

Neuroendocrine Modulation Of The Immune System

Possible Implications for Inflammatory Bowel Disease

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Evidence for neuroendocrine regulation of the immune system is reviewed. This includes human clinical studies of the influence of psychological stress on immune function, direct experimentation in animals, including classical Pavlovian conditioning of the immune response, modulation of immune function in vitro by chemical messengers such as neuropeptides, the finding of receptors for neuropeptides on immunocytes, and the demonstration that lymphoid tissue is directly innervated. Secretory products of the immune system, which include interleukins and neuropeptides, may also influence the neuroendocrine system. Communication between the two systems is therefore bidirectional. The potential importance of the neuropeptide-immunocyte interaction within the intestinal mucosal immune system is emphasized, and its possible relevance in inflammatory disorders is discussed. This aspect of the "gut-brain" interaction deserves further study.

KEYWORDS: neuroendocrine; psychoneuroimmunology; neuropeptides; immune system; inflammatory bowel disease; lymphocyte; receptor.

The primary function of the immune system is to distinguish self from nonself and to facilitate the elimination of material which is foreign to the host. Malfunction of this homeostatic process creates the potential for self-destruction (autoimmune disease) and/or opportunistic tumors or infection. Therefore, a fundamental feature of the immune system is its exquisitely precise regulation. Immunoregula-

tory mechanisms operate on several levels. Those that have received most attention include: genetic influences, helper/suppressor and contrasuppressor circuits, idiotype-antiidiotype networks, antibody feedback, and regulatory factors (cytokines). However, such mechanisms are autoregulatory. Intuitively, it seems unlikely that the immune system differs from other homeostatic systems by operating entirely in an autonomous fashion within self-contained circuits and feedback loops. Rather, one might expect that it would be subject to additional and more integrative regulatory signals on a different level from the central nervous system.

The notion that immunological reactions and putative immunologically mediated diseases might be influenced by the nervous system is not new. However, recent studies have considerably advanced our understanding of the interaction between the immune sys-

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Supported by the Harbor/UCLA Inflammatory Bowel Disease NIH Center grant AM 36200 and the Blinder Crohn's Disease Research Foundation. Dr. Shanahan is a recipient of a career development award from the National Foundation for Ileitis and Colitis.

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tem and the nervous system. Evidence for a reciprocal or bidirectional communication between the two systems is rapidly emerging. This should influence our approach to the study of the intestinal mucosal immune system and may have particular relevance to inflammatory bowel disease.

Our purpose here is to summarize briefly and overview the evidence for neuroimmunological interactions and to highlight certain concepts of potential significance for mucosal immunopathology. The references are intended to be representative, not comprehensive, and include several excellent reviews that may be consulted for an extended list of references on specific aspects of this field.

EVIDENCE FOR NEUROIMMUNOREGULATION

The evidence for neuroimmunomodulation has been unfolding on several levels. These include: (1) clinical studies in which some form of psychological stress is correlated with alterations in immunological function; (2) direct experimental evidence from animal studies such as the effects of graded stress, specific brain lesions, and classical Pavlovian conditioning on the immune system; (3) the analysis of immunocyte function *in vitro* under the influence of chemical messengers which have traditionally been considered to be neurotransmitters or neuroendocrine peptides; (4) the finding of surface receptors for neuropeptides; and (5) the demonstration that lymphoid tissue is directly innervated.

Human Clinical Studies. Clinicians have long suspected that psychological factors may influence the course of several diseases including those which are thought to be immunologically mediated. The medical literature is sprinkled with interesting reports and fascinating observations on the role of psychosomatic phenomena and the influence of stress on immunocompetence and disease susceptibility (1-4). Examples include the inhibition of the delayed hypersensitivity response to tuberculin in the Mantoux test by direct suggestion under hypnosis (5) and the delayed recovery from influenza in depressed patients compared with controls (6).

Several recent, carefully controlled, prospective studies have demonstrated that a variety of stressful circumstances, including bereavement (7, 8), depression (9-11), marital disruption (10), and the preexamination torment experienced by medical students (12, 13), are associated with significant alterations in immune function. Such studies, although

exciting, should be interpreted with caution (11, 14). They do not prove a direct causal link between stress and the observed immunological alteration. Compounding factors such as alterations in diet, drug therapy, and disturbed sleep patterns might influence the results (14). In addition, the immunological parameters studied have generally been crude assessments of immunocompetence (lymphocyte enumeration, lymphocyte blastogenesis, natural killer activity, and nonspecific immunoglobulin levels), have wide ranges of normality, and are of uncertain significance in regards to disease susceptibility.

Animal Studies—Direct Experimentation. Animal studies have been helpful in measuring the influence of stress on the immune response. As early as 1878, Pasteur observed an increased susceptibility to anthrax in chickens stressed by cold water immersion (15). Controlled experiments using graded, stressful stimuli indicate that immune suppression or enhancement may occur, depending on the nature and strength of the stimulus and the duration of exposure. In these experiments, increasing intensity of electrical shock was proportional to the consequent immunosuppression (16), and short-term exposure to noise was suppressive, whereas chronic exposure resulted in immunoenhancement (17). The mechanisms of stress-induced immune alteration are multiple and complex (9, 18) and are not solely related to the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, as evidenced by control experiments with adrenalectomized animals (19).

That classical Pavlovian behavioral conditioning may modify the immune response was extensively illustrated by multiple investigators in the Russian literature (4). In the same way as Pavlov showed that gastrointestinal and salivary secretions could be behaviorally conditioned, other investigators, over 50 years ago, began to apply the same approach to the immune system. In a typical experiment, guinea pigs would receive repeated peritoneal injections of bacterial filtrate, each of which would stimulate an immune response with peritoneal exudation. Each injection would be paired with an unrelated stimulus such as skin scratching. After a rest period, scratching alone produced similar peritoneal exudates (4). More recently, Ader (4) and Ader and Cohen (20) have clearly shown that behavioral conditioning programs can be used to achieve humoral and cellular immunosuppression. The magnitude of the conditioning effect, although not large, is consistent, and others have confirmed these results (21, 22). In addition to immunosup-

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pression, behavioral conditioning can also be used to bring about enhancement of immune reactivity (23). Thus, animals can "learn" to suppress or enhance their immune response. The potential clinical importance of these experiments is underlined by the demonstration that immunosuppression produced by conditioning can modify the course of autoimmune disease, as in murine lupus (24).

A more direct approach to the study of the neuroendocrine-immunocyte axis has been the examination of immunological function in animals with chemical or electrolytic lesions in specific areas of the brain such as the anterior hypothalamus and limbic nuclei (25-28). Suppression or enhancement of certain immunological parameters may be observed depending on the site of the lesion (27).

MEDIATORS OF NEUROIMMUNOMODULATION

The mechanism by which the neuroendocrine system communicates with the immune system is the same as with the other systems: delivery of chemical messengers to end-organ receptors. The route by which these mediators reach their target cell (neurocrine, paracrine, or endocrine) varies depending on the mediator, the immune effector cell, and the tissue location of that cell. Although circulating leukocytes have been used in most hu-

man studies because of their accessibility, these cells are probably best suited for studies of endocrine-mediated immunomodulation. Neurocrine control may be more important within certain tissues and lymphoid structures. The anatomic basis for this is the convincing demonstration of peptidergic and noradrenergic innervation of mast cells and lymphoid tissues, including the mucosal associated tissue (29, 30). These nerve terminals are associated with lymphocytes and are not simply influencing the vasculature of lymphoid tissue. In addition, APUD (amine precursor uptake and decarboxylation) cells within lymphoid tissue (31) may exert a paracrine influence.

A large variety of mediators has been implicated in the immunomodulatory effects of the neuroendocrine system. The broad-spectrum effects of steroid hormones and catecholamines on the immune system are well known (32-37) and alterations in the levels of these agents have been reported in stress and depression (34, 37, 38). However, the focus of recent research has been on the growing list of peptides that may have more specific effects on immune function. Table 1 is a representative list of peptides which have been shown to influence various immune effector cells *in vitro*. A multitude of effects have been observed and include alterations in immunoglobulin production, lymphocyte mitogenesis, nonspecific cytotoxicity, mast cell-basophil secretion, chemotaxis,

TABLE 1. FUNCTIONAL EFFECTS OF NEUROPEPTIDES ON IMMUNOCYTES

Mediator	Immune cell	Effects	Reference
Substance P	T cell	enhanced proliferation	39
	B cell	enhanced IgA production	40
	monocyte	increased chemotaxis	41
	neutrophil	lysozyme release	42
	neutrophil	increased phagocytosis	43
	mast cell	secretion	44, 45
VIP	T cell	inhibition of proliferation	46
	T cell	altered migration	47
	T cell	increased cyclic AMP	48
	NK cell	increased cytotoxicity	49
	B cell	increased IgM, decreased IgA	40
	mast cell	secretion	44, 45
Somatostatin	lymphocyte	decreased proliferation	40
	lymphocyte	decreased IgA	40
	mast cell	secretion	44, 45
	basophil	inhibition of release	50
β -Endorphin	T cell	altered mitogenesis	51, 52
	NK cell	increased cytotoxicity	53
	mast cell	secretion	44, 45
Enkephalin	B cell	decreased Ig	54
	NK cell	increased cytotoxicity	53
ACTH	B cell	decreased Ig	54
	Growth hormone	T cell	induces cytotoxicity

phagocytosis, neutrophil lysosomal release, and lymphocyte homing. In certain instances, there is evidence from radiolabeled peptide binding studies which suggests that these effects are receptor mediated (Table 2). In some cases these receptors appear to be similar, if not identical, to those found in the neuroendocrine system (59).

TISSUE-DEPENDENT DIFFERENCES IN THE NEUROPEPTIDE-IMMUNE AXIS

Neuroendocrine immune regulation is likely to have its greatest biological significance in the intestine and within other mucosal tissues. Many of the *in vitro* functional studies were performed using circulating leukocytes; immunocytes resident within mucosal tissues, which are exposed to relatively high concentrations of neuropeptides (64, 65) and possibly functionally active dietary peptides (66), may exhibit different patterns of responsiveness.

The mucosal and systemic immune systems, although complementary with respect to host defense, are largely independent of each other. Mucosal effector cells have been shown repeatedly to differ functionally and phenotypically from their counterparts within the systemic immune system (67). Therefore, differences in neuroendocrine regulation would not be surprising. In the rat, a wide variety of neuropeptides including somatostatin, substance P, VIP, neurotensin, and endorphins are known to induce mast cell secretion at nonmucosal sites, but only substance P has secretagogue effects on mucosal mast cells (44, 68). In addition, there is indirect evidence that somatostatin may be inhibitory to mucosal mast cells (69).

Another example of the differential effect of neuropeptides on mucosal and systemic immune events is the recent demonstration that the effects of VIP, somatostatin, and substance P on immunoglobulin production *in vitro* are not only isotype- and peptide-specific but also tissue-specific (40). The most pronounced effects are noted in the mucosal associated lymphoid tissues.

Neuropeptides may also influence the migration and homing patterns of immune effector cells (70). This is directly relevant to mucosal immune cell traffic. Elegant studies by Ottaway (47) have shown that VIP alters the migration of T cells through mucosal associated lymphoid tissue. Preincubation of radiolabeled mouse T cells *in vitro* with VIP resulted in a dose-dependent reduction in their subsequent *in vivo* localization within Peyer's patches and mesenteric lymph nodes but not within the spleen and other major organs.

INFLUENCE OF IMMUNE SYSTEM ON NEUROENDOCRINE SYSTEM

It has become clear in recent years that communication between the neuroendocrine system and the immune system is bidirectional (Figure 1). Thus, the immune system not only receives regulatory signals from the central nervous system, but it also appears to be capable of providing information to the central nervous system. Three lines of evidence support this concept. First, immune responses in rats have been associated with increased neural firing detected by electrodes implanted in the medial hypothalamus (71, 72). Immune challenge in these animals elicited a reduction in the synthesis and content of noradrenaline within the hypothala-

TABLE 2. NEUROPEPTIDE RECEPTORS ON IMMUNE CELLS

Mediator	Immune cell	Dissociation constant	Reference
Substance P	T cell	0.18 μ M	56
	lymphoblast (IM-9)	0.65 nM	57
	monocyte	20 nM	58
VIP	T cell	5 nM	46
	T cell	0.47 nM	59
	lymphoblast (Molt 4)	7 nM	59
	monocyte	0.25 nM, 25 nM	60
Neurotensin	macrophage	0.9 nM, 28 nM	61
Somatostatin	lymphocyte	0.5 μ M	62
	monocyte	0.5 μ M	62
β -Endorphin	lymphocyte	0.5 nM	51
Enkephalin	lymphocyte	0.59 nM	54
ACTH	lymphocyte	0.1 nM, 4.8 nM	54
Growth hormone	lymphocyte	1.3 nM	63

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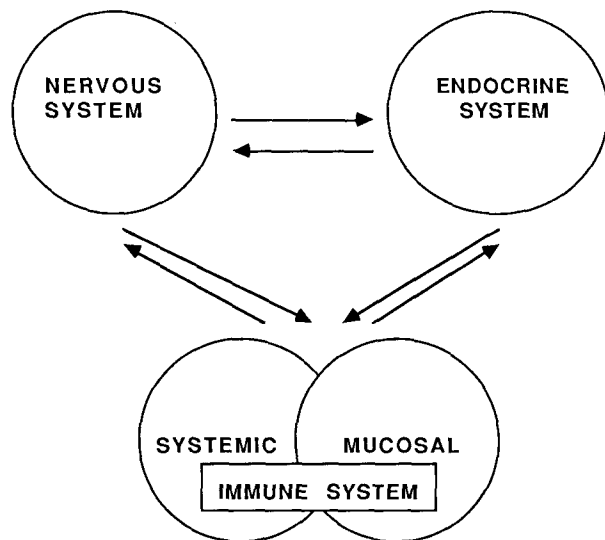


Fig 1. Intercommunication between the neuroendocrine system and the immune system.

mus. This effect can be mimicked by injection of supernatants from immunological cells which have been activated *in vitro* (72). Second, secretory products of the immune system, traditionally considered to be lymphokines including interleukins and interferons, have been shown to influence the nervous system (73, 74). Parenthetically, these and other chemical mediators of the immune system should no longer be considered to be exclusively produced by immunocytes; interleukin 1 for example, is produced by several nonlymphoid cells including astrocytes (75). Third, mediators, which classically have been thought to be synthesized solely by neuroendocrine tissues, are known to be produced by immunocytes (Table 3). This might at first seem unexpected, but the same or very similar molecules also occur in primitive unicellular organisms (83, 84) where they appear to mediate intercellular communication. Intercellular peptide messengers probably occurred very early in evolution and are remarkably well conserved (83, 84). That the immune system might employ these same messengers should not be surprising.

Our understanding of intercellular communication and regulatory molecules is continually being revised and broadened. It is becoming increasingly evident that rigorous distinctions between lymphokines, growth factors, cytokines, local hormones, neuropeptides, and neurotransmitters are no longer appropriate (85, 86). For example, a novel growth factor that is both a lymphokine product of lectin-

activated T cells with B cell modulatory effects and also a neurotrophic factor for spinal and sensory neurons has recently been described (87, 88).

The weight of evidence indicates that neuropeptide-like molecules produced by lymphocytes have the same biological effects as those produced by the neuroendocrine system and share antigenic and chemical features (86). The type of peptide produced by activated lymphocytes depends on the nature of the stimulus (virus, bacterium, or chemical): Newcastle virus infection of lymphocytes results in ACTH secretion, whereas stimulation by staphylococcal enterotoxin A leads to TSH production (81). This differential mediator release implies that the immune system can sense differences between environmental stimuli and adjust its secretory response accordingly. Since the mediators that are released are themselves neuroendocrine substances, they provide the central nervous system with ongoing feedback information. Blalock (89) has therefore likened the immune system to a sensory organ that responds to environmental stimuli—infectious and neoplastic—which are not recognized by classical sensory modalities.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CHRONIC INFLAMMATORY DISORDERS

Immunological effector mechanisms have a prominent role in mediating the tissue damage in inflammatory bowel disease (90, 91). Psychosomatic factors such as stress probably never initiate inflammation, but there is a widely held clinical suspicion that they may influence the subsequent course and disease activity in some patients. The link between stress and the inflammatory process may be through the neuroendocrine-immune axis. Even if the trigger factor proves to be an infectious agent, the host's immune system is likely to be an important contributor to disease pathogenesis and chronicity, either because of a failure to clear the infectious agent and/or because of its inappropriate response to that agent. Specific regulatory abnormalities of the mucosal immune system are therefore being pursued by several investigators. Neuroendocrine-immune interactions may prove to be a fundamental component of these abnormalities and offer a new and exciting approach to these diseases.

Disease activity would be influenced by alterations in the tissue levels of neuropeptides or in the sensitivity of immune effector cells to these pep-

TABLE 3. NEUROENDOCRINE PEPTIDES PRODUCED BY IMMUNE CELLS

Peptide	Cell	Reference
VIP	neutrophil, mast cell	76, 77
Somatostatin	rat basophil leukemia line	78
β -Endorphin	lymphocyte, monocyte, macrophage	79, 80
ACTH	lymphocyte, macrophage	79, 80
TSH	lymphocyte	81
Growth hormone	lymphocyte	82
FSH/LH	lymphocyte	82
Chorionic gonadotropin	lymphocyte	82

tides. Recent evidence for a direct involvement of substance P in mediating tissue injury in experimental and rheumatoid arthritis may have implications for the pathogenesis or perpetuation of inflammatory bowel disease (92, 93). The peptide concentration of nerve terminals innervating inflamed joints is increased (94), and the severity of the arthritis has been shown to be, at least in part, attributable to the actions of substance P (92). Similarly, in ulcerative

colitis an increase in mucosal adrenergic nerves and enterochromaffin cells has been reported (95); in Crohn's disease there is an increase in ganglion cells (96, 97) and in the content of VIP and number of VIP-containing nerves in the intestinal wall (98). Although these changes may be secondary phenomena (99), they could have significant effects *in vivo* on specific aspects of mucosal lymphocyte function, including traffic and migration patterns (47).

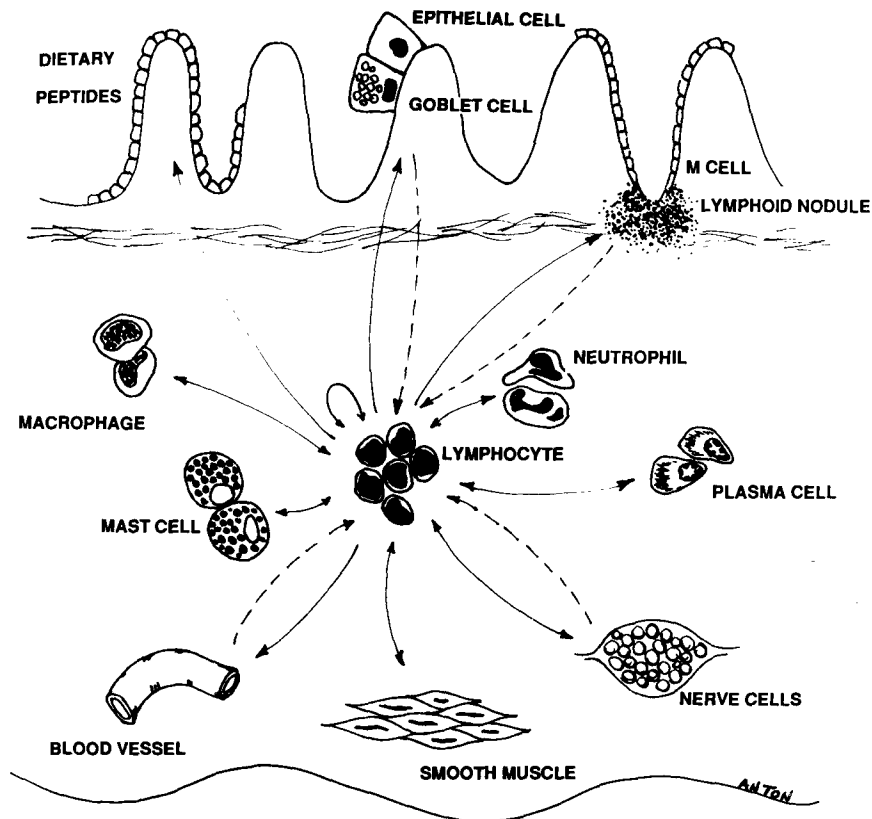


Fig 2. Schematic representation of intercommunications between immune cells and gut wall structures including effects on other immunocytes, vascularity, motility, and epithelial cell function. Mediators include neuropeptides, hormones, lymphokines, arachidonate metabolites, and vasoactive amines.

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However, to date, studies of human mucosal lymphocyte function in inflammatory bowel disease have been limited to nonspecific assays such as cytotoxicity, blastogenesis, and immunoglobulin secretion, frequently with unfractionated cell preparations (90, 91).

Altered sensitivity or inappropriate responses by immune effector cells to the regulatory effects of neuropeptides is probably more important than variations in tissue peptide concentration. Preliminary results from this laboratory indicate that the responsiveness of neutrophils from patients with familial Mediterranean fever to substance P and to the synthetic bacterial peptide f-Met-Leu-Phe is significantly enhanced over control values (100). Whether this is a primary abnormality or secondary to the disease process is not yet clear. Similar studies of peptide-immunocyte interaction in inflammatory bowel disease will require meticulous isolation and enrichment of specific mucosal effector cell subsets.

Finally, the potential relevance of neuropeptide-immune interactions becomes intriguing when one considers that cellular components of the mucosal inflammatory process may themselves elaborate potent neuropeptide mediators including VIP (Table 3). In addition to the autocrine effects of these endogenously produced peptides on the mucosal immune system, they may exert a paracrine influence on epithelial and goblet cell secretion, smooth muscle activity, and vascular permeability (Figure 2). Thus, the local mucosal immune system in concert with the nervous system may orchestrate a complicated web of intercommunicating chemical messenger systems far greater than previously considered (101-103).

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