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REVIEW



The role of B vitamins in stroke prevention

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ABSTRACT

Elevated plasma levels of homocysteine (Hcy) are a recognized risk factor for stroke. This relationship represents one aspect of the debated 'Hcy hypothesis'. Elevated Hcy may be an independent and treatable cause of atherosclerosis and thrombotic vascular diseases. Further observations indicate that proper dietary supplementation with B-vitamins decreases total plasma Hcy concentrations and may be an effective intervention for stroke prevention. Metabolic vitamin B₁₂ deficiency is a nutritional determinant of total Hcy and stroke risk. Genetic factors may link B vitamins with stroke severity due to the impact on Hcy metabolism of polymorphism in the genes coding for methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase, methionine synthase, methionine synthase reductase, and cystathionine β -synthase. Several meta-analyses of large randomized controlled trials exist. However, they are not completely in agreement about B vitamins' role, particularly folic acid levels, vitamin B₁₂, and B₆, in lowering the homocysteine concentrations in people at high stroke risk. A very complex relationship exists between Hcy and B vitamins, and several factors appear to modify the preventive effects of B vitamins in stroke. This review highlights the regulating factors of the active role of B vitamins active in stroke prevention. Also, inputs for further large, well-designed studies, for specific, particularly sensitive subgroups are given.

KEYWORDS

B vitamins; folic acid; cobalamin; riboflavin; pyridoxine; nutrients; sources; stroke; homocysteine; hyperhomocysteinemia

Introduction

B vitamins are strictly connected to homocysteine (Hcy) through their role in methionine (Met) metabolism, regeneration, and Hcy breakdown. The vitamins involved in Hcy metabolism and turn over encompass vitamin B₉ (folic acid), vitamin B₁₂ (cobalamin), and, to a lesser extent, vitamin B₆ (pyridoxal 5'-phosphate) and vitamin B₂ (riboflavin) (Spence, Yi, and Hankey 2017; McNulty et al. 2008; Sanchez-Moreno, Jimenez-Escrig, and Martin 2009) (Figures 1 and 2). There are numerous studies of Hcy as a risk factor for stroke, most of which show a positive association (Li et al. 2003; Bos et al. 2005; Ashjzadeh, Fathi, and Shariat 2013; Devasia, Joy, and Tarey 2016; Narang et al. 2009; Dhamija et al. 2009). In some cases, Hcy levels in stroke were about 20% and 30% higher than in controls (Ashjzadeh, Fathi, and Shariat 2013; Narang et al. 2009), with a report showing Hcy levels two times higher (Dhamija et al. 2009). Some studies evidenced a most reliable association relatively with small vessel strokes (Piao et al. 2018; Larsson, Traylor, and Markus 2019; Khan et al. 2008), while

other reports showed elevated Hcy for brain atrophy in post-stroke patients (Yang et al. 2007; Shi et al. 2018; Pascoe et al. 2012).

Three meta-analyses confirmed the relationship mentioned above. One (Homocysteine Studies Collaboration 2002) included 30 observational studies involving a total of 5073 ischemic heart disease events and 1113 stroke events and established that elevated Hcy is an independent predictor but less strongly related risk factor of ischemic heart disease and stroke in healthy peoples than suggested before (Boushey et al. 1995). Among prospective studies in individuals with no history of cardiovascular disease (CVD) and after the proper corrections and adjustments, the stroke risk was reduced by 19% for every 25% decrease in Hcy level (Homocysteine Studies Collaboration 2002). The second meta-analysis collected 20 sets of prospective data (3820 participants), resulting in an OR = 1.59, which means that a future stroke patient would have a 5 μ mol/l increase in serum Hcy from the baseline level (Wald, Law, and Morris 2002). The genetic and prospective studies evidenced a clear causal association between Hcy and CVD. The authors

concluded that lowering Hcy concentrations by $3\text{ }\mu\text{mol/l}$ from current levels by increasing folic acid intake (about 0.8 mg/day) would reduce the stroke risk by 24%. In the third meta-analysis, among 14 studies involving 1769 stroke cases, the pooled OR estimate of ischemic stroke associated with hyperhomocysteinemia (HHcy) was 1.79 (Kelly et al. 2002).

The relationship between Hcy level and reduced stroke risk with supplementation of B vitamins has been analyzed in several epidemiological studies. There are many reports, although not completely in agreement, about stroke being associated with folic acid levels (Weng et al. 2008; Robinson et al. 1998; Huo et al. 2015; He et al. 2004; Yang et al. 2007; Larsson et al. 2008; Zeng et al. 2015), vitamin B₁₂ levels (Spence 2016; Ahmed et al. 2019; He et al. 2004) and vitamin B₆ (Robinson et al. 1998; He et al. 2004; Kelly et al. 2004). A single study found lower vitamin B₂ levels in stroke patients than controls (Ullegaddi, Powers, and Gariballa 2005), revising previous data (Ullegaddi, Powers, and Gariballa 2004). Fundamental factors that affect folate's ability to prevent stroke are platelet disorders and cigarette smoking (Kong et al. 2018; Zhou et al. 2018; Larsson et al. 2008). A recent study reported that Hcy levels have a strong interaction with antiplatelet therapy in recurrent stroke in female subjects ($p=0.010$) rather than in male individuals ($p=0.595$), after correcting statistics for confounders (Li et al. 2020). This evidence suggests that an outstanding investigation on the role of B vitamins supplementation and Hcy marker in stroke might take into account age and sex distribution. But not only that. The polymorphism C677T in the gene encoding 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR), has been shown to induce a predisposition to HHcy and to have an influence in determining susceptibility to ischemic stroke (Kelly et al. 2002). The promising relationship between reduction of total plasma Hcy in hypertension subjects and vitamin B supplementation is dependent on various parameters, including disease states, polymorphism of MTHFR and other genes, total Hcy, baseline folate, age, sex, race, educational level, and lifestyle choice as chronic alcohol intake and smoking (Zhou et al. 2018). Therefore, a very complex relationship can be outlined between Hcy and B vitamins in stroke, which deserves great attention. This narrative review aimed to highlight the associated factors that may regulate B vitamins' active role in stroke prevention and provide input for further large, well-designed studies, particularly for specific sensitive subgroups.

A brief insight into the characteristics and sources of B vitamins

Vitamin B₉

Vitamin B₉, or folic acid, is a synthetically produced water-soluble vitamin, formed by a para-aminobenzoic acid with a pteridine jointed to its amino end and with a carboxyl group bound to the α -amino group of glutamic acid forming an amide bond (Figure 1). Folate is the naturally occurring form of folic acid that is converted into folate in the human

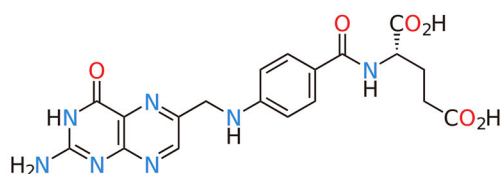
body (Blancquaert et al. 2010). Since folate is an essential nutrient and cannot be biosynthesized *de novo* by human beings, it must be necessarily provided through the diet or as a supplement to prevent nutritional deficiency. The active form of folic acid is known as tetrahydrofolate (THF). Folate plays an important role in DNA synthesis, DNA and RNA modifications, in the metabolism of amino acids required for cell division, and in a series of cellular reactions known as folate-mediated one-carbon metabolism, such as the synthesis of amino acids and nucleic acids (Lan, Field, and Stover 2018). Deficiency of folate can lead to several outcomes including CVDs, macrocytic and megaloblastic anemia, depression, dementia, and cancer (especially in the colon). During early pregnancy, adequate folate intake prevents unborn babies' risk of having a neural tube defect by 40–70% (Barua, Kuizon, and Junaid 2014). A probable mechanism regarding folate deficiency causing neurological function involves HHcy associated with CVDs that chronically limit the brain's blood flow. This condition can turn into an acute status such as stroke or heart attack. The main natural source of folate for humans comes from plants and animals like chicken and calf liver and cheese, eggs, milk, fruits, and nuts. Since folate is highly susceptible to degradation, its bioavailability depends on cooking methods, preparation, and storage (Arcot and Shrestha 2005).

The average daily recommended dietary allowances (RDA) of folate depend on age, pregnancy, and lactation status. The RDA for an adult is $400\text{ }\mu\text{g/d}$ of dietary folate equivalent (DFE). DFE is used because of the higher bioavailability of folic acid than that of food folate (Institute of Medicine (US) Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes and its Panel on Folate other B Vitamins and Choline 1998).

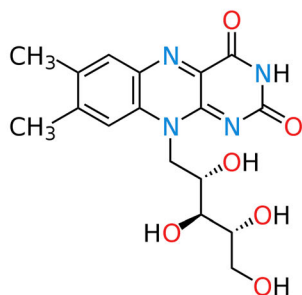
Folate deficiency is still a treat affecting millions of people worldwide, although strategies involving food fortification (cereals, cornmeal, rice, grain, and wheat products) are mandatory practice in nearly 80 countries together with folic acid supplementation. Often this policy remains inaccessible, particularly for poor rural populations in developing countries (Blancquaert et al. 2010).

Vitamin B₁₂

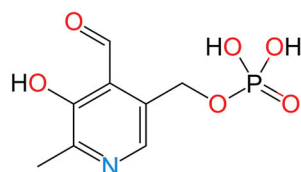
Vitamin B₁₂ or cobalamin is a tetrapyrrolic cofactor in which the central cobalt atom is coordinated by four equatorial nitrogen ligands donated by pyrroles A-D of the corrin ring (Takahashi-Iñiguez et al. 2012) (Figure 1). It was described in 1925 by Whipple and Minot and Murphy as an antipernicious anemia factor (Robschey-Robbins and Whipple 1925; Minot and Murphy 1926). Cobalamin is involved in many cells' metabolism in fatty acid and amino acid metabolism (Yamada 2013; Banerjee and Ragsdale 2003). Vitamin B₁₂ plays a role in the synthesis of myelin, a lipid-rich sheath that surrounds nerve cell axons, and thus is necessary for the normal functioning of the nervous system and also for the maturation of developing red blood cells in the bone marrow and for DNA synthesis (Green 2013; Combs, Gerald and McClung 2016). Vitamin B₁₂ is essential



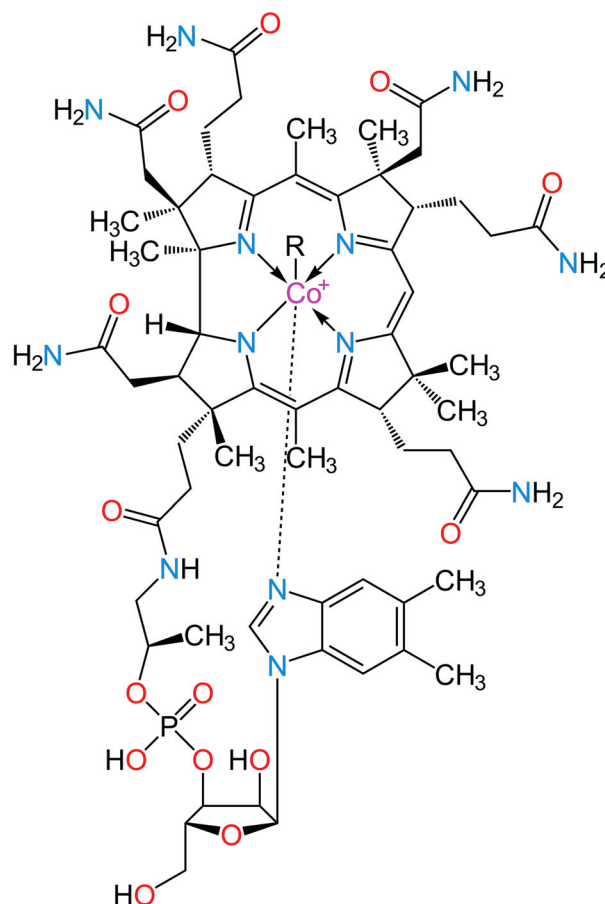
Vitamin B9 - Folic acid



Vitamin B2 - Riboflavin



Vitamin B6 - Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate



Vitamin B12 - Cobalamin

Figure 1. The chemical structures of B vitamins.

for the production of methionine (Met), the precursor for S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) required for methylation, which is essential for myelin preservation and nerve function. Vitamin B₁₂ deficiency leads to demyelination, a process in which myelin sheath is damaged, causing disruption of nerve impulse transmission and several neurological problems (Miller et al. 2005; Calderon-Ospina and Nava-Mesa 2020; Acıpayam et al. 2020). In recent decades, the understanding of the biochemistry of vitamin B₁₂ and the reaction mechanisms of its enzymes and their functions have been greatly improved (Banerjee and Ragsdale 2003; Smith, Warren, and Refsum 2018). Selective absorption of cobalamin requires interaction between the three transporting proteins – haptocorrin, intrinsic factor, transcobalamin, and several receptors. A complex transport system guarantees a very effective absorption of the vitamin, but failure in any link causes vitamin B₁₂ deficiency (Fedosov 2012). Cobalamin deficiency is associated with megaloblastic anemia, weakness, fatigue, constipation, weight loss, and neurological disturbance as depression (Combs, Gerald and McClung 2016; Obeid et al. 2019). Cobalamin is a critical vitamin for the elderly (Wolters, Strohle, and Hahn 2004). It is considered that approximately 40% of the elderly are affected. Poor cobalamin status, often caused by atrophic

gastritis, results in declining gastric acid and a decreasing intestinal absorption of the cobalamin protein complexes from food. Also, a reduction in acid secretion leads to alkalinization of the small intestine, causing a further decrease in the cobalamin's bioavailability. Vitamin absorption is also affected by certain drugs, such as proton pump inhibitors or H₂ receptor antagonists, which inhibit the intestinal absorption of vitamin B₁₂. Even a moderately reduced level of vitamin B₁₂ is associated with vascular diseases and neurocognitive disorders. This is especially noticeable if folate deficiency is also present (Wolters, Strohle, and Hahn 2004).

The RDA for vitamin B₁₂ in adults is 2.4 µg/d (2.6–2.8 µg/d in pregnant or lactating women) (Institute of Medicine (US) Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes and its Panel on Folate other B Vitamins and Choline 1998). Dietary sources of vitamin B₁₂ are animal products such as fish and seafood, clams, mussels, mackerel, crab, salmon, trout, as well as meat, milk, and eggs, whereas it is generally not present in significant amount in plant foods. Thus, to prevent vitamin B₁₂ deficiency in vegetarians, specific plant foods particularly rich in vitamin B₁₂ are required, such as fermented beans and vegetables, edible mushrooms, black trumpet

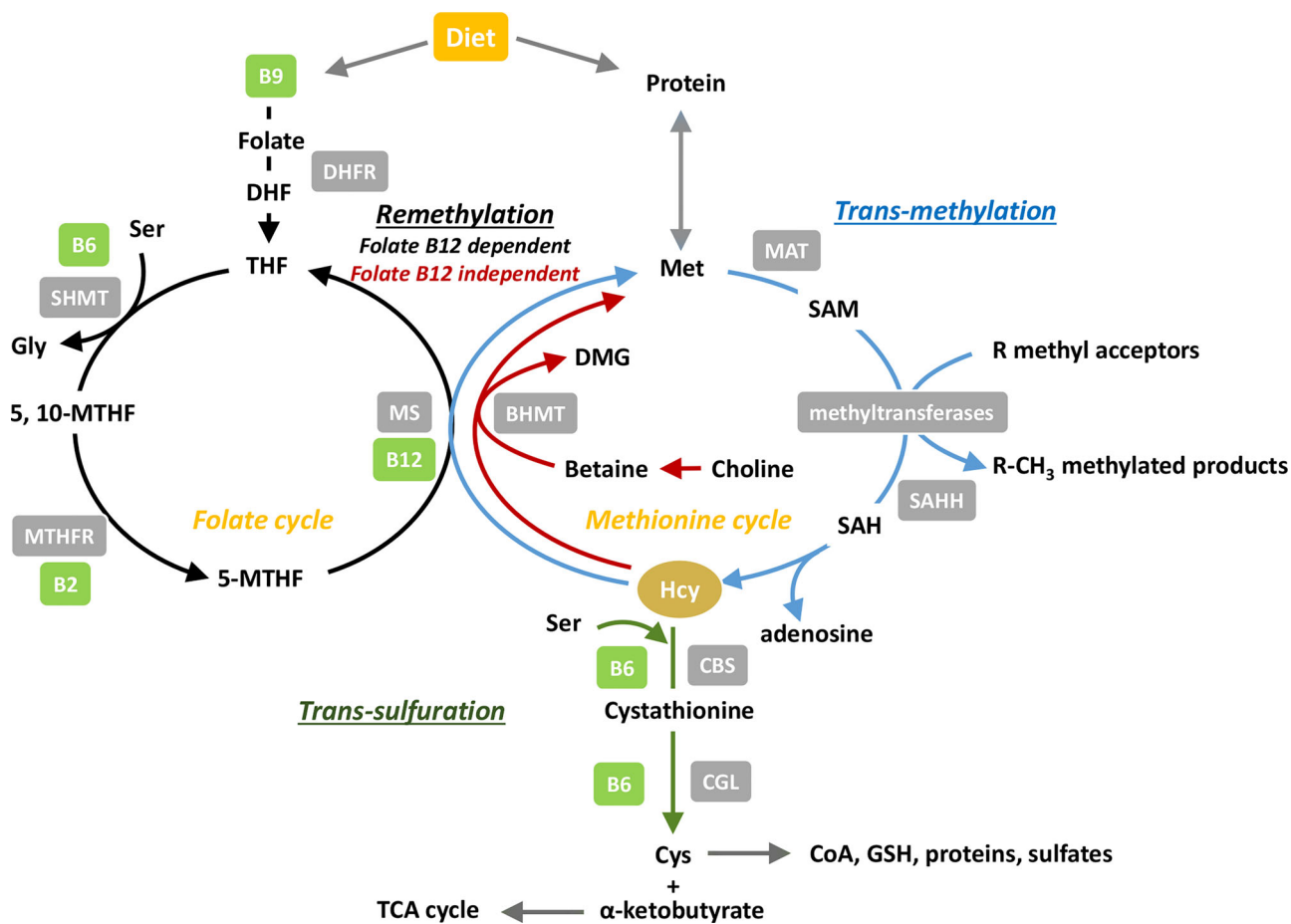


Figure 2. The pathways of homocysteine metabolism and the role of B vitamins.

Dietary vitamin B9 enters the “folate cycle” after its conversion to dihydrofolate (DHF) and then to tetrahydrofolate (THF). The vitamin B₆ dependent enzyme serine hydroxymethyltransferase (SHMT) catalyzes serine’s reversible conversions to glycine and THF in 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate (5,10-MTHF). The enzyme 5,10-methyltetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) converts 5,10-MTHF to 5-MTHF in response to vitamin B₂. Vitamin B₁₂ is required for the conversion of homocysteine (Hcy) to methionine (Met) by methionine synthase (MS), which transfers a one-carbon methyl group from 5-MTHF to Hcy, thereby generating Met and THF in a folate/vitamin B₁₂ dependent remethylation. Hcy conversion to Met can also occur through the folate/vitamin B₁₂ independent remethylation reaction of betaine, which is synthesized from choline by betaine-homocysteine S-methyltransferase (BHMT). In the “methionine cycle,” dietary Met is converted to Hcy through S-adenosyl methionine (SAM), by methionine adenosyltransferase (MAT), and S-adenosyl homocysteine (SAH), by S-Adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase (SAHH), and then back to Met. SAM serves as methyl-donor in various cellular methylations, including biosynthesis of different compounds and epigenetic modulations. In the trans-sulfuration pathway, Hcy reacts with serine (Ser) in vitamin B₆ dependent reactions to generate cysteine (Cys) in the presence of rate-limiting enzymes cystathionine-β synthase (CBS) and cystathionine-γ lyase (CGL). In the first step, cystathionine is formed, which is further hydrolyzed to Cys and α-ketobutyrate. Cys is further incorporated/converted to glutathione (GSH), Coenzyme A (CoA), proteins, and sulfates, whereas α-ketobutyrate is a precursor of succinyl-CoA, which enters the citric acid cycle (TCA cycle).

(*Craterellus cornucopioides*), and golden chanterelle (*Cantharellus cibarius*). Edible algae as dried green laver (*Enteromorpha* sp.) and purple laver, or nori (*Porphyra* sp.), common in Japan, contain a significant amount of vitamin B₁₂ (Watanabe et al. 2014; Rizzo et al. 2016). For instance, 4 g of dried purple laver, served at breakfast, or in some sushi receipts, supplies the RDA of vitamin B₁₂ (Watanabe et al. 2014).

Vitamin B₆

Vitamin B₆ is the generic name for a group of six compounds, “vitamers”, with the same activity. The active form of vitamin B₆ is pyridoxal 5′-phosphate (PLP) (Figure 1) that is a cofactor/regulator of more than 140 enzymes, particularly Hcy, involved in many aspects of amino acid metabolism, lipid and glucose metabolism, gene expression,

neurotransmitters (i.e., serotonin) and hemoglobin synthesis and function (Combs, Gerald and McClung 2016). The main natural food sources of vitamin B₆ included fish, liver and other organ meats, bananas, potatoes, pistachios, nuts, and vegetables. However, its bioavailability is largely variable depending on cooking, storage, and processing methods. The RDA of vitamin B₆ for an adult is 1.3 mg/d (1.9–2.0 mg/d in pregnant or lactating women stage). Adults over 50 years old should increase the intake of vitamin B₆ (1.7–1.5 mg/d for men and women respectively) (Institute of Medicine (US) Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes and its Panel on Folate other B Vitamins and Choline 1998). Vitamin B₆ deficiency has been correlated with CVD, diabetes, cancer, and stroke. Severe deficiency evolves in sideroblastic microcytic anemia, depression, confusion, convulsions, and peripheral neuropathy (Stover and Field 2015; Brown, Ameer, and Beier 2020). However, a syndrome of vitamin B₆

deficiency is somewhat a rare condition. It occurs in association with other B vitamins deficiency or adverse health condition such as liver disease, systemic inflammation, type 1 diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, osteoporosis, Crohn's disease, celiac disease, ulcerative colitis (Younes-Mhenni et al. 2004; Wang, Chen, et al. 2019; Mascolo and Verni 2020). In addition, wrong style life choices such as alcohol abuse are connected with vitamin B₆ deficiency due to the inability of chronic alcoholics with liver disease to use food as a source of vitamin B (Cravo and Camilo 2000). Vitamin B₆ deficiency is also observed in conditions such as obesity or pregnancy. Conversely, excess vitamin B₆, reached with improper supplementation, has been correlated with toxic effects such as neurological, gastrointestinal disturbances, and dermatological lesions (Bacharach, Lowden, and Ahmed 2017; Scott, Zeris, and Kothari 2008).

Vitamin B₂

Vitamin B₂ or riboflavin, the least hydrosoluble of the B vitamins, is the precursor of two coenzymes known as flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) that are crucial for normal tissue respiration, tryptophan to niacin (vitamin B₃) conversion, pyridoxine activation, fat, carbohydrate, and protein metabolism, and glutathione reductase mediated detoxification (Suwannasom et al. 2020). Riboflavin is composed of flavin moiety (7,8-dimethyl-benzo[g]pteridine-2,4-dione) with an isoalloxazine tricyclic ring (Figure 1). It is an essential nutrient required by the diet since humans are unable to synthesize it. However, riboflavin is easily found in various food, especially grain products, cereals, bread, organ meats, poultry, eggs, fish, nuts, certain fruits, legumes, and dairy products such as milk and cheese. Dark green leafy vegetables, mushrooms, and turnips are also moderately rich in riboflavin (Pinto and Zemleni 2016). These foods are also typically sources of other B vitamins and flavoenzymes. Therefore, a riboflavin deficiency is often accompanied by a deficiency of other B vitamins. The bioavailability of riboflavin can vary widely since fermenting, blanching, prolonged storage of milk products in clear bottles (ultraviolet and visible light inactivate riboflavin) and food processing, as well as sun-drying of fruits and vegetables, can result in physical removal, degradation, or vitamin photo-oxidation (Pinto and Zemleni 2016). Riboflavin has been indicated as a direct or indirect player in preventing several health conditions, including cancer, hypertension, hyperglycemia, diabetes mellitus, and oxidative stress (Thakur et al. 2017; Suwannasom et al. 2020). The RDA for riboflavin for adult men and women is 1.1 and 1.3 mg/d, respectively (Institute of Medicine (US) Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes and its Panel on Folate other B Vitamins and Choline 1998). Riboflavin deficiency is a rare condition associated with several outcomes. These include endocrine abnormalities, skin disorders, hyperemia, mitochondria dysfunction, brain dysfunction, degeneration of the liver system, and others (Coates et al. 2015; Thakur et al. 2017).

Homocysteine metabolism and role of vitamin B-dependent enzymes

Methionine serves as a precursor for the synthesis of homocysteine, which is a non-essential sulfur-containing amino acid. The active form of Met, SAM, is a major donor of the methyl group used by many enzymes for their substrates' methylation. The transfer of methyl group from SAM to an acceptor in transmethylation reaction leads to S-adenosylhomocysteine (SAH) production, which is further hydrolyzed to Hcy and adenosine (Figure 2) (Mato, Martinez-Chantar, and Lu 2008).

Hcy metabolism includes remethylation and transsulfuration pathways. In the remethylation pathway, 5-methyl tetrahydrofolate (5-MTHF) serves as a donor of the methyl group and leads to methionine regeneration from homocysteine. This reaction is catalyzed by the B₁₂-dependent enzyme methionine synthase (MS). It should be noted that folate-dependent remethylation of Hcy is also essential for releasing THF and its reuse in one-carbon metabolism. In the folate/vitamin B₁₂-independent remethylation pathway, which occurs mainly in the liver, betaine is used as a methyl group donor (Esse et al. 2019).

In the transsulfuration pathways, B₆-dependent enzymes cystathionine β -synthase (CBS) and cystathionine γ -lyase (CTH) catalyze homocysteine condensation with serine to cystathionine and its cleavage to cysteine and α -ketobutyrate, respectively. In cysteine synthesis, the carbon skeleton is transferred from serine, while Hcy provides the sulfur atom. Cysteine is a precursor for synthesizing important compounds, namely coenzyme A, glutathione, and proteins (Škovierová et al. 2016). Thus, the failure to regenerate methionine from Hcy in folate/B₁₂-dependent pathway or transsulfuration to cysteine in a vitamin B₆-dependent pathway results in elevated plasma levels of Hcy (Zaric et al. 2019).

Causes and mechanism underlying hyperhomocysteinemia-related pathologies

Hyperhomocysteinemia, an elevated level of Hcy in the blood (greater than 15 μ mol/L), arises from several causes. These include diseases condition (chronic renal failure, hypothyroidism, diabetes mellitus, and malignant tumors), the lack of cofactors involved in the metabolism of Hcy (diet poor in B vitamins), enzyme defect associated with homocysteine metabolism (polymorphisms), excessive methionine intake, and certain drugs (cholestyramine, metformin, methotrexate, niacin, fibric acid derivatives, oral contraceptive pills) (Kim et al. 2018). Other causes of HHcy are dependent on physiological factors such as age, sex, and lifestyle factors: smoking, coffee and alcohol abuse, and physical inactivity (Obeid et al. 2019).

High plasma concentrations of total homocysteine (tHcy) induce vascular endothelial dysfunction, cerebral vascular dysfunction, oxidative stress, promote inflammatory monocyte generation, and accelerates atherosclerosis (Faraci and Lentz 2004; Zhang et al. 2009; Azzini, Ruggeri, and Polito 2020).

HHcy leads to posttranslational modification of proteins, followed by significant restriction of their functions. N-homocysteinylation of proteins is based on the formation of amide linkage between lysine residues of proteins and homocysteine-thiolactone, and such proteins become prone to aggregation (Jakubowski 2019). It has been reported that low-density lipoproteins (LDL), which play a key role in the elevation of plasma cholesterol, are susceptible to N-homocysteinylation, leading to an increase in LDL atherogenicity. It was revealed in other studies that LDL modification is due to interactions between thiol groups of apolipoprotein B-100 and homocysteine by S-linkage (Zinellu et al. 2009). Modified LDL leads to the oxidative damage of vascular endothelial cells and could play an important role in developing atherogenesis and stroke (Pirillo et al. 2000).

Meta-analyses have shown an association between homocysteine level and CVDs involved via several different mechanisms, such as the negative impact on vascular endothelium and smooth muscle cells with resultant vessel damage (Kuo et al. 2005). These mechanisms are based on increasing arterial stiffness, muscle cell proliferation, deposition of sulfated glycosaminoglycans, and further loss of vasodilatation, especially in the elderly (Ganguly and Alam 2015). Recent studies demonstrated that Hcy might initiate an inflammatory response by inducing C-reactive protein expression in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) via the NMDAR-ROS-ERK1/2/p38-NF- κ B signal pathway. The strong connection between Hcy level and C-reactive protein in VSMCs is mediated through reactive oxygen species (ROS), N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDA), and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signal pathway (Curro et al. 2014; Pang et al. 2014; Ridker, Stampfer, and Rifai 2001).

The oxidation process is a key mechanism of increasing Hcy level and further developing atherosclerosis (McCully 2015; Moretti and Caruso 2019; Ganguly and Alam 2015; Lentz 2005). The plausible mechanism of the increased risk of atherosclerosis and stroke progression includes endothelial dysfunction, which is believed to occur primarily from oxidative stress. (Esse et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2019; Incalza et al. 2018). Thus, Hcy can trigger the generation of free radical species via auto-oxidation, inhibition of glutathione peroxidase, or oxidation of LDL. Also, Hcy, due to an increase in the levels of asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA) strong inhibitor of nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), suppresses the vasodilator nitric oxide (Lehotský et al. 2016; Stuhlinger et al. 2001; Incalza et al. 2018).

Genetic variability beyond the issue of the Hcy level

Defects in enzymes associated with Hcy metabolism are the most common cause of HHcy. Extensively documented proofs showed that a gene mutation C677T (cytosine 677 replaced by thymidine), which decodes for MTHFR enzyme involved in folate metabolism, reduces its activity, leading to impaired Hcy metabolism. A meta-analysis including 19 case-control studies involving 5159 individuals confirmed

the susceptibility to ischemic stroke in association with the particular MTHFR genotype (TT) in which Hcy recycling is compromised (Li and Qin 2014). One of the first meta-analyses performed in 2002 reported the OR = 1.23 for ischemic stroke in the TT genotype (Kelly et al. 2002), this association was later confirmed (Li et al. 2003; Alluri et al. 2005; Cui 2016; Li et al. 2017). Analysis of the data of 20424 hypertensive adults who participated in the China Stroke Primary Prevention Trial, with a median follow-up period of 4.5 years, demonstrated that in patients with hypertension, the impact of Hcy on the first stroke significantly depended on the MTHFR C677T genotype and vitamin B9 supplementation (Li et al. 2017).

Moreover, other polymorphisms, such as the genes coding for methionine-synthase (MS), methionine synthase reductase (MTRR), and cystathionine β -synthase (CBS), has been highlighted as a cause of their low or lack of activity in the Hcy clearance mechanism, which results in the dysregulation of Hcy circulating level and increases HHcy risk (Li et al. 2017; Kim et al. 2018). In particular, the combination of Hcy metabolism gene polymorphisms and folate deficiency leads to an increased risk of HHcy. Excess Hcy could inhibit the expected migration of progenitor cells from bone marrow to repair vascular endothelium damaged in stroke patients (Dong et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2006; Alam et al. 2009; Jakubowski 2006; Sato et al. 2020). Genetic variability profoundly affects this issue, relating to Hcy, stroke, and arterial physiology. For example, arterial cranial stenosis, the most common cause of ischemic stroke worldwide, has been associated with genetic RNF213 single nucleotide variant c.14429G > A (p.Arg4810Lys, rs112735431) (Hongo et al. 2020). RNF213 polymorphism has also been positively associated with Moyamoya Disease, a cerebrovascular occlusive disorder (Bang et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2016).

Mechanisms involving the Hcy-vitamins relationship

B vitamins influence the metabolism of Hcy, and their role in stroke prevention emerged due to the association between HHcy and CVDs (Wald, Law, and Morris 2002; Homocysteine Studies Collaboration 2002) and the ability of vitamin B supplementation to lowering tHcy level (Homocysteine Lowering Trialists' Collaboration 1998). Since then, a series of studies have been carried out regarding vitamin B supplementation in the treatment of HHcy. Therapy with B vitamins, able to lower homocysteine, appeared to help prevent stroke, if not other vascular outcomes (Spence 2007a). The next section will discuss key studies devoted to the role of vitamin B in stroke prevention.

Epidemiological data and evidence of the role of B vitamins in stroke prevention

A study based on a detailed food frequency questionnaire conducted in 1980 on approximately 80000 women in the United States over 14 years confirmed that consumption of folic acid and vitamin B₆, higher than currently

recommended, is an important factor for the primary prevention of coronary heart disease (CHD) among women (Rimm et al. 1998). Specifically, a folic acid consumption at a dose of 400 µg/d, either from food sources or from dietary supplements, was recommended. A recent dose–response meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies demonstrated that a higher intake of folate and vitamin B₆ is connected with a lower risk of CHD in the general population (Jayedi and Zargar 2019). A similar study involving about 44000 men, free of CVDs and diabetes at baseline, followed over four years, showed that the intake of vitamin B₁₂ and folate increase, but not B₆, was inversely associated with the risk of ischemic stroke (He et al. 2004).

The HOPE-2 study (Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation-2 Trial) that involved 5000 participants started in December 1999 and was completed in October 2005. The goal of the research was to determine if long-term supplementation with folic acid, vitamin B₆, and vitamin B₁₂, aimed at decreasing Hcy, was able to reduce the rates of major fatal and nonfatal cardiovascular events in patients with established CVDs and/or diabetes mellitus (Lonn, Held, et al. 2006). Although tHcy levels and stroke rate were reduced (25% protection against stroke incidence), long-term supplementation with folic acid, vitamin B₆, and vitamin B₁₂ did not reduce mortality or the incidence of myocardial infarction in high-risk patients with vascular disease (Lonn, Yusuf, et al. 2006). Consequently, lowering Hcy levels through vitamin B supplementation was not recommended in patients with established vascular disease (Kullo 2006).

HOPE-2 earned a major impact in the RCTs that have looked at this question (Ebbing et al. 2008; Albert et al. 2008; Bonaa et al. 2006; Zoungas et al. 2006; Lonn, Yusuf, et al. 2006; Righetti et al. 2006; Spence et al. 2005; Toole et al. 2004; Liem et al. 2005; Liem et al. 2004; Wrona et al. 2004; Mark et al. 1996) and formed the basis of separate meta-analyses (Marti-Carvajal et al. 2009; Bazzano et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2007). These meta-analyses, not considering the same data and conditions, did not completely agree with each other. Therefore, it was hard to find strong support for the idea that giving vitamins to reduce Hcy prevents stroke. Although 7/11 RCTs only showed a risk reduction, in one of them we can earn a clear significance. (Lonn, Yusuf, et al. 2006) concluded that supplements combining folic acid and vitamins B₆ and B₁₂ did not reduce the risk of major cardiovascular events in patients with vascular disease.

Results from double-blind randomized controlled trial “SEARCH” (Study of the Effectiveness of Additional Reductions in Cholesterol and Homocysteine) involving 12064 survivors of myocardial infarction concluded that substantial long-term Hcy-lowering with folic acid and vitamin B₁₂ supplementation does not have beneficial effects on CVDs, including stroke (Armitage et al. 2010). Conversely, from the meta-analysis of Wang, a positive association has been found between folic acid supplementation with effective reduction of Hcy level (more than 20%) and reduced the risk of stroke in primary prevention by 18% (Wang et al. 2007). Two next RCTs study were published in 2008 do not

support the use of vitamin B in lowering the risk of mortality, stroke, and other cardiovascular events, although both were affected by some limitations. The first involved 5442 women treated for 7.3 years with a supplement of folic acid, vitamin B₆, and vitamin B₁₂. The result did not reduce cardiovascular events among high-risk women; even significant homocysteine lowering was observed (Albert et al. 2008). A second RTC, stopped prematurely and involving 3096 adult participants undergoing coronary angiography, did not show a positive effect after treatment with folic acid, vitamin B₆, and B₁₂ on total cardiovascular mortality (Ebbing et al. 2008). The limitations of such trials have been related to the use of low-dose supplements to treat patients affected by advanced atherosclerotic disease (Marcus, Sarnak, and Menon 2007). Potential confounder factors need to be also considered. For instance, in a WAFACS (Women’s Antioxidant and Folic Acid Cardiovascular Study) (Kang et al. 2008), the control group would take multivitamin supplements up to the RDA level (Bassuk et al. 2004).

Other potential limitations and potential confounders can arise from concurrent treatment (statin therapy, antacids), Hcy metabolic dysregulated state, renal failure, hypertension, diabetes, physical activity, smoking, alcohol consumption, high cyanocobalamin dose in patients with impaired renal function, and concurrent antiplatelet therapy and a high baseline level of vitamin or, on the contrary, vitamin malabsorption due to a series of diseases such as autoimmune gastritis (Wang et al. 2007; Debreceeni and Debreceeni 2014; Spence 2007b; Hankey 2018). It appeared that a meaningful association between vitamin B and stroke is dependent on a well-defined population.

The other two large RCTs involving Hcy-vitamins and stroke prevention were SU.FOL.OM3 study, on around 2500 patients who had CHD or stroke within the previous year, and VITATOPS (A Study of B VITamins To Prevent Stroke), conducted in Australia with a target of 8000 patients who had a recent transient ischemic attack (Bazzano 2009; Galan et al. 2008). The SU.FOL.OM3 study, started in 2003 in France, was a secondary prevention trial testing the impact of supplementation with folate and B-vitamins and/or Omega-3 PUFA. The results of SU.FOL.OM3 trial does not support the routine use of dietary supplements containing n-3 PUFA and advises against supplementation with B vitamins in coronary patients in secondary cardiovascular prevention (Blacher et al. 2013).

A meta-analysis of data concerning individuals who took part in the RCT studies VITATOPS (VITATOPS Trial Study Group 2010) and VISP (Vitamins Intervention for Stroke Prevention) (Spence et al. 2005; Toole et al. 2004) did not show any benefits for stroke prevention in persons with impaired renal function, compared with patients with normal renal function, exposed to high intake of vitamin B₁₂ (Spence, Yi, and Hankey 2017; Hankey 2018). The toxic effects of cyanocobalamin among participants with renal failure (diabetic nephropathy) obscured the treatment’s benefit. Consequently, it has been suggesting using more safe methylcobalamin or oxocobalamin, instead of cyanocobalamin, combined with folic acid to lower Hcy

concentrations in people at high risk of stroke with the impaired renal condition (Spence, Yi, and Hankey 2017).

In a meta-analysis of Lee et al., supplementation of folic acid alone did not demonstrate a major effect in averting stroke (Lee et al. 2010). However, the authors concluded that potential moderate benefits in primary stroke prevention can be seen when a folic acid combined with other B vitamins is administered.

The RCT FAVORIT (Folic Acid for Vascular Outcome Reduction in Transplantation Trial) investigated if lowering Hcy levels in renal transplant recipients with a multivitamin (folic acid, vitamin B₆, and vitamin B₁₂) reduced the occurrence of cardiovascular disease outcome (Bostom et al. 2006). Despite a significant reduction in Hcy level, the treatment did not reduce a composite cardiovascular disease outcome, all-cause mortality, or dialysis-dependent kidney failure (Bostom et al. 2011). The RCT HOST (Homocysteine Study) tested the hypothesis that folate administration, pyridoxine, and cyanocobalamin in high doses to patients with advanced chronic renal failure and abnormally HHcy would lower the Hcy levels and the death rate compared to patients who received placebo. Moreover, HOST tested the hypothesis that the intake of the vitamins compared to placebo decreases the incidence of myocardial infarction, disabling stroke, amputation of a lower extremity, and vascular access site thrombosis in patients receiving hemodialysis (Jamison et al. 2004). It was concluded that the treatment with high doses of folic acid and B vitamins did not improve survival or reduce the incidence of vascular disease in patients with advanced chronic kidney disease or end-stage renal disease (Jamison et al. 2007).

Not a general consensus has been found between stroke risk reduction and Hcy-lowering through vitamin treatments. However, some positive proofs come from a series of studies in which it has been demonstrated a significant regression of carotid intima-media thickness (CIMT), which is a measure of atherosclerosis and stroke risk (Sun et al. 2017; Jung et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2020), by a reduction of Hcy level through vitamin supplementation (Ntaios et al. 2010; Qin et al. 2012; Kwok et al. 2012). Conversely, some other studies have reported that long-term homocysteine-lowering did not significantly improve flow-mediated dilation (FMD) or CIMT in people with a stroke history (Potter et al. 2008).

The efficacy of folic acid therapy in the primary prevention of stroke among adults with hypertension has been verified in China's RTC study. The CSPPT (China Stroke Primary Prevention Trial) RCT study, involved 20702 adults with hypertension without a history of stroke or myocardial infarction, demonstrated that the combined therapy by enalapril and folic acid, compared with enalapril alone, significantly decreased the risk of first stroke (Huo et al. 2015). Moreover, meta-analysis research on 17 studies involving 86393 patients, seven therapy strategies, and a placebo group revealed that supplementation of folic acid and vitamin B₆ reduced stroke risk (Dong et al. 2015). The study highlighted folic acid's role in combination with vitamin B₆ for an ideal therapy for stroke prevention, respect the monotherapy based on folic acid alone.

The examination of 14 RCT with a total of 39420 adult patients, considering a different folate fortification status and the effects of folic acid supplementation in lowering Hcy and reducing stroke risk, give the conclusion that a modest benefit in the prevention of stroke can be seen in the region without folate fortification (Zeng et al. 2015).

Whereas the study of Miller et al. concluded that folic acid had no impact on the prevention of CVD or stroke (Miller et al. 2010), a more recent meta-analysis of 30 RCTs, involving 82334 patients, resulted in the demonstration of evidence of a 10% lower risk of stroke and a 4% lower risk of overall CVDs due to folic acid supplementation (Li et al. 2016). The best results were observed for people with lower plasma folate levels and without preexisting CVD and in studies with larger decreases in Hcy levels. Folic acid supplementation versus control caused a lower risk of any future stroke (RR = 0.85; 95% CI = 0.77–0.95) in patients from countries without mandatory vitamin food fortification (Hsu et al. 2018), confirming previous results (Huo et al. 2012). The greater benefit has been seen in patients receiving folic acid alone or with a minimal cyanocobalamin dose. Analysis of 7 RCTs with a total number of 9846 stroke patients demonstrated that supplementation with vitamin B (folic acid, vitamin B₁₂, and vitamin B₆) might avert the recurrence of stroke (RR = 0.64, 95% CI = 0.47–0.87) and decrease plasma Hcy levels in stroke patients (Dai et al. 2017). On the contrary, niacin (nicotinic acid, vitamin B₃) did not show evidence in preventing cardiovascular events, considering outcomes of 23 RCTs, which included 39195 participants in total (Schandelmaier et al. 2017).

The third update of the Cochrane review concludes that supplementation with folic acid, vitamin B₁₂, and vitamin B₆, alone or in combination, decreases tHcy level in blood by about 25%, but found a small difference in reducing the risk of stroke compared with placebo (risk ratio RR = 0.90, 95% CI = 0.82–0.99), and no differences compared with placebo on myocardial infarction and death (Marti-Carvajal et al. 2017). A meta-analysis of Tian et al., considering eleven studies with a total of 65790 participants, concluded that folic acid supplementation is effective in stroke prevention in patients with CVD (RR = 0.90; 95% CI: 0.84–0.97) (Tian et al. 2017). A similar result in stroke reduction (RR = 0.85, 95% CI = 0.77–0.94) has been achieved in a more recent meta-analysis that considered a total of 12 randomized controlled trials involving 47523 patients with CVD who received folic acid therapy (Wang, Jin, et al. 2019). A dose-response meta-analysis based on 11 prospective studies involving 389938 participants and 10749 cases of stroke showed a clear correlation between dietary intake of B vitamins and stroke risk (Chen et al. 2020). In particular, a linear inverse association between folate and vitamin B₆ intake and the risk of stroke were found: (RR = 0.94, 95% CI: 0.90–0.98) for 100 µg/d increments in folate intake and (RR = 0.94, 95% CI: 0.89–0.99) for 0.5 mg/d increments in vitamin B₆ intake. Conversely, the stroke risk does not increase significantly in association with 3 µg/d increments in vitamin B₁₂ intake (RR = 1.01, 95% CI: 0.97–1.06). These data support the theory that increasing habitual folate and

vitamin B₆ intake might be beneficial, though having a modest stroke prevention effect.

Conclusion

The association between elevated Hcy, levels of B vitamins, and the incidence and severity of stroke appear strong. The present review highlights the evidence that applied B vitamins in the lowering concentrations of Hcy can decrease stroke risk. This benefit has often been obscured in past trial data due to masking effect or confounding factors. The metabolic vitamin B₁₂ deficiency seems like the main nutritional determinant of tHcy and the risk of stroke. The relationship between tHcy level, adequate vitamin B supplementation, and stroke prevention is dependent on various parameters, including age, sex, genetic polymorphism, baseline folate, race, educational level, health condition, and lifestyle choice. A personalized nutritional approach to stroke prevention could be an effective solution in the next future. The individual variability and the interactions between the multiple factors should be highlighted in novel experimental designs to reach this goal. For example, patients with MTHFR C677T polymorphism likely need higher folic acid doses than those obtained in current fortified food. Further large, well-designed trials with specific B vitamin supplementation (alone or in combination, with dose and time of treatment defined) are urgently needed for specific subgroup as in people with a kind of advanced atherosclerotic disease, with metabolic B₁₂ deficiency, with genetic polymorphism, or for people residing in regions without folic acid fortification. These studies should attempt to clarify the association between dietary B-vitamins intake and the risk of specific stroke subtypes in the perspective of personalized preventive treatment.

Abbreviations

Met	methionine
CBS	cystathionine β -synthase
CHD	coronary heart disease
CTH	cystathionine γ -lyase
CVD	cardiovascular disease
Hcy	homocysteine
HHcy	hyperhomocysteinemia
LDL	low-density lipoproteins
tHcy	total homocysteine
MS	methionine synthase
5-MTHF	5-methyl tetrahydrofolate
MTHFR	5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase
MTRR	methionine synthase reductase
PUFA	Polyunsaturated fatty acids
SAM	S-adenosylmethionine
SAH	S-adenosylhomocysteine
THF	tetrahydrofolate

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