

Clinical aspects of glucocorticoid sensitivity

S.W.J. Lamberts, A.T.M. Huizenga, P. de Lange, F.H. de Jong, and J.W. Koper

Department of Medicine, Erasmus University, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

Recent studies demonstrate that primary (hereditary) abnormalities in the glucocorticoid receptor gene make 6.6% of the normal population relatively "hypersensitive" to glucocorticoids, while 2.3% are relatively "resistant." These abnormalities might explain why some individuals develop severe adverse effects during low dose glucocorticoid therapy, while others do not develop side effects even during long-term therapy with a much higher dose. Awareness of this heterogeneity in glucocorticoid sensitivity in the normal population might eventually allow the prediction of a "safe" dose of glucocorticoid in individual patients.

"Resistance" to the beneficial clinical effects of glucocorticoid therapy in part of the patients with severe rheumatoid arthritis and asthma is probably rarely related to generalized primary (hereditary) glucocorticoid resistance. In the majority of patients this "resistance" seems to be acquired and localized to the sites of inflammation, where it reflects high local cytokine production, which interferes with glucocorticoid action. Recognition of localized, acquired glucocorticoid resistance is of great importance indicating as alternative drug therapy with other immune-modulating drugs like cyclosporin and methotrexate. Chronic high dose glucocorticoid treatment in such patients is ineffective in alleviating symptomatology, while generalized side effects occur, reflecting the patient's normal systemic sensitivity to these drugs. (Steroids 61:157-160, 1996)

Keywords: glucocorticoids; side effect; glucocorticoid receptor; immune function; asthma; cytokine

Introduction

Exogenous glucocorticoids play an essential role in the acute and chronic therapy of a number of immune diseases such as asthma and rheumatoid arthritis and contribute considerably to the prevention of allograft rejection after organ transplantation.¹ Two seemingly different aspects of glucocorticoid therapy, however, have reduced our enthusiasm to use these compounds.² First is the unpredictable occurrence of severe side effects during chronic therapy,^{3,4} with many studies demonstrating that the duration of therapy, the highest steroid dose administered, and the total cumulative dose used are important predictors of adverse events.⁵ Unfortunately, it is currently impossible to define for a given patient a "safe" glucocorticoid dose that does not cause side effects.^{4,5} Second, the efficacy of glucocorticoid therapy in chronic immune disease is unpredictable. There is clinical and laboratory evidence that patients can be divided into "steroid-sensitive" and "resistant" groups. These differences have been documented in the treatment of asthma^{6,7}

and rheumatoid arthritis,^{8,9} as well as in renal graft recipients.^{10,11} In this study we review several recent investigations of the role(s) of hereditary and/or acquired abnormalities in glucocorticoid receptor function in man. The results of these studies are discussed against the background of the two main clinical questions concerning glucocorticoid therapy in immune disease: 1) that of an individual "safe dose," which can be used without the occurrence of side effects, and 2) that of the mechanism of the apparent "resistance" in part of the patient population treated with these drugs.

Hereditary glucocorticoid resistance

Primary hereditary glucocorticoid resistance is a rare disorder, which has only been described in a dozen individuals to date.¹²⁻¹⁵ In this syndrome the abnormal receptor alters feedback inhibition of the hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal axis, which is thus set at a higher level with slightly elevated plasma ACTH levels and increased circulating cortisol concentrations. The diurnal rhythms of ACTH and cortisol secretion remain intact, while the system remains sensitive to external stresses such as that caused by acute hypoglycemia. The elevated circulating cortisol levels do not cause signs or symptoms of Cushing's syndrome, because reduced num-

Address reprint requests to Dr. S.W.J. Lamberts, Professor of Medicine, Department of Medicine, University Hospital Dijkzigt, 40 Dr. Molewaterplein, 3015 GD Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

bers of impaired glucocorticoid receptors are present in all target tissues. Symptoms of glucocorticoid resistance stem primarily from ACTH-induced adrenocortical overstimulation, resulting in increased serum concentrations of androgens and mineralocorticoids. The wide variation in the nature and severity of the symptoms associated with glucocorticoid resistance can make its diagnosis difficult.^{16,17} Hypercortisolism and/or an inadequate response to a 1 mg overnight dexamethasone suppression test can point to this abnormality.^{16,17} Hormone profiles (androgens, mineralocorticoids) and analysis of the number and affinity of glucocorticoid receptors in peripheral blood mononuclear leucocytes or in cultured skin fibroblasts are usually carried out. Bioassays to measure glucocorticoid sensitivity can also be performed on lymphocytes or fibroblasts.

The molecular mechanisms of glucocorticoid resistance detected to date reflect at least three different abnormalities. First, missense mutations in the ligand binding domain of the glucocorticoid receptor gene causing decreased ligand binding affinity have been reported in two different families.^{18,19} Second, a deletion of four base pairs at the boundary of exon 6 of the glucocorticoid receptor and the following intron has been demonstrated to be responsible for the loss of a splice site and the production of an unstable mRNA. This deletion allows only one allele to be expressed, resulting in a decrease of glucocorticoid receptor protein by 50% in affected members of this glucocorticoid-resistant family.²⁰ Third, a novel glucocorticoid receptor gene mutation has recently been discovered in the ligand binding domain of the glucocorticoid receptor, in which a point mutation in exon 5 is accompanied by a significant loss of function of the receptor protein, as indicated by transfection studies. Interestingly, in cotransfection studies this mutant receptor exerted a dominant negative effect on the wild type glucocorticoid receptor, causing the lowered glucocorticoid receptor affinity observed in this heterozygous patient's peripheral lymphocytes.²¹ In addition to these three distinct molecular mechanisms of glucocorticoid resistance, cases have been reported where increased thermostability of the glucocorticoid receptor or a reduced capacity to bind DNA were the cause of glucocorticoid resistance.^{15,22} In these cases, however, abnormalities in the glucocorticoid receptor gene have not yet been reported.

Glucocorticoid receptor abnormalities in the normal population

The recent reports of a significant prevalence of possible abnormalities in the glucocorticoid receptor in patients attending the endocrine clinic for hypokalemia, hypertension, acne, hirsutism, and menstrual disorders prompted us to carry out a cross-sectional study on the prevalence of glucocorticoid receptor abnormalities in a group of 216 healthy elderly individuals (J.W. Koper et al., unpublished observations). In the 1 mg overnight dexamethasone suppression test 17 persons showed "diminished" suppression, with postdexamethasone cortisol levels above 50 nmol/L. In 16 of these "diminished" suppressors and in 10 age- and sex-matched subjects with a normal suppression we analyzed glucocorticoid receptor number and affinity in mononuclear leukocytes and the biological response of these cells to glu-

corticoids in a mitogen-stimulated lymphocyte proliferation assay. Of the "diminished" suppressors 10 were found to have abnormal results in the glucocorticoid receptor assays versus none in the control group. Using polymerase chain reaction-based analysis of single strand conformation polymorphism, we screened for mutations in the glucocorticoid receptor gene. Five mutations in the glucocorticoid receptor gene were identified, all occurring in more than one person. Two of these mutations were significantly associated with reduced glucocorticoid receptor function and were calculated to occur in 2.3% of the normal population. Another single point mutation, present in 6.6% of these healthy elderly individuals, was associated with a significantly increased receptor function. These polymorphisms were not associated with clinical abnormalities but may contribute to the variable sensitivity to glucocorticoid therapy observed in the normal population.

Transient and/or acquired glucocorticoid resistance

The best known examples of acquired glucocorticoid resistance are the abnormalities in glucocorticoid receptor activity in the neoplastic cells of most human hematologic malignancies. Glucocorticoid receptor abnormalities, as well as an increasing number of well characterized postreceptor abnormalities,²³⁻²⁵ play an important role in the ultimate prognosis of patients with acute leukemia and malignant lymphomas.²⁶ In the differential diagnosis of Cushing's syndrome the degree of glucocorticoid resistance also plays an important role. Most tumors ectopically secreting ACTH are characterized by a high degree of glucocorticoid resistance, which has been demonstrated to be accompanied by changes in ligand binding in several human small cell lung cancer cell lines.²⁷ In Nelson's syndrome the cells of the expanding, infiltrating, ACTH secreting pituitary tumor have similarly been demonstrated to have a defect in the glucocorticoid receptor gene.²⁸

Acquired (localized) glucocorticoid resistance in rheumatoid arthritis and asthma is accompanied by a reduction in the number of glucocorticoid receptors in circulating leukocytes²⁹ and/or a reversible decrease in the affinity of glucocorticoid receptors in T lymphocytes,³⁰ respectively. Similarly, in some patients with AIDS, peripheral leukocytes demonstrate a marked decrease in the affinity of glucocorticoid receptors for cortisol.³¹ Glucocorticoids are known to be powerful suppressors of the activity of the immune system. Inhibition of chemotaxis and bactericidal activity in neutrophils and monocytes, lymphopenia, decreased macrophage function, and disturbed complement activation are well known effects of glucocorticoid administration.¹ Most of the effects of glucocorticoids on the immune system are thought to be mediated via inhibition of transcription of various cytokine genes, particularly those coding for interleukin-1 (IL-1) and IL-6 in macrocytes/macrophages,³² and IL-2 in lymphocytes.^{33,34} However, higher concentrations of cytokines, especially IL-2, antagonize the suppressive effects of glucocorticoids in a dose-dependent manner, thus counteracting these transcriptional effects.³⁵ The balance between glucocorticoid action and the production of interleukins in mitogen-stimulated im-

mune cells is in most cases in favor of glucocorticoids, which override the activity of the immune cells. A number of studies suggest that at the site of inflammation in cases of rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, and sepsis, high local concentrations of cytokines in fact induce a localized glucocorticoid resistance, which cannot be overcome by excess exogenous glucocorticoids.^{30,35,36,37}

Conclusions

Recent evidence suggests that primary (hereditary) abnormalities in the glucocorticoid receptor gene cause relative "hypersensitivity" to glucocorticoids in 6.6% of the normal population, while 2.3% is relatively "resistant." These differences in ~10% of the normal population may thus contribute to the well known phenomenon of some individuals developing severe adverse effects on low dose glucocorticoid therapy, while others do not develop side effects during long-term therapy with much higher doses. Further studies on the heterogeneity of glucocorticoid sensitivity in the normal population might thus eventually allow the prediction of a "safe" glucocorticoid dose in individual patients.

"Resistance" to the beneficial effects of glucocorticoid therapy in patients with rheumatoid arthritis and asthma is related to generalized primary (hereditary) glucocorticoid resistance in only a small minority of these patients; in this group a higher dose of glucocorticoids might overcome the genetically determined resistance. However, in the majority of patients "resistance" seems to be acquired and localized at the inflammation site(s), where it is a consequence of high cytokine production interfering with glucocorticoid activity. Recognition of localized, acquired glucocorticoid resistance is of great importance, as alternative drug therapy with other immune-modulating compounds such as cyclosporin, methotrexate, and/or gold should be considered early on in the disease. In these circumstances chronic high dose glucocorticoids will insufficiently alleviate the symptomatology of the immune disease and cause general side effects, as the patient has a normal systemic sensitivity to the treatment.

References

1. Boumpas DT, Chrousos GP, Wilder RL, Cupps TR, Balow JE (1993). Glucocorticoid therapy for immune-mediated diseases: basic and clinical correlates. *Ann Int Med* **119**:1198-1208.
2. Hench PS, Kendall EC, Slocumb CH, Polley HF (1950). Effects of cortisone acetate and pituitary ACTH on rheumatoid arthritis, rheumatic fever and certain other conditions. *Arch Intern Med* **48**:545-566.
3. Bollet AJ, Black R, Bunim JJ (1955). Major undesirable side-effects resulting from prednisolone and prednisone. *JAMA* **158**:459-463.
4. Saag KG, Oehnke R, Caldwell JR, Brasington R, Burmeister LF, Zimmerman B, Kohler JA, Furst DE (1994). Low dose long-term corticosteroid therapy in rheumatoid arthritis: an analysis of serious adverse events. *Am J Med* **96**:115-123.
5. Axelrod L (1976) Glucocorticoid therapy. *Medicine (Baltimore)* **55**:39-65.
6. Schwartz HJ, Lowell FC, Melby JC (1968). Steroid resistance in bronchial asthma. *Ann Intern Med* **69**:493-499.
7. Carmichael J, Paterson IC, Diaz P, Crompton GK, Kay AB, Grant IWB (1981). Corticosteroid resistance in chronic asthma. *Br Med J* **282**:1419-1422.
8. Corkill MM, Kirkham B, Chikanza IC, Gibson T, Panayi GS (1990). Intramuscular methylprednisolone induction of chrysotherapy: a 24 week randomised double blind placebo controlled trial. *Br J Rheumatol* **29**:274-279.
9. Kirkham B, Corkill MM, Davison SC, Panayi GS (1991). Response to glucocorticoid treatment in rheumatoid arthritis: in vitro cell mediated immune assay predicts in vivo response. *J Rheumatol* **18**:30-33.
10. Walker KB, Potter JM, House AK (1985). Variable inhibition of mitogen-induced blastogenesis in human lymphocytes by prednisolone in vitro. *Transplant Proc* **17**:1676-1678.
11. Langhoff E, Laderfoged J, Jacobsen BK (1986). Recipient lymphocyte sensitivity to methyl prednisolone affects cadaver kidney graft survival. *Lancet* **2**:1296-1297.
12. Vingerhoeds A, Thijssen J, Schwarz F (1976). Spontaneous hypercortisolism without Cushing's syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **43**:1128-1133.
13. Lamberts SWJ, Poldermans D, Zweens M, de Jong FH (1986) Familial cortisol resistance: differential diagnostic and therapeutic aspects. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **63**:1328-1333.
14. Malchoff C, Favier E, Malchoff D (1990). Primary cortisol resistance presenting as isosexual precocity. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **70**:503-507.
15. Brönnegard M, Werner S, Gustafsson JA (1986). Primary cortisol resistance associated with a thermolabile glucocorticoid receptor in a patient with fatigue as the only symptom. *J Clin Invest* **78**:1270-1278.
16. Lamberts SWJ, Koper JW, Biemond P, den Holder FH, de Jong FH (1992). Cortisol receptor resistance: the variability of its clinical presentation and response to treatment. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **74**:313-321.
17. Werner S, Thoren M, Gustafsson JA, Brönnegard M (1992). Glucocorticoid receptor abnormalities in fibroblasts from patients with idiopathic resistance to dexamethasone diagnosed when evaluated for adrenocortical disorders. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **75**:1005-1009.
18. Hurley D, Accili D, Stratakis C (1991). Point mutation causing a single amino acid substitution in the hormone binding domain of the glucocorticoid receptor in familial glucocorticoid resistance. *J Clin Invest* **87**:680-686.
19. Malchoff DM, Brufsky A, Reardon G (1993). A point mutation of the human glucocorticoid receptor in primary cortisol resistance. *J Clin Invest* **91**:1918-1925.
20. Karl M, Lamberts SWJ, Detera-Wadleigh SD (1993). Familial glucocorticoid resistance caused by a splice site deletion in the glucocorticoid receptor gene. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **76**:683-689.
21. Karl M, Arai K, Stratakis ACA, Accili D, Leung DYM, Szeffler SJ, Lamberts SWJ, Chrousos GP (1995). Molecular studies of the glucocorticoid receptor in patients with generalized glucocorticoid resistance and steroid resistant asthma (abstr.). *77th Annual Meeting of the Endocrine Society*, Washington DC, The Endocrine Society, Bethesda, MD.
22. Nawata H, Sekiya K, Higuchi K, Kato K, Ibayashi H (1987). Decreased deoxyribonucleic acid binding of glucocorticoid-receptor complex in cultured skin fibroblasts from a patient with the glucocorticoid resistance syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **65**:219-226.
23. Lippman ME, Halterman RH, Leventhal BG, Perry S, Thompson EB (1973). Glucocorticoid-binding proteins in human acute lymphoblastic leukemic blast cells. *J Clin Invest* **52**:1715-1726.
24. Moalli P, Rosen S (1994). Glucocorticoid receptors and resistance to glucocorticoids in hematologic malignancies. *Leukemia Lymphoma* **15**:363-374.
25. Strasser-Wozak E, Hattmann-Storfer R, Hala M, Hartman B, Fiegl M, Geley S (1995). Splice site mutations in the glucocorticoid receptor gene cause resistance to glucocorticoid-induced apoptosis in a human acute leukemic cell line. *Cancer Res* **55**:348-353.
26. Kato GJ, Quddus FF, Shuster JJ, Boyett J, Pullen JD, Borowitz MJ, Whitehead VM, Crist WM, Leventhal BG (1993). High glucocorticoid receptor content of leukemic blasts is a favorable prognostic factor in childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood* **82**:2304-2309.
27. Ray DW, Littlewood AC, Clark AJL, Davis JRE, White A (1994). Human small cell lung cancer cell lines expressing the propiomela-

Papers

- nocortin gene have aberrant glucocorticoid receptor function. *J Clin Invest* **93**:1625–1630.
28. Karl M, Van Wichert G, Kempter E (1994). Nelson's syndrome associated with a defect in the glucocorticoid receptor gene (abstr.). *76th Annual Meeting of the Endocrine Society, Anaheim, CA*, The Endocrine Society, Bethesda, MD.
 29. Chikanza IC, Panayi GS (1993). The effects of hydrocortisone on in vitro lymphocyte proliferation and interleukin-2 and -4 production in corticosteroid sensitive and resistant subjects. *Eur J Clin Invest* **23**:845–850.
 30. Sher ER, Leung DYM, Surs W, Kam JC, Zieg G, Kamada AK, Szeffler SJ (1994). Steroid-resistant asthma. Cellular mechanisms contributing to inadequate response to glucocorticoid therapy. *J Clin Invest* **93**:33–39.
 31. Norbiato G, Bevilacqua M, Vago T (1992). Cortisol resistance in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **74**:608–613.
 32. Almawi WY, Lipman ML, Stevens AC, Zanker B, Hadro ET, Strom TB (1991). Abrogation of glucocorticoid mediated inhibition of T cell proliferation by the synergistic action of IL-1, IL-6 and IFN-gamma. *J Immunol* **146**:3523–3537.
 33. Gillis S, Crabtree GR, Smith KA (1979). Glucocorticoid-induced inhibition of T cell growth factor production. I. The effect on mitogen-induced lymphocyte proliferation. *J Immunol* **123**:1624–1631.
 34. Boumpas DT, Anastassiou ED, Older SA, Tsokos GC, Nelson DL, Balow JE (1991). Dexamethasone inhibits human interleukin 2 but not interleukin 2 receptor gene expression in vitro at the level of nuclear transcription. *J Clin Invest* **87**:1739–1747.
 35. Molijn GJ, Spek JJ, van Uffelen JCI, de Jong FH, Brinkmann AO, Bruining HA, Lamberts SWJ (1995). Differential adaptation of glucocorticoid sensitivity of peripheral blood mononuclear leucocytes in patients with sepsis or septic shock. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **80**:1799–1803.
 36. Corrigan CJ, Brown JPH, Barnes NC, Szeffler SJ, Tsai JJ, Frew AJ, Kay AB (1991). Glucocorticoid resistance in chronic asthma: glucocorticoid pharmacokinetics, glucocorticoid receptor characteristics and inhibition of peripheral blood T-cell proliferation by glucocorticoid in vitro. *Am Rev Respir Dis* **144**:1016–1025.
 37. Corrigan CJ, Brown JPH, Barnes NC, Tsai JJ, Frew AJ, Kay AB (1991). Glucocorticoid resistance in chronic asthma: peripheral blood T lymphocyte activation and comparison of the T lymphocyte inhibitory effects of glucocorticoids and cyclosporin A. *Am Rev Respir Dis* **144**:1026–1032.