

THYMULIN : BIOCHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICAL APPLICATIONS

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Thymulin is a pharmacologically active metallononapeptide inducing the differentiation of T cells and enhancing several functions of the various T cell subsets in normal or partially thymus-deficient recipients. Its effect on suppressor T cells is, so far, the most remarkable and should be the first to find useful clinical applications. The peptide is a natural hormone, available in synthetic form. It is not toxic and one may foresee its clinical use as one of the major immunoregulatory agents in the near future.

The thymus produces a number of polypeptides. Several of them are pharmacologically active on lymphoid cells and have been considered as putative thymic hormones (Bach, 1983; Goldstein et al., 1987).

One should, in fact, be more restrictive and reserve the name of thymic hormones to substances that have been fully characterized chemically and biologically and whose secretion by the thymus shows the features of a true hormone. In other words, one should only consider as a thymic hormone chemically purified substances (preferably sequenced and synthesized in case of peptides), exclusively secreted by the thymic epithelium and acting upon lymphoid cells after binding to specific receptors. Only three peptides fulfill all these conditions: Thymopoietin (Goldstein et al., 1987), Thymosin α 1 (Goldstein et al., 1983), and thymulin, formerly called facteur thymique sérique (FTS), matter of this review (Bach, 1983). Importantly, a number of arguments indicate that these peptides represent major (although not necessarily exclusive) signals playing a crucial role in intrathymic T cell differentiation.

From the pharmacological view point, thymic hormones can be considered as promising potential immunomodulating agents. By their diversified actions on T cells, they can stimulate the various T cell subset functions. This multiplicity of action may be beneficial since it widens their potential therapeutic indications but, conversely, may pose a difficult problem when the action on suppressor T cells opposes that on helper or effector T cells. The immunopharmacology of thymulin will be discussed in terms of in vitro and in vivo effects (in experimental animals and in humans), kinetics and toxicity. We shall also present the preliminary clinical trials in rheumatoid arthritis.

BIOCHEMISTRY

A. Chemical analysis – Thymulin is a metallononapeptide coupled to zinc with the following amino acid sequence: P-Glu-Ala-Lys-Ser-Gln-Gly-Gly-Ser-Asn (Bach et al., 1977).

Recent data using immunoblotting analysis with anti thymulin monoclonal antibodies indicate that the hormone is produced in the epithelial cells as a pro-hormone of higher molecular weight (Savino et al., 1985). DNA recombinant studies in progress will reveal the amino acid sequence of the said precursor.

The amino acid sequence has been established on porcine serum derived hormone (Dardenne et al., 1977). Amino acid analysis of the peptide present in calf thymic extract (Dardenne et al., 1980) and human plasma shows an identical amino acid composition. Thus, likely the amino acid sequence is identical in mice, calves and humans.

B. Synthesis – Zinc dependency – The peptide has been synthesized by a number of laboratories using either solid phase or liquid phase synthesis (Bricas et al., 1977; Strachan et al., 1979; Lefrancier et al., 1984). The synthetic material shows identical activity the natural hormone, provided zinc is added in adequate amounts (mole to mole ratio) (Dardenne et al., 1982). The absence of optimal zinc complementation may lead to less active or inactive preparations as may be those in which the metal is that commonly in the synthesis reagents without deliberate concentration adjustment. Optimal zinc binding needs previous peptide passage on a chelating agent, probably to remove other metals which could occupy the zinc binding site. Zinc-thymulin relationship has been determined by several biochemical and physical studies. The binding is stoichiometric

and is optimal at pH 7. Its affinity, studied by equilibrium chromatography, is 10^{-7} M. Lastly, nuclear magnetic resonance studies have shown that zinc induces a tetrahedric conformation with direct binding to Asn and the two Ser residues (Laussac et al., 1985). It is interesting to note that the two peptide conformations, the zinc coupled biologically active one and the zinc-free inactive one, show distinct antigenic determinants which can be distinguished by monoclonal antibodies (Dardenne et al., 1985).

C. Structure-function relationships – The active site of the molecule has been studied by the functional analysis of more than 50 hormone analogs synthesized by E. Bricas and collaborators (Blanot et al., 1979; Martinez et al., 1980). The first two N-terminal residues (p-Glu and Ala) are not necessary for the biological activity but the second one Ala contributes to it since the heptapeptide only shows partial biological activity. Receptor studies to be described below indicate that the receptor binding site comprises residues 5-7, and that the triggering site, necessary for the biological activity, includes residues 8-9. It is interesting that some biologically inactive analogs, notably those bearing amino acid substitutions on the C-terminal residues bind to the receptor but show antagonistic effect, as assessed in the rosette assay (Pléau et al., 1979). Note also that long-lived analogs have been synthesized but that these compounds have not been submitted to extensive pharmacological evaluation since the original peptide is fully active in vivo when coupled to zinc; zinc coupling simultaneously induces the biologically active conformation and increases the life span of the peptide (Dardenne et al., 1982).

PHYSIOLOGY

A. Secretion – Thymulin is physiologically produced by the thymic epithelium. This is its exclusive origin since thymectomy induces the complete disappearance of the hormone from the circulation (Bach & Dardenne, 1973) and monoclonal antibodies produced against the hormone selectively bind to the thymic epithelium and not to other tissues (Savino et al., 1982). This is a remarkable feature of thymulin since other putative thymic hormones, such as thymosins, are produced by other organs. Thymulin production by the thymus gland is submitted to a fine feed-back regulation, as illustrated by the increase of the number of thymulin-containing cells in the thymus

in vivo after peripheral depletion of the hormone induced by passive or active immunization (Savino et al., 1983) or by in vitro culture of thymic explants free of the in vivo inhibitory signals (Cohen et al., 1986). This in vitro system has indicated that the inhibitory signal might be the hormone itself since thymulin addition to the culture decreases the number of detectable thymulin-containing cells (Cohen et al., 1986).

B. Age-dependency – Thymulin synthesis declines with age and no more hormone is detected in the circulation after the age of 6 months in mice (Bach & Dardenne, 1973) and 60 years in humans (Bach et al., 1972). The hormone synthesis is stimulated by thyroid hormones (Savino et al., 1984) steroids (Savino et al., in press), and unexpectedly cyclosporine (Dardenne et al., 1987). It is depressed, but only at very high doses, by corticosteroid.

IMMUNOPHARMACOLOGY

A. In vitro effects – We first described in 1971 that thymic extracts were able to induce T cell markers in vitro in immature lymphoid cells that were deprived of such markers (Bach et al., 1971). The assay that was initially used was based on the induction of the sensitivity to inhibition by anti-Thy-1 serum and azathioprine of rosette formation with sheep erythrocytes by a minor subpopulation of bone marrow cells from normal mice or of spleen cells from adult thymectomized mice. Ultimately, these data were confirmed by using monoclonal anti-Thy-1 antibodies and cytofluorograph cell analysis. Thymulin has been shown to induce most T cell markers, both in mice and humans (Incefy et al., 1980; Abiko et al., 1979; Bene et al., 1982) (Table 1). It is not yet clear, however, whether the peptide induces de novo synthesis of the antigen (gene activation) or enhances its expression (membrane rearrangement). The effects on Rosette Forming Cells (RFC) are particularly interesting since they involve a unique minor T cell subset (Lyt 1⁻, L3T4⁻, Lyt2⁺) expressing antigen-specific T cell receptors (our unpublished observations). Thymulin does not modulate the expression of the receptor itself but that of molecules associated with the receptor itself (such as the Lyt 2 antigen). It should be made clear, however, that these in vitro effects do not suffice to assess the differentiating capacities of the hormone since a number of other materials, notably those in-

TABLE I
Effects of thymulin on membrane markers

	In vitro	In vivo
<i>Sheep erythrocyte rosettes</i>		
Mouse		
Sensitivity to azathioprine, anti-Try-1 and xenogenic antilymphocyte antibodies	Normal bone marrow cells Adult thymectomized or nude mice	Adult thymectomized mice
Number of thymus rosette-forming cells	Normal mice (thymus)	Normal mice (thymus)
Human		
Total E rosettes	Immunodeficiency PBL ^a and bone marrow cells	Immunodeficiency diseases
Active E rosettes	Uraemic patients	
Theophylline-treated E rosettes	Normal PBL	
<i>Autologous rosette forming cells</i>		
Mouse		
	Adult thymectomized and nude mice	Adult thymectomized mice Normal mice (thymus)
Human		
	Normal PBL	
<i>Differentiation antigens</i>		
Mouse		
Thy-1	BSA-separated normal mouse spleen cells	Nude mice
Lyt 1,2,3	Adult thymectomized mice	
Human		
Xenogeneic antisera-defined antigens OKT-and Leu-defined antigens	Normal bone marrow cells Ataxia telangiectasia	Immunodeficiency diseases
<i>Other receptors</i>		
PNA binding (decrease) FC γ -binding T cells	Normal bone marrow cells Lupus patients	

aPBL: peripheral blood lymphocytes

creasing intra-cellular cyclic AMP levels, induce non specifically the same effects.

B. In vivo effects – Thymulin has also been shown to induce meaningful in vivo effects on various T cell functions (Table II). As already mentioned above, this diversity of action may represent a difficulty in assessing the hormone properties since cells with opposed functions (namely helper and suppressor) may be simultaneously stimulated. It is also important to stress that the effect varies with the recipient, the function tested and the dosage. Adult thymectomized mice are the most sensitive to the effect of the hormone. After in vivo treatment with small amounts of the peptide (1-100 ng), they recover a normal differentiation antigen phenotype (Dardenne et al., 1980), lose their increased expression of self receptor for autologous red cells (Charreire & Bach, 1975), normalize their decreased capacity to proliferative response in the presence of PHA (Kaiserlian &

Dardenne, 1982) or to generate cytotoxic T cells (Bach, 1977). Similarly, NZB mice which, like adult thymectomized mice, show a premature decline of thymulin production (Bach et al., 1973), are highly sensitive to in vivo treatment with the hormone which decrease the abnormally high production of antibodies against polyvinylpyrrolidone (Bach & Niaudet, 1976) or autoantibodies (e.g. anti-erythrocytic) (Israel-Biet et al., 1983). Less clear results are obtained in totally T cell-deprived nude mice, which only recover expression of differentiation alloantigens without function. In normal mice with normal thymulin production the only effect noted deals with suppressor T cells whose function can be exacerbated after injection of relatively high doses of the peptide (1-10 μ g) (Kaiserlian et al., 1981). In particular, one may depress delayed type hypersensitivity reactions to sheep red blood cells or dinitrofluorobenzene (Erard et al., 1979), antibody production against

TABLE II
Effects of thymulin on T cell functions

<i>Proliferation</i>	
PHA-induced	Mouse, mice Tx at three weeks Rat, ATx rats Human, immunodeficiencies
Autologous mixed lymphocyte reaction (lupus)	
<i>Cytotoxicity and delayed hypersensitivity</i>	
Allogeneic cytotoxicity	ATx mice
Anti-TNP cytotoxicity	Normal thymocytes
Graft-Versus-Host reaction	Normal mice
Rejection of MSV-induced sarcoma (low dose)	B mice
Stimulation of delayed-type hypersensitivity	ATx mice
<i>Helper T cells</i>	
Antibody production (SRBC)	Ageing mice
Induction of IgA (and IgE)	Ataxia telangiectasia and variable immunodeficiency
Production of interleukin-2	Normal thymocytes and nude mouse spleen cells
Increase in anti-DNA IgG autoantibodies	Young B/W mice (females)
<i>Suppressor T cells</i>	
Retardation of skin allograft rejection	Normal mice
Depression of antibody production	
SRBC	Normal mice
PVP	NZB mice
DNA	B/W mice (males)
Depression of T cell mediated cytotoxicity	Normal mice
Depression of delayed-type hypersensitivity	Normal mice
Stimulation of Con A-induced suppression	Lupus patients Normal subjects.

sheep red blood cells, or generation of cytotoxic T cells against allogeneic target cells (Bach, 1977).

Finally, these data suggest that thymulin may influence the whole T cell lineage from the pre-cells, as present in nude mice, to the mature T cells found in normal mice including both helper and suppressor subsets. All these cells probably express thymulin receptors whose stimulation may lead to increased or even de novo expression of surface antigens and eventually, but not necessarily, functional differentiation. The whole maturation process probably needs the simultaneous effect of other signals, notably presentation of major histocompatibility complex products. Note also that mature T cell only express some function sensitivity at relatively high pharmacological doses of the hormone, with a preferential effect on the suppressor subset.

C. Cellular mode of action – thymulin binds to specific receptors whose presence has been demonstrated on T cell derived lymphoblastoid lines (Pléau et al., 1980; Gastinel et al., 1982). Such receptors present two sites of high (10^{-9}

M) and low (10^{-7} M) affinity. Receptor binding is inhibited by thymulin agonists and antagonists but shows no reactivity with inactive analogues. Interestingly, the zinc -deprived hormone binds to the receptor (and behaves as an antagonist) but lacks the triggering site (Pléau et al., 1979). Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) could represent the second messenger since thymulin induces in vitro PGE₂ synthesis both in mouse thymocytes (Rinaldi-Garaci et al., 1985) and in human peripheral blood lymphocytes (Gualde et al., 1982). In addition, PGE₂ mimicks some of thymulin properties, notably its action on RFC (Bach & Bach, 1973) and indomethacin, an inhibitor of prostaglandin synthetase, blocks the capacity of Thymulin to induce T cell markers in immature T cell (Bach & Charreire, 1979). One cannot exclude, however, that cyclic AMP is not the biologically significant second messenger since PGE₂ stimulates cyclic AMP synthesis by lymphoid cells and cAMP also mimicks the effects of thymulin on its target cells and even synergizes with it (Bach & Bach, 1973).

PHARMACOKINETICS AND TOXICITY

The *pharmacokinetics* of thymulin have been studied in detail by use of the rosette assay which permits quantitative evaluation of circulating thymulin levels. The half-life of the zinc coupled peptide is of the order of 30 min. Several long-lived analogues have been synthesized but these analogues have not yet been used clinically since the native compound can successfully induce T cell functions on its own, when injected once daily or once every other day. Pharmacokinetic studies have indicated that the stoichiometric ratio 1:1 of the zinc peptide was optimal for in vivo peak and half life (Dardenne et al., 1982). The problem of kinetics is complicated by the existence of several molecules behaving like *carriers* and/or inhibitors. The presence of carriers in mouse and human serum is indicated by the biological activity of serum fractions (separated by G-25 Sephadex chromatography) at molecular weight elution close to that of albumin (Dardenne et al., 1980). This activity is not due to an intrinsic property of albumin, prealbumin or a similar molecule, as was once thought (Burton et al., 1978), since the activity of the albumin fraction is not seen in thymectomized mouse and can be induced in those mice injecting synthetic thymulin.

There are also thymulin *inhibitors* which are at least partly distinct from carriers. Some of these inhibitors seem to act on the same targets as thymulin without direct interaction with the peptide since they can readily be separated from thymulin by mere filtration on an Amicon membrane. Their thymus-dependency is suggested by their absence in thymectomized mice. They could be 1/ large or small molecular weight thymulin inactive analogues (precursors or split products); 2/ protein bound thymulin or 3/ any substance produced by the thymus or under its influence. Other inhibitors are probably anti-thymulin autoantibodies as demonstrated in autoimmune (NZB x NZW) F_1 and db/db mice (Dardenne et al., 1984). The presence of all these carriers and inhibitors probably influences the evaluation of circulating thymulin level. They might also explain, in addition to the zinc dependency of the hormone antigenicity, the difficulties met in establishing a satisfactory radioimmunoassay (the only assay presently available using rabbit anti-thymulin serum (Pléau et al., 1977) does not detect the circulating hormone).

Combining immunopharmacological and pharmacokinetics data, we have proposed to use thymulin at *two dose ranges* according to the desired effect. In mice, helper and effector T cells are stimulated by doses of 1-100 ng and suppressor T cells at doses of 1-10 μ g (Kaiserlian et al., 1981). In human, the two equivalent dose ranges are 50-500 μ g (helper/effector T cells) and 1-10mg (suppressor T cells). More work is necessary, however, to document further such dose choice.

The *toxicology* of thymulin has been studied in several species. No signs of toxicity were found whatever with doses higher than 100 times those just mentioned above, for treatment periods ranging from 1 to weeks.

PRELIMINARY CLINICAL TRIALS

The clinical use of thymulin is based on several elements. The existence of a definite thymic deficiency represents the best argument especially when it is substantiated by a reduced circulating thymulin level. This is the case of the Di George syndrome (Iwata et al., 1981) or of ataxia-telangectasia (Bordigoni et al., 1982) and to a lesser degree, of some forms of systemic lupus (Bach, 1983). In other settings, there may not be any obvious thymic deficiency but the hormone has been shown to possess potentially useful pharmacological properties. It is interesting, in that regard, that thymulin improves some parameters of the autoimmune disease of NZB and (NZB x NZW) F_1 mice (Bach, 1983; Israel-Biet et al., 1983) and prevents the onset of experimental allergic encephalomyelitis in the guinea pig (Nagai et al., 1982) and experimental allergic thyroiditis in the mouse (Tomazic & Elias, 1985).

Two main clinical indications have been the matter of preliminary clinical trials. Immunodeficient children with Di George syndrome, ataxiatelangectasia and common variable immunodeficiency have been treated successfully with thymulin at low dosage (50-250 μ g) (Bordigoni et al., 1982). A significant effect was observed both on immunological parameters and clinical symptoms. Patients with rheumatoid arthritis have also been treated with thymulin at higher doses (1 to 10mg/day) for long periods of time (up to 6 months). Two open trials and two randomized trials were performed (Amor et al., 1984; 1987). A significant improvement was observed at higher doses (notably 5 mg) in the double blind randomized

trial on several parameters such as grip strength, morning stiffness, pain and overall subjective appreciation of the patient. Interestingly, this effect was not clearly associated with an improvement of the immunological abnormalities often noted in these patients, nor with a clear reduction of inflammatory signs (Amor et al., 1987). Note that, as other immunostimulants, tymulin was inactive in AIDS when given at the late stage of the disease.

Other indications could be envisioned in the near future. As effector T cell stimulant, thymulin could be tried in recurrent herpes and fungal infections (preliminary data in mice and humans were encouraging). As suppressor T cell stimulant, it could be used in systemic lupus. Sjögren's syndrome (which is dramatically improved in the mouse) (Bach et al., 1979) and other autoimmune diseases such as type I diabetes (in a second stage, once the disease has been stopped by immunosuppression) or in atopic diseases (asthma or atypic dermatitis).

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