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A gut feeling about glucagon

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Abstract

Hyperglucagonaemia (in the fasting as well as in the postprandial state) is considered a core pathophysiological component of diabetes and is found to contribute substantially to the hyperglycaemic state of diabetes. Hyperglucagonaemia is usually viewed upon as a consequence of pancreatic alpha cell insensitivity to the glucagon-suppressive effects of glucose and insulin. Since we observed that the well-known hyperglucagonaemic response to oral glucose in patients with type 2 diabetes is exchanged by normal suppression of plasma glucagon levels following isoglycaemic intravenous glucose administration in these patients, we have been focusing on the gut and gut-derived factors as potential mediators of diabetic hyperglucagonaemia. In a series of clinical experiments, we have elucidated the role of gut-derived factors in diabetic hyperglucagonaemia and shown that glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide promotes hyperglucagonaemia and that glucagon, hitherto considered a pancreas-specific hormone, may also be secreted from extrapancreatic tissues – most likely from proglucagon-producing enteroendocrine cells. Furthermore, our observation that fasting hyperglucagonaemia is unrelated to the diabetic state, but strongly correlates with obesity, liver fat content and circulating amino acids, has made us question the common ‘pancreacentric’ and ‘glucocentric’ understanding of hyperglucagonaemia and led to the hypothesis that steatosis-induced hepatic glucagon resistance (and reduced amino acid turnover) and compensatory glucagon secretion mediated by increased circulating amino acids constitute a complete endocrine feedback system: the liver–alpha cell axis. This article summarises the physiological regulation of glucagon secretion in humans and considers new findings suggesting that the liver and the gut play key roles in determining fasting and postabsorptive circulating glucagon levels.

Invited Author’s profile

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**Introduction**

For almost a century, the 29 amino acid hormone glucagon, derived from the precursor proglucagon encoded by the glucagon gene (1), has been considered a pancreas-specific hormone secreted from alpha cells in the islets of Langerhans (2, 3). Of importance for the findings outlined in the present paper, proglucagon is also produced in enteroendocrine L cells found in the intestinal epithelium (4). In contrast to pancreatic alpha cells in which proglucagon is processed to 29 amino acid glucagon by prohormone convertase 2 (PC2), processing of proglucagon in enteroendocrine L cells is undertaken by PC1/3 leading to several active peptides including the glucose-lowering and satiety-inducing glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) and the intestinotrophic and glucagonotropic glucagon-like peptide 2 (GLP-2) (5) (Fig. 1). Thus, the notion of glucagon's pancreas-specific origin is based on pancreas-specific expression of PC2 rather than pancreas-specific expression of proglucagon itself.

Glucagon is recognised as a hormone that primarily maintains glucose homeostasis via its stimulatory effects on hepatic glucose production and, thus, plays a fundamental role in securing supply of easily accessible and energy-rich glucose to bodily tissues, particularly the central nervous system and muscles, when needed (6). This critical role of glucagon obviously requires a strict regulatory coordination of glucagon secretion, and it has been known for decades that circulating glucagon concentrations increase when blood glucose concentrations fall below normal fasting levels (6). In addition to hypoglycaemia, other stimulatory factors are elicited during situations where increased energy supply is needed to sustain physiological functions, e.g. during stress and cold exposure (7) and include activity in the sympathetic nervous system and elevated levels of adrenaline and noradrenaline (8, 9). Glucagon release is also stimulated by non-carbohydrate nutritional stimulators of insulin secretion, e.g. protein meals and administration of most amino acids, which without glucagon release would cause hypoglycaemia (10, 11). Furthermore, exogenous administration of the gut hormones glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide (GIP) (12, 13, 14, 15) and GLP-2 (16, 17, 18), respectively, has been shown to stimulate glucagon secretion in healthy individuals and in patients with diabetes. Hyperglycaemia elicited by intravenous (iv) administration of glucose is known to reduce circulating concentrations of glucagon (6). This inhibitory effect of glucose on alpha cells is mediated directly by glucose itself and by glucose-stimulated secretion of insulin and somatostatin from neighbouring beta and delta cells, respectively (19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24). Furthermore, the intestinotrophic and satiety-promoting gut hormone GLP-1 inhibits alpha cell secretion and reduces circulating glucagon concentrations in a glucose-dependent manner (25, 26, 27). These glucagon-suppressive factors are all signs of energy abundance and minimised need for glucagon-induced endogenous glucose production.

It is the general belief that the complex regulatory system controlling circulating glucagon concentrations outlined above converges at the level of glucagon-producing pancreatic alpha cells (6). Importantly, perturbations in the regulation of plasma glucagon concentrations are well known in patients with diabetes, who typically are characterised by hyperglucagonaemia (6). And for more than four decades, it has been argued that hypersecretion of glucagon from pancreatic alpha cells contributes importantly to diabetic hyperglycaemia.

![Figure 1](image-url)

**Figure 1**

Differential processing of proglucagon by prohormone convertase 2 (PC2) and prohormone convertase 1/3 (PC1/3). The posttranslational processing of proglucagon is based on the presence and activity of the enzymes PC1/3 and PC2, which hitherto have been believed to be tissue-specific with PC2 being restricted to the pancreatic alpha cells and PC1/3 to the enteroendocrine L cells. PC2 processes proglucagon into glucagon and three presumably biologically inactive fragments (glicentin-related pancreatic polypeptide (GRPP), intervening peptide 1 (IP1) and a major proglucagon fragment (MPGF)), whereas PC1/3 processes proglucagon into glicentin, which is further processed into oxyntomodulin and GRPP, intervening peptide 2 (IP2) and to the glucagon-like peptides: GLP-1 and GLP-2. Numbers indicate amino acid positions corresponding to amino acid positions in the 160 amino acid proglucagon.
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Fig. 2

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Hyperglucagonaemia in diabetes

In patients with type 2 diabetes, glucagon concentrations are typically elevated in the fasting state and fail to decrease appropriately or even increase during an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) or after ingestion of a carbohydrate-rich meal resulting in undesirably high plasma glucagon concentrations in the context of hyperglycaemia (42, 43). Pioneering studies by Gerich et al. pointed to an essential role for glucagon in the development of the hyperglycaemia of type 1 diabetes (44) leading Unger and Orci to propose their ‘bihormonal hypothesis’ stating that the combination of insulin deficiency and hyperglucagonaemia constitutes a central determinant for diabetic hyperglycaemia (28). Over the decades, it has been established that elevated glucagon concentrations stimulate endogenous glucose production in the liver (45), and, thus, contribute significantly to the fasting and postprandial hyperglycaemia characterising patients with diabetes (46, 47). Accordingly, hyperglucagonaemia has been pursued as a therapeutic target, and glucose-lowering drugs with glucagon-lowering or glucagon receptor-blocking capabilities have been developed (48). Despite these endeavours, the mechanisms underlying diabetic hyperglucagonaemia are not clear. As alluded earlier, the current dogma states that alpha cell resistance to the glucagon-suppressive effects of glucose and insulin, respectively, constitutes a critical factor for the development of hyperglucagonaemia in diabetes (29, 49). Furthermore, compromised beta cell function and ensuing reduced insulin-mediated inhibition of alpha cell secretion is thought to contribute to diabetic hyperglucagonaemia (29, 50). Likewise, compromised beta cell function in diabetes may involve a reduced paracrine influence of other beta cell products, which have been suggested to inhibit pancreatic alpha cell secretion of glucagon (e.g. gamma aminobutyric acid and amylin (51, 52)). Additionally, reduced postprandial plasma concentrations of the beta cell-stimulating and alpha cell-inhibiting gut hormone GLP-1 observed in some cohorts of patients with type 2 diabetes (compared to healthy control subjects) (53) could, hypothetically, contribute to type 2 diabetic postprandial hyperglucagonaemia. Thus, generally, diabetic hyperglucagonaemia is considered a pancreatic problem of increased glucagon secretion due to diminished or defect suppression of alpha cell secretory activity (6).

As alluded earlier, in 2007, we reported the first human data showing that patients with type 2 diabetes indeed exhibit a hyperglucagonaemic response to oral glucose administration (OGTT), but, surprisingly, react with a normal suppression of circulating glucagon concentrations after an isoglycaemic intravenous glucose infusion (IIGI) administered to copy the plasma glucose curve from the oral glucose challenge (Fig. 2) (30). This strongly suggested that the genesis of type 2 diabetic hyperglucagonaemia was not glucose and/or insulin ‘blindness’ of the alpha cells or compromised insulin secretion as previously thought and that the gastrointestinal tract or factors originating from glucose stimulation of the gastrointestinal tract may play an important role in the postprandial hyperglucagonaemia characterising patients with type 2 diabetes.
The OGTT/IIGI phenomenon

Our observation in 2007 that hyperglucagonaemia in type 2 diabetes is aggravated by OGTT, but suppressed similarly as in healthy subjects during IIGI was reproduced by us (54) and others (55, 56) and made us reconsider the genesis of type 2 diabetic postprandial hyperglucagonaemia. Due to the isoglycaemic conditions in these studies, it seemed unlikely that impairment of glucose sensing of the alpha cell plays a major role in the exaggerated glucagon responses after oral glucose ingestion in patients with type 2 diabetes. Neither did insulin resistance of the alpha cell seem to explain this phenomenon as insulin responses during OGTT are markedly higher than those during IIGI due to the strong insulinotropic effects of the incretin hormones GIP and GLP-1 (30) (despite a reduced incretin effect in type 2 diabetes (30, 54, 57)). Thus, if anything, the larger insulin response to oral glucose would be expected to result in greater suppression of glucagon responses compared to IIGI; but the opposite occurred. Taken together, our findings in 2007 strongly suggested that the gastrointestinal tract plays an important role in postprandial glucagon secretion (see sections on ‘Potential gut factors contributing to postabsorptive hyperglucagonaemia’ and ‘Gut-derived glucagon’).

In order to establish whether the paradoxical differences in glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI, respectively, occur as a type 2 diabetes-specific phenomenon, we investigated glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI in other forms of diabetes and found that patients with secondary diabetes to chronic pancreatitis (54) and patients with hepatocyte nuclear factor 1α diabetes (maturity-onset diabetes of the young type 3) (58) also exhibited the paradoxical glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI, respectively, suggesting the phenomenon to occur as a consequence of the diabetic state rather than being a specific pathogenetic trait of type 2 diabetes. In order to eliminate potential differences in intra-islet insulin signalling as an explanation of the paradoxical glucagon responses, Hare et al. performed OGTT and IIGI in C-peptide-negative patients with type 1 diabetes and showed similar patterns of glucagon responses to the two glucose stimuli as observed in type 2 diabetes (59). We also investigated patients with chronic pancreatitis and administered to copy the plasma glucose curve from the oral glucose challenge (B and C). NS, non-significant; bsAUC, baseline-subtracted area under curve. Adapted from Knop et al. (30).
different degrees of secondary endocrine insufficiency and showed that the difference in glucagon response to oral and iv glucose, respectively, increases from normal glucose tolerance over impaired glucose tolerance to overt diabetic glucose tolerance in these patients – driven by increased glucagon responses to oral glucose (glucagon was suppressed normally by iv glucose in all groups, i.e. independently of glucose tolerance) (60). These findings suggested that post-OGTT hyperglucagonaemia constituted a common phenomenon among patients with different types of diabetes and that IIGI in all cases suppressed circulating glucagon levels.

We then went back to study patients with type 2 diabetes and showed that the paradoxical glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI, respectively, intensified when larger oral glucose loads were employed suggesting that greater stimulation of the gastrointestinal tract elicits or constitutes a more potent glucagonotrophic signal (61). Interestingly, these studies also showed that the difference in glucagon secretion between OGTT and IIGI is present in non-diabetic control subjects when larger glucose loads are ingested (61, 62). Thus, gastrointestinally mediated glucagon secretion seemed to be a consistent phenomenon in diabetic patients that can also be evoked in healthy subjects when larger glucose loads are used. However, the underlying mechanisms and derived effects of gastrointestinally mediated glucagon secretion were still obscure.

Implications of gastrointestinal-stimulated glucagon secretion

As alluded earlier, the incretin effect describes the potentiation of glucose-induced insulin secretion elicited by stimulation of insulinotropic gut hormones, i.e. GIP and GLP-1 (54, 57). The incretin effect is measured by comparing insulin responses to OGTT and IIGI and in healthy subjects. The incretin effect is responsible for 50–70% of the insulin secreted in response to oral glucose, whereas the incretin effect is severely reduced in type 2 diabetes (30, 54, 55, 57, 63) and other forms of diabetes (54, 58, 64). Reduced incretin effect seems to be an early consequence of disturbed glucose metabolism as it has been observed in subjects with prediabetes (65, 66) and in other conditions with high risk of developing type 2 diabetes (e.g. obese insulin-resistant subjects with normal glucose tolerance, patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and psoriasis patients) (31, 38, 67, 68).

It is well acknowledged that reduced incretin effect limits postprandial insulin secretion, but its effect on glucose disposal has been difficult to disentangle – especially in the context of insulin resistance often accompanying a reduced incretin effect. Nevertheless, an incretin effect of any size will, in any event, contribute to improve glucose disposal during OGTT vs IIGI.

In order to better understand how oral and iv glucose differentially affect glucose disposal, we introduced the term 'gastrointestinally mediated glucose disposal' (GIGD) in 2010 (59). GIGD describes the impact of gastrointestinal factors on glucose disposal following OGTT compared with IIGI by relating the difference between the amount of glucose ingested (through the gastrointestinal tract) and the amount of glucose needed to be infused intravenously to mimic the plasma glucose curve from the OGTT curve to the glucose ingested orally. GIGD explains what percentage of an individual’s glucose disposal during an OGTT is caused by the oral route of administration. The incretin effect most likely constitutes an important contributor to GIGD, but other factors affecting plasma glucose concentrations differently during OGTT and IIGI, including differences in glucagon secretion, activation of afferent nerves in the intestinal mucosa, first-pass hepatic glucose uptake, differences in portal and venous blood glucose concentrations and/or at the present unknown factors are also taken into account when calculating GIGD.

In healthy subjects, GIGD typically amounts to ~60% (31, 56, 65, 67, 68, 69, 70), whereas patients with diabetes exhibit a severely reduced GIGD in the range of ~10–30% (31, 56, 57, 58, 64). As mentioned earlier, Hare et al. performed OGTT and IIGI in C-peptide-negative patients with type 1 diabetes and were, thus, able to describe GIGD in the context of abrogated incretin effect (59). Interestingly, mean GIGD came out negative (amounting to ~6%) suggesting that the hyperglucagonaemic response elicited by the oral glucose administration deteriorated glucose disposal during OGTT vs IIGI (which suppressed circulating glucagon concentrations) most likely by stimulating hepatic glucose production. This suggested that gastrointestinally mediated glucagon secretion may contribute to postabsorptive hyperglycaemia pathognomonic for diabetes.

In a Korean study, lean and well-controlled Asian patients with type 2 diabetes were shown to have a normal incretin effect, but exhibited a hyperglucagonaemic response to 75 g OGTT, whereas IIGI suppressed circulating glucagon concentrations normally (healthy controls exhibited similar glucagon suppression to both glucose stimuli). Interestingly, GIGD was found to be significantly compromised in the type 2 diabetic patients and to
Potential gut factors contributing to postabsorptive hyperglucagonaemia

As glucose (due to the isoglycaemic conditions) and insulin (due to the incretin effect) did not seem to explain the paradoxical glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI in patients with diabetes, we directed our attention to glucagon-modulating gut-derived factors. An obvious candidate was the glucagonostatic incretin hormone GLP-1, and we speculated that reduced secretion or attenuated glucagonostatic effect of GLP-1 could contribute to explain the OGTT-induced hyperglucagonaemia in diabetic patients vs healthy controls. Despite the general notion of ‘hypo-GLP-1-aemia’ in type 2 diabetes (74), we observed no difference in GLP-1 responses to OGTT between hyperglucagonaemic patients with diabetes and healthy subjects suppressing glucagon normally during OGTT (30, 54, 58, 59, 63, 71). We also performed a systematic review of studies comparing GLP-1 responses between patients with type 2 diabetes and healthy control subjects and meta-analysis of the data disclosed no differences in GLP-1 responses (53). Thus, reduced GLP-1 response to OGTT did not seem to explain the exaggerated glucagon responses to OGTT in diabetic patients. We then evaluated the glucagonostatic potency of GLP-1 in type 2 diabetic patients and found it to be similar as in matched healthy control subjects (27). With GLP-1 eliminated from the equation, we turned to the two glucagonotropic gut hormones GLP-2 and GIP. As GLP-2 is secreted together with GLP-1 in equimolar amounts (5) and no clear signals from our own or other studies indicated increased OGTT-induced responses of GIP (75), we found it unlikely that increased secretion of GLP-2 and/or GIP constituted an underlying mechanism of the hyperglucagonaemic OGTT responses. Interestingly, Chia et al. had shown that exogenous GIP administration increased postprandial glucagon responses in type 2 diabetes and, consequently, worsened postprandial hyperglycaemia (76). Therefore, we designed a study involving an OGTT and five IIGIs (with concomitant saline, GIP, GLP-1, GLP-2 and GIP + GLP-1 + GLP2 infusions, respectively) and were able to show that GIP infusion significantly increased glucagon responses during IIGI, whereas GLP-2 had little effect on plasma glucagon levels (as expected, GLP-1 decreased circulating glucagon concentrations during IIGI) (18). On the basis of these results, we suggested that GIP may play a predominant role in the inappropriate hyperglucagonaemic response to orally ingested glucose in type 2 diabetes. However, we could not escape the thought that OGTT-induced hyperglucagonaemia could be a result of glucagon secretion directly from the gut.

Gut-derived glucagon

Extrapancreatic glucagon secretion was suggested 70 years ago by Sutherland & de Duve who showed that a ‘glycogenolytic substance’ could be extracted from the gastric mucosa of rabbits and dogs (77). Since then, several studies in totally pancreatectomised animals and humans (referenced in detail by Lund et al. (41)) have been undertaken with inconsistent and conflicting results.
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(most likely due to species differences and difficulties in measuring the 29 amino acid proglucagon product, glucagon, due to important shortcomings and low accuracy of many current and previous glucagon assays (78)) making decisive statements about the absence or presence of extrapancreatic glucagon impossible. Importantly, new analytical endeavours have improved sensitivity as well as specificity of glucagon assays dramatically (79), and, furthermore, technical advances within mass spectrometry-based proteomics allow detection of low-abundant peptides, such as glucagon, in human plasma (80).

Lund et al. performed 75 g OGTT and IIGI in 10 totally pancreatectomised patients and 10 matched healthy control subjects (79). Applying a recently developed sandwich ELISA utilising a combination of C and N-terminal antiglucagon antibodies, and thus, in theory eliminating, cross-reactivity with elongated or truncated forms of glucagon (79), and mass spectrometry-based proteomics, we were able to show a dramatic increase in circulating glucagon concentrations in response to OGTT, whereas IIGI decreased circulating glucagon to almost undetectable levels in totally pancreatectomised patients (Fig. 3). The healthy subjects suppressed plasma glucagon levels in response to both glucose stimulii, but to a greater extent during IIGI as expected from previous studies applying 75 g OGTT and IIGI in healthy subjects (61, 62). As other pancreas-related products (e.g. C-peptide and pancreatic polypeptide) were absent in our totally pancreatectomised patients, these findings strongly emphasised the existence of extrapancreatic glucagon in man – most likely originating from the gut. With this new piece of evidence of gut-derived glucagon secretion, a number of exciting questions arose including ‘What is the localisation(s) of extrapancreatic glucagon secretion and how is it brought about?’, ‘How is extrapancreatic glucagon secretion regulated?’ and ‘What may be the physiological and/or pathophysiological implications of extrapancreatic glucagon secretion?’.

Studies in depancreatized dogs from the 1970s had suggested that the mucosa in the antrum of the ventricle and the ileum could constitute places of origin of extrapancreatic glucagon (81, 82). Later, alpha cell-resembling glucagon-positive cells were identified in the foetal human stomach (83), while this finding was not reconfirmed in mucosal biopsies from the stomach of adult humans (84). As alluded earlier, the pancreas-specific notion of glucagon secretion is related to the idea that processing of proglucagon to glucagon (and the presumably biological inactive fragments intervening peptide 1 and major proglucagon fragment) by PC2 is restricted to the pancreas (85). In 2009, it was hypothesised that PC2 expression in enteroendocrine L cells, which are thought to process proglucagon exclusively by PC1/3 to GLP-1, GLP-2, glicentin, oxyntomodulin and intervening peptide 2 (5), would result in co-secretion of ‘traditional’ L cell products and 29 amino acid ‘pancreatic’ glucagon following luminal nutrient stimulation and, therefore, explain the paradoxical glucagon responses to OGTT and IIGI, respectively (86). In order to explore this hypothesis, we sampled jejunal biopsies from patients with type 2 diabetes (exhibiting grossly postprandial hyperglucagonaemic responses) and matched healthy controls and were able to show (1) the presence of PC2 mRNA and immunohistochemical PC2-positive enteroendocrine
cells, (2) immunohistochemical co-localisation of PC2 and the proglucagon product GLP-1 and (3) 50% more PC2-positive cells in the jejunal epithelium of type 2 diabetic patients as compared to healthy controls (87). We confirmed these findings in a study investigating jejunal mucosa biopsies (obtained during Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery) from obese patients with type 2 diabetes and obese non-diabetic patients, respectively (88), and furthermore, we recently observed significantly greater expression of the gene encoding PC2, PCSK2, in the small intestine of individuals with type 2 diabetes compared with healthy individuals (4). Recent investigations by Jorsal and colleagues including immunohistochemistry using a new highly glucagon-specific monoclonal antibody and peptide extraction with application of a mass spectrometry-validated sandwich ELISA on human gastric mucosa biopsies found no or negligible signs of glucagon (Jorsal et al., unpublished observation). In this study, however, no co-staining of glucagon and PC2 was evident in small intestinal mucosa biopsies and, thus, the possibility of proglucagon processing to 29 amino acid glucagon by other processing enzymes (e.g. unspecific processing by PC1/3) should be kept open. Held together, current evidence points to enteroendocrine cells in the small intestine as a possible source of extrapancreatic glucagon and suggests that processing of proglucagon in these cells may not be as specific as previously thought.

How is extrapancreatic glucagon secretion regulated? From Lund et al.’s studies in totally pancreatectomised patients, it is clear that oral glucose represents a strong stimulus, whereas iv glucose seems to be able to suppress extrapancreatic glucagon secretion (41). In a recent study, Juel et al. showed that the well-known stimulator of pancreatic glucagon secretion, arginine, had no impact on circulating glucagon concentrations (as assessed by the recently developed mass spectrometry-validated sandwich ELISA mentioned earlier) in totally pancreatectomised patients (89) suggesting that the stimulus–secretion coupling in the cells responsible for extrapancreatic glucagon is different from pancreatic alpha cells. Also, Juel et al. have shown that a mixed meal test in totally pancreatectomised patients elicits clear cut glucagon responses that can be significantly suppressed (concomitantly with reduced postprandial plasma glucose excursions) by single dosing of the short-acting GLP-1 receptor agonist lixisenatide (90). Whether this effect is a direct effect or a result of lixisenatide-induced deceleration of gastric emptying/upper gastrointestinal motility and ensuing diminished stimulation of enteroendocrine glucagon-secreting cells is currently being investigated.

Additionally, we are currently evaluating the effects of a range of factors known to regulate pancreatic glucagon secretion in totally pancreatectomised patients using state-of-the-art glucagon analyses; these include GIP, GLP-1, GLP-2, oxyntomodulin, insulin, amylin and somatostatin. Furthermore, the effects of hypoglycaemia and drugs known to influence glucagon secretion are being investigated.

Presently, the physiological effect of extrapancreatic glucagon secretion remains uncertain. Hypothetically, extrapancreatic glucagon can be thought to counteract the potent glucose-lowering mechanisms (e.g. incretin-induced insulin surges) and the strong suppression of endogenous glucose production unleashed by oral ingestion of carbohydrates, ensuring a ‘smooth landing’ of postprandial glucose excursions. Such mechanism may be of particular importance in patients who have undergone gastric bypass surgery rerouting nutrients to distal parts of the small intestine where GLP-1-secreting L cells are abundant and often result in a GLP-1-mediated overshoot of insulin relative to the amount of carbohydrate ingested, increasing the risk of postprandial hypoglycaemia (91, 92). In these patients, surgery-induced metabolic benefits are typically accompanied by postprandial hyperglucagonaemia, which seems counterintuitive in the context of surgery-induced improvement in glycaemic control involving massive secretion of GLP-1 and insulin, both of which are known for their suppressive effects on alpha cell secretion (86). Interestingly, the preliminary data from Jorsal et al. alluded to above suggest that extrapancreatic glucagon secretion from the gut could help to explain the paradoxical postprandial hyperglucagonaemia observed after gastric bypass surgery: Proglucagon mRNA increased and glucagon was immunohistochemically identified in mucosa biopsies (using a highly specific glucagon antibody) and extractable glucagon appeared in all biopsies retrieved postoperatively vs preoperatively – correlating with postoperative increments in postprandial plasma glucagon concentrations (Jorsal et al., unpublished observation). In addition to the potential contribution of gut-derived glucagon to protection from postprandial hypoglycaemia, glucagon-secreting cells in the gut may also act as nutrient sensors and convey glucagon-mediated satiety signals alongside other gut hormones such as GLP-1 and peptide YY – a view compatible with the reduced appetite observed after gastric bypass surgery (93). Perhaps more intriguingly, gut-derived glucagon may have far-reaching pathophysiological implications and, potentially, play an important role in the postabsorptive...
hyperglycaemia pathognomonic for diabetes. Thus, the hyperglucagonaemic response to oral ingestion of carbohydrates and its contribution to postabsorptive hyperglycaemia (46, 94) may completely depend on secretion of glucagon from the gut as iv administration of glucose suppresses glucagon levels independently of dose and condition examined (30, 54, 55, 56, 58, 61, 62). Further studies are needed to address these issues.

**Fasting hyperglucagonaemia and the liver-alpha cell axis**

In early studies involving relatively lean patients with type 2 diabetes, fasting plasma glucagon concentrations appeared normal (95), but over the decades – as patients grew in size and numbers – fasting hyperglucagonaemia became a well-established fact among the majority of patients with type 2 diabetes (43, 96). Furthermore, Baron et al. provided evidence that elevated fasting plasma glucagon levels contribute to increased basal rate of hepatic glucose production, and thus, demonstrated the pivotal role of fasting hyperglucagonaemia in the pathogenesis of fasting hyperglycaemia in type 2 diabetes (45). Nevertheless, in humans, extreme glucagon excess and lack of glucagon signalling, respectively, do not bring about changes completely compatible with this evidence (33). For instance, in patients with glucagon-producing tumours (glucagonomas) the most conspicuous sign is a skin lesion, the necrolytic migratory erythema and overt diabetic hyperglycaemia is only observed in about 30% of glucagonoma patients (33). And inactivating mutations of the glucagon receptor are neither necessarily associated with disturbances of glucose metabolism (33); rather, these patients exhibit a pancreatic swelling due to alpha cell hyperplasia with gross hypersecretion of glucagon (33). Thus, extreme phenotypes of glucagon excess and lack of glucagon signalling, respectively, do not necessarily involve perturbations in glucose homeostasis. On this basis, our findings in 2012 showing fasting hyperglucagonaemia in completely normoglucone-tolerant obese and insulin-resistant subjects (31), combined with elegant studies by Longuet et al. (34) showing that selective knockout of the glucagon receptor in the liver results in hyperglucagonaemia (and alpha cell hyperplasia), led us hypothesise that hyperglucagonaemia occurs as a compensatory response to steatosis-induced hepatic insensitivity to glucagon and that this provides...

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**Figure 4**

Proposed mechanisms underlying the liver–alpha cell axis and its disruption. Upper panel: Under normal circumstances, amino acids seem to maintain and regulate the secretion of glucagon, which in turn seems to play a vital role in controlling amino acid clearance in the liver by accelerating ureagenesis. Mid panel: When the liver–alpha cell axis is disrupted by fatty infiltration of the liver, ureagenesis and amino acid turnover is reduced (due to steatosis-induced glucagon resistance) resulting in hyperaminoacidaemia, which in turn stimulates alpha cell secretion in order to compensate for the disruption of the balance, leading to fasting hyperglucagonaemia. Lower panel: When the liver–alpha cell axis is disrupted on the basis of total pancreatectomy, stimulation of the liver by pancreatic glucagon is completely abolished, which compromises glucagon-dependent hepatic processes (e.g. ureagenesis and lipolysis). Consequently, amino acid turnover is reduced giving rise to hyperaminoacidaemia, which under normal circumstances would provide compensatory alpha cell growth and glucagon synthesis in and secretion from the pancreas. But without a pancreas, amino acids seem to target other proglucagon-producing cell (i.e. the enteroendocrine L cells) resulting in the formation of glucagon. Also, the lack of pancreatic glucagon after total pancreatectomy may constitute a major determinant of the hepatic steatosis often observed after pancreatectomy.
a feedback mechanism acting at the level of pancreatic alpha cells, leading to fasting hyperglucagonaemia (32) (Fig. 4). Findings from Solloway et al. (35) demonstrated that inhibition of the glucagon receptor leads to reduced amino acid turnover and increased plasma levels of amino acids, which in turn induce proliferation of pancreatic alpha cells, and thus, suggested that single or several circulating amino acids could constitute the feedback signal between the liver and the alpha cells (32, 34) (Fig. 4).

The liver is crucial for the metabolism of amino acids through processes including transamination and deamination to finally produce urea (eliminated with the urine) – processes critically controlled by glucagon (97). In this way, glucagon is responsible for removing from the body the ammonia that results from transamination of amino acids (97). Therefore, amino acids can be thought to constitute more relevant mediators of liver-pancreas cross-talk compared to ever-fluctuating plasma glucose levels (33). A normal function of amino acids, thus, may be to maintain and regulate the secretion of glucagon, which in turn appears to play a vital role in controlling amino acid clearance in the liver by accelerating ureagenesis (Fig. 4). This feedback loop between the liver and the alpha cells of the pancreas has recently been corroborated in rodent studies showing that specific amino acids and amino acid transporters in alpha cells determine glucagon levels (36, 37).

Similar to observations of fasting hyperglucagonaemia in obese normal glucose-tolerant subjects, our recent studies in patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (with and without type 2 diabetes) show that fasting hyperglucagonaemia occurs independently of the diabetic state (38). Rather, fasting hyperglucagonaemia seems to relate to liver fat content and circulating amino acids (40), suggesting that liver-specific disruption of the liver–alpha cell axis represents an important determinant of fasting hyperglucagonaemia (Fig. 4). This notion is supported by preliminary data from our group showing hepatic glucagon resistance at the level of amino acid turnover in obese subjects with biopsy-verified steatosis compared to lean non-steatotic subjects (Suppli et al., unpublished observation). Furthermore, recent reports showing glucagon receptor antagonist-induced build-up of liver fat combined with hyperglucagonaemia (98) strongly support the notion that fasting hyperglucagonaemia in the context of obesity and type 2 diabetes arises as a result of disruption of a hitherto unrecognised endocrine system involving the liver and the pancreas: the liver–alpha cell axis (Fig. 4).

Figure 5
Photograph of normal liver of dog (left) and of the liver of a depancreatized dog (right), approximately the same size, fed a balanced diet and treated adequately with insulin (right). Death occurred 60 days after pancreatectomy. At autopsy, the liver was found to be enlarged and bright yellow in colour. Histology showed marked fatty infiltration of the liver. From Dragsted et al. (100).

Taken together, fasting hyperglucagonaemia seems to be independent of the diabetic state and rather related to obesity (31, 105), steatosis-associated hepatic glucagon resistance (32, 38) and ensuing reduced amino acid turnover (39, 40). Reduced amino acid turnover ultimately results in hyperaminoacidaemia potentially stimulating glucagon secretion from pancreatic alpha cells (Fig. 4). As suggested from studies in rodents (35, 36, 37), the hyperaminoacidaemic state may not only result in hypersecretion of glucagon, but also increased alpha cell mass, as observed in obese humans (106).
**Conclusions**

Over the last decade, evidence that the gut plays a hitherto underestimated role in determining postprandial plasma glucagon concentrations has accumulated and human physiology experiments applying OGTT and IIGI experiments have challenged the traditional understanding of postabsorptive hyperglucagonaemia in diabetes (i.e. reduced alpha cell sensitivity to the glucagon-suppressive effects of glucose and insulin combined with diabetic hypoinsulinemia). This new evidence supports that postabsorptive hyperglucagonaemia occurs as a consequence of gut-derived glucagon secretion and/or glucagonotropic factors elicited by intraluminal stimulation of the gastrointestinal tract. Furthermore, fasting hyperglucagonaemia seems to occur independently of the diabetic state and rather to be related to obesity-associated disruption of the emerging liver–alpha cell axis (hepatic glucagon resistance) involving amino acids as essential mediators of liver-alpha cell cross-talk (triggering compensatory glucagon secretion from alpha cells). Thus, when postabsorptive hyperglucagonaemia is observed, gut-dependent glucagon secretion should be taken into account and when evaluating fasting hyperglucagonaemia, hepatic glucagon resistance and amino acid-mediated compensatory alpha cell secretion need to be considered.

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