

Food Restriction-Like Effects of Dehydroepiandrosterone: Decreased Lymphocyte Numbers and Functions with Increased Apoptosis (44415)

FERNANDO CATALINA,* VINAY KUMAR,* LEON MILEWICH,† AND MICHAEL BENNETT*,¹

Departments of Pathology* and Obstetrics and Gynecology,† University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, Texas 75235-9072

Abstract. Both dietary dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and food restriction can prevent or modulate the initiation or progression of a number of diseases in rodents and prolong life span. We sought to determine if these interventions have common mechanisms of action in regulating lymphocyte functions and cell numbers. We observed that male C57BL/6 mice receiving DHEA in the diet (0.45%, w/w) ate approximately 50% as much food as mice on the DHEA-free diet, and this was reflected in decreased body weights throughout a 10-week period. Mice either fed the DHEA-containing diet or pair-fed to the DHEA-treated mice had decreased spleen and thymus weights and lymphocyte cell numbers compared to mice having free access to the control diet. Mice were fed these diets for 2 weeks before and 2 weeks after exposure to sublethal irradiation (500 cGy). In mice fed DHEA or pair-fed, there was a decrease in spleen cell numbers, and B cells were the most severely affected. The frequency of apoptosis in peripheral blood cells increased from <5% in nonirradiated controls to >50% within 4 days after starting DHEA or pair-feeding. Shortly after irradiation, >87% of blood lymphocytes were hypodiploid (apoptotic) in all groups. By 9 days only 27% of lymphocytes in mice on the control diet were hypodiploid compared to 62% in DHEA and 74% in pair-fed mice. In addition, both DHEA and pair-fed mice had significant reductions in T-cell function (contact hypersensitivity to dinitrofluorobenzene), B cell function (antibody response to trinitrophenolated-lipopolysaccharide), and NK cell function (lung clearance of radiolabeled YAC-1 tumor cells) 2 weeks after irradiation. In a complementary study, peripheral blood lymphocytes from naïve mice were treated overnight with various concentrations of either DHEA or hydrocortisone 21-acetate. Only glucocorticoid-treated cells underwent apoptosis. Thus, DHEA induces apoptosis *in vivo* but not *in vitro*. We conclude that dietary DHEA induces apoptosis and decreased lymphocyte production and function in C57BL/6 mice largely by reducing food intake.

[P.S.E.B.M. 1999, Vol 221]

Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) is a steroid pro-hormone present in relatively high concentrations in blood of young human adults; these levels gradu-

ally decrease to approximately 10% by the eighth decade of life (1). Clinical studies revealed decreased serum and/or urinary concentrations of DHEA significantly lower in patients with Alzheimer's disease (2), HIV infection (3), systemic lupus erythematosus (4), coronary atherosclerosis (5), breast cancer (6, 7), and obesity (8). In studies with animal models of diseases, dietary DHEA (0.2%–1.0% w/w of food) was effective in preventing or inhibiting neoplasia (9), diabetes (10), lupus erythematosus (11), immune decline (12), hemolytic anemia (13), nephrosis (14), atherosclerosis (15), and obesity (16).

Despite the association between decreased serum DHEA levels and disease states in humans, little is known about the mode(s) of DHEA action. Many of the diseases in

This work was supported in part by NIH MSTP Training Grant 5T32 GM08014 and NIH Grants CA36922, CA47073, AI38939, and AI20451.

¹ To whom requests for reprints should be addressed at Department of Pathology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, 5323 Harry Hines Boulevard, Dallas, TX 75235-9072. E-mail: bennett.michael@pathology.swmed.edu

Received November 3, 1998. [P.S.E.B.M. 1999, Vol 221]
Accepted March 3, 1999.

0037-9727/99/2214-0326\$14.00/0
Copyright © 1999 by the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine

which DHEA is effective have an immune component (4, 11–13). Low doses of DHEA or its sulfate enhances the effectiveness of vaccines against various pathogens, particularly in aged rodents (17–29). At a higher dietary DHEA dose of 0.45% (w/w), there is a decrease in lymphopoiesis (30), but little effect on various lymphocyte functions in mice (31, 32). In long-lived (C3H.SW X B10.RIII)F1 mice, dietary DHEA increased T-cell and NK-cell function (12).

DHEA administration to mice and rats can significantly decrease food intake (12, 14, 33, 34); thus, one of the possible mechanisms by which dietary DHEA may exert its beneficial effects is through the induction of food restriction. Whereas dietary DHEA (0.2%–1.0%) may reduce food intake (10), lower levels of DHEA applied subcutaneously or topically to stimulate the immune system do not affect food consumption or body weights. Limiting an animal's food intake has been found to be therapeutic in many of the same disease models in which dietary DHEA administration is also beneficial (9, 12, 13, 35–41). On the basis of these observations we conducted pair-feeding experiments to determine the possible involvement of food restriction on the observed effects of dietary DHEA on cells of the immune system. Because restriction of food intake has been reported to induce apoptosis in both normal and neoplastic cells (40, 42), we analyzed the incidence of apoptosis in peripheral blood lymphocytes of both DHEA-treated and pair-fed animals before and after irradiation (500 cGy). We also compared the effects of DHEA and hydrocortisone 21-acetate on the rates of apoptosis on lymphocytes maintained in overnight cultures.

Materials and Methods

Animals. Conventionally housed male C57BL/6 mice (10–12 weeks old) were obtained from the Department of Microbiology Colony at this University. Initially all studies were conducted with mice housed individually (1/cage); later, mice were housed in groups of four to six per cage. No differences were observed in body weight, food intake, or immune parameters whether housed singly or in groups. Mice were caged singly for experiments described in Figures 1 and 5. Animals were housed at $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and maintained on a 12-hr light/dark cycle with lights out at 19:00 hr. The use of mice has been approved by the Institution's Animal Care and Use Committee (IACRAC).

Diets. Fourteen days prior to any experimental manipulations, mice were placed on pelleted purified AIN (American Institute of Nutrition)-76A diet (Dyets Inc., Bethlehem, PA) containing either no additives (control diet) or DHEA (0.45%, w/w) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). All animals except pair-fed mice had free access to food, and all mice received water freely. Pair-fed animals were given the control diet. The amount of control diet fed to pair-fed mice was determined by the mean weight of the food consumed by DHEA-fed mice on the previous day. The diet for pair-feeding was administered once per day between 09:00 hr and 10:00 hr.

Determination of Food Intake and Body Weight.

The weight of the food consumed by mice on the DHEA-containing diet, accounting for the weight of spilled food, was determined daily between 09:00 hr and 10:00 hr. When mice were housed four to six animals per cage, only the mean daily intake per mouse could be obtained by dividing the total daily food intake per cage by the number of mice in the group. Mice were weighed weekly during the course of the studies.

Irradiation. Mice were exposed to 500 cGy of gamma radiation in a GammaCell 40 small animal irradiator containing two ^{137}Cs sources (Atomic Energy Ltd., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada) at a rate of 68 cGy/min.

Contact Hypersensitivity. This response is a test of T-cell function and was performed as described (43). Briefly, the abdomen of mice was shaved and painted on 2 consecutive days with 20 μl 0.5% dinitrofluorobenzene (DNFB, Sigma) in acetone/olive oil (4:1, v/v) solution. Five days later, ear swelling was elicited by applying 10 μl of 0.2% DNFB solution to both sides of the pinna of one ear. Response was determined by measuring the difference in ear thickness between pre-elicitation and 24 hr post-elicitation using a Fowler Precision Tools caliper (Lux Scientific Instrument Corp., New York, NY).

T Cell-Independent IgM Antibody Response.

The IgM response to trinitrophenolated lipopolysaccharide (TNP-LPS, Sigma), was used to measure B-cell function. Mice were immunized by i.p. injection of 100 μg TNP-LPS; 6 and 10 days later mice were bled *via* the tail vein; sera were diluted in PBS containing 1.0% BSA (Sigma), and IgM concentrations were determined by ELISA (44).

Lung Clearance of Radiolabeled YAC-1 Tumor

Cells. This is an assay for natural killer (NK) cell function. YAC-1 tumor cells (31) (5×10^7) were incubated in RPMI containing 5-fluorodeoxyuridine (2.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$; Sigma); 20 min later, 30 μCi [^{125}I]5-iodo-2'-deoxyuridine (^{125}IdU , Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL) was added and the cells were incubated for 90 min at 37°C in 5% CO_2/air . The cells were washed three times in RPMI and adjusted to 2×10^6 cells/ml. Cell viabilities were $>95\%$ by trypan blue exclusion. 1×10^6 cells (0.5 ml) were injected into mice *via* the lateral tail vein. Four hours later, the mice were sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation, the lungs were removed, and ^{125}I radioactivity was determined. The results are expressed as the geometric mean (95% confidence limits) percentage recovery of the total injected radioactivity (45). The lack of retention of radiolabeled YAC-1 cells in the lungs is a measure of NK activity.

Flow Cytometry for Lymphocyte Surface Markers.

Animals were bled from tail veins to obtain blood lymphocytes. Other mice were sacrificed CO_2 inhalation. Spleens were removed and gently crushed between the frosted ends of slides in RPMI media (GIBCO BRL, Grand Island, NY). Each spleen was processed individually. Cells were washed twice in RPMI. Erythrocytes were lysed by hypotonic shock; splenocytes were then passed through ny-

lon mesh to make single cell suspensions. Cells were counted using an electronic particle counter (Coulter Electronics Inc., Hialeah, FL). Splenocytes (2×10^6) were suspended in 5% calf serum in PBS, and cells were stained with the following conjugated monoclonal antibodies: F(ab')₂ DTAF-goat anti-mouse IgG + IgM (H + L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch, Avondale, PA), FITC-anti-TCR $\alpha\beta$, PE-anti-NK1.1, (Pharmingen, San Diego, CA), or the irrelevant isotype controls FITC-Rat IgG2a, PE-mouse IgG2a, PE-Hamster IgG (Pharmingen). Collection gates were set on cells of lymphocyte size and internal complexity based on forward and 90 scatter using a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton-Dickinson, Mountain View, CA).

Flow Cytometry for Apoptosis. *In vitro studies.* Peripheral blood was collected from the lateral tail vein of untreated mice and placed in Alsever's solution (GIBCO BRL). Erythrocytes were lysed by hypotonic shock, cells were enumerated using the Coulter electronic particle counter, and lymphocytes (2×10^6 cells/well in 0.2 ml) were plated in 96-well plates containing various concentrations of DHEA or hydrocortisone 21-acetate. DHEA and hydrocortisone 21-acetate stock solutions in ethanol were diluted to the appropriate concentrations with medium. Medium and ethanol-containing medium were used as controls in the flow cytometry studies. Cells were incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO₂/air. The next day the cells were placed in Falcon 2054 tubes (Becton-Dickinson) for staining and FACS analysis.

In vivo studies. At different time points after the start of either the DHEA or pair-fed diet, peripheral blood was collected by tail bleeding. Erythrocytes were lysed by hypotonic saline, and lymphocytes were placed in Falcon 2054 tubes for staining and analysis by flow cytometry.

Propidium iodide staining and analysis. Cells were stained as described (46). Briefly, 1×10^5 to 1×10^6 cells were incubated overnight at 4°C in the presence of hypotonic propidium iodide (PI) solution [0.1% Triton X-100 (Baker Chemical Co. Phillipsburg, NJ), 0.1% sodium citrate (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ), 50 μ g/ml PI (Sigma)]. The following day the cells were analyzed using a FACScan flow cytometer. Cellular debris was gated out based on low forward scatter. PI fluorescence was monitored in the red fluorescence channels. Apoptotic cells (hypodiploid) appear as a broad peak, staining with considerably lower intensity than the narrow peak of healthy (diploid) cells.

Statistics. Differences between groups were determined using two-way ANOVA followed by Duncan's range test, one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffe's *post hoc* test, or Student's *t* test as indicated in the figure legends.

Results

We examined the effect of dietary DHEA (0.45%, w/w) on food intake in C57BL/6 mice for 28 days; 14 days prior to, and 14 days after, sublethal irradiation. Figure 1A presents the mean (\pm SEM) daily food intake of both control

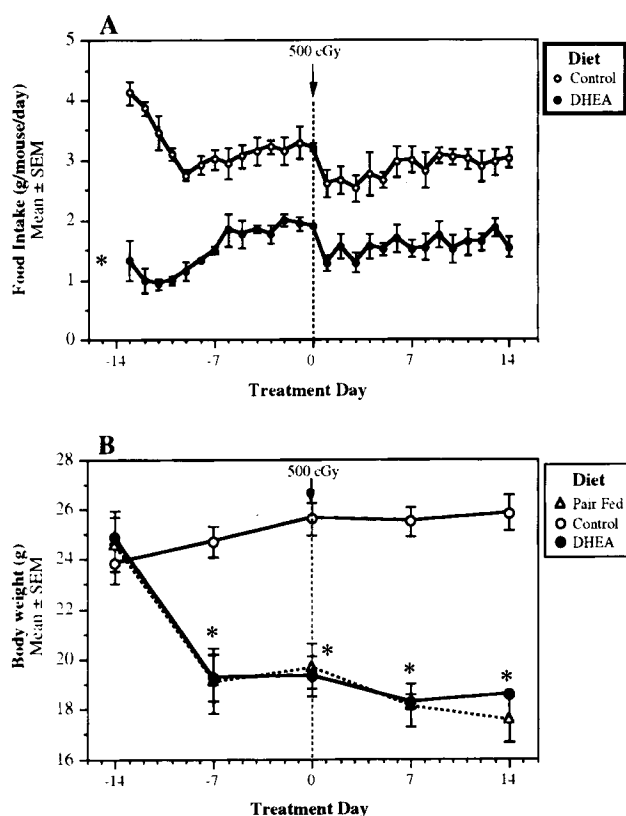


Figure 1. Effect of DHEA treatment and pair-feeding on food intake and body weight of male C57BL/6 mice. Mice received the AIN-76A diet with or without DHEA (0.45%, w/w) freely, or the pair-feeding diet starting 14 days prior to and after sublethal irradiation (500 cGy). Daily food intake and weekly body weights were monitored. Values presented are from six experiments, with four to six mice/group or a minimum of 24 mice per experimental group. *Significantly different from control ($P < 0.01$) by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures followed by Duncan's range test.

and DHEA-treated mice from six independent experiments. The intake of pair-fed mice is not shown because food administered was equal to the intake by the DHEA-fed mice with a 1-day delay. The average intake throughout the course of the studies was 3.04 ± 0.06 g/day (mean \pm SEM) for control mice and 1.53 ± 0.05 g/day for DHEA-treated and pair-fed mice ($P < 0.001$). The mean body weights (\pm SEM) of mice in the same six experiments are indicated in Figure 1B. After the first week, the body weight curves for DHEA and pair-fed mice were significantly different from control, but not from each other, indicating that in C57BL/6 mice, the reduction of food intake accounts for the loss of body weight seen during DHEA treatment. It is interesting to note that DHEA-treated mice consumed significantly less food than control mice even when intake was calculated per gram of body weight (data not shown). In contrast to these findings, in studies conducted with other strains of mice and with obese versus lean Zucker rats receiving either regular chow or palatable food with and without DHEA, variable effects on food intake were observed (10, 12, 47–48).

Pair-feeding experiments were used to determine the role of decreased food intake on the effects of DHEA on lymphoid tissue in unirradiated mice. Male C57BL/6 mice

were fed the control diet or the DHEA-containing diet (0.45%, w/w) freely, or were pair-fed (i.e., given only the amount of control diet that DHEA-fed mice consumed). Mice were sacrificed 10 weeks later, and spleens and thymuses were removed and analyzed. The weights and numbers of cells of spleens of DHEA-treated and pair-fed mice were reduced by approximately 50% (Figs. 2A and 2B). Thymus cell numbers were decreased >80% and weights by >50% in both DHEA and pair-fed animals compared to controls (Figs. 2C and 2D). At 10 weeks of feeding the mean \pm SD body weights (g) of control, DHEA fed or pair-fed mice were 30.0 ± 2.5 , 20.4 ± 1.8 , and 21.3 ± 1.8 , respectively ($P < 0.001$ control versus the other two groups). The food intake values (g/day) were 3.2 ± 0.2 , 2.1 ± 0.4 and 2.1 ± 0.4 , respectively ($P < 0.001$ control versus the other two groups).

Contact hypersensitivity responses to DNFB were used as a measure of T-cell function 14 days after sublethal irradiation. The ear swelling response to DNFB after priming of DHEA and pair-fed mice was significantly decreased, $P < 0.05$ (Fig. 3A); in fact, the slight response observed was indistinguishable from that seen in unprimed (naïve) animals. Similarly treated mice (control, DHEA, pair-fed) were challenged with TNP-LPS to induce a T-cell-independent antibody response to assess B-cell function (44, 49). Serum was obtained prior to immunization and also 6 days after

immunization and assayed by ELISA for IgM antibody concentration. The level of IgM antibodies to LPS was significantly decreased in both DHEA and pair-fed mice at serum dilutions of 1:200, 1:1000, and 1:5000, $P < 0.05$ (Fig. 3B). Ten days after immunization there was still a significant difference at the 1:200, but not at the 1:1000 or 1:5000 dilutions (data not shown). NK-cell activity was assayed 14 days after sublethal irradiation by intravenous challenge with ^{125}I U-labeled YAC-1 cells. Over a 4-hr span, control mice were able to clear the YAC-1 cells from the lungs as reflected by low (8.4%) lung retention of infused YAC-1 cells. The retention of radioactivity was significantly increased in DHEA-treated (25.7%) and pair-fed (24.3%) mice, indicating decreased NK activity, $P < 0.05$ (Fig. 3C).

Flow cytometric analysis of splenocyte populations 2 weeks after sublethal irradiation demonstrated that the splenic population most affected by dietary DHEA and pair-feeding is the B-cell compartment (i.e., there was a marked decrease in the frequency and numbers of IgG plus IgM positive cells in DHEA and pair-fed animals) (Fig. 4). There was a relative increase in the frequency, but a decrease in total numbers of $\text{TCR}\alpha\beta^+$ T cells and NK1.1^+ NK cells per spleen.

As internucleosomal DNA cleavage is a hallmark of apoptosis, we monitored the percentage of cells undergoing apoptosis by FACS analysis using PI staining to determine DNA content within nuclei (46). Within 4 days of either DHEA- or pair-feeding, large increases in apoptotic cells were observed (Fig. 5). The numbers of peripheral blood lymphocytes undergoing apoptosis, though variable, remained elevated throughout the study period. As expected, after 500 cGy irradiation 80%–90% of peripheral lymphocytes of all groups (control, DHEA and pair-fed) appeared apoptotic. Over the next 2 weeks the proportion of apoptotic lymphocytes in mice receiving the control diet decreased to 25%, whereas that proportion in DHEA and pair-fed mice remained at approximately 75%–85%.

Because DHEA (this paper) and glucocorticoids (49) can induce apoptosis *in vivo*, we examined whether or not DHEA could induce apoptosis *in vitro*. Peripheral lymphocytes in culture were treated with DHEA and hydrocortisone 21-acetate at concentrations from 1×10^{-11} to $1 \times 10^{-5} \text{M}$. Although the glucocorticoid induced apoptosis in a dose-dependent manner, DHEA was totally inactive (Fig. 6).

Discussion

The effect of dietary DHEA on thymic and splenic cell numbers and lymphoid cell functional recovery after sublethal irradiation of male C57BL/6 mice appears to be due in large part to a decrease in food intake, as based on similar effects produced by pair-feeding. The dramatic effect of DHEA on food intake by C57BL/6 mice is greater than that reported by other investigators. Dietary DHEA (0.2%–1.0% w/w) exerts dose-dependent effects on food intake in a

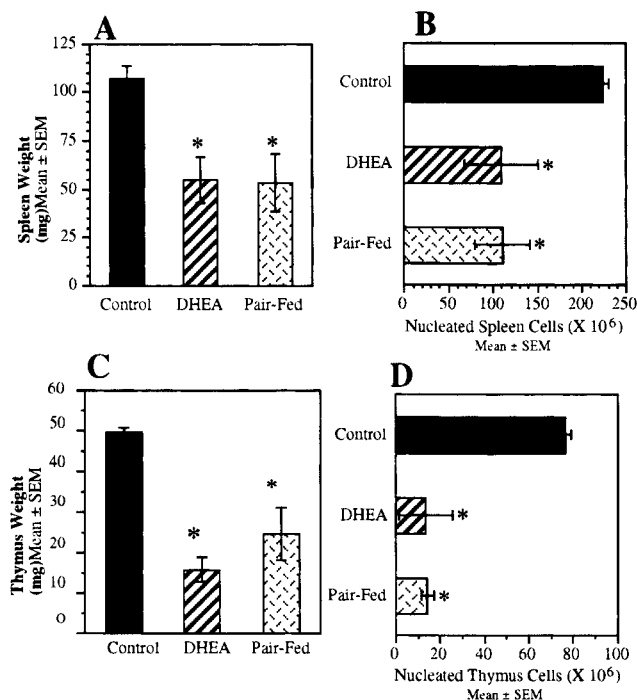


Figure 2. Effect of DHEA treatment and food restriction on spleen and thymus weights and cell numbers. Male C57BL/6 mice were placed on one of the three dietary regimens (Fig. 1) for 10 weeks. (A, B) Spleens and (C, D) thymuses were removed, weighed, and single cell suspensions were prepared. *Significantly different from control ($P < 0.05$) by one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffe's *post hoc* test. This experiment was done twice with four to six mice/group with a minimum of eight mice/group.

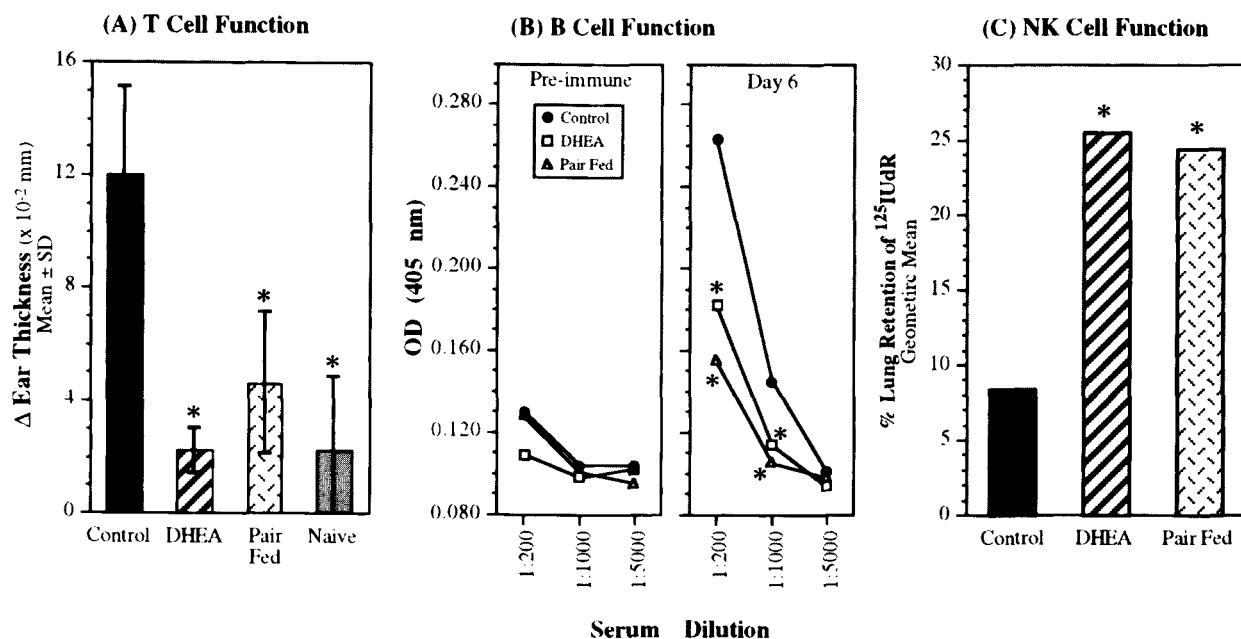


Figure 3. Effect of DHEA treatment and food restriction on recovery of T, B, and NK lymphocyte functions after sublethal irradiation. Male C57BL/6 mice were placed on one of the three dietary regimens (Fig. 1). Two weeks after starting the diets, the mice were exposed to sublethal irradiation (500 cGy). Two weeks after irradiation mice were examined for one of the following parameters: (A) contact hypersensitivity response to DNFB (T cell response); (B) IgM response to TNP-LPS (B cell response); and (C) clearance of radiolabeled YAC-1 tumor cells (NK cell response). *Significantly different from control ($P < 0.05$) by one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffe's *post hoc* test in A and C, and two-way ANOVA followed by Duncan's range test in B. This experiment was done twice with four mice/group or a total of eight mice/group.

given strain of mice, but the effects vary in different animal species and/or strains. For example, Coleman *et al.* (10) observed that food intake was decreased in only one (C57BL/6J) of two strains tested in the narrow ancestral C57BL mouse lineage. Most investigators have found no or only transient effects of DHEA (9, 50–53), whereas others have observed a significant reduction in food intake. A diet we and others have used may contribute to more dramatic effects on food intake due to better absorption (10, 30–32). The suppression of food intake by DHEA in Zucker rats was associated with alterations of hypothalamic serotonin content (47), raising the possibility that DHEA may have a neuromodulatory effect on appetite regulation.

Both food restriction and dietary DHEA can prevent and/or treat many of the same diseases in animal models, as well as inhibit immune decline (1–10, 35–42); this list includes autoimmune disease (35–37), nephrosis (14, 39) and neoplasia (9, 40, 41, 54). Also, both dietary DHEA and food restriction greatly extend the life expectancy of laboratory rodents (14, 55). These observations indicate a possible role for food restriction in the effects of DHEA. For many years little was known about the mechanism by which food restriction mediates its various effects. As early as the 1960s it was noted that food restriction inhibited cellular proliferation, and it was proposed that proliferation was inhibited through suppression of DNA synthesis (56, 57). More recently, food restriction has been shown not only to inhibit proliferation, but also to eliminate pre-neoplastic cells through induction of apoptosis (40). The protective effect of

food restriction against cancer was associated with modulation of the rates of apoptosis and proliferation (42). In our studies, DHEA administration and food restriction dramatically increased the number of apoptotic blood lymphocytes in mice within 4 days. The high rates of apoptosis were surprising, because apoptotic cells are usually rapidly engulfed and removed by phagocytic cells. The action of DHEA is likely mediated through food restriction, because pair-fed mice behave in a similar manner. DHEA, unlike glucocorticoids, does not directly induce cells to undergo apoptosis *in vitro* (Fig. 6), indicating that DHEA and food restriction act indirectly. However, it is conceivable that the stress or toxicity of DHEA and/or food restriction stimulated the secretion of corticosterone or other direct mediators of apoptosis, or induced the expression of *Fas* on lymphocytes and *Fas* ligand on other cell types or other lymphocytes. The effects of DHEA observed here may have been mostly indirect and may have obscured any direct effects of DHEA on the immune system.

It is possible that apoptosis detected by flow cytometry as described (46) is a result of the manipulations involved in isolating peripheral blood lymphocytes, and not a result of the treatment. However, the fact that apoptotic cells are not detectable in lymphocytes of mice on the control diet until after the mice are sublethally irradiated indicates that the manipulations performed here do not induce healthy cells to undergo apoptosis. It is still possible that apoptotic cells are not present in the blood of DHEA-treated or pair-fed mice, but that these cells are more susceptible than cells from

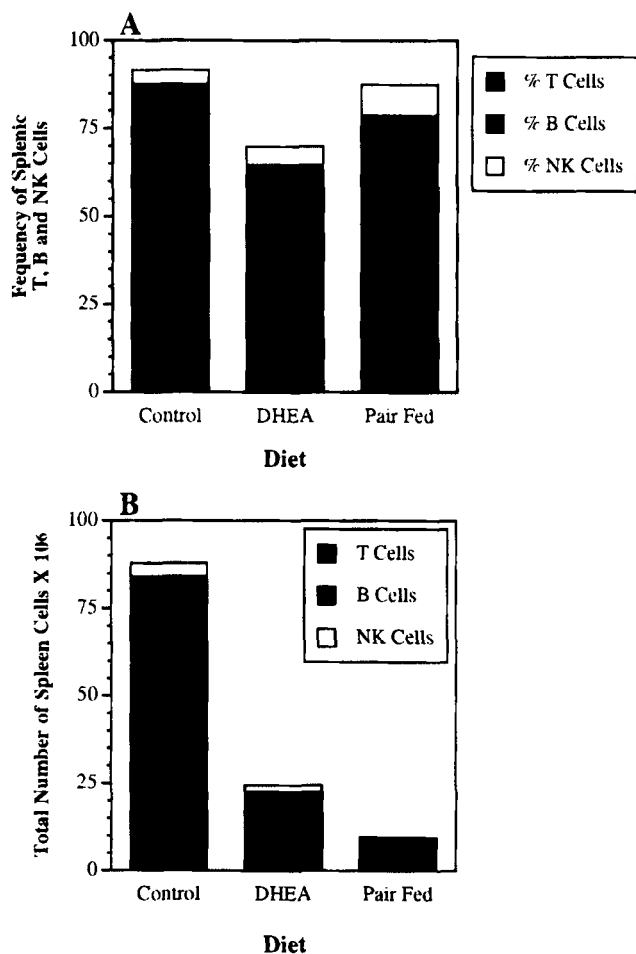


Figure 4. Effect of DHEA treatment and pair-feeding on splenic lymphocyte populations after sublethal irradiation of male C57BL/6 mice. Male C57BL/6 mice were placed on one of the three dietary regimens, as described (Fig. 1) 14 days prior to sublethal irradiation (500 cGy). Two weeks after irradiation, animals were sacrificed, and spleens were removed and pooled for flow cytometry studies. Cell populations were defined by the following criteria: FITC-anti-TCR $\alpha\beta$ (T cells), DTAF-goat anti-IgG/IgM (H+L) (B cells), and PE-anti-NK 1.1 (NK cells). (A) Frequencies and (B) absolute numbers of T, B, and NK cells are presented. This experiment was done twice with 5 mice/group or a total of 10 mice/group.

mice on the control diet and, thus, undergo apoptosis more readily when manipulated. Whether or not this is the case, administration of DHEA and restriction of food intake lead to an increased incidence and/or susceptibility to apoptosis.

Apoptosis is believed to play a critical role in the development and regulation of the immune system. *In vivo*, it is believed that immune tolerance, as well as the extent of an immune response, are regulated through induction of apoptosis of responding cells (58). Thus, it is not surprising that lymphocytes can be induced to undergo apoptosis through a variety of signals. After cell contact, binding of the *Fas* antigen of target cells to the *Fas* ligand induces apoptosis in certain cells (59). Cytokines also can play a major role in this process (e.g., cells may undergo apoptosis after withdrawal of such required growth factor as GM-CSF or IL-3) (60, 61). TGF β , TNF α , and IFN γ can directly induce apoptosis (62–64). We confirmed our earlier observations (31,

32) that the thymus and spleen are both reduced in size and cell numbers. While the normal thymus has a high rate of apoptosis to mediate T-cell selection, apoptosis in the spleen is only prominent in germinal centers during B-cell selection. Splenic B cells, a major target of DHEA or food restriction (Fig. 4), undergo apoptosis unless reduced by agents such as IL-4 or protein kinase C activators (65). The microenvironment in the spleens of DHEA-treated and pair-fed mice may have decreased levels of cytokines necessary for B-cell survival or increased levels of cytokines that induce apoptosis. Deliberate starvation for 2 days resulted in decreased T-cell-mediated immunity, which could be reversed by the administration of leptin to mice (66). Therefore, it is conceivable that food restriction could decrease leptin levels to mediate some of the effects we observed.

Although our data suggest a role for food restriction in some of the effects produced by dietary DHEA, food restriction cannot account for all of the effects of this steroid. For example, a single subcutaneous administration of a low dose of DHEA increased immunity against viral challenge (17). Similar enhancement of immune-related effects of low doses of DHEA given topically or by injection was observed particularly in aged rodents (18–29). It is unlikely that the effect of DHEA administered as a single, small dose is mediated through a decrease in energy intake or lack of some essential component present in food, supporting the concept that DHEA may act through a variety of mechanisms. Although highly effective in aged mice, short-term treatment of aged humans with a relatively small amount of DHEA did not significantly improve the age-related decreased response to immunization against influenza or tetanus (67–69). However, oral dehydroepiandrosterone supplied in physiological replacement doses to postmenopausal women had an immunomodulatory effect (i.e., decreased CD4⁺ (helper) T cells and increased CD8⁺/CD69⁺ NK cells and cytotoxicity) (70). DHEA is a steroid pro-hormone for estrogens and androgens, and the immune and endocrine systems are considerably intertwined. It is possible that DHEA affects the immune system at many levels; the decreased DHEA levels in aged individuals might contribute to immunosenescence.

Obese women placed on a restricted diet were found to have decreased levels of NK cell function and circulating IgG (71). Also, after 6 months on a 30% caloric reduction diet, the four men and four women of Biosphere 2 demonstrated a 30% decrease in leukocyte count (72). In addition, preliminary findings of studies on life span extension and reduction in age-related diseases by food restriction in rhesus monkeys appear to be very similar to those found in rodents (73). Humans subjected to fasting for 7 or 10 days had decreased numbers of peripheral lymphocytes, but NK-cell killing activity per cell increased significantly (74).

The observation that some of the effects produced by dietary DHEA may be mediated through food restriction raises interesting possibilities for human therapy. Humans given 1.6 g DHEA/day orally did not decrease food intake

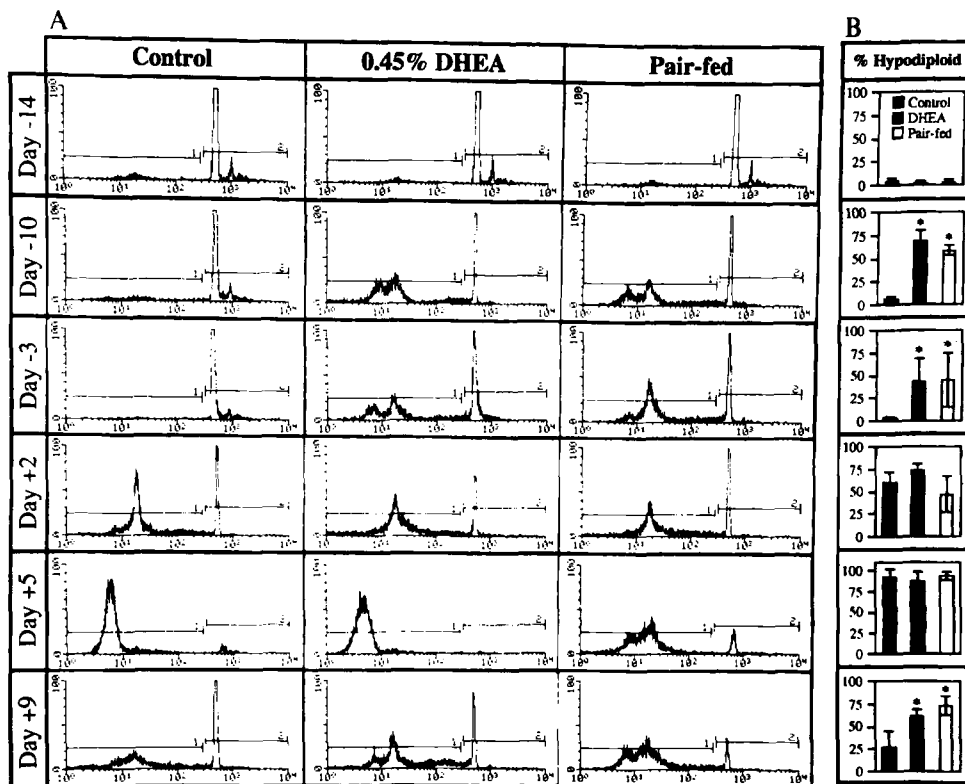


Figure 5. Effect of DHEA treatment and pair-feeding of male C57BL/6 mice on apoptosis rates of peripheral blood lymphocytes *in vivo*. Male C57BL/6 mice were placed on one of the three dietary regimens (as described in Fig. 1) 14 days prior to sublethal irradiation (500 cGy). The feeding regimens were continued for 2 weeks after irradiation. Blood was obtained from the lateral tail vein, erythrocytes were lysed, and cells were stained with propidium iodide for FACS analysis to determine the percentage of hypodiploid cells. *Significantly different from control ($P < 0.05$) by one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffe's *post hoc* test. This experiment was done twice with four mice/group or a total of eight mice/group.

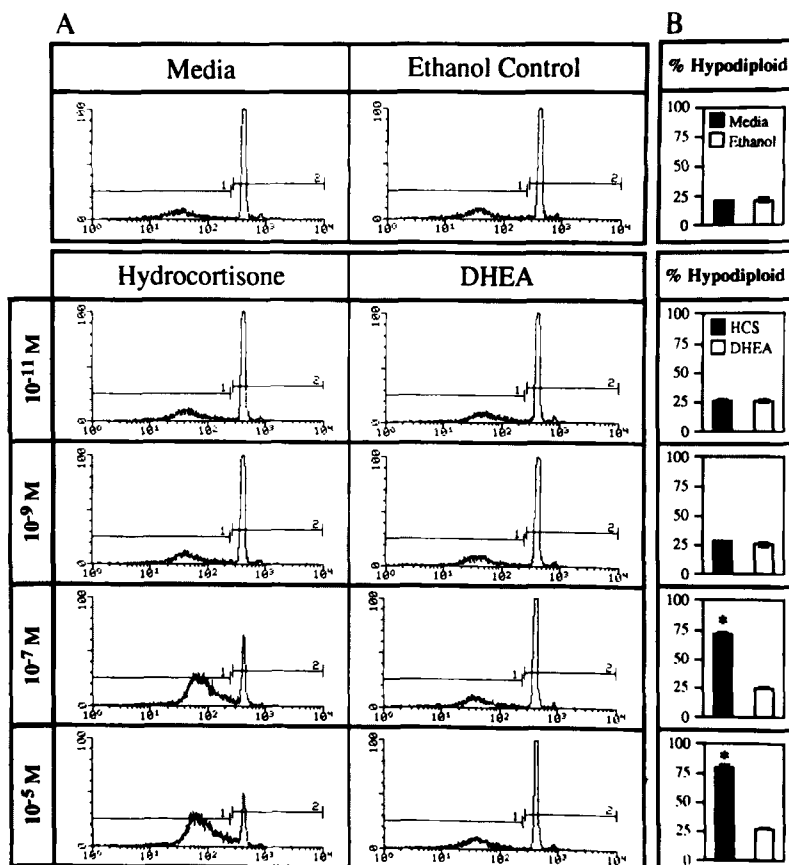


Figure 6. Effect of DHEA and hydrocortisone 21-acetate *in vitro* on apoptosis of cultured peripheral blood lymphocytes. Peripheral blood lymphocytes obtained from untreated male C57BL/6 mice were cultured overnight in 96 well plates (2×10^6 per well) in the presence of either DHEA or hydrocortisone 21 acetate at the concentrations indicated. Cells were harvested and stained with propidium iodide, as described in Materials and Methods, and analyzed by flow cytometry. Gray bars represent hypodiploid cells (%; mean \pm SD) observed in cultures with media containing 0.1% ethanol. *Significantly different from either medium or 0.1% ethanol-containing medium and from DHEA-treated cells ($P < 0.001$) by Student's *t* test. This experiment was done twice with very similar results.

(75–77). However, these doses are much lower when expressed in DHEA/kg body weight/day than doses used in animal studies. The dose of DHEA that can be administered safely to human subjects is not precisely known, but it is limited by the possible adverse effects of increasing the levels of the androgenic and estrogenic metabolites of DHEA. Oral doses of 3 g/day were safe in a study of treatment of patients with multiple sclerosis (78).

Whether the benefits of reducing food intake are due to immunological or other mechanisms remains to be determined, yet it is important to note that some immunological effects are observed in both laboratory animals (35–42) and humans (71, 72, 74). Unfortunately, the reality of human compliance to a restricted diet is likely to fall short of what can be imposed on caged laboratory animals.

In conclusion, dietary DHEA decreased food intake in male C57BL/6 mice, and this decrease apparently led to increased apoptosis of lymphocytes, with decreased lymphoid cell numbers and functions. Adrenalectomy reversed the inhibitory effects of food restriction on skin tumor promotion by phorbol esters in mice (79), supporting the potential importance of adrenal steroids (e.g., glucocorticoids) in at least some of the effects observed. Defective apoptosis is thought to contribute to autoimmune disease and immunosenescence (80, 81), whereas increased apoptosis is protective in liver cancer models (40, 42). DHEA, by reducing food intake, may exert some of its beneficial effects through apoptosis. The pleiotropic effects of DHEA on metabolic, hormonal, or brain functions argue that apoptosis is not the only important effect of this abundant human steroid (82).

- Orentreich N, Brind JL, Rizer RL, Vogelman JH. Age changes and sex differences in serum dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate concentrations throughout adulthood. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 59:551–555, 1984.
- Schneider LS, Hinsey M, Lyness S. Plasma dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate in Alzheimer's disease. *Biol Psychiatry* 31:205–208, 1992.
- Mulder JW, Frissen PH, Krijnen P, Endert E, de Wolf F, Goudsmit J, Masterson JG, Lange JM. Dehydroepiandrosterone as predictor for progression to AIDS in asymptomatic human immunodeficiency virus-infected men. *J Infect Dis* 165:413–418, 1992.
- Suzuki T, Suzuki N, Engelman EG, Misushima Y, Sakane T. Low serum levels of dehydroepiandrosterone may cause deficient IL-2 production by lymphocytes in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE). *Clin Exp Immunol* 99:251–255, 1995.
- Herrington KJ, Gordon GB, Achuff SC, Trejo JF, Weisman HF, Krieger PO Jr, Pearson TA. Plasma dehydroepiandrosterone and dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate in patients undergoing diagnostic coronary angiography. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 16:862–870, 1990.
- Bulbrook RD, Hayword JL. Abnormal urinary steroid excretion and subsequent breast cancer: A prospective study in the Island of Guernsey. *Lancet* 1:519–522, 1967.
- Helzlsouer KJ, Gordon GB, Alberg AJ, Bush TL, Comstock GW. Relationship of prediagnostic serum levels of dehydroepiandrosterone and dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate to the risk of developing premenopausal breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 52:1–4, 1992.
- De Pergola G, Cospite MR, Giagulli VA, Giorgino F, Garruti G, Cignarelli M, Giorgino R. Insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-1) and dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate in obese women. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 17:481–483, 1993.
- Schwartz AG. Inhibition of spontaneous breast cancer formation in female C3H (A^{vy}/a) mice by long-term treatment with dehydroepiandrosterone. *Cancer Res* 39:1129–1132, 1979.
- Coleman DL, Schwizer RW, Leiter EH. Effect of genetic background on the therapeutic effects of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) in diabetes-obesity mutants and in aged mice. *Diabetes* 33:26–32, 1994.
- Matsunaga A, Miller BC, Cottam GL. Dehydroepiandrosterone prevention of autoimmune disease in NZB/W F1 mice: Lack of an effect on associated immunological abnormalities. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 992:265–271, 1989.
- Weindruch R, McFeeters G, Walford RL. Food intake reduction and immunologic alterations in mice fed dehydroepiandrosterone. *Exp Gerontol* 19:297–304, 1984.
- Tannen RH, Schwartz AG. Reduced weight gain and delay of Coomb's positive hemolytic anemia in NZB mice treated with dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA). *Fed Proc* 41:463(A), 1982.
- Pashko LL, Fairman DK, Schwartz AG. Inhibition of proteinuria development in aging Sprague-Dawley rats and C57BL/6 mice by long-term treatment with dehydroepiandrosterone. *J Gerontol* 41:433–438, 1986.
- Arad Y, Badimon JJ, Badimon L, Hembree WC, Ginsberg HN. Dehydroepiandrosterone feeding prevents aortic fatty streak formation and cholesterol in cholesterol-fed rabbit. *Arteriosclerosis* 9:159–166, 1989.
- Mohan PF, Ihnen JS, Levin BE, Cleary MP. Effects of dehydroepiandrosterone treatment in rats with diet-induced obesity. *J Nutr* 120:1103–1114, 1990.
- Loria RM, Inge TH, Cook SS, Sasaki AK, Regelson W. Protection against acute lethal viral infections with the native steroid dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA). *J Med Virol* 26:301–314, 1988.
- Araneo BA, Woods ML II, Daynes RA. Reversal of the immunosenescent phenotype by dehydroepiandrosterone: Hormone treatment provides an adjuvant effect on the immunization of aged mice with recombinant hepatitis B surface antigen. *J Infect Dis* 167:830–840, 1993.
- Daynes RA, Araneo BA. Natural regulators of T-cell lymphokine production *in vivo*. *J Immunotherapy* 12:174–179, 1992.
- Padgett DA, Loria RM. *In vitro* potentiation of lymphocyte activation by dehydroepiandrosterone, androstenediol, and androstenetriol. *J Immunol* 153:1544–1552, 1994.
- Ben-Nathan D, Lachmi B, Lustig S, Feurstein G. Protection by dehydroepiandrosterone in mice infected with viral encephalitis. *Arch Virol* 120:263–271, 1991.
- Ben-Nathan D, Lustig S, Kobiler D, Danenberg HD, Lupu E, Feurstein G. Dehydroepiandrosterone protects mice inoculated with West Nile virus and exposed to cold stress. *J Med Virol* 38:159–166, 1992.
- Rasmussen KR, Martin EG, Healey MC. Effects of dehydroepiandrosterone in immunosuppressed rats infected with *Cryptosporidium parvum*. *J Parasitol* 79:364–370, 1993.
- Garg M, Bondada S. Reversal of age-associated decline in immune response to Pnu-immune vaccine by supplementation with the steroid hormone dehydroepiandrosterone. *Infect Immun* 61:2238–2241, 1993.
- Rasmussen KR, Healey MC, Cheng L, Yang S. Effects of dehydroepiandrosterone in immunosuppressed adult mice infected with *Cryptosporidium parvum*. *J Parasitol* 81:429–433, 1995.
- Danenberg HD, Ben-Yehuda A, Zakay-Rones Z, Friedman G. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) treatment reverses the impaired immune response of old mice to influenza vaccination and protects from influenza infection. *Vaccine* 13:1445–1448, 1995.
- Danenberg HD, Ben-Yehuda A, Zakay-Rones Z, Friedman G. Dehydroepiandrosterone enhances influenza immunization in aged mice. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 774:297–299, 1995.
- Araghi-Niknam M, Zhang Z, Jiang S, Call O, Eskelson CD, Watson RR. Cytokine dysregulation and increased oxidation is prevented by dehydroepiandrosterone in mice infected with murine leukemia retrovirus. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 216:386–391, 1997.
- Fallon PG, Richardson EJ, Jones FM, Duane DW. Dehydroepiandrosterone

- terone sulfate treatment of mice modulates infection with *Schistosoma mansoni*. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol 5:251–253, 1998.
30. Risdon G, Cope J, Bennett M. Mechanisms of chemoprevention by dietary dehydroepiandrosterone. Am J Pathol 136:759–769, 1990.
 31. Risdon G, Moore TA, Kumar V, Bennett M. Inhibition of murine natural killer cell differentiation by dehydroepiandrosterone. Blood 78:2387–2391, 1991.
 32. Risdon G, Kumar V, Bennett M. Differential effects of DHEA on murine lymphopoiesis and myelopoiesis. Exp Hematol 19:128–131, 1991.
 33. Wright BE, Browne ES, Svec F, Porter JP. Divergent effect of dehydroepiandrosterone on energy intake of Zucker rats. Physiol Behav 53:39–43, 1993.
 34. Cleary MP, Shepherd A, Jenks B. Effect of dehydroepiandrosterone on growth in lean and obese Zucker rats. J Nutr 114:1242–1251, 1984.
 35. Weindrich R, Gottesman SR, Walford RL. Modification of age-related immune decline in mice dietary restricted from or after mid-adulthood. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 79:898–902, 1982.
 36. Mizutani H, Engelman RW, Kinjoh K, Kurata Y, Ikehara S, Matsuzawa Y, Good RA. Calorie restriction prevents the occlusive coronary vascular disease of autoimmune (NZW X BXSB)F1 mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 91:4402–4406, 1994.
 37. Fernandes G, Venkatraman J, Khare A, Horbach GJM, Friedrich W. Modulation of gene expression in autoimmune disease and aging by food restriction and dietary lipids. Proc Soc Exp Biol Med 193:16–22, 1990.
 38. Fernandes G. Chronobiology of immune functions: Cellular and humoral aspects. In: Touitou Y, Haus E, Eds. Biologic rhythms in clinical and laboratory medicine. Berlin: Springer-Verlag, pp 493–508, 1992.
 39. Fujita Y, Ichikawa M, Kurimoto F, Rikimaru T. Effects of feed restriction and switching the diet on proteinuria in male Wistar rats. J Gerontol 39:531–537, 1984.
 40. Grasl-Kraupp B, Bursch W, Ruttkey-Nedecky B, Wagner A, Lauer B, Schulte-Hermann R. Food restriction eliminates preneoplastic cells through apoptosis and antagonizes carcinogenesis in rat liver. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 91:9995–9999, 1994.
 41. Volk MJ, Pugh TD, Kim M, Frith CH, Daynes RA, Ershler WB, Weindrich R. Dietary restriction from middle age attenuates age-associated lymphoma development and interleukin 6 dysregulation in C57BL/6 mice. Cancer Res 54:3054–3061, 1994.
 42. James SJ, Muskhelishvili L. Rates of apoptosis and proliferation vary with caloric intake and may influence incidence of spontaneous hepatoma in C57BL/6 X C3H F1 Mice. Cancer Res 54:5508–5510, 1994.
 43. Toews GB, Bergstresser PR, Streilein JW. Epidermal cell density determines whether contact hypersensitivity or unresponsiveness follows skin painting with DNFB. J Immunol 124:445–453, 1980.
 44. Dahlgren UI, Hanson LA. Effect of oestradiol on the secretory immune system in the rat: An increase in biliary IgM antibodies against a T-cell-independent antigen. Immunology 74:74–77, 1991.
 45. Hackett J, Bosma GC, Bosma MJ, Bennett M, Kumar V. Transplantable progenitors of natural killer cells are distinct from those of T and B lymphocytes. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 83:3427–3431, 1986.
 46. Nicoletti I, Migliorati G, Pagliacci MC, Grignani F, Riccardi C. A rapid and simple method for measuring thymocyte apoptosis by propidium iodide staining and flow cytometry. J Immunol Methods 139:271–279, 1991.
 47. Abadie JM, Wright B, Correa G, Browne ES, Porter JP, Svec F. Effect of dehydroepiandrosterone on neurotransmitter levels and appetite regulation of the obese Zucker rat. The Obesity Research Program. Diabetes 42:662–669, 1993.
 48. Svec F, Abadie J, Browne ES, Porter JR. Dehydroepiandrosterone and macronutrient selection by obese Zucker rats. Appetite 25:143–154, 1995.
 49. Garvey BA, Fraker PJ. Suppression of the antigenic response of murine bone marrow B cells by physiological concentrations of glucocorticoids. Immunology 74:519–523, 1991.
 50. Schwartz AG, Tannen RH. Inhibition of 7, 12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene- and urethane-induced lung tumor formation in A/J mice by long-term treatment with dehydroepiandrosterone. Carcinogenesis 2:1335–1338, 1981.
 51. Yen TT, Allan JA, Pearson DV, Acton JM, Greenberg MM. Prevention of obesity in A^{vy/a} mice by dehydroepiandrosterone. Lipids 12:409–413, 1977.
 52. Granholm NK, Staaber LD, Wilkin PJ. Effect of dehydroepiandrosterone on obesity and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase activity in the lethal yellow mouse (129/Sv-A^x A^y). J Exp Zool 242:67–74, 1987.
 53. Schwartz AG, Hard JC, Pashko LL, Abou-Gharbia M, Swem D. Dehydroepiandrosterone: An antiobesity and anticarcinogenic agent. Nutr Cancer 3:46–53, 1981.
 54. Nyce JW, Magee PN, Hard GC, Schwartz AG. Inhibition of 1,2-dimethylhydrazine-induced colon tumorigenesis in BALB/c mice by dehydroepiandrosterone. Carcinogenesis 5:57–62, 1984.
 55. Masoro EJ. Dietary restriction and aging. J Am Geriatr Soc 41:994–999, 1993.
 56. Potter VR, Gebert RA, Pitot HC, Peraino C, Lamar C. Systematic oscillations in metabolic activity in rat liver and in hepatomas. I. Morris hepatoma No. 7793. Cancer Res 26:1547–1560, 1966.
 57. Barbieri B, Potter RV. DNA synthesis and interaction between controlled feeding schedules and partial hepatectomy in rats. Science 172:738–741, 1971.
 58. Cohen JJ, Drake RC, Fadok VA, Sellins KS. Apoptosis and programmed cell death in immunity. Annu Rev Immunol 10:267–293, 1992.
 59. Stadler T, Hahn S, Erh P. Fas antigen is the major target molecule for CD4⁺ T cell-mediated cytotoxicity. J Immunol 152:1127–1133, 1994.
 60. Brach MA, de Vos S, Gruss HS, Herrmann F. Prolongation of survival of human polymorphonuclear neutrophils by granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor is caused by inhibition of programmed cell death. Blood 80:2920–2924, 1992.
 61. Mekori YA, Oh CK, Metcalfe DD. IL-3-dependent murine mast cells undergo apoptosis on removal of IL-3. Prevention of apoptosis by c-kit ligand. J Immunol 151:3775–3784, 1993.
 62. Lotem J, Sachs L. Hematopoietic cytokines inhibit apoptosis induced by transforming growth factor β 1 and cancer chemotherapy compounds in myeloid leukemia cells. Blood 80:1750–1757, 1992.
 63. Hernandez-Caselles T, Stutman O. Immune functions of tumor necrosis factor. I. Tumor necrosis factor induces apoptosis of mouse thymocytes and can also stimulate or inhibit IL-6-induced proliferation depending on the concentration of mitogenic costimulation. J Immunol 151:3999–4012, 1993.
 64. Novelli F, Pieffo FD, Celle PFD, Bertini S, Affaticati P, Garotta G, Forni G. Environmental signals influencing expression of the IFN- γ receptor on human T cells control whether IFN- γ promotes proliferation or apoptosis. J Immunol 152:496–504, 1994.
 65. Illera VA, Perandones CE, Stunz LL, Mower DA, Ashman RF. Apoptosis in splenic B lymphocytes: Regulation by protein kinase C and IL-4. J Immunol 151:2965–2973, 1993.
 66. Lord GM, Matarese G, Howard JK, Baker RJ, Bloom SR, Lechler RI. Leptin modulates the T-cell immune response and reverses starvation-induced immunosuppression. Nature 394:897–901, 1998.
 67. Evans TG, Judd ME, Dowell T, Poe S, Daynes RA, Araneo BA. The use of oral dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate as an adjuvant in tetanus and influenza vaccination of the elderly. Vaccine 14:1531–1537, 1996.
 68. Danenberg HD, Ben-Yehuda A, Zakai-Rones Z, Gross DJ, Friedman G. Dehydroepiandrosterone treatment is not beneficial to the immune response to influenza in elderly subjects. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82:2911–2914, 1997.
 69. Degelau J, Guay D, Hallgren H. The effect of DHEAS on influenza vaccination in aging adults. J Am Geriatr Soc 45:747–751, 1997.
 70. Casson PR, Anderson RN, Herrod HG, Stentz FB, Straughn AB, Abraham GE, Buster JE. Oral dehydroepiandrosterone in physiological doses modulates immune function in postmenopausal women. Am J Obstet Gynecol 169:1536–1539, 1993.
 71. Kelley DS, Daudu PA, Branch LB, Johnson HL, Taylor PC, Mackey

- B. Energy restriction decreases number of circulating natural killer cells and serum levels of immunoglobulins in overweight women. *Eur J Clin Nutr* **48**:9–18, 1993.
72. Walford RL, Harris SB, Gunion MW. The calorically restricted low-fat nutrient-dense diet in Biosphere 2 significantly lowers blood glucose, total leukocyte count, cholesterol, and blood pressure in humans. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **89**:11533–11537, 1992.
73. Lane MA, Ingram DK, Roth GS. Beyond the rodent model: Calorie restriction in rhesus monkeys. *Age* **20**:45–56, 1997.
74. Komaki G, Kamazawa F, Sogawa H, Mine K, Tamai H, Okamura S, Kubo C. Alterations in lymphocyte subsets and pituitary-adrenal gland-related hormones during fasting. *Am J Clin Nutr* **66**:147–152, 1997.
75. Nestler JE, Barlascini CO, Clore JN, Blackard WG. Dehydroepiandrosterone reduces serum low-density lipoprotein levels and body fat does not alter insulin sensitivity in normal men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **66**:57–61, 1988.
76. Morola JF, Yen SS. The effects of oral dehydroepiandrosterone on endocrine-metabolic parameters in postmenopausal women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **71**:696–704, 1990.
77. Usiskin KS, Butterworth S, Clore JN, Ginsberg HN, Blackard WG, Nestler JE. Lack of effect of dehydroepiandrosterone in obese men. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* **14**:457–463, 1990.
78. Calabrese VP, Isaacs ER, Regelson W. Dehydroepiandrosterone in multiple sclerosis: Positive effects on the fatigue syndrome in a non-randomized study. In: Kalimi M, Regelson W, Eds. *The Biologic role of Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA)*, New York: Walter de Gruyter, pp 95–100, 1990.
79. Pashko LL, Schwartz AG. Reversal of food restriction-induced inhibition of mouse skin tumor promotion by adrenalectomy. *Carcinogenesis* **13**:1925–1928, 1992.
80. Mountz JD, Wu J, Cheng J, Zhou T. Autoimmune disease: A problem of defective apoptosis. *Arthritis Rheum* **10**:1415–1420, 1994.
81. Miller RA. Accumulation of hyporesponsive, calcium extruding memory T cells as a key feature of age-dependent immune dysfunction. *Clin Immunol Immunopathol* **58**:305–317, 1991.
82. Svec F, Porter JR. The actions of exogenous dehydroepiandrosterone in experimental animals and humans. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* **218**:174–191, 1992.