

# Insulin-Like Growth Factor I Therapy for Diabetes Mellitus?

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Insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I) is now produced by recombinant DNA technology, and the number of studies of its possible clinical applications is growing rapidly. Among these studies are trials using IGF-I in cases where insulin action is severely compromised, and the results presented so far are promising. For example, previously published case reports provide descriptions of diabetic patients with extreme insulin resistance in whom significant improvement in metabolic control was achieved during administration of IGF-I (1,2). More importantly, IGF-I has been shown to improve metabolic control in type II diabetic patients (3). These intriguing results raise the question of which differences between insulin and IGF-I action make the use of exogenous IGF-I the better choice for diabetes therapy, and which do not. These important issues are the major focus of this commentary.

First, we discuss data on the metabolic effects of IGF-I in normal and diabetic animals *in vivo*. Finally, we present known metabolic effects of IGF-I administration in humans and share our concerns that IGF-I therapy may be hazardous.

## METABOLIC EFFECTS OF IGF-I IN NORMAL AND DIABETIC ANIMALS

— In both awake (4) and anesthetized normal rats (5), IGF-I exerts a hypoglycemic effect with a potency ~50 times smaller than that of insulin. The same difference in potency between insulin and IGF-I on glucose disposal was observed in experiments using the euglycemic clamp technique (5). Equivalent hypoglycemic doses of insulin and IGF-I, however, produced a similar disposition of glucose in muscle glycogen and lipids in adipose tissue (5). These data suggested that IGF-I effects were mediated via insulin receptors (5). On the other hand, in normal rats (4) and depancreatized dogs (6) given doses of insulin and IGF-I that were equivalent in their glucose disposal effects, IGF-I was shown to produce smaller effects on adipose tissue lipolysis and hepatic glucose production than insulin. In addition, in the rat, IGF-I was more selective than insulin in stimulating glycogen synthesis in the liver and in skeletal and heart muscle (4), suggesting that IGF-I had no stimulatory effect on oxidative glucose disposal. Because only a single dose of IGF-I and insulin was used by

both groups of investigators (4,6), no conclusions regarding the effect of dose specificity on the observed phenomena could be drawn.

In another study, the effects of IGF-I administration in 90% partially pancreatectomized rats was compared with sham-operated control rats (7). In the control rats, infusions of IGF-I in doses ~30 times higher than insulin produced an equal effect in total body glucose disposal during euglycemic clamping. When the same protocol was used in partially pancreatectomized rats, insulin-mediated glucose disposal was reduced, whereas IGF-I-mediated glucose disposal was similar to that in the control rats (7). In control rats, no additive effect of the two hormones was observed, whereas in the pancreatectomized rats, IGF-I coinfused with insulin restored glucose utilization to normal (7). Similarly, in the diabetic BB rat (model of type I diabetes), the metabolic actions of insulin, but not IGF-I, were reduced (8). In another model of insulin resistance, obese Zucker rats, IGF-I could not overcome this defect (9). Resistance to the hypoglycemic action of IGF-I was also observed in obese mice (10,11).

Both obese Zucker rats and mice are hyperinsulinemic, but in the partially pancreatectomized and diabetic BB rats, endogenous insulin levels are reduced. Insulin produces significant changes in the insulin-like growth factor binding proteins (IGFBPs). The expression of IGFBP-1 and IGFBP-2 has been shown to be markedly increased in liver and kidney in rats with diabetes induced by the selective destruction of pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells by streptozotocin (12,13). Furthermore, in diabetic animals, the expression of a protein corresponding in mass to IGFBP-3 is reduced in the liver (12). This change in binding proteins (increased BP-1 and BP-2, reduced BP-3) might well augment the hypoglycemic action of IGF-I. At present, it is safer, however, to speculate that a postreceptor defect in insulin action is located in a signal path-

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IGF-I, insulin-like growth factor I; type II diabetes, non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus; type I, insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus; IGFBP, insulin-like growth factor binding protein.

way common to insulin and IGF-I in hyperinsulinemic rats and mice, but not in insulinopenic diabetic rats and dogs.

### **METABOLIC EFFECTS OF IGF-I IN HUMANS**

**Bolus intravenous injections of 13.3 nmol (100  $\mu\text{g}$ )/kg IGF-I or 1 nmol (0.15 IU)/kg insulin produce nearly identical hypoglycemic responses in humans (14). Both hormones produce depression of fatty acids to the same low levels, but this depression lasted significantly longer after insulin than after IGF-I injection. A profound and prolonged hypoglycemic effect of 75  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  IGF-I by intravenous bolus was also observed in patients with Laron-type dwarfism (15). Fasting hypoglycemia was produced during an 11-day long, constant, subcutaneous infusion of 16–24  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  IGF-I in a 9-year-old Laron dwarf (16). In contrast, a subcutaneous infusion of either 7 or 14  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  IGF-I, begun 24 h before and continued during oral glucose and meal tolerance tests in normal adult volunteer subjects, did not change fasting plasma glucose or glucose tolerance. Similar glycemic profiles, however, were achieved at significantly lower insulin and C-peptide levels during IGF-I infusions. IGF-I significantly depressed levels of growth hormone. The authors conclude that IGF-I administration may improve insulin sensitivity (17) by suppression of insulin and growth hormone secretion. It has to be stressed, however, that their conclusion of enhanced insulin sensitivity after IGF-I administration is only speculative, because no data were presented indicating improvement in insulin action that could be clearly distinguished from the summation of hypoglycemic effects of IGF-I and insulin. In this context, note that in Laron dwarfs, the reduction in insulin levels during administration of IGF-I was associated with postprandial hyperglycemia, probably because of reduced insulin secretory response (16).**

IGF-I infusions (range 5–30

$\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ) in the setting where glucose concentrations were clamped within the normal fasting range caused, in a dose-response manner, a reduction in the levels of insulin, fatty acids, triglycerides,  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, leucine, and increased exogenous glucose consumption (18). IGF-I also had a sparing effect on protein catabolism as determined by the rates of leucine turnover and oxidation (18). These investigators concluded that IGF-I had metabolic effects qualitatively similar to insulin (18). These findings are in agreement with the results of another report documenting that, in the setting of primed (20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  bolus) constant (24  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ) infusion of IGF-I and euglycemic clamping, IGF-I behaves as exogenous insulin (i.e., decreases C-peptide levels, inhibits hepatic glucose production, stimulates peripheral glucose uptake, inhibits lipolysis and protein catabolism [19]). Like insulin, it also stimulates oxidation of glucose and fatty acids. The authors conclude that the close similarity in IGF-I and insulin actions indicate that IGF-I acts via the insulin receptor, or else that the metabolic effects mediated by activation of the IGF receptor occur through a similar cascade of intercellular events (19). Moreover, it has been noted that exogenous IGF-I not only reduces plasma levels of insulin and C-peptide, but also depresses, although less potently, the levels of glucagon, probably because of the direct inhibitory effect of IGF-I on pancreatic A-cells and B-cells (18,19).

Although less potent than insulin, IGF-I can produce hypoglycemia, an effect that limits the application of IGF-I to reverse catabolic state or stimulate linear growth (20). The hypoglycemia induced by a bolus intravenous injection of IGF-I produces similar counterregulatory responses of glucagon, growth hormone, cortisol, and catecholamines during insulin-induced hypoglycemia (14). During hypoglycemia induced by primed constant infusions of IGF-I, the responses of glucagon and growth hormone were suppressed, the response of

cortisol was normal, and catecholamines were elevated when compared with hormonal counterregulation during hypoglycemia of an identical rate of fall and nadir as that induced by primed constant insulin infusion (21). After IGF-I administration, glucose recovery was more sluggish than after insulin because of failure of endogenous glucose production to rise (21). When infusions of IGF-I and insulin were stopped, the insulin levels returned promptly to baseline values and IGF-I levels remained elevated. In the setting of hypoglycemic clamp studies performed with primed constant IGF-I infusion, a suppression of glucagon response only was observed, whereas other counterregulatory hormones responded in a manner similar to that observed during hypoglycemic hyperinsulinemic clamps (21).

The results of studies in nondiabetic humans demonstrate that some of the metabolic effects of IGF-I are different than expected from studies *in vitro* and *in vivo* in experimental animals. In this respect, IGF-I in humans seems to have a more profound effect on both endogenous glucose production and fatty acid levels, indicating significant action on the liver and adipose tissue. In humans, IGF-I may also stimulate glucose oxidation. That these effects are mediated via insulin receptors is a plausible explanation, but this may not be entirely correct. Clearly, more studies are needed to substantiate the role of IGF-I receptors in the liver, and the consequences of depressed insulin, glucagon, and growth hormone levels on the rate of hepatic glucose production and on lipolysis in adipose tissue. In spite of these unresolved questions, the results of studies in nondiabetic individuals may justify trials of IGF-I in clinical situations where profound insulin resistance cannot be overcome by insulin. In this respect, IGF-I has been shown to have a glucose-lowering effect in patients with the type A syndrome of insulin resistance (1). The syndrome, encountered in women, is characterized by acanthosis nigricans,

virilization, and extreme insulin resistance attributable to a structurally defective insulin receptor (22), whereas the IGF type I receptor appears intact. IGF-I, in two 100 µg/kg boluses, produced a slow (>6 h) hypoglycemic response with nadirs of 3.2–5.5 mM and a decrease in the markedly elevated insulin and C-peptide levels. In these patients, IGF-I, probably acting via its own receptors, was able to overcome the insulin receptor-associated defect in insulin action (1). One case report (2) documents an individual with a severe form of insulin resistance and frequent episodes of total unresponsiveness to intravenously administered insulin in doses as large as 3,000 U/h. In this patient, substitution of large doses (100–500 µg boluses) of IGF-I for insulin produced a prompt normalization of serum glucose that lasted as long as the total IGF-I concentration in the serum was >1,100 µg (0.14 µM). The authors conclude that the described effects of IGF-I were probably mediated via an IGF receptor signaling pathway that bypasses the insulin receptor defect (2).

In one report, Zenobi et al. (3) examined the metabolic effects of IGF-I in type II diabetic patients. IGF-I was administered subcutaneously in two daily 120 µg/kg injections for 5 consecutive days. The treatment significantly reduced the hyperglycemic response to mixed meals and decreased fasting and postprandial insulin and C-peptide levels. A decrease in growth hormone and total triglycerides also was noted. Interestingly, these effects persisted for 3 days after IGF-I administration was stopped. Based on these findings, the authors conclude that IGF-I administration improves insulin sensitivity and lipid metabolism in type II diabetes (3). Once again, however, the supposition that improvement in insulin sensitivity follows IGF-I administration (this would imply a potentialization of insulin action by IGF-I not just a summation of separate hypoglycemic effects of insulin and IGF-I) has not been sufficiently documented. Hypertri-

lyceridemia is associated with insulin resistance and is commonly present in poorly controlled, type II diabetic patients (23–25). A number of studies have shown that sensible insulin therapy in type II diabetes not only significantly improves glycemic control and insulin action but also reduces hypertriglyceridemia (23–25). Because this latter goal can be achieved by IGF-I as well, without raising but actually lowering insulin levels, the question arises whether IGF-I represents a better option in this regard.

**CONCLUSIONS**— Published data support the notion that IGF-I may, in selected cases, be an important adjunct to diabetes therapy. In the majority of diabetic patients, however, the standard therapeutic approaches (i.e., diet, exercise, insulin, and oral hypoglycemic agents) will normally suffice. IGF-I may be the therapy of choice in those rare situations where lack of effectiveness of exogenous insulin is attributable to non-functional or deficient insulin receptors. Based on published data, we may predict that here short-term IGF-I administration will result in significant metabolic improvement and even be life-saving. However, the safety and efficacy of the long-term substitution of IGF-I for insulin in such cases is unknown and difficult to predict. Such therapeutic decisions should always be weighed against the potential risks. IGF-I stimulates cell growth, but unfortunately, this stimulation does not discriminate between normal and tumor cells (26). In fact, growth of certain neoplasms is apparently IGF-I dependent (27). In this context, the notion that “IGF-I may prove to be a safe growth factor, since it is a ‘differentiation’ factor as well” (28) may not be entirely correct. IGF-I also stimulates the growth of arterial smooth muscle cells, one of the fundamental components of atherogenesis (29). In addition, IGF-I administration was associated with increase in kidney size as well as with rise in renal

blood flow and glomerular filtration rate in normal human volunteers (30). In spite of the rise in glomerular filtration rate and renal hypertrophy after IGF-I administration, microalbuminuria does not develop in normal subjects (30). The same functional and morphological changes, however, if present in diabetes, are associated with microalbuminuria and progressing diabetic renal disease (31). IGF-I has been shown to bind to and increase glomerular mesangial cell proliferation (32,33); this expansion of mesangium is one of the most consistently observed structural changes in the diabetic kidney (34). Thus the question of whether or not IGF-I accelerates the progression of diabetic nephropathy is still open.

Moreover, published data suggest that serum IGF-I levels are increased in certain diabetic patients with proliferative retinopathy (35–37). IGF-I also has been shown to stimulate the proliferation of vascular endothelial cells in vitro (29,38). This process may stimulate both the healing of intimal lesions (i.e., beneficial effect) and the proliferation of microvessels (i.e., adverse effect) (38). Thus, the possibility remains that IGF-I administration may aggravate the progression of proliferative retinopathy.

In summary, a multitude of published reports suggests that IGF-I may be an interesting adjunct to diabetes therapy and, in some metabolic emergencies, may even be the drug of choice. More data are, however, needed to draw specific practical recommendations for long-term IGF-I use, so that its benefits clearly outweigh its risks. A satisfactory answer to the question of whether IGF-I is a friend when insulin fails remains a blank spot in our knowledge.

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