# The role of lithium in gastrointestinal health and disease

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#### Abstract

Lithium salt as a common drug in the clinical treatment of bipolar disorder, its application range is very wide. Lithium ions have many physiological functions, such as improving hematopoietic function, regulating the nervous system, improving heart function, antiviral, immune regulation, and neuroprotective effects. Lithium also has numerous pharmacological effects. For example, it can be used as an emotional stabilizer and has anti-inflammatory effects in dermatology. It also has protective effects against various neurological diseases, leukopenia, hepatitis, pancreatic islet cells, etc. After oral absorption of lithium salt, it can regulate gastrointestinal epithelial ion transport, affect intestinal absorption and secretion, and repair mucosal damage to promote wound healing. In this review, we review in detail the current status of lithium on gastrointestinal physiology and pathology. Based on the multiple regulatory effects of lithium salts on the gastrointestinal tract, we expect to find new drug targets to better treat gastrointestinal diseases.

# 2 The role of lithium in gastrointestinal health and disease

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Abstract: Lithium salt as a common drug in the clinical treatment of bipolar disorder, its application range 15 is very wide. Lithium ions have many physiological functions, such as improving hematopoietic function, 16 regulating the nervous system, improving heart function, antiviral, immune regulation, and neuroprotective 17 effects. Lithium also has numerous pharmacological effects. For example, it can be used as an emotional 18 19 stabilizer and has anti-inflammatory effects in dermatology. It also has protective effects against various neurological diseases, leukopenia, hepatitis, pancreatic islet cells, etc. After oral absorption of lithium salt, it 20 can regulate gastrointestinal epithelial ion transport, affect intestinal absorption and secretion, and repair 21 mucosal damage to promote wound healing. In this review, we review in detail the current status of lithium 22 23 on gastrointestinal physiology and pathology. Based on the multiple regulatory effects of lithium salts on the gastrointestinal tract, we expect to find new drug targets to better treat gastrointestinal diseases. 24

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26 Keywords: Lithium, Gastrointestinal tract, physiology, pathology, gastrointestinal diseases

## 27

## 28 **1. Introduction**

Lithium (Li) ranks third in the periodic table and belongs to Group IA, with an atomic weight of 6.941 and a specific gravity of 0.534, making it the lightest metal. Abbreviations of the review in **Table.(1)**. Lithium, which is in the same alkali metal group as sodium and potassium, is a monovalent positive ion, similar in many respects to Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>, but its higher charge/radius ratio also tends to be similar to ions of some Group IIA elements, especially Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+[1]</sup>. There is already plenty of evidence that lithium ions play important physiological functions. Including ① as a neutrophil stimulant, improve hematopoietic function, improve human immune function<sup>[2]</sup>. ② Regulate central nervous activity, play the role of sedation, sedation, control nervous disorders<sup>[3]</sup>. ③ As an alternative to sodium, it prevents cardiovascular disease. It can increase the content of lithium in plasma or red blood cells, reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease and improve heart function. Study on the relationship between trace element lithium and some cardiovascular diseases<sup>[4]</sup> ④ Antiviral, immunomodulatory and neuroprotective effects<sup>[5]</sup>.

In addition to physiological functions, lithium is also involved in the pathogenesis of many diseases. So 40 far, many literatures have reported that lithium (lithium carbonate) as a mood stabilizer is the first-line drug 41 for the treatment of bipolar disorder, and lithium can also reduce the risk of suicide in patients with major 42 depression and play a role in suicide prevention<sup>[6,7]</sup>. In dermatology, lithium salts (lithium gluconate, lithium 43 succinate) act as an anti-inflammatory therapy by inhibiting adenylate cyclase, resulting in reduced 44 cycloAMP formation, neutrophils and T lymphocytes involved in the inflammatory response. Lithium salts 45 (lithium chloride and lithium carbonate) protect islet beta cells from damage by reducing hyperglycemia, 46 hypereating, polydipsia, and weight loss<sup>[8]</sup>. In addition, lithium also shows a certain protective effect in acute 47 nerve injury, chronic degenerative diseases, neurological diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, as well as in 48 the treatment of leukopenia, hepatitis, and some kidney diseases<sup>[9]</sup>. Lithium action mechanism contain: ① 49 Inhibition of second messenger enzymes (eg. Inositole monophosphate); 2 Modulation of G proteins; 3 50 51 Interaction at various sites with downstream signal transduction cascades (eg. Inhibition of GSK3, PKC).

Nowadays, a lot of scientific research has been conducted on the mechanism of action of lithium as a 52 psychotropic drug on the central nervous system, especially bipolar disorder. However, there is a lack of 53 in-depth understanding of how lithium affects gastrointestinal function when taken orally, so it is essential to 54 clarify in detail what role lithium plays in gastrointestinal health and disease. In the digestive system, lithium 55 can inhibit salivary secretion, regulate epithelial ion transport and bicarbonate secretion, inhibit 56 gastrointestinal smooth muscle contraction, and cause endothelium-dependent relaxation. However, lithium 57 is also closely associated with the pathogenesis of gastrointestinal diseases. Examples include chronic 58 secretory diarrhea, visceral hypersensitivity, hepatic ischemia/reperfusion, colitis and colon cancer. In this 59 review, we use lithium ion and various gastrointestinal physiology and diseases as keywords to search 60 relevant literature, explore the possible mechanism of action of lithium ion and its potential new targets for 61 treatment of gastrointestinal diseases. 62

## 63 2. Lithium ion and gastrointestinal function

## 64 2.1 The regulatory effect of lithium ion on gastrointestinal epithelial anion secretion

Intestinal epithelial ion transport is an important physiological process in the human gastrointestinal 65 tract. In addition to absorbing electrolytes, the intestinal epithelium can also secrete anions (such as HCO3<sup>-</sup>, 66 Cl<sup>-</sup>) to provide power for body fluid transport and maintain body fluid balance<sup>[10]</sup>. As we all know, the 67 secretion of chloride ions is closely related to intestinal water balance, diarrhea and constipation. The 68 secretion of intestinal bicarbonate plays an important role in intestinal mucosal protection and acid-base 69 balance<sup>[11-14]</sup>. Intestinal epithelial anion secretion is controlled by a variety of neurohumoral factors, such as 70 ACh, PGE<sub>2</sub> and 5-HT<sup>[15]</sup>. PGE<sub>2</sub> plays a protective role in gastrointestinal tract by stimulating the secretion of 71 and Cl<sup>- [16]</sup>.As mentioned above, lithium ions HCO3<sup>-</sup> can stimulate the production 72 of endocannelprostaglandins, so can lithium ions regulate gastrointestinal anion secretion through PGE<sub>2</sub>? It has 73 been previously reported that lithium chloride is a potent gastric antisecretory and protective agent, and this 74 protective effect is affected by the inhibition of gastric acid secretion independent of endogenous 75 prostaglandins<sup>[17]</sup>. This contradictory statement needs to be further clarified by subsequent experiments. In 76

addition, the gastric mucosa epithelium is covered by a thick mucous gel that allows secreted HCO3- to enter<sup>[18]</sup>, The mucus-HCO<sub>3</sub>-barrier forms the gastrointestinal tract's first line of defense, preventing foreign substances from entering the cell cavity. GEORGE M. studied the effects of lithium intake on intestinal electrolyte and water transport in adult rats, and the results showed that chronic lithium intake has a unique mechanism of action<sup>[19]</sup>.

Aldosterone appears to increase the permeability of the mucosal (intracluminal) barrier, allowing 82 increased lithium to enter the colon epithelial cells<sup>[20]</sup>. Previous studies have shown that the therapeutic 83 effect of Li<sup>+</sup> may be due to its inhibition of inositol 1-phosphatase, reducing the level of inositol and 84 resulting in lower phosphatidyl inositol concentrations, especially in those neurons that are overstimulated. 85 This alteration in phosphatidylinositol metabolism may help reset the sensitivity of those multifunctional 86 receptors that produce second messengers, such as Ca<sup>2+</sup>, cyclic GMP, and prostaglandins<sup>[21]</sup>. Berridge et al. 87 found that lithium ions could directly inhibit the hydrolysis of inositol monophosphatase, resulting in the 88 aggregation of inositol phosphate and the increase of cytoplasmic Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration. Using isolated 89 sections of rat gastric fundus mucosa, C. CASCIANO et al. found that the hydrolysis of inositol 90 phospholipid may be involved in the coupling stimulation of secretion leading to the secretion of HCO3<sup>-</sup>. 91 92 Subsequent experiments also confirmed that lithium ion can inhibit the hydrolysis of inositol monophosphatase, resulting in the aggregation of total inositol monophosphate, and then activate 93 calmodulin-dependent phosphorylation of a series of cellular proteins, resulting in increased cytoplasmic 94 95 calcium ion concentration and stimulating the secretion of HCO3<sup>-[22]</sup>.

## 96 2.2 The regulatory effect of lithium ion on gastrointestinal epithelial transport

After oral administration of lithium preparations, human tissues absorb lithium mainly in a passive 97 manner in the gastrointestinal tract<sup>[23]</sup>. There is a significant correlation between serum lithium and the 98 potential difference of the rectal mucosa, and the potential difference across the rectal mucosa is increased in 99 patients treated with lithium, which can be explained by the resistance of the rectal mucosa to vasopressin<sup>[24]</sup>. 100 Most of the absorption of lithium in the colon of the rat occurs through the exchange of sodium, and the 101 potential difference is reduced while sodium secretion is greatly increased. This is in contrast to the human 102 colon, where potassium is exchanged with lithium ions and the potential difference increases<sup>[25]</sup>. It is known 103 that when actively transported sugars or amino acids are added to the mucosal side, the transmural potential 104 difference in the small intestine immediately increases. The potential increment caused by sugar (sugar 105 106 evoked potential) has been shown to be closely related to the active transport of sugar itself. It was initially thought that this change in transmural potential difference was the result of increased activity of sodium ion 107 pumps in mucosal cells<sup>[26]</sup>. 108

109 Later, Hoshi and Komatsu hypothesized that this potential could be a diffusion potential associated with the movement of charged sodium glycocarrier complexes within the mucosal boundaries of epithelial 110 cells, the driving force of which could be maintained by a non-electrogenerative sodium pump<sup>[27]</sup>. Both 111 112 lithium and sodium are monovalent positive ions, and it has been previously reported that Li<sup>+</sup> will not be actively transported by the small intestine [33]. They found that Li<sup>+</sup> could only interact with the sugar carrier 113 at the mucosal boundary, but could not replace Na<sup>+</sup> at the Na<sup>+</sup> pump site<sup>[28]</sup>. HAYASHI, H. et al studied the 114 generation of incremental sugar-dependence of transwall potential (sugar-evoked potential) in Li<sup>+</sup> medium 115 using the toad intestinal ectropion sac. When actively transported sugar was added to mucosal solution, a 116 significant and immediate increase in potential difference (PD) was observed in Li<sup>+</sup>- medium, although its 117 maximum magnitude was smaller than that in Na+- medium. The salient features of evoked potentials 118

generated in Li<sup>+</sup> media are their relatively rapid spontaneous decay (failure of platform formation) and the independence of their oxygen-supplying structures. The results showed that Li<sup>+</sup> could interact with and stimulate glycocarriers at mucosal margins, but it would not be actively extruded from mucosal cells, and the generation of sugar-evoked potentials was related to the movement of glycocarrier complexes within the mucosal boundaries of epithelial cells<sup>[29]</sup>.

## 124 **2.3 Lithium ion and gastrointestinal smooth muscle**

The fundus of the stomach is innervated by excitatory cholinergic and inhibitory non-adrenergic 125 non-cholinergic (NANC) nerves<sup>[30]</sup>. Neurotransmission of NANC has been identified in many parts of the 126 gastrointestinal tract and is associated with the release of nitric oxide (NO) under electrical stimulation<sup>[31]</sup>. In 127 addition, NANC-mediated diastole has also been demonstrated to be mediated by NO formation in the 128 gastric fundus of rats <sup>[32]</sup>. As a major NANC neurotransmitter, NO plays an important role in its physiology 129 and function. NO is synthesized by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and induces gastric fundus diastole in rats 130 by stimulating the production of cGMP by guanosine cyclase. Experiments by Mehdi Ghasemi's team 131 suggest that lithium may cause NANC-mediated damage to rat fundus diastole by interfering with the 132 L-arginine /NO pathway in nitroergic nerves<sup>[33]</sup>. 133

## 134 **3. Lithium in gastrointestinal diseases**

#### 135 3.1 Lithium ions and salivary glands

Lithium, as a first-line treatment for bipolar disorder, is often accompanied by changes in saliva 136 production during use, resulting in insufficient saliva production<sup>[34]</sup>. The role of lithium in digestive tract 137 diseases in Table.(2). Salivary secretion is an important factor in maintaining oral health, and it performs 138 mechanical cleaning and protection functions through various physiological and biochemical mechanisms. 139 The regulatory role of lithium in gastrointestinal diseases in Figure .(1). Therefore, the decline of salivary 140 gland function can cause many adverse effects on an individual's oral health<sup>[35]</sup>. To this end, we understand 141 the effects of a variety of psychoactive drugs on salivary gland function, such as tricyclic antidepressants, 142 phenothiazine antipsychotics and lithium can inhibit salivary secretion and cause dry mouth syndrome. It is 143 currently known that the anti-salivatory effects of tricyclic antidepressants and phenothiazine antipsychotics 144 are mediated by blocking muscarinic receptors<sup>[36]</sup>. 145

However, the anti-salivation mechanism of lithium is still unclear. It has been reported that lithium 146 chloride can induce glycogen accumulation in the salivary glands of rats<sup>[35]</sup>. J Popovic et al. investigated the 147 effect of acute and chronic lithium on salivation induced by agonists associated with receptor-associated 148 membrane inositol phospholipid hydrolysis (carbaccholine and deoxyadrenaline) and adenylate cyclase 149 activation (isoproterenol). The study found that chronic but non-acute lithium treatment significantly 150 reduced carbachocholine and deoxyadrenaline induced salivary secretion, while isoproterenol induced 151 salivary secretion did not change after acute or chronic lithium administration. Therefore, it can be 152 concluded that insufficient salivary secretion during chronic lithium treatment may be caused by changes in 153 the phosphatidylinositol cycle and inositol deficiency after agonist stimulation<sup>[37]</sup>. 154

## 155 3.2 Chronic secretory diarrhea

With the constant change of people's dietary environment, diarrhea occurs more and more frequently, which has become an important medical and health problem<sup>[38]</sup>. Diarrhea is a common clinical symptom. It is usually accompanied by increased frequency of defecation, increased fecal water content<sup>[39]</sup>, and 159 symptoms such as pus, blood and mucus. Clinical symptoms more than four weeks can be judged as chronic diarrhea<sup>[40]</sup>. Persistent and severe diarrhea can kill people, so effective control of diarrhea is essential. There 160 are many causes of diarrhea, both drug and disease factors. There is relevant evidence that long-term abuse 161 of laxatives can cause secretory diarrhea<sup>[39, 41, 42]</sup>, Neoplasms secreting gastrointestinal peptides, villous 162 adenomas and other neoplasms can also cause diarrhea. When the cause of diarrhea is unknown and the 163 pathogenic factors cannot be effectively eliminated, drug intervention that changes the gastrointestinal 164 165 electrolyte transport process can be used to stimulate intestinal absorption or inhibit intestinal secretion to treat the disease. 166

A clinical study found that patients with chronic secretory diarrhea treated with lithium carbonate had 167 less clinical symptoms and no recurrence of diarrhea after stopping the drug<sup>[43]</sup>. However, researchers have 168 not yet clarified the relationship between lithium carbonate and chronic secretory diarrhea. According to 169 related reports, lithium carbonate is a drug that inhibits cyclic adenosine phosphate synthesis<sup>[44]</sup>. In human 170 tissues, lithium carbonate may inhibit receptor-mediated cyclic adenosine phosphate synthesis by inhibiting 171 adenylate cyclase<sup>[45]</sup>. The increase of cAMP in intestinal epithelial cells induces the increase of 172 sodium-dependent chloride ion secretion, and at the same time blocks the absorption of sodium and chloride 173 ions by the brush border, resulting in diarrhea<sup>[46, 47]</sup>. The inhibitory effect of lithium carbonate on cyclic 174 adenosine phosphate may be the reason for its anti-secretion effect in the gut, so lithium carbonate may be 175 effective against diarrhea mediated by cyclic adenosine phosphate pathway, but this effect needs further 176 research to prove. 177

### 178 **3.3 Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS)**

Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) is one of the common digestive diseases in clinic<sup>[48]</sup>. The main clinical 179 manifestations are abdominal pain, frequency of defecation and changes in stool form<sup>[49]</sup>. There has been 180 evidence that the pathogenesis of IBS is mainly the change of gastrointestinal motility and the increase of 181 intestinal stimulation sensitivity. In addition, social environmental factors, dietary changes, and external 182 influences can also induce IBS<sup>[50]</sup>. Visceral hypersensitivity is a common reaction in most patients with 183 intestinal stress syndrome, and its discovery can provide a basis for the study of the physiology and 184 pathology of IBS<sup>[51]</sup>. Lithium is a widely used drug for bipolar disorder that acts as a stomach protector. The 185 effects of lithium on some tissues are mediated by nitric oxide (NO), which regulates gastrointestinal 186 motility and mucosal integrity. 187

Hosein Shamshiri et al. found that chronic lithium administration attenuates visceral hypersensitivity, 188 raises nociceptive thresholds, and reduces bowel frequency. L-NAME (a non-selective NO synthase (NOS) 189 inhibitor) and aminoguanidine (a selective NOS inhibitor) reduced the notional receptive threshold and 190 reduced the protective effect of lithium on visceral hypersensitivity. Further study found that L-NAME 191 increased fecal frequency in both the lithium treatment group and the water treatment group, but the 192 aminoguanidine did not increase. The pattern of defecation in lithium-treated rats shifted to hard faeces 193 instead of soft and formless, but NOS inhibitors did not change the fecal consistency pattern. Based on the 194 above conclusions, we know that chronic lithium has an analgesic effect on visceral hypersensitivity. Since 195 NOS inhibitors weaken this effect, NO may play a protective role of lithium to a certain extent<sup>[52]</sup>. 196

## 197 3.4 Hepatic ischemia/reperfusion Injury (I/RI)

198 IRI is a multifactorial process that affects liver function after major liver surgery, such as extended 199 hepatectomy or liver transplantation performed by Pringle. Liver ischemia/reperfusion injury (IRI), which 200 damages liver cells and sinusoidal endothelial cells in the ischemic liver, may occur in clinical treatment of liver transplantation, liver tumor resection, trauma, circulatory shock, and other injuries. Paradoxically, the 201 damage worsens as blood flow returns<sup>[53]</sup>. At present, the most studied aspects of IRI are the activation of 202 phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase /Akt12 and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) cell survival pathway, 203 inhibition of glycogen synthase kinase 3b (GSK3b) activity, reduction of apoptotic death and induction of 204 autophagy<sup>[54]</sup>. Liver I/RI is the main cause of graft function loss after liver transplantation, which may 205 seriously impair the function of the remaining liver after hepatectomy<sup>[55]</sup>. Lithium as an inhibitor of GSK-3β 206 has beneficial effects on ischemia/reperfusion (I/RI) of the central nervous system, heart, and kidneys. 207 Previous studies have shown that lithium chloride (LiCl) phosphorylates Ser9 residues and inhibits GSK-3β 208 209 activity, thereby improving I/RI in other organs.

Nevertheless, the role of lithium in liver I/RI is unclear. In order to assess whether lithium has an 210 effect on liver I/RI, Yongxiang Xia et al conducted a study using control mice and LiCl pre-treated groups, 211 and found that the LiCl group significantly increased liver I/RI, as determined by serological and 212 histological analysis. Acute and chronic LiCl treatment causes serious damage to liver I/RI, including 213 apoptosis and increased oxidative stress. In order to further understand the mechanism of this damage, 214 Yongxiang Xia et al. further studied and found that the activity of NF-kB was significantly down-regulated 215 in LiCl pretreatment group. Moreover, the expression of NF-kB mediated protective genes such as 216 anti-apoptotic genes (RAF2, cIAP2, Bfl-1 and cFLIP) and antioxidant genes MnSOD were significantly 217 inhibited. These findings suggest that lithium aggravates hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury by inhibiting 218 GSK-3 $\beta$ /NF-kb mediated protective signaling pathways in mice<sup>[56]</sup>. 219

Studies have also shown that acute lithium therapy does not prevent I/R damage. The experimental data 220 indicate that the mechanisms mediated by GSK3b-, MAPK-, apoptosis - and autophagy are important 221 pathways involved in the protective effects of chronic lithium therapy on liver I/R injury<sup>[54]</sup>. In addition, 222 activation of the glycogen synthase kinase  $3\beta$  (GSK3 $\beta$ ) and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK1/2) 223 pathways during IRI are two major events that independently regulate autophagy. On the one hand, the 224 GSK3β pathway indirectly regulates autophagy by down-regulating the activity of mTOR, which is known 225 226 as a well-known autophagy inhibitor. Phosphorylation of ERK1/2, on the other hand, leads to activation of the beclin1 pathway, which is directly involved in the autophagy process. Based on these studies, Chunyi 227 Kan et al., after inducing hepatic steatosis in rats, injected lithium chloride or normal saline for 3 days and 228 229 performed hot ischemia for 60 minutes. After reperfusion, the rats were observed 30 min, 6, 24, 48 h. The results showed that liver injury was significantly reduced in the treatment group, and lithium chloride may 230 protect hepatocytes from the effects of IRI by regulating autophagy induced by GSK3β and ERK1/2 231 pathways. 232

Therefore, lithium chloride may be a new strategy to protect fatty liver from the effects of hepatic IRI<sup>[57]</sup>.

## 235 **3.5 Colitis and colorectal cancer**

Lithium has been used for more than decades as a neuroprotective drug in the treatment of bipolar disorder. It activates the Wnt/ beta-catenin signaling pathway in vivo and in vitro by directly and indirectly inhibiting GSK3b. The colon is one of the tissues susceptible to the Wnt signaling pathway, so it is necessary to explore the relationship between lithium and the colon<sup>[58]</sup>.

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is a multifactorial disease of unknown etiology characterized by oxidative stress, leukocyte infiltration, and elevated levels of inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis

factor (TNF-a)<sup>[59]</sup>. It has been reported that lithium carbonate has a therapeutic effect on ulcerative colitis<sup>[60]</sup>. 242 The use of lithium chloride (GSK-3ß inhibitor) induces MYC transcription, expression of MYC protein and 243 Wnt/MYC target gene subset in colon epithelial cells, promoting recovery from acute DSS induced injury. 244 The use of 10058-F4 can inhibit MYC function and lead to reduced lithium action<sup>[61]</sup>. Ali Daneshmand et al. 245 found in a 2,4,6-trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) -induced IBD model that lithium chloride 246 significantly improved the macroscopic and histological features of colon injury. MPO activity, MDA levels, 247 and TNF-a levels were also reduced. And in experiments with glibenclamide, a potassium channel blocker, 248 it was found that glibenclamide reversed the effect of lithium on the marker. Studies have shown that the 249 regulatory mechanism of potassium channels plays an important role in the inflammatory process, especially 250 the activation of ATP-sensitive potassium channels can inhibit the production of mitochondrial reactive 251 oxygen species (ROS) and reduce the production of inflammatory factors, thus playing an anti-inflammatory 252 role<sup>[62]</sup>. 253

Other studies have also found that large doses of lithium chloride have toxic effects on the intestine, 254 and 200 mg/kg LiCl may induce colon inflammation in mice by activating F4/80 positive macrophages, 255 inhibiting the expression of IgA coding genes in plasma cells and Pigr and Claudin-15 expressions in colon 256 epithelial cells<sup>[58]</sup>. In addition, recent evidence suggests that dysregulation of the gut microbiota and its 257 metabolites are important triggers of IBD inflammation and not just the result of chronic inflammation<sup>[63]</sup>. 258 The gut microbiota has an impact on the persistence of IBD, and the fecal microbiota composition of 259 patients with IBD differs from that of healthy individuals<sup>[64]</sup>. This difference is manifested by significant 260 downregulation of diversity, reduction of probiotics and changes in biota metabolites, which are related to 261 the progression and outcome of IBD<sup>[65]</sup>. There is evidence that lithium carbonate can alleviate IBD 262 symptoms by regulating gut microbiota and metabolism<sup>[66, 67]</sup>. Experimental data from Shengjie Huang et al 263 suggest that lithium carbonate improves DSS-induced colitis in a GPR43-dependent manner. The underlying 264 mechanisms are related to regulation of gut microbiota structure and composition, increased metabolite 265 SCFA production, and activation of anti-inflammatory Treg cell responses in a GPR43-dependent manner, 266 which may provide a new direction for the treatment of patients with IBD. In conclusion, the use of lithium 267 salt in the treatment of inflammatory bowel disease may have important clinical significance<sup>[68]</sup>. 268

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third most prevalent cancer type in the world. Patients with colorectal cancer and metastatic colorectal cancer have 5-year survival rates of less than 60% and 20%, respectively. At present, the main treatment for CRC is surgery, which is often combined with chemotherapy and radiation therapy. Because tumors are resistant to chemotherapy and radiation. In recent years, molecularly targeted drugs have been proposed for the treatment of colorectal cancer. The transcription factor NF- $\kappa$ B has been shown to be critical for tumor progression and chemotherapy resistance in colorectal cancer by increasing the expression of some target genes<sup>[69]</sup>.

Simultaneously, previous studies have shown that GSK-3β can regulate NF-κB activity<sup>[70-73]</sup>. Glycogen 276 277 synthase kinase  $3\beta(GSK-3\beta)$  is a serine/threonine protein kinase that has been identified as a potential therapeutic target for a variety of human cancers. In addition, oxidative stress is strongly associated with all 278 aspects of cancer. There is evidence that lithium is a specific and non-competitive inhibitor of GSK-3β in 279 vitro and in vivo. Huili Li et al. demonstrated in human colon cancer cell line SW480 that lithium chloride 280 increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and leads to decreased cell survival and proliferation 281 via the ROS/GSK-3β/NF-κB pathway. The results suggest that GSK-3β may be a new potential therapeutic 282 target for colorectal cancer, and lithium may become a new potential anti-tumor drug<sup>[69]</sup>. 283

## 284 **3.6 graft-versus-host disease (GVHD)**

Severe intestinal GVHD following allogeneic hematologic cell transplantation (HCT) leads to mucosal 285 ulceration and induces innate and adaptive immune responses that amplify and perpetuate GVHD and 286 associated barrier dysfunction. Intestinal involvement is a major source of morbidity and mortality in acute 287 GVHD targets<sup>[74]</sup>. The histological features of intestinal GVHD are apoptosis of epithelial cells at the base of 288 the crypt and secondary loss of cells and crypts<sup>[75, 76]</sup>. In extremely severe cases, GVHD can lead to 289 progressive recessus loss and mucosal exfoliation of large segments of the intestine<sup>[77-79]</sup>. There is evidence 290 that Wnt signaling, including downstream β-catenin/ TCF4-mediated transcription, is critical for epithelial 291 stem cell replication, cryptogenesis, and crypto proliferation<sup>[80, 81]</sup>. Lithium carbonate, as an inhibitor of 292 glycogen synthase kinase  $3\beta$  (GSK- $3\beta$ )<sup>[82]</sup>, can promote  $\beta$ -catenin/ TCF4-mediated transcription<sup>[83]</sup>, that is, 293 induce Wnt signaling, enhance intestinal crypt proliferation and mucosal repair<sup>[74]</sup>. Inhibition of Wnt, 294 β-catenin or Tcf4 in animal models revealed intestinal recess loss and mucosal exfoliation<sup>[81, 84-86]</sup>. 295

296 Conversely, induction of Wnt signaling in vitro and in animal models leads to epithelial cell 297 proliferation<sup>[87, 88]</sup>. HansClevers' research group also found that by inducing Wnt signaling in isolated 298 intestinal stem cells, self-renewing intestinal recess organoids could be generated in vitro<sup>[89]</sup>. Induction of 299 Wnt signal transduction by recombinant Wnt agonist R-spondin1 has also been shown to repair 300 radiation-induced intestinal mucosal injury, thereby inhibiting systemic GVHD in HCT rat models<sup>[90]</sup>. These 301 experimental data suggest that lithium can potentially stimulate intestinal mucosal recovery and resolve 302 mucosal inflammation in patients with severe intestinal GVHD and extensive intestinal mucosal dissection.

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A brief description of The regulatory role of lithium in gastrointestinal diseases: 1)During lithium treatment, which
 change in the phosphatidylinositol cycle and inositol deficiency can cause insufficient salivary secretion; 2) Lithium
 salts treat secretory diarrhea by inhibiting the synthesis of cyclic adenosine monophosphate; 3) Lithium salts treat IBS
 by reducing visceral hypersensitivity and reducing bowel frequency, NO play a protective role of lithium; 4) lithium
 chloride may protect hepatocytes from the effects of IRI by regulating autophagy induced by GSK3 β and ERK1/2

311 pathways; 5) lithium carbonate alleviate IBD symptoms by regulating gut microbiota and metabolism; lithium 312 increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and leads to decreased cell survival and proliferation via the 313 ROS/GSK-3  $\beta$  /NF-  $\kappa$  B pathway,lithium may become a new potential anti-tumor drug; 6) Lithium induce Wnt 314 signaling,enhance intestinal crypt proliferation and mucosal repair,to treat GVHD and extensive intestinal mucosal 315 dissection.

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## 317 **Table 1** The abbreviations of the review

abbreviations	full names
Li	Lithium
PD	potential difference
NANC	non-adrenergic non-cholinergic
NO	nitric oxide
NOS	nitric oxide synthase
IBS	irritable bowel syndrome
L-NAME	non-selective NO synthase (NOS) inhibitor
I/RI	ischemia/reperfusion injury
ERK	extracellular signal-regulated kinase
GSK3b	glycogen synthase kinase 3b
TNF-a	tumor necrosis factor- a
TNBS	trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid
CRC	Colorectal cancer
ROS	reactive oxygen species
GVHD	acute graft-versus-host disease
НСТ	hematologic cell transplantation

319	Table 2The role of lithium in digestive tract diseases			
	Disease		Mechanism	Reference
	Insufficient		Inositol deficiency	[39]
	saliva produc	ction		
	Chronic	secretory	Inhibit cAMP	[51,52]
	diarrhea			
	IBS		NO pathway	[57]
	I/RI		Inhibit the expression of GSK-3b/NF-kB-mediated protective genes; Regulate the	[59]、[61,62]
			GSK-3 $\beta$ and ERK1/2 pathways	
	IBD		Inhibit GSK-3β, induce the expression of Myc; ATP-sensitive potassium channel	[67]、[69,71,72]
			activation; Regulate gut microbiota and metabolism	

CRC	$ROS/GSK-3\beta/NF-\kappa B$	[74]		
GVHD	Inhibit GSK-3β, enhance intestinal crypt proliferation and mucosal repair	[79]		
<b>4. Conclusion</b> Lithium i application eff	s commonly used as a drug for bipolar disorder. It has many physiologic fect and mechanism in the field of gastrointestinal tract are gradually know	al functions, and i own. Because it ha		
the effect of re to digestive tra	elieving abdominal pain, diarrhea and anti-colon cancer, more and more struct diseases, which provides a new idea for the treatment of gastrointestina	idies have applied diseases.		
Supplementa list.	ary Materials: Not applicable, all information in this review can be for	and in the reference		
Author Cont M, X. edh, and manuscript for	<b>ributions:</b> G.Y.G and M.W wrote the manuscript. H.Y.Z, R.C, C.Y.L, F. d Q.D collect the literature. J.Y.X primarily revised and finalized manuscript clarity and style. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.	W, T.Z, Y.D, X. Y ipt R.X. revised th		
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