

ErbB Signaling Is Required for the Proliferative Actions of GLP-2 in the Murine Gut

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BACKGROUND & AIMS: Glucagon-like peptide-2 (GLP-2) is a 33-amino acid peptide hormone secreted by enteroendocrine cells in response to nutrient ingestion. GLP-2 stimulates crypt cell proliferation leading to expansion of the mucosal epithelium; however, the mechanisms transducing the trophic effects of GLP-2 are incompletely understood. **METHODS:** We examined the gene expression profiles and growth-promoting actions of GLP-2 in normal mice in the presence or absence of an inhibitor of ErbB receptor signaling, in *Glp2r*^{-/-} mice and in *Egfr*^{ava2} mice harboring a hypomorphic point mutation in the epidermal growth factor receptor. **RESULTS:** Exogenous GLP-2 administration rapidly induced the expression of a subset of ErbB ligands including amphiregulin, epiregulin, and heparin binding (HB)-epidermal growth factor, in association with induction of immediate early gene expression in the small and large bowel. These actions of GLP-2 required a functional GLP-2 receptor because they were eliminated in *Glp2r*^{-/-} mice. In contrast, insulin-like growth factor-I and keratinocyte growth factor, previously identified mediators of GLP-2 action, had no effect on the expression of these ErbB ligands. The GLP-2-mediated induction of ErbB ligand expression was not metalloproteinase inhibitor sensitive but was significantly diminished in *Egfr*^{ava2} mice and completely abrogated in wild-type mice treated with the pan-ErbB inhibitor CI-1033. Furthermore, the stimulatory actions of GLP-2 on crypt cell proliferation and bowel growth were eliminated in the presence of CI-1033. **CONCLUSIONS:** These findings identify the ErbB signaling network as a target for GLP-2 action leading to stimulation of growth factor-dependent signal transduction and bowel growth in vivo.

The actions of enteroendocrine-derived peptide hormones are classically mediated by specific G-protein-coupled receptors expressed on distant target cell types. However, peptide hormones may also exert their actions indirectly via control of other cell types. For example, glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) secreted from enteroendocrine L cells interacts with specific GLP-1 receptors on neurons and on pancreatic β -cells to stimulate insulin secretion, which in turn regulates hepatic glucose production and glucose uptake.¹ GLP-1 may also act indi-

rectly on target cells, via GLP-1 receptor (GLP-1R)-dependent transactivation of epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptors (EGFR), to stimulate β -cell proliferation.²

Glucagon-like peptide-2 (GLP-2), cosecreted together with GLP-1, acts more proximally on the gut epithelium to promote nutrient absorption, cell proliferation, and survival. GLP-2 exerts its actions through interaction with a specific GLP-2 receptor,³ a member of the glucagon-secretin receptor superfamily.⁴ Activation of the GLP-2R leads to enhanced cyclic AMP formation and engagement of anti-apoptotic pathways.^{5,6} Remarkably, however, GLP-2R expression has not been identified on enterocytes or crypt cells; rather, the GLP-2 receptor has been localized to enteric neurons,⁷⁻⁹ enteroendocrine cells,⁸⁻¹⁰ and myofibroblasts,¹¹ suggesting that the majority of GLP-2 actions on the mucosal epithelium are indirect, through liberation and/or activation of one or more downstream mediators.

Consistent with this hypothesis, GLP-2 requires keratinocyte growth factor (KGF) for growth of the large bowel in mice,¹¹ whereas the anti-inflammatory actions of GLP-2 in the rat ileum and colon are attenuated following administration of a vasoactive intestinal polypeptide antagonist.¹² Moreover, nitric oxide mediates the rapid GLP-2-dependent stimulation of intestinal blood flow,¹³ and GLP-2 enhances expression of endothelial nitric oxide synthase in porcine enteric neurons.⁸

Much less is known about the mechanisms recruited by GLP-2 that lead to stimulation of small bowel growth. Insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), a GLP-2-regulated protein expressed in intestinal myofibroblasts, is required for the intestinotrophic actions of GLP-2 in mice.¹⁴ Nevertheless, although GLP-2 and IGF-I induce an overlapping set of growth-related molecules such as β -catenin, Akt, and c-myc in the murine small bowel,¹⁵ the ability of GLP-2 to induce Akt phosphorylation was preserved in *Igf1*^{-/-} mice.¹⁵ Hence, the actions of GLP-2 on the small bowel are complex, likely involving additional mediators independent of IGF-I. Because GLP-2 and EGF exert overlapping actions encompass-

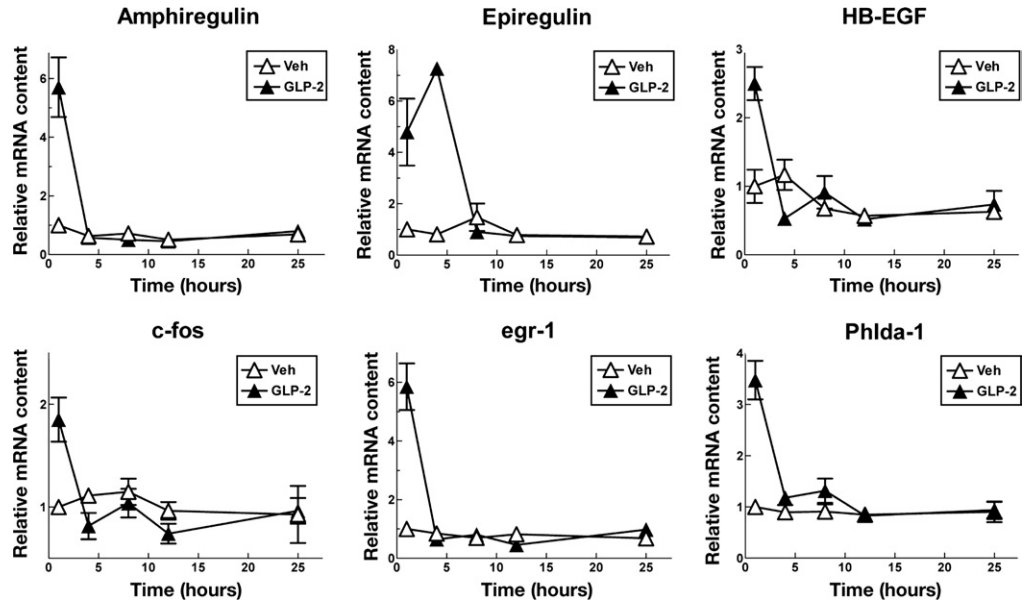
Abbreviations used in this paper: EGF, epidermal growth factor; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; GLP, glucagon-like peptide; IGF-I, insulin-like growth factor-I; KGF, keratinocyte growth factor.

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Figure 1. Acute induction of ErbB ligand and IEG transcripts by GLP-2 in mouse jejunum. Levels of mRNA transcripts were determined by real-time quantitative RT-PCR using total RNA isolated from jejunum of CD1 mice killed 1, 4, 8, 12, and 25 hours following a single injection of GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg) or vehicle alone (PBS). Data, presented as fold induction relative to the vehicle treatment group at time 1 hour, are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments involving a total of 3 mice per condition. SE for data with coefficients of variation \leq 5% is not visible on the graph.



ing enhancement of nutrient absorption and stimulation of cell proliferation in the gut,¹⁶ we hypothesized that GLP-2 induces its proliferative actions in part through ErbB-dependent pathways. We now report that GLP-2 activates components of the ErbB signaling network and that the trophic actions of exogenous GLP-2 on the murine small bowel are markedly diminished following inhibition of ErbB receptor signaling.

Materials and Methods

Animal Care and Genotyping

Animal studies were carried out in accordance with protocols and guidelines approved by the Animal Care Committees of the University Health Network and Mount Sinai Hospital. Female mice 8–9 weeks of age of

the CD1 background were purchased from Charles River Canada (St Constant, Quebec, Canada) or from Taconic (Hudson, NY) and were allowed to acclimatize to the animal facility for 9–10 days before each experiment. *a/a Egr1^{+/a2}*/J mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME), and C57BL/6J-*Glp2^{-/-}* mice were generated in our laboratory. Heterozygous male and female mice of each strain were crossed to derive the different genotypes utilized in the experiments. Genotyping was performed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on tail DNA as previously described.^{17,18}

Peptides and Drugs

Human GLP-2 and recombinant mouse EGF were from Bachem (Torrance, CA) and Long-R³ IGF-I was

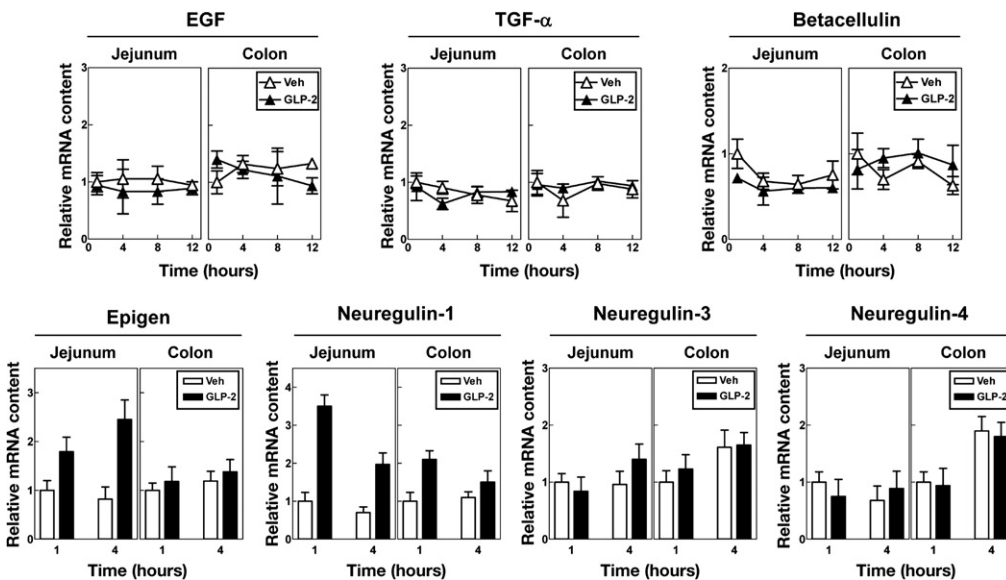


Figure 2. Selective induction of intestinal ErbB ligand transcript expression by GLP-2. Total RNA was isolated from jejunum and colon of CD1 mice at the specified periods of time after a single injection of GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg) or vehicle (PBS). Levels of mRNA transcripts determined by real-time quantitative RT-PCR are expressed relative to the vehicle values at 1 hour. For EGF, TGF- α , and betacellulin data are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments (3 mice per condition). For the remaining transcripts, data are means \pm SE of 4 independent experiments (6 mice per condition).

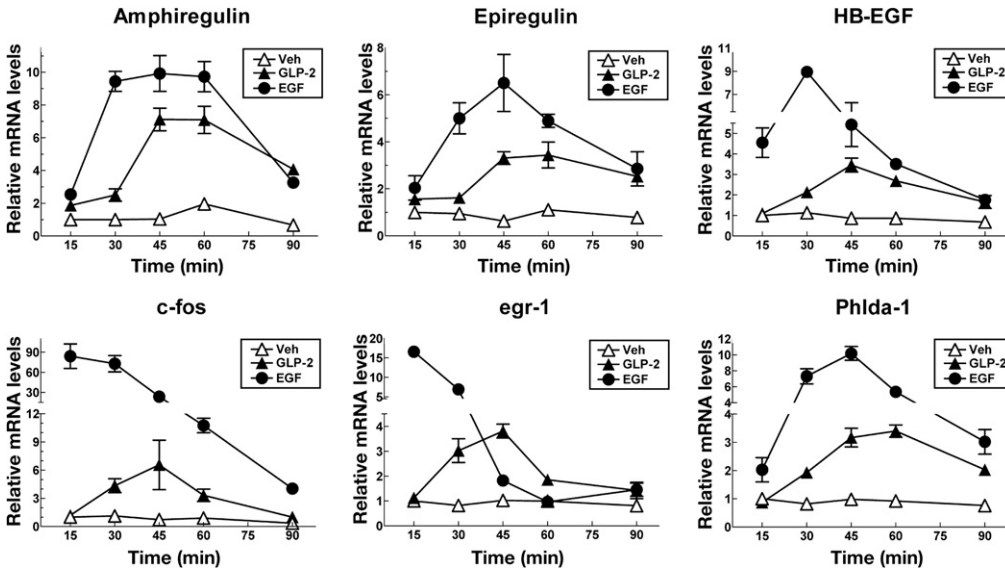


Figure 3. Coordinated induction of specific ErbB ligand and IEG transcripts by GLP-2 and EGF in mouse colon. ErbB ligand and IEG transcript levels were determined by real-time PCR in total RNA from the colon of CD1 mice following treatment with GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (1 mg/kg), or vehicle (PBS) for the indicated time periods. Data, presented as fold induction relative to the values of the vehicle group at time 15 minutes, are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments involving a total of 4 mice per condition. SE for data with coefficients of variation \leq 5% is not visible on the graph.

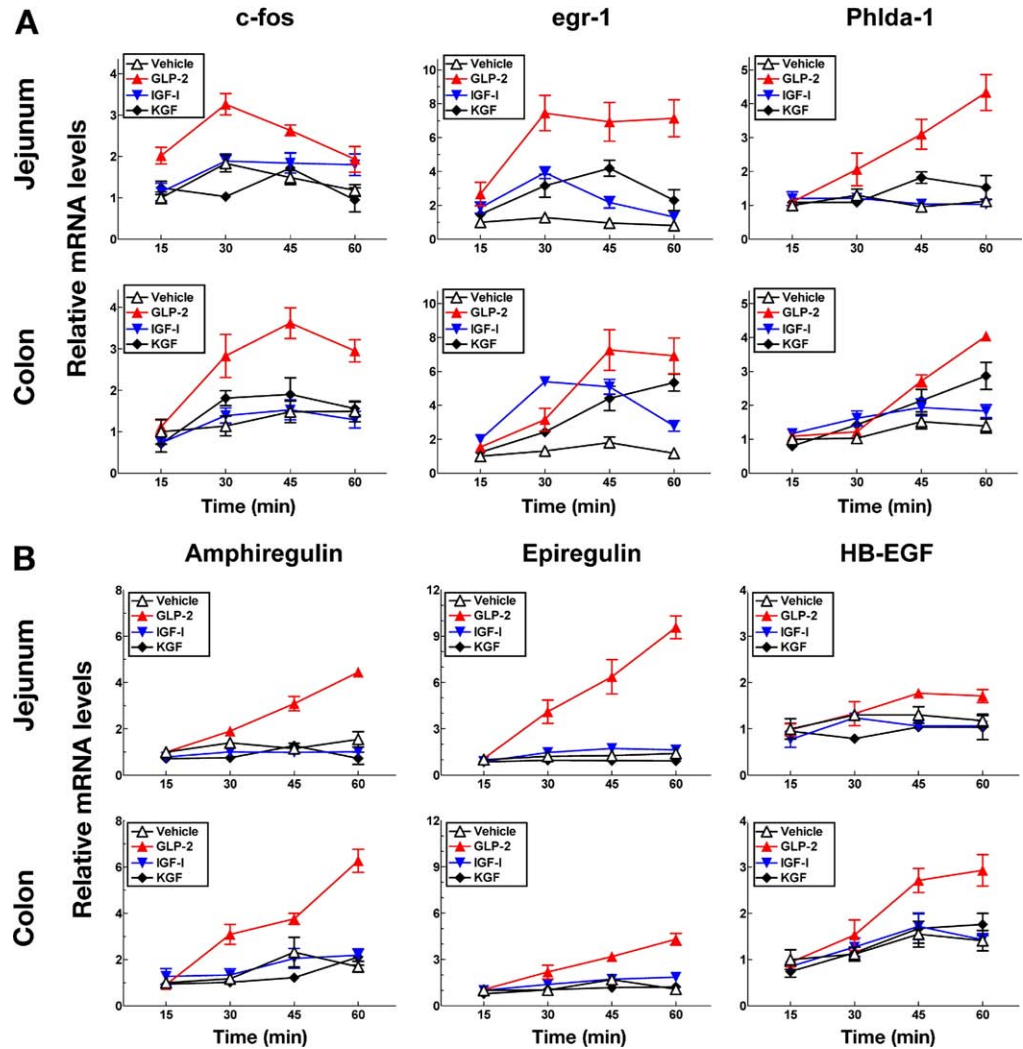


Figure 4. Regulation of specific ErbB ligand and IEG transcript expression by enterotrophic factors in the murine intestine. Total RNA was isolated from jejunum and colon of CD1 mice treated with GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), IGF-I (2 mg/kg), KGF (2 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS) for the specified periods of time. mRNA levels of the indicated IEGs (A) and ErbB ligands (B) were determined by real-time RT-PCR and expressed relative to the vehicle values at 15 minutes. Data are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments involving a total of 4 mice per condition. SE for data with coefficients of variation \leq 5% is not visible on the graph.

from GroPep Ltd (Adelaide, South Australia, Australia). The DPP-4-resistant analog h[Gly2]GLP-2 was from Peptide Ltd (Nottingham, United Kingdom). Human recombinant KGF and the pan-ErbB inhibitor CI-1033 were gifts of Amgen, Inc (Thousand Oaks, CA) and Pfizer Global Research, Inc (Ann Arbor, MI), respectively. The metalloproteinase inhibitor GM6001 was from Chemi-

con International (Temecula, CA). Peptides were dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and CI-1033 in water, and administered to mice by subcutaneous injection. The 30-mg/kg dose of CI-1033 has previously been demonstrated to suppress constitutive ErbB tyrosine phosphorylation in vivo, in human colon cancer cell tumor xenographs established in nude mice, and also was shown to be well tolerated when given to mice daily for 2–3 weeks.^{19,20} GM6001 was given intraperitoneally as a suspension in 4% carboxymethylcellulose (Sigma-Aldrich; Oakville, Ontario, Canada). BrdU (Sigma-Aldrich, 100 mg/kg) dissolved in PBS was injected intraperitoneally to mice 1 hour prior to death.

Tissue Collection and Processing

For experiments involving chronic treatment with peptides, mice were fasted for ~14 hours after the last peptide injection and then killed by CO₂ inhalation. Small intestine and colon were collected and cleaned of mesenteric fat, gently flushed with PBS to remove the fecal material, weighed, and lengths measured after suspending a 1-g weight from their distal end. Adjacent 2-cm intestinal tissue segments were obtained from jejunum (1/4 the small intestinal length distal to the pylorus) and middle portion of the colon. Tissue samples were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin cut into 4 sections and embedded in paraffin or snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70°C. For experiments evaluating acute peptide administration, mice were killed by cervical dislocation, and intestines, and occasionally stomach, were harvested as described above. For comparative purposes, histologic and biochemical analyses were consistently performed on intestinal segments taken from identical anatomic positions.

Intestinal Histomorphometry and Immunohistochemistry

Digital image acquisition was done using a Leica DMR microscope equipped with a Leica DC300F camera and Leica QWin V3 software (Leica Microsystems, Wet-

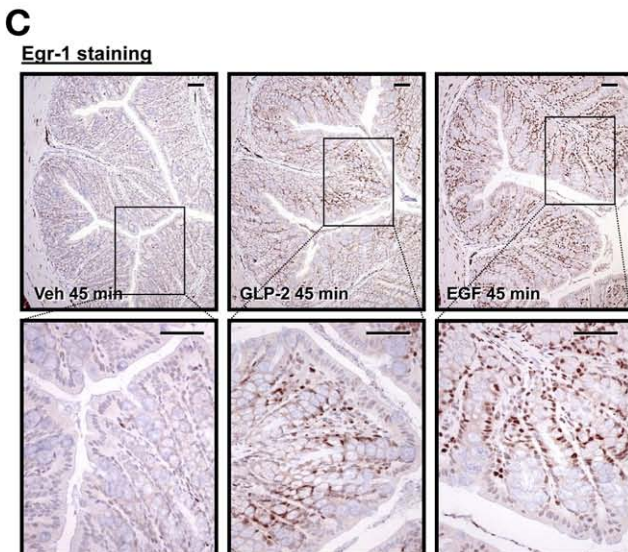
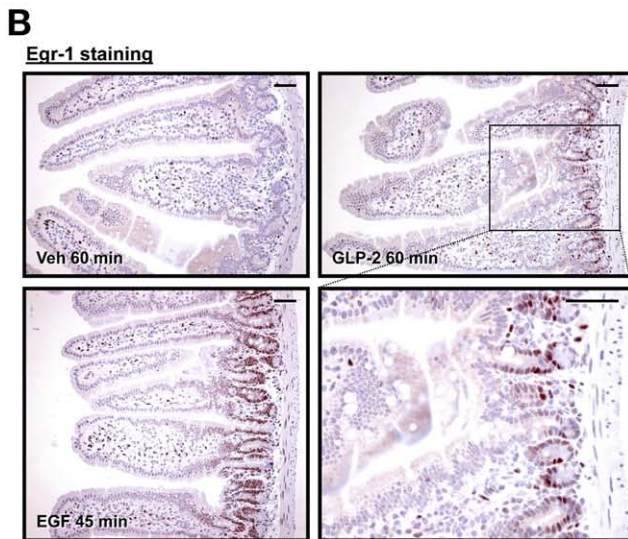
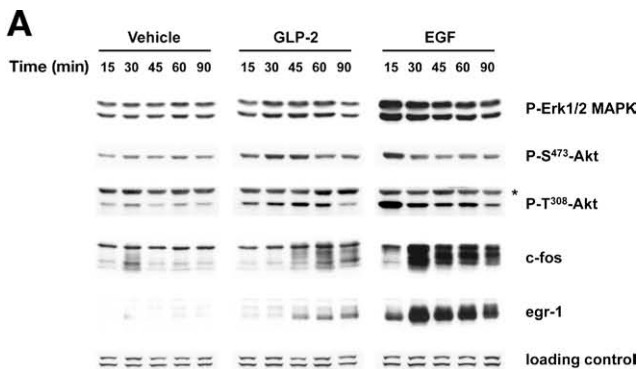


Figure 5. Activation of downstream signaling effectors by GLP-2 and EGF in the mouse intestine. Intestinal tissue samples were collected from CD1 mice killed at the indicated times following GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (1 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS). (A) Whole-tissue extracts from colon analyzed by immunoblotting for Erk1/2 MAPK phosphorylated at Thr202 and Tyr204 (P-Erk1/2 MAPK), Akt phosphorylated at Ser473 (P-S⁴⁷³-Akt) or Thr308 (P-T³⁰⁸-Akt), c-fos, and egr-1. Two unidentified proteins cross-reacting with the anti-egr-1 antibody are shown to document loading and transfer conditions (loading control). The asterisk denotes an unidentified protein cross-reacting with the anti-phospho-Thr308-Akt antibody. Results are representative of 2 mice per condition and time point. (B and C). Immunohistochemical detection of egr-1 in transverse cross sections from jejunum (B) and colon (C) of mice treated with vehicle, GLP-2, or EGF. The areas selected within the inset boxes are shown at a higher magnification. Photomicrographs are representative of 3 or 4 mice per group. Scale bars, 50 μm.

zlar, Germany). Histochemistry was performed on 5- μ m sections stained with H&E. A minimum of 20 well-oriented villi and crypts from at least 3 different cross sections per intestinal segment and animal were measured to determine villus height and crypt depth. Immunohistochemistry was carried out using indirect immunoperoxidase detection with NovaRED substrate (Vector Laboratories, Burlington, Ontario, Canada) followed by hematoxylin counterstaining. Primary antibodies were used at the dilutions recommended by the manufacturer and included the following: rabbit polyclonal anti-P-Ser473-Akt (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA), anti-c-fos (Sigma-Aldrich), and anti-egr-1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA; utilized for colon sections), rabbit monoclonal anti-egr-1 (Cell Signaling Technology; used for jejunal sections), and mouse monoclonal anti-BrdU (Invitrogen Canada, Burlington, Ontario, Canada). At least 15 well-oriented jejunal villi and colonic crypts from 3 different cross sections per intestinal segment and mouse were scored to determine the percentage of c-fos-positive nuclei in the mucosal epithelium. BrdU labeling index was assessed in longitudinal sections of crypts containing at least 17 cells, including the Paneth cells. The incidence of BrdU staining for each cell position from the crypt base was scored in a minimum of 100 half crypts from at least 4 different cross sections per intestinal segment and animal. Both the histomorphomet-

ric analysis and the immunohistochemical scoring were done in a blinded manner.

Western Blot Analysis

Whole-tissue extracts were prepared by homogenization of intestinal segments in RIPA buffer (1% Nonidet P-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS in PBS) supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich), 5 mmol/L sodium fluoride, and 200 μ mol/L sodium orthovanadate as described.²¹ Rabbit polyclonal antibodies to Akt phosphorylated at Ser473 or Thr308, Erk1/2 MAPK phosphorylated at Thr202 and Tyr204, cleaved caspase-3, Bcl-2, and Bcl-xL were from Cell Signaling Technology and used at a 1:1000 dilution. Rabbit polyclonal antibodies reactive to c-fos, egr-1, ErbB2, and ErbB3 were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology and used at 1:500 dilutions. The rabbit polyclonal anti-EGFR (1:1000 dilution) and the mouse monoclonal anti-HSP90 (1:2000 dilution) antibodies were from Rockland Immunochemicals, Inc (Gilbertsville, PA) and BD Biosciences (Mississauga, Ontario, Canada), respectively.

RNA Isolation and Quantitative Real-Time Reverse-Transcription-PCR

Total RNA from intestinal tissue was extracted by the guanidinium thiocyanate method, and complementary DNA synthesis was performed with random hexam-

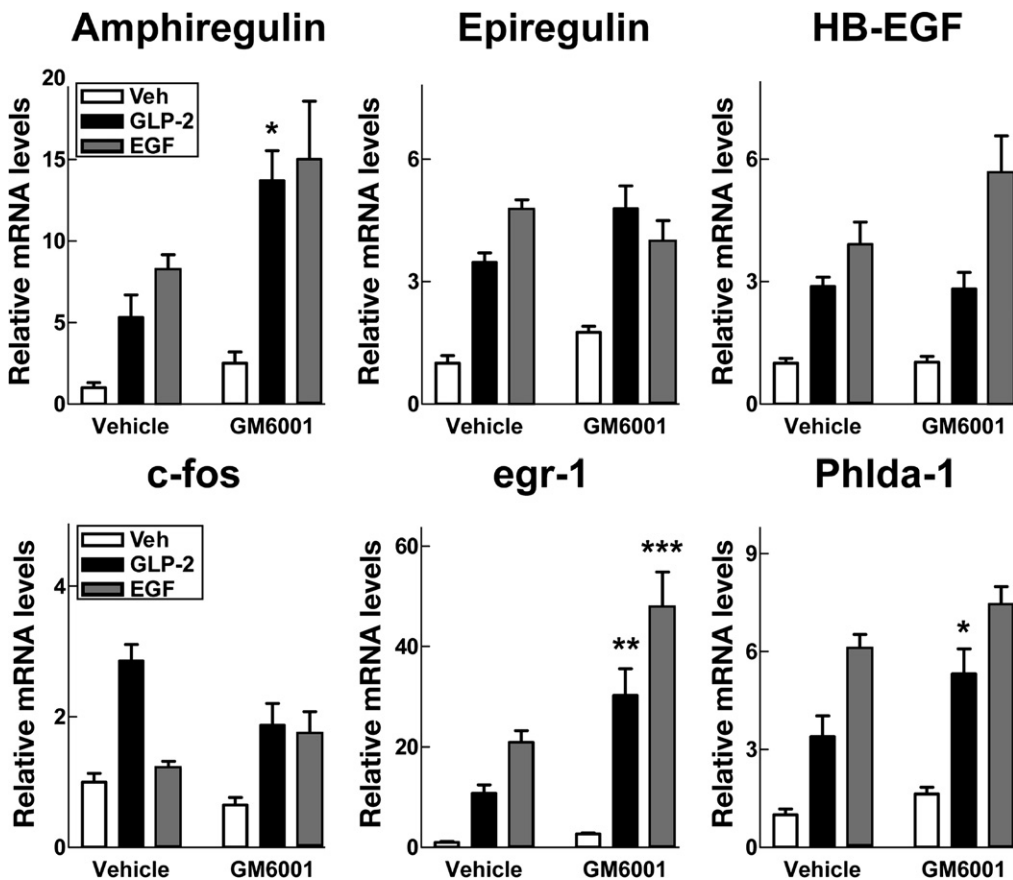


Figure 6. The broad-spectrum metalloproteinase inhibitor GM6001 does not prevent the acute induction of ErbB ligand and IEG transcripts by GLP-2 or EGF in mouse colon. CD1 mice were pretreated with GM6001 (150 mg/kg) or vehicle (4% carboxymethylcellulose in water) and, 40 minutes later, injected with GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (1 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS). Colon samples were collected 45 minutes later, total RNA was isolated, and levels of the indicated transcripts were determined by real-time RT-PCR. Data, expressed relative to the values of vehicle alone-treated mice, are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments ($n = 4-6$ mice per condition, respectively, in the vehicle- and GM6001-pretreated groups). Two-way ANOVA revealed a $P < .05$ interaction between pretreatment (vehicle, GM6001) and treatment (vehicle, GLP-2, EGF) for c-fos and egr-1. * $P < .05$, ** $P < .01$, and *** $P < .001$ vs the same treatment within the vehicle-pretreated group.

ers and SuperScript II (Invitrogen). Real-time quantitative PCR was carried out using TaqMan Gene Expression Assays (listed in Supplementary Table 1) and TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) on an ABI PRISM 7900HT Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems). Relative quantification of transcript levels was performed by the $2^{-\Delta C_t}$ method using the threshold cycle (C_t) values obtained from the PCR amplification kinetics with the ABI PRISM SDS 2.1 software (Applied Biosystems). 18S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) was used for normalization since its intestinal expression remained unaltered regardless of the treatment.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical significance was assessed by 1-way or 2-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc test by using GraphPad Prism 4 (GraphPad Software Inc, San Diego, CA).

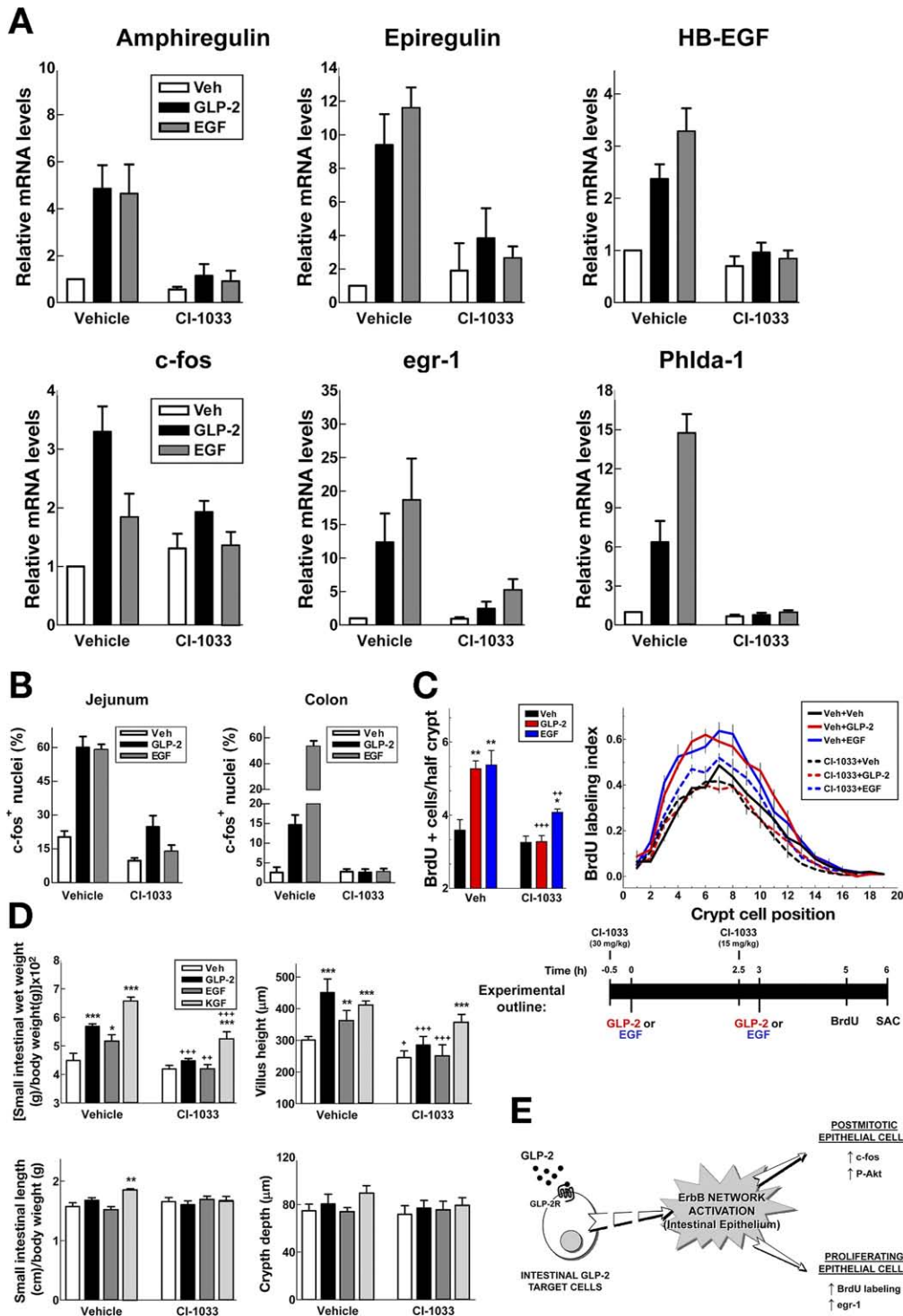
Results

To assess involvement of the ErbB-signaling network in transducing GLP-2 action in the gut, we examined the expression of ErbB family members. GLP-2 rapidly up-regulated levels of messenger RNA (mRNA)

Figure 7. Regulation of specific ErbB ligand and IEG transcript expression by GLP-2 in the *waved-2* mouse intestine. mRNA levels of the indicated ErbB ligands (A) and IEGs (B) were determined by real-time quantitative RT-PCR in total RNA from jejunum and colon of 14-week-old littermate female mice of the specified *Egfr* genotype, treated for 45 minutes with GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg) or vehicle alone (PBS). Data are means \pm SE of 3 independent experiments, $n = 4-6$ mice per genotype and condition. Indicated at the bottom of the bar diagrams is the level of significance of the interaction between genotype (*Egfr^{wa2/wa2}*, *Egfr^{+ / wa2}*, *Egfr^{+/+}*) and treatment (*vehicle*, *GLP-2*) determined by 2-way ANOVA. * $P < .05$, ** $P < .01$, and *** $P < .001$ vs GLP-2-treated *Egfr^{+/+}* mice; + $P < .05$, ++ $P < .01$, and +++ $P < .001$ vs GLP-2-treated *Egfr^{+ / wa}* mice.

encoding the ErbB ligands amphiregulin, epiregulin, and heparin binding (HB)-EGF and their downstream immediate early gene (IEG) transcriptional targets *c-fos*, *egr-1*, and *Phlda-1* in the jejunum (Figure 1) and colon (Supplementary Figure 1) but not in the stomach (Supplementary Figure 2). Furthermore, the actions of GLP-2 to induce ErbB ligands and IEG expression required the GLP-2 receptor because they were not detected in

Glp2r^{-/-} mice (Supplementary Figure 3), which exhibited ErbB ligand and receptor expression levels similar to those of *Glp2r*^{+/+} mice (Supplementary Figure 4). The induction of ErbB ligand genes was selective because GLP-2 had no effect on expression of EGF, transforming growth factor (TGF)- α , betacellulin, neuregulin-3 (Nrg-3), or Nrg-4 in the murine gut (Figure 2). In contrast, Nrg-1 was up-regulated in jejunum and colon within 1



hour of GLP-2 treatment (Figure 2). Moreover, GLP-2 induced expression of epigen in jejunum but not in colon (Figure 2). The specificity of the intestinal response to GLP-2 was further illustrated by the observation that GLP-2 had no significant effect on levels of intestinal mRNA transcripts for KGF, TGF- β 1, TGF- β 2, TGF- β 3, IGF-I, IGF-II, neurotensin, Vegfa, proglucagon, Tff3, inhibin α , or inhibin β A (Supplementary Figure 5, and data not shown).

We next ascertained whether the profile of changes in gene expression and the activity of signaling intermediaries activated by GLP-2 would be similar to that induced by a cognate ErbB ligand. As shown in Figure 3, both GLP-2 and EGF rapidly induced the expression of mRNA transcripts encoding amphiregulin, epi-regulin, HB-EGF, c-fos, egr-1, and Phlda-1 in the colon. However, the kinetics of induction were faster and the magnitude of induction was greater following EGF administration. Similar results were observed for EGF and GLP-2 in the jejunum (Supplementary Figure 6).

Because KGF and IGF-I have been proposed as mediators of GLP-2 action,^{11,14} we assessed whether these growth factors reproduced the changes in ErbB ligand and IEG gene expression detected following GLP-2 administration. Exogenous KGF and IGF-I transiently up-regulated some IEG mRNAs, particularly egr-1, in the gut; however, the inductive effect of GLP-2 was more rapid and robust relative to IGF-I or KGF (Figure 4A). In contrast to GLP-2, neither KGF nor IGF-I induced the expression of amphiregulin, epi-regulin, and HB-EGF (Figure 4B). Hence, the induction of specific ErbB ligand mRNAs constitutes a signature shared by GLP-2 and EGF in the murine intestine.

We next assessed whether GLP-2 regulated signaling molecules activated by the ErbB network. GLP-2 increased levels of active Akt phosphorylated at Ser473 and Thr308 and of c-fos and egr-1 but only modestly stimu-

lated Erk1/2 MAP kinase phosphorylation; the magnitude of induction was relatively greater and more rapid for EGF compared with GLP-2 (Figure 5A). The cellular localization of activated phospho-Ser473-Akt, c-fos, and egr-1 was assessed by immunohistochemistry. GLP-2 stimulated Akt phosphorylation in the jejunal and colonic mucosa (Supplementary Figure 7), mainly within the epithelium. However, EGF, but not GLP-2, activated Akt in the colonic outer longitudinal muscle layer (Supplementary Figure 7B). Both GLP-2 and EGF induced c-fos (Supplementary Figures 8 and 9) and egr-1 (Figure 5B and C) nuclear positivity within the jejunal and colonic mucosal epithelium. In the jejunum, GLP-2- and EGF-induced nuclear egr-1 was confined to the crypt epithelium (Figure 5B). Following GLP-2 administration, 24% of the jejunal crypt cells showed positive nuclear egr-1 staining; 85% of the egr-1-positive nuclei were located at positions 3–11 within the crypt compartment. In contrast, EGF induced nuclear egr-1 expression more broadly within the entire jejunal crypt epithelium. No significant changes in the expression of multiple apoptosis modulators or in caspase-3 cleavage were observed in the jejunum of normal mice following GLP-2 administration (Supplementary Figure 10).

To determine whether ErbB ligand ectodomain shedding is required for GLP-2-mediated activation of ErbB signaling, we used the broad-spectrum metalloproteinase inhibitor GM6001. Consistent with previous studies,^{22,23} GM6001 effectively suppressed (by 85%, $P < .001$, ANOVA) the increase in plasma tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α elicited by a D-Gal/LPS challenge (Supplementary Figure 11) but failed to attenuate the acute induction of specific ErbB ligand and IEG mRNAs by GLP-2 or EGF in both colon (Figure 6) and jejunum (Supplementary Figure 12). These observations suggest that GLP-2-mediated activation of ErbB network pathways in the murine gut occurs independently of metalloproteinase activity.

Figure 8. Pan-ErbB receptor activity is required for the actions of GLP-2 and EGF in the murine intestine. (A and B) CD1 mice were pretreated with CI-1033 (30 mg/kg) or vehicle (water) and 30 minutes after injected with GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (1 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS). Intestinal tissue samples were collected 45 minutes later for RNA and c-fos immunohistochemical analyses. (A) Jejunal mRNA levels of the indicated transcripts are expressed relative to the values of vehicle-treated mice. (B) Percentage of c-fos+ nuclei in the top half of the jejunal villi and in colonic crypts. For A and B, data are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments involving a total of 3 or 4 mice per condition. (C) BrdU labeling in the jejunal crypt compartment of CD1 mice after 2 injections (3 hours apart) of h[Gly2]GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (0.7 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS) with or without pretreatment with CI-1033 (30 mg/kg the first injection and 15 mg/kg the second injection) or vehicle (water) as summarized in the *experimental outline*. Tissue sections were scored for total number of BrdU+ cells per half crypt (*left panel*) and incidence of staining (BrdU labeling index) at each cell position within the crypt (*right panel*). Position 1 corresponds to the base of the crypt. Data are means \pm SE ($n = 4$ mice per condition). *Left panel*: * $P < .05$ and ** $P < .01$ vs the corresponding vehicle-treated group; +++ $P < .01$ and ++++ $P < .001$ vs the same treatment within the vehicle-pretreated group. *Right panel*: crypt cell positions 3–6, $P < .001$, and 7–10, $P < .05$ for Veh+GLP-2 vs Veh+Veh; crypt cell positions 3–6, $P < .001$, and 7–9, $P < .01$ for Veh+EGF vs Veh+Veh. (D) Relative small intestinal weight and length and jejunal histomorphometry in CD1 mice pretreated with vehicle (water) or CI-1033 (30 mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to administration of h[Gly2]GLP-2 (0.2 mg/kg), EGF (0.4 mg/kg), KGF (2 mg/kg), or vehicle alone (PBS) once a day for 9 days. Villus height and crypt depth were assessed on histologic jejunal transverse cross sections stained with H&E. Data are means \pm SE of 2 independent experiments (5 or 6 mice per condition). * $P < .05$, ** $P < .01$, and *** $P < .001$ vs the corresponding vehicle-treated group; + $P < .05$, ++ $P < .01$, and +++ $P < .001$ vs the same treatment within the vehicle-pretreated group. (E) Model for the ErbB network as a mediator of GLP-2 action in the murine intestinal mucosa. GLP-2 receptor activation, via a mechanism insensitive to GM6001, engages ErbB-dependent signaling pathways, as exemplified by the up-regulation of ErbB ligand and IEG expression, leading to stimulation of cell division within the crypt compartment and, ultimately, intestinal mucosal growth.

Waved-2 (*wa2*) mice are homozygous for the *Egfr^{wa2}* allele which encodes a mutant ErbB1 protein with 10%–20% of the normal kinase activity.¹⁸ To ascertain whether GLP-2 engages the ErbB network via ErbB1 (the EGF receptor), we assessed the intestinal gene expression response to GLP-2 in *waved-2* mice. The magnitude of the inductive gene expression response to GLP-2 for amphiregulin, epiregulin, HB-EGF, c-fos, *egr-1*, and *Phlda-1* was significantly diminished in the jejunum, in age- and sex-matched *Egfr^{wa2/wa2}* mice (Figure 7A and B). However, only the induction of *egr-1* and *Phlda-1* was reduced in the colon of *Egfr^{wa2/wa2}* mice (Figure 7B). The reduced GLP-2 response in *Egfr^{wa2/wa2}* mice was not due to differences in GLP-2R expression (data not shown). In contrast, the trophic response to exogenous GLP-2 was preserved in the small bowel of *waved-2* mice (Supplementary Figure 13).

The studies in *waved-2* mice demonstrate that, although ErbB1 activity transduces a component of the acute jejunal gene expression response to GLP-2, a fully functional *Egfr* locus is not required for the intestinal growth response to exogenous GLP-2. Accordingly, we used an irreversible pan-ErbB receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor, CI-1033,^{19,20} to block signal transduction through all 4 members of the ErbB family. Pretreatment of mice with CI-1033 prevented the GLP-2- and EGF-mediated up-regulation of IEG and ErbB ligand mRNA transcripts in the jejunum (Figure 8A). Furthermore, immunohistochemical analysis demonstrated that CI-1033 inhibited the acute induction of nuclear c-fos immunoreactivity by either GLP-2 or EGF in the mucosal epithelium of both jejunum and colon (Figure 8B).

We next compared cell cycle progression in the jejunal crypt compartment of mice administered GLP-2 with or without CI-1033 pretreatment. GLP-2 significantly increased the number of cells in S-phase in jejunal crypts either when assessed by crypt position (positions 3–6, $P < .001$, and 7–10, $P < .05$, ANOVA) or by total number of BrdU-positive cells per hemi-crypt (Figure 8C). CI-1033 alone did not modify the crypt BrdU labeling index. However, administration of CI-1033 prior to GLP-2 completely inhibited the stimulatory effect of GLP-2 on crypt cell cycle progression. Consistent with the emerging relationship between actions of GLP-2 and EGF, the cellular localization of EGF-stimulated BrdU labeling occurred in positions within the crypt compartment (positions 3–6, $P < .001$, and 7–9, $P < .01$, ANOVA) overlapping those induced following GLP-2 administration (Figure 8C). These observations suggest that GLP-2, like the ErbB ligand EGF, increases the rate of cell division in the small intestinal crypt in an ErbB receptor activity-dependent manner.

To determine whether ErbB signaling was required for GLP-2-induced intestinal growth, mice were treated with growth factors, and vehicle or CI-1033 for 9 days. Small bowel mass and jejunal villus height increased signifi-

cantly after treatment with GLP-2, EGF, and KGF (Figure 8D); however, the trophic effects of GLP-2 and EGF were completely abrogated following CI-1033 administration to mice. In contrast, the ability of KGF to stimulate both small intestinal weight and jejunal villus height was preserved in CI-1033-pretreated mice, illustrating the specificity of the pan-ErbB inhibitor. Both GLP-2 and KGF increased colonic growth; however, the trophic effect of KGF, but not GLP-2, remained detectable in the presence of CI-1033 (Supplementary Figure 14). Taken together, these findings implicate an essential role for ErbB signaling in the intestinal trophic response to exogenous GLP-2.

Discussion

The intestinal mucosa of the gut is a dynamic model of cell renewal because the entire mucosal epithelium turns over rapidly within 4 to 6 days in most mammalian species. The control of gut mucosal growth is complex and dependent on multiple inputs from a broad variety of signaling molecules. Insulin-like growth factors, growth hormone, keratinocyte growth factor, hepatocyte growth factor, and fibroblast growth factors have been shown to induce mucosal epithelial proliferation in the small bowel and facilitate mucosal adaptation in preclinical models of intestinal injury. Similarly, peptide hormones, exemplified by peptide YY, glicentin, neurotensin, and GLP-2 activate signaling networks in the gut that promote cell proliferation and restoration of mucosal integrity following experimental gut injury. Nevertheless, the majority of these growth factors and peptide hormones do not appear to be essential for gut growth, as deduced from experiments using chemical inhibitors or gene knockout studies.

The ErbB-signaling network is composed of multiple ligands, including EGF, betacellulin, epigen, TGF- α , epiregulin, amphiregulin, and HB-EGF.²⁴ These ligands promote autophosphorylation of EGFR/ErbB and activation of well-defined downstream kinase networks. Moreover, the majority of these ligands is produced in the gastrointestinal tract, and gene targeting studies in mice reveal that many ErbB ligands are essential for mucosal protection and/or the adaptive response to external injury. Furthermore, disruption of ErbB signaling produces major defects in gut epithelial development and in the reparative response to gut injury,²⁵ illustrating the essential role of ErbB in gut mucosal growth.

Remarkably, the biology of GLP-2 in the gut overlaps to a considerable extent with actions of ErbB ligands and receptors. For example, the production of salivary EGF and the expression and activation of the EGFR are increased following major small bowel resection,²⁶ and both intestinal proglucagon gene expression and circulating levels of GLP-2 are increased following major small bowel resection.²⁷ Moreover both EGF and GLP-2 stimulate cell proliferation,^{28,29} enhance mucosal adaptation

following small bowel resection,^{30,31} and accelerate recovery of epithelial integrity following radiation-induced injury.^{32,33} Similarly, both TGF- α and GLP-2 attenuate the severity of experimental colitis in mice.^{34,35} Nevertheless, the extent to which GLP-2 exerts its actions in part via downstream recruitment of ErbB signaling effectors has not previously been identified.

Our data identify a new mechanism for the proliferative actions of GLP-2 via the rapid induction of a subset of ErbB ligands in both the small and large bowel (Figure 8E). Moreover, although the proliferative actions of GLP-2 in the gut have previously been linked to IGF-I^{14,15} and KGF¹¹ in the small and large bowel, respectively, our findings illustrate that GLP-2, but not IGF-I or KGF, selectively activates ErbB ligands and their downstream immediate early gene targets in both small and large bowel. Moreover, the specificity of GLP-2 action on ErbB ligand expression was further illustrated by the demonstration that GLP-2 had no effect on expression of TGFs, IGFs, KGF, Vegfa, Tff3, and neurotensin (Supplementary Figure 5). These findings illustrate the complexity and selectivity of GLP-2 action and expand the identity of growth factor signaling networks activated by GLP-2 in the gastrointestinal tract.

Although GLP-2 mimics many EGF actions in the gut, EGF, but not GLP-2, robustly activated the expression of phosphorylated Akt in the outer longitudinal muscle layer of the colon, consistent with the trophic actions of EGF, but not GLP-2, on colonic smooth muscle.³⁶ Furthermore, GLP-2 increased nuclear c-fos expression in cells residing predominantly in the distal villus, whereas EGF produced robust c-fos expression within cells along the entire crypt to villus axis. Similarly, EGF produced a more widespread induction of c-fos expression in the colon, relative to the cellular pattern seen with GLP-2. Hence, the actions of GLP-2 overlap with, but are not identical to, those described for EGF in the murine gut.

Although the GLP-2-dependent induction of ErbB ligands and IEG expression was only modestly diminished in the *waved-2* mouse, the pan-ErbB inhibitor CI-1033 completely abrogated the GLP-2-mediated induction of ErbB ligand and IEG expression in the murine jejunum. Furthermore, CI-1033 selectively eliminated the proliferative response to GLP-2, but not KGF, in the jejunum. Hence, ErbB signaling is required for the GLP-2-mediated induction of a gene expression profile linked to stimulation of epithelial cell proliferation in the murine gut.

The observation that GLP-2 induces multiple ErbB ligands, principally, amphiregulin, epiregulin, and HB-EGF, suggests that these molecules may act in concert to activate ErbB signaling, leading to stimulation of crypt cell proliferation and expansion of the mucosal epithelium. Moreover, several peptide hormones, including GLP-1, directly transactivate the EGF receptor independent of the presence of ErbB ligands,² raising another possibility for linking GLP-2R signaling to ErbB receptor

activation. A testable hypothesis involving ErbB receptors, IGF-1, and KGF as downstream mediators of GLP-2 action invokes the possibility that ErbB signaling may be upstream of and lead to IGF-1 and/or KGF activation. The known expression of ErbB1, ErbB2, ErbB3, amphiregulin, epiregulin, and HB-EGF in the intestinal mucosa, together with our current data linking GLP-2 action to induction of ErbB ligands and stimulation of cell proliferation, extends our understanding of GLP-2 action to encompass activation of the ErbB-signaling network. These findings may have implications for understanding the potential therapeutic efficacy and safety of GLP-2R agonists being developed for the treatment of human intestinal disorders.

Supplementary Data

Note: To access the supplementary material accompanying this article, visit the online version of *Gastroenterology* at www.gastrojournal.org, and at doi: [10.1053/j.gastro.2009.05.057](https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2009.05.057).

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Conflicts of interest

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