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维生素 D 在预防和治疗 1 型糖尿病中的潜在作用

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1 型糖尿病的发病率在全球范围内呈上升趋势,所有年龄组(包括儿童和青少年)中缺乏维生素 D 的人数也在增加。近几十年来,研究表明维生素 D 除了调节钙稳态和骨代谢外,还具有抗炎和免疫调节作用。流行病学数据表明维生素 D 缺乏与 1 型糖尿病的发病机制有关。对维生素 D 代谢很重要的基因多态性也会调节 1 型糖尿病的风险。多项研究评估了维生素 D 作为辅助免疫调节疗法在新诊断的 1 型糖尿病患者中的作用。本综述的目的是提供有关维生素 D 参与 1 型糖尿病发病机制的最新数据,并评估其作为预防该疾病和额外用于胰岛素治疗的药物的作用。

关键词: 1型糖尿病; 维生素D; 胆钙化醇。

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Potential role of vitamin D in the prevention and treatment of type 1 diabetes mellitus

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The incidence of type 1 diabetes mellitus is increasing worldwide, and the number of people with vitamin D deficiency in all age groups, including children and adolescents, is simultaneously growing in the world. Over the past decades, it has been found that vitamin D, in addition to participating in the regulation of calcium homeostasis and bone metabolism, has an anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory effect. Epidemiological evidence suggests the involvement of vitamin D deficiency in the pathogenesis of type 1 diabetes mellitus. Polymorphisms in genes important for vitamin D metabolism also modulate the risk of type 1 diabetes mellitus. Several studies have evaluated the role of vitamin D as adjuvant immunomodulating therapy in patients with newly diagnosed type 1 diabetes mellitus. The purpose of this review is to present current data on the involvement of vitamin D in the pathogenesis of type 1 diabetes mellitus and to evaluate its role as a drug for the prevention of the disease and its use in treatment in addition to insulin therapy.

Keywords: type 1 diabetes mellitus; vitamin D; cholecalciferol.

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Потенциальная роль витамина D в профилактике и лечении сахарного диабета первого типа

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Заболеваемость сахарным диабетом 1-го типа в мире увеличивается, также растет количество людей с недостатком витамина D во всех возрастных группах, включая детей и подростков. В последние десятилетия выявлено, что витамин D кроме регуляции гомеостаза кальция и метаболизма костей оказывает противовоспалительное и иммуномодулирующее действие. Эпидемиологические данные свидетельствуют о вовлечении дефицита витамина D в патогенез сахарного диабета 1-го типа. Полиморфизмы в генах, важных для метаболизма витамина D, также модулируют риск возникновения сахарного диабета 1-го типа. В ряде исследований была оценена роль витамина D в качестве адьюванной иммуномодулирующей терапии у пациентов с недавно выявленным сахарным диабетом 1-го типа. Цель данного обзора — представить современные данные об участии витамина D в патогенезе сахарного диабета 1-го типа и оценить его роль в качестве препарата для профилактики заболевания и дополнительного применения при инсулинотерапии.

Ключевые слова: сахарный диабет 1-го типа; витамин D; холекальциферол.

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近几十年来,1型糖尿病(T1DM)的发病率以每年3%的速度增长。此外,注意到在幼儿中显着增加[1-4]。目前,全球有542,000名14岁以下的1型糖尿病儿童和青少年,其中大部分生活在美国、印度、巴西和中国[5]。T1DM发病率最高的是芬兰(每年每10万人口新诊断DT1DM超过60例)和撒丁岛(每年每20万人口超过40例)[3,6]。应该指出的,全世界所有年龄组(包括儿童和青少年)维生素D缺乏症的人数都在同步增长,这表明维生素D缺乏症参与了T1DM的病理生理[7,8]。人群中维生素D缺乏的发生率从20%到90%不等[9-11]。无论地理位置如何,维生素D缺乏症和缺乏症都很常见:81例发现维生素D缺乏症,巴西1%的育龄妇女[10]和俄罗斯西北部84.1%-86.9%的育龄妇女[11]。

关于血清中维生素D的最佳水平没有统一的数据。根据俄罗斯内分泌学家协会的数据,血清中足够的维生素D含量为30-60纳克/毫升(75-150 nmol/l),维生素D水平为20-30纳克/毫升(50-75 nmol/l),维生素D水平低于20纳克/毫升(50 nmol/l)。维生素D水平高于60纳克/毫升(150毫升/升),表明其在血清中的浓度很高[12]。

维生素D的合成与代谢

维生素D包括一组化学结构相似的类固醇:维生素D₁-麦角钙化醇和光甾醇的化合物,维生素D₂-麦角钙化醇,维生素D₃-胆钙化醇,维生素D₄-二氢速甾醇,维生素D₅-谷钙化醇,维生素D₆-西格玛-方解酚[13]。人类中维生素D主要通过紫外线(80%)在皮肤中产生,少量(20%)通过食物进入身体[14]。暴露在阳光下只会促进维生素D的形成,其形式为维生素D₃,由7-脱氢胆固醇在皮肤中产生。然后用维他命D结合蛋白(VDBR)将维他命D₃转运到肝脏,在CYP2R1酶的参与下进行25-羟基化,并在25-羟基环丙二醇-25(He)D-钙二醇中代谢[15]。然后25(OH)D被转运到肾脏,并通过1α-羟基化(CYP27B1酶)转化为1,25-二羟基胆钙化醇[1,25(OH)₂D₃],称为骨化三醇,它是维生素D最具生物活性的代谢物。为了评估临床实践中维生素D的状况,建议测定血清25(OH)D而不是1,25(OH)₂D。排除1,25(OH)₂D作为诊断指标的主要原因是其半衰期短,为6-8小时,导致血清浓度每日显着波动。25(OH)D的半衰期为3周。此外,在各种疾病中,以及在怀孕期间,1,25(OH)₂D的水平可以增加,尽管实际缺乏维生素D[16]。最近的一份临床报告[17]表明,无血清和血清生物可利用25(OH)D,

但不是总25(OH)D,是评估维生素D状态的最可靠标志物。

骨化三醇通过与核维生素D受体(VDR)结合启动信号级联反应,后者与视黄酸X受体(RXR)形成异二聚体,然后与特定的DNA序列(VDREs — vitamin D response elements,, 维生素D反应元件)结合),调节转录几个基因[15]。VDR由位于染色体12q12q-q14上的一个大基因编码,包括两个启动子区域、八个蛋白质编码外显子和六个未翻译的外显子(1a-1f)[18]。VDR在几乎所有的人体细胞(包括免疫细胞)中都被发现[19]。维生素D除了止血钙和骨代谢外,还参与细胞生长的调节、抗增殖、抗炎、免疫调节过程[20,21]。

维生素D的免疫调节作用

维生素D通过VDR对先天免疫系统和适应性免疫系统都有影响。功能性VDR已在几乎所有免疫细胞中被鉴定,包括抗原呈递细胞和T淋巴细胞,这是维生素D对免疫系统作用的间接证据[22,23]。免疫细胞,尤其是抗原呈递细胞(活化的巨噬细胞和树突状细胞)表达1α-羟化酶,因此可以在干扰素-γ(IFN-γ)的作用下合成和分泌骨化三醇[24,25]。维生素D的免疫调节作用取决于其生物活性形式骨化三醇调节参与细胞增殖、分化和功能的基因表达的能力[19,26,27]。

钙三醇通过诱导免疫耐受抑制适应性免疫反应,并通过以下机制发挥抗炎作用:

- 抑制树突状细胞(DC)的分化、成熟和功能,阻止其作为成熟抗原表达细胞的作用[28,29];
- 刺激脱戊嗪的形成,促进巨噬细胞的分化和激活,增强巨噬细胞的抗菌活性,增强趋化性和吞噬作用[30];
- 通过减少MHCII类分子(组织相容性主要类别的分子)的表面表达来刺激T细胞,并促进巨噬细胞从促炎表型(M1,或“经典激活的”巨噬细胞)向抗-炎症(M2,或相关的巨噬细胞);
- 抑制单核细胞和巨噬细胞促炎细胞因子的表达[31-34];
- 对B细胞的分化和免疫球蛋白的产生有直接抑制作用[35,36];
- 使调节性T细胞的产生正常化、Th细胞的极化、增加Th₂细胞的数量并抑制Th₁和Th₁₇细胞的产生,从而刺激T细胞从“效应”表型转变为“调节”表型[37,38];

- 防止CD8⁺T细胞过度活化，减少IFN- γ 和肿瘤坏死因子(TNF- α)的分泌[39]；
- 调节免疫细胞产生细胞因子，增加抗炎细胞因子[白细胞介素(IL)-4, IL-10]的产生并减少促炎细胞因子(IL-1 β , IL-2, IL6, IL)的合成[17, IL-22, TNF- α , IFN- γ][40, 41]。

钙三醇的免疫调节作用，即诱导免疫耐受和细胞贫血，干扰B细胞的活性和抗体的产生，此外，炎症反应的减少意味着维生素D在自身免疫性疾病(包括T1DM)中的治疗潜力。维生素D可能在降低自身免疫性疾病的风险和改善其流动方面发挥重要作用。

研究表明，年轻时NOD小鼠缺乏维生素D会导致更高的发病率和T1DM的早期发展[42]。钙三醇及其类似物可防止NOD小鼠的T1DM发育，特别是在幼年引入T1DM之前，对 β 细胞进行免疫介导攻击[43, 44]。当钙三醇在更高的年龄和疾病的后期被引入时，疾病的进展可能会停止[45]。C. Mathieu和合著者表明，每天或每隔一天注射的高剂量钙三醇(5微克/千克)的长期治疗降低了NOD小鼠的T1DM发生率，不会引起严重的副作用[44]。S. Gregori和合著者[45]发现对NOD小鼠短期施用骨化三醇类似物可抑制IL-12和IFN- γ 的产生，阻止Th₁细胞对胰岛的浸润，增加淋巴中调节性CD4⁺和CD25⁺T细胞的数量胰腺的结节，从而抑制糖尿病的发展。用骨化三醇处理的NOD小鼠显示出从Th₁(IFN- γ)到Th₂(IL-4)[37]的细胞因子分泌谱的显著变化。此外，暴露于钙三醇或其类似物TH527的树突状细胞改变了GAD65反应的性质，GAD65反应是T细胞的特异性克隆，抑制增殖，促进凋亡[46]。T. Takiishi和合著者[47]表明在整个生命周期(从3到35周)喂食富含维生素D₃(800 IU/天)的饮食的NOD小鼠中，糖尿病的发病率显著降低，胰腺中的胰岛素含量高于对照动物组。

炎症在1型糖尿病的发病机制中起着重要作用，通过 β 细胞和免疫细胞产生的细胞因子和趋化因子促进 β 细胞功能障碍和凋亡[48]。钙三醇提高抗凋亡蛋白A20水平，降低IL-6的产生、氮的合成和MNSI分子在孤立的人类胰岛中的表达受到这种。Z. Wei和合著者[49]发现VDR与染色质重塑复合物(PBAF)的关联增强了VDR依赖的转录程序，并导致细胞因子诱导的 β 细胞促炎反应减少，并保留了它们在人和NOD小鼠。

维生素D缺乏在1型糖尿病发病机制中的作用

大量工作指出维生素D在 β 细胞功能和胰岛素分泌中的作用。A.W. Norman和合著者[50]首次表

明维生素D的缺乏抑制了大鼠分泌的胰腺胰岛素的分泌。发现人胰腺 β 细胞既能表达1 α -羟化酶，又能表达VDR[51, 52]。VDR在人类胰岛素基因启动子中被检测到[53]。根据P.M. Bourlon和合著者[54]骨化三醇促进胰岛素de novo的生物合成，并加速大鼠胰岛中胰岛素原向胰岛素的转化。给缺乏维生素D的小鼠和兔服用维生素D可消除胰岛素分泌障碍[50-56]。这表明维生素D及其类似物可以保护 β 细胞免受免疫介导的攻击，促进Th₁细胞向Th₂细胞的转变，减少Th₁细胞对胰岛的浸润，并减少细胞因子诱导的对 β 细胞的损伤。

参与维生素D代谢的各种基因多态性，尤其是编码维生素D羟化酶、VDBR和VDR的基因多态性，可能会影响1型糖尿病的发生风险。2007年E. Ramos-Lopez和合著者[57]确定了CYP2R1基因中单核苷酸多态性(SNP)的关联，在T1DM患者中编码维生素D25-羟化酶，和血清25(OH)D水平，在此基础上，他们认为SNPrs10741657的G等位基因易导致到1型糖尿病的发展，然后作为相同SNP的等位基因A提供防止疾病发展的保护。另一项研究发现，CYP2R1基因中的单核苷酸多态性rs10741657和rs12794714之间存在显著关联以及患1型糖尿病的风险[58]。英国进行的一项大型病例对照研究中，涉及7854名1型糖尿病患者和8758名健康人，发现编码维生素D1的CYPB1基因的两个单核苷酸多态性(rs10877012和rs46536)之间存在关联 α -羟化酶与1型糖尿病[59]。作者还报告说，GG基因型CYP2R1(SNPrs10741657)或CC基因型CYP27B1(SNPrs10877012)会增加患T1DM的风险[60]。具有两种基因型的人患1型糖尿病的风险显著高于仅具有一种基因型的人，表明GG基因型CYP2R1和CC基因型CYP27B1在确定发生1型糖尿病的风险方面存在潜在协同作用。此外，与分别具有AACYP2R1和AACYP27B1基因型的人群相比，CYP2R1GG基因型和CYP27B1CC基因型人群的血清25(OH)D水平显著降低。然而，丹麦研究人员并未发现SNPCYP2R1和CYP27B1(分别为rs10741657和rs4646536)与儿童患T1DM的风险之间存在关联[61]。

已经提出VDR基因多态性在1型糖尿病发病机制中的潜在作用。J. M. Norris和合著者[62](2004-2010)进行了主要的TEDDY调查424788名新生儿接受了检查(在美国6个州和欧洲5个国家)。根据初步筛查的结果，该研究包括8676名患有1型糖尿病的一线亲属患1型糖尿病风险增加的儿童(儿童中存在a/tGADA、IAA、IA-2A)1型糖尿病且

无直系亲属。该研究从4个月大的儿童开始和持续了6年。分析了VDR、CYP24A、CYP27B1、GC、RXR基因的多态性。TEDDY研究中，42%的儿童和22–67%的1型糖尿病儿童存在维生素D25(OH)缺乏症。具有维生素D受体的次要等位基因VDRrs7975232的儿童中，维生素D25(OH)的血浆浓度最高，并且患1型糖尿病的风险较低。J.M. Norris和合著者表明较高水平的25(OH)D有助于减少对具有发展为1型糖尿病的遗传易感性的儿童胰腺胰岛器官可能的自身免疫性损伤。最近的一项研究发现，脐带血中较高水平的25(OH)D是VDRrs11568820G/G基因型纯合子儿童患T1DM风险降低的有利预测因素[63]。N. Habibian和合著者[64]证明了1型糖尿病风险增加与VDR基因（尤其是Bsm-I和Fok-I）中的一些多态性之间存在关联，尽管最易患1型糖尿病的等位基因仍未确定。血清中足够水平的25(OH)D（ $\geq 30\text{ ng/mL}$ ）和VDR基因中的一些SNP基因型（TaqI和BsmI）与新诊断的1型糖尿病患者的C肽水平升高有关，这可能有助于保留胰腺的功能残余β细胞[64]。研究表明，对维生素D的合成、运输和作用很重要的基因中的SNP可能会影响患1型糖尿病的风险。

1型糖尿病患者的维生素D水平

近几十年来，维生素D缺乏症和1型糖尿病的患病率和频率有所增加[3,7,65–67]。DIAMOND研究小组发现，在纬度较高（紫外线辐射低）的国家，1型糖尿病的发病率较高（从1990年到1994年收集的数据）。在芬兰，首次发现1型糖尿病的病例为每年每10万人中有36.5例，瑞典为27.5/100000，挪威为21.2/10000[68]。几项研究表明1型糖尿病的发病具有季节性模式：冬季、早春和深秋发病率增加，夏季暂停[69–71]。S.D. Mohr和合著者[71]发现低强度的紫外线辐射导致儿童期1型糖尿病的发病率较高。此外，作者显示芬兰1型糖尿病的发病率逐渐增加（从1965年的每10万人18人增加到2005年的每10万人64人），在他们看来，这与引入官方政府建议有关逐渐减少每日维生素D的摄入量[71]。新诊断的1型糖尿病患者中，25(OH)D水平显著低于健康人[72–75]。根据在瑞典进行的一项研究，该研究涉及459名15–34岁的1型糖尿病患者，他们血液中的25(OH)D含量显著低于对照组[92]。印度、意大利、卡塔尔、科威特的研究人员也得出了类似的结果[73–76]。在瑞士129名患有1型糖尿病的儿童和青少年在60.5%的病例中被发现缺乏维生素D，在26.4%的病例中发现维生素D缺乏[77]。

维生素D对1型糖尿病病程的影响： 流行病学证据

1型糖尿病患者缺乏维生素D的问题是众所周知的，但尚不清楚维生素D浓度不足是1型糖尿病的诱因还是疾病的后果。根据文献，维生素D对1型糖尿病风险的影响可能取决于患者的年龄[78]。挪威的一项队列研究纳入了29,072名患者，结果表明，在其子女在生命的前15年中发展为T1DM的妇女在怀孕期间的25(OH)D水平显著降低[79]。此外，在孕早期25(OH)D水平 $\leq 21.6\text{ ng/mL}$ 的孕妇中，儿童患T1DM的风险高两倍。R. Jacobsen和合著者[80]研究表明与母亲使用维生素D强化人造黄油的儿童相比，14岁以下儿童患1型糖尿病的风险显著（高1.5–2倍），这些儿童的母亲在怀孕期间未食用强化维生素D的人造黄油。然而，M.E. Miettinen和合著者[81]与对照组妇女相比，没有发现其孩子随后（到7岁）发展为T1DM的母亲在怀孕期间的25(OH)D水平存在显著差异。J.Y. Dong和合著者[82]发现女性在怀孕期间摄入维生素D与其后代患T1DM的风险之间没有显著关联。K. Silvis和合著者[83]发现在怀孕期间服用维生素D不会影响遗传易感性增加的儿童患1型糖尿病的风险。

同时，根据各种研究，儿童早期摄入维生素D对降低患1型糖尿病风险的作用比宫内摄入这种维生素更显著。芬兰的一项研究发现，婴儿出生后第一年补充维生素D可降低T1DM的发病率。此外，与每天服用少于2000 IU的药物相比，每天服用2000 IU的维生素D能更显著地降低发生T1DM的风险（4–5倍）[84]。在多中心研究EURODIAB2中，发现从儿童早期摄入维生素D（使用标准化问卷和调查收集的数据）有助于降低晚年患T1DM的风险[85]。L.C. Stene和合著者[86]显示了儿童时期维生素D摄入时机的重要性。在6个月前接受这些食品添加剂的儿童相比，在7至12个月大时接受鱼肝油补充剂的儿童患1型糖尿病的风险较低。这可能是因为适应性免疫系统在生命的最初几个月没有完全成熟，并且缺乏维生素D的有益免疫调节作用。因此幼儿中维生素D可以防止1型糖尿病的发展。目前正在讨论维生素D及其在怀孕期间补充维生素D对发生T1DM风险的影响，需要加以澄清。

年轻时，维生素D对1型糖尿病的发展有明显的影响。按照E.D. Gorham和合著者[87]美国军事人员中进行的一项研究表明，1型糖尿病患者在确诊前一年的25(OH)D水平显著降低。

另一项研究中,与25(OH)D水平<75 nmol/L的个体相比,25(OH)D水平正常(≥ 100 nmol/L)的个体患T1DM的可能性较小[88]。25(OH)D水平最低的人群中,T1DM风险也有升高的趋势。

维生素D缺乏与糖尿病的各种血管并发症有关。加拿大,对14项研究进行了分析,其中包括10,007名患有糖尿病视网膜病变的1型糖尿病患者。发现维生素D缺乏的严重程度与糖尿病视网膜病变之间存在统计学上显着的关系[89]。EURODIAB前瞻性研究纳入了532名40±10岁的1型糖尿病患者,结果表明25(OH)D水平越高,大量白蛋白尿的发生率越低。维生素D水平与其他血管并发症(微量白蛋白尿、非增殖性和增殖性视网膜病变)之间没有联系[90]。一项针对75名T1DM合并糖尿病视网膜病变患者的日本研究发现,维生素D水平与T1DM并发症之间没有关系[91]。

维生素D作为1型糖尿病的辅助治疗

大量研究表明,T1DM患者的维生素D对维持胰腺 β 细胞的残余功能和血糖控制具有积极作用[92,93]。观察到的患者在空腹和/或每日胰岛素剂量较低时表现出较高水平的受刺激C肽。A. Mishra和合著者[94]除胰岛素治疗外还接受维生素D的1型糖尿病患者中,观察到胰腺 β 细胞残余功能减慢的趋势。此外,钙二醇的摄入有助于显著抑制自身攻击性,并对 β 细胞的功能具有保护作用[95]。M. A. Gabbay和合著者[96]证明每天将胆钙化醇以2000 IU的剂量添加到胰岛素中,持续12个月有助于新诊断的1型糖尿病患者(病程小于6个月)调节性T细胞数量的显着增加。6个月后的HbA1c水平,以及18个月后针对GAD65的抗体滴度。与接受安慰剂的患者相比,服用骨化醇组的患者显着降低。在1型糖尿病患者中进行的两项回顾性研究表明,使用不同剂量(400至6000 IU/天)的胆钙化醇进行为期三个月的辅助治疗可改善血糖参数并降低治疗后的HbA1c水平[93,95]。R.P. Panjiyar和合著者[97]一项前瞻性研究中发现,每天添加3000 IU的胆钙化醇作为辅助治疗12个月。导致1型糖尿病儿童血糖参数的改善和 β 细胞残余功能的缓慢下降。研究结束时,与单独接受胰岛素治疗的对照患者相比,这些儿童的平均空腹血糖、HbA1c和每日总胰岛素剂量较低,平均刺激C肽水平较高。重要的是T1DM患者的平均血清25(OH)D水平在所有后续访问中保持在足够的范围内(>30 ng/ml)。

然而,其他研究并没有发现在胰岛素治疗中添加维生素D后1型糖尿病的病程发生显着变化。E.M. Shih和合著者[98]据报道胆钙化醇的使用剂量为每周20,000 IU,持续6个月。不影响HbA1c水平,每日胰岛素需求。2007年R. Perchard和合著者[99]表明单次口服100,000或160,000 IU胆钙化醇不会导致维生素D和T1DM缺乏症儿童的HbA1c水平出现任何显着差异。作者假设单次高剂量口服胆钙化醇无法在延长的随访期内维持残留的血清25(OH)D水平。

其他研究中发现在1型糖尿病患者中,当胆钙化醇与omega-3多不饱和脂肪酸联合使用时,观察到对胰腺 β 细胞功能的保护作用。S. Niinisto和合著者研究中[100],致力于芬兰糖尿病的预后和预防,包括7782名HLA易患1型糖尿病的儿童。作者表明在3个月大时,血清中花生四烯酸和二十二碳六烯酸的比例增加。以及6个月大时更高的omega-6/omega-3比率。与患1型糖尿病的风险增加显着相关。X. Bi和合著者实验工作中[101]证明用omega-3补充NOD小鼠的饮食可降低严重糖尿病的发生率和促炎细胞因子的水平。根据一项回顾性研究,在怀孕期间和出生后第一年服用鱼肝油(大量维生素D和omega-3)可降低以后患T1DM的风险,这表明维生素D和omega-3具有协同作用-3多不饱和脂肪酸[86,102]。

过去十年的研究中,已经确定维生素D的作用不仅与钙磷稳态的调节有关,而且与其抗炎和免疫调节作用有关。

越来越多的证据表明维生素D缺乏可能在T1DM的发病机制中起作用。充足的维生素D摄入量,尤其是在儿童早期,可以降低晚年患糖尿病的风险。因此,在具有发展为T1DM的高遗传风险的儿童中,在生命的最初几年及时发现和消除维生素D缺乏症可能会在未来防止这种疾病的发展。2019年鉴于全球普遍存在维生素D缺乏症,英国科学咨询委员会(SCAN)建议4岁及以上人群的膳食维生素D摄入量为每天400 IU[103]。美国内分泌学家协会建议儿童(一岁以下)每天至少摄入400 IU维生素D,儿童、青少年和成人每天至少摄入600 IU[104]。

因此,维生素D恢复免疫耐受、抵消自身免疫反应、减缓或停止疾病进展、维持残留 β 细胞的质量和功能以及改善血糖控制的潜在能力值得研究该药物作为T1DM的辅助治疗。个体对维生素D摄入的反应取决于基线维生素D状态、体脂百分比、性别、种族、遗传因素和药物治疗等因素[105,106]。只有当血清25(OH)D水平高于正常骨骼健

康所需的水平($\geq 30 \text{ ng/ml}$)时,才能观察到维生素D在自身免疫性疾病中的阳性免疫学作用。

需要进一步研究维生素D羟化酶、VDBP和VDR中的基因多态性,以评估它们对维生素D状态和作用的影响。这将允许识别可能需要更高剂量维生素D的患者群体,以达到预防和治疗T1DM所需的目标血清25(OH)D水平。

此外

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