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Growth hormone and insulin-like growth factors in fish: Where we are and where to go

Minireview

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Abstract

This communication summarizes viewpoints, discussion, perspectives, and questions, put forward at a workshop on "Growth hormone and insulin-like growth factors in fish" held on September 7th, 2004, at the 5th International Symposium on Fish Endocrinology in Castellón, Spain.

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1. Growth hormone

Growth hormone (GH) is a pluripotent hormone produced by the pituitary gland in teleosts as in other vertebrates. GH brings about its action by binding to a single pass-transmembrane receptor, the GH receptor (GHR), in target tissue. Ligand binding induces receptor dimerization producing an active trimeric complex (for review, see Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2002). GH has been sequenced and/or the protein isolated from scores of teleosts, various immunoassays established, and a number of GHtransgenic fish strains established. Over the last two decades, many aspects of GH physiology have been the subject of intense research in fish such as the salmonids, cyprinids, and sparids. In fish, GH participates in almost

* Corresponding author. Fax: +41 1 635 57 02. E-mail address: reinecke@anatom.unizh.ch (M. Reinecke). all major physiological processes in the body including the regulation of ionic and osmotic balance, lipid, protein, and carbohydrate metabolism, skeletal and soft tissue growth, reproduction and immune function. Recent studies have indicated that GH affects several aspects of behaviour, including appetite, foraging behaviour, aggression, and predator avoidance, which in turn has ecological consequences (for reviews, see Björnsson, 1997; Björnsson et al., 2004; Pérez-Sanchez, 2000; Peter and Marchant, 1995).

Despite the vast body of knowledge which exists documenting GH action in teleost fish, the mode of GH action remains a major discussion topic (for review, see Björnsson et al., 2004). Generalized claims have been made that most/all GH effects are indirect, based on an outdated mammalian view where the pituitary/hepatic GH/IGF-I system was seen as an "axis" with IGF-I mediating the physiological action of GH (for review, see Björnsson et al., 2004; Butler and Le Roith, 2001).

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The wide tissue distribution of IGF-I producing cells (Reinecke et al., 1997) and IGF-I receptors (IGF-1R) (Radaelli et al., 2003a), together with the extensive tissue distribution of GH-receptors (Pérez-Sánchez et al., 2002) makes it a truly challenging task to provide unequivocal data on how GH mediates its actions at the cellular level. In this context, the cloning of the teleostean GH-receptors has been a major break-through. Since 2001 when the GHR was first cloned in goldfish (Lee et al., 2001) and turbot (Calduch-Giner et al., 2001), it has been cloned in a rapidly growing number of teleost species, 15 at the latest count. This promises to accelerate research into the mode of action of GH at the cellular level. Such research into the temporal and spatial distribution of the receptor, receptor sub-types and intracellular signaling pathways will hopefully help explain how the pluripotent actions of GH are mediated, but at the moment, very little is known about the signaling mechanisms of the various forms of fish GH-Rs. Further fields of research would include aspects such as hormone-receptor interaction, receptor-mediated turn-over of the hormone affecting the GH clearance rate, as well as the likely dual role of the receptor molecule to also act as a GH-binding protein in plasma.

2. Insulin-like growth factor I

During the last decade, most studies of IGF-I in fish have focused on identification of the fish IGF, developing assays to measure blood or tissue levels of the IGF-I peptide or mRNA, measuring changes in IGF-I in blood and tissue IGF-I expression in response to varying nutritional conditions and season, and assessing control of IGF-I production by growth hormone (see above) and other endocrine factors, such thyroid hormone (Schmid et al., 2003) or estrogen (Riley et al., 2004). Results of these studies have shown that IGF-I structure, regulation, and function appear similar in fish and mammals (for review, see: Reinecke and Collet, 1998). In many fish species, blood levels of IGF-I or tissue levels of its mRNA positively correlate with dietary ration, dietary protein content, and body growth rate (Beckman et al., 2004; Duan, 1998; Pérez-Sánchez et al., 1995). IGF-I increases in blood during the growing season in temperate fishes showing seasonal growth (Mingarro et al., 2002), and is stimulated by increased temperature (Beckman et al., 1998) and day length (McCormick et al., 2000). Furthermore, treatment of fish with IGF-I implants stimulates growth (McCormick et al., 1992). IGF-I in fish has been associated not only with growth, but also with metabolism (Castillo et al., 2004), development (Greene and Chen, 1999b; Pozios et al., 2001), reproduction (Maestro et al., 1997; Weber and Sullivan, 2000), and osmoregulation in seawater (McCormick, 2001). IGF-I exerts its effects on cells through binding to

the IGF-I receptor (IGF-1R), which binds IGF-II in a similar manner in zebrafish (Mendez et al., 2001; Pozios et al., 2001) but not so well in rainbow trout (Loir and Le Gac, 1994).

The wide range of tissue distribution of the IGF-I hormone and the IGF-1R in fish, coupled with the varied functions associated with IGF-I, make fish attractive subjects for future study. Unique functions of IGF-I in fish, such as its role in osmoregulation, raise intriguing questions regarding its action on gills and whether intracellular signaling pathways resemble those involved in mitogenesis. Does IGF-I have an osmoregulatory role in all fish species, or only anadromous or euryhaline species? The relative importance of local vs systemic production of IGF-I, still controversial in mammalian endocrinology, has not been directly addressed in fish species.

Interestingly, fish muscle has a substantially greater abundance of IGF-1R than insulin receptors (IR) (Parrizas et al., 1995). This indicates that IGF-I contributes more to the regulation of muscle function than insulin in trout, in contrast to the situation in mammals. Both zebrafish and salmonid fish have at least two forms of the IGF-I receptor: IGF-1Ra and IGF-1Rb (e.g., Chan et al., 1997; Greene and Chen, 1999a). During zebrafish development, the levels of IGF-1Ra and IGF-1Rb show different patterns of expression (Maures et al., 2002). Furthermore, IGF-1R increases with differentiation of cultured trout muscle cells (Castillo et al., 2002). Fasting of trout increases IGF-1Ra, and refeeding causes a decline in IGF-1Ra, but no change in IGF-1Rb (Chauvigne et al., 2003). In addition to nutrition, environmental factors as temperature affect tissue IGF-1R (Gabillard et al., 2003). More work on IGF receptor regulation in other fish species is needed. What neuroendocrine factors are responsible for the environmental regulation of the IGF-1R? An interesting, yet unresolved, question is whether multiple forms of IGF-1R in salmonids and zebrafish are associated with different functions. Are multiple isoforms of the IGF-1R a primitive vertebrate condition, or are they associated with the genome duplication that has apparently occurred during early teleost evolution?

A critical element in studies of specific actions of IGF and their receptors is the role of IGF binding proteins (IGFBP). The zebrafish genome contains sequences homologous to human IGFBP-1 (Maures and Duan, 2002), IGFBP-2 (Duan et al., 1999), IGFBP-3 (Chen et al., 2004), and IGFBP-5 (Ding, J., Duan, C., unpublished, GenBank Accession #AY100478), and studies of various fish species have shown IFGFBP levels in blood fluctuate in anabolic and catabolic states (for review, see Kelley et al., 2001). It is well known in mammals that IGFBPs influence IGF function by targeting IGF delivery to specific tissues and enhancing or inhibiting IGF effects. Although over 99% of total circulating IGF-I are bound to IGFBPs in salmonids (Shimizu et al., 1999), little work has been done on how IGFBPs regulate IGF function in fish. At present, we don't know whether IGFBPs exert any direct effects on cells, as the mammalian IGFBPs 3 and 5 probably do? Recent work by Duan and colleagues (unpublished) have shown that IGFBP knockdown in zebrafish has profound effects on development. More work on the role of fish IGFBPs is crucial to a full understanding of IGF function in specific tissues.

In summary, IGF-I function in fish is controlled variously by regulation of IGF-I production, IGF receptor function, signaling pathways and cross-talk, and modulation by systemic and local production of IGFBPs. A full understanding of IGF-I function in fish requires more work in all of these areas, in a variety of physiological processes, such as growth, metabolism, reproduction, osmoregulation, and in fish species with various life history and ecological types. The diversity of fish species and habitats, their ancient phylogeny, and their economic and cultural importance will undoubtedly make them useful targets for further exploration of IGF function.

3. Insulin-like growth factor II

In bony fish, not only IGF-I mRNA, but also IGF-II mRNA have been detected both in liver and in numerous other organs, such as brain, eye, gills, heart, gastrointestinal tract, pancreatic islets, kidney, skeletal muscle, spleen, and male and female gonads (e.g., Ayson et al., 2002; Caelers et al., 2004; Vong et al., 2003). The widespread presence of the IGF-II gene in both juvenile and adult fish as shown by RT-PCR contrasts the situation in mammals (for review, see Reinecke and Collet, 1998). Unfortunately, in contrast to IGF-I the precise localization of the IGF-II peptide and/or mRNA in extrahepatic sites has been analyzed only in few studies (Caelers et al., 2003; Radaelli et al., 2003b; Schmid et al., 1999). Knowledge on the cellular production sites of a hormone, however, gives first hints to its potential functions. Thus, we need more information about the organ-specific cells which synthesize IGF-II.

Previously, the IGF type 2 receptor was found only in mammals and it was generally believed to be absent from non-mammalian vertebrates (for review, see Reinecke and Collet, 1998). The presence of an IGF type 2 receptor has been indicated for trout larvae at five weeks postfertilization (Mendez et al., 2001). However, further research on the role of this molecule in fish larvae and adults is needed. As a first step, attempts must be taken to clone the IGF-II receptor.

It has been shown that IGF-II regulates metabolism in trout muscle cells (Codina et al., 2004), indicating that IGF-II, like IGF-I, could act not only as a growth factor but also as a metabolic hormone. Although preliminary evidence indicates that IGF-II and IGF-I potently activate cell proliferation and DNA synthesis in zebrafish embryonic cells via mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3 kinase) (Pozios et al., 2001) we are far from understanding the intracellular signaling pathways by which the IGFs exert their effects on the different target cells, and future research should develop this interesting field.

As outlined above, to date four different fish IGFBPs have been cloned, sequenced and shown to be well conserved with their mammalian counterparts. A peculiar mammalian IGFBP is IGFBP-6 that in contrast to the other IGFBPs has a markedly higher affinity for IGF-II than for IGF-I and likely serves as potent inhibitor of IGF-II actions (Headley et al., 2004). However, whether a fish analogon to IGFBP-6 is present also in fish is a matter of future research.

There is evidence that in bony fish both the IGF-I gene and IGF-II gene are controlled by GH (Shamblott et al., 1995; Tse et al., 2002; Vong et al., 2003) in all organs. This makes bony fish quite unique because in other vertebrate classes, GH most likely regulates only the expression of the IGF-I gene (for review, see Reinecke and Collet, 1998). Whether the above results indicate a particular impact of IGF-II in fish remains to be clarified. Thus, an important topic to deal with in future is the determination of IGF-II plasma levels in different fish species, as has recently been done in Atlantic salmon and rainbow trout (Gentil et al., 1996; Wilkinson et al., 2004). Subsequently, the potential changes in circulating IGF-II during development or under different physiological conditions, including nutritional status, smoltification, and temperature, and varying GH levels should be investigated and correlated to alterations in the expression of the IGF-II gene. Otherwise, the "hormone" IGF-II may be left as enigmatic as it has been since its detection some 30 years ago.

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