# **Neurology & Neuroscience**



#### \*Correspondence

Gary Steinman, MD, PhD Visiting Researcher, Hadassah Hospital, Jerusalem, Israel E-mail: DAV4601@aol.com

# Abstract

**Gary Steinman** 

**Etiology of Autism** 

Visiting Researcher, Hadassah Hospital, Jerusalem, Israel

The causative factor for autism now appears to be a deficient supply of insulin-like growth factor-1  $(IGF_1)$  and vitamin D3 in many newborn and infants, thereby leading to persistently insufficient myelin in developing cranial nerves. Various malformed neurologic networks last into adulthood. Of particular concern is a pregnancy exposed to febrile viral conditions, where interleukins suppress  $IGF_1$  production. Breastfeeding of the newborn may be preventative in many such cases.

# Introduction

Received Date: 17 May 2023

- Accepted Date: 22 May 2023
- Publication Date: 28 May 2023

#### Copyright

© 2023 Authors. This is an open- access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license. Cases of autism were formally recognized and reported first in 1943 [1]. Following this, the etiologic emphasis was on a search for dominant genetic errors [2]. When fewer than 10% of autistic cases examined were found to have such anomalies, attention was turned to plausible biochemical/metabolic causes.

Diligent research has expanded the insight into the etiology of autism and the biochemical basis of its development. In this way, effective modes of prevention could be researched. Understanding the central roles of (insulin-like growth factor-1)  $IGF_1$  and Vitamin D3 in this malady in particular now make possible the development of approaches to preventing or ameliorating the disease in susceptible children beginning at birth. In particular, breast-feeding and vitamin D3 supply are now emphasized (see below).

Beyond several similarities to true autism (TA), distinguishing effects found in patients with Rett Syndrome (RS), an autism-like condition, for example, involves cholinergic neurons. In contradistinction, predominantly serotonergic neurons in TA are affected. Furthermore, in RS, almost all affected patients are female, whereas in TA, 4 times as many males harbor this condition as females. In the case of true autism, the deficiency of IGF1 reduces the velocity of essential cranial nerve impulses in particular [3,4].

Distinguishing characteristics based on gender have not been explained fully as yet. It is interesting to note the biochemical findings in a seemingly normal group of 54 boys and 45 girls at ages of 11-12 months. The mean blood  $IGF_1$  level for the girls was approximately 120 ng/ml and for the boys 70 ng/ml [5]. This is relevant to the aforementioned overall greater incidence of autism in males than females. A common problem found in autistic children is a persistence of insufficiently myelinated neo-neurons, apparently a direct result of  $IGF_1$  deficiency.

# Explanation

There are six different  $IGF_1$ -bonding proteins (BP1-6) in the human metabolism, usually holding/storing 99% of the available but inactive  $IGF_1$  in the circulation under physiologic conditions. Bonding protein #3 (BP3) carries the largest amount of  $IGF_1$ during catabolism, but the combination is biochemically inactive. The potential release of  $IGF_1$  attached to the bonding protein (BP3) by competition with cGP (cyclic glycyl-proline), the N-terminal dimeric remnant from  $IGF_1$ , may explain the mechanism resulting in a general deficiency of  $IGF_1$ . In the presence of added cGP, IGF1 is released from its inactive bound state [6-8]:

# $IGFBP3-IGF1 + cGP \rightarrow IGFBP3-cGP + IGF1$

Inactive

Active

The IGF1 circulating freely, typically has a half-life of 1-2 minutes; whereas if the IGF<sub>1</sub> is attached to one of the six bonding proteins, it may endure for up to 12 hours. Although these reactions can occur spontaneously, the release of IGF<sub>1</sub> from a BP-based complex can be accelerated by proteases [9-11].

Citation: Steinman G. Etiology of Autism. Neurol Neurosci. 2023; 4(2):1-3

Because of its known function in nerve myelination, it has been proposed that sufficient  $IGF_1$  blocks the genesis of autism [12]. Alternatively, reduced levels of  $IGF_1$  signal increase the probability of the later development of autism [13]. An example of this is the comparison of babies who have been bottle-fed versus breast-fed. This difference in food source appears ¬related to the greater concentration of  $IGF_1$  in the latter case than the former [14,15]. This is important because the  $IGF_1$  promotes axonal myelination in the neonate's synthesis of a functional neural system.

The reaction shown above binds 99% of the ambient  $IGF_1$  in the cellular environment to  $IGFBP_3$ , making it largely unreactive and unavailable for active  $IGF_1$  supply in vivo unless supplied externally.

# Application

Free  $IGF_1$  (a 70-member linear polypeptide) can be produced in vitro by the union of individual amino acids for commercial applications. However, this makes it today a very costly potential pharmacological or research agent. It is possible to react IGFBP3-IGF1 with cGP, an inexpensive dipeptide, thereby providing IGF1 itself under more affordable conditions (see reaction above).

Several potential mammalian sources containing this carrierreactant combination exist, especially in addition to vitamin D [15,16]. On the other hand, febrile gravidas infected with viruses run the risk of elevated IL-6 (interleukin-6) and depressed IGF<sub>1</sub>. This enhances the chance of giving birth to a baby destined to become overtly autistic in 1-4 years [16-18].

The use of  $IGF_1$  as a medication is not without some potential risk. In particular, it is known that humans and test animals with elevated  $IGF_1$  tend to have shorter lifespans and possibly enhanced cancer potential [14]. However, elder healthy people with increased cGP/IGF<sub>1</sub> molar ratios display better cognition [19-22].

Autism is now considered to be due in many cases to a deficiency of vitamin D in the gravida and her baby [23]. With such a diminished supply of the vitamin, there are increased inflammatory/cytokine levels [24]. A number of years ago, the American Medical Association warned gravidas to avoid prolonged sun exposure, resulting in an increased occurrence of autism. For partial compensation and protection, many women consumed large levels of fish which are rich in vitamin D3 [25]. In a number of these cases, the outcome for the baby was improved [26,27]. Another preventative is regulated sun exposure, especially with darker-skinned people, thereby adjusting the level of calcitriol [24]. Also, inflammatory cytokines are reduced as a result [28,29].

Lower-than-normal levels (<40 ng/ml) of serum vitamin 25(OH)D are found in many children destined to develop autism, typically in infancy and early childhood [30-32]. After birth, about 90% of human vitamin D comes from sun exposure of the individual's skin. Postpartum development of autism can be promoted by a lack of sufficient vitamin D. In a study of rats, vitamin D deficiency resulted in depressed neural development [33-36].

In addition, it has been reported that vitamin D3 increases the circulating level of the  $IGF_1$  factor. With prolonged breast feeding of the infant, the incidence of autism can be reduced still further. This is apparently due to the cooperative action of  $IGF_1$ and D3, both of which are found in human milk [36]. As reviewed in this study, serum  $IGF_1$  is depressed in maternal or fetal antepartum/prenatal/neonatal febrile states in particular. In many such cases, the risk of autism in the baby is especially enhanced. If breast-feeding is displaced by bovine nutrition at the infant stage, the potential for autism to appear in human babies is elevated, since the acquired  $IGF_1$  level is lower. Just the opposite, breastfeeding should be encouraged more aggressively to raise the ingestion of such nutrients. Breastfeeding increases the intake of  $IGF_1$  by the baby, especially for the first six postpartum months. In a review of 13 prior studies of breastfeeding in total, this practice helped lower the risk of autism by 76% [37].

# References

- Kanner L. Autistic disturbances of affective contact. Nerv Child. 1943;2:217-50.
- 2. Kanner L. Follow-up study of eleven autistic children originally reported in 1943. J Autism Child Schizophr. 1971; 1:119-145.
- 3. Herbert, MR, Anderson MP. From fixed developmental defects to reversible functional impairments, in A.W, Zimmerman, Autism Current Theories and Evidence. Humana Press. 2010, pp.429-463.
- Riikonen R. Insulin-like growth factors. In A.W. Zimmerman, Autism Current Theories and Evidence, Humana Press. 2010, p.233-44.
- 5. Yuksel, B, Ozbek, MN, Mungaw, NO, et al. Serum IGF-1 and IGFBP-3 levels in healthy children between 0 and 6 years of age. J Clin Res in Ped Endocrin. 2011;3(2):84-88.
- Fan D, Pitcher T, Dalrymple-Alford J, MacAskill M, Anderson T, Guan J. Changes of plasma cGP/IGF-1 molar ratio with age is associated with cognitive status of Parkinson disease. Alzheimers Dement (Amst). 2020;12(1):e12025.
- 7. Guan J, Gluckman P, Yang P, et al. Cyclic glycine-proline regulates IGF-1 homeostasis by altering the binding of IGFBP-3 to IGF-1. Sci Rep. 2014;4:4388.
- Singh-Mallah G, Singh K, McMahon C, et al. Maternally administered cyclic glycine-proline increases insulin-like growth factor-1 bioavailability. Endocrine. 2016; 157:3130-39.
- Shrivastav SV. Insulin-like growth binding protein-3 (IGFBP-3): Unraveling the role in mediating IGF-independent effects within the cell. Front Cell Devel Biology. 2020; 8:1-14.
- 10. Guan J, Harris P, Brumble M, et al. The role for IGF-1-derived small neuropeptides as a therapeutic target for neurological disorders. Expert Opin Ther Targets. 2015; 19:785-94.
- Riikonen R. Cerebrospinal fluid insulin-like growth factors IGF-1 and IGF-2 in infantile autism. Develop Med & Child Neuro. 2006;48(9):751-5.
- 12. Riikonen R. Treatment of autistic spectrum disorder with insulinlike growth factors. Europ J Paed Neuro. 2016; 20:816-23.
- Riikonen R. Insulin-like growth factors in the pathogenesis of neurological diseases in children. Inter J Molec Sci. 2017;18(10):2056
- 14. Glass LI, Bickerdike MJ, Snape MF, et al. Neuroprotective bicyclic compounds and methods for tehir use in treating autism spectrum disorders and neurodevelopmental disorders 2018. US Patent #9,867,823.
- Chen J, Alberts I, Li X. Dysregulation of the IGF-1/PI3K/AKT/ mTOR signaling pathway in autism spectrum disorders. Inter J Devel Neuro. 2014; 35:3-41.
- 16. Wang J, Huang H, Liu Cl. et al. Research progress in autism spectrum disorder. Front Behav Neuro. 2022; #859151.
- 17. Steinman G. The biochemical etiology of autism. Aust J Clin Neuro. 1022;9(1):1-8.

- Steinman G. Editor-in-Chief. The Cause of Autism, Baffin Books Pub, NY, 2014.
- 19. Lewitt MS, Hall K. in IGF and Nutrition in Health and Disease, Houston, et al., eds., Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, 2005, Chap.9.
- 20. Rosenfeld RG, Roberts CT. (Editors). The IGF System, Humana Press, Totowa, New Jersey, 1999.
- 21. Zimmerman AW (Editor). Autism Current Theories and Evidence, Humana Press, Totowa. NJ, 2010.
- 22. Blaustein MP, Kao JP, Matteson DR. Cellular Physiology and Neurophysiology. Elsevier, St.Louis, MO, 2020
- 23. Cantorna MT. Vitamin D statis 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3, and the immune system. Am J Clin Nutr. 2004;80(6 Suppl):1717S-20S.
- 24. Cantorna MT, Mahon BT. Mounting evidence for vitamin D as an environmental factor affecting autoimmune disease prevalence. Exp Bio Med (Maywood). 2004;229(11):1136-42.
- Oken E. Maternal fish consumption, hair mercury, and infant cognition in a U.S. Cohort. Environ Health Perspect. 2005;113(10):1376-80.
- Sioen I, DeHenauw S, Van Camp J. Evaluation of benefits and risk related to seafood consumption. Verh K. Acad Geneeskd Belf. 2007;669(5-6):249-89.
- Hibbeln JR, Davis JM, Steer C. et al. Maternal seafood consumption in pregnancy and neurodevelopmental outcomes in childhood (ALSPAC study): an observation cohort study. Lancet. 2007; 369:578-85..
- 28. Gillberg C, Schaumman H. Gillberg C. Autism in immigrants:

children born in Sweden to mothers born in Uganda J Intellect Disabil Res. 1995;1365-2788.

- 29. Goodman R, Richards H. Child and adolescent psychiatric presentations of second-generation Afro-Caribbeans Britain. Br J Psychiatry. 1995;167(3):362-9.
- 30. Cannell JJ, Grant WG. What is the role of vitamin D in autism? Dermatoendocrinology. 2013;5(1):199-204.
- Cannell JJ. Vitamin D and autism, what's new? Rev Endocr Metal Disorder. 2017;18(2):183-193.
- 32. Cannell JJ. Autism and vitamin D. Med Hypoth. 2008;70:750-79.
- 33. Ko P, Buckert R, McGrath M, et al. Maternal vitamin D3 deprivation and the regulation of apoptosis and cell cycle during rat brain development. Brain Res Dev. 2004;153(1):61-8.
- Feron F, Burne THJ, Brown A, et al. Developmental Vitamin D3 deficiency alters the adult rat brain. Brain Res Bull. 2005;65(2):141-8.
- 35. O'Loan J, Dweyle S, Kesby J, et al. Vitamin D deficiency during various stages of pregnancy in the rat; its impact on development and behaviour in adult offspring. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2007;32(3):227-34.
- 36. Ameri P, Giusti A, Moschetti M, et al. Vitamin D increases circulating IGF1 in adults: Potential implication for the treatment of GH deficiency. Eur J Endocrinol. 2013;169(6):7
- 37. Ghozy S, Tran L, Naveed S, et al. Association of breastfeeding with risk of autism spectrum disorder: A systematic review, dose-response analysis and meta-analysis. Asian J of Psychiatry. 2020;48:101916.