

GHRELIN –A REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Ghrelin is a neuroendocrine hormone which is an octanoylated 28-residue peptide that exerts numerous physiological functions. It is produced primarily by the P/D1 cells of the gastric fundus. Ghrelin targets highly conserved G protein-coupled receptor known as the growth hormone secretagogue receptor subtype 1a (GHS-R1a). Ghrelin plays a central role in energy balance and metabolism.[1]

Purpose of this Review: The Purpose of this review is to Compile the up –to date studies on the Functional effects of Ghrelin on various systems of Human body thus establishing link between pharmac therapeutic effects of Ghrelin on certain Metabolic Disorders like obesity,diabetes and Neuro endocrine disorders.

Keywords: Ghrelin, Hormonal Secretion, Gastric Regulation, Growth Hormone

Introduction:

Ghrelin and GHS-R1a are known to have important biological actions in many physiological processes, such as the central regulation of food intake and energy homeostasis [2], regulation of cardiovascular functions [3,4], stimulation of gastric acid secretion and motility [5], modulation of cell proliferation and survival [6], and inhibition of inflammation and regulation of immune function [7,8].

Each of its role will be described in detail below with evidences. The main goal of this review is not to provide an integral overview of previous research, but to indicate the importance of ghrelin in the regulation of blood glucose,energy balance, and implications for the treatment of disorders like diabetes and obesity .

Physiological Functions of Ghrelin

S.no	System Involved	Effect of Ghrelin	References	
1.	Anabolic effects	Appetite	Increased	12,25
		Adipocity	Increased	50-52
		Blood Glucose	Increased	26,27
		Release of Growth Hormone	Increased	13,17,18
2.	Hormone secretion	Release of ACTH	Weakly Increased	11,24
		Release of Cortisol	Weakly Increased	11,24
		Release of Prolactin	Increased	11,24
		Insulin	Increased /Decreased	10,14,19,23
		Gastric Acid Secretion	Increased	15
3.	Gastric Functions	Gastric Motility	Increased	20
		Turn over of gastric and intestinal mucosa	Increased	9
		4.	Cardio vascular System	Cardiac Output
Blood Pressure	Decreased			16,22

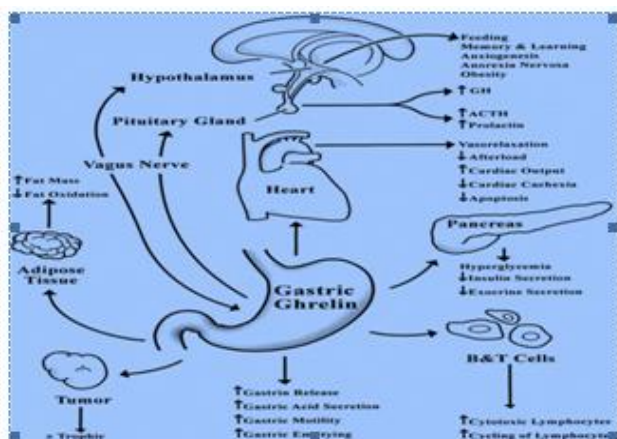


Fig.1: Functions of Ghrelin on various systems has been represented diagrammatically

Ghrelin and its effect on Hormonal Secretion:

Ghrelin has shown maximal stimulation of growth hormone by 2 to 3 folds greater than that of GHRH [28] . Ghrelin can be injected in two ways.

- Intravenous injection
- Intra cerebroventricular administration

Intravenous injection of Ghrelin in anesthetized rats may produce an increase in plasma GH concentration from 12.0 +/- 5.4 ng/ml to 129.7+/- 11.3ng/ml[18]. A single intracerebroventricular administration of ghrelin also increased rat plasma GH concentration in a dose- dependent manner, with a minimum dose of only 10pmol.[13]. Thus the latter appears to be a more potent route . In addition, high doses of ghrelin in humans increase ACTH, prolactin, and cortisol levels .[11,24].

Ghrelin and its effect on cardiovascular Functions

Evidence for cardiovascular function of ghrelin has been found: expression of mRNA encoding both ghrelin and its receptor has been observed in the heart and aortas [16,22] and intravenous injection

of ghrelin into human volunteers induces a decrease in blood pressure [22].

An intravenous bolus of human ghrelin decreased mean arterial pressure without changing the heart rate [22,29]. Ghrelin also increased the cardiac index and stroke volume indices. Rats with chronic heart failure (CHF) that were treated with ghrelin showed higher cardiac output, stroke volume, and left ventricular dP/dt_{max} compared with afflicted, but placebo-treated controls [21].

Ghrelin and its effect on Gastric Functions

Ghrelin is a gastric peptide released from oxyntic cells in the stomach [30]. Plasma levels of ghrelin rise prior to meals and rapidly decline when food is consumed [31]. Exogenous ghrelin administration increases food intake [32] and ghrelin is thought to play a role in meal initiation. Examinations of meal patterns in response to ghrelin administration have demonstrated major effects on meal number with smaller effects on the size of spontaneous meals [33]. Central and peripheral ghrelin administration results in increased expression of the orexigenic peptides NPY and AgRP within the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus suggesting a common final pathway for the feeding stimulatory effects [34,35]. Ghrelin transport across the blood brain barrier has been demonstrated suggesting that such hypothalamic sites may be directly sensing alterations in plasma ghrelin levels [36]. These sites do contain ghrelin receptors [37].

In addition to a hypothalamic mode of action for ghrelin, the brainstem also has been suggested to play a role. Ghrelin receptors are also expressed by extra-hypothalamic cells including those of the dorsal vagal complex [38]. Central and peripheral administration of ghrelin activates cells in the nucleus of the solitary tract and area postrema as indicated by an increase in the number of c-fos positive cells [39]. Administration of ghrelin in the fourth ventricle or directly in the dorsal vagal complex results in a hyperphagic response with a magnitude similar to the one obtained after injection into the third ventricle [33]. The ability of peripheral and central injections of ghrelin into the forebrain or brainstem to stimulate food intake and increase arcuate NPY mRNA expression suggests a distributed ghrelin system that mediates changes in food intake through a final common output involving the arcuate nucleus [35].

Intravenous administration of ghrelin dose-dependently increases gastric acid secretion and stimulates gastric motility [15,20]. The maximum response to ghrelin in terms of gastric acid secretion is almost as high as that elicited by subcutaneous treatment with histamine [3 mg/kg]. These responses to ghrelin were abolished by pre-treatment with either atropine or bilateral cervical vagotomy, but not by a histamine H₂-receptor antagonist. Intracerebroventricular administration of ghrelin also increases gastric acid secretion in a dose-dependent manner [40].

Ghrelin and its effect on Glucose Regulation

Immunohistochemical analyses have demonstrated that ghrelin is endogenously expressed in pancreatic islets in the α -, β -, and δ -cells, while the GHS-R1a is expressed primarily on pancreatic α - and β -cells [41]. These findings indicate that the regulation of ghrelin and insulin is tightly linked. In addition to obesity, low plasma ghrelin levels have been associated with major hallmarks of metabolic syndrome, such as hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance [42]. Ghrelin's ability to regulate glucose metabolism via insulin is another essential mechanism through which it mediates energy homeostasis. In both humans and rodents, acute ghrelin administration has been shown to induce hyperglycemia and reduce insulin secretion [43]. In rodents, this effect was shown to be completely lost with the administration of a GHS-R antagonist, demonstrating the importance of the ghrelin receptor in mediating this effect [44]. It is thought that stomach derived ghrelin acts distally in the brain to regulate food intake, while pancreatic ghrelin acts locally to influence insulin release as a paracrine hormone.

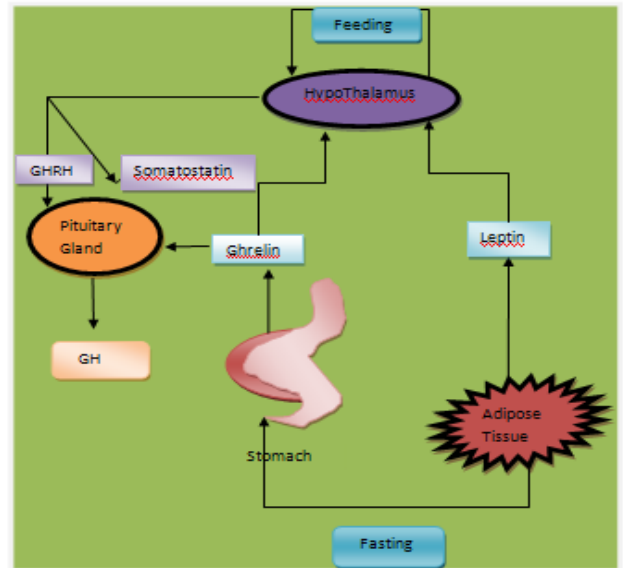


Fig1: Effects of Ghrelin on Gastric Functions in fasting and Feeding conditions

Ghrelin and its effect on Obesity

Obesity

Obesity is a widespread health issue caused by chronic impaired balance between energy supply and its expenditure. It leads to gathering of excessive fat tissue and numerous co-morbidities. As ghrelin is functionally associated with energy balance, it is intimately related to obesity.

Data -Rise in Obesity

Obesity adversely affects health by increasing the risk for various associated conditions including metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes, coronary artery disease, and hypertension, all of which are associated with increased mortality [45].

The economic ramifications of this consistent rise in obesity were estimated to be \$75 billion in 2003, of which roughly half was subsidized by Medicare and Medicaid [46]. Within the United States, the percentage of the population aged 20–74 considered to be overweight or obese (BMI >25) has increased from 45.8% in the early 1960s to over 72% in the year 2006, and this number continues to rise rapidly [47].

A recent research highlighted above known points towards ghrelin as a key modulator of energy metabolism during negative energy balance and starvation. Most notably, knockout models show that ghrelin is indispensable for blood glucose control during starvation. Whether or not ghrelin plays a role in the pathogenesis of diabetes, by promoting hyperglycemia, remains to be determined. In DIO, the actions of ghrelin to increase food intake in the brain are suppressed at the level of the hypothalamic ARC nucleus. Furthermore, ghrelin peptide in the circulation, as well as ghrelin and mRNA in the stomach and GHSR in the hypothalamus are all reduced. These observations further support the important role of ghrelin in negative energy balance, rather than positive energy balance, i.e. obesity. [48].

Appetite and feeding behavior are regulated by a complex balance of stimulatory and inhibitory signals in the central nervous system, particularly in the hypothalamus.

[49] Essential elements of this control system are ghrelin and leptin, both of which signal nutritional status and energy storage levels to the hypothalamic feeding centers. Ghrelin is orexigenic when

administered both centrally and peripherally, and it is one of several appetite-regulating humoral signals to the central nervous system.

GHRELIN IN OBESITY

The discovery of ghrelin and its influence on appetite, fuel utilization, and body weight added complexity to centrally regulated energy balance. In general, human plasma ghrelin levels are inversely correlated with positive energy balance, body mass index, body fat mass, adipocyte size, and leptin levels.[50-51] while they are lower in obese subjects than in controls.

A Study states that[52] Indians, known for their propensity to develop type II diabetes and obesity, also have lower circulating ghrelin levels, independent of body mass index, compared with matched controls.

Patients with anorexia nervosa exhibit high plasma ghrelin levels when compared with age- and sex-matched controls, and weight gain decreases their elevated ghrelin concentrations.[52]

Thus, there are fluctuations of plasma ghrelin levels with respect to physiological adaptation of long-term alterations in energy balance.[53]

Plasma leptin correlates with body fat content despite its anorectic effects, suggesting that human obesity is associated with a state of leptin resistance. However, 5%–10% of obese people have relatively low levels of leptin, indicative of a reduced rate of leptin production.[54-55]

A recent study by Barazzoni et al reported that hyperleptinemia blunted the increase of serum ghrelin during caloric restriction, suggesting that the anorectic effects of leptin act both via direct central actions, and via peripheral inhibition of orexigenic effects of ghrelin.[56]

Given the orexigenic and adipogenic properties of ghrelin, treatment with an antagonist would seem logical in obesity. In animal studies, the biologic actions of the ghrelin antagonist ([D-Lys-3]-GHRP-6) appear to be mediated through GHSR antagonism.[57]

This antagonist has been shown to inhibit ghrelin-induced GH release[58-59] and to reduce food intake and body weight gain in mice.[57]

Korbonits et al further substantiated this observation noting that obese children carrying the single nucleotide polymorphism (a nonconservative amino acid change in the protein sequence in the C-terminal tail of the preproghrelin protein) have higher body mass index, and reduced insulin secretion. [50]. Recent evidence indicated that elevated serum ghrelin may be responsible, at least in part, for the hyperphagia observed in patients with PWS.[60]

The mechanism underlying elevated ghrelin levels in PWS is unknown, but is not likely to reflect a mutation of the genes encoding ghrelin or GHSR, but rather genetic alteration(s) on chromosome 15 indirectly affecting ghrelin expression. High ghrelin levels in PWS are also unlikely to arise from a decreased negative feedback from GH; Janssen et al have shown that ghrelin concentrations are not elevated in adults with GH deficiency, and GH therapy in these same individuals does not alter their ghrelin levels.[61-63]

Similar findings were also observed in obese subjects and children with PWS.[64]. Regardless of the etiology of elevated ghrelin in PWS, additional studies will be required to validate the functional activity of ghrelin by demonstrating whether ghrelin antagonists effectively reduce food intake in PWS.[65,66]

CONCLUSION

This Review serve to provide a compiled Version of many of the recent Literature on Ghrelin and its Functions. Existing literature supports the short-term safety of ghrelin administration and its efficacy as an appetite stimulant in diverse patient populations. There is some evidence to suggest that ghrelin has wider ranging therapeutic effects, although these areas require further

investigation. Hope this Review provides windows for New Possibilities in Therapeutic Research and Development.

Abbreviations: GH-Growth Hormone, GHRH-Growth Hormone Releasing Hormone. NPY-neuropeptide Y; AGRP-agouti-related peptide; POMC- proopiomelanocortin

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