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β_2 -Microglobulin and bone cell metabolism

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Introduction

Dialysis-related amyloidosis (DRA), also referred to as β_2 -microglobulin (β_2 M) amyloidosis, is a major cause of skeletal morbidity in patients with end-stage renal disease. The DRA syndrome results in a progressive destructive periarticular osteoarthropathy. The pathological lesions of DRA consist of cystic lesions and localized areas of β_2 M-amyloid deposition. Approximately 70% of adult patients who undergo dialysis for more than 10 years develop radiographic evidence and/or symptomatic pathology associated with β_2 M-amyloid deposition [1]. With advances in the treatment of the cardiac and cerebrovascular complications associated with end-stage renal disease, it is anticipated that the life expectancy of dialysis patients will continue to increase. Thus, morbidity from bone disease in general and DRA in particular will become more prevalent. Over the past decade numerous hypotheses have been put forward in an attempt to explain

how β_2 M might affect bone cell metabolism and play a role in the development of DRA. However, much of the reported experimental data has been difficult to interpret, resulting in much controversy regarding the role of β_2 M in normal and abnormal bone physiology. Although there is substantial evidence suggesting that there is a specific effect of β_2 M on bone-cell metabolism, a recurrent argument has been that the effect was the result of other growth factors or undefined contamination of the β_2 M preparations tested. There are two major facts forming the basis for this argument: a lack of an identified receptor for β_2 M, and continued disagreement among investigators concerning the mitogenic effect of β_2 M on bone cells (Table 1). Thus, the question that needs to be addressed is whether β_2 M plays an active role in bone metabolism or whether β_2 M is a passive participant, being incidentally deposited in the form of amyloid at sites of bony destruction.

Effect of β_2 M on bone

Although the effect of β_2 M on osteoblast proliferation is controversial, multiple other effects of β_2 M on bone-cell metabolism have been observed. Osteoblasts produce β_2 M [2]. Subcutaneous injection of β_2 M induces histological evidence of bone resorption in neonatal mice [3], and purified human β_2 M induces a dose- and time-dependent net calcium efflux in cultured murine calvariae [4,5]. This calcium efflux is

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Table 1. Selected effects of β_2 -microglobulin on bone and bone-cell metabolism

Reference	Species	Target	Developmental stage	β_2 M Dose	β_2 M Source species	Results
Kataoka 1986 ²³	Mouse	MC 3T3-E1	Osteoblast Phenotype	10^{-6} - 10^{-5} M	Human: GF, IEC	Calcification↓, cell proliferation→, collagen synthesis→, ALP→ Cell proliferation↑
Canalis 1987 ²²	Rat	Calvariae, Osteoblasts	?	10^{-6} - 10^{-4} M	Human: Sigma Rat: GP, HPLC	Purification diminishes mitogenic activity
Jennings 1989 ²⁰	Chicken; Mink	Calvarial cells; Lung epithelial cells	?	10^{-8} - 10^{-5} M	Human, Calbiochem Bovine: GF, IEC, HPLC	
Centrella 1989 ¹⁹	Rat	Calvarial Osteoblasts	?	10^{-7} - 10^{-6} M	Human: Sigma	DNA synthesis↑, synergy with IGF-I
Evans 1991 ²	Human	Bone-derived cells	Osteoblast Phenotype	10^{-6} - 10^{-5} M	Human: Sigma	Cell proliferation↑, osteocalcin→, ALP→, PGE ₂ →
Moe 1992 ⁴	Mouse	Calvariae	?	10^{-9} - 10^{-7} M 10^{-8} - 10^{-6} M	Human: Sigma	DNA synthesis→ Bone resorption↑
Moe 1995 ⁶	Mouse	Calvariae	?	10^{-7} M	Human: Sigma Human: IEC, GF	PGE ₂ → Bone resorption↑

GF, gel filtration; IEC, ion exchange chromatography; HPLC, reversed phase HPLC; Sigma purified by GF and IEC; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; ↑ increase; ↓ decrease; → no effect; ? unknown.

mediated in part by interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) [6]. β_2 M also stimulates the synthesis of IL-6, a potent bone-resorbing cytokine, leading to an increase in mRNA and protein levels in osteoblasts [7]. β_2 M has also been shown to stimulate synovial fibroblasts to produce stromelysin, a neutral matrix metalloproteinase (MMP), which is believed to be a key enzyme causing articular destruction in inflammatory joint diseases [8]. The findings that β_2 M induces the synthesis of collagenase-1 from rabbit synovial fibroblasts and the preferential collagen binding capacity of β_2 M also supports the hypothesis that β_2 M has a principal role in modulating connective-tissue breakdown [9,10]. Migita and colleagues [11] demonstrated that β_2 M increases cyclo-oxygenase-2 (COX-2) protein and mRNA expression in a dose-dependent manner from human synovial cells; however, utilizing the mouse calvarial resorption model, we were unable to demonstrate an effect of β_2 M on prostaglandin E₂ production [6].

Although β_2 M has a significant bone-resorbing effect, advanced glycation end-product (AGE) modification of β_2 M appears to further increase bone resorption and cytokine production [12,13]. Compared to unmodified β_2 M, the number of resorption pits formed by isolated osteoclasts are significantly increased by AGE-modified β_2 M [13]. AGE modification of β_2 M seems to alter bone metabolism in a number of ways, not only increasing bone resorption, but also decreasing fibroblastic collagen deposition. AGE modification of β_2 M compared with unmodified β_2 M decreases fibroblastic synthesis of type I collagen [14]. Interestingly, the amyloid deposits and surrounding macrophages from patients with DRA react with a monoclonal anti-AGE antibody [15]. AGE-modified β_2 M stimulates chemotaxis of monocytes and macrophages and enhances the secretion of cytokines [16]. The biological effect of AGE-modified β_2 M on monocytes and macrophages is thought to be mediated by the receptor for AGE (RAGE). The finding that AGE-modified β_2 M further induces bone resorption and osteoblastic cytokine release as well as reducing type I collagen synthesis by fibroblasts compared to unmodified β_2 M could be the result of cellular RAGE recognition, as RAGE has been described on osteoblasts [17].

Is β_2 M a growth factor?

It was in the late 1980s when β_2 M was proposed as a potential bone growth factor. However, the mitogenic effect of β_2 M continues to be one of the most controversial and hotly debated issues concerning the effect of β_2 M on bone. As shown in Table 1, studies evaluating the effect of β_2 M have been performed utilizing different experimental models with cells and tissues obtained from different animal species, and using varying doses of β_2 M. In most of the studies utilizing bone cells, the developmental stage of the bone cells was not defined. Bone cells undergo a series

of developmental stages, such as proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis, and each of them involves induction and suppression of various genes. The response of osteoblasts to various factors has been shown to be dependent on their developmental stage [18]. This may shed some insight as to why different experimental systems yield various results depending on the maturational stage of the osteoblasts. The variability in bone-cell response has led some investigators to suggest that $\beta_2\text{M}$ might not be a typical growth factor, but a regulator of the growth-promoting effects of other growth factors [19].

To further complicate the interpretation of the various results, the $\beta_2\text{M}$ utilized in these studies was isolated by different techniques and from different sources. The possible impurity of some preparations of $\beta_2\text{M}$ has resulted in at least one group proposing that the mitogenic effect of $\beta_2\text{M}$ is the result of growth factor contamination. Jennings *et al.* [20] further purified $\beta_2\text{M}$ and observed that the mitogenic activity of the original protein was diminished after purification by reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC). Maximal mitogenic activity was detected in fractions different from their ultra-purified $\beta_2\text{M}$; thus they concluded that the original mitogenic activity was the result of growth factor contamination [20]. Although RP-HPLC ensures analytical purity, it may cause denaturation and loss of protein function. This denaturation might explain loss of mitogenic activity in the $\beta_2\text{M}$ fraction. Furthermore, the β -sheet structure of $\beta_2\text{M}$ favours amyloid fibril formation and spontaneous precipitation [21], thus high concentrations of $\beta_2\text{M}$ in a salty environment, as occurs during RP-HPLC, may result in precipitation and dimer formation, with a consequent decrease in the amount of bioavailable $\beta_2\text{M}$. This could serve as an alternative interpretation as to why RP-HPLC leads to a loss of mitogenic activity of $\beta_2\text{M}$. Since growth-factor contamination has been suggested as being responsible for some of the mitogenic effects of $\beta_2\text{M}$, the purification method has become a crucial issue. The majority of studies, as listed in Table 1, have been performed using $\beta_2\text{M}$ purified by gel filtration and ion exchange chromatography. Thus the possibility of growth factor contamination raised serious concerns as to whether the accumulated data concerning $\beta_2\text{M}$ is reliable. Although the majority of the experimental data supports a role of $\beta_2\text{M}$ in both normal and abnormal bone metabolism, it is not surprising that defining this role has been elusive.

Summary

$\beta_2\text{M}$ is the small extracellular subunit of the MHC Class I molecule, and is present on the surface of all nucleated cells. As molecules of the MHC complex commonly do, $\beta_2\text{M}$ has been suggested to possibly interact with hormonal and/or growth factor receptors [22]. This theory is further supported by the fact that despite the intensive research and focus on $\beta_2\text{M}$,

a receptor for it has not been identified. Interaction of $\beta_2\text{M}$ with various receptors may potentially induce various signal transduction pathways and genes depending on the experimental system utilized and the differentiation stage of osteoblasts and could explain some of the controversial findings (Table 1).

Initial work on $\beta_2\text{M}$ offered a promising role in cell regulation, until questions were raised about possible contamination of $\beta_2\text{M}$ preparations. This cloud of suspicion shed significant doubt primarily on the mitogenic effect of $\beta_2\text{M}$. Since the amyloid deposits contain up to 95% $\beta_2\text{M}$, it is tempting to blame $\beta_2\text{M}$ for the altered bone metabolism observed in DRA. The presence of $\beta_2\text{M}$ in the immediate environment throughout the development of the osteoblast might alter maturation and differentiation. The cumulative data demonstrate that $\beta_2\text{M}$ has biological activity far beyond that which could be explained by growth factor contamination. Nonetheless, the proposed roles of $\beta_2\text{M}$ are so numerous that it is difficult to imagine one molecule having such a variety of specific effects, unless $\beta_2\text{M}$ acts through a variety of receptors in diverse ways depending on the developmental phase of cells and the availability of receptors. The current theory about the mechanism of $\beta_2\text{M}$ causing DRA invokes the release of $\beta_2\text{M}$ and the activation of monocytes by AGE-modified $\beta_2\text{M}$. After being shed from cell surfaces, the free AGE- $\beta_2\text{M}$ could trigger cell migration and release of bone-resorbing cytokines at osteoarticular sites, and the free heavy chains remaining at the cell surfaces may also activate monocytes. Clearly, the $\beta_2\text{M}$ -mediated alteration of bone cell metabolism is very complex and could not be explained by a single metabolic pathway. Despite the accumulating knowledge about $\beta_2\text{M}$ toxicity, strategies for prevention and therapy for DRA have been unsuccessful, and many issues concerning $\beta_2\text{M}$ amyloidosis remain unresolved. Notwithstanding the controversies, determination of the true significance and role of $\beta_2\text{M}$ in bone metabolism is imperative and is critical in regard to preventing long-term skeletal morbidity in dialysis patients.

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