

The influence of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation on the level of white blood cells and lymphocytes phenotype in rats fed a low-protein diet

ŚLAWOMIR LEWICKI¹, ANETA LEWICKA², BOLESŁAW KALICKI³, ANNA KŁOS²,
JERZY BERTRANDT², ROBERT ZDANOWSKI¹

¹Department of Regenerative Medicine, Military Institute of Hygiene and Epidemiology, Warsaw, Poland

²Department of Hygiene and Physiology, Military Institute of Hygiene and Epidemiology, Warsaw, Poland

³Department of Pediatrics, Pediatric Nephrology and Allergology, Military Institute of Medicine, Warsaw, Poland

Abstract

Protein malnutrition has a negative effect on body composition and some blood parameters, especially in the young growing organism. One of nutritional factors which could protect against negative consequences of protein deficiency may be B group vitamins. The aim of the study was to investigate the effect of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation on the immune system in rats fed a standard and a low-protein diet. Rats were fed a control (20% of energy from protein) or a protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein). Half of animals in each group were additionally supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ (300% of the daily intake). The white blood cells analysis and lymphocytes immunophenotyping (number and percentage) were performed. Low-protein diets caused disturbances in WBC and lymphocyte subpopulations in both short- (30-day) as well as long-term periods (90-day). Vitamin B₁₂ supplementation significantly reduced the negative impact of protein malnutrition after 30 days, however had no effect on long-term malnutrition. Furthermore, vitamin B₁₂ addition in rats fed a control diet did not affect the studied parameters. This observation opens the promise of use of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation to improve immune system parameters in protein malnourished organisms.

Key words: protein deficiency, B₁₂ supplementation, immune system, rats.

(Centr Eur J Immunol 2014; 39 (4): 419-425)

Introduction

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations estimated that nearly 870 million people (of about 7 billion people in the world) were suffering from chronic undernourishment in 2010-2012 [1]. Malnutrition is a serious problem mainly in developing countries, however approximately 20 million malnourished people originate from developed countries. Protein malnutrition is one of types of nutritional depletion. It occurs often in young or elderly people [2, 3]. Protein-depleted diet causes profound disturbances of body metabolic processes. Long-term consumption of a protein-deficient diet reduces body temperature in humans and animals, causing hypoalbuminemia, edema formation, damage of blood vessels and liver [3, 4]. It has been shown that a protein-deficient diet decreased the level of hemoglobin, hematocrit, mean corpuscular volume (MCV) and mean corpuscular hemo-

globin concentration (MCHC) in rats [6]. It also attenuates the immune system function. Mice fed a low-protein diet had less resistance to pneumococcal infections, fewer mature and immature B cells in the lung and spleen, and a reduced production of specific antibodies compared with control mice [7]. Similarly, leopard frog tadpoles fed a protein-restricted diet had reduced phytohaemagglutinin and bacterial killing ability responses relative to tadpoles fed a high-protein diet [8].

Despite many side effects, a diet deficient in protein is recommended in the treatment of kidney diseases. In chronic renal disease, a low-protein diet delays the progression of kidney failure, especially in patients with proteinuria, and decreases the supply of phosphorus [9]. In addition, protein malnutrition could positively affect glucose metabolism and improves blood and urinary glucose levels and renal manifestations of diabetes in C57BLKS-db/db mice [10].

Correspondence: Sławomir Lewicki, PhD, Department of Regenerative Medicine, Military Institute of Hygiene and Epidemiology, Kozielska 4, 01-163 Warsaw, e-mail: lewickis@gmail.com

It seems that B group vitamins, especially B₁₂, could minimize the effects of protein malnutrition in the hematological or immune system. It is known that vitamin B₁₂ (cobalamin) is an essential coenzyme in the methylation reactions in the body. It also plays a very important role in the formation of red blood cells. Symptoms of B₁₂ deficiency include hematological, neurological and cognitive disorders, including megaloblastic anemia, visual disturbances and memory loss [11, 12]. Therefore, we decided to investigate the effect of vitamin B₁₂ on immunological parameters in rats fed a standard and low-protein diet. We used high doses of vitamin B₁₂ (300% of the daily intake), as vitamin B₁₂ toxicity has not been reported before. Moreover, some of the hematologist experts used them for the treatment of pernicious anemia in current clinical practice [13, 14].

Material and methods

Animals

The study was performed on 40 male Wistar rats with a body mass of 180 ± 1.7 g (mean ± SEM). The experimental protocol was approved by the IV Local Ethic Committee for Animals Studies in Warsaw. Animals were cultured in metal cages (5 units per cage) in an air-conditioned room in standard conditions (12-hour light cycle, temperature 23°C). Rats were fed *ad libitum* a semisynthetic diet of energy value of 350 kcal/100 g (1466.5 kJ/100 g) for 90 days. Rats were divided into 4 groups: control (10 rats), control + vitamin B₁₂ (10 rats), protein deficient (10 rats), and protein deficient + vitamin B₁₂ (10 rats). In

the control diet, 20% of energy was provided from protein and in the experimental diet, 4.5% only. Half of animals from the control and protein-restricted groups were supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ to a level 3 times higher than in the control diet (300% of the daily intake).

In all the diets, 15% of energy came from fat, including approx. 2% from essential fatty acids (EFA). Diets were enriched with mineral salts and vitamins in accordance with the guidelines for rats. The energy value of the low-protein diet was supplemented with carbohydrates (Table 1). Animals and food containers were weighed twice a week, and then an average mass and consumption of individual diet per rat was calculated.

Blood samples were collected on EDTA after day 0, 30 and 90 of the experiment from tail vein of rats. On the 90th day after blood collection rats were sacrificed by cervical dislocation while unconscious (orbital anesthesia).

Cytometric analysis

The total white blood cells number was measured in the hematological analyzer in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol (MEK-6450, Nihon Kohden). The percentage of white blood cells populations was determined using FSC/SSC/FL-3 parameters (FACS Calibur, BD). Subpopulations of lymphocytes were labeled by surface staining of blood cells with fluorochrome-conjugated rat antibodies, according to the manufacturer's protocol (BD Biosciences). Two panels were established:

1. CD45a-FITC, CD161-PE, CD3-APC,
2. CD8-FITC, CD4-PE, CD3-APC.

Before the flow cytometry analysis, red blood cells were lysed (10 min, Lysing Solution BD Biosciences).

Table 1. Diet composition

Diet component	20% of energy from protein		4.5% of energy from protein	
	g/100 g	kcal	g/100 g	kcal
Sunflower oil	0.41	3.69	0.55	4.95
Lard	5.45	48.91	5.31	47.57
Casein	18.97	60.70	4.56	14.59
Egg powder	1.61	9.33	0.20	1.16
Wheat flour	19.43	67.61	19.43	67.61
Wheat starch	30.00	120.00	30.00	120.00
Potato starch	9.14	–	11.36	–
Sugar	10.00	39.90	23.59	94.12
Mineral mix ¹⁾	4.00	–	4.00	–
Vitamin mix ²⁾	1.00	–	1.00	–

¹⁾1000 g of the mineral mixture contains: 322 g of KHPO₄, 300 g of CaCO₃, 167 g of NaCl, 102 g of MgSO₄, 75 g of CaHPO₄, 27.5 g of FeC₂P₂O₇, 5.1 g of MnSO₄, 0.8 g of KJ, 0.3 g of CuSO₄, 0.25 g of ZnCl₂, 0.05 g of CoCl₂.

²⁾1000 g of the vitamin mixture contains: 545000 IU of vitamin D₃, 1 g of vitamin K, 30 µg of vitamin B₁₂, 10 g of choline chloride, 1.01 g of folic acid, 0.03 g of biotin, 10 g of inositol, 10 g of PABA, 1250000 IU of vitamin A, 1.5 g of vitamin B₆, 2.5 g of vitamin E, 5 g of vitamin B₉, 25 g of vitamin C, 5 g of vitamin PP, 2.5 g of vitamin B₂, 25 g of calcium pantothenate

Table 2. Mean ± SEM of daily feed intake and final body mass of rats. Rats were fed for 90 days with a control (20% of energy from protein) or protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein) supplemented or not with 300% of the daily intake of vitamin B₁₂

	20% of protein n = 10 (control group)	20% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ n = 10	4.5% of protein n = 10	4.5% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ n = 10
Body mass (g)	451.7 ±9.4	448.7 ±8.2	349.2 ±10.8 ^a	333.7 ±7.2 ^a
Daily feed intake (g)	16.8 ±0.2	17.3 ±0.2	15.8 ±0.3 ^a	15.3 ±0.2 ^a

Significance ($p < 0.05$): ^acomparison to the control group, ^bcomparison to 4.5% of protein group

Table 3. White blood cells (number and percentage) in blood of rats fed for 30 days a control (20% of energy from protein) or protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein) supplemented or not with 300% of the daily intake of vitamin B₁₂. White blood cells numbers were measured in hematological analyzer (MEK-6450, Nihon Kohden) and lymphocytes immunophenotyping were performed by flow cytometry (FACS Calibur, BD). Results are shown as mean ± SEM. Significance ($p < 0.05$)

	20% of protein n = 10 (control group)	20% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ n = 10	4.5% of protein n = 10	4.5% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ n = 10
Monocytes (× 10 ³ /μl)	0.51 ±0.07	0.4 ±0.06	0.29 ±0.04 ^a	0.55 ±0.08 ^b
Monocytes (%)	5.0 ±0.8	4.1 ±0.4	3.9 ±0.4	4.5 ±0.4
Neutrophils (× 10 ³ /μl)	0.9 ±0.1	0.9 ±0.1	1.3 ±0.1 ^a	1.80.3 ^a
Neutrophils (%)	8.5 ±0.9	9.8 ±1.0	19 ±1.5 ^a	14.7 ±1.2 ^a
Eosinophils (× 10 ³ /μl)	0.13 ±0.01	0.14 ±0.01	0.06 ±0.01 ^a	0.10 ±0.01 ^a
Eosinophils (%)	1.3 ±0.2	1.4 ±0.1	0.9 ±0.1 ^a	0.8 ±0.1 ^a
Lymphocytes (× 10 ³ /μl)	8.9 ±0.6	8.6 ±0.6	5.43 ±0.6 ^a	9.4 ±0.8 ^b
Lymphocytes (%)	85.2 ±1.5	84.6 ±1.3	76.2 ±1.6 ^a	80.0 ±1.3
(B cells) CD45a+ (× 10 ³ /μl)	2.4 ±0.2	2.3 ±0.2	1.0 ±0.1 ^a	2.2 ±0.2 ^b
(B cells) CD45a+ (%)	26.8 ±1.3	26.6 ±0.8	18.3 ±1.1 ^a	23.6 ±1.2 ^b
(T cells) CD3+ (× 10 ³ /μl)	5.3 ±0.5	4.9 ±0.5	3.7 ±0.4 ^a	5.9 ±0.5
(T cells) CD3+ (%)	58.7 ±1.9	56.2 ±2.1	67.8 ±1.2 ^a	62.2 ±1.7
CD4+ (× 10 ³ /μl)	3.7 ±0.3	3.4 ±0.4	2.7 ±0.2 ^a	4.3 ±0.3 ^b
CD4+ (%)	41.2 ±0.2	39.4 ±2.0	49.6 ±1.3 ^a	45.4 ±1.1
CD8+ (× 10 ³ /μl)	1.9 ±0.2	1.6 ±0.2	1.1 ±0.1 ^a	1.7 ±0.2 ^b
CD8+ (%)	20.5 ±1.0	18.4 ±1.0	19.4 ±0.7	18.3 ±0.7
CD4/CD8 ratio	2.0 ±0.1	2.1 ±0.1	2.6 ±0.1 ^a	2.5 ±0.1 ^a
NK cells (CD161+) (× 10 ³ /μl)	0.37 ±0.05	0.33 ±0.04	0.25 ±0.04 ^a	0.37 ±0.04 ^b
NK cells (CD161+) (%)	4.3 ±0.5	4.0 ±0.6	4.9 ±0.6	4.0 ±0.3
NKT cells (CD161+, CD3+) (× 10 ³ /μl)	0.13 ±0.01	0.13 ±0.01	0.07 ±0.01 ^a	0.12 ±0.01 ^b
NKT cells (CD161+, CD3+) (%)	1.4 ±0.1	1.5 ±0.1	1.3 ±0.1	1.2 ±0.1

^acomparison to the control group, ^bcomparison to 4.5% of protein group

Statistical analysis

Statistical evaluation of the results was performed by one-way ANOVA, and the significance of differences between the groups was verified with a Bonferroni multiple comparison post test (Graph Pad Prism software package).

Results

Body mass and diet consumption

Results of final body mass and daily feed intake are presented in Table 2. Rats fed a protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein) had a decreased body mass (about 23%, $p < 0.001$) in comparison to the control group. A low-

ered daily feed intake has also been noted in rats fed a diet restricted in proteins (about 6%, $p < 0.05$). Vitamin B₁₂ supplementation did not affect the body mass and daily feed intake in both control and protein-malnourished groups.

Cytometric analysis

Blood analysis performed on day 1, after randomization of rats groups, did not reveal any significant differences between groups. Mean \pm SEM number of white blood cells identified by cytometric analysis, was: lymphocytes $7.3 \pm 0.2 \times 10^3$ (82.2 \pm 0.6%); monocytes, $0.6 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$ (7.1 \pm 0.3%); neutrophils $0.8 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$ (9.4 \pm 0.4%) and eosinophils $0.1 \pm 0.01 \times 10^3$ (1.4 \pm 0.1), respectively. Average (\pm SEM) number of lymphocytes subpopulations

Table 4. White blood cells (number and percentage) in blood of rats fed for 90 days a control (20% of energy from protein) or protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein) supplemented or not with 300% of the daily intake of vitamin B₁₂. White blood cells numbers were measured in the hematological analyzer (MEK-6450, Nihon Kohden) and lymphocytes immunophenotyping were performed by flow cytometry (FACS Calibur, BD). Results are shown as mean \pm SEM. Significance ($p < 0.05$)

	20% of protein <i>n</i> = 10 (control group)	20% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ <i>n</i> = 10	4.5% of protein <i>n</i> = 10	4.5% of protein + + vitamin B ₁₂ <i>n</i> = 10
Monocytes ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	0.59 \pm 0.04	0.61 \pm 0.09	0.35 \pm 0.04 ^a	0.40 \pm 0.06 ^a
Monocytes (%)	7.4 \pm 0.6	8.1 \pm 0.8	5.5 \pm 0.4	6.4 \pm 0.4
Neutrophils ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	0.9 \pm 0.1	1.18 \pm 0.2	1.8 \pm 0.2 ^a	1.8 \pm 0.3 ^a
Neutrophils (%)	10.7 \pm 0.9	15.6 \pm 1.3	28.9 \pm 2.6 ^a	29.0 \pm 1.9 ^a
Eosinophils ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	0.06 \pm 0.01	0.08 \pm 0.02	0.03 \pm 0.01 ^a	0.03 \pm 0.01 ^a
Eosinophils (%)	0.8 \pm 0.1	0.9 \pm 0.2	0.4 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.1
Lymphocytes ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	6.7 \pm 0.6	5.9 \pm 0.9	4.13 \pm 0.4 ^a	4.09 \pm 0.6 ^a
Lymphocytes (%)	81.1 \pm 1.4	75.4 \pm 1.6	65.1 \pm 2.5 ^a	64.2 \pm 2.1 ^a
(B cells) CD45a+ ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	1.3 \pm 0.1	1.2 \pm 0.2	0.8 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.8 \pm 0.1 ^a
(B cells) CD45a+ (%)	19.0 \pm 1.0	15.6 \pm 1.2	18.5 \pm 1.0	17.4 \pm 1.0
(T cells) CD3+ ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	4.6 \pm 0.5	5.2 \pm 0.7	2.7 \pm 0.3 ^a	2.8 \pm 0.3 ^a
(T cells) CD3+ (%)	68.0 \pm 1.7	68.1 \pm 1.9	62.6 \pm 1.9	68.5 \pm 2.1
CD4+ ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	2.9 \pm 0.3	3.3 \pm 0.4	1.8 \pm 0.2 ^a	2.0 \pm 0.2 ^a
CD4+ (%)	42.5 \pm 1.4	44.1 \pm 1.5	43.8 \pm 1.0	48.4 \pm 1.6
CD8+ ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	1.8 \pm 0.2	2.0 \pm 0.3	0.9 \pm 0.1 ^a	0.9 \pm 0.1 ^a
CD8+ (%)	26.7 \pm 1.0	24.9 \pm 1.0	20.6 \pm 0.9 ^a	22.3 \pm 0.7 ^a
CD4/CD8 ratio	1.6 \pm 0.1	1.8 \pm 0.1	2.1 \pm 0.1 ^a	2.2 \pm 0.1 ^a
NK cells (CD161+) ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	0.34 \pm 0.05	0.49 \pm 0.09	0.12 \pm 0.02 ^a	0.14 \pm 0.02 ^a
NK cells (CD161+) (%)	5.2 \pm 0.5	6.3 \pm 0.5	2.8 \pm 0.2 ^a	3.4 \pm 0.4 ^a
NKT cells (CD161+, CD3+) ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{l}$)	0.14 \pm 0.01	0.19 \pm 0.04	0.08 \pm 0.01 ^a	0.09 \pm 0.01 ^a
NKT cells (CD161+, CD3+) (%)	2.2 \pm 0.2	2.3 \pm 0.3	1.9 \pm 0.2	2.0 \pm 0.1

^acomparison to the control group, ^bcomparison to 4.5% of protein group

amounted to: B cells (CD45a+) – $1.8 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$, T cells (CD3+) – $4.4 \pm 0.2 \times 10^3$, CD4+ – 3.1 ± 0.1 , CD8+ – $1.6 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$, CD4/CD8 ratio – 1.9 ± 0.1 , NK cells (CD161+) – $0.2 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$, NKT cells (CD161+, CD3+) – $0.2 \pm 0.01 \times 10^3$. This represented 25.5 ± 0.6% (CD45a+), 61.1 ± 0.8% (CD3+), 42.4 ± 0.6% (CD4+), 21.7 ± 0.4% (CD8+), 2.6 ± 0.1% (CD161+), 1.8 ± 0.1% (CD3+, CD161+) of lymphocytes, respectively.

A protein-deficient diet caused significant changes in white blood cells number and percentage as well as lymphocytes subpopulations after 30 days of experience (Table 3). The following has been observed: a decrease in total lymphocytes (~40%, $p < 0.001$) monocytes (~45%, $p < 0.05$) and eosinophils (about 55%, $p < 0.001$) as well as an increase in neutrophils (about 50%, $p < 0.01$). This caused also significant changes in WBC (white blood cells) percentage distribution in blood. A reduced number of total lymphocytes in rats fed a low-protein diet resulted in a significant decrease in most of lymphocytes subpopulations number ($p < 0.01$), only NKT cells were insignificantly decreased ($p = 0.064$). Percentage analysis of lymphocytes subpopulations revealed a significant increase in CD3+, associated mainly with an elevation of CD4+, and a decrease in lymphocytes CD45a+. The elevation of CD4+ resulted in a significant increase in CD4/CD8 ratio (approximately 30%, $p < 0.05$).

Vitamin B₁₂ supplementation did not affect the number and percentage of white blood cells populations in blood of rats fed a control diet for 30 days. However, 30-day addition of vitamin B₁₂ to a low-protein diet almost completely reduced the negative impact of protein malnutrition. White blood cells and lymphocytes subpopulations numbers and percentage were similar to results obtained in the control group, except neutrophils (increase both in the number and percentage, $p < 0.001$) and eosinophils (decrease both in the number and percentage, $p < 0.05$). Rats fed a protein-deficient diet supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ presented also an increased CD4/CD8 ratio.

Mean (\pm SEM) number and percentage of WBC and lymphocytes subpopulations of blood collected from rats fed for 90 days a control (20% of energy from protein) or protein-deficient (4.5% of energy from protein) diets additionally supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ are presented in Table 4. Protein-malnourished rats presented a lower number of total white blood cells (approximately 25%, $p < 0.01$, data not shown), what resulted in diminution in the number of most WBC populations. Interestingly, a protein-deficient diet caused an increase in neutrophils number (about 45%, $p < 0.01$) in comparison to the control diet. Additionally, some other changes were observed in WBC percentage distributions. Rats fed a protein-deficient diet had a decreased percentage of total lymphocytes and eosinophils (approximately 20% and 50%, $p < 0.01$) while the percentage of neutrophils was increased (~170%, $p < 0.001$). Percentages of CD3, CD4+ and CD45a+ lympho-

cytes were not changed, however the percentage of CD8+ was significantly decreased in rats fed a low-protein diet. A lower level of CD8+ lymphocytes in protein-malnourished rats resulted in a significant increase in the CD4/CD8 ratio (30%, $p < 0.05$). Additionally, rats fed a protein-deficient diet had a reduced level of NK cells (approximately 50%, $p < 0.01$).

Ninety days of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation did not affect the number and percentage of white blood cells as well as lymphocyte subpopulations in rats fed a control diet, however did not protect rats from a negative effect of a low-protein diet consumption.

Discussion

Nutrition is one of the basic needs required for correct functioning of live organisms. Early malnutrition may have harmful effects not only on the immune function, but also on the development of the mental system, gastrointestinal tract, and can cause metabolic syndrome [15]. Protein malnutrition reduces body mass in both humans and animals and decreases antioxidant levels [16, 17]. It elicits an early elevation of blood glucocorticoid levels to magnitude reminiscent of critical illness in weanling murine systems fed a low-protein diet [18]. Both short and long time of protein deprivation disrupt some blood parameters (e.g. decreased hemoglobin level, MCV, MCH), impair immune functions and increase sensitivity to infections [6, 19, 20].

Protein-deficient diets significantly decreased body and organ mass of rats in comparison to animals fed a control diet [15]. In the present work we also noted that relationship. Rats fed a protein-deficient diet (4.5% of energy from protein) had a lower body mass by approximately 23% than rats fed a control diet (20% of energy from protein). It was caused by a lower food intake observed in the protein-malnourished rats (Table 2) and decreased feed conversion ratio (about 35%). As expected, tissue weight of liver, kidney, spleen, and muscle was decreased in rats fed a low-protein diet. However, when the weight of organs was expressed relative to body mass, we did not observe any significant differences (data not shown).

It is considered that vitamin B₁₂ could participate in regulation of body mass. Roman-Garcia *et al.* had shown that body mass of mice fed a B₁₂-deficient diet was decreased in comparison to control mice [21]. On the other hand, Abu-Samak *et al.* suggested that Jordanian overweight male youth were a risk group of vitamin B₁₂ deficiency [22]. In the present study, vitamin B₁₂ supplementation did not affect body mass and feed consumption in both control and protein-deficient groups. Comparison of vitamin B₁₂ and vitamin B₆ supplementation in rats fed a low-protein diet (results obtained in our previous work, [6]) suggested that vitamin B₆ was a better factor to correct the negative influence of protein malnutrition on body mass.

Malnutrition inhibits the immune function and results in higher susceptibility to infectious diseases. Nutritional deprivation induces atrophy of lymphoid tissues such as the spleen and thymus, and reduces the number of circulating B and T cells [23]. Feeding sows with a low-protein diet during gestation affects immune competence in piglets that may have serious consequences for host defense against bacterial pathogens [24]. Moreover, protein malnutrition caused a significant reduction in bone marrow cell compartments, which results in B-cell depletion [25]. In the present study, we have observed disorders in the number and percentage of total WBC in blood of rats fed a low-protein diet. Significant changes were already noted on day 30 of the experiment and were increased on day 90. Unsurprisingly, a protein-deficient diet lowered the number of lymphocytes (in all studied subpopulations), monocytes, eosinophils, however raised the number of neutrophils. Additionally, after 30 days of the protein malnutrition diet, a decrease in B-cell percentage was also noted, which returned to control values on day 90 of the experiment.

Protein malnutrition is prevalent in cancer patients and occurs as a consequence of an imbalance between nutritional needs of the patient, demands of the tumor and availability of nutrients in the body [26]. Main immunological anti-cancer defenses in the organism include lymphocytes CD8+ and NK cells. A decreased NK cells number has been shown in malnourished cancer patients, which was increased when appropriate arginine-enriched nutrition was applied [27]. Moreover, Reynolds *et al.* observed impaired poly (I:C)-induced natural killer cell function in CBA/J mice fed for 2 weeks a protein-calorie malnutrition diet [28]. In the same experiment, NK cell activity in Swiss mice receiving a 2.5% protein diet (for two or three weeks) was not significantly impaired. In the present work, a short time of a protein-restricted diet (30 days, 4.5% of protein) did not affect cellular immunity of rats, however long time protein deprivation (90 days) resulted in a significant decrease in CD8+ lymphocytes and NK cells percentage. This may suggest one of mechanisms by which protein malnutrition secondarily promotes the development of the cancer.

The most important function of vitamin B₁₂ is DNA synthesis, necessary for cell division, whereby it could modulate human immunity. Deficiency of the vitamin causes anemia and modifies NK cytotoxicity, lymphocytes B and lymphoproliferation in aged rats [29]. Addition of vitamin B₁₂ in B₁₂-deficient patients facilitates the production of T lymphocytes recruited in cellular immunity, restores an abnormally increased CD4/CD8 ratio and maintains the count of lymphocyte subgroups in the normal range [30]. Similarly, Erkurt *et al.* demonstrated that the intake of vitamin B₁₂ in patients with anemia causes an increase in the absolute number of CD8+ as well as a slight increase in CD 4+ lymphocytes [31]. In the present

study, B₁₂ supplementation did not affect white blood cells as well as lymphocytes subpopulations (number and percentage) in the control group (both after 30 and 90 days). A 30-day period of B₁₂ addition in the protein-deficient group reduced the negative effect of malnutrition. This applies to the total number of white blood cells, number of lymphocytes (in all subpopulations) and monocytes, and percentage of CD3+, CD45A+ and CD4+ cell populations. These results suggest a protective role of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation in the blood immunological system in the short-time protein malnourished organism. Unfortunately, long-time vitamin B₁₂ administration did not reduce the adverse effect of protein deprivation. Absence of positive B₁₂ impact after 90 days of the experiment may result from the extreme exhaustion of the body caused by the protein-restricted diet.

Conclusions

A high level of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation (300% of the daily intake) did not affect the immune system in rats fed for 30 and 90 days a standard diet. At the same time, B₁₂ enrichment had a beneficial impact in rats fed for 30 days a protein-deficient diet. These results suggest a positive effect of vitamin B₁₂ supplementation on the immune system in the protein-deficient organism, but to fully understand the mechanism by which vitamin B₁₂ affects the immune system in protein-malnourished organisms this needs to be precisely investigated.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Food and Agriculture Organization (2012): "The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2012". <http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i3027e/i3027e00.htm>. Agarwal E, Miller M, Yaxley A, Isenring E (2013): Malnutrition in the elderly: a narrative review. *Maturitas* 76: 296-302.
2. Mehta NM, Corkins MR, Lyman B, et al. (2013): Defining pediatric malnutrition: a paradigm shift toward etiology-related definitions. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 37: 460-481.
3. Manary MJ, Heikens GT, Golden M (2009): Kwashiorkor: more hypothesis testing is needed to understand the aetiology of oedema. *Malawi Med J* 21: 106-107.
4. Manne V, Saab S (2014): Impact of nutrition and obesity on chronic liver disease. *Clin Liver Dis* 18: 205-218.
5. Lewicka A, Lewicki S, Zdanowski R, et al. (2012): The effect of vitamin B₆ supplementation of protein deficiency diet on hematological parameters in the blood of rats subjected/non subjected to physical exertion – a pilot study. *Centr Eur J Immunol* 37: 187-192.
6. Barbieri N, Villena J, Herrera M, et al. (2013): Nasally administered *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* accelerate the recovery of humoral immunity in B lymphocyte-deficient malnourished mice. *J Nutr* 143: 227-235.

7. Venesky MD, Wilcoxon TE, Rensel MA, et al. (2012): Dietary protein restriction impairs growth, immunity, and disease resistance in southern leopard frog tadpoles. *Oecologia* 169: 23-31.
8. González-Parra E, Gracia-Iguacel C, Egido J, Ortiz A (2012): Phosphorus and nutrition in chronic kidney disease. *Int J Nephrol* 2012: 597605. doi: 10.1155/2012/597605
9. Arimura E, Horiuchi M, Kawaguchi H, et al. (2013): Low-protein diet improves blood and urinary glucose levels and renal manifestations of diabetes in C57BLKS-db/db mice. *Eur J Nutr* 52: 813-824.
10. Moreno-Garcia MA, Rosenblatt DS, Jerome-Majewska LA (2013): Vitamin B(12) metabolism during pregnancy and in embryonic mouse models. *Nutrients* 5: 3531-3550.
11. Kapadia CR (1995): Vitamin B12 in health and disease: part I – inherited disorders of function, absorption, and transport. *Gastroenterologist* 3: 329-344.
12. Carmel R (2008): How I treat cobalamin (vitamin B12) deficiency. *Blood* 112: 2214-2221.
13. Stabler SP (2013): Clinical practice. Vitamin B12 deficiency. *N Engl J Med* 368: 149-160.
14. He Z, Sun Z, Liu S, et al. (2009): Effects of early malnutrition on mental system, metabolic syndrome, immunity and the gastrointestinal tract. *J Vet Med Sci* 71: 1143-1150.
15. Bray GA, Smith SR, de Jonge L, et al. (2012): Effect of dietary protein content on weight gain, energy expenditure, and body composition during overeating: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 307: 47-55.
16. de Belchior AC, Angeli JK, Faria Tde O, et al. (2012): Post-weaning protein malnutrition increases blood pressure and induces endothelial dysfunctions in rats. *PLoS One* 7: e34876. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0034876.
17. Monk JM, Makinen K, Shrum B, Woodward B (2006): Blood corticosterone concentration reaches critical illness levels early during acute malnutrition in the weanling mouse. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)* 231: 264-268.
18. Brunner FS, Schmid-Hempel P, Barribeau SM (2014): Protein-poor diet reduces host-specific immune gene expression in *Bombus terrestris*. *Proc Biol Sci* 2014; 281: pii: 20140128. doi: 10.1098/rspb.2014.0128.
19. Carrillo E, Jimenez MA, Sanchez C, et al. (2014): Protein malnutrition impairs the immune response and influences the severity of infection in a hamster model of chronic visceral leishmaniasis. *PLoS One* 9: e89412. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0089412.
20. Roman-Garcia P, Quiros-Gonzalez I, Mottram L, et al. (2014): Vitamin B₁₂-dependent taurine synthesis regulates growth and bone mass. *J Clin Invest* 124: 2988-3002.
21. Abu-Samak M., Khuzaic R, Abu-Hasheesh M, et al. (2008): Relationship of vitamin B₁₂ deficiency with overweight in male Jordanian youth. *J Applied Sci* 8: 3060-3063.
22. Alvarez S, Villena J, Tohno M, et al. (2009): Modulation of innate immunity by lactic acid bacteria: impact on host response to infections. *Curr Res Immunol* 3: 87-126.
23. Tuchscherer M, Otten W, Kanitz E, et al. (2012): Effects of inadequate maternal dietary protein:carbohydrate ratios during pregnancy on offspring immunity in pigs. *BMC Vet Res* 8: 232. doi: 10.1186/1746-6148-8-232.
24. Salva S, Merino MC, Agüero G, et al. (2012): Dietary supplementation with probiotics improves hematopoiesis in malnourished mice. *PLoS One* 7: e31171. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0031171.7:e31171.
25. El-Demerdash E, Ali AA, El-Taher DE, Hamada FM (2012): Effect of low-protein diet on anthracycline pharmacokinetics and cardiotoxicity. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 64: 344-352. doi: 10.1111/j.2042-7158.2011.01413.
26. Zhao H, Zhao H, Wang Y, et al. (2013): Randomized clinical trial of arginine-supplemented enteral nutrition versus standard enteral nutrition in patients undergoing gastric cancer surgery. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 139: 1465-1470. doi: 10.1007/s00432-013-1466-5.
27. Reynolds JV, Shou JA, Sigal R, et al. (1990): The influence of protein malnutrition on T cell, natural killer cell, and lymphokine-activated killer cell function, and on biological responsiveness to high-dose interleukin-2. *Cell Immunol* 128: 569-577.
28. Partearroyo T, Úbeda N, Montero A, et al. (2013): Vitamin B(12) and folic acid imbalance modifies NK cytotoxicity, lymphocytes B and lymphoproliferation in aged rats. *Nutrients* 5: 4836-4848. doi: 10.3390/nu5124836.
29. Tamura J, Kubota K, Murakami H, et al. (1999): Immunomodulation by vitamin B12: augmentation of CD8+ T lymphocytes and natural killer (NK) cell activity in vitamin B12-deficient patients by methyl-B12 treatment. *Clin Exp Immunol* 116: 28-32.
30. Erkurt MA, Aydogdu I, Dikilitaş M, et al. (2008): Effects of cyanocobalamin on immunity in patients with pernicious anemia. *Med Princ Pract* 17: 131-135.