

# Huntington's Disease and Vitamin D Receptor: Impact on Receptor Activation

Huntington's Disease (HD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder with complex molecular mechanisms that affect multiple cellular pathways. Recent research has revealed intriguing connections between HD and the vitamin D signaling system, particularly regarding the vitamin D receptor (VDR). This report examines the relationship between HD and VDR activation, exploring molecular interactions, clinical observations, and therapeutic implications.

#### The Vitamin D Receptor: Structure and Function

The vitamin D receptor is a ligand-activated transcription factor that regulates gene expression in response to vitamin D binding. Structurally, the VDR consists of three distinct regions: an N-terminal dual zinc finger DNA binding domain, a C-terminal ligand-binding domain, and an unstructured linking region <sup>[1]</sup>. The C-terminal region comprises 12  $\alpha$ -helices that form a dynamic ligand binding pocket which interacts with 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 (1,25(OH)2D3), the active form of vitamin D<sup>[1]</sup>.

When activated by 1,25(OH)2D3, VDR undergoes conformational changes that facilitate the formation of two protein interaction surfaces: one for heterodimerization with retinoid X receptor (RXR) necessary for DNA binding, and another for recruiting coregulatory complexes essential for gene modulation [1]. This activated VDR-RXR complex then binds to specific DNA sequences called vitamin D response elements (VDREs) to influence transcription of target genes [2].

#### **VDR's Regulatory Mechanism**

The VDR functions by directing cellular transcriptional machinery to specific genomic sites where it can modify RNA production [1]. Upon binding to VDREs, typically comprised of two hexameric nucleotide half-sites separated by three base pairs, the VDR-RXR heterodimer recruits coregulatory complexes that either enhance or repress gene expression [1] [2]. These molecular interactions are critical for vitamin D's diverse biological effects, including mineral homeostasis, immune function, and neuroprotection.

# **Huntington's Disease and VDR: Molecular Interactions**

# Wild-type vs. Mutant Huntingtin Interaction with VDR

One of the most significant findings regarding HD and VDR comes from studies showing that wild-type huntingtin protein can bind to several nuclear receptors, including VDR, LXR $\alpha$ , PPAR $\gamma$ , and TR $\alpha$ 1 [3]. However, mutant huntingtin, which contains an expanded polyglutamine tract characteristic of HD, demonstrates dramatically reduced binding capacity to these nuclear

receptors [3] [4]. This suggests that HD may interfere with normal VDR function through altered protein-protein interactions.

Research has demonstrated that when mutant huntingtin was expressed with VDR and immunoprecipitated, much lower amounts of VDR were bound to the mutant huntingtin compared to wild-type huntingtin [3]. This indicates that the polyglutamine expansion in huntingtin directly impairs its ability to interact with VDR, potentially disrupting downstream signaling pathways regulated by vitamin D.

#### **Impact on Gene Expression**

The altered interaction between mutant huntingtin and VDR appears to have functional consequences for gene regulation. Wild-type huntingtin normally activates transcription mediated by nuclear receptors, while mutation or loss of huntingtin leads to decreased transcriptional activity [3]. This suggests that in HD, the reduced binding between mutant huntingtin and VDR may contribute to dysregulated gene expression, potentially affecting pathways crucial for neuronal health and function.

#### **Clinical Observations: Vitamin D Status in HD**

## **Prevalence of Vitamin D Deficiency**

Clinical studies have revealed a high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency in institutionalized patients with manifest  $HD^{[5]}$ . This observation raises important questions about whether vitamin D deficiency is a consequence of HD pathology or a contributing factor to disease progression. The combination of inadequate vitamin D levels and potentially impaired VDR signaling due to mutant huntingtin could create a "double hit" scenario affecting vitamin D-dependent neuroprotective mechanisms.

## **VDR Expression in HD**

Research indicates that vitamin D intake enhances VDR expression in the striatum (a brain region severely affected in HD) and rescues memory and motor dysfunction in mouse models of  $\mathrm{HD}^{[6]}$ . This suggests that despite the potential interference from mutant huntingtin, increasing VDR expression through vitamin D supplementation might be a viable therapeutic approach. It also implies that HD may affect not only VDR activation but potentially VDR expression levels as well.

#### **Neuroprotective Effects of Vitamin D in HD Models**

## **Anti-inflammatory and Anti-oxidative Actions**

Studies in HD mouse models have demonstrated that vitamin D supplementation provides significant neuroprotective effects. In a 3-NP-induced HD mouse model, administration of 500IU/kg/day of vitamin D3 reduced neuroinflammation and oxidative stress, two primary pathological mechanisms observed across neurodegenerative diseases including  $HD^{[7]}$ .

Specifically, vitamin D administration decreased the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 in both the cortex and striatum of HD mice, reflecting its anti-

inflammatory action [7]. It also showed an anti-oxidant effect by reducing the gene expression of catalase and glutathione peroxidase 4 (GpX4) that were elevated in HD mice as a response to increased oxidative stress [7].

## **Rescue of Cholinergic Signaling**

HD models show deficits in cholinergic neurotransmission, characterized by decreased expression of  $\alpha 7$  nicotinic acetylcholine receptors ( $\alpha 7$  nAChRs) and increased acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity. Vitamin D supplementation was able to rescue these deficits by restoring  $\alpha 7$  nAChRs expression and reducing AChE activity in both the cortex and striatum of HD mice [7]. This restoration of cholinergic signaling is particularly important given the role of cholinergic pathways in cognition and motor function.

## **Effect on T-cell Receptor Beta Subunit Expression**

An intriguing finding is that HD leads to increased expression of T-cell receptor beta subunit (TCR- $\beta$ ) in the cortex and striatum, which gets significantly reduced with vitamin D3 administration [7]. This suggests that vitamin D may modulate neuroinflammatory processes in HD through effects on immune receptor expression, providing another mechanism for its neuroprotective action.

## **Therapeutic Implications**

# **Vitamin D Supplementation as a Potential Treatment**

The evidence from preclinical studies strongly suggests that vitamin D supplementation could be beneficial in HD. Vitamin D3 administration in HD mouse models has been shown to induce survival signals, diminish oxidative stress, and reduce movement and motor dysfunction [8]. The observed rescue of memory and motor function in mouse models further supports the potential therapeutic value of vitamin D in  $HD^{[6]}$ .

#### **Mechanisms of Benefit**

The therapeutic benefits of vitamin D in HD likely stem from multiple mechanisms:

- 1. Direct neuroprotection through anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidative actions [7]
- 2. Enhancement of VDR expression, potentially compensating for reduced binding with mutant hunting  $\frac{[6]}{}$
- 3. Restoration of cholinergic signaling that is disrupted in HD<sup>[7]</sup>
- 4. Modulation of immune responses through effects on immune receptor expression [7]

These mechanisms collectively suggest that vitamin D may counteract several pathological processes involved in HD progression.

#### Conclusion

The evidence reviewed here indicates that HD likely does reduce VDR activation through impaired binding between mutant huntingtin and the vitamin D receptor. This molecular disruption, combined with the high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency in HD patients, suggests a significant impairment of vitamin D signaling in this disease. However, the ability of vitamin D supplementation to enhance VDR expression and provide neuroprotective benefits in HD models offers promising therapeutic potential.

Future research should focus on clarifying the precise mechanisms by which mutant huntingtin affects VDR activation and determining optimal vitamin D supplementation strategies for HD patients. Clinical trials evaluating vitamin D as an adjunctive therapy in HD would be valuable in translating these preclinical findings to patient care. The relationship between HD and VDR represents an important area for continued investigation, with potential implications for both understanding HD pathophysiology and developing novel therapeutic approaches.



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