# Ghrelin secretion is inhibited by glucose load and insulininduced hypoglycaemia but unaffected by glucagon and arginine in humans

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and glucose (P < 0.05) but did not affect ghrelin secretion.

CONCLUSIONS Ghrelin secretion in humans is inhibited by OGTT-induced hyperglycaemia and ITT but not by glucagon and arginine, two substances able to increase insulin and glucose levels. These findings question the assumption that glucose and insulin directly regulate ghrelin secretion. On the other hand, ghrelin secretion is not associated with the GH response to ITT or arginine, indicating that the somatotroph response to these stimuli is unlikely to be mediated by ghrelin.

#### Summary

OBJECTIVE Circulating ghrelin levels are increased by fasting and decreased by feeding, glucose load, insulin and somatostatin. Whether hyperglycaemia and insulin directly inhibit ghrelin secretion still remains matter of debate. The aim of the present study was therefore to investigate further the regulatory effects of glucose and insulin on ghrelin secretion.

DESIGN AND SUBJECTS We studied the effects of glucose [oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) 100 g orally], insulin-induced hypoglycaemia [ITT, 0·1 IU/kg insulin intravenously (i.v.)], glucagon (1 mg i.v.), arginine (0·5 mg/kg i.v.) and saline on ghrelin, GH, insulin, glucose and glucagon levels in six normal subjects.

MEASUREMENTS In all the sessions, blood samples were collected every 15 min from 0 up to  $\pm$  120 min. Ghrelin, GH, insulin, glucagon and glucose levels were assayed at each time point.

RESULTS OGTT increased (P < 0.01) glucose and insulin while decreasing (P < 0.01) GH and ghrelin levels. ITT increased (P < 0.01) GH but decreased (P < 0.01) ghrelin levels. Glucagon increased (P < 0.01) glucose and insulin without modifying GH and ghrelin. Arginine increased (P < 0.01) GH, insulin, glucagon

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Ghrelin is a 28-amino acid peptide predominantly produced by the stomach, although it is expressed also in several other tissues including the endocrine pancreas (Kojima et al., 2001; Muccioli et al., 2002; Broglio et al., 2003b; Ukkola, 2003). In its acylated form, ghrelin displays strong GH-releasing activity mediated by the activation of the GH secretagogues receptor type 1a (GHS-R1a); (Kojima et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2001; Muccioli et al., 2002). GHS receptors are concentrated in the hypothalamus-pituitary unit but also distributed in other central and peripheral tissues, including the endocrine pancreas (Kojima et al., 2001; Gnanapavan et al., 2002; Muccioli et al., 2002). However, ghrelin also exerts other endocrine and nonendocrine actions either at the central or peripheral level. In particular, ghrelin has been discovered to be able to exert a strong stimulatory effect on appetite and food intake while modulating energy balance; these actions take place at the central levels where it is likely to be mediated by the neuropeptide Y (NPY) and agouti-related peptide (AGRP) system (Kalra & Kalra, 2003; Chen et al., 2004). It has also been shown that ghrelin exerts remarkable metabolic actions at the peripheral level being able to influence endocrine pancreatic function as well as glucose and lipid metabolism (Muccioli et al., 2002; Ukkola, 2003).

Circulating ghrelin is mainly in the unacylated form (despite endocrine actions being exerted by its acylated form only) and mostly reflects gastric secretion; in fact, levels are reduced by 70% after gastrectomy as well as after gastric bypass in humans (Ariyasu *et al.*, 2001; Cummings *et al.*, 2002b; Broglio *et al.*, 2003a). Ghrelin secretion occurs in a pulsatile manner without strict correlation with GH levels but with an association to food intake and sleep cycles in rats (Tolle *et al.*, 2002). In humans, ghrelin secretion undergoes remarkable variations throughout the

day and ghrelin peaks anticipate food intake, suggesting that the latter is triggered by ghrelin discharge (Cummings *et al.*, 2001, 2002b); these findings, however, have not been confirmed by others (Barkan *et al.*, 2003).

Ghrelin secretion shows a negative association with body mass index (BMI); circulating total ghrelin levels are increased in anorexia and cachexia but reduced in obesity, notable exception being obese patients with Prader Willi syndrome (Cummings *et al.*, 2001, 2002a; Otto *et al.*, 2001; Tschop *et al.*, 2001b; DelParigi *et al.*, 2002; Shiiya *et al.*, 2002; Haqq *et al.*, 2003; Ukkola, 2003). In agreement with the major link between nutrition and ghrelin, its circulating levels are increased by fasting and energy restriction but decreased by food intake and overfeeding (Ariyasu *et al.*, 2001; Cummings *et al.*, 2001, 2002b; Tschop *et al.*, 2001a; Yoshihara *et al.*, 2002). These variations in ghrelin secretion predicted its clear negative association with insulin secretion (Cummings *et al.*, 2001; Mohlig *et al.*, 2002; Saad *et al.*, 2002; Broglio *et al.*, 2003b; Flanagan *et al.*, 2003; Reimer *et al.*, 2003; Schaller *et al.*, 2003; Ukkola, 2003).

It has been already demonstrated that ghrelin secretion is reduced by either oral or intravenous glucose load but also, paradoxically, by insulin-induced hypoglycaemia (ITT); (Lucidi *et al.*, 2002; Nakagawa *et al.*, 2002; Shiiya *et al.*, 2002; Flanagan *et al.*, 2003). An inhibitory input on ghrelin comes also from the activation of gastric somatostatin receptors as indicated by the finding that the most remarkable inhibition of circulating ghrelin levels is observed under exposure to somatostatin and its analogues (Broglio *et al.*, 2002; Norrelund *et al.*, 2002; Arosio *et al.*, 2003; Barkan *et al.*, 2003; Shimada *et al.*, 2003).

Regarding the mechanisms underlying the influence of glucose and insulin on ghrelin secretion, it is still a matter of debate if hyperglycaemia and insulin exert direct or indirect actions (Caixas et al., 2002; Schaller et al., 2003). On the other hand, despite some stimulatory effect of glucagon on ghrelin expression and secretion in animal models (Kishimoto et al., 2003; Kamegai et al., 2004), the influence of glucagon on circulating ghrelin levels in humans has never been studied. Also the influence of amino acids on ghrelin secretion is still unclear; in fact, some studies reported discrepant results (Lee et al., 2002; Groschl et al., 2003; Moran et al., 2003).

Based on the foregoing, in order to further clarify the mechanisms involved in the regulation of ghrelin secretion in humans, we studied the effects of glucagon and arginine, two well known stimuli of insulin and glucose levels, as well as of oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT)-induced hyperglycaemia and ITT on circulating ghrelin levels in normal young volunteers. In all testing sessions, GH, insulin, glucagon and glucose levels were also assayed.

## Research design and methods

Six healthy young male volunteers [age (mean  $\pm$  SEM):  $28.7 \pm 2.9$  years; BMI:  $23.4 \pm 0.8$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>] were studied. All subjects

gave their written informed consent to participate in the study which had been approved by an independent ethical committee.

All subjects underwent the following five testing sessions in random order at least 3 days apart:

- · saline
- oral glucose load (OGTT, 100 g orally at 0 min)
- ITT [0.1 IU/kg insulin intravenously (i.v.) as a bolus at 0 min]
- intravenous glucagon (1 mg i.v. as a bolus at 0 min)
- i.v. arginine load (ARG, 0.5 mg/kg i.v. as an infusion from time 0 min to +30 min).

After overnight fasting, the tests were begun in the morning at  $08\cdot30-09\cdot00$  h, 30 min after an indwelling catheter had been placed into an antecubital vein of the forearm kept patent by slow infusion of isotonic saline.

Blood samples were taken every 15 min from 0 up to +120 min. Ghrelin, GH, insulin, glucagon and glucose levels were assayed at each time point in all sessions.

Total plasma ghrelin levels (ng/l) were assayed, after extraction in reverse-phase C18 columns, by a radioimmunometric assay (Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Belmont, CA, USA) using <sup>125</sup>I-labelled bioactive ghrelin as a tracer and a rabbit polyclonal antibody *vs.* octanoylated and des-octanoylated h-ghrelin (sensitivity: 30 pg/tube, intra-assay coefficient of variation (CV) range: 0·3–10·7%).

Serum GH levels ( $\mu$ g/l: 1  $\mu$ g/l = 2 mU/l) were measured in duplicate by immunoradiometric assay (IMRA, hGH-CTK IRMA, SORIN Biomedica, Saluggia, Italy). The sensitivity of the assay was 0·15  $\mu$ g/l. The inter- and intra-assay coefficients of variation were 2·9–4·5% and 2·4–4·0%, respectively.

Serum insulin levels (mU/l) were measured in duplicate by IMRA (INSIK-5, SORIN Biomedica). The sensitivity of insulin assay was  $2.5 \pm 0.3$  mU/l. The inter- and intra-assay coefficients of variation were 6.2-10.8% and 5.5-10.6%, respectively.

Plasma glucagon levels (ng/l) were measured in duplicate by IMRA (Glucagon, Biochem ImmunoSystem, Casalecchio di Reno, Italy). The sensitivity of the assay was 14.5 ng/l. The inter- and intra-assay coefficients of variation were 8.2-9.0% and 8.0-9.5%, respectively. Plasma glucose levels (mmol/l: 1 mg/dl = 0.05551 mmol/l) were measured by gluco-oxidase colourimetric method (GLUCOFIX, by Menarini Diagnostici, Florence, Italy).

All samples from an individual subject were analysed together. The hormonal responses are expressed as absolute values. The statistical analysis was carried out using nonparametric ANOVA (Friedman test) and then Wilcoxon test, as appropriate. The results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM.

## Results

Saline infusion did not modify ghrelin, GH, insulin, glucagon or glucose levels (Figs 1 and 2).

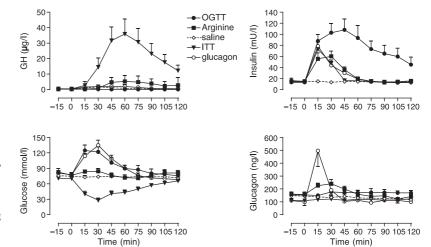


Fig. 1 Mean (± SEM) GH, insulin, glucose and glucagon variation after oral glucose load (●, OGTT, 100 g orally at 0 min), insulin-induced hypoglycaemia (▼, ITT, 0·1 IU/kg insulin i.v. as a bolus at 0 min), intravenous glucagon (○, 1 mg i.v. as a bolus at 0 min), i.v. arginine load (■, 0·5 mg/kg i.v. as an infusion from time 0 min to +30 min) and saline (♦) in six normal young subjects.

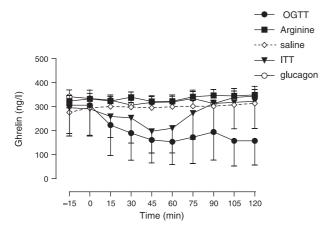


Fig. 2 Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) ghrelin variation after oral glucose load ( $\bigcirc$ , OGTT, 100 g orally at 0 min), insulin-induced hypoglycaemia ( $\bigvee$ , ITT, 0·1 IU/kg insulin i.v. as a bolus at 0 min), intravenous glucagon ( $\bigcirc$ , 1 mg i.v. as a bolus at 0 min), i.v. arginine load ( $\bigcirc$ , 0·5 mg/kg i.v. as an infusion from time 0 min to + 30 min) and saline ( $\bigcirc$ ) in six normal young subjects.

Glucose load was followed by decrease in ghrelin levels, with a nadir level occurring at +60 min (baseline vs. nadir:  $305\cdot7\pm128\cdot5$  vs.  $153\cdot0\pm95\cdot2$  ng/l;  $P<0\cdot01;$  Fig. 1). Oral glucose load obviously increased glucose (baseline vs. peak:  $4\cdot29\pm0\cdot25$  vs.  $6\cdot91\pm0\cdot58$  mmol/l;  $P<0\cdot01;$  peak at time +15 min) and insulin levels (baseline vs. peak:  $13\cdot0\pm2\cdot1$  vs.  $108\cdot0\pm19\cdot7$  mU/l;  $P<0\cdot01;$  peak at time +45 min) while significantly decreasing GH levels (baseline vs. nadir:  $0\cdot5\pm0\cdot3$  vs.  $0\cdot2\pm0\cdot0$  µg/l;  $P<0\cdot01;$  nadir at time +45 min). No significant change in glucagon levels was recorded after OGTT (Figs 1 and 2). Also, ITT was followed by a significant decrease in circulating ghrelin levels with a nadir at +45 min (baseline vs. nadir:  $290\cdot5\pm110\cdot1$  vs.  $197\cdot0\pm90\cdot6$  ng/l;  $P<0\cdot01$ ). ITT was obviously followed by increase in

circulating insulin levels and hypoglycaemia, and also induced the expected increase in GH levels (baseline vs. peak:  $4.8 \pm 1.6$  vs.  $35.9 \pm 9.7 \,\mu g/l$ ; P < 0.01; peak at time +60 min). On the other hand, no significant change in glucagon levels was recorded after ITT although a trend toward an increase was observed at the end of the testing session (Figs 1 and 2).

Intravenous glucagon administration was not followed by any change in circulating total ghrelin levels (baseline vs. nadir:  $333.7 \pm 35.2$  vs.  $306.2 \pm 19.9$  ng/l). Glucagon administration was obviously followed by increase in circulating glucagon levels as well as by the expected increase in glucose (baseline vs. peak:  $4.30 \pm 0.22$  vs.  $7.48 \pm 0.54$  mmol/l; P < 0.01; peak at time +30 min) and insulin levels (baseline vs. peak:  $14.7 \pm 2.4$  vs.  $78.5 \pm 7.6$  mU/l; P < 0.01; peak at time +15 min). No significant change in GH levels was recorded after intravenous glucagon administration (baseline vs. peak:  $1.2 \pm 0.7$  vs.  $2.0 \pm 1.2$  µg/l; Figs 1 and 2).

Arginine load also did not induce any change in circulating, total ghrelin levels (baseline vs. nadir:  $332\cdot0\pm23\cdot3$  vs.  $321\cdot7\pm20\cdot2$  ng/l). As expected, arginine load was followed by an increase in insulin (baseline vs. peak:  $15\cdot0\pm1\cdot0$  vs.  $60\cdot1\pm9\cdot3$  mU/l;  $P<0\cdot01$ ; peak at time +30 min), glucagon levels (baseline vs. peak:  $156\cdot6\pm17\cdot3$  vs.  $258\cdot8\pm26\cdot3$  ng/l;  $P<0\cdot05$ ; peak at time +30 min) and GH levels (baseline vs. peak:  $0\cdot2\pm0\cdot1$  vs.  $4\cdot2\pm1\cdot5$  µg/l;  $P<0\cdot01$ ; peak at time +60 min). A transient increase in glucose levels was also recorded (baseline vs. peak:  $4\cdot24\pm0\cdot16$  vs.  $4\cdot68\pm0\cdot28$  mmol/l;  $P<0\cdot05$ ; peak at time +30 min; Figs 1 and 2).

The evaluation of the hormonal responses to the various tests as area under the curves (AUCs) offered the same results (data not reported). Particularly, the insulin AUCs after OGTT was significantly higher (P < 0.01) than those recorded after ITT, glucagon and arginine that were not significantly different. Thus the most remarkable inhibitory effect on ghrelin secretion observed after OGTT was associated with the most prominent increase in circulating insulin levels.

The OGTT- and glucagon-induced increases in glucose AUCs were not significantly different. The glucagon AUCs after intravenous injection of glucagon was similar to that recorded after arginine load; both were higher than those after OGTT and ITT, which were not significantly different. The GH AUC recorded after ITT was higher than that after arginine load (P < 0.01).

#### Side-effects

No side-effects were recorded after placebo as well as oral glucose load. Arginine administration was followed by transient and mild nausea in two subjects. Similarly, glucagon administration was followed by transient and mild nausea in two subjects. ITT was followed by the classical hypoglycaemic symptoms (hunger, sweating, tremor, restlessness, palpitations), which did not required any medication and disappeared spontaneously.

## **Discussion**

The results of the present study in humans show that ghrelin secretion is not modified by glucagon and arginine, two well-known insulin secretagogues, despite being inhibited by either OGTTinduced hyperglycaemia or ITT. On the other hand, ghrelin secretion is not associated with the GH response to ITT and arginine, making it unlikely that the somatotroph response to these stimuli is mediated by ghrelin.

The natural GH secretagogue ghrelin, as well as leptin, has been proposed as a peripheral hormone signalling to the brain the metabolic balance and contributing to the management of the neuroendocrine and metabolic response to starvation (Muccioli et al., 2002; Yoshihara et al., 2002; Cummings & Schwartz, 2003). Besides its central orexigenic action, ghrelin also exerts peripheral metabolic actions consistent with the widespread distribution of GHS receptors that are also expressed in the endocrine pancreas (Gnanapavan et al., 2002; Muccioli et al., 2002). In fact, it has been demonstrated by both animal and human studies that ghrelin is able to affect insulin secretion as well as glucose and lipid metabolism (Muccioli et al., 2002; Broglio et al., 2003b; Choi et al., 2003; Reimer et al., 2003; Ukkola, 2003; Zhang et al., 2004).

Regarding the regulation of ghrelin secretion, this has been clearly demonstrated to be negatively associated with insulin secretion (Cummings et al., 2001; Mohlig et al., 2002; Saad et al., 2002; Broglio et al., 2003b; Flanagan et al., 2003; Reimer et al., 2003; Schaller et al., 2003; Ukkola, 2003) and even to insulin resistance (Lucidi et al., 2002; Broglio et al., 2003b; Poykko et al., 2003; Purnell et al., 2003). Indeed, ghrelin secretion had been shown to be reduced by insulin infusion during an euglycaemic clamp (Lucidi et al., 2002) as well as by ITT (Lucidi et al., 2002; Flanagan et al., 2003). However, ghrelin secretion has been also shown paradoxically to be inhibited by either oral and intravenous glucose load (Lucidi et al., 2002; Nakagawa et al., 2002; Shiiya et al., 2002; Flanagan et al., 2003). The inhibition of ghrelin secretion following OGTT-induced hyperglycaemia as well as ITT is fully confirmed also by our present study where both the OGTT and ITT reduced circulating ghrelin levels to the same extent (approximately 40%).

Whether insulin and hyperglycaemia directly inhibit ghrelin secretion is, however, still a matter of debate (Caixas et al., 2002; Schaller et al., 2003). In fact, some authors hypothesized that the inhibitory influence of insulin and hyperglycaemia on ghrelin secretion is more likely reflecting an indirect action (Caixas et al., 2002; Schaller et al., 2003). To address this point further, we studied the effects of glucagon and arginine, two well-known insulin secretagogues that also induce different degrees of hyperglycaemia (Cryer, 2003), on circulating total ghrelin concentrations. By comparing the effects, if any, of glucagon and arginine with those of OGTT-induced hyperglycaemia and ITT we were expecting to understand better ghrelin regulation, with particular attention to the role of insulin and glycaemia. Moreover, the role of glucagon and amino acids in the regulation of ghrelin secretion is still unclear, at least in humans (Lee et al., 2002; Groschl et al., 2003; Kishimoto et al., 2003; Moran et al., 2003; Broglio et al., 2004; Kamegai et al., 2004).

Our findings show that neither glucagon nor arginine modify ghrelin secretion in humans. We cannot rule out the possibility that increasing the doses of glucagon and arginine would allow us to show that these factors have some influence on ghrelin secretion, although the arginine dose we administered is generally considered maximal (Ghigo et al., 1998).

The influence of amino acids on ghrelin secretion was still controversial (Lee et al., 2002; Groschl et al., 2003; Moran et al., 2003); in particular, to our knowledge, no study has previously addressed the role of arginine per se, if any, and our study makes it unlikely that it has any relevant influence.

Indeed, glucagon has been proposed as a factor able to stimulate ghrelin expression and secretion based on studies in animal models, i.e. ghrelin expression in the rat stomach and secretion from perfused rat stomach under prolonged exposure to glucagon (Kishimoto et al., 2003; Kamegai et al., 2004). The absence of any effect of a high dose of glucagon in humans would also reflect the acute administration performed in our present study.

The lack of any effect of glucagon and arginine administration on circulating total ghrelin levels was apparent despite these factors inducing an increase in circulating insulin levels similar to that recorded after ITT. This evidence seems in agreement with other studies questioning the hypothesis that insulin per se plays a direct inhibitory role on ghrelin secretion (Lucidi et al., 2002; Mohlig et al., 2002; Saad et al., 2002; Flanagan et al., 2003; Murdolo et al., 2003). On the other hand, the circulating insulin levels observed after glucagon, arginine and ITT were lower, in terms of AUCs, than that recorded after OGTT; this latter insulin response to OGTT was associated with an inhibition of ghrelin secretion that seemed more long-lasting. Thus, the possibility that insulin has some direct inhibitory effect on ghrelin synthesis and secretion cannot be definitely ruled out, in agreement with some studies in vitro (Kamegai et al., 2004; Lippl et al., 2004).

It appears more likely that glucose per se is not directly regulating ghrelin secretion, in agreement with some previous studies in humans (Lucidi et al., 2002; Broglio et al., 2003b; Schaller et al., 2003) as well as in animals (McCowen et al., 2002; Reimer et al., 2003). In fact, ghrelin levels are reduced to the same extent after either OGTT-induced hyperglycaemia or ITT (Lucidi et al., 2002; Flanagan et al., 2003; Gottero et al., 2003; Broglio et al., 2004; present data). Moreover, ghrelin secretion is inhibited by OGTT but not by glucagon despite the fact that administration of the latter induces a similar increase in plasma glucose levels. Again, it has also been demonstrated that ghrelin secretion is negatively associated with body mass independently of the presence of diabetes mellitus (Shiiya et al., 2002).

Another aspect arising from our findings is that the GH response to arginine as well as that to ITT was not associated with any increase in ghrelin secretion, thus suggesting that the somatotroph response to these stimuli is not mediated by ghrelin. That the GH as well as the counter-regulatory response to ITT is coupled to ghrelin decrease and therefore unlikely mediated by this gastric hormone had been already demonstrated (Lucidi et al., 2002). Ghrelin secretion is negatively associated to body mass, being increased in anorexia and decreased in obesity, two conditions associated with GH hyper- and hypo-secretion, respectively (Cummings et al., 2001; Otto et al., 2001; Tschop et al., 2001b; Shiiya et al., 2002; Ukkola, 2003). Moreover, it has been hypothesized that ghrelin mediates the fasting-induced GH increase (Muller et al., 2002); the latter, however, is an experimental model not comparable with ITT (Lucidi et al., 2002). Despite this, the physiological role, if any, of ghrelin in the control of GH secretion is still a matter of debate and some studies in humans as well as in animals indicate that ghrelin is unlikely to have a major role (Popovic et al., 1995; Tolle et al., 2002; Barkan et al., 2003). In all, our present data indicate that the GH response to arginine as well as to ITT is unlikely to be mediated by ghrelin. The decrease in ghrelin secretion after OGTT was associated with the wellknown inhibitory effect of hyperglycaemia on GH secretion (Valcavi, 1996); once again, however, the decrease in OGTTinduced GH decrease anticipated that in ghrelin levels, making it unlikely that the inhibitory effect of hyperglycaemia on GH secretion is also mediated by ghrelin inhibition.

Finally, intravenous glucagon administration induced the wellknown variations in insulin and glucose levels but no change in ghrelin secretion or even in GH secretion. This finding would seem strange considering that intramuscular glucagon is a wellknown and reliable provocative stimulus of GH secretion (Rahim et al., 1996; Aimaretti et al., 2000) widely used for the diagnosis of GH deficiency. However, it has been clearly demonstrated that intravenous glucagon administration is devoid of any stimulatory effect on GH secretion, indicating that glucagon per se is not a true GH secretagogue (Ghigo et al., 1994).

In conclusion, the results of the present study show that ghrelin secretion in humans is inhibited by OGTT-induced hyperglycaemia and ITT but is unaffected by glucagon and arginine, two substances able to increase insulin and glucose levels. These findings further question the assumption that glucose and insulin directly regulate ghrelin secretion.

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