

RESEARCH

Open Access



Unravelling the role of beta-CGRP in inflammatory bowel disease and its potential role in gastrointestinal homeostasis

Marta Pascual-Mato¹, Gabriel Gárate², Vicente González-Quintanilla², Beatriz Castro¹, María José García¹, Javier Crespo¹, Julio Pascual^{2*} and Montserrat Rivero¹

Abstract

Background The role of beta calcitonin gene-related peptide (beta-CGRP) in gastrointestinal tract is obscure, but experimental models suggest an effect on the homeostasis of the intestinal mucosa. We measured beta-CGRP circulating levels in a large series of subjects with a recent diagnosis of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), in order to assess the potential role of this neuropeptide in IBD pathogenesis.

Methods Morning serum beta-CGRP levels were measured by ELISA (CUSABIO, China) in 96 patients recently diagnosed of IBD and compared with those belonging from 50 matched healthy controls (HC) and 50 chronic migraine (CM) patients.

Results Beta-CGRP levels were lower in patients with IBD (3.1 ± 1.9 pg/mL; $2.9 [2.4-3.4]$ pg/mL) as compared to HC (4.7 ± 2.6 ; $4.9 [4.0-5.8]$ pg/mL; $p < 0.001$) and to CM patients (4.6 ± 2.6 ; $4.7 [3.3-6.2]$ pg/mL; $p < 0.001$). Beta-CGRP levels in CM were not significantly different to those of HC ($p = 0.92$). Regarding IBD diagnostic subtypes, beta-CGRP levels for ulcerative colitis (3.0 ± 1.9 pg/mL; $2.5 [2.1-3.4]$ pg/mL) and Crohn's disease (3.3 ± 2.0 pg/mL; $3.2 [2.4-3.9]$ pg/mL) were significantly lower to those of HC ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively) and CM ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively).

Conclusions We have found a significant reduction in serum beta-CGRP levels in patients with a recent diagnosis of all kinds of IBD as compared to two control groups without active intestinal disease, HC and CM, which may suggest a role for this neuropeptide in the pathophysiology of IBD. Our data indicate a protective role of beta-CGRP in the homeostasis of the alimentary tract.

Keywords Alpha-CGRP, Beta-CGRP, CGRP, Crohn's disease, Inflammatory bowel disease, Ulcerative colitis

*Correspondence:

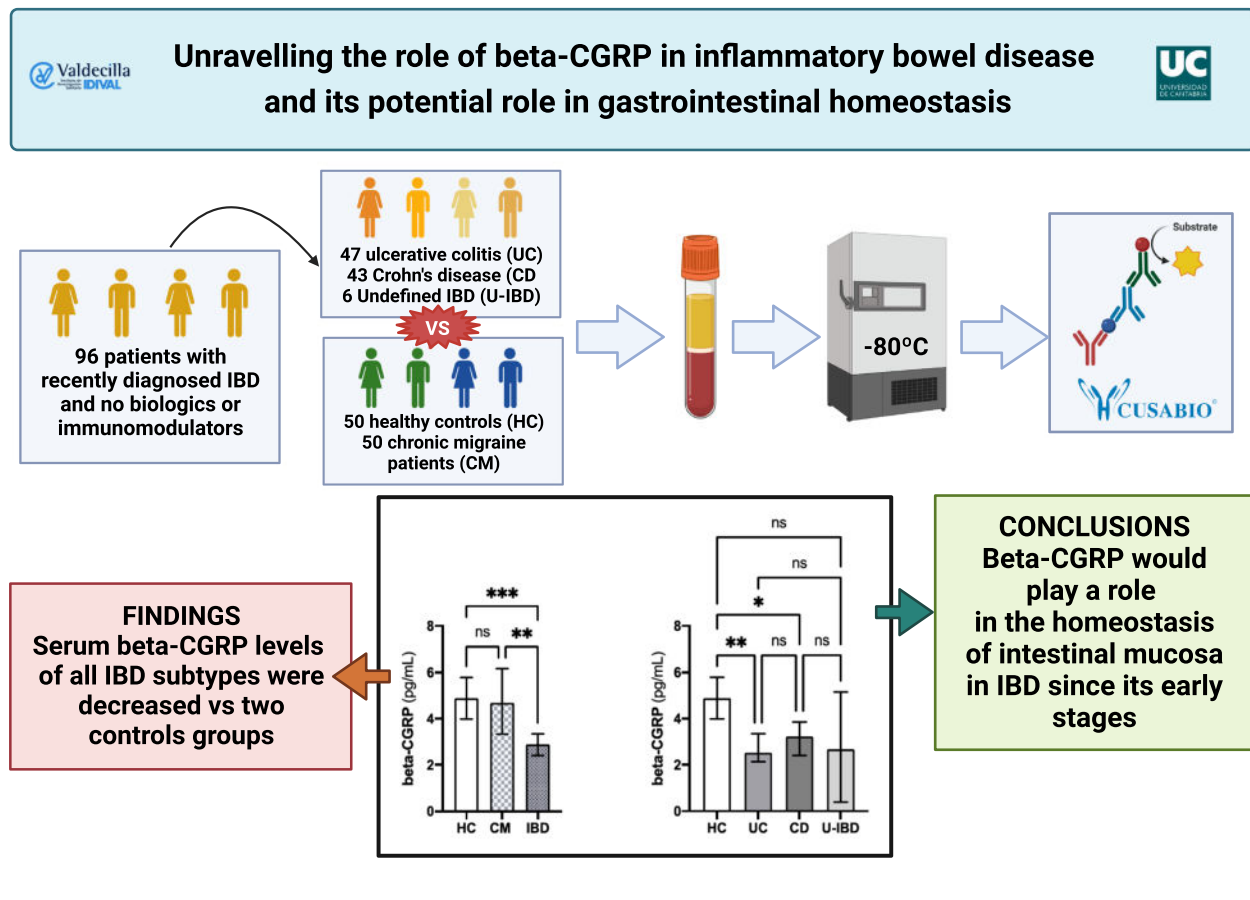
Julio Pascual
pascualj@unican.es

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Graphical Abstract



Background

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), including mainly Crohn’s disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC), involves chronic inflammation and disturbance of the gut immune system. In IBD the epithelial barrier is breached, which allows the entry of luminal microflora that stimulate a proinflammatory immune response. The mucosal injury, entry of luminal factors, dysbiosis and cytokine release overwhelms tissue protection and repair. The cause of IBD remains unknown and its pathogenesis is complex, encompassing genetic and epigenetic factors, microbiota and immunological abnormalities [1].

The neuronal influence on the inflammatory state of gastrointestinal tract in IBD is well demonstrated (Fig. 1) [2, 3]. In addition, gut immune cells express receptors for a range of neurotransmitters, including receptors for neuropeptides released by the intrinsic neurons of the nervous system, such as neurokinins, vasoactive intestinal peptide, neuromedin or

calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) [4, 5]. CGRP is a 37 amino acid peptide discovered in 1982 with its gene located on chromosome 11 belonging to the calcitonin family, which is comprised by calcitonin, amylin, adrenomedullin, adrenomedullin 2/intermedin and CGRP [6–8]. CGRP has two isoforms (alpha and beta), which differ by only three amino acids. However, they are encoded by different genes and their location is different [9, 10]. While alpha-CGRP is expressed in areas of the central nervous system (dorsal root, autonomic and trigeminal ganglia and primary sensory neurons), which explains its key role in migraine pathophysiology [11, 12], beta-CGRP is mainly found within myenteric neurons in the small bowel and colon [13–15]. The role of beta-CGRP in gastrointestinal tract is obscure, but experimental data would suggest a protective effect on intestinal mucosa and therefore a role in the pathophysiology of diseases such as IBD or diverticulitis [16, 17]. Therefore, we measured beta-CGRP serum levels in a series of subjects with a recent diagnosis of IBD.

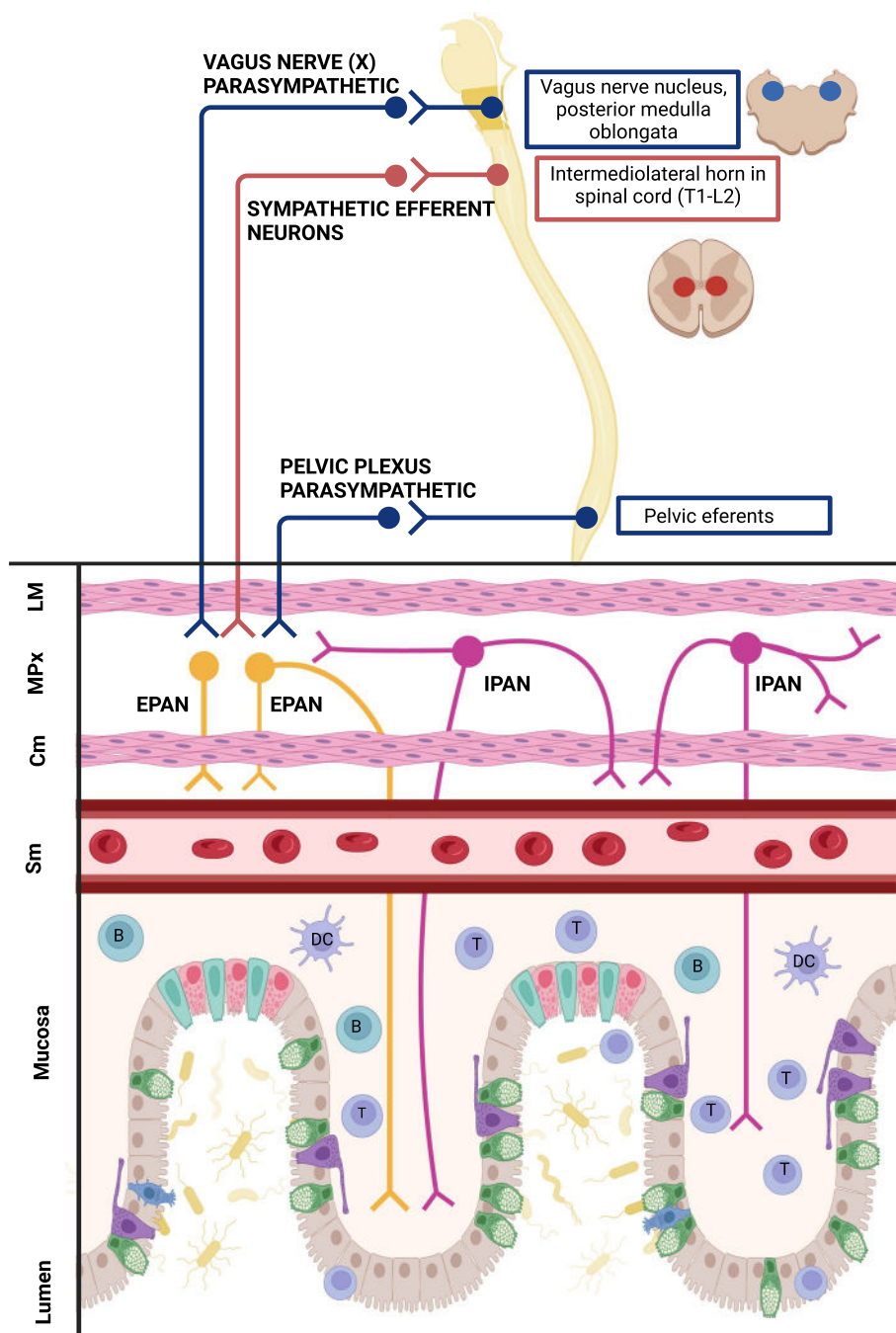


Fig. 1 Gastro-intestinal tract innervation with emphasis on efferent neuronal pathways involved in CGRP release. Alpha-CGRP is liberated by EPANs, which are modulated by sympathetic and parasympathetic system. Beta-CGRP is released by Dogiel type II neurons or IPAN. B, B lymphocytes; T, T lymphocytes; DC, dendritic cell. Created with BioRender.com

Methods

Study design and selection of study participants

Consecutive subjects with a recent diagnosis of IBD and classified according to the Montreal Classification [18] were recruited from our IBD Unit from January 2021 to March 2023. To be included, IBD patients had to be > 17

years and have a new, recent (<1 year) IBD diagnosis. Patients on biologics or immunosuppressants were excluded. We allowed only treatment with mesalazine or steroids. We registered autoimmune comorbidities and/or extraintestinal manifestations, and cardiovascular risk factors. We considered as a significant cardiovascular risk

factor the presence of active smoking, arterial hypertension, dyslipemia, diabetes mellitus and body mass index (BMI) > 30 kg/m².

We included two control populations with similar age and sex. As healthy controls (HC), volunteers with no history of active medical or psychiatric disease, with absence of gastrointestinal or headache symptoms and taking no medication. The second control group was composed by patients who met current chronic migraine (CM) criteria attending our Headache Unit [19]. We included a group of CM patients as this is the disease for which the value of CGRP as a biomarker has been well-established and as gastrointestinal symptoms are a part of the migraine clinical spectrum. CM patients were not on any anti-CGRP treatment and had not taken acute antimigraine treatment for the previous 24 h to blood extraction. Recruiting process was performed simultaneously for the three groups.

Sample size and data collection

Based on our data from previous studies measuring beta-CGRP in patients with diarrhea due to COVID-19 and HC and in CM patients [20, 21], we calculated that with an expected change of 33% between the IBD and the HC groups, alpha equal to 0.05 and a power of 80%, we had to include a minimum of 47 subjects per group.

Detailed clinical data were available for all the participants. The study received IRB approval by the Ethics Committee of Cantabria (28/2020). All participants gave written informed consent.

Laboratory testing

Blood samples were extracted in our outpatient clinic in fasting condition between 9 and 12 am. The blood was left to clot for 10 min prior to the centrifugation, at 3500 rpm and 4°C for another 10 min. The obtained serum was then immediately transferred into sterile tubes and stored at -80°C. All samples were frozen within the first 30 min since extraction and all were assayed before reaching 6 months of cryopreservation.

For the determination of beta-CGRP levels we employed a commercially available ELISA kit specifically designed for the detection of this isoform (CUSABIO, China) as described previously [20, 21]. We proceed by strictly following the manufacturer's instructions. For last step of the ELISA process, in which the user must determine the optimal time for incubation of the plate with the substrate from a given window by the manufacturers, we carried out incubations of 20 min after internal validation. All samples were measured in duplicate, and all measurements had an intra-assay coefficient of variation below 8%, therefore meeting the quality criteria set by manufacturers. A standard curve was generated for every

single bath, and these were calculated using a 4-parameter logistic (4-PL) regression with $r^2 > 0.999$. For ensuring the reproducibility of results, every batch included at least 10 samples from the HC group assayed in previous plates, obtaining an inter-assay variability < 10%, also below the threshold set by the manufacturer for this criterium.

Statistical analysis

Categorical variables are reported as percentages, whereas continuous variables are displayed as mean ± SD for normally distributed data and together with median (with 95% confidence interval [CI] of median) for non-normally distributed data unless stated differently in the text. For normality testing of quantitative variables we carried out the D'Agostino & Pearson test ($p < 0.05$ to refuse Ho). To assess the statistical differences between groups of continuous variables following normal distribution (age) we employed the student's *t* test. For non-normally distributed data (beta-CGRP), Mann-Whitney U test was carried out. For group comparison of categorical variables, the chosen prove was the Fisher's exact test. For multiple group comparisons of sub-groups created upon post-hoc division, we performed Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test. The evaluation of correlation relationships was done by Pearson's test.

The *p* values presented are for two-tailed testing, and we considered a $p < 0.05$ to prove statistical significance. All analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 9.4.1 (GraphPad Software).

Results

Baseline characteristics of study participants

We included 96 IBD cases (age 47.8 ± 16.5 years, range 18-82 years; 62.5% women); 50 HC (age 47.9 ± 16.3 years, range 23-77 years; 62.5% women) and 50 CM patients (age 47.9 ± 12.0 years, range 21-69 years; 76% women). Among IBD subjects, 47 (49.0%) met diagnostic criteria of UC, 43 (44.8%) of CD and 6 (6.2%) of unclassified IBD (U-IBD). The mean time from diagnosis to blood extraction was 74.9 ± 64.5 days (median 55.5 days; range between 0-250 days). Regarding treatments, 75% of patients were with either steroids, mesalazine or a combination of the two of them. Fourteen patients (14.6%) had at least one associated autoimmune disorder or extraintestinal manifestation of IBD. 45 patients (46.9%) had one vascular risk factor (Table 1).

Beta-CGRP levels

Beta-CGRP circulating levels were lower in patients with IBD (mean ± SD 3.1 ± 1.9 pg/mL; median [range] 2.9 [2.4-3.4] pg/mL) as compared to HC (4.7 ± 2.6 ; 4.9 [4.0-5.8] pg/mL; $p < 0.001$) and to CM patients

Table 1 Main characteristics of IBD patients

	Crohn's disease	Ulcerative colitis	Unclassified-IBD
Total, n	43	47	6
Sex, women	26 (60.5)	32 (68.1)	1 (16.7)
Age, y	51.25 ± 15.19, (22-82)	45.3 ± 18.05, (18-74)	44.5 ± 10.62, (27-56)
Days from diagnosis to serum extraction	56.9 ± 56.5, 0-213	87.2 ± 67.5, 0-250	106.6 ± 69.2, 0-193
Disease distribution (Montreal's classification)	A2: 14 (32.6) A3: 29 (67.4) L1: 24 (55.8) L2: 8 (18.6) L3: 8 (18.6) L4: 3 (7.0) B1: 38 (88.4) B2: 3 (7.0) B3: 2 (4.7)	E1: 24 (51.1) E2: 16 (34.0) E3: 7 (14.9)	
Perianal disease	5 (11.6)	1 (2.1)	0
Cardiovascular risk factors, ≥ 1	27 (62.8)	13 (27.7)	5 (83.3)
Active smoking	18 (41.86)	5 (10.6)	2 (33.3)
Arterial hypertension	8 (18.6)	2 (4.3)	1 (16.7)
Dyslipemia	8 (18.6)	6 (12.8)	1 (16.7)
Diabetes mellitus	2 (4.7)	0	1 (16.7)
Body mass index, kg/m ²	25.3 (17.2–40.1)	23.5 (17.5–32.3)	26.5(21.9–31.5)
BMI > 30	5 (9.3)	2 (4.3)	2 (4.3)
Immune disorders ≥ 1	7 (16.3)	7 (12.8)	0
Rheumatoid arthritis	1 (2.3)	0	0
Multiple sclerosis	1 (2.3)	0	0
Asthma	1 (2.3)	2 (4.3)	0
Spondylitis	3 (7)	0	0
Uveitis	1 (2.3)	0	0
Coeliac disease	1 (2.3)	0	0
Psoriasis	0	2 (4.3)	0
Erythema nodosum	0	1 (2.1)	0
Dermatitis herpetiformis	0	1 (2.1)	0
Urticaria-vasculitis	0	1 (2.1)	0
Treatment			
Any	31 (72.1)	36 (75.6)	5 (83.3)
Mesalazine	21 (48.8)	33 (70.2)	5 (83.3)
Steroids	11 (25.6%)	7 (14.9)	1 (16.7)
Other comorbidities			
Hypothyroidism	5 (11.5)	2 (4.3)	0
Chronic pancreatitis	1 (2.3)	0	0

BMI body mass index

Values are reported as number (percentage), means ± SD (range), or mean (range)

(4.6 ± 2.6; 4.7 [3.3–6.2] pg/mL; $p < 0.001$). Beta-CGRP levels in CM were not significantly different to those of HC ($p = 0.92$). Regarding IBD subtypes, beta-CGRP levels for UC (3.0 ± 1.9 pg/mL; 2.5 [2.1–3.4] pg/mL) and CD (3.3 ± 2.0 pg/mL; 3.2 [2.4–3.9] pg/mL) were significantly

lower to those of HC ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively, while beta-CGRP for U-IBD remained numerically lower (3.0 ± 1.8 pg/mL, 2.7 [0.4–5.2] pg/mL). When compared to CM, beta-CGRP content in UC and CD patients remained significantly lower ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$

respectively) but not U-IBD patients, although the comparison showed a numerical decrease (Fig. 2).

Influence of clinical factors in beta-CGRP levels

No significant differences arose when patients were classified by presence/absence of cardiovascular risk factors (yes: 3.1 ± 1.7 pg/mL; no: 3.2 ± 2.1 pg/mL; $p=0.93$); autoimmune comorbidities (yes: 3.4 ± 1.4 pg/mL; no: 3.1 ± 2.0 pg/mL; $p=0.24$); active mesalazine treatment (yes: 3.1 ± 1.9 pg/mL; no: 3.2 ± 1.9 pg/mL; $p=0.91$); or active steroid treatment (yes: 3.0 ± 1.9 pg/mL; 3.2 ± 1.9 pg/mL; $p=0.52$).

Discussion

We have found a significant reduction in serum beta-CGRP levels in patients with a recent diagnosis of IBD versus two control groups without intestinal disease, HC and CM. The decrease in beta-CGRP levels was uniform for the three kinds of IBD: CD, UC and U-IBD. To our knowledge, this is the first study analyzing specifically beta-CGRP levels in IBD patients.

Beta-CGRP has a predominant gut location and its concentration in the intestine is seven times higher than that of alpha-CGRP; therefore, though most studies do not differentiate between alpha and beta isoforms, it can be assumed that data about gut CGRP are mostly referring to beta-CGRP [13–15]. CGRP has been shown to be anti-inflammatory in many tissues [22], including the gut [23–25]. In experimental models, CGRP knockout mice are more susceptible to develop colitis and spontaneous

lymphoid hyperplasia [26], which might indicate a protective role in bowel inflammation. Concurring with our data, Li et al. found that CGRP and CGRP mRNA expression were decreased in the intestinal mucosa of UC patients. As the magnitude of this decrease correlated with the severity of IBD, they proposed CGRP as a UC biomarker [27]. We show here that beta-CGRP levels are decreased already in many patients on their first stages of the disease, which suggests that this reduction is not secondary to an established chronic damage of the mucosa, but that could have a key role in the maintenance of wall homeostasis in the initial IBD stages.

Considering all these data, it is tempting to propose a protective role of beta-CGRP in keeping gastrointestinal homeostasis in IBD. In the enteric nervous system, beta-CGRP is expressed in a subset of Dogiel type II, intrinsic primary afferent neurons, while alpha-CGRP is expressed in the afferent neurons of the extrinsic nervous system originating from the dorsal root and vagal ganglia [14, 28, 29]. CGRP has been shown to serve as a protective factor in experimental models of colitis, such as those induced by trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid or dextran sulfate sodium [16, 30, 31]. Although the mechanisms underlying this mucosal protection are largely unknown, there are multiple ways by which beta-CGRP might manifest its effects (Fig. 3). CGRP is a potent vasodilator and mediator of localized blood flow [32], which could minimize damage by promoting tissue repair. CGRP liberation increases colon chloride secretion [33], which would aid in the clearance of toxic agents. Experimentally induced colitis

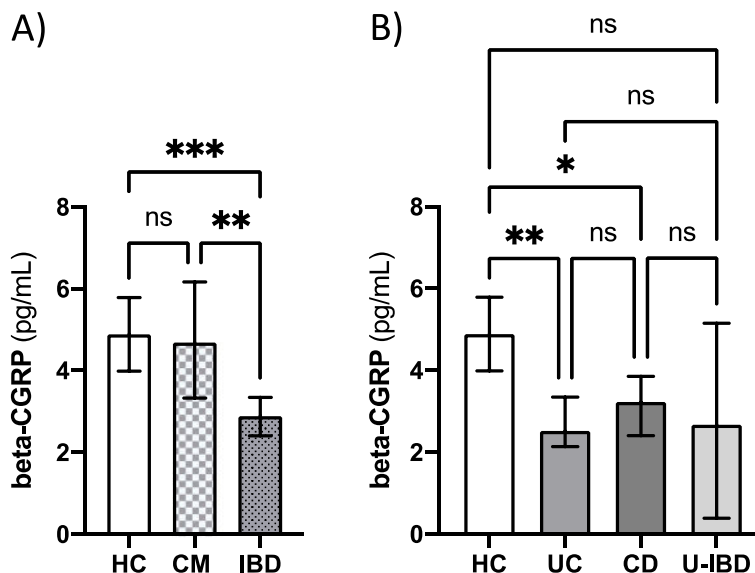


Fig. 2 Serum beta-CGRP levels in IBD vs HC and CM patients (median; 95% CI). **A** Significant decrease in IBD patients as compared to HC and CM subjects. **B** This decrease in beta-CGRP levels versus HC is uniform in UC, CD and U-IBD. ns: $p > 0.05$; *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$. HC, healthy controls; CD, Crohn's disease; UC, ulcerative colitis; U-IBD, unclassified inflammatory intestinal disease

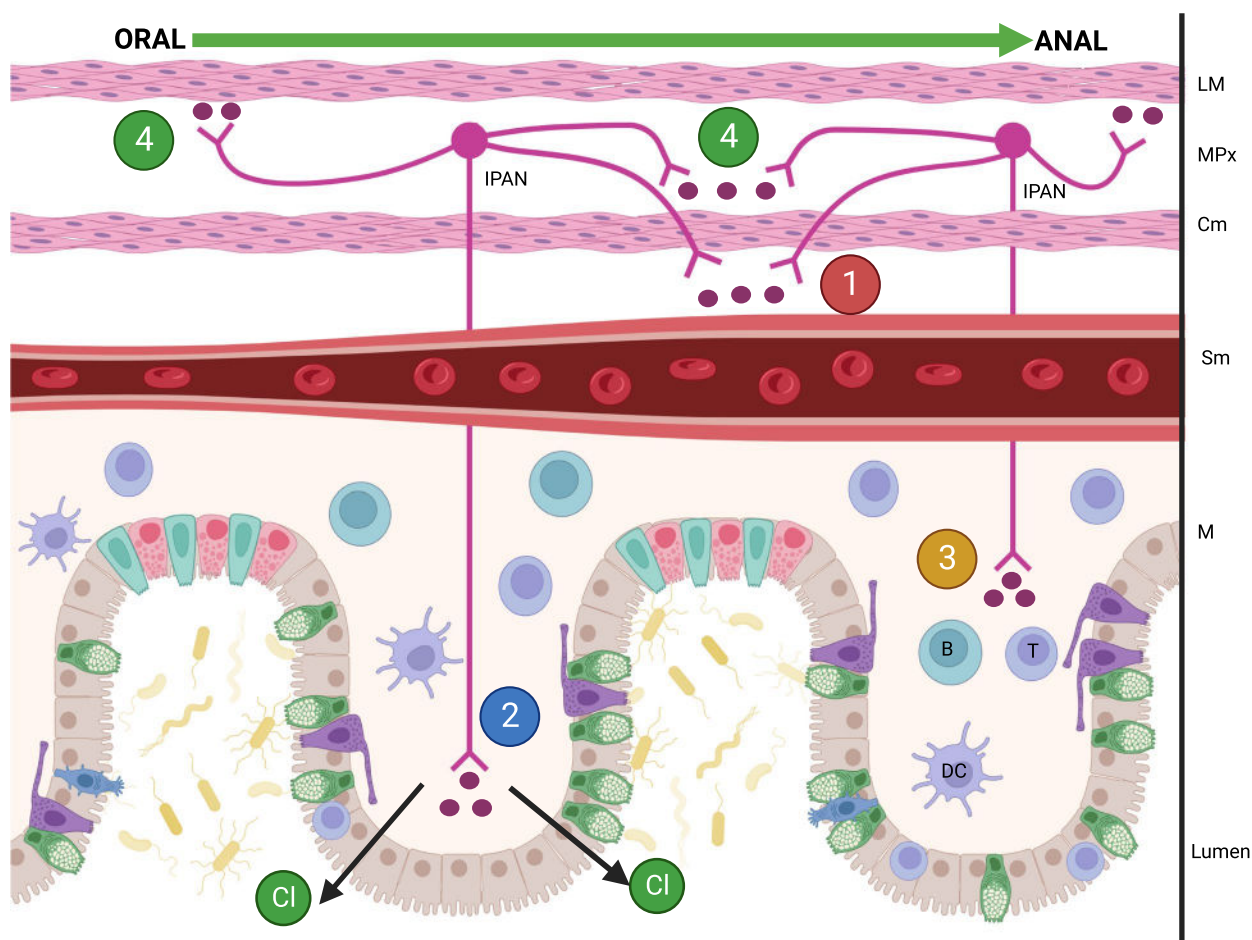


Fig. 3 Proposed physiology of beta-CGRP. Beta-CGRP (violet circles) is released by intrinsic primary afferent neurons (IPAN), located in the myenteric plexus. Four main functions have been associated with beta-CGRP secretion: 1) vasodilation of enteric blood vessels; 2) secretion of chloride in the enteric cells; 3) regulation of proliferation and activation of lymphocytes and dendritic cells; and 4) activation of gut muscle and oral/anal propulsion. Cl, chloride; Cm, circular muscle layer; LM, longitudinal muscle layer; M, mucosa; MPx, myenteric plexus; Sm, submucosal layer. Created with BioRender.com

results in cytokine profiles characteristic of T-helper cells mediated responses [34]. Although neither T nor B cells are required for the induction of experimental colitis [35], it is possible that lymphocytes are involved in propagation of the inflammatory response [21]. Beta-CGRP has been shown to be synthesized and secreted not only by intrinsic enteric neurons but also by T lymphocytes [36]. Such secretion is able to inhibit lymphocyte proliferation, thereby providing a further possible mechanism by which beta-CGRP could act globally to limit the inflammatory process. Interestingly, further supporting a role for enteric CGRP in dysregulation of lymphocytes proliferation, CGRP inhibits interleukin-7 response of B cells through interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor alpha mediated pathways and CGRP-null mice both spontaneously develop colitis and significant colon lymphoid hyperplasia with aging [37, 38]. All these data support a

protective role of CGRP, and specifically of beta-CGRP, against gastrointestinal mucosal damage. There are other examples of this potential protective role of CGRP. In the stomach, CGRP reverts acid-mediated healing by stimulating somatostatin and gastrin release from the antral cells [39]. CGRP levels are decreased in the enteric ganglia of patients with diverticular disease, which again suggests a role for CGRP in colonic homeostasis [22]. CGRP is involved in a variety of physiological processes throughout the alimentary tract, such as nociception, immune response, secretion and motility [40, 41]. CGRP is also a potent smooth muscle relaxant [42–44]; declined levels could induce an increase in smooth muscle tone and, as already pointed out, play a role in diverticular disease progression [17], but also contribute to some of the IBD motility-dependent symptoms (Fig. 4).

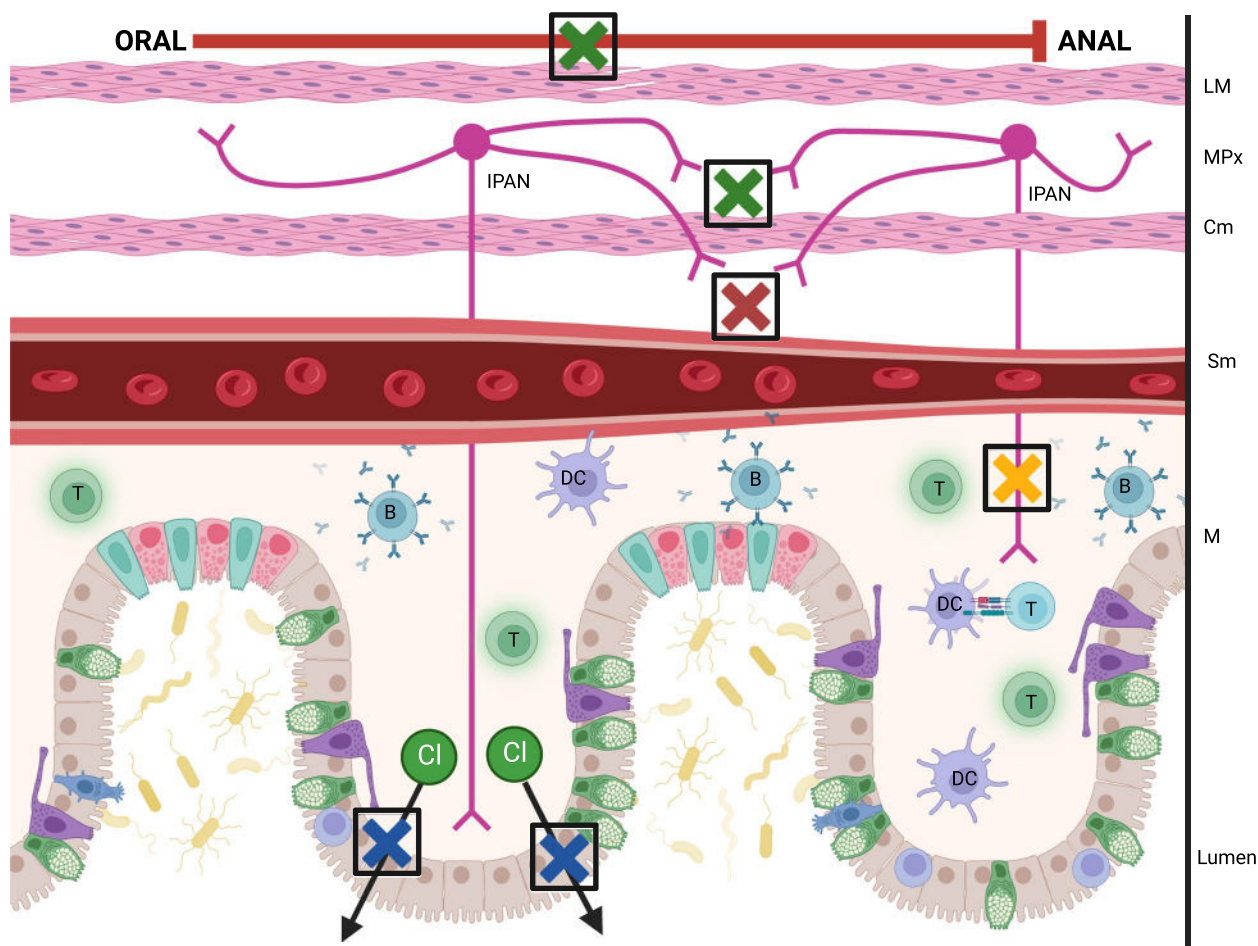


Fig. 4 Beta-CGRP reduction in IBD would induce four distinct changes, marked in this figure with different crosses: 1) red: vasoconstriction of submucosal blood vessels; 2) blue: inhibition of secretion of chloride in enteric cells, which can cause damage in the mucosal layer; 3) yellow: lymphocyte proliferation and activation, as well as cytokine release; and 4) green: inhibition of oral/anal propulsion. Cl, chloride; Cm, circular muscle layer; LM, longitudinal muscle layer; M, mucosa; MPx, myenteric plexus; Sm, submucosal layer. Created with BioRender.com

Our main limitation could be that we do not know with certainty to what extent the serum beta-CGRP reflects the enteric levels. The same happens for the alpha-CGRP isoform whose release by the cranial trigemino-vascular system plays a key role in migraine pathophysiology [11, 12]. Thinking that circulating CGRP values would be of value only if the samples were obtained locally, the first studies showing increased alpha-CGRP levels were carried out in the jugular vein ipsilateral to the pain [45]. However, subsequent studies have shown that this increase in alpha-CGRP is seen acutely within migraine attacks [45, 46], and also interictally in CM cases in cubital samples [21, 47]. Furthermore, experimental data clearly indicate that circulating levels do reflect the release of alpha-CGRP in by an activated trigemino-vascular system [48]. This increase in circulating CGRP levels in migraine is selective for the alpha-CGRP as beta-CGRP have been shown to be within HC limits [21].

One further limitation is that the ability to infer causality between low beta-CGRP levels and IBD pathogenesis is limited since our study is cross-sectional. In fact, to test a potential pathophysiological role of beta-CGRP in IBD it would be necessary to perform an intervention study, for example, to use beta-CGRP or its agonist during the induction of experimental IBD. One important point to consider here is the chameleonic behavior of circulating beta-CGRP levels: serum beta-CGRP levels are reduced here in patients with a chronic condition as IBD, but increase, for instance, in patients with diarrhea due to a COVID-19 infection [49], where a generalized neuropeptide release secondary to the cytokine storm occurs [20]. The high number of IBD cases included here, the fact that samples were obtained at the beginning of the disease -avoiding the potential influence of drugs and surgical procedures employed in IBD- and the use of an ELISA test beta-CGRP specific could be considered as strengths.

Finally, though we included only IBD patient with a recent diagnosis, there were 5 CD patients who were on B2/B3 stages and also 5 who had perianal disease, which could not be regarded as the first or initial changes of the disease. Therefore, reduced beta-CGRP levels could also be explained by an established damage of the intestinal mucosa.

Conclusion

In summary, circulating beta-CGRP levels were shown to be clearly reduced in patients with IBD, which supports its role in IBD pathophysiology since its early stages. Our data may indicate a protective role of beta-CGRP in alimentary tract homeostasis. Future studies are necessary to verify its value as an IBD biomarker; we find particularly interesting to test the relationship between beta-CGRP and disease activity. Finally, our results have translational implications: specific beta-CGRP agonists should be developed and tested in IBD and other digestive diseases and teach us that we have to pay especial attention to the course of IBD in patients who are using the new CGRP antagonists for the treatment of headache conditions.

Abbreviations

BMI	Body mass index
CD	Crohn's disease
CGRP	Calcitonin-gene related peptide
CI	Confidence interval
Cl	Chloride
CM	Chronic migraine
Cm	Circular muscle layer
DC	Dendritic cell
EPAN	Extrinsic primary afferent neuron
HC	Healthy controls
IBD	Inflammatory bowel disease
IPAN	Intrinsic primary afferent neurons
LM	Longitudinal muscle layer
M	Mucosa
MPx	Myenteric plexus
SD	Standard deviation
Sm	Submucosal layer
U-IBD	Unclassified inflammatory bowel disease
UC	Ulcerative colitis

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the nurse of our IBD Unit María Soledad Serrano for her continuous support.

Authors' contributions

Study concept and design (J.P., J.C. and M.R.); data acquisition and analysis (M.P.M., G.G., V.G.Q., C.P.T., M.J.G., B.C. and J.M.); laboratory procedures (G.G.); drafting of the manuscript (M.P.P., J.P. and G.G.). All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Funding

This study has been founded by Instituto de Salud Carlos III (ISCIII) through the project PI20/01358 and co-funded by Fondos Europeos de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER), "Una manera de hacer Europa".

Availability of data and materials

The data, laboratory methods and study materials are available to other researchers upon reasonable request to the correspondence author.

Data availability

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Informed consent was obtained from all participants. All procedures involving human participants adhered to the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the Helsinki Declaration. The ethics research committee of Cantabria, Spain approved this study's protocol.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹Gastroenterology and Hepatology Department, Clinical and Translational Research in Digestive Diseases, Valdecilla Research Institute (IDIVAL), University Hospital Marqués de Valdecilla and Universidad de Cantabria, Santander, Spain. ²Service of Neurology, University Hospital Marqués de Valdecilla, Universidad de Cantabria and IDIVAL, Av. Valdecilla s/n, Santander 39008, Spain.

Received: 14 December 2023 Accepted: 9 August 2024

Published online: 13 August 2024

References

- Chang JT. Pathophysiology of inflammatory bowel diseases. *N Engl J Med.* 2020;383:2652–64.
- Populin L, Stebbing MJ, Furness JB. Neuronal regulation of the gut immune system and neuromodulation for treating inflammatory bowel disease. *FASEB Bioadv.* 2021;3:953–66.
- Bonaz R, Sinniger V, Pellissier S. Anti-inflammatory properties of the vagus nerve: potential therapeutic implications of vagus nerve stimulation. *J Physiol.* 2016;594:5781–90.
- Reinshagen M, Egger B, Procaccino F, et al. Neuropeptides in inflammatory bowel disease: an update. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 1997;3:303.313.
- Engel MA, Becker C, Reeh PW, et al. Role of sensory neurons in colitis: increasing evidence of a neuroimmune link in the gut. *Inflamm Bowel Dis.* 2011;17:1030–3.
- Amara SG, Jonas V, Rosenfeld MG, et al. Alternative RNA processing in calcitonin gene expression generates mRNA encoding different polypeptide products. *Nature.* 1982;298:240–4.
- Rosenfeld MG, Mermod JJ, Amara SG, et al. Production of a novel neuropeptide encoded by calcitonin gene via tissue-specific RNA processing. *Nature.* 1983;304:129–35.
- Poyner DR, Sexton PM, Marshall I. International Union of Pharmacology. XXXII. The mammalian calcitonin gene-related peptides, adrenomedullin, amylin, and calcitonin receptors. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2002;54:233–46.
- Steenbergh PH, Höppener JW, Zandberg J, et al. A second human calcitonin/CGRP gene. *FEBS Lett.* 1985;183:403–7.
- Höppener JW, Steenbergh PH, Zandberg J, et al. The second human calcitonin/CGRP gene is located on chromosome 11. *Hum Genet.* 1985;70:259–63.
- Edvinsson L, Haanes KA, Warfvinge K, et al. CGRP as the target of new migraine therapies—successful translation from bench to clinic. *Nat Rev Neurol.* 2018;14:338.350.
- Russo AF, Hay DL. CGRP physiology, pharmacology, and therapeutic targets: migraine and beyond. *Physiol Rev.* 2023;103:1565–644.
- Schütz B, Mauer D, Salmon AM, et al. Analysis of the cellular expression pattern of beta-CGRP in alpha-CGRP-deficient mice. *J Comp Neurol.* 2004;476:32–43.
- Mulderry PK, Ghatei MA, Spokes RA, et al. Differential expression of alpha-CGRP and beta-CGRP by primary sensory neurons and enteric autonomic neurons of the rat. *Neuroscience.* 1988;25:195–205.

15. van Rossum D, Hanisch UK, Quirion R. Neuroanatomical localization, pharmacological characterization and function of CGRP-related peptides and their receptors. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 1997;21:649–78.
16. Thompson BJ, Washington MK, Kurre U, et al. Protective roles of alpha-calcitonin and beta-calcitonin gene-related peptide in spontaneous and experimentally induced colitis. *Dig Dis Sci.* 2008;53:229–41.
17. Pauza AG, Rysevaite-Kyguoliene K, Malinauskas M, et al. Alterations in enteric calcitonin gene-related peptide in patients with colonic diverticular disease: CGRP in diverticular disease. *Auton Neurosci.* 2019;216:63–71.
18. Silverberg MS, Satsangi J, Ahmad T, et al. Toward an integrated clinical, molecular and serological classification of inflammatory bowel disease: report of a Working Party of the 2005 Montreal World Congress of Gastroenterology. *Can J Gastroenterol.* 2005;19(Suppl. A):5A–36A.
19. Headache Classification Committee of the International Headache Society (IHS). The International Classification of Headache Disorders, 3rd edition. *Cephalalgia.* 2018;38:1–211.
20. Gárate G, Pascual M, Rivero M, et al. Serum calcitonin gene-related peptide α and β levels are increased in COVID-19 inpatients. *Arch Med Res.* 2023;54:56–63.
21. Gárate G, González-Quintanilla V, González A, et al. Serum alpha and beta-CGRP levels in chronic migraine patients before and after monoclonal antibodies against CGRP or its receptor. *Ann Neurol.* 2023;94:285–94.
22. Holzmann B. Antiinflammatory activities of CGRP modulating innate immune responses in health and disease. *Curr Protein Pept Sci.* 2013;14:268–74.
23. Assas BM, Miyan JA, Pennock JL. Cross-talk between neural and immune receptors provides a potential mechanism of homeostatic regulation in the gut mucosa. *Mucosal Immunol.* 2014;7:1283–9.
24. Norton CE, Grunz-Borgmann EA, Hart ML, et al. Role of perivascular nerve and sensory neurotransmitter dysfunction in inflammatory bowel disease. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol.* 2021;320:1887–902.
25. Sharkey K. Substance P and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) in gastrointestinal inflammation. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 1992;664:425–42.
26. Engel MA, Khalil M, Siklosi N, et al. Opposite effects of substance P and calcitonin gene-related peptide in oxazolone colitis. *Dig Liv Dis.* 2012;44:24–9.
27. Li FJ, Zou YY, Ciu Y, et al. Calcitonin gene-related peptide is a promising marker in ulcerative colitis. *Dig Dis Sci.* 2013;58:686–93.
28. Sternini C, Anderson K. Calcitonin gene-related peptide neurons supplying the rat digestive system: differential distribution and expression pattern. *Somatosens Mot Res.* 1992;9:45–9.
29. Furness JB, Robbins HL, Xiao J, et al. Projections and chemistry of Dogiel type II neurons in the mouse colon. *Cell Tissue Res.* 2004;317:1–12.
30. Jurjus AR, Khoury NN, Reimund JM. Animal models of inflammatory bowel disease. *J Pharmacol Toxicol Methods.* 2004;50:81–92.
31. Eysselein VE, Reinshagen M, Patel S, et al. Calcitonin gene-related peptide in inflammatory bowel disease and experimental induced colitis. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 1992;657:319–27.
32. Brain SD, Williams TJ, Tippins JR, et al. Calcitonin gene-related peptide is a potent vasodilator. *Nature.* 1985;313:54–6.
33. McCulloch CR, Cooke HJ. Human alpha-calcitonin gene related peptide influences colonic secretion by acting on myenteric neurons. *Regul Pept.* 1989;24:87–96.
34. Dieleman LA, Palmén MJ, Akol H, et al. Chronic experimental colitis induced by dextran sulphate sodium (DSS) is characterized by Th1 and Th2 cytokines. *Clin Exp Immunol.* 1998;114:385–91.
35. Dieleman LA, Ridwan BU, Tennyson GS, et al. Dextran sulphate sodium-induced colitis occurs in severe combined immunodeficient mice. *Gastroenterology.* 1994;107:1643–54.
36. Xing L, Guo J, Wang X. Induction and expression of beta calcitonin gene-related peptide in rat T lymphocytes and its significance. *J Immunol.* 2000;165:4359–66.
37. Hibi T, Ogata H, Sakuraba A. Animal models of inflammatory bowel disease. *J Gastroenterol.* 2002;37:409–17.
38. Fernández S, Knopf MA, Shankar G, et al. Calcitonin gene-related peptide indirectly inhibits IL-7 responses in pre-B cells by induction of IL-6 and TNF-alpha in bone marrow. *Cell Immunol.* 2003;226:67–77.
39. Tache Y, Raybould H, Wei JY. Central and peripheral actions of calcitonin gene-related peptide on gastric secretory and motor function. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* 1991;298:183–98.
40. Evangelista S. Role of calcitonin gene-related peptide in gastric mucosal defense and healing. *Curr Pharmacol Design.* 2009;15:3571–6.
41. Plourde V, St-Pierre S, Quirion R. Calcitonin gene-related peptide in viscerosensitive response to colorectal distension in rats. *Am J Physiol.* 1997;273:191–6.
42. Grider JR. CGRP as a transmitter in the sensory pathway mediating peristaltic reflex. *Am J Physiol.* 2003;266:1139–45.
43. Reinshagen M, Flamig G, Ernst S, et al. Calcitonin gene-related peptide mediates the protective effect of sensory nerves in a model of colonic injury. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1998;270:657–61.
44. Maggi CA, Guilliani S, Zagorodnyuk V. Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) in the circular muscle of guinea-pig colon: role as inhibitory transmitter and mechanisms of relaxation. *Regul Pept.* 1996;61:27–36.
45. Goadsby PJ, Edvinsson L, Ekman R. Vasoactive peptide release in the extracerebral circulation of humans during migraine headache. *Ann Neurol.* 1990;28:183–7.
46. Rodríguez-Osorio X, Sobrino T, Brea D, et al. Endothelial progenitor cells: a new key for endothelial dysfunction in migraine. *Neurology.* 2012;79:474–9.
47. Cernuda-Morollón E, Larrosa D, Ramón C, et al. Interictal increase of CGRP levels in peripheral blood as a biomarker for chronic migraine. *Neurology.* 2013;81:1191–6.
48. Hofmann J, Wecker S, Neeb L, et al. Primary trigeminal afferents are the main source for stimulus-induced CGRP release into jugular vein blood and CSF. *Cephalalgia.* 2012;32:659–67.
49. Gárate G, Pascual M, Olmos JM, et al. Increase in serum calcitonin-gene related peptide β (CGRP β) levels in COVID-19 patients with diarrhea: an underlying mechanism? *Dig Dis Sci.* 2022;67:5712–3.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.