

The role of growth hormone and insulin-like growth factors in the immune system

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Abstract. Growth hormone (GH) and insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I) can modulate the development and function of the immune system. In this chapter, we present data on the expression of receptors for GH and IGFs and the *in vitro* and *in vivo* effects of these proteins. We show that expression of GH and IGFs in the immune system opens up the possibility that these proteins are not only involved in endocrine control of the immune system but can also play a role as local growth and differentiation factors (cytokines). Endo-

crine control of GH could be direct or mediated via endocrine or autocrine/paracrine IGF-I. In addition, GH can act as an autocrine or paracrine factor itself. Furthermore, IGF-I in the immune system has been shown to be regulated by cytokines, such as interleukin-1 and interferon- γ , alluding to a cytokine-like function of IGF-I. In addition to data on the function of GH and IGF-I in the immune system, we present new findings which imply a possible function of IGF-II and IGF-binding proteins.

Key words. Growth hormone; insulin-like-growth factor-I and -II; immune system; transgenic mice; insulin-like growth factor-binding proteins.

Introduction

Pituitary hormones and the insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) are prominent participants in the orchestration of growth and development. They either cooperate or compete with other growth factors, such as epidermal growth factor (EGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), transforming growth factor α and β (TGFs), and nerve growth factor (NGF), in passing cells through the cell cycle. Consequently, this can lead either to growth stimulation or inhibition, as well as to differentiation, preservation, apoptosis, tumorigenesis and so on. It is

therefore evident that these growth factors and hormones are involved in different processes, the functioning of the immune system being only one example. Readers are referred to several recent reviews on different aspects of the role of growth hormone (GH), prolactin (Prl) and the IGFs in the immune system [1–4]. Here we will mainly focus on the physiological role of GH, the insulin-like growth factors I and II, and their binding proteins in the immune system.

The GH-IGF system of ligands, receptors, binding proteins, proteases and protease inhibitors

GH, GH-receptor and GH-binding protein

GH, occurring in serum as polypeptides of 20 and 22 kDa, is mainly produced by the pituitary [5]. GH

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synthesis and secretion are mainly regulated by the pituitary transcription factor Pit-1 as well as by hypothalamic factors such as GH-releasing hormone and somatostatin [6]. Pit-1 is important for the differentiation and maintenance of the GH- and PRL-producing cells in the pituitary [7, 8] and the regulation of hormone secretion. GH exerts its effects through the GH receptor, which itself is a monomeric transmembrane molecule, and GH-induced receptor dimerization is required for signal transduction mediated mainly by the JAK-STAT proteins [9–12]. GH receptors are present in many tissues, (i.e. the liver). Numerous mutations of GH receptors have been reported, which are localized in the extracellular domain, and only a few in the intracellular domain [13].

The extracellular domain of the GH receptor can be proteolytically split off and is present in the circulation (GH-binding protein, GHBP), where it competes with membrane receptors for the available GH. GHBP binds GH with a high affinity, and it has been suggested that circulating GHBP levels modulate GH receptor effects [14, 15].

The expression of GH and its receptor in cells of the immune system suggests that GH may act both in an endocrine and paracrine/autocrine way, and it indicates an interplay between the immune and endocrine systems.

IGF-I and IGF-II

In most cases GH action is mediated by the IGFs, although direct actions may exist as well, as reported by several authors [16, 17]. The IGFs, polypeptides of approximately 7 kDa, are mainly produced by the liver under the influence of GH. In contrast, the regulation of expression of IGF-I and IGF-II, as in many other tissues, can be completely independent of GH. IGF-I levels in blood in particular can be used as a marker for GH deficiency (GHD), caused either by lack of GH, a biologically inactive GH molecule, or by defective GH receptors or post-receptor signalling in the case of GH-insensitivity syndrome [18].

Receptors for the IGFs

The IGFs can interact with several receptors, such as the insulin receptor, the type I IGF receptor, the type II IGF receptor and hybrid receptors; the latter consist of part of the insulin receptor and part of the type I IGF receptor. All these receptors are expressed by many tissues. The insulin receptor and type I IGF receptor consist each of two α and two β chains, linked together by S-S bridges.

The insulin receptor mediates most of the metabolic actions of both insulin and the IGFs, although there is evidence for a growth-promoting function as well [19]. After interaction of the ligands with either the insulin receptor or the type I IGF receptor, the receptor will become activated by autophosphorylation. The ensuing signalling is characterized by a series of phosphorylation reactions and specific interactions between intracellular molecules [20, 21].

In general, the type I IGF receptor is the most important mediator for the effects of IGFs on mitogenesis, apoptosis, cell motility, tumorigenesis and metastasis [22–24]. Overexpression of the type I IGF receptor induces transformation, and activation blocks programmed cell death (apoptosis) [25]. Distinct sites within the intracellular domain of the type I IGF receptor are responsible for tumorigenesis and metastasis [22]. Transcription of the type I IGF receptor gene is upregulated by PDGF and bFGF. This results in enhanced cell cycle progression [22].

Peripheral blood lymphocytes are used by many investigators to determine numbers and affinities of receptors in conditions of impaired growth or other diseases [26]. The possible use of lymphoblast cell lines from African Pygmies in the diagnosis of abnormalities in the IGF system has been reported. These cells were found to have decreased type I IGF-receptor expression [27], which can partly explain the growth retardation of these individuals.

The biological function of insulin/IGF-I hybrid receptors is still unknown. In general they act as classical type I IGF receptors. Insulin plays a role in the regulation of hybrid receptor formation [28].

Mitogenic actions transmitted by the type II IGF receptor are only sporadically reported [29, 30]. This receptor plays a role in lysosomal targeting of the IGFs, especially of IGF-II, and their subsequent degradation, as well as in cell motility, and it promotes exocytosis in insulin-secreting cells [23, 31, 32]. Furthermore, this receptor functions as a tumour suppressor gene [33, 34], and it is required for proliferin-induced angiogenesis [35]. Besides IGF-II, the type II IGF receptor also binds mannose-6-phosphate and retinoic acid [36]. The imprinted type II IGF receptor is crucial for regulating normal growth and viability, as demonstrated in mice with a targeted disruption of this receptor [37, 38]. Loss of imprinting occurs in acute myeloid leukaemia [39]. Recently, a role for the type II IGF receptor in cell adhesion and growth regulation of myeloma cells, a human B cell neoplasia, has been suggested [40].

The type II IGF receptor contains a long extracellular domain and a relatively short intracellular domain. G

proteins appear to be important for signal transduction. While EGF and PDGF enhance transcription of the type I IGF receptor gene, the type II IGF receptor plays a role in activation of latent TGF- β [41, 42].

IGF-binding proteins

To date six IGF-binding proteins (IGFBP-1 through -6) have been cloned and characterized [43, 44]. They bind IGF-I and/or IGF-II with varying affinities, but are unable to bind insulin. These peptides contain 16 cystine residues which are conserved during evolution. Their molecular weights (including sugar chains) vary between 24 and 45 kDa. In the circulation IGFBP-3 is the dominant IGFBP. IGFBP-3 not only interacts with IGFs; it also interacts with an acid-labile subunit (ALS), which leads to the formation of a 150-kDa IGFBP complex with an estimated half-life in the circulation of approximately 18 h [45]. In contrast with most other IGFBPs, IGFBP-3 and ALS are both GH-dependent. The IGFBPs are produced by many cells. IGFBP-1 and -2 can interact with the cell membrane and the extracellular matrix by an RGD integrin-binding sequence [44]. Furthermore, a specific receptor for IGFBP-3 has been reported [46], which shows identity with the TGF- β receptor [47]. In addition, IGFBPs possess glycosylation or phosphorylation sites [44] which modulate the binding of the IGFs to their specific IGFBPs.

In general, IGFBPs prolong the half-life and diminish the hypoglycaemic effect of the IGFs, and they modulate the actions of the IGFs by sequestering them away from their receptors. In addition, direct effects of IGFBP-3 on the type I IGF receptor have been demonstrated which could either facilitate [48] or inhibit [49] IGF-I binding. IGFBP-3 also exerts IGF-independent effects on growth, e.g. by stimulating apoptosis [50]. In this respect IGFBP-3 functions as a tumour suppressor [51]. The IGFBP-3 gene itself can be regulated by the tumour suppressor p53 [50, 52] and by TGF- β [53]. Recently, homologous proteins (IGFBP-7 to -10) which bind IGFs with low affinity but bind insulin with high affinity have been discovered [54–56]. Since these proteins can also bind insulin, they were called IGFBP-related proteins (4th International Symposium on IGFs, Tokyo, October 1997).

IGF proteases and IGFBP proteases

Specific proteases for IGFs have been described which favour degradation and subsequent clearance of the IGFs. An acid protease present in serum generates des-(1-3)-IGF-I, a variant which has been identified in the brain as well [57–59]. Although the physiological meaning of this variant is still uncertain, it is believed to

have a higher biological activity since it lacks affinity for IGFBPs [60]. It cannot be excluded, however, that the split-off tripeptide itself is of physiological importance [61]. Regulation of the IGF-I protease occurs by the serine protease inhibitor Spi 2.1. Reduced levels of Spi 2.1 in GH-deficient rats may be responsible for enhanced IGF-I protease activity in these animals, showing an additional mechanism by which GH regulates IGF-I bioavailability [62].

IGFBP action can be regulated both systemically and locally by IGFBP proteases. Specific proteases for IGFBP-1 through -6 have been identified, including kallikreins, cathepsins and matrix metalloproteinases [63–65].

In pregnancy and several disease states such as severe critical illness, chronic renal failure and GHD, activities of IGFBP-3 proteases are increased [66–68]. It has been shown that proteolytically cleaved IGFBP fragments have a diminished affinity for IGFs, and therefore proteolysis is postulated to enhance IGF action [64, 66, 69].

The above-described constituents delineate the GH-IGF axis and form part of a complex network which regulates growth and development of cells and tissues, including the immunological system (fig. 1).

The GH-IGF axis in lymphoid organs

The function of pituitary hormones and IGF-I on B cell development in bone marrow are extensively discussed by Foster et al. in this issue. In the next section we will address the role of GH and IGFs in the physiology of the thymus and spleen.

The thymus

The thymus is a primary lymphoid organ in which bone marrow-derived T cell precursors undergo a complex process of maturation. During this process, immature T cells undergo rearrangement of genes encoding T cell receptors for antigen. Positive and negative selection leads to mature T cells that recognize antigens in the context of either major histocompatibility (MHC) class I or class II, whereas autoreactive T cells are eliminated via apoptosis. This T cell maturation process is orchestrated by cytokines and growth factors derived from either lymphocytes or thymic epithelial cells (TECs) and by direct cellular interactions with neighbouring cells like TECs [70, 71]. That the thymus can be subject to endocrine control via the GH-IGF axis is indicated by the presence of receptors for GH on thymic lymphocytes [72] and on a thymic epithelial cell line [73], as well as the presence of type I IGF receptors on thymic lymphocytes [74, 75].

Additionally, rat thymocytes and mouse thymic lymphoma cells express type II IGF receptors [74]. GH messenger RNA (mRNA) and protein expression in the human thymus is located along the thymus capsule, the subcapsular cortex and within the septa [76]. In the thymus of normal mice, rats and humans IGF-II protein and mRNA are detectable, but IGF-I expression is rather low [77, 78]. The presence of IGFBP-2 to -6 and IGFBP-4 protease in the murine thymus [79, 80] suggests that these proteins modulate the actions of IGFs in the thymus.

Immunodeficiencies have been reported in GHD, in hypophysectomized rats with impairment of the humoral, cell-mediated, and autoimmune responses [81–83] and in Snell and Ames dwarf mice [84, 85]. In these animals a thymic deficiency exists with early involution

and decreased production of lymphocytes. In the Snell-Bagg strain the cortex was found to be much thinner than in wild-type mice, and there was a predominance of the medulla [86–88].

Treatment with GH has divergent effects. First, it can increase thymic growth and cellular content and improve thymic architecture in growing and aged rats and mice and in GHD rats and mice [82, 89–93]. Second, it can reverse or prevent thymic involution [94] and third, GH can stimulate repopulation of the thymus after irradiation or cyclosporin-induced damage [95, 96]. In addition, mice injected with antiserum to GH develop thymic atrophy and wasting syndrome [97, 98]. Likewise, in transgenic mice overexpressing GH, the weight of the thymus was increased [99, 100].

It has been suggested that the effects of GH on thymic growth are indirect, in the sense that GH treatment enhances the release of IGF-I from TECs, which stimulates thymocyte proliferation [73, 101]. Remarkably, thymic size as well as the developmental pattern of thymus growth mimic endogenous plasma IGF-I concentrations [102]. A good correlation between plasma IGF-I and thymulin, a peptide produced by TECs, has been observed in acromegalic patients. This suggests a role for GH and IGF-I in the control of thymic hormonal function in humans [103].

Many of the effects described for GH were also obtained with IGF-I, as demonstrated in normal and GH-deficient mice and rats [82, 90, 96, 104–106]. In addition, IGF-I stimulates the repopulation of the atrophied thymus in diabetic rats [107]. In general, IGF-I is more effective than GH in restoration of the thymus, but combination therapy gives the best result [96]. These data suggest that patients suffering from immune deficiencies can benefit from treatment with GH and/or IGF-I.

The effects of IGF-II are not clear at present. The observed IGF-II expression in the human and rat thymus suggests an important role for this peptide [77]. However, although exogenous IGF-II stimulates growth of the thymus in Snell dwarf mice, it does so to a lesser extent than IGF-I [108–110]. In transgenic mice overexpressing human IGF-II under the transcriptional control of the H2Kb promoter, thymus weight was increased and involution delayed. Similar results were obtained in IGF-II transgenic Snell dwarf mice, showing that in these GH and IGF-I deficient animals IGF-II alone was capable of stimulating the growth of this organ [110]. In both transgenic models growth of the thymus was accompanied by an increased number of thymocytes, and maturation followed the normal sequence of events [111, 112]. The endogenous H2Kb gene is mainly expressed in the mature T cells which reside in the medulla. A similar pattern of expression exists in our transgenic mice with respect to the mRNA

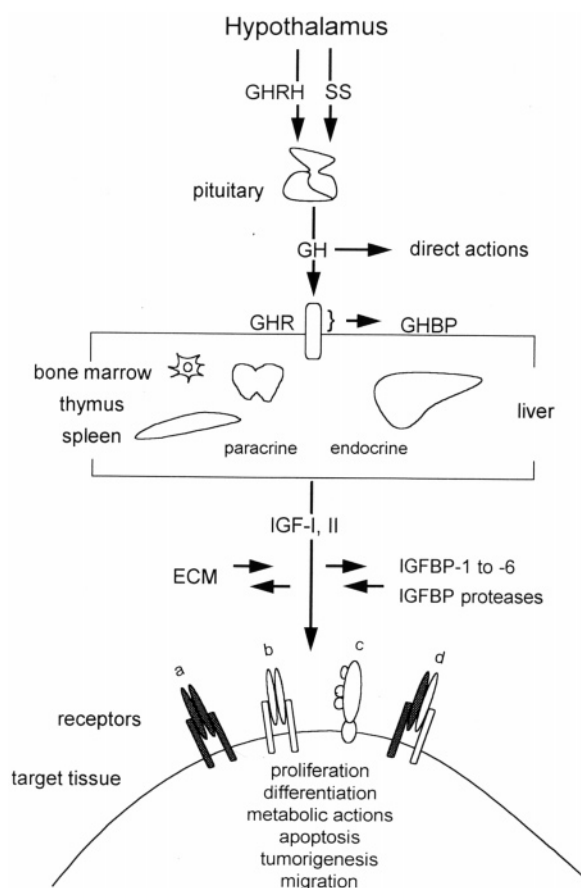


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of actions and interactions of the constituents comprising the GH-IGF axis. GHRH, growth hormone-releasing hormone; SS, somatostatin; GH, growth hormone; GHR, GH receptor; GHBP, GH-binding protein; IGF-I, -II, insulin-like growth factor I, II; IGFBP, IGF-binding protein; ECM, extracellular matrix; receptors: a: insulin receptor; b: type I IGF receptor; c: type II IGF receptor; d: insulin/IGF-I hybrid receptor.

expression pattern of IGF-II, which is mainly located in thymocytes in the medulla as shown by in situ hybridization [78, 113]. Expression of IGF-II protein is less abundant than mRNA expression and can be seen in T lymphocytes of the medulla and possibly in thymic epithelial cells [78, 113]. This high expression of IGF-II in the thymus may be responsible for the observed growth stimulation. Other IGF-II transgenic mouse models, which all have elevated serum IGF-II concentrations, did not show increased growth of the thymus [114–116]. This suggests that autocrine/paracrine rather than endocrine mechanisms are responsible for the increase in size.

Further studies are needed in order to unravel the interplay between the above-mentioned constituents and their roles in the regulation of cell proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis in lymphoid tissues.

Spleen

Mature B and T cells reside in the white pulp of the spleen where they respond to blood-borne antigens. For functional studies in animals, mature B and T cells are usually obtained from the spleen, whereas mature cells from humans are usually isolated from peripheral blood. Mature B and T cells express GH receptors and type I IGF receptors. Type I IGF receptors and insulin/IGF-I hybrid receptors were also found on peripheral monocytes and natural killer (NK) cells. They are not present, however, in similar quantities on the different cell types [73–75, 117–122].

GH is produced by rodent splenocytes [123] and human peripheral blood mononuclear cells [124]. The presence of IGF-I in activated T and B cells, leukocytes, macrophages and in minor quantities in the spleen implies an important role of these factors in the regulation of immune function by paracrine and/or autocrine mechanisms [77, 125–131]. Indeed, an autocrine role for GH in human cultured lymphocytes has been demonstrated [132]. Several experimental animal models indicate that endocrine effects of GH and IGFs on the spleen exist.

The role of GH becomes apparent in GH-deficient rodents, where spleen weights as well as the number of T lymphocytes, B cells and the NK activity of spleen lymphocytes are significantly lower than in normal animals [133–135]. Increased growth of this organ has been obtained by treating normal rats, hypophysectomized rats and Snell dwarf mice with GH as well as in transgenic mice overexpressing GH [82, 136–139].

Besides GH, IGF-I is important for splenic growth, as shown in normal mice selected for high plasma IGF-I levels. In these animals spleen weight was higher compared with mice with a low IGF-I level [102]. Growth of the spleen was stimulated by administration of IGF-I

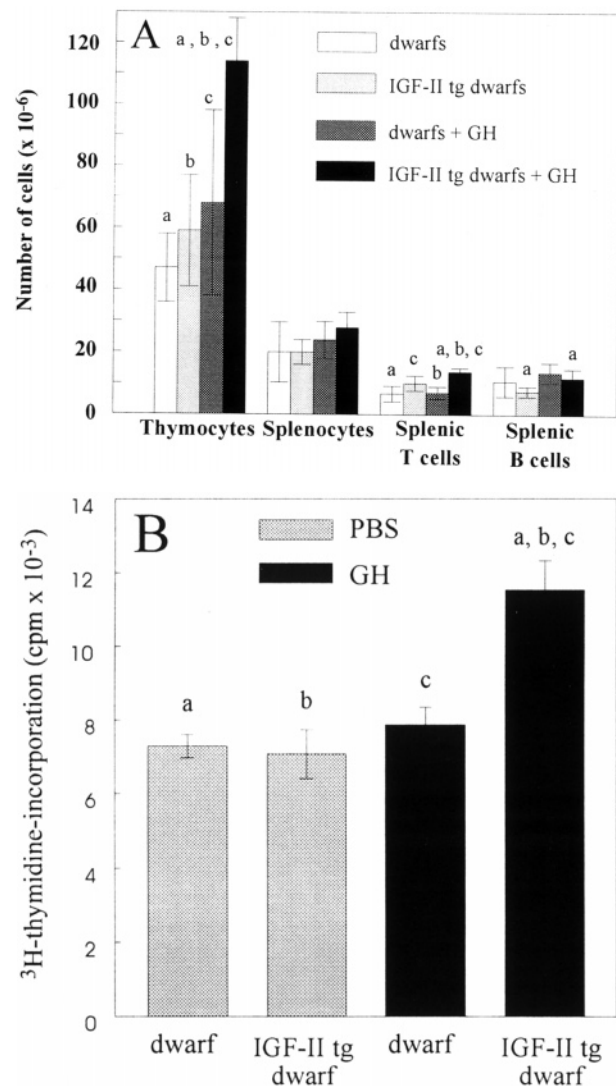


Figure 2. IGF-II transgenic and control dwarf mice were treated with 16.6 mU recombinant human GH per day for 4 weeks after which thymic and splenic weight and cellularity were assessed (A). T cells and B cells were identified by flow cytometry using anti-CD3 and anti-immunoglobulin M (IgM), respectively (B). Thymocyte proliferation was measured by culturing freshly isolated thymocytes for 18 h in the presence of ³H-thymidine. The data represent mean values \pm SD ($n = 4$). For a given cell type, values indicated by the same letter (a, b or c) are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

and/or IGF-II in normal rats and mice [104–106, 136, 137, 140], in GHD mice and rats [82, 90], and in IGF-I transgenic mice [141, 142]. A similar increase in spleen weight was observed in patients with GH insensitivity syndrome during IGF-I treatment [143].

In normal animals, GH and IGF-I increased the number of B lineage cells in the spleen and bone marrow but

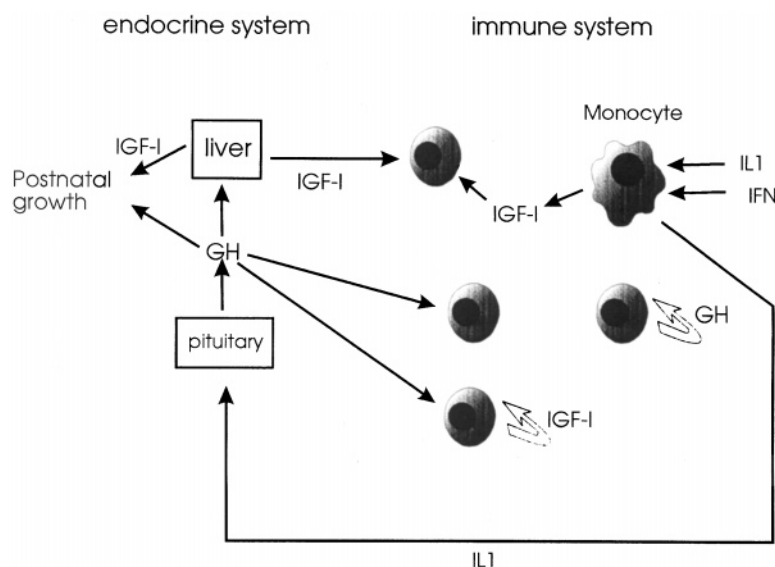


Figure 3. Possible role of GH and IGF-I as cytokines or endocrine modulators of the immune system. IL1 is given as an example of how cytokines can act on the pituitary [3].

did not restore the frequency of bone marrow pre-B cells to normal [106, 144, 145]. T4 treatment, however, gave rise to reconstitution of the number and frequency of B lineage cells [146, 147; see also Forster et al. in this issue].

Although IGF-I increases the size of the T and B cell compartments in both normal and dwarf mice, IGF-II overexpression in transgenic mice only stimulated the number of thymocytes and T cells in the spleen [112]. The number of mature B cells in spleen and bone marrow was not affected. Furthermore, overexpression of IGF-II in transgenic dwarf mice, which do not show circulating levels of IGF-I, did not affect B cell development either [111]. These results imply that IGF-II cannot stimulate B cell development in mice, even in the absence of IGF-I.

Since GH regulates the expression of the IGFs, possible synergistic effects between GH and IGFs should be taken into account. We observed synergistic effects between GH and IGF-II in 10-week-old IGF-II transgenic dwarf mice which were treated with GH for 4 weeks. They showed an increase in the number of thymocytes in the thymus and mature T cells in the spleen, whereas the number of B cells was unaffected (fig. 2A). This result is in accordance with the synergistic effect of IGF-II and GH on thymocyte proliferation (fig. 2B) and suggests that GH and IGF-II can act in a synergistic fashion on T cell development, but not on B cell development. Splenic growth is variably influenced by

IGFBPs. In IGFBP-3 transgenics a significant increase has been observed, whereas in IGFBP-1 transgenics spleen weight was only marginally changed as compared with normal age-matched controls [148, 149]. In IGFBP-2 knockout mice the spleen size is decreased [150]. A possible requirement of IGFBP-2 for splenic growth is confirmed by the observation that during foetal life IGFBP-2 in mice is expressed in the anterior splanchnic mesodermal plate [150].

In addition, IGFBPs are produced by many cells of the immune system. In human foetal tissues, mRNAs of IGFBP-2 to -6 are detectable at low to moderate levels in the spleen. In contrast, IGFBP-1 [79] and ALS are undetectable [151]. IGFBPs are also produced by normal human lymphocytes. Unstimulated lymphocytes express only IGFBP-2 and -3, whereas after stimulation IGFBP-4 and -5 are detectable as well. IGFBP-1 remains undetectable, however [130]. This opens up the possibility that the actions of endocrine or locally produced IGFs can be modulated via production of IGFBPs by cells from the immune system.

The role of IGFBPs in modulating actions of IGF-II is being investigated by us in IGF-II transgenic mice. It is remarkable that transgenic mice overexpressing IGF-II do not show an increase in size of the spleen, which is in sharp contrast with data obtained for the thymus in these animals [110]. Endogenous expression of IGF-II mRNA and protein in the spleen was low. As in the thymus, there was a high expression of the IGF-II

mRNA transgene in the spleen of the transgenic animals localized in the white pulp. IGF-II protein levels were, however, rather low, which may be the result of rapid transport through the circulation [78, 113]. In contrast to the situation in the thymus, where IGFBP-3 mRNA expression was undetectable by *in situ* hybridization, a marked increase of IGFBP-3 mRNA in the marginal zone of the spleen of IGF-II transgenic mice was observed. This zone surrounds the white pulp of the spleen [78, 113]. Therefore, an explanation for the apparently conflicting results between spleen and thymus could be an inhibiting action of IGFBP-3 on the IGF-II-induced growth in the spleen by either an IGF-dependent or IGF-independent mechanism.

In this respect it would be interesting to investigate the occurrence of apoptosis in these organs, since several authors have shown that IGFs can inhibit apoptosis [32], whereas on the contrary IGFBP-3 stimulates this process of programmed cell death [52]. In addition, tissue-specific expression of IGFBPs with a relatively high affinity for IGF-II could also be responsible for tissue-specific effects of IGF-II [43–45].

Immune responses

In GHD rats and mice, the immune response is impaired. GH and IGF-I can improve the graft-vs.-host reactions, development of contact dermatitis in response to dinitrochlorobenzene and antibody production following primary and secondary antigen challenge [86, 89, 91, 106, 152–154]. The enhancement of the immune response obtained in ageing mice and monkeys by treatment with GH and IGF-I suggests new avenues for the treatment of declining immune function as observed during ageing [106, 145]. In GHD patients, however, immune function seems to be only marginally affected [155, 156]. Therefore the use of GH and IGF-I as immunotherapies requires further analysis.

Summary and perspectives

It has been established that GH and the IGFs affect development and function of the immune system. Although they do not seem to be essential for lymphopoiesis, they can modulate immune responses. At present, benefits can be expected from treating humans with GH and/or IGFs in order to prevent a decline in immune function during ageing [118].

From gene manipulation experiments in mice, a local growth-promoting effect on the thymus has been shown in IGF-II-overexpressing animals, leading to an increased number of T lymphocytes and a normal maturation of the T lymphocyte subsets. In the spleen increased growth does not become apparent, despite high expres-

sion of the transgene. This is probably due to modulating effects of specifically induced IGFBP-3.

The specific roles and importance of the IGFBPs and IGFBP proteases in the immune system await further elucidation.

In contrast to the knockout models of the IGFs and their specific receptors, the IGFBP-2, -4 and -6 knockouts demonstrated nearly normal growth, whereas in IGFBP-2 knockout mice growth of the spleen was diminished. In none of these animals, however, has functioning of the immune system been extensively investigated.

The expression of GH and IGFs in the immune system opens up the possibility that GH and IGFs are not only involved in endocrine control of the immune system but also play a role as local growth and differentiation factors (cytokines). As depicted in figure 3, endocrine control of GH could be direct or mediated via endocrine or autocrine/paracrine IGF-I. In addition, GH could act as an autocrine or paracrine factor. Although several effects of GH on the function of leukocytes are mediated by IGF-I, most *in vitro* effects of GH have been shown to be direct. In addition, IGF-I expression in the immune system has been shown to be regulated by cytokines, like interleukin-1 (IL-1) and interferon- γ [157, 158], alluding to a cytokine-like function of IGF-I. Moreover, the finding that expression of GH in murine bone marrow cells does not depend on the transcription factor Pit-1 [159] suggests an alternative regulation model for this hormone in the immune system. It has also been established that the immune system feeds back to the endocrine system at the level of the hypothalamus and pituitary (fig. 3).

Recently it has been reported that in IL-6 transgenic mice growth retardation was correlated with low IGF-I levels [160]. These kinds of studies can be helpful in unravelling the cross-talk between IGFs and other components, for example interleukins in immune function.

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