect of *Ruminococcus albus* on oxidatively stressed SH-SY5Y cells and animals. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7(1):14520. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
30. Distrutti E, O'Reilly JA, McDonald C, Cipriani S, Renga B, Lynch MA, et al. Modulation of intestinal microbiota by the probiotic VSL#3 resets brain gene expression and ameliorates the age-related deficit in LTP. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(9):e106503. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
31. Nicola S, Amoroso A, Deidda F, Pane M, Allesina S, Mogna L, et al. Searching for the Perfect Homeostasis: Five Strains of *Bifidobacterium longum* From Centenarians Have a Similar Behavior in the Production of Cytokines. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2016 Nov/Dec;50 Suppl 2, Proceedings from the 8th Probiotics, Prebiotics & New Foods for Microbiota and Human Health meeting held in Rome, Italy on September 13-15, 2015:S126-S130. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
32. Nowak A, Paliwoda A, Blasiak J. Anti-proliferative, pro-apoptotic and anti-oxidative activity of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* strains: A review of mechanisms and therapeutic perspectives. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2019;59(21):3456-67. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
33. Castelli V, d'Angelo M, Lombardi F, Alfonsetti M, Antonosante A, Catanesi M, et al. Effects of the probiotic formulation SLAB51 in in vitro and in vivo Parkinson's disease models. *Aging (Albany NY)*. 2020;12(5):4641-49. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
34. Bikle DD. Vitamin D metabolism, mechanism of action, and clinical applications. *Chem Biol*. 2014;21(3):319-29. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
35. Mokhtari Z, Hekmatdoost A, Nourian M. Antioxidant efficacy of vitamin D. *J Parathyroid Dis*. 2016;5(1):11-6. [[Link](#)]
36. van Schoor N, Lips P. Global overview of vitamin D status. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am*. 2017;46(4):845-70. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
37. Khazai N, Judd SE, Tangpricha V. Calcium and vitamin D: skeletal and extraskeletal health. *Curr Rheumatol Rep*. 2008;10(2):110-7. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
38. Reid IR, Bolland MJ, Grey A. Effects of vitamin D supplements on bone mineral density: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2014;383(9912):146-55. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
39. Dankers W, Colin EM, van Hamburg JP, Lubberts E. Vitamin D in autoimmunity: molecular mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Front Immunol*. 2017;7:697. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
40. Jang W, Kim HJ, Li H, Jo KD, Lee MK, Song SH, et al. 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ attenuates rotenone-induced neurotoxicity in SH-SY5Y cells through induction of autophagy. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2014;451(1):142-7. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
41. Chen L, Zhou K, Chen H, Li S, Lin D, Zhou D. Calcitriol promotes survival of experimental random pattern flap via activation of autophagy. *Am J Transl Res*. 2017;9(8):3642-53. [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
42. Smith MP, Fletcher-Turner A, Yurek DM, Cass WA. Calcitriol protection against dopamine loss induced by intracerebroventricular administration of 6-hydroxydopamine. *Neurochem Res*. 2006;31(4):533-9. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
43. Wang JY, Wu JN, Cherng TL, Hoffer BJ, Chen HH, Borlongan CV, et al. Vitamin D(3) attenuates 6-hydroxydopamine-induced neurotoxicity in rats. *Brain Res*. 2001;904(1):67-75. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
44. Bashir M, Prietl B, Tauschmann M, Mautner SI, Kump PK, Treiber G, et al. Effects of high doses of vitamin D3 on mucosa-associated gut microbiome vary between regions of the human gastrointestinal tract. *Eur J Nutr*. 2016;55(4):1479-89. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
45. Biesalski HK. Nutrition meets the microbiome: micronutrients and the microbiota. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2016;1372(1):53-64. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
46. Ly NP, Litonjua A, Gold DR, Celedón JC. Gut microbiota, probiotics, and vitamin D: interrelated exposures influencing allergy, asthma, and obesity? *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2011;127(5):1087-94; quiz 1095-6. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
47. Shah C, Mokashe N, Mishra V. Preparation, characterization and in vitro antioxidative potential of synbiotic fermented dairy products. *J Food Sci Technol*. 2016;53(4):1984-92. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
48. Battistini C, Nassani N, Saad SM, Sun J. Probiotics, vitamin D, and vitamin D receptor in health and disease. In: de Albuquerque MAC, de LeBlanc AM, LeBlanc JG, Bedani R, eds. *Lactic Acid Bacteria A Functional Approach*. 1st ed. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2020. p.93-105. [[Crossref](#)]
49. Ogbu D, Xia E, Sun J. Gut instincts: vitamin D/vitamin D receptor and microbiome in neurodevelopment disorders. *Open Biol*. 2020;10(7):200063. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
50. Ghaderi A, Banafshe HR, Mirhosseini N, Moradi M, Karimi MA, Mehrzad F, et al. Clinical and metabolic response to vitamin D plus probiotic in schizophrenia patients. *BMC Psychiatry*. 2019;19(1):77. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
51. Raygan F, Ostadmohammadi V, Bahmani F, Asemi Z. The effects of vitamin D and probiotic co-supplementation on mental health parameters and metabolic status in type 2 diabetic patients with coronary heart disease: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2018;84(Pt A):50-5. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
52. Kılınc GE. Obez ratlarda probiyotik ile D vitamini takviyesinin bağırsak mikrobiyotası ve D vitamini reseptör kompozisyonu üzerine etkilerinin deneysel olarak araştırılması [Yüksek lisans tezi]. Samsun: Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi; 2018. Erişim tarihi: 18.07.2023. Erişim linki: [[Link](#)]
53. Jamilian M, Amirani E, Asemi Z. The effects of vitamin D and probiotic co-supplementation on glucose homeostasis, inflammation, oxidative stress and pregnancy outcomes in gestational diabetes: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Clin Nutr*. 2019;38(5):2098-105. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
54. Miraglia Del Giudice M, Maiello N, Allegorico A, Iavarazzo L, Capasso M, Capristo C, et al. *Lactobacillus reuteri* DSM 17938 plus vitamin D3 as ancillary treatment in allergic children with asthma. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol*. 2016;117(6):710-2. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
55. Ostadmohammadi V, Jamilian M, Bahmani F, Asemi Z. Vitamin D and probiotic co-supplementation affects mental health, hormonal, inflammatory and oxidative stress parameters in women with polycystic ovary syndrome. *J Ovarian Res*. 2019;12(1):5. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
56. Tazzyman S, Richards N, Trueman AR, Evans AL, Grant VA, Garaiova I, et al. Vitamin D associates with improved quality of life in participants with irritable bowel syndrome: outcomes from a pilot trial. *BMJ Open Gastroenterol*. 2015;2(1):e000052. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]