

Insulin-like growth factors and their binding proteins in domestic animals

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Abstract

Insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) and their binding proteins play an essential rôle in regulating animal growth and metabolism. The initial portion of the current review focuses on the physiological effects of the IGFs and delineates their rôle as regulators of animal growth and metabolism. The rôle of IGFs as mediators of growth hormone effects, as insulin-like metabolic regulators and as foetal growth regulators is discussed. The remainder of the review is devoted to the IGF binding proteins, their modulation of IGF action and their rôle in foetal and postnatal regulation of growth.

Keywords: binding proteins, insulin-like growth factor.

Introduction

Historical background

Production of agricultural animals has long focused on enhancing productive efficiency. Increasing rate of gain and reducing food per kg of gain of farm animals has been accomplished by genetic selection, nutrient optimization and by using exogenous hormones. Early attempts at modifying animal production used inhibitors (Beeson *et al.*, 1947) or enhancers (Beeson *et al.*, 1949) of thyroid function, steroid hormones (Hancock *et al.*, 1991), and beta-adrenergic agents (beta agonists; Anderson *et al.*, 1991). Steroid implants and beta-agonists as well as antibiotics (Armstrong, 1986) are still important adjuncts for enhancing livestock production. Until the early 1980s, metabolic modifiers were limited to relatively small molecules which could be extracted from biological sources or chemically synthesized. Complex macromolecules such as protein or polypeptide hormones were not available. The advent of new techniques of inserting a single gene encoding for a specific protein or polypeptide into bacterial expression vectors has provided an effective method to produce large quantities of these complex molecules. Biologically important proteins such as growth hormone (GH) and the insulin-like growth factors (IGF) have been commercially produced using recombinant DNA methods. The availability of these and other proteins has provided research scientists and clinicians with new tools which may be

used to alleviate disease or enhance animal productivity.

The current review focuses on the effects of the IGF system in regulating animal growth and metabolism. After a relatively cursory coverage of the biochemistry of IGFs and their receptors, the physiological effects of the IGFs *in vivo* are examined in the context of IGFs as mediators of GH action and as local tissue and endocrine growth factors. The second half of the review is devoted to the burgeoning field of IGF binding proteins, their chemistry and their effects on enhancing or inhibiting the actions of IGFs.

The IGF system

Biochemistry of IGF-1 and IGF-2

There are two forms of the IGFs, designated IGF-1 and IGF-2. Both are single chain polypeptides, similar in structure to proinsulin, with an intact c-peptide and three intramolecular disulphide bonds. Human IGF-1 consists of 70 amino acids and has a molecular weight of 7646 Da (Rinderknecht and Humbel, 1978). IGF-1 has a basic isoelectric point (8.5) and lacks the amino acids histidine and tryptophan (Klapper *et al.*, 1983). The amino acid sequences of the IGFs are highly conserved in mammals: bovine and porcine IGF-1 are identical to human IGF-1 (Honegger and Humbel, 1986), while ovine IGF-1 differs only by a substitution of alanine

for proline at residue 66 (Francis *et al.*, 1989a). Human IGF-2 has an acidic isoelectric point (<6.5) and consists of 67 amino acids, with a molecular weight of 7470 Da (Humbel, 1990). Porcine IGF-2 differs from human IGF-2 by only one amino acid, while bovine and ovine IGF-2 differ from the human molecule by three and four amino acids, respectively (Francis *et al.*, 1989b). Avian IGF-1 differs from the human version by eight amino acid substitutions (Ballard *et al.*, 1990) while chicken IGF-2 differs by 12 amino acids (Upton *et al.*, 1995).

IGF receptors

IGF-1 and IGF-2 have distinct plasma membrane glycoprotein receptors (De Meyts *et al.*, 1994). The native type 1 IGF receptor is very similar to the insulin receptor and has a molecular weight of ~450 kDa and is composed of two 130 to 140 kDa alpha subunits and two 90 to 98 kDa beta subunits, linked by disulphide bonds (LeRoith *et al.*, 1995). The alpha subunits contain the extra-cellular ligand binding site and the smaller beta subunits transverse the plasma membrane and contain the cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase activity. These subunits are covalently bound by disulphide bonds into a heterotetrameric structure. Upon ligand activation, the beta subunits of the type 1 receptor are autophosphorylated on tyrosine residues and also catalyse phosphorylation of other cytoplasmic tyrosine-containing protein substrates (Zick *et al.*, 1983). The IRS-1 protein is a major substrate for both the type 1 IGF receptor and the insulin receptor (Myers *et al.*, 1993). Phosphorylated IRS-1 may activate several other intracellular messengers, including phosphoinositol-3'-kinase and other SH-2 domain-containing proteins (reviewed in LeRoith *et al.*, 1995). The IGF-2 receptor is composed of a single glycosylated protein chain, ~250 kDa, which is identical to the mannose-6-phosphate receptor (Kiess *et al.*, 1994). No definitive second messenger for the IGF-2 receptor has been identified and IGF-2 is thought to act through the type 1 IGF receptor (Ballard *et al.*, 1988). Chickens are unique in that the mannose-6-phosphate receptor does not bind IGF-2 (Canfield and Kornfeld, 1989) and the actions of IGF-1 and IGF-2 in chickens are apparently mediated solely by the type 1 IGF and insulin receptors.

IGF as mediator of GH action

While it has long been known that IGF-1 synthesis and secretion is stimulated by GH (Daughaday *et al.*, 1976), this effect has only been confirmed recently in domestic animals. When bovine GH was administered to Dorset/Suffolk crossbred sheep by osmotic pump at 2 or 4 mg/day for 43 days a time- and dose-dependent increase in circulating IGF-1 was observed (McLaughlin *et al.*, 1991). A doubling of IGF-1 serum levels was observed in lambs injected

daily with ovine or bovine growth hormone for 6 weeks (McLaughlin *et al.*, 1993) and twin lambs (22 kg) injected daily with bovine GH for 11 weeks demonstrated an immediate and progressive increase in circulating IGF-1 (Pell, 1989). Although IGF-1 levels were increased proportionately by about 0.6 after the 1st week of treatment, after 10 weeks of GH treatment, serum levels of IGF-1 had tripled. In growing heifers, bovine GH injections (50 µg/kg per day) progressively increased serum levels of IGF-1 over a 6-week period (Lemal *et al.*, 1989) and beef steers demonstrated a dose-dependent increase in IGF-1 concentration when given bovine GH by daily injection (Mosely *et al.*, 1992) or as a slow-release implant (Dalke *et al.*, 1992; Schwarz *et al.*, 1993). Similarly, in pigs, IGF-1 levels increase in response to porcine GH given by daily injection (Owens *et al.*, 1990; Azain *et al.*, 1992) or as a sustained release implant (Azain *et al.*, 1992; Klindt *et al.*, 1992). Thus, the IGF-1 induction by GH in farm animals is similar to that of laboratory animals and humans. Birds appear to be exceptions to the regulation of IGF-1 by GH, as the treatment of young broiler chickens with chicken GH has little or no effect on circulating IGF-1 (Cogburn *et al.*, 1989; Moellers and Cogburn, 1995). Studies with chronic elevated circulating levels of GH in which IGF-1 levels have been progressively increased over time, suggest that the synthesis and secretion of IGF-1 (and its binding proteins) are occurring at a rate which overwhelms clearance mechanisms and leads to a continuous accumulation of systemic IGF-1.

Recently, transgenic animals have been used to examine the GH : IGF axis. Mice which express ovine GH under the control of the zinc-responsive metallothionein promoter have elevated levels of serum GH, increased hepatic GH receptors and elevated serum IGF-1 concentrations (Orain *et al.*, 1991; Mathews *et al.*, 1988b). The elevated growth rates and body sizes of these mice (2x normal) were correlated with IGF-1 concentrations.

Endocrine effects of IGFs

When the IGFs were originally discovered, they were believed to play solely an endocrine rôle, mediating the effects of GH. This hypothesis has been modified to include not only endocrine effects of the IGFs, but also to acknowledge that IGFs have local effects which are independent of the circulatory system. Local, tissue-level actions of IGFs likely complement the systemic actions of IGFs but the problems associated with studying localized effects of IGFs in isolation, especially *in vivo*, make endocrine studies attractive. The validity of such studies is reinforced by a body of data which suggests that circulating IGFs regulate the growth and metabolism of animals.

The pulsatile nature of GH secretion has made it difficult to correlate GH levels to growth characteristics (Davis *et al.*, 1984). On the other hand, serum IGF-1 levels are relatively constant and reflect the GH status of animals. While it is necessary to collect multiple blood samples over a 6 to 8 h time period accurately to assess GH levels, a single blood sample suffices to assess IGF-1 concentrations. Thus, while it is technically challenging to measure GH status and correlate GH to growth parameters, IGF-1 serum concentrations are related to a number of growth characteristics. For example, IGF-1 levels have been correlated to the body weight of dogs (Eigenmann *et al.*, 1988), and with weight and growth rate in pigs (Buonomo *et al.*, 1987), sheep (Roberts *et al.*, 1990) and cattle (Bishop *et al.*, 1989; Davis and Bishop, 1991).

IGFs are involved in animal growth and cell metabolism from early in embryonic development. Transcripts for IGF-1 and -2 and the type 1 IGF receptor have been detected in sheep embryos from the one-cell to the blastocyst stage (Watson *et al.*, 1994). Later in development, foetal mesenchymal tissues produce both IGF-1 and IGF-2. As IGF-2 mRNA is produced more abundantly in the rat foetus than IGF-1 (Rotwein *et al.*, 1987), IGF-2 is considered the more important foetal IGF. Similarly, foetal serum levels of IGF-2 are much greater than IGF-1 in pigs (Lee *et al.*, 1993a), cattle (Holland, 1991) and sheep (Owens *et al.*, 1994). This pattern is reversed in the adult when IGF-1 predominates in the circulation. Postnatal IGF-1 concentrations increase almost four-fold in pigs between days 2 and 40 (Scanen *et al.*, 1987), progressively increase until weaning in calves (Breier *et al.*, 1988) and increase two- to four-fold at 4 to 6 weeks of age in chickens and turkeys (McMurtry *et al.*, 1994).

The observations that circulating levels of IGF-1 correlated with body size and growth rate provided the rationale for its use as an easily accessible marker for livestock selection. Attempts at using IGF-1 as a selection marker in livestock date back 20 years (Lund-Larsen and Bakke, 1975). Preliminary studies in mice showed that IGF-1 levels had a heritability of 0.4 at 35 days of age (Blair *et al.*, 1987) and that selecting mice on the basis of IGF-1 levels increased 6-week weights proportionately by about 0.2 after seven generations (Blair *et al.*, 1988), but did not affect body composition (Siddiqui *et al.*, 1990). Angus cattle selected for high food efficiencies had slightly higher IGF-1 levels than less efficient animals (Bishop *et al.*, 1989). Analysis of IGF-1 levels in Targhee sheep selected for high 120-day weaning weights showed that IGF-1 levels were too variable (CV = 0.36 to 0.50) to be useful as a selection tool (Medrano and Bradford, 1991). This variability is

greatly reduced in cattle which have been selected on the basis of serum IGF-1 levels (Davis *et al.*, 1995), although IGF-1 levels were shown to have a strong non-genetic component, with season, sex and age of calf affecting IGF-1. Male cattle (Davis *et al.*, 1995; Kerr *et al.*, 1991) and lambs (Roberts *et al.*, 1990; Medrano and Bradford, 1991) generally have higher levels of IGF-1 than females. In addition, there is a strong nutritional influence on IGF-1 levels in all animals and IGF-1 increases in response to elevated protein and energy intake (Ellenberger *et al.*, 1989; Bass *et al.*, 1991). Thus, while the circulating levels of IGF-1 are correlated to animal growth in a variety of species, the utility of this parameter for genetic selection and improvement of livestock is still under investigation.

Autocrine/paracrine effects of IGFs

Circulating IGFs are synthesized and secreted primarily by the liver. In addition, several foetal and adult tissues synthesize the IGFs (D'Ercole *et al.*, 1984; Murphy *et al.*, 1987). As outlined in Figure 1, these extrahepatic sources of IGFs are believed to act primarily at the site of their synthesis, on adjacent cells (paracrine action) or on the same cells that produce them (autocrine action). Fibroblasts have been shown to secrete IGF-1 and IGF-2 (Adams *et al.*, 1983) and to respond to exogenous IGFs (Moats-Staats *et al.*, 1993). Skeletal muscle expresses IGF-1 and skeletal muscle IGF-1 mRNA is increased in response to GH injections (Isgaard *et al.*, 1988 and 1989).

Injection of small doses of GH directly into the tibial growth plate of hypophysectomized rats stimulated

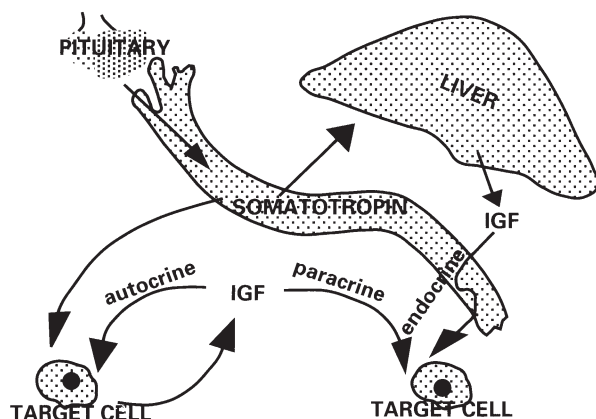


Figure 1 Endocrine, paracrine and autocrine activities of IGF-1, as regulated by growth hormone (from McGuire *et al.*, 1992, with permission). As locally produced factors like proteases, binding proteins and growth factors also regulate IGF-1 release from cells, a systemic and local mode of IGF-1 control has been proposed.

longitudinal bone growth of the treated leg (Isaksson *et al.*, 1982; Russell and Spencer, 1985). Later studies showed that IGF-1 or GH infusions into the rat hindlimb arterial supply also stimulated bone elongation, but the local effects of GH were abolished by the co-infusion of antiserum to IGF-1 (Schlechter *et al.*, 1986). Although circulating IGF-1 levels are usually well correlated to growth status, this is not always true. In rats treated with doses of GH which did not alter circulating serum IGF-1 concentrations, hepatic and renal IGF-1 levels were doubled and trebled, respectively, while body weights and tibial epiphyseal plate widths increased over control animals (Orlowski and Chernausk, 1988). Transgenic mice have been used to show that local concentrations of IGF-1 may be important in regulating muscle growth. When IGF-1 gene expression is limited to skeletal muscle by linking it to an actin promoter, there is a significant induction of muscle hypertrophy without an increase in body weight or serum IGF-1 concentrations (Coleman *et al.*, 1995). The above studies provide strong evidence that locally produced IGF plays an important rôle in the regulation of animal growth.

Effects of IGFs on animal growth and metabolism

Effects of IGF-1 on growth have been demonstrated in hypophysectomized rats, in which IGF-1 stimulates growth in a dose-dependent manner (Schoenle *et al.*, 1982; Guler *et al.*, 1988). More recently, mice transgenic for the IGF-1 gene have been developed. These animals, which over express IGF-1 in most tissues, have circulating IGF-1 which is 1.5 × normal (Mathews *et al.*, 1988a). These mice also demonstrated organomegaly, and growth of spleen, pancreas, kidney and brain were 1.4- to 2.0-fold higher than non-transgenic litter mates. In IGF-1 transgenic mice crossed with GH-deficient dwarf mice, body weight and linear growth was identical to that of normal litter mates (Behringer *et al.*, 1990), suggesting that IGF-1 can mediate all of GH's effects on somatic growth. A significant difference between GH and IGF-1 transgenic mice was that IGF-1 selectively increased brain size, while GH induced growth of the liver (D'Ercole, 1993). In castrated male sheep chronically treated with IGF-1 (150 µg/kg every 8 h for 8 weeks), there were no significant effects on body or carcass weights, long bone growth or wool growth. Although there was an increase in blood glucose and bone density, there were no effects on the fat in the carcass or hind leg (Cottam *et al.*, 1992). Thus, in well fed, pituitary-intact sheep, doubling the circulating levels of IGF-1 did not enhance growth performance.

Continuous osmotic pump infusion of IGF-1 into growing normal or dwarf chickens for 4 weeks had no effect on longitudinal growth but decreased body

fat (Tixier-Boichard *et al.*, 1992). Passive immunization of chickens against IGF-1 did not affect growth, carcass composition or energy efficiency, while immunization against both IGF-1 and IGF-2 decreased body weight and abdominal fat (Spencer *et al.*, 1995). Thus, the IGFs may be more involved with fat metabolism in chickens than with regulation of growth. The latter study suggests an important rôle for IGF-2 in adipose tissue in chickens.

IGF-2 is thought to play a growth-promoting rôle primarily in foetal development, when circulating levels and tissue expression are elevated. This rôle has been directly confirmed in mice in which the IGF-2 gene was selectively disrupted (so-called 'knockout mice'). These mice were apparently normal and fertile, but were proportionately about 0.40 smaller than unaffected litter mates throughout postnatal growth (up to 30 days). This negative effect on growth was evident in 16-day mouse embryos (DeChiara *et al.*, 1990). Recent studies in which normal female rats were continuously infused with IGF-1 or IGF-2 for 14 days showed that both growth factors increased body-weight gain, food efficiency and nitrogen retention, but IGF-1 was two- to three-fold more potent than IGF-2 (Conlon *et al.*, 1995). Mice transgenic for IGF-2 did not exhibit increased body weights or lengths and had organ weights identical to age-matched controls (van Buul-Offers *et al.*, 1995). Only the thymus of transgenic IGF-2 mice was increased in weight. These studies demonstrate that IGF-1 and IGF-2 have direct effects on whole body growth and the similar actions, but lower potency, of IGF-2 suggests that it is acting in a manner similar to IGF-1, probably via the type 1 IGF receptor. A fundamental rôle in foetal growth has been demonstrated for IGF-2, as mice deficient in IGF-2 are proportionately stunted beginning prior to day 16 of embryonic development.

IGFs share structural and biological properties with insulin. Thus, at pharmacological concentrations, insulin interacts with the IGF-1 receptor and has growth-promoting properties in addition to its effects on glucose, lipid and protein metabolism. Likewise, elevated concentrations of IGF-1 can mimic the metabolic effects of insulin by acting through the insulin receptor. Guler *et al.* (1987) showed that intravenous injection of IGF-1 induced rapid hypoglycemia in humans. This effect of IGF-1 has led to its use to control blood glucose in diabetes (Zenobi *et al.*, 1993). In addition, IGF-1 has distinct effects on protein metabolism, and has been shown to stimulate protein synthesis and inhibit protein breakdown in skeletal muscle *in vitro* (Roeder *et al.*, 1988) and *in vivo* (Douglas *et al.*, 1991). This protein-sparing effect of IGF-1 may provide a useful clinical

adjunct for catabolic states such as infection, reduced food intake or premature birth. Indeed, the IGFs may prove to be most useful as clinical adjuncts for specific metabolic disorders rather than as growth promotants.

Insulin-like growth factor binding proteins

Insulin-like growth factors do not act alone in their modulation of growth and metabolism, but are part of a complex system which modulates and mediates the action of these growth factors. As described above, both IGFs interact with two IGF receptors (type 1 and type 2) as well as the insulin receptor. In addition, the activity of the IGFs is regulated not only by GH and other endocrine modulators which enhance or suppress local and systemic IGF levels, but also by the presence of IGF-specific binding proteins (IGFBP). These IGFBPs sequester circulating IGFs, prolong their half-life in the circulation and make the analysis of IGF levels difficult. It has long been evident that the IGF bound to IGFBPs is less active than 'free' (non-bound) IGF. More recently, several research groups have shown that IGFBPs also enhance the activity of the IGFs (see below). The following portion of this review focuses on the mechanisms by which IGFBPs modulate IGF activity and emphasizes that the IGFBPs are essential in regulating the actions of the IGFs.

Characteristics of the IGF binding proteins

Six IGFBPs (IGFBP-1 to 6) have been cloned and characterized in humans and rodents (Ballard *et al.*, 1989). It is presumed that a similar array of IGFBP exists in domestic animals, although they are not yet well characterized. In most species, total IGF levels in serum are greater than 500 µg/l throughout postnatal development. Since this is far above the range necessary to stimulate cell growth, IGF activity is controlled by pathways independent of changes in

circulating IGF levels. Indeed, IGF action is largely influenced by the presence of IGFBPs. This is evident when considering that unbound ('free') IGF in serum and most body fluids is difficult to measure (Frystyk *et al.*, 1994) and may be present only in low quantities (<0.4% of total).

The IGFBPs are similar in overall structure, consisting of 200 to 300 amino acids (see Table 1). The amino acid sequences of both the N and C-terminal thirds of the binding proteins are highly conserved between the IGFBPs and across species (Shimasaki and Ling, 1991). The major variation in amino acid number and composition occurs in the middle third of the proteins, suggesting that specific amino acids necessary for IGF-binding (Huhtala *et al.*, 1986; Brinkman *et al.*, 1991) are probably localized to the conserved end regions. Structurally, all but IGFBP-6 have at least 18 cysteines (conserved in number and spacing) which may be involved in intramolecular disulphide bond formation and ligand binding.

All six of the IGFBPs are found in human or rat serum (Shimasaki *et al.*, 1991; Baxter and Saunders, 1992; Baxter, 1994) forming binary complexes with the IGFs of 30 to 50 kDa. In contrast, IGFBP-3 either binds IGF to form a binary complex or combines with a larger protein, ALS (acid-labile subunit) and IGF to form a ternary complex of 150 kDa (Barreca *et al.*, 1995; Lee and Rechler, 1995). The half-life of 'free' IGFs in serum is approximately 20 min, while the binary and ternary complexes have half-lives of approximately 2 and 6 to 12 h, respectively (Davis *et al.*, 1989; Hodgkinson *et al.*, 1989; Walton *et al.*, 1989; Francis *et al.*, 1990).

IGFBPs as modulators of IGF activity

The IGFBPs have multiple modes of action (endocrine, paracrine, autocrine) and two distinct mechanisms of action (stimulatory or inhibitory). The IGFBPs are expressed in almost all tissues with

Table 1 Physical and biological properties of IGFBPs†

	Size (kDa)	Cysteines (No.)	RGD	Heparin binding site	Glycosylation	Phosphorylation	Ligand preference	Levels (µg/l) in serum	
								Foetal	Adult
IGFBP-1	25.3	18	+	+	–	+	I II	25	12
IGFBP-2	31.4	18	+	+	–	?	I<II	640	180
IGFBP-3	28.7	18	–	+	+	+	I II	1000	3200
IGFBP-4	26.0	20	–	–	+	?	I II	?	450
IGFBP-5	28.6	18	–	+	+	?	I<II	?	?
IGFBP-6	22.8	16	–	+	+	?	I<<II	?	220

† Information is for human proteins; ? unknown; + present; – not present (Information in this table was drawn from Bang *et al.*, 1994; Baxter, 1994; Bach and Rechler, 1995; Honda *et al.*, 1996).

the exception of IGFBP-5 whose expression is very low or absent in the liver (Shimasaki *et al.*, 1991). Soluble IGFBPs largely attenuate IGF activity and those which are cell-associated may either attenuate or enhance IGF activity. An understanding of how these processes are controlled and manifested is essential in determining actions of the IGFs as anabolic agents.

Circulating IGFBPs have two overall functions in the intact animal. First, the IGF-IGFBP complexes establish and maintain a large circulating pool of IGE. The majority of systemic IGFs are bound to the high molecular weight IGFBP-3 trinary complex. This complex does not cross the capillary endothelium and provides a long-lived, stable reservoir of circulating IGFs. In addition to providing a relatively stable circulating form of IGF, the binary IGF-IGFBP complexes likely cross the capillary endothelium and transport bound IGF to target tissues (Bar *et al.*, 1990; Boes *et al.*, 1992).

Inhibitory activity. Soluble IGFBPs bind the IGFs with high affinity, preventing IGF association with cell surface receptors and inhibiting IGF activity in a dose-dependent manner (Ritvos *et al.*, 1988; Gopinath *et al.*, 1989; Lee *et al.*, 1993b) and blunting the metabolic and mitogenic effects of the IGFs (Zapf, 1995). A large molar excess of any soluble IGFBP will

eliminate essentially all of the effects of the IGFs. Inhibition of IGF activity by sequestration by IGFBP was originally thought to be the major rôle of circulating IGFBPs. Such activity was thought to prevent rapid changes in non-bound IGF from causing metabolic effects such as hypoglycemia, which may occur in response to acute pharmacological levels of IGF-1 (Guler *et al.*, 1987). However, rapid fluctuations in serum IGF have not been reported and changes in IGF concentrations are quite slow (Thissen *et al.*, 1994). Thus, under most conditions, flux of IGF through the circulating pool is constant, in equilibrium, and equal to the rate of IGF secretion. Total circulating IGF pool size and flux through the circulating pool only changes during adaptation to stress (Figure 2).

Many cells secrete at least one form of IGFBP. It is assumed from studies *in vitro* that IGFBPs released from cells inhibit IGF activity by preventing receptor binding. This is supported by reports of IGF-1 analogues, with reduced IGFBP binding activity, having greater anabolic activities than IGF-1 (Cascieri and Bayne, 1994), although such studies are relatively short-lived. However, the inhibitory effect of IGFBPs *in vivo* can occur only until a steady pool size is established, a phenomenon which has not been mimicked *in vitro*. Thus, there is no known mechanism by which the IGFBPs can depress IGF activity over long periods of time *in vivo* by preventing type 1 IGF receptor binding. Indeed, transgenic mice which overexpress IGFBP-1 exhibit normal growth patterns (Dai *et al.*, 1994).

Stimulatory activity.

IGFBP-1, 2, 3 and 5 enhance the mitogenic activity of the IGFs *in vitro* (Bourner *et al.*, 1992; Coleman and Etherton, 1994; Zapf, 1995). In contrast, IGFBP-4 exhibits only inhibitory effects, indicating that the forms and relative proportions of IGFBPs present in extracellular fluids may determine the net effect of the IGFs. IGFBP inhibitory activity is related to short-term reduced type 1 IGF receptor binding, whereas stimulating activity may be related to IGF-IGFBP complex association with cell surfaces. IGFBP-1 and IGFBP-2 enhanced the mitogenic activity of IGF-1 in porcine smooth muscle cells (Camacho-Hubner *et al.*, 1991; Bourner *et al.*, 1992), in which treatment with IGFBP-1 and IGF-1 together increased ³H-thymidine incorporation four-fold above IGF-1 alone, whereas IGFBP-2 with IGF-1 was twice as potent as IGF-1 alone. The potentiating activity was related to the ability of the IGFBPs to adhere to cell surfaces and bind ¹²⁵I-IGF-1 (McCusker *et al.*, 1991a; Bourner *et al.*, 1992). IGFBP-1 adheres to cell surfaces better than does IGFBP-2 and is more effective in potentiating IGF effects (Busby *et al.*, 1988). The stimulation of skeletal muscle myoblast

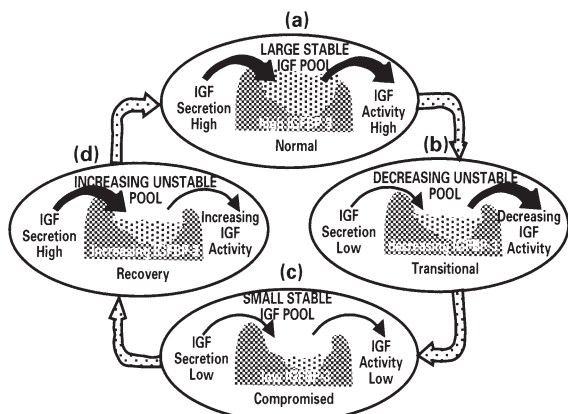


Figure 2 Endocrine activity of the IGFs is a function of secretory rate and pool stability. The endocrine activity of the IGFs is generally considered a function of the rate of secretion, transit time and rate of clearance into tissues. In unstressed conditions, when the IGFBPs (especially IGFBP-3) maintain a large stable pool of circulating IGFs, clearance (tissue availability) is equal to rate of secretion, both being high (a). After adaptation to physiological stress, IGF secretion is generally low but still equal to clearance rate (c). During adaptation to (b) or recovery from (d) stress, pool size is changing and rate of clearance and secretion differ. Only during these transient conditions do the IGFBPs temporarily affect IGF activity by controlling transit into tissues via changes in pool size.

proliferation by IGFBP-1 was proportionately enhanced by 0.35 in the absence of added IGF-1 (McCusker *et al.*, 1989a), suggesting that IGFBPs may potentiate the mitogenic activity of endogenously secreted IGFs. The ability of IGFBP-5 to potentiate osteoblast mitogenesis (Andress and Birnbaum, 1992; Andress *et al.*, 1993) and the correlation between IGFBP-5 synthesis and myoblast proliferation (McCusker and Clemmons, 1988), suggests that the IGFBPs have potential to increase muscle and bone growth.

Thus, the effects of the IGFBPs depend not only upon the concentration and relative proportions of IGFBPs in extracellular fluids, but on the relative distribution of IGFBPs between extracellular fluids and cell surfaces. Distinct yet undefined mechanisms permit expression of the proper form of IGFBP under the proper physiological condition to either depress or enhance IGF-mediated growth.

Mechanisms of IGFBP action

Recent information indicates that there are several mechanisms by which the IGFBPs associate with cells and either enhance type 1 IGF receptor-mediated signalling or cause a type 1 IGF receptor-independent signalling event. IGFBP-1 and IGFBP-2 have the amino acid sequence arginine-glycine-asparagine (RGD) near their carboxy termini (Shimasaki and Ling, 1991). This sequence is involved in ligand recognition by integrin receptors and is involved in IGFBP-1 binding to cultured cells (Jones *et al.*, 1993c). Cells transfected with IGFBP-1 migrate more rapidly (Jones and Clemmons, 1995), an effect mediated by the $\alpha 5 \beta 1$ integrin receptor (Jones *et al.*, 1993a; Irving and Lala, 1995). The rôle of the integrin receptor in potentiating IGF-stimulated mitosis and the requirement of IGF-1 for IGFBP-1 stimulation of mitosis is undefined.

Although IGFBP-3 and IGFBP-5 are also found in association with cultured cells, they do not contain the RGD sequence. IGFBP-5 associates with the extracellular matrix (ECM) of cells (Jones *et al.*, 1993b) and IGFBP-3 can associate with cells via interactions with cell membrane glycosaminoglycans (Martin and Baxter, 1993; Hodgkinson *et al.*, 1994). Cell-associated IGFBP-3 (McCusker *et al.*, 1990; Conover, 1992) and IGFBP-5 have a markedly reduced affinity for the IGFs. An IGFBP-3 fragment with low ligand binding affinity potentiated IGF-1 activity, whereas intact high affinity IGFBP-3 depressed IGF-1 activity (Schmid *et al.*, 1991). Similarly, IGFBP-5 associated with collagen or ECM had a lower affinity for IGF-1 than soluble IGFBP-5, and potentiated IGF's mitogenic activity (Jones *et al.*, 1993a). Finally, carboxy-truncated IGFBP-5 with

decreased ligand affinity also potentiated IGF activity (Andress *et al.*, 1993). This affinity-shift phenomenon permits two potentiating events to occur. First, by binding to cell membranes or the pericellular ECM, the high affinity IGF-IGFBP complex is delivered to the target cell. Secondly, the reduced binding affinity allows IGF to dissociate and increase type 1 IGF receptor activation. This phenomenon does not appear to involve any direct interaction between IGFBPs and the type 1 IGF receptor and is distinct from integrin-mediated signalling.

Regulation of IGFBP activity by phosphorylation or glycosylation

Recently it has been demonstrated that post-translational modifications of IGFBPs may affect biological activity. Naturally occurring IGFBP-1 was found to be phosphorylated on serine residues (Frost and Tseng, 1991; Jones *et al.*, 1991 and 1993a). The affinity for IGF-1 of phosphorylated IGFBP-1 is four- to six-fold higher than that of non-phosphorylated IGFBP-1 (Jones *et al.*, 1991; Koistinen *et al.*, 1993). IGF-1 induced wound healing was enhanced by the lower affinity non-phosphorylated recombinant IGFBP-1, but not by the high affinity phosphorylated IGFBP-1 (Jyung *et al.*, 1994). However, a mixture of high affinity phosphorylated IGFBP-1 isoforms potentiated the mitogenic activity of IGF-1 (Koistinen *et al.*, 1993). However, phosphorylated IGFBP-1 isoforms may potentiate IGF activity in cells which can remove phosphate groups, although this has not been studied. As IGFBP-1 is believed not to be dephosphorylated by cells which secrete it (Frost and Tseng, 1991; Jones *et al.*, 1991), these cells would not secrete IGFBP-1 to enhance their own growth, but would secrete IGFBP-1 to affect other tissues, acting primarily as a systemic factor. IGFBP-3 is also phosphorylated (Hoeck and Mukku, 1994) although a rôle in controlling its activity has not been established. Point-mutations of the two major phosphorylated serines did not affect IGFBP-3 affinity for IGF-1. To date, phosphorylated forms of IGFBP-2, 4, 5, and 6 have not been reported. Binding proteins 3 to 6 are glycosylated (Shimasaki and Ling, 1991), but this does not appear to affect ligand binding or activity *in vitro* (Conover, 1991).

Proteolysis and the IGF-IGFBP system

As discussed above, one of the original functions proposed for the IGFBPs was to prevent IGF degradation. Ironically, it appears that the IGFs may instead control IGFBP degradation. IGFBP-5 levels in conditioned medium of several cell types is increased by the addition of the IGFs. This effect is independent of the type 1 IGF receptor (Clemmons *et al.*, 1990; Camacho-Hubner *et al.*, 1992) and was shown to be due to IGF protection of IGFBP-5 from

degradation (Kanzaki *et al.*, 1994). Soluble IGFBP-5 appears to be rapidly degraded in the absence of IGFs, whereas IGFBP-5 within the ECM remains intact (Jones *et al.*, 1993b). Hence, newly secreted IGFs may bind ECM-associated intact IGFBP-5 but unsaturated intact IGFBP-5 is not present in extracellular fluids to inhibit IGF activity. This localization of IGF to the ECM-associated IGFBP-5 may have an autocrine potentiating effect. In contrast to the effect on IGFBP-5, IGF binding enhances the proteolysis of IGFBP-4 *in vitro* (Kanzaki *et al.*, 1994; Conover *et al.*, 1995a; Irwin *et al.*, 1995). Growth of cells which secrete an IGFBP-4 protease is not inhibited by IGFBP-4 (Conover *et al.*, 1995a). This may provide a mechanism to target IGF activity, as cells with the protease could release IGF for an anabolic effect.

IGFBP-3 proteolysis has been extensively studied. Partially degraded, 'nicked', IGFBP-3 is present in serum and has a reduced affinity for IGF. IGFBP-3 is degraded by several cell types *in vitro* (Fowlkes *et al.*, 1994; Conover *et al.*, 1995b; Tonner *et al.*, 1995) and an IGFBP-3 specific protease is found in serum (Guidice, 1995). Nicked IGFBP-3 can form the 150 KDa complex with ALS in serum (Lee and Rechler, 1995) and is thus still involved in IGF transport. Cells or tissues with the ability to nick IGFBP-3 may release some of the bound IGFs as a means to control IGF activity. This may be especially true during gestation or trauma when IGFBP-3 protease activity is elevated in serum (Baxter, 1994). A similar proteolysis of IGFBP-2 in serum occurs during food deprivation (McCusker *et al.*, 1991b).

Foetal v. postnatal IGFBPs

Human foetal serum levels of IGFBP-1 and -2 are at least two-fold higher than adult values (Table 1). Conversely, IGFBP-3 concentration is about 30% of adult levels. Thus, in the foetus, there is an abundance of low molecular weight IGFBPs which are developmentally regulated. Similarly, levels of foetal IGFBP-2 are high and increase throughout foetal development in sheep (Gallaher *et al.*, 1995) and pigs (McCusker *et al.*, 1989b and 1991b). It should be noted that IGFBP-2 preferentially binds IGF-2 (Baxter, 1994), which is thought to be an important regulator of foetal growth. IGFBP-1 levels rise until mid-gestation human foetuses (Lee *et al.*, 1993b) and throughout gestation in pigs (McCusker *et al.*, 1991b). Postnatally, serum levels of IGFBP-3 increase and levels of IGFBP-1 and -2 decline (Owens, 1991). This coincides with the increased sensitivity to GH which stimulates IGFBP-3 production and insulin, which inhibits IGFBP-1 (Lee *et al.*, 1993b). In the adult, IGFBP-3 is the predominant IGF carrier, binding proportionately more than 0.8 of systemic IGF.

Phosphorylation of IGFBPs during foetal development may also alter the actions of IGFs. In non-pregnant human adults, most IGFBP-1 is highly phosphorylated (Frost *et al.*, 1994; Westwood *et al.*, 1994). During pregnancy, IGFBP-1 is primarily in the non-phosphorylated form in serum, decidua and amniotic fluid (Koistinen *et al.*, 1993), while foetal serum contains a mix of non-phosphorylated and partially phosphorylated IGFBP-1 (Jones *et al.*, 1991). Thus, as discussed above, different forms of IGFBP-1 exist in different physiological states and may be important in regulating IGF activity. The predominance of the low affinity non-phosphorylated IGFBP-1 during early pregnancy and foetal growth may enhance the actions of IGF during embryonic and foetal development.

IGFBPs and compromised growth

The long-term regulation of IGFBP levels in serum after birth can be summarized by two statements. When growth is compromised one of two (or both) events occurs: (1) IGFBP-1/IGFBP-2 levels increase and/or IGFBP-3 levels decrease; (2) ALS levels decrease and IGFBP-3 forms binary complexes with the IGFs. Simply, the IGFBP serum profile returns to that found in the foetus. This is true for minor stresses such as changes in dietary protein levels and major physiological stresses such as pregnancy, starvation/fasting, infection, diabetes, hypercortisosteroidism, hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism (McCusker and Clemmons, 1992; Lee *et al.*, 1993a). There are marked differences in the degree of change among these conditions and these statements are a simplification of a complex regulatory process. However they do indicate a general theme on how the body responds to a variety of conditions which depress growth.

These changes lead to IGFBP proportions which may accelerate IGF uptake by vital organs such as the heart (Bar *et al.*, 1990). This may shift the anabolic effects of the IGFs away from non-vital tissues, such as skeletal muscle. The stress-related changes in IGFBP profile decrease the circulating half-life of the IGFs and thus release circulating IGFs into target tissues (Figure 2). This short-term response temporarily helps to maintain the anabolic state. This response is adequate only until the IGF reserve is depleted, and then IGF activity is determined by the (attenuated) rate of IGF secretion (Figure 2). Therefore, growth is maintained at a low level due to the depressed rate of IGF secretion until the stress is removed.

Several aspects of IGF and IGFBP physiology discussed here warrant considerable interest, especially relative to domestic animal production. The most interesting aspect is the potential to target

and control IGF activity (Figure 3). Although only limited information is available, targeting may be performed by multiple means: using IGFBPs that transport IGFs to specific tissues, using IGFBPs that transport IGFs to specific cells within a tissue, regulating IGF activity via IGFBP degradation by specific cell types, regulation of IGFBP activity by post-translational modifications, and targeting activity via specific IGFBP cell surface receptors. For example, selection of animals with increased ability for muscle IGFBP-4 degradation or IGFBP-1 dephosphorylation may lead to increased growth performance or greater muscle mass relative to total

body weight. These and many other possibilities are yet to be explored.

Farm animal production and the IGF system

The purpose of this review was to examine the IGF/IGFBP system and its potential relative to production and domestic animals. The literature suggests that serum levels of both IGFs and IGFBPs change markedly with differing growth rate, age and state of nutrition. There is a large expanding list of references showing a positive correlation between IGF (especially IGF-1) levels and performance and a small but building literature on the relationship between IGFBP expression and growth. The possible efficacy of IGF administration as a systemic growth promotant is exciting although prematurely justified. Further work is needed using domestic animals as models for such studies. This group of growth factors may prove to be useful therapeutic agents during times of animal stress such as disease. In addition, there are still many aspects of the system that are not well understood and may be exploited relative to animal agriculture. Particularly promising is the possibility of agents (or IGF itself) which would enhance local IGF activity for the regulation of specific tissue metabolism, e.g. enhanced muscle growth. There are several means yet unexploited to target IGF activity which warrant future research (Figure 3), in particular the regulation of IGFBP activity by post-translational modifications. After years of study we still know very little about this system. This probably relates to the complexity of the system and the still unknown interactions between all of the components.

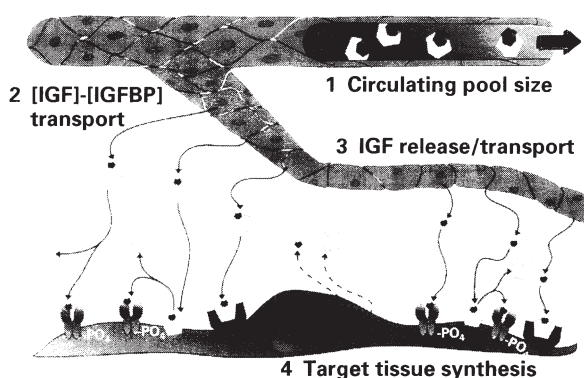


Figure 3 Sites for possible intervention in the IGF/IGFBP pathway for the augmentation of animal production. (1) The majority of IGFs in the circulation are part of an [IGF]-[IGFBP-3]-[ALS] ternary complex. Systemic intervention as a method of growth enhancement and/or metabolic regulation is currently being exploited in both animal and human trials. (2) IGFs may leave the circulation as binary [IGF]-[IGFBP] complexes making it possible to target IGF activity via tissue-specific uptake. Although a strong candidate for partitioning of tissue growth, exploitation of this pathway awaits further characterization of the system. Once outside the circulation, the binary complex may dissociate or bind intact to cell glycosaminoglycans or ECM. Dissociation results in 'free' IGF for type 1 receptor activation whereas [IGF]-[IGFBP] complexes form a reservoir of IGFs in the pericellular environment. Enhanced IGFBP de-phosphorylation, proteolysis, de-glycosylation or cell-association increase the dissociation of the [IGF]-[IGFBP] complex, increasing 'free' IGF. Control of these processes is currently being investigated as a means to enhance IGF activity. Regulation of possible IGFBP receptor signalling may provide another means of growth regulation. (3) IGFs may leave the circulation 'free' of the IGFBPs. The 'free' IGFs could directly activate the type 1 IGF receptor or bind to IGFBPs at the cell surface forming an IGF reservoir. Controlling the amount of 'free' IGF in the circulation to alter IGF activity has yet to be explored. (4) as an alternative to step 1, the IGFs and IGFBPs are secreted by 'target' or vicinal cells resulting in autocrine/paracrine effects. Targeted over-expression of IGF/IGFBP activity as a means of growth regulation is as yet unexplored in agriculture.

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