Chapter 7

Gastrointestinal Hormones

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Digestive System



1. Gastrointestinal Tract Structure and Function

Summary of Pathways Controlling Digestive System Activities



Gastrointestinal Secretions



Enterohepatic circulation of bile salts

Control of the ileocecal valve/sphincter



Major Gastrointestinal Hormones

Gastrin

- Release is stimulated by presence of protein in stomach
- Secretion inhibited by accumulation of acid in stomach
- Functions
 - Acts in several ways to increase secretion of HCI and pepsinogen
 - Enhances gastric motility, stimulates ileal motility, relaxes ileocecal sphincter, induces mass movements in colon
 - Helps maintain well-developed, functionally viable digestive tract lining

Secretin

- Presence of acid in duodenum stimulates release
- Functions
 - Inhibits gastric emptying in order to prevent further acid from entering duodenum until acid already present is neutralized
 - Inhibits gastric secretion to reduce amount of acid being produced
 - Stimulates pancreatic duct cells to produce large volume of aqueous NaHCO₃ secretion
 - Stimulates liver to secrete NaCO₃ rich bile which assists in neutralization process
 - Along with CCK, is trophic to exocrine pancreas

- Cholecystokinin (CCK)
 - Functions
 - Inhibits gastric motility and secretion
 - Stimulates pancreatic acinar cells to increase secretion of pancreatic enzymes
 - Causes contraction of gallbladder and relaxation of sphincter of Oddi
 - Along with secretin, is trophic to exocrine pancreas
 - Implicated in long-term adaptive changes in proportion of pancreatic enzymes in response to prolonged diet changes
 - Important regulator of food intake

- Gastric inhibitory peptide (GIP)
 - Inhibitory effects on gastric acid secretion
 - Glucose-dependent insulinotrophic peptide
 - Stimulates insulin release by pancreas

A TABLE 16-4

Stimulation of Gastric Secretion



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Gastric secretion gradually decreases as food empties from the stomach into the intestine.



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Hormonal control of pancreatic secretion



2. Source and Chemistry of the Gastrointestinal Hormones

- The GI hormones are synthesized within a system of clear cells (enterochromaffin, argyrophil, or argentaffin cells), so called because they are selectively stained by certain silver salts.
- These clear cells, scattered within the GI tract mucosa from the stomach through the colon, are often referred to as the diffuse or dispersed endocrine system, or, along with the pancreatic hormones, as the gastroenteropancreatic hormones.
- Enterochromaffin-like (ECL) cells

1) Gastrin hormone family members contain a biologically active C-terminal pentapeptide sequence

9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 2 3 7 8 17 6 (pyro)Glu-Gly-Pro-Trp-Leu-Glu-Glu-Glu-Glu-Glu-Ala-Tyr-Gly-Trp-Met-Asp-Phe-NH2 Gastrin (G-17) SO₃H Cholecystokinin Lys-Ala-Pro-Ser-Gly-Arg-Val-Ser-Met-Ile-Lys-Asn-Leu-Gln-Ser-Leu-Asp-Pro-Ser-His-Arg-Ile-Ser-Asp-Arg-Asp-Tyr-Met-Gly-Trp-Met-Asp-Phe-NH₂ SO₃H 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 20 21 22 23 24 25 18 19 Copyright © 2007 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.

Fig. 10-1: Amino acid sequences of human G-17 gastrin and cholecystokinin (CCK). Identical C-terminal pentapeptide sequences are indicated.



Fig. 10-2: Structure of pentagastrin.

Component ^a	Sequence
l Gastrin (big-big gastrin)	Preprogastrin (95 amino acid residues)
ll	(pyro)Glu–Leu–Gly–Pro–Gln–Gly–His–Pro–Ser–Leu–Val–Ala–Asp–Pro–Ser–Lys–Lys–
Gastrin ₃₄	Glu–Gly–Pro–Trp–Leu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Ala–Tyr–Gly–Trp–Met–Asp–Phe–NH ₂
(big gastrin)	SO ₃ H
III	(pyro)Glu–Gly–Pro–Trp–Leu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Ala–Tyr–Gly–Trp–Met–Asp–Phe–NH ₂
Gastrin ₁₇	
(little gastrin)	SO ₃ H
IV	Trp–Leu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Glu–Ala–Tyr–Gly–Trp–Met–Asp–Phe–NH ₂
Gastrin14	
(mini-gastrin)	SO ₃ H

acid company of human costrin isoforms π

^aGastrin-34, G-17, and G-14 also exist without a sulfate ester at their tyrosyl residue.

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2) Secretin shares partial sequence identity with glucagon, GIP and VIP

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
VIP	His-	Ser-	-Asp-	-Ala-	-Val-	-Phe-	Thr-	-Asp-	-Asn-	-Tyr-	-Thr-	-Arg-	Leu-	-Arg–
Secretin	His–	Ser-	-Asp-	-Gly-	-Thr-	-Phe-	Thr-	-Ser-	Glu–	Leu-	-Ser-	-Arg-	-Leu-	-Arg–
Glucagon	His-	Ser-	-Gln-	-Gly-	-Thr-	-Phe-	-Thr	-Ser-	-Asp	–Tyr-	-Ser-	-Lys-	-Tyr-	Leu-
GIP	Tyr–	Ala-	-Gln-	-Gly-	-Thr-	-Phe-	-lle-	-Ser-	-Asp	–Tyr-	-Ser	-lle-	Ala-	Met

15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 -Lys-Gln-Met-Ala-Val-Lys-Lys-Tyr-Leu-Asn-Ser-IIe-Leu-Asn-NH₂ -Asp-Ser-Ala-Arg-Leu-Gln-Arg-Leu-Leu-Gln-Gly-Leu-Val-NH₂ -Asp-Ser-Arg-Arg-Ala-Gln-Asp-Phe-Val-Gln-Trp-Leu-Met-Asp-Thr - Asp-Lys-IIe-Arg-Gln-Gln-Asp-Phe-Val-Asn-Trp-Leu-Leu-Ala-Gln-

-Gln-Thr-Ile-Asn-His-Lys-Trp-Asp-Ser-Lys-Lys-Gly-Lys-Gln-43 42 41 40 39 38 37 36 35 34 33 32 31 30

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Fig. 10-3: Amino acid sequences of porcine peptides of the secretin family. Boxed areas indicate identical amino acid sequences between peptides.

3) The GI tract produces other biologically active peptides that are putative hormones

TABLE 10.2 C	andidate hormones of the gut
	Hormone
Substance P	Arg-Pro-Lys-Pro-GIn-GIn-Phe-Phe-Gly-Leu-Met-NH ₂
Somatostatin	Ala–Gly–Cys–Lys–Asn–Phe–Phe–Trp–Lys–Thr–Phe–Thr–Ser–Cys
Motlin	Phe–Val–Pro–Ile–Phe–Thr–-Tyr–Gly–Glu–Leu–Glu–Arg–Met–Glu–Gly– Lys–Glu–Arg–Asn–Lys–Gly–Glu
Neurotensin	(pryo)Glu–Leu–Tyr–Glu–Asn–Lys–Pro–Arg–Arg–Pro–Tyr–Ile–Leu

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3. Physiological Roles of the Gastrointestinal Hormones



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Fig. 10-4: Schematic drawing indicating the possible actions of enteroendocrine cells. The stimulus from the intestinal lumen acts on the receptors of the brush-border membrane, resulting in a release of hormones by exocytosis. The peptide hormones may exert their effect on the following: (a) adjacent epithelial cells, nerve fibers, nerve cells, smooth muscle, and connective tissue cells of the lamina propria; (b) cells of the whole organism following delivery to the systematic circulation. Method (a) is described as paracrine; method (b) is referred to a endocrine.

1) Gastrin stimulates acid secretion in the stomach



Autocatalysis

Fig. 10-5: Neuroendocrine integration of gastric acid secretion. (See also Fig. 10.14.)

2) Secretin stimulates pancreatic bicarbonate and enzyme secretions



Fig. 10-6: Homeostatic closed-loop endocrine mechanism of small intestine pH control.

3) CCK stimulates gallbladder contraction and pancreatic enzyme secretions



Fig. 10-7: Plasma cholecystokinin (CCK) responses to a meal in normal subjects and patients with bulimia (uncontrollable eating). After an overnight fast, 14 patients with bulimia and 10 age- and sex-matched normal volunteers were fed a 400 ml mixed-liquid meal. Plasma was collected and extracted at the indicated times and assayed for CCK bioactivity, expressed as cholecystokinin-8 equivalents. Values are means \pm SEM. The arrow indicates the beginning of the meal.

- 4) Gastric inhibitory peptide (GIP) inhibits gastric emptying and gastric acid secretion.
 - 43-aa peptide
 - Inhibitory effects on gastric acid secretion
 - Glucose-dependent insulinotrophic peptide
 - Stimulates insulin release by pancreas
- 5) Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) stimulates insulin secretion and inhibits glucagon secretion
- 6) Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) inhibits gastric acid secretion and stimulates pancreatic electrolyte and water secretion
- 7) Neurotensin stimulates pancreatic secretion and inhibits gasrtic motility.
- 8) Peptide YY inhibits pancreatic bicarbonate secretion, gallbladder contraction, and gastric emptying.

- 9) Substance P (SP) may serve as a physiological modulator of intestinal smooth muscle contractility.
- 10) Somatostain inhibits gastrin and hydrochloric acid release.
- 11) Gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) stimulates release of several GI hormones, pancreatic secretion, and motility.
- 12) Motilin stimulates GI motility and emptying of chyme into the small intestine.
- 13) Ghrelin is a multifunctional peptide that stimulates gastric acid secretion and gastric motility.
- 14) Other putative gut hormones exert specific actions in the GI tract.
 - Urogastrone/EGF
 - Villikinin
 - Enkephalins
 - Hormones in milk



Fig. 10-9: Schematic drawing showing a three-dimensional arrangement of the somatostatin cells and their processes in an antral gland.

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Bombesin	pGlu-	-Gln–	Arg-	-Leu-	-Gly–	Asn-	-GIn-	-Trp	–Ala	-Val	I–Gly	/–His	s–Leu-	-Met-NH ₂
					<u> </u>					- a <u></u>				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Gastrin-Releasing Peptide	Ala-	-Pro–	Val-	Ser-\	Val-C	Gly–C	âly–G	àly–⁻	Thr–`	Val-	Leu-	-Ala-	-Lys–	
	14	4 15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Me	et–Tyi	–Prc	–Arg	–Gly	-Asn	–His	–Trp	Ala	-Va	I–GI	y–Hi	s–Leu-	-Met-NH ₂
		Copyr	ght ©	2007 F	Pearso	on Prei	ntice H	lall, Ir	IC.					

Fig. 10-10: Primary structures of bombesin and porcine gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP).



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Fig. 10-11: Amino acid sequence of human β -urogastrone. Positional amino acid differences between β -urogastrone and mouse EGF are shown in parentheses.

4. Gastrointestinal Hormone Mechanisms of Action

1) Integrated actions of gastrin, acetylcholine, and histamine control gastric acid secretion



Fig. 10-12: This diagram represents the interaction of the gastrin, enterochromaffin-like (ECL), parietal, and somatostatin cells. Both antral and fundic somatostatin cells appear to exert inhibitory influences on gastrin, ECL, and parietal cells, respectively. Neurotransmitter substances from either the vagus or the intrinsic gastric neural system are responsible for modulation of each of the cells and their secretory activity. Luminal amino acids stimulate gastrin release, whereas luminal protons inhibit gastrin release. Systemic secretion of gastrin primarily drives ECL cells to secrete histamine but may play some part in parietal cell secretion, although a trophic regulatory effect is more likely. The ECL cells release histamine, which presumably functions 28a paracrine fashion to stimulate parietal cell secretion. Inhibitory actions of hormones are noted (-).

2) Synergistic actions of secretin and CCK control exocrine pancreatic secretion



Fig. 10-13: Hypothetical model for the synergistic actions of CCK and secretin (S) and second messengers on pancreatic enzyme and bicarbonate secretion.

5. Summary of the Neuroendocrine Control of GI Function



Fig. 10-14: Summary scheme of hormone-metabolite control of GI function. Solid lines indicate stimulatory influences; dashed lines represent inhibitory stimuli.

6. Pathophysiology

 TABLE 10.3
 Physiological roles or effects of the GI hormones and candidate hormones within the GI tract

Hormone		Physiological roles*
Gastrin	\uparrow	gastric acid selection, gastrointestinal growth, and antral motility
Secretin	\uparrow	pancreatic and biliary bicarbonate secretion; ↑ CCK-stimulated pancreatic enzyme secretion
CCK	Ŷ	gallbladder contraction and pancreatic enzyme secretion; ↓ gastric emptying; ↑ growth of the exocrine pancreas, satiety signal
GIP	\downarrow	gastric acid secretion; 1 glucose-mediated insulin release
Somatostatin	\downarrow	antral gastrin secretion
VIP	\uparrow	smooth muscle relaxation; ↑ blood flow and intestinal secretion
Gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP)	Ŷ	gastrin secretion, gallbladder contraction, pancreatic enzyme secretion, and gastrointestinal motility; \downarrow gastric acid secretion (when delivered intracisternally)
Bulbogastrone	\downarrow	gastric acid secretion
Urogastrone	\downarrow	gastric acid secretion; \uparrow oxyntic gland growth
Enteroglucagon		Unknown
Villikinin	\uparrow	villous movement and lymph flow
Enkephalins		Unknown (neuromodulator?) \uparrow or \downarrow gastric acid secretion
Neurotensin		Unknown (neuromodulator?)
Substance P		Unknown, possibly modulates gut motility and mucosal secretions
Motilin	\uparrow	gastrointestinal motility
Histamine	\uparrow	gastric acid secretion by parietal cells
Prostaglandins	\uparrow	mucus production by the stomach

*Arrows indicate increased/stimulated (\uparrow) or decreased/inhibited (\downarrow) activity in response to the hormone.

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TABLE 10.4 Endocrine pathophysiology of GI disorders

Achalasia

Failure of gastroesophageal sphincter to relax (and food accumulates in the esophagus). May be due to smooth muscle hypersensitivity to gastrin.

Anorexia nervosa

Decreased desire to eat. Possibly due to increased CCK secretion or increased sensitivity to CCK. May also relate to decreased appetite in aging individuals.

Bulimia nervosa

Recurrent episodes of uncontrolled eating. Possibly due to lowered CCK secretion.

Cholera

Cholera toxin irreversibly activates intestinal cell adenylate cyclase. This results in enhanced intestinal fluid secretion leading to dehydration and death if not corrected.

Chronic idiopathic* constipation

Possibly due to elevated circulating levels of motilin.

Disordered gastric emptying

Possibly due to hypopyloric valve dysfunction.

Gastric (peptic) ulcers

Multiple causes: enhanced HCl secretion resulting from increased parietal cell stimulation (e.g., by gastrin as in gastrinemia); decreased PGE_2 secretion resulting in: (a) increased HCl secretion, (b) decreased mucus production (e.g., as induced by aspirin) resulting in epithelial-cell damage by HCl; enhanced vagal (cholinergic stimulation; enhanced histamine secretion; etc.).

Gastrin and cancer

Gastrin may be a trophic factor for several cancer cells, and gastrin receptors have been identified in colonic mucosa, adenocarcinoid, and pancreatic tumor cells.

Gastroesophageal reflux

Possibly due to hypogastrinemia and low pressure.

Hypergastrinemia (Zollinger-Ellison syndrome)

Type I: G-cell hyperplasia (may be due to hypochlorhydria/achlorhydria due to pernicious anemia).

Type II: Gastrinoma (gastrinoma syndrome).

Hypochlorhydric disease states

Pernicious anemia is the result of an autoimmune process in which the gastric fundus undergoes atrophy and parietal cells are destroyed. (Achlorhydric anemia: lowered levels of gastric acid result in enhanced, uninhibited, gastrin secretion. This results in hypertrophy and hyperplasia of ECL cells, often resulting in neoplasia.)

Idiopathic delay in gastric emptying

Possibly as directly above.

Pancreatic cholera (watery diarrhea syndrome)

Due to excess VIP secretion (VIPoma syndrome).

* Idiopathic: "Without clear pathogenesis or disease without recognizable cause, as if of spontaneous origin."