

Age-related Changes in Neuroendocrine System of the Gut

A possible role in the pathogenesis of gastrointestinal disorders in the elderly

Minireview based on a doctoral thesis

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INTRODUCTION

The medicine of today and tomorrow is the medicine of old age. Elderly patients predominate in hospitals in Sweden and in the other countries of the Western World. Over the past century, life expectancy in the developed countries has extended by 20–25 years. The expected life span in Sweden for a newborn girl is now 81 years and for a boy, 76 years (80). Generally, 65 years is considered old because this is the age for retirement in Sweden. Today 18% of Sweden's population are 65 years or older, and 25 years from now this proportion is expected to have risen to 23% and keep rising. This is the oldest national population in the world (81).

Although this may be considered an agreeable development, one must be prepared for the accompanying problems, such as increasing costs for health care. This problem has been noticed only in the recent years in the developed countries. However, the ageing of the population in developing countries is even more alarming, as their fertility and mortality figures are decreasing. Between the years 1990 and 2025, the elderly population (older than 65 years) will be more than double, a process that has taken more than 100 years in our part of the world (51). It is therefore an obvious challenge to solve these problems and to learn how to treat age-related diseases.

As ageing is a gradual process that occurs in all multicellular organisms, it is impossible to name one point in time when an individual suddenly becomes old. Sometimes the word senescence is used instead of ageing. Ageing can mean every process that is time dependent, e.g. development, but with senescence we mean the gradual loss of bodily and mental faculties that ultimately brings life to an end for us all.

After observations made in humans (e.g. DNA-repair, physiological performance, maximum heart rate and the number of muscle fibres in the thigh) it would appear that our decline in capacity begins around the age of 30. This loss of capacity then proceeds with 0.5% per year in the slowest ageing individuals up to the age of 80 when the rate of loss increases to at least 1% (120). This decline in capacity varies between individuals and also differs between organ systems in the same body. Physical activity, diet and smoking habits are important factors that modify the ageing rate. A more rapidly ageing organ system can result in premature disease and death, e.g. cerebrovascular disease (120).

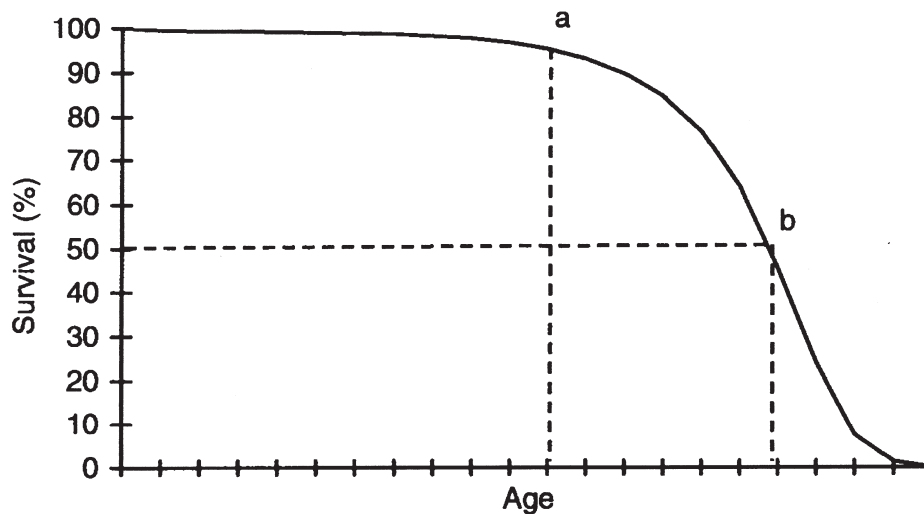


Fig. 1. Individuals older than **a** is regarded as ageing. Individuals older than **b** (the 50% survival point) are regarded as senescent.

When the loss of capacity becomes large enough to affect the survival of the population and influence the survival curve sufficiently to cause a rapid down slope, this is considered to be the point where the individual in the population is ageing and an animal is senescent at the age when half of the population has died (111) (Fig. 1).

Gastrointestinal disorders in the elderly

Esophagus

The term “presby esophagus” indicates age-related disorders of esophageal motility that have been described. There is considerable controversy as to whether such changes are part of the normal ageing or not. Several studies have reported increased dysmotility, e.g. reduced regularity and increased number of disordered contractions (11, 32, 89), while others have not found any age-related changes in esophageal motility (1, 44, 90). The pressure of the lower esophageal sphincter (LES) is greatest below the age of one year, then decreasing up to the age of 15 years (11). However, an increased frequency of reflux, found in the elderly, has been suggested to be the result of changed location and length of the LES (119).

Stomach

Diseases of the stomach are predominantly gastritis, gastric ulcer and gastric cancer. The incidence of both gastric and duodenal ulcers increases with advancing age (9, 61, 82) as does gastritis (37) and gastric cancer (113). Peptic ulcers are generally considered to be the result of an imbalance between aggressive luminal factors and mucosal defence factors. Some of the more important factors are listed in Table 1.

The question of age-related changes in gastric secretion has been discussed frequently. Several studies have found a reduced gastric acid and pepsin secretion in

Table 1. Aggressive and protective factors in the stomach (17)

Aggressive luminal actors	Mucosal defence factors
Virus and bacteria, e.g. <i>H. pylori</i>	Immune cells and secretory IgA
Drugs, e.g. NSAID	Mucosal repair and renewal
Alcohol	Tight junctions
Tobacco	Mucosal circulation
Gastric acid	Mucus with bicarbonate
Bile acids	Prostaglandins
Enzymes	Gluthathione
Digestive products	Local endocrine and neural regulation

elderly humans (26, 28, 101) and rats (58, 70). However, several recent studies have shown little or no effect of ageing on gastric secretion. *Helicobacter pylori* has recently been ascribed most of the previously found age-related effects and is present in much higher frequency in elderly persons (7, 68). However, the age-related increase in *H. pylori* infections could represent a secondary colonisation permitted by a decreased acidity of the stomach (7). A decrease in bicarbonate, sodium and mucous secretion has been shown in the elderly (27). In experimental animals, slower repair after mucosal injury (29) and reduced mucosal blood flow have been reported (66). In humans the density of parietal cells has been found to increase, while the density of mucus-producing cells to decrease (25). In rat, an increase in the gut mucosal thickness due to an increase in connective tissue, has been found (43). Thicker basal lamina around the antral capillaries has been reported in old female mice (63). When all factors are taken together, there are indications that age-related changes in aggressive factors and mucosal defence predispose to mucosal injury, especially when other factors such as *H. pylori* infections and administration of non-steroid anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs, also called COX-inhibitors) also increase with ageing.

The effect of age on gastric emptying has been the subject of several studies, with differing results. Most studies found slower emptying in elderly subjects (13, 22, 47, 79, 116), but others could not detect any differences (62, 34). Studies in the rat are inconclusive—both slower (102) and unchanged emptying has been found (107). It seems likely that the rate of gastric emptying slows down in elderly subjects. A possible mechanism for this disorder is increased pyloric contractions as found in the elderly (14). The possible clinical significance of slower gastric emptying is earlier satiety, which could contribute to the malnutrition seen in the elderly and may also delay the absorption of orally administered drugs.

Small intestine

Manometric studies have shown only minor effects of age on the motility of the small intestine, a lower motility index during fasting (2) and slower phase III of the

migrating motor complex (MMC) (48). The hydrogen breath test has been used to study oro-cecal transit time (OCTT). Several investigations found no change in the OCTT in the elderly (13, 52, 62, 84, 116) and only one detected prolonged OCTT (85). No changes were found when using ordinary passage roentgeography (60) or scintigraphy in humans (3, 4) and rats (107). At least one study using the D-xylose absorption test found test results indicating slower OCTT in the elderly (114). It therefore seems that the effect of age on small intestinal motility is of only minor importance.

Large intestine

Diarrhoea, faecal incontinence, constipation and use of laxative are common in older age and are especially common in the hospitalised population (45, 50, 103, 110). Increased colonic transit time (CTT) has been reported in humans (69, 84, 106) and rats (102), though there is some controversy about this (13, 76).

Pancreas

In large-scale studies on patients undergoing functional tests of pancreatic secretion, reduced total output, secretion of bicarbonate and enzymes (64) and maintained secretion (20) have all been found. Smaller designed studies have shown reduced total output, reduced secretion of bicarbonate and enzymes (108, 109) and maintained secretion (41) in the elderly. As in humans, experimental studies in ageing rats have been controversial, showing reduction in pancreatic output and protein secretion of 50% or more (42, 54) to only small changes in protein output after CCK stimulation (77, 78). Small zymogen granules in rat pancreas (108) and reduced tissue concentrations of amylase with unchanged levels of lipase and trypsinogen in old animals have been found. Slower adaptation to new food has been reported (38). Reduced density of CCK receptors has been found in pancreatic tissue (86) and could, together with atrophy, explain possible changes in secretory capacity.

Gallbladder

In humans the incidence of gallstones increases with age (16) and the volume of the gallbladder increases in the elderly (83). No age-related effect on gallbladder contractility has been found following intraduodenal lipid stimulation (59, 115). However, diminished sensitivity to CCK has been found in humans (54), guinea pigs (49, 87, 88) and rabbits (57). This reduced sensibility seems to be explained by a decreased density of CCK receptors in the gallbladder musculature (67, 88).

The neuroendocrine system (NES) of the gut

A century ago, Pavlov proposed that the central nervous system (CNS) alone controlled the gastrointestinal tract. Since then, another local control mechanism has been discovered, that is even able to control the gut without any involvement of the CNS. This system, called the neuroendocrine system of the gut (NES), consists of

the endocrine/paracrine cells in the mucosa and the enteric nervous system (ENS) both of which secrete bioactive peptides and amines. These substances can be secreted in different ways. Thus, messengers are released from cells into blood vessels to be carried to target organs (endocrine secretion), or released into the interstitial fluid to act on local targets (paracrine secretion). Paracrine cells may have long slender processes and have contact with target cells. Neurones can act either synaptic or in a neurocrine way. Synaptic signalling is the classic way of neural signalling, where a neurone and the target cell come into very close contact and the neurone secrete transmitters that act on receptors on the target cell side. Neurocrine means that the neural signalling is non-synaptic and may mean that messengers act on the local cells but not in a synaptic way, or are carried by blood vessels to target organs. A summary of the main neuroendocrine peptides and amines and their functions is given in Table 1.

Endocrine/paracrine cells

These cells are found between epithelial cells. They are often flask- or basket-shaped, with a broad base, while the apical part reaches the gut lumen. Some of these cells have long slender cytoplasmic processes projecting to neighbouring cells, making their paracrine action more efficient (e.g. somatostatin and PYY cells). Different endocrine/paracrine cell types are located in specific areas of the gut, but some types are found throughout the gut, namely somatostatin and serotonin-containing cells (100). All cell types in one crypt/villus originate from a pluripotent stemcell of endodermal origin. This means that enterocytes, goblet cells, Paneth cells and endocrine/paracrine cells in one crypt/villus are of monoclonal origin (92).

The enteric nervous system

This system consists of neurones with their cell bodies located in the gut wall. The peptidergic part (including serotonin) is considered to be part of NES. There are two main nerve plexuses, the myenteric plexus (Auerbach's) located between the longitudinal and the circular muscle layers in the entire gastrointestinal tract and the submucosal plexus (Meissner's) between the submucosa and the circular muscle (71). The myenteric ganglia contains neurones that project predominantly to the muscle layer but also to the mucosa, the submucosal plexus and to other myenteric ganglia and contains most of the neurones involved in motility control and gastric acid control. The submucosal ganglia contains neurones that project predominantly to the mucosa but also to myenteric ganglia, the circular muscle layer and other submucosal ganglia and contains neurones involved in the control of mucosal fluid transport and vasodilator reflexes (71). The ganglia of the two plexuses are connected to a continuous meshwork; the meshwork of the myenteric plexus is more regular (35). The ENS receives some input from CNS, but most input comes from other enteric neurones. More than 20 possible neuropeptides have been identified in addition to classical transmitters such as acetylcholine, noradrenalin and serotonin. True neurotransmitter action has only been established in a few cases. Many of the transmitters are co-localised in the same neurone and one transmitter may have different effects in different parts of the gut (15).

Abnormalities of the NES associated with ageing

In the Esophagus of humans, an age-related decrease has been found in the numbers of neurones in the myenteric plexus (75). The effect of age on plasma gastrin levels is controversial. In humans, both increased (6, 106) and unchanged levels (3, 36, 105) have been found. The number of antral gastrin cells is unaffected by age, as are ECL cells, whereas the number of somatostatin cells has been shown to decrease (36). In the rat, plasma gastrin levels have been shown to decrease and to be accompanied by reduced antral tissue concentrations of gastrin (46, 55, 58) and fewer antral gastrin cells (67). The number of antral ECL cells has been shown to decrease in old rats, but there was no change in A (glucagon) or D cells (somatostatin) (104).

Small intestine

Plasma motilin levels have been shown to increase in the small intestine of elderly (8). Plasma CCK levels have been shown to increase in humans (54) and in guinea pigs, as did tissue concentrations (54, 56). Secretin, on the other hand, has been found to decrease in rats (56). The nerve cell density in the myenteric plexus of the small intestine has been shown to decrease in humans (18), rats (98) and guinea pigs (33). In rats, the density of substance P, VIP and somatostatin neurones has been shown to decrease with ageing (28). Tissue concentrations of substance P decreased with ageing in jejunum but increased in ileum, and VIP was decreased throughout the small intestine (30). In humans, the concentration of substance P in the mucosa of the large intestine has been shown to decrease, but there was no effect on VIP levels (31). In rats, plasma and large intestinal tissue levels of neurotensin increased, but there was no effect on the cell number with ageing (99). The density of nerve cell bodies in the myenteric plexus of the large intestine was shown to decrease in elderly humans (40). A reduced density of CCK receptors has been found in pancreatic tissue (87). Fasting levels of PP increased in the elderly but there was no effect on glucagon and insulin levels (5). In another study, an increased level of PP was found, both in fasting and after glucose stimulation, while the level of glucagon decreased during fasting, but increased after glucose stimulation (72). is unaffected by ageing, with the exception of the submucosal plexus in colon, where there is fewer ganglia per mm. The relative density of nerve fibres in antral muscularis propria is higher in old mice. The density was unchanged in small and large intestine and in the submucosa of all segments of the gut.

A decreased sensitivity to CCK has been found in gallbladder of humans (59), guinea pigs (49, 86, 88) and rabbits (57). Possibly due to a decreased density of CCK receptors in gallbladder musculature (87, 88). Increased levels of CCK have been found in serum (59) and in duodenal tissue from guinea pigs (87), probably as a compensation for reduced receptor density. This type of upregulation has also been noted in dogs (118) and hamsters (91) after cholecystectomy and could be responsible for the preserved sensitivity to intraduodenal fat in humans.

Recently, the age-related changes in the neuroendocrine system of an animal model, namely the mouse has been investigated (23, 93–95). The results of these studies are summarised in Tables 3 and 4. The effect of ageing on intestinal endocrine cells in humans has been studied recently (96, 97). The findings in these investigations are summarised in Table 5.

Table 2. The main neuroendocrine peptides and amines in the gut and their localisations and functions.

Peptide	Mode of action	Cellular origin	Main functions
Somatostatin	Paracrine	Gastric D-cell, myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Inhibitor of neuroendocrine peptides and neurotransmitters and amines release
Secretin	Endocrine	Intestinal S-cell	Regulates gastric emptying, inhibits contractile activity of small and large intestine and lowers resting lower oesophageal sphincter (LES) pressure
Cholecystokinin	Endocrine	Intestinal I-cell, myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Stimulates gallbladder contraction, decreases LES pressure, induces relaxation of the proximal part of the stomach and constriction of the pyloric sphincter, and stimulates motor activity and decreases intestinal transit time
Motilin	Endocrine	Intestinal M-cell	Stimulates contraction of the LES, induces gastroduodenal contraction
Pancreatic polypeptide	Endocrine	Intestinal PP-cell	Relaxes the gallbladder, lowers LES pressure, inhibits the fundic pacemaker
Peptide PYY (PYY)	Endocrine	Intestinal H/L-cell	A potent inhibitor of gastric emptying, decreases intestinal transit time
Neuropeptide Y (NPY)	Transmitter; mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones	Regulates LES contractility, inhibits intestinal motility
Neurotensin	Endocrine; Transmitter; mediator	Intestinal N-cell; myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Mediator of the ileal brake, lowers LES pressure, reduces gastric emptying and intestinal transit, inhibits interdigestive migratory complex.
Endothelin	Transmitter; mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Stimulates intestinal smooth muscle contraction?
Substance P	Transmitter; mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Stimulates gastrointestinal motility.
Gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP)	Transmitter, mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones.	Stimulates gut smooth muscle contraction.
Vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP)	Transmitter, mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones	Relaxes gastrointestinal smooth muscles and mediates inhibition gastrointestinal motility
Enkephalin	Transmitter; mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones	Delays gastric emptying, inhibits intestinal transit.
Calcitonin-gene related peptide (CGRP)	Transmitter; mediator	Nerve fibres in the mucosa, submucosa and muscularis layers of the gastrointestinal tract	Inhibits motor activity of gall bladder, relaxes LES, inhibits spontaneous phasic contractions of the large intestinal smooth muscles
Galanin	Transmitter; mediator	Myenteric and submucosal neurones	Increases LES pressure, inhibits intestinal motility.
<i>Serotonin</i> (5 hydroxytryptamine)	Endocrine; mediator	Enterochromaffin (EC) cells and myenteric	Stimulation of smooth muscle contractions through facilitating acetylcholine release
<i>Nitric oxide</i> (NO)	Transmitter	Myenteric and submucosal neurones	Relaxation of smooth muscle

* Data from references 10, 12, 19, 21, 73, 112, 117.

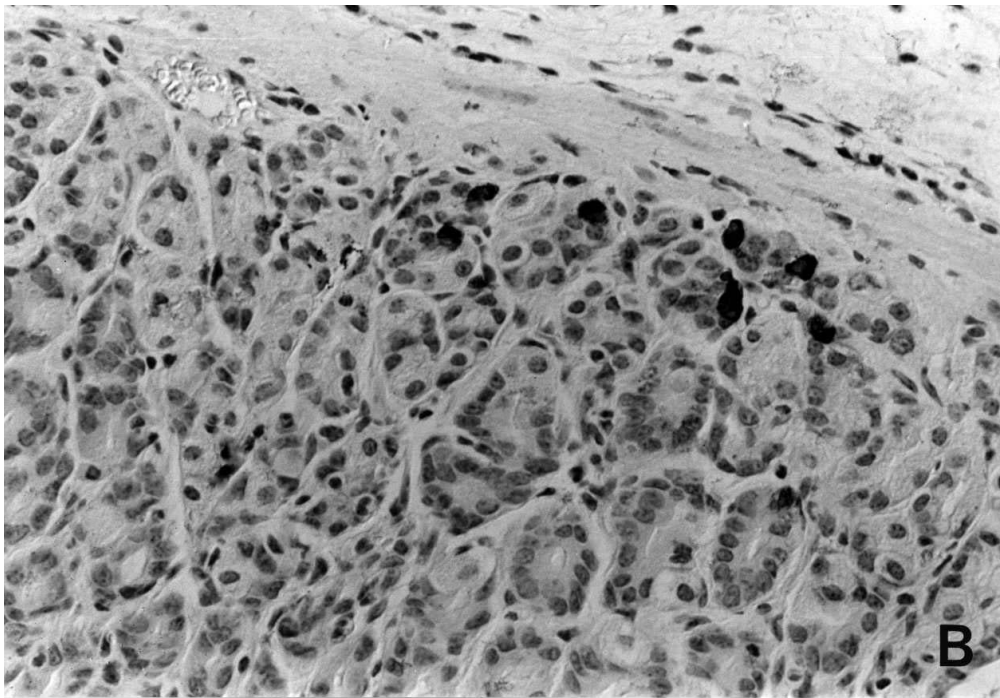
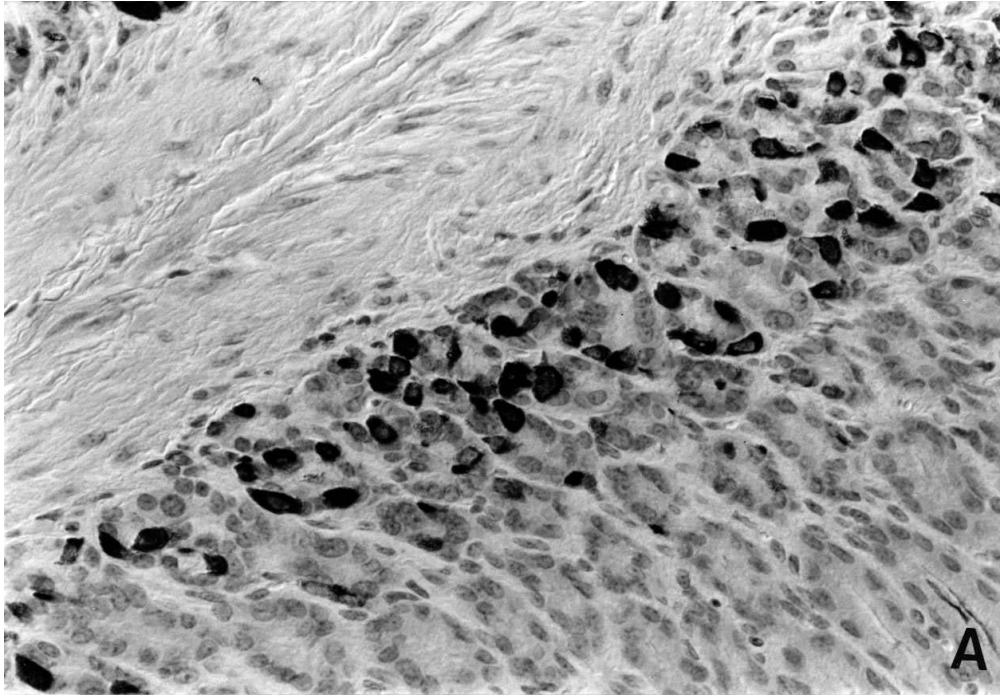


Fig. 2. Antral somatostatin-immunoreactive cells in an old mice (a) and in a young mice (B). Note that the number of these cells increases with ageing. $\times 250$.

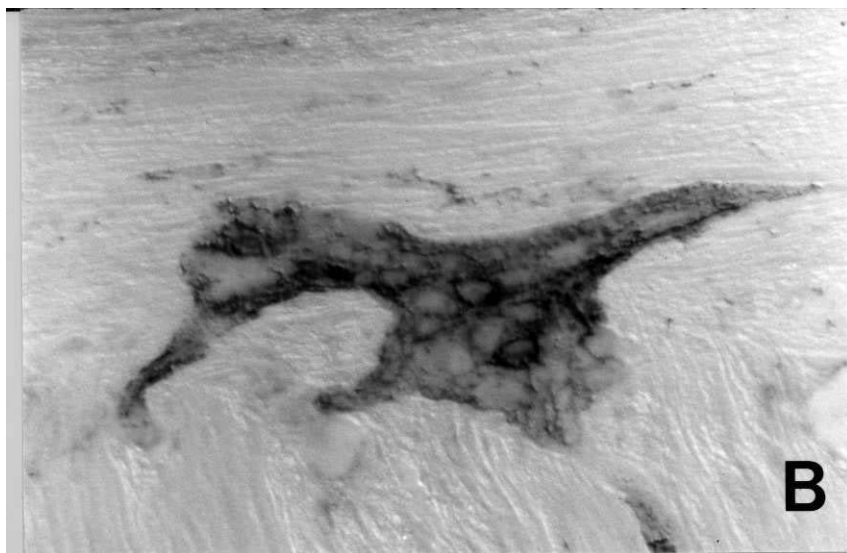
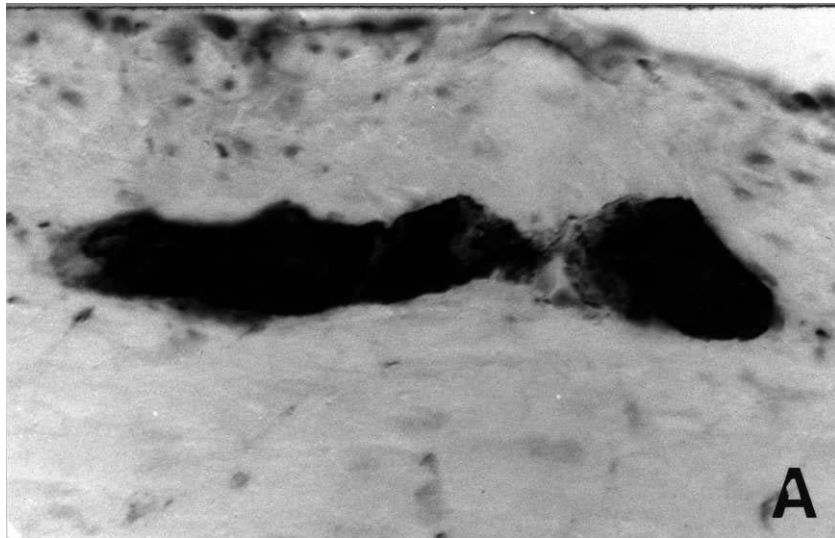


Fig.3. Myenteric ganglion in a young mice (A) and in an old mice (B). The number of nerve cells decreased with ageing. Immunostained by antisera against protein gene product 9.5. $\times 450$

In a recent study, the effect of ageing on the gut enteric nervous of mouse has been studied (23, 24) and it has been reported that there are significantly fewer neurones per ganglion in both myenteric and submucosal plexus in old mice in all gastrointestinal segments. The number of ganglia per mm in old mice.

Table 3. Morphometric measurements and concentrations of neuroendocrine peptides in various segments of the gastrointestinal tract of mice; the age groups are related to the 3 month-olds (young adult mice)

Peptide/amine	1 month				12 months				24 months			
	CN	CSI	NV	TC	CN	CSI	NV	TC	CN	CSI	NV	TC
<i>Antrum</i>												
Gastrin	→	→	u.s.	→	→	→	u.s.	↓	→	→	u.s.	↓
Somatostatin	↑	↑	u.s.	↓	↑	↑	u.s.	↓	↑	↑	u.s.	↓
Neurotensin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↑	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓
Serotonin	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	→	↑	u.s.	u.s.
<i>Duodenum</i>												
Secretin	→	→	↓	↑	→	→	→	↑	↑	↑	→	↑
GIP	→	→	↓	↑	↓	↑	→	↑	→	→	→	↑
Motilin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓
Gastrin/CCK	→	→	↓	↓	→	→	→	↓	→	→	↑	↓
Somatostatin	→	↑	→	↓	↓	↑	↓	↓	↓	→	→	↓
Neurotensin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↑	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→
Serotonin	↓	↓	↓	u.s.	↓	→	→	u.s.	↑	↑	↓	u.s.
<i>Colon</i>												
PYY	↑	→	u.s.	↓	↑	→	u.s.	↓	↑	→	u.s.	↓
Enteroglucagon	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.
Somatostatin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	↓
Neurotensin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→
Serotonin	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.	↑	↑	u.s.	u.s.

CN=Cell number. CSI=cell secretory index. NV = nuclear volume. TC = tissue concentration. u.s. = unstudied. ↑ = significantly increased. ↓ = significantly decreased. → = no significant difference.

CONCLUSION

There seem to be impairments in the gastrointestinal functions with senescence, as in other parts of the body (120). The two components of NES, endocrine/paracrine cells and ENS are important in the regulation of the gastrointestinal tract. Both these parts are affected by age. Changes in NES can be either primary or secondary. Secondary changes can be compensatory to preceding changes in receptors or affector

Table 4. Tissue concentrations of neuropeptides in the gastrointestinal tract of mice; the age groups are compared with the 3-months-old.

Peptide	Antrum			Duodenum			Colon		
	1	12	24	1	12	24	1	12	24
Substance P	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	→	↓	↓	↑
VIP	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
NPY	↑	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	→	↓	→
Galanin	→	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	→

↓ = significantly increased. ↓ = significantly decreased. → = no significant difference.

organs. An example of this is the postulated upregulation of CCK in duodenum secondary to reduced density of CCK receptors in the gallbladder (86, 88). Another example is the increase in the number of serotonin IR cells observed in mouse antrum, duodenum and colon (93–95). Serotonin has been suggested to initiate the peristaltic wave [79], and an increase in the number of cells could be compensatory to the degeneration of the ENS. Even though changes are secondary, they could lead to gastrointestinal disorders. Since most neuroendocrine messengers have more than one target organ, upregulation as a compensation for loss of capacity in one organ could lead to over-stimulation/-inhibition in another.

There are a species difference regarding the age-related changes in the neuroendocrine system, and experimental animals show far more age-related changes than did those of humans (Table 6). Thus, great caution must be taken when extrapolating results from experimental animals to humans. However, several age-related changes in the neuroendocrine system of humans, have been reported, that may have an impact on development of gastrointestinal symptoms in elderly. The number of somatostatin antral cells is decreased with ageing. As somatostatin inhibits gastrin secretion, it is not surprising that the plasma level of gastrin is high in elderly. Somatostatin inhibits also gastric acid secretion. The low somatostatin and high gastrin would result in high gastric acid secretion. The number of CCK cells as well as plasma level increased with ageing which could cause slow gastric emptying. Furthermore, high CCK and PP could lower the LES pressure. High gastric acid secretion, slow gastric emptying and low LES pressure can lead to reflux oesophagitis in elderly, which is indeed the case. It is important to keep this in mind clinically, as chest pain in elderly could be caused by reflux oesophagitis rather than angina pectoris, which is also common in this age.

Table 5. Morphometric results of the endocrine cells obtained in human small and large intestine; the age groups are related to the 20–29-year-olds.

Peptide/amine	1–2 years			40–49 years			60–69 years		
	CN	CSI	NV	CN	CSI	NV	CN	CSI	NV
<i>Duodenum</i>									
Chromogranin A	↓	↑	u.s.	→	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.
GIP	→	↑	u.s.	→	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.
Gastrin/CCK	↑	↑	u.s.	→	→	u.s.	↑	→	u.s.
Secretin	→	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.
Somatostatin	→	↑	u.s.	↑	→	u.s.	→	↑	u.s.
Serotonin	↓	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.	→	→	u.s.
<i>Rectum</i>									
Enteroglucagon	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	→	→	→	→	→
PP	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	→	↑	→	→	→
PYY	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	→	→	→	→	→
Somatostatin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	→	→	→	→	→
Serotonin	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	→	→	→	→	→	→

CN = cell number. CSI = cell secretory index. NV = nuclear volume. u.s. = unstudied. ↑ = significantly increased. ↓ = significantly decreased. → = no significant difference.

Table 6. Summary of age-related changes in the gut neuroendocrine peptides and other signal substances

Peptide	Changes with increasing age
Secretin	Decreased duodenal tissue level in rat and increased in mice.
Gastrin	Increased or decreased plasma level in humans. Decreased blood level and in gastric tissue extracts and decreased number of antral gastrin cells in rats. In mouse, decreased number of antral gastrin cells.
CCK	Increased number of duodenal cells and high blood concentrations in humans. Increased level in blood and duodenal tissue extracts in guinea-pig. Low concentration in murine duodenum.
GIP	High levels in tissue extracts of murine duodenum.
Motilin	Increased blood level in humans. Decreased concentration in murine duodenum.
Somatostatin	Decreased number in the antrum of humans. Increased number of antral cells, but decreased level in tissue extract in mice. Decreased cell number and concentration in the murine duodenum. Decreased number of nerve fibres in the rat small intestine.
PP	High blood level in humans.
PYY	Increased number of cells in murine colon.
Enteroglucagon	Increased number of cells in murine colon.
Serotonin	Increased number of cells in murine small and large intestine.
Histamine	Decreased number of cells in rat.
Substance P	Low concentration in the human large intestine. Decreased number of nerve fibres and concentration in rat small intestine. Decreased level in the stomach, but increased level in the small and large intestine of mice.
VIP	Decreased number of nerve fibres and concentration in rat small intestine of rat. Low level in the murine stomach and intestine.
NPY	Low concentration in stomach and small intestine of mice.
Neuroteinsin	High concentration in human large intestine. Low concentration in murine stomach.
Galanin	Low level in the murine stomach and small intestine.

Substance P has been found to be low and motilin to be high in elderly. Whereas low substance P can cause low gastrointestinal motility, high motilin can lead to increase gastrointestinal contractibility. One can speculate that the balance between these neuroendocrine peptide that can lead to either diarrhoea or constipation in elderly.

The pathogenesis of gastrointestinal disorders in the elderly is probably multifactorial. The changes in the NES with ageing suggest that disorders in the NES of the gut might be one of these factors. If this hypothesis were to prove true, new therapeutic strategies might be used in these disorders, as agonists and antagonists of almost all neuroendocrine peptides are available.

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