

THE PHYSIOLOGY OF THE ENDOCRINE SYSTEM

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Endocrine glands

- 1.No ducts**
- 2.Highly vascular**
- 3.Secret hormones**
- 4.Distant targets**

Hormones are ch. by :

- 1.Chemical substances**
- 2.very low concentrations**
- 3.Not utilized by the target cells**
- 4.Act on specific receptors**
- 5. they are either peptides ,amines or steroids**

Endocrine Glands

- **Hypothalamus**

CRF, GRF, GHIH,
Dopamine, TRH, GnRH

- **Pituitary**

ACTH, GH, Prolactin, TSH, FSH,
LH
ADH, Oxytocin

- **Thyroid**

T4, T3, Calcitonin

- **Parathyroid**

Parathyroid Hormone

- **Adrenal**

Cortisol, Aldosterone,
Androgens
Catecholamines

- **Pancreas**

Insulin, Glucagon,
Somatostatin

- **Gonads**

Oestrogen/Testosterone

- **GIT tract**

Gastrin, Neurotensin, Secretin,
GIP, GLP

- **Kidney**

Renin, Erythropoietin, 1,25-
dihydroxyvitamin D

- **Placenta**

HCG, HPL

COMPARISON OF ENDOCRINE AND NERVOUS SYSTEMS

- **NERVOUS SYSTEM**

- “WIRED”
- CHEMICAL SIGNAL AT TARGET CELL
- RAPID
- BRIEF DURATION
- CLOSE ANATOMICAL PROXIMITY

- **ENDOCRINE SYSTEM**

- “WIRELESS”
- CHEMICAL SIGNAL AT TARGET CELL
- SLOW
- LONG DURATION
- SPECIFIC RECEPTORS

CATEGORIES OF HORMONES

- PEPTIDES
- AMINES
- STEROIDS

PEPTIDES

- HYDROPHILIC, DISSOLVED IN PLASMA
- RECEPTOR ON CELL SURFACE
- cAMP OR CALCIUM AS SECOND MESSENGERS
- ACTIVATE SPECIFIC GENES TO INITIATE PROTEIN SYNTHESIS

- HYPOTHALAMIC
- PITUITARY
- PANCREATIC
- PARATHYROID

- GI
- KIDNEY
- LIVER
- HEART

AMINES

- ALL DERIVED FROM AMINO ACID **TYROSINE**
 - UNIQUE SYNTHETIC AND SECRETORY PATHWAYS
-
- **THYROID HORMONE**
 - **CATECHOLAMINES**

STEROIDS

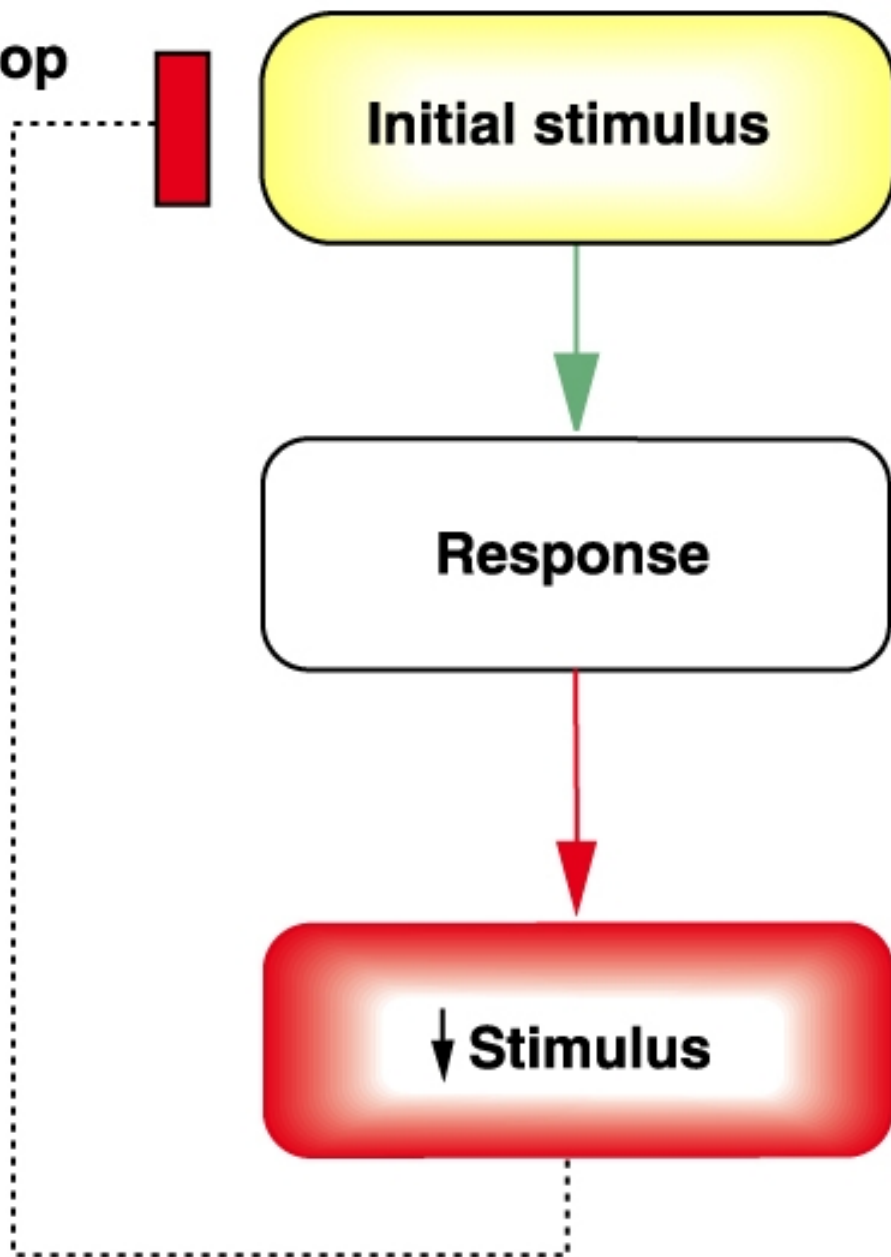
- LIPOPHILIC
 - RECEPTOR IN CYTOPLASM
 - ACTIVATE SPECIFIC GENES TO INITIATE PROTEIN SYNTHESIS
-
- ADRENAL CORTICAL
 - GONADAL
 - PLACENTAL

PLASMA CONCENTRATION OF HORMONES

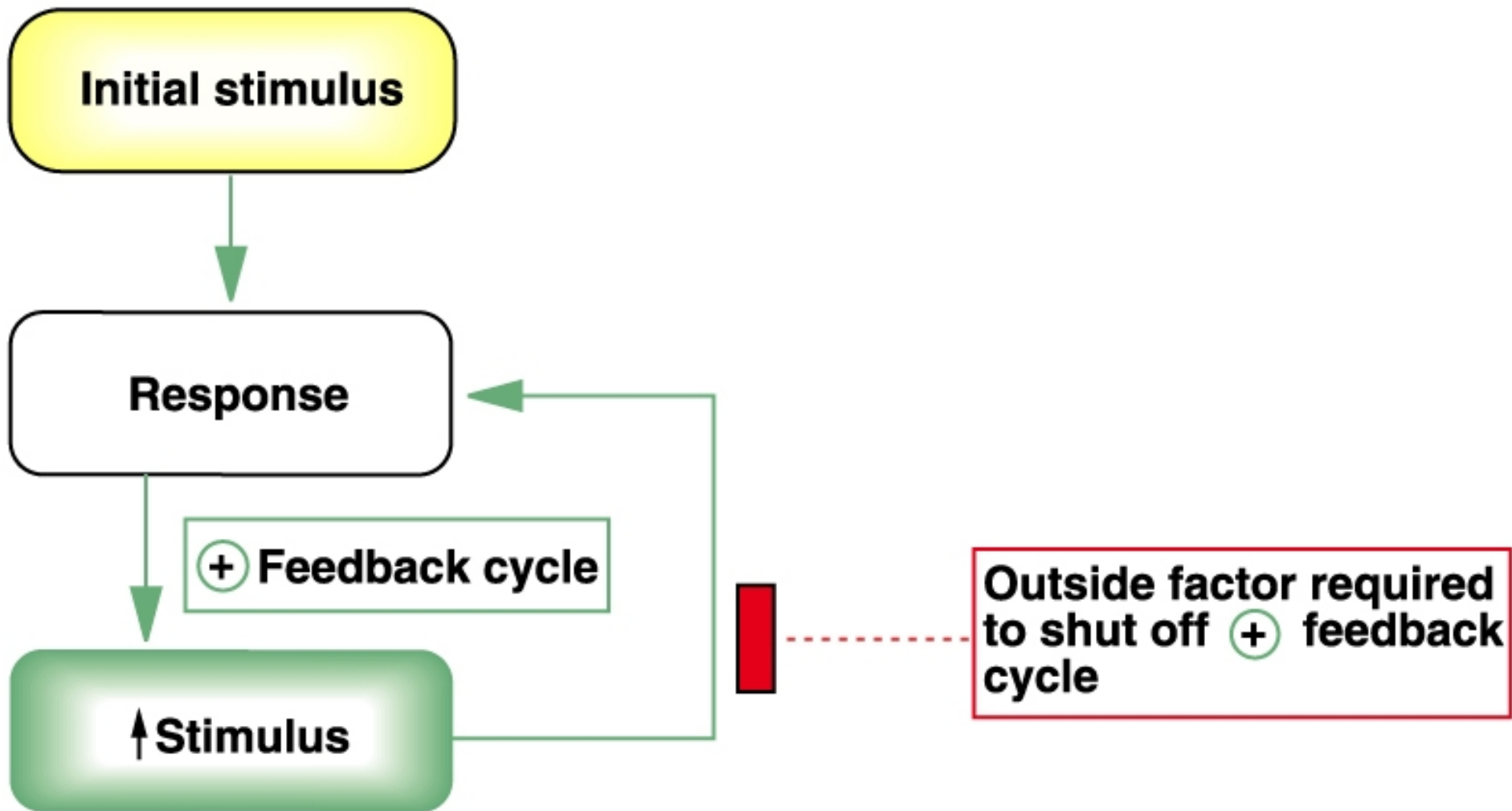
- **DEPENDS ON RATE OF SECRETION**
- **NEGATIVE FEEDBACK**
- **NEUROENDOCRINE REFLEXES**
- **DIURNAL RHYTHMS**

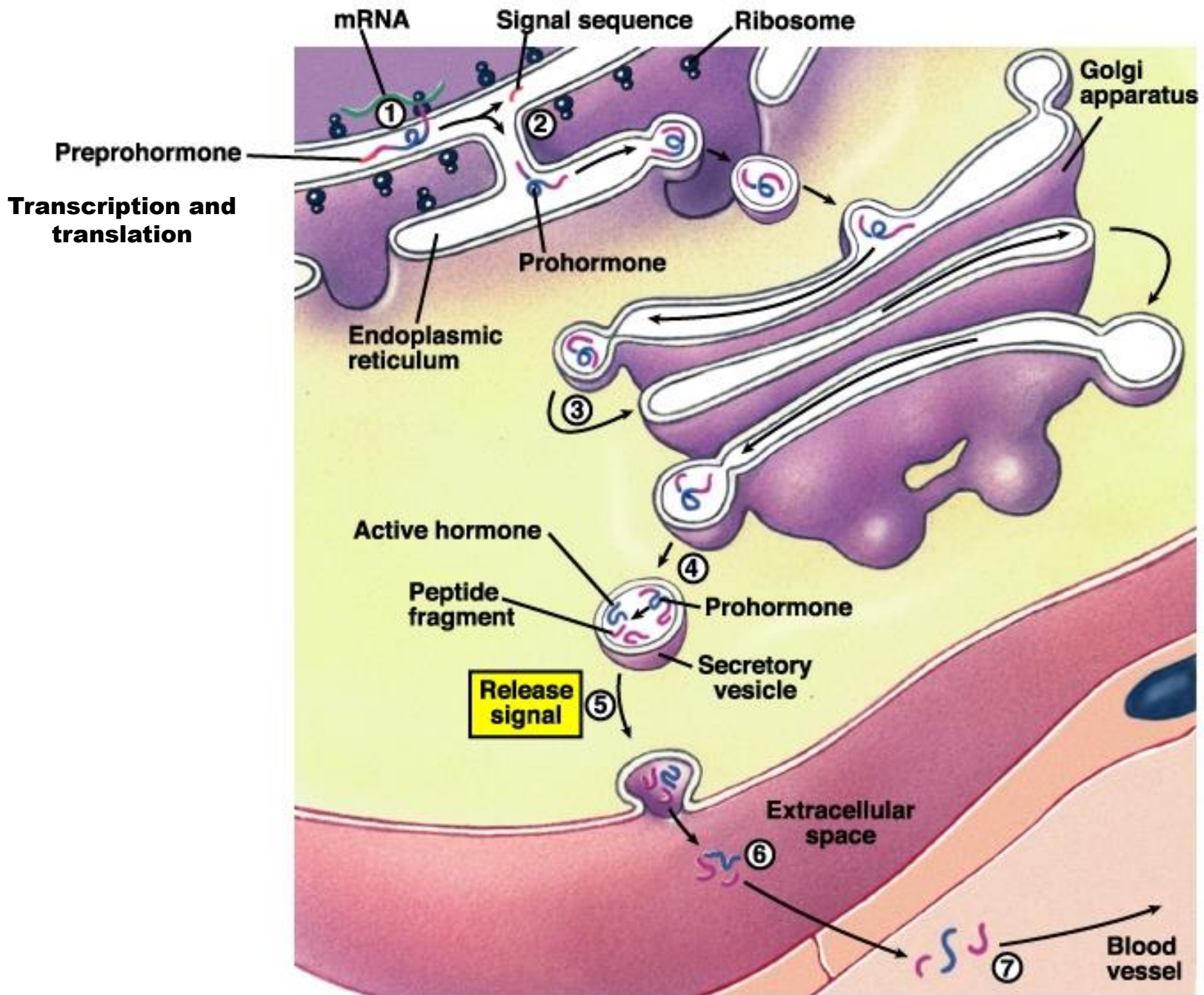
Negative feedback

Response loop
shuts off

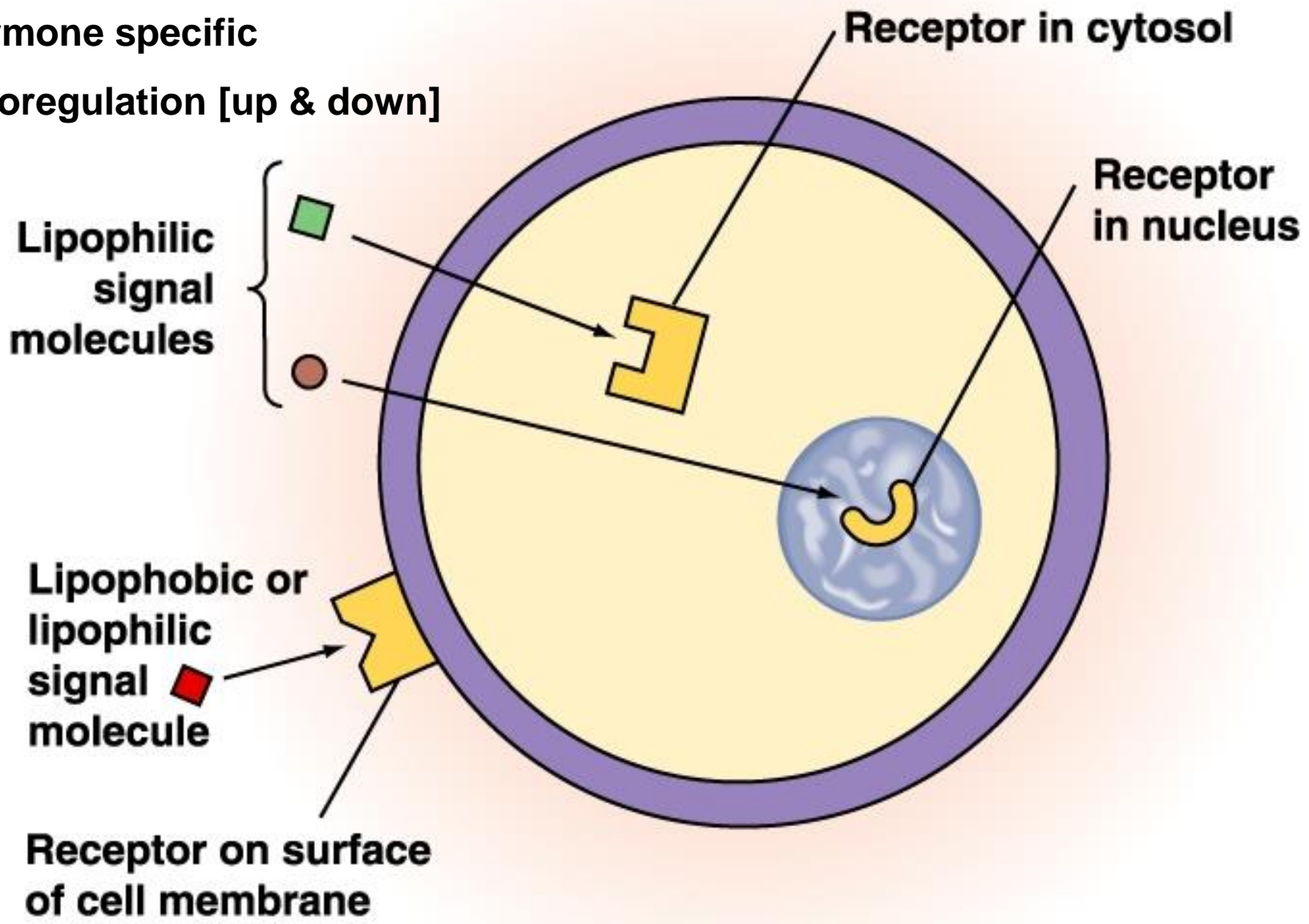


Positive feedback

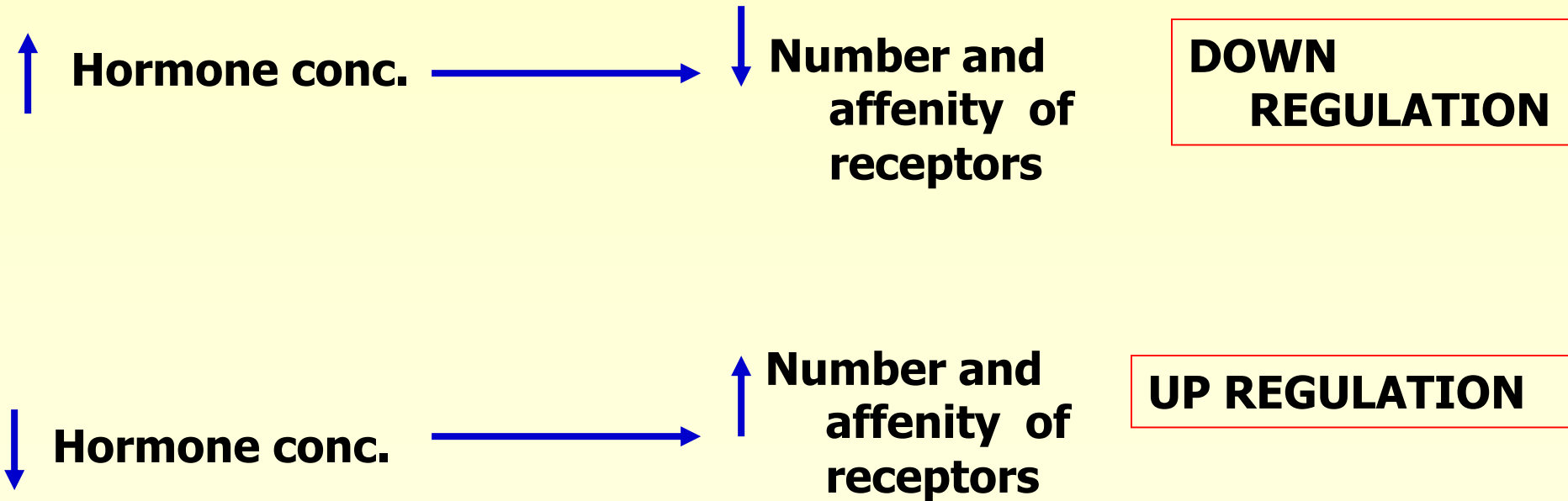




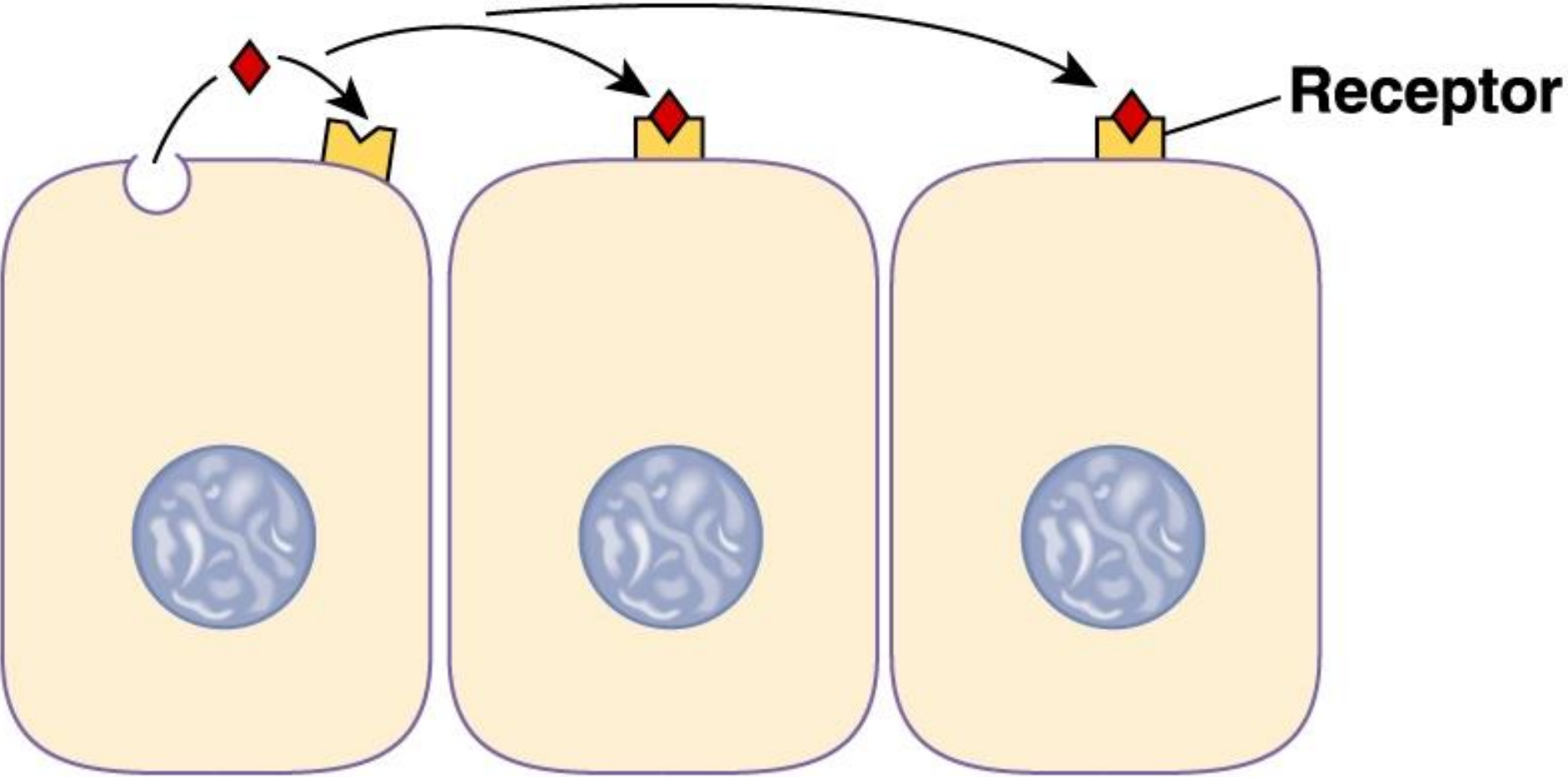
- High mol.wt
- Hormone specific
- Autoregulation [up & down]



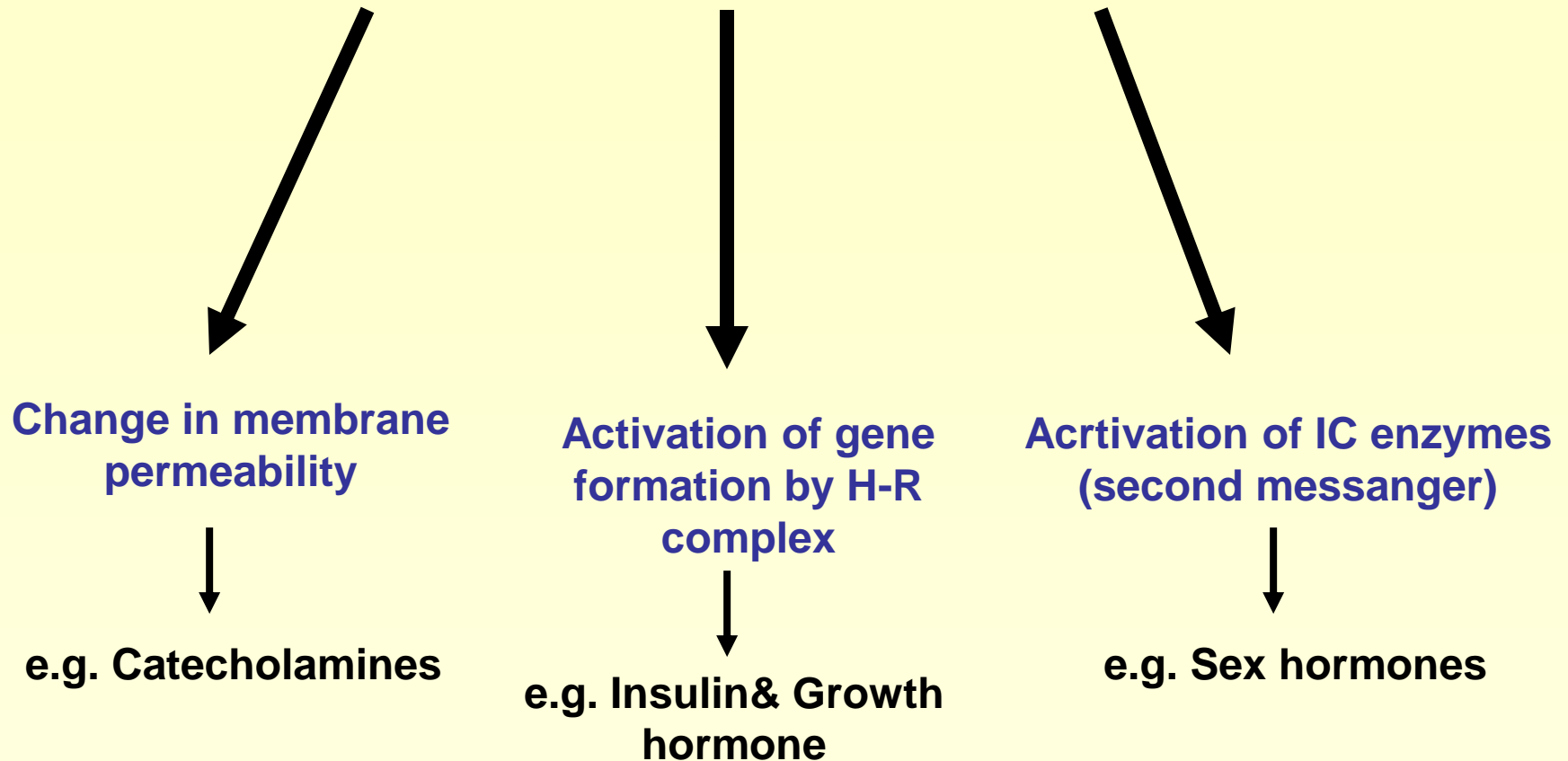
Auto Regulation of receptors :



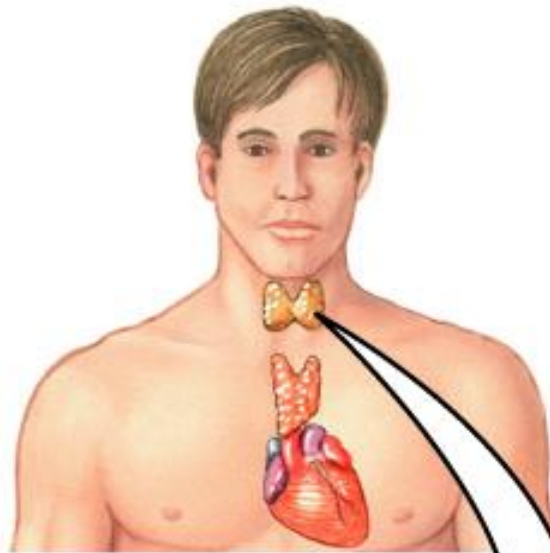
Autocrine and paracrine signals



Mechanism of action of hormones



The Thyroid Gland

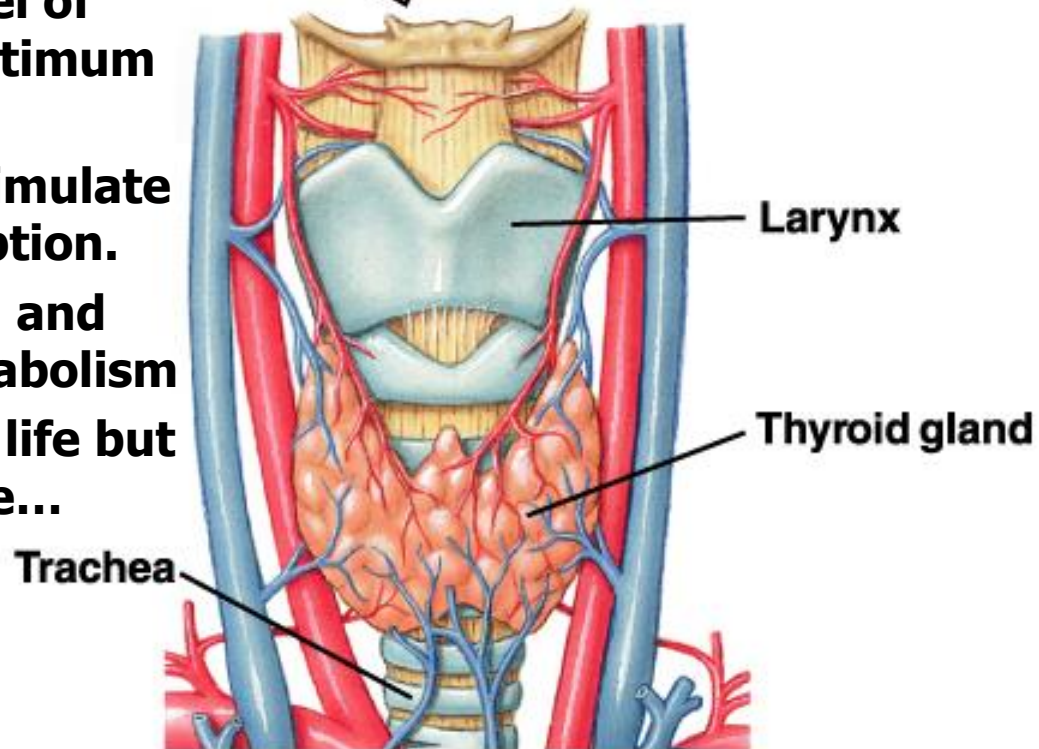


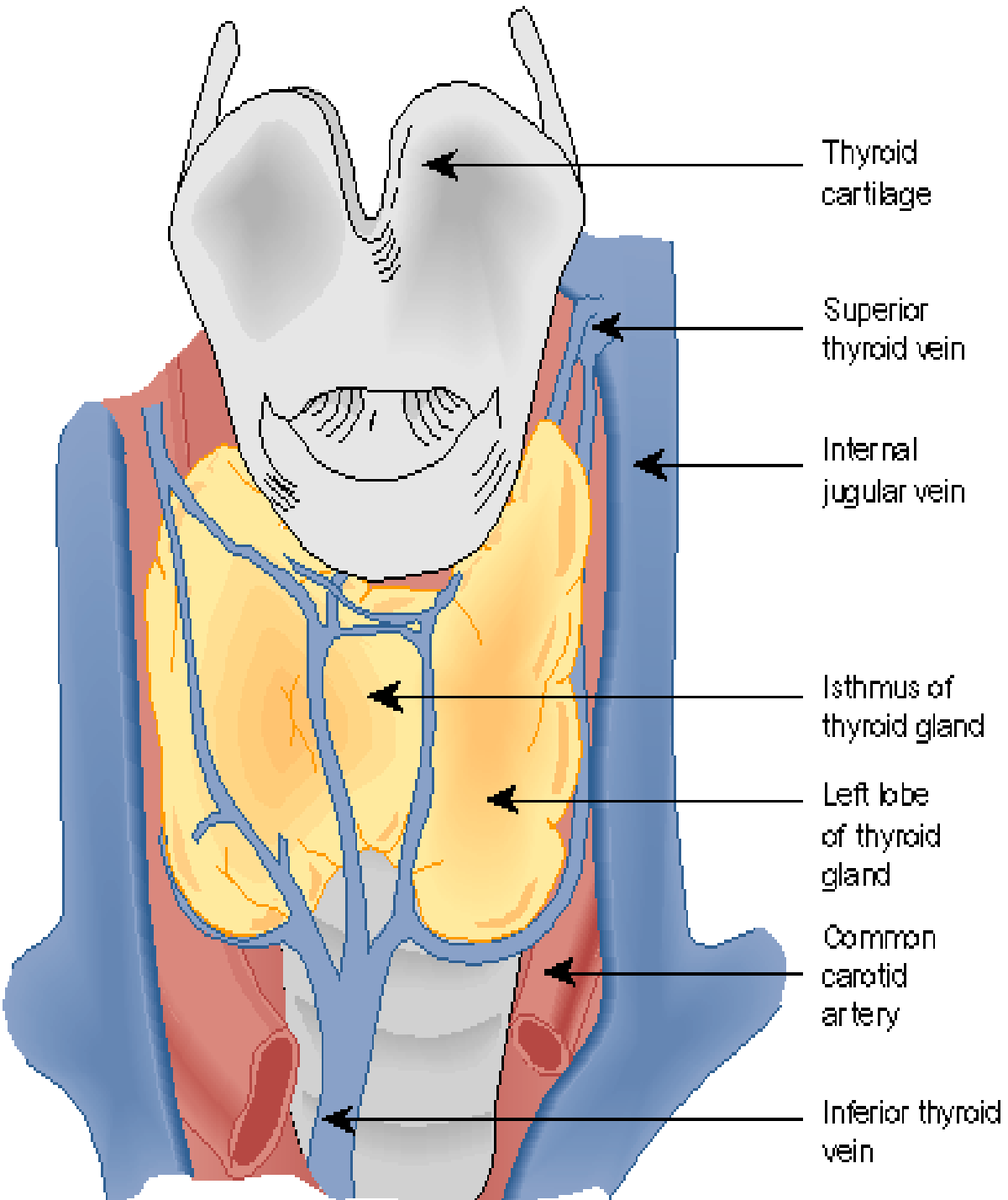
Maintains the level of metabolism at optimum level

Thyroid hormones stimulate the O₂ consumption.

Regulation of lipid and carbohydrate metabolism

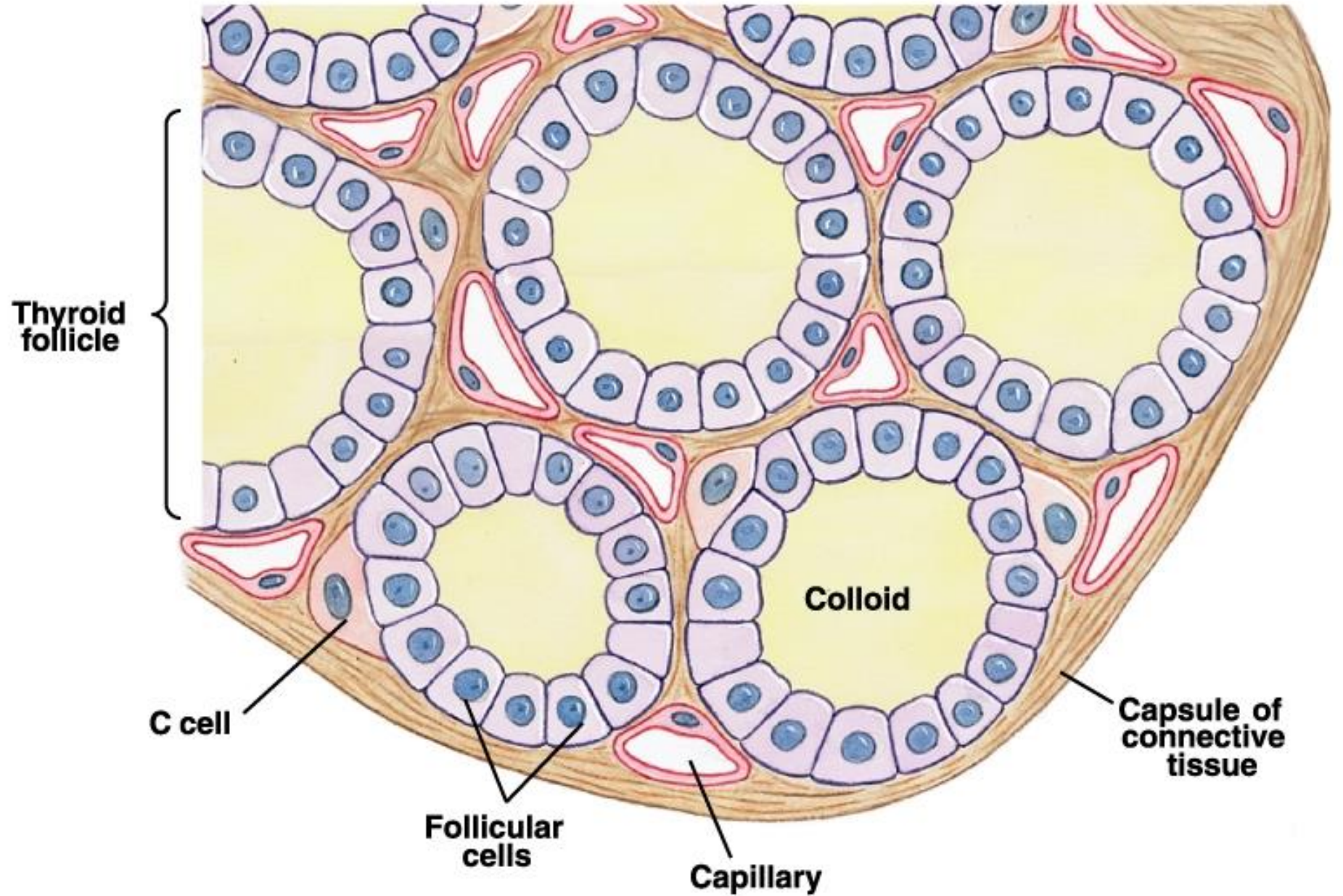
It is not essential for life but in it's absence...





- **In adults**
- **Two lateral lobes**
- **Isthmus;**
level of 2nd – 3rd
tracheal rings.
- **The highest rate of blood**
flow

Section of thyroid gland



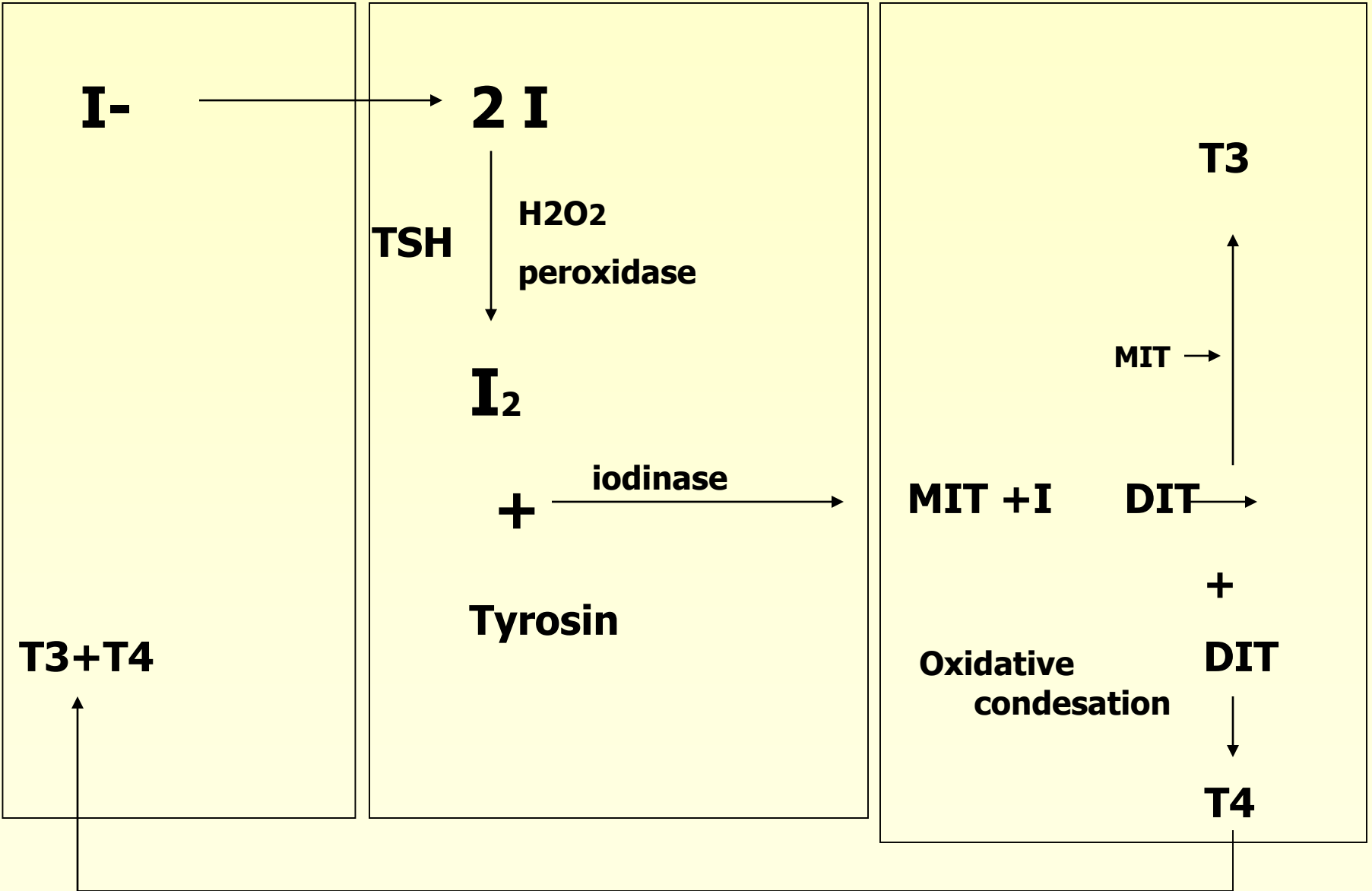
Functions of thyroid cells:

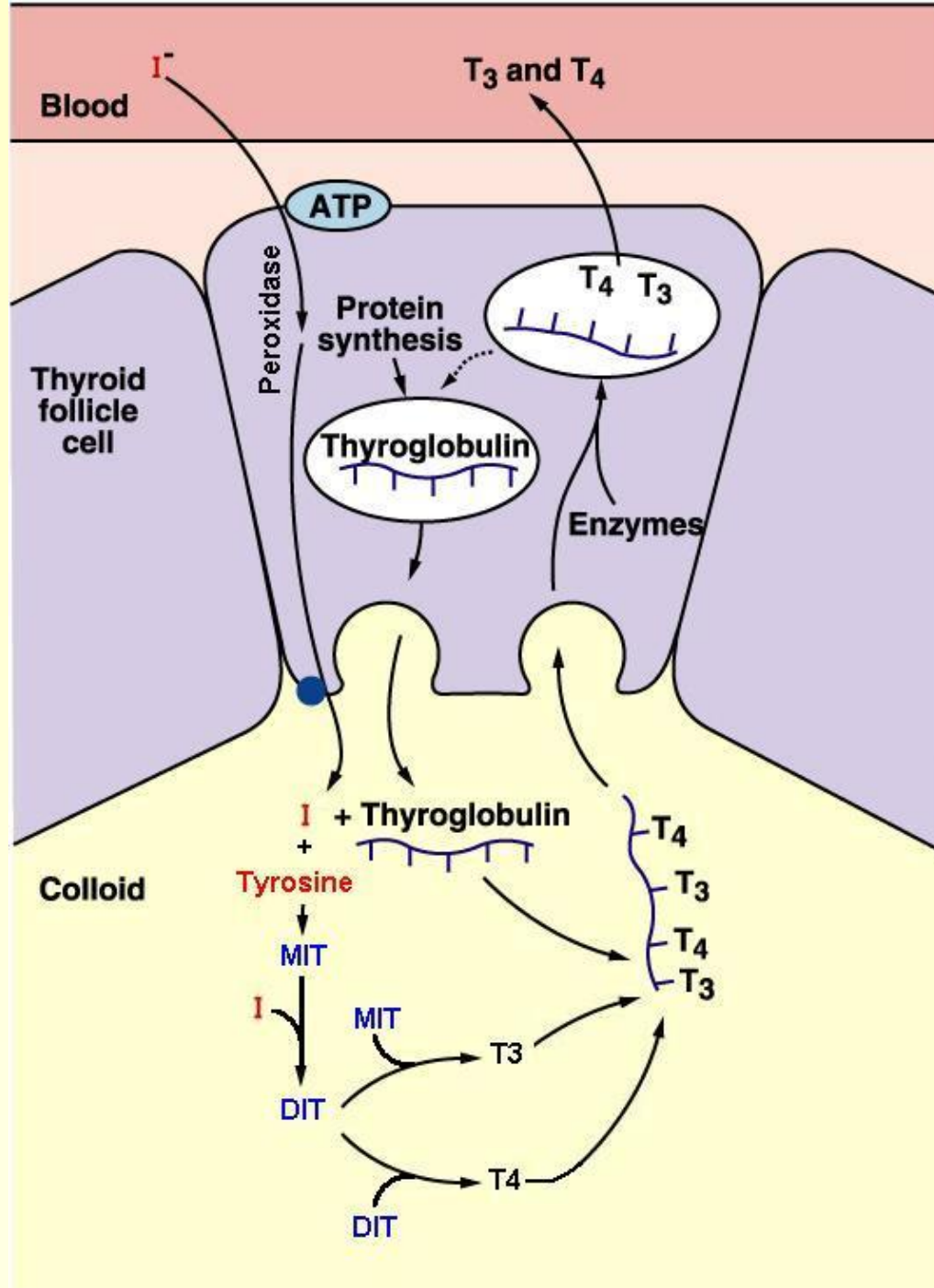
1. Collect and transport of iodine (iodine pump).
2. Synthesize and secrete thyroglobulin into the colloid .
- 3 .Remove T3 and T4 from thyroglobulin back to the circulation.
4. Formation of thyroid hormones.

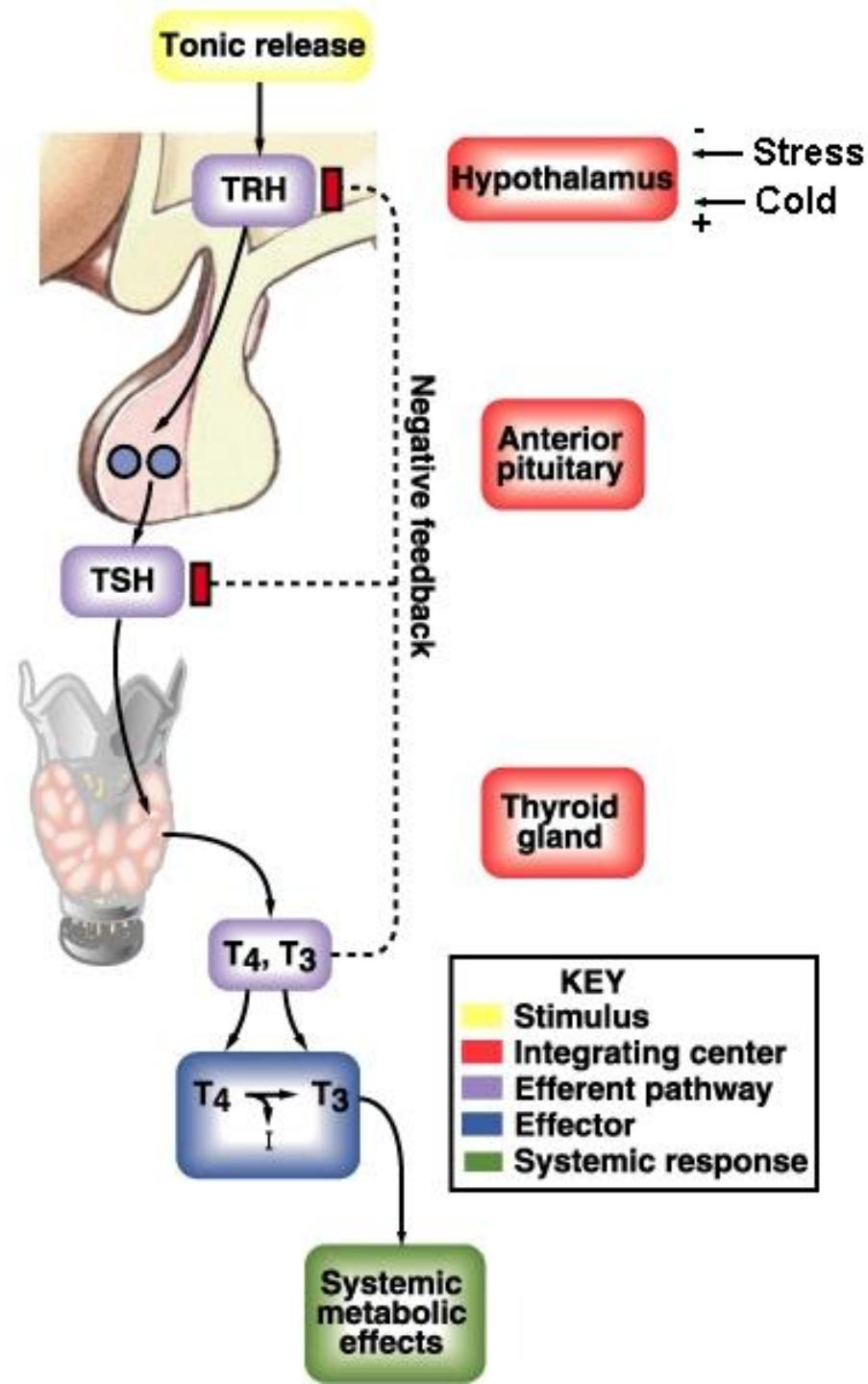
Blood

thyroid cell

colloid

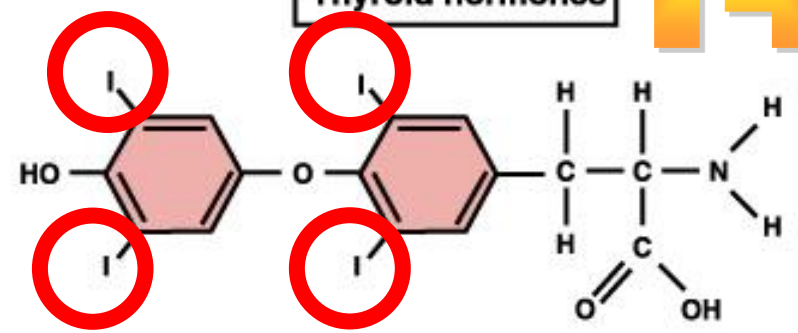
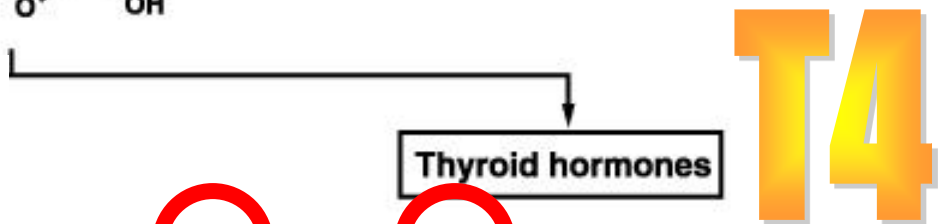
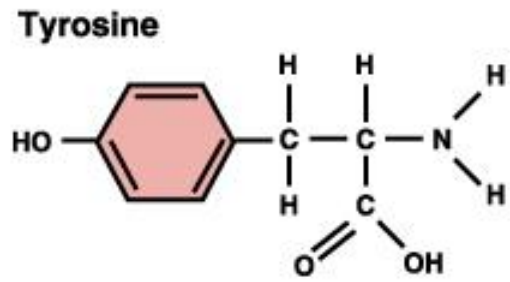




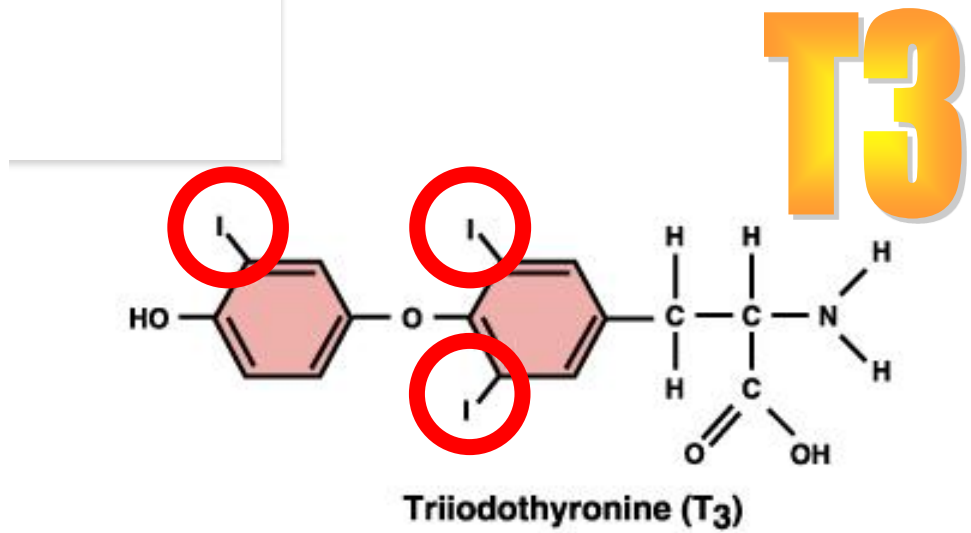


T4

- Less potent than T3
- inert metabolically
- Mostly converted to T3 and RT3 (Reversed T3, inactive) in tissue.
- T4 is the major precursor of T3.
- T4 has the major role in feedback mechanism



Thyroxine (Tetraiodothyronine, T4)



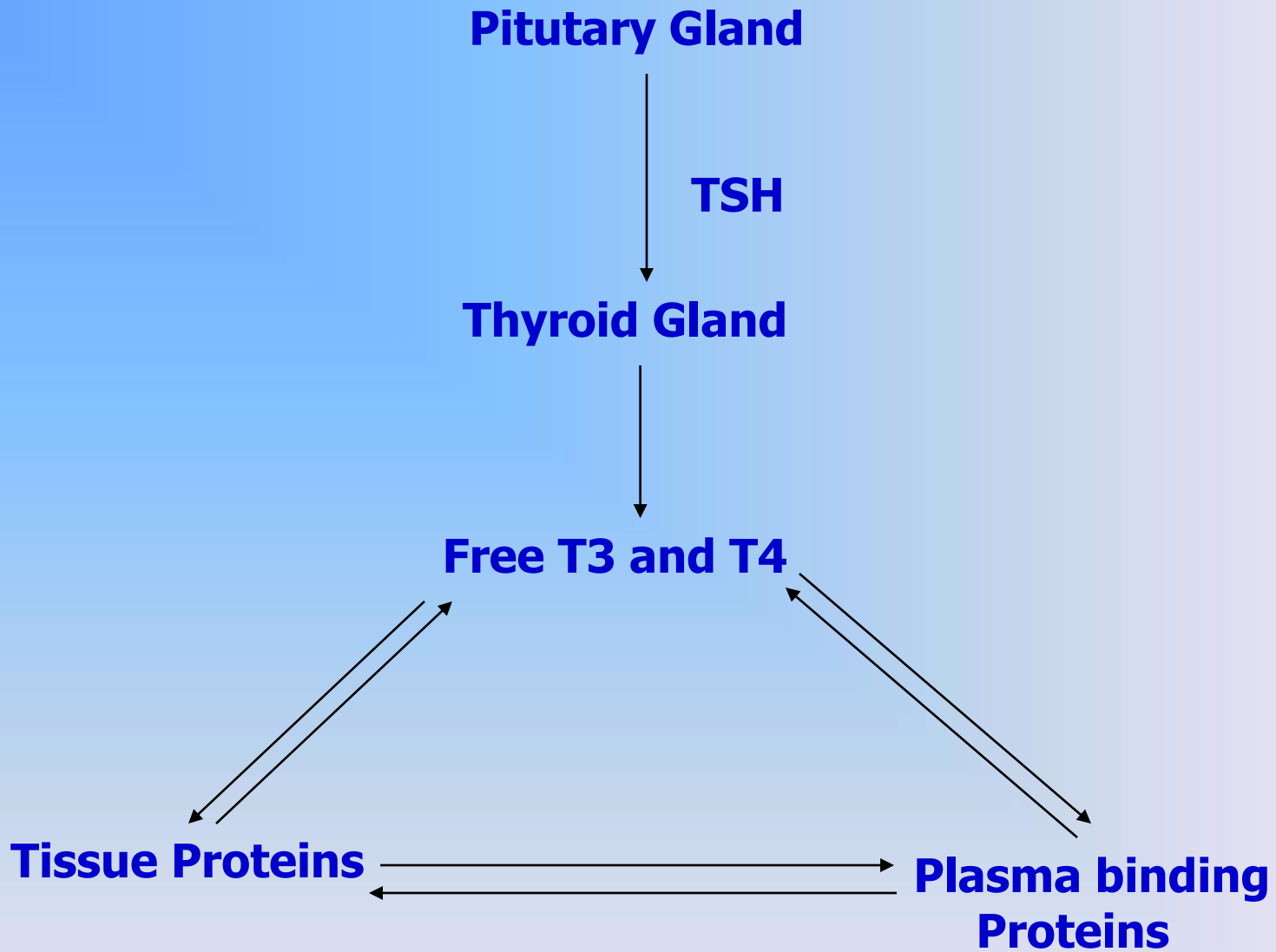
Triiodothyronine (T3)

The total normal plasma T4 level is **8 $\mu\text{g/dl}$** and for T3 is **0.15 $\mu\text{g/dl}$** .

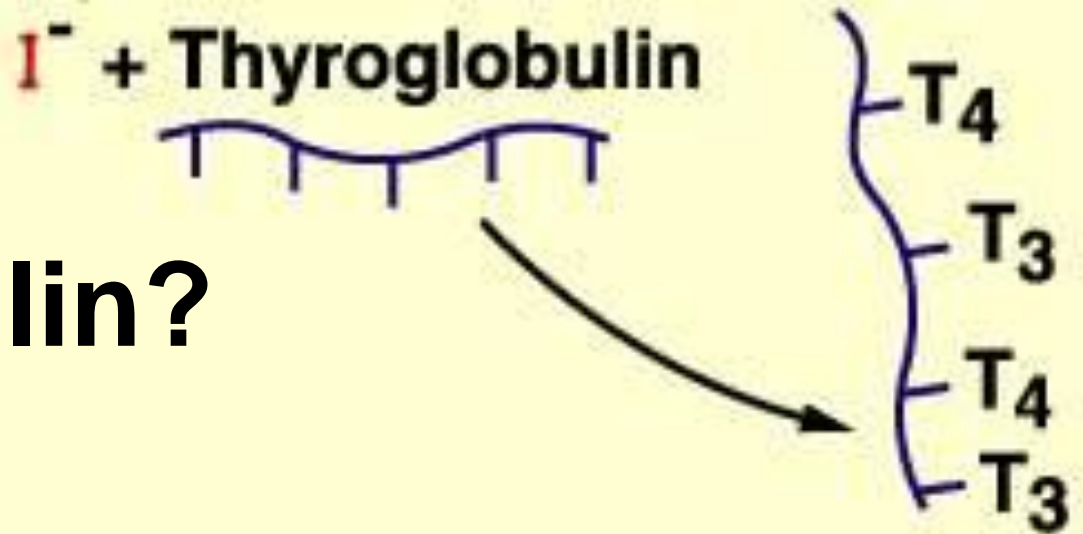
However,

the free circulating levels of T3 and T4 are much less than the total levels,

this is because most (99%) of T4 and T3 are bound to plasma proteins (albumin, thyroxine binding prealbumin [TBPA] and thyroxine binding globulin [TBG]).



What is Thyroglobulin?



- Is a **glycoprotein** made up of two subunits, with 140 tyrosine residue.
- It is synthesized in the **thyroid cells** and secreted into the colloid by exocytosis of granules that also contain thyroid peroxidase.
- **Thyroid hormones remain bound to Thyroglobulin until secreted.**

TSH Control of Thyroid Gland

- Rapid Effects (2-5 min.):
 - +Ca⁺⁺, +cAMP
 - + Colloid Reabsorption
- Intermediate Effects (10-30min.):
 - +Blood Flow to thyroid (vasodilatation)
 - +Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase Activity
 - +Na⁺ Transport into Thyroid
- Slow Effects (+/- 2 hours)
 - +Glucose Uptake & Utilization
 - +Iodide Transport
 - +O₂ Uptake & Utilization
 - +A. A. Uptake, + RNA, +DNA, +Prot. Synt.

TSH Control of Thyroid Gland

- Long Term Effects (Days, Weeks, Months):
 - +Blood Supply
 - +Number of Cells (hyperplasia)
 - +Size of Cells (hypertrophy)
 - +Amount of Colloid
- **SUMMARY**
 - +TH output, +TH Synthesis & Storage

THYROID HORMONE'S EFFECTS

1. CALOROGENIC: INCREASED HEAT PRODUCTION

Due to increase O₂ consumption (by increasing synthesis & activity of Na-K pump)

Except

Adult brain, retina, uterus, testes, LN, spleen, & lungs

THYROID HORMONE'S EFFECTS

2. METABOLIC EFFECTS: INCREASED BMR

- Increase protein anabolism & catabolism → Inc. N₂ exc.
- Increase fat catabolism
- Decrease levels of cholesterol, phospholipids, & TG (increase LDL)

THYROID HORMONE'S EFFECTS

- **Increase Glucose absorption by GIT, stimulates its uptake, Inc. glycolysis and gluconeogenesis (diabetic OGTT curve)**

3. Effect on nervous system:

Blood flow, O₂ consumption, & glucose are not affected by Thyroid Hormones. The effect of Thyroid H. on the brain is due to increase responsiveness to catecholamines (increase Reticular System Activity)

3. Effect on nervous system:

- Restlessness, crowds of thought, irritability , excess of activity and movement , increase tendon reflexes , nervousness .
- In opposite decrease thyroid hormones leads to slow movement , fatigue , slow mentation , reduced and prolonged reflexes and depression .

4. Effect on CVS:

Increase number and affinity of beta receptors leading to increase response to catecholamines → increased heart rate (tachycardia & palpitation) , increase systolic BP, increase cardiac output, decrease diastolic BP(wide pulse pressure), tremor, increase sleeping pulse ,

5. Other effects:

- **Enhances GH secretion(timing)**
- **Increases insulin secretion**
- **Increases 2,3 diphospho glycerol(DPG)
, Increases rate & depth of respiration**
- **Increases milk secretion, stimulates metabolism of uterus (amenorrhea in thyrotoxicosis & menorrhagia in hypothyrodism)**
- **In male changes in thyroxin level lead to loss of libido & impotence**

Goiter

Defined as any increase in the size of the thyroid gland which could be diffuse goiter or nodular goiter irrespective to the level of thyroid hormone secretion .

GOITER

❖ Normal thyroid secretion:

1-Physiological

2-Endemic

3- Multinodular goiter

❖ Low thyroid secretion :

1-Hashitmoto thyroiditis

❖ Increased thyroid secretion:

1- Graves' disease

Physiological Goiter

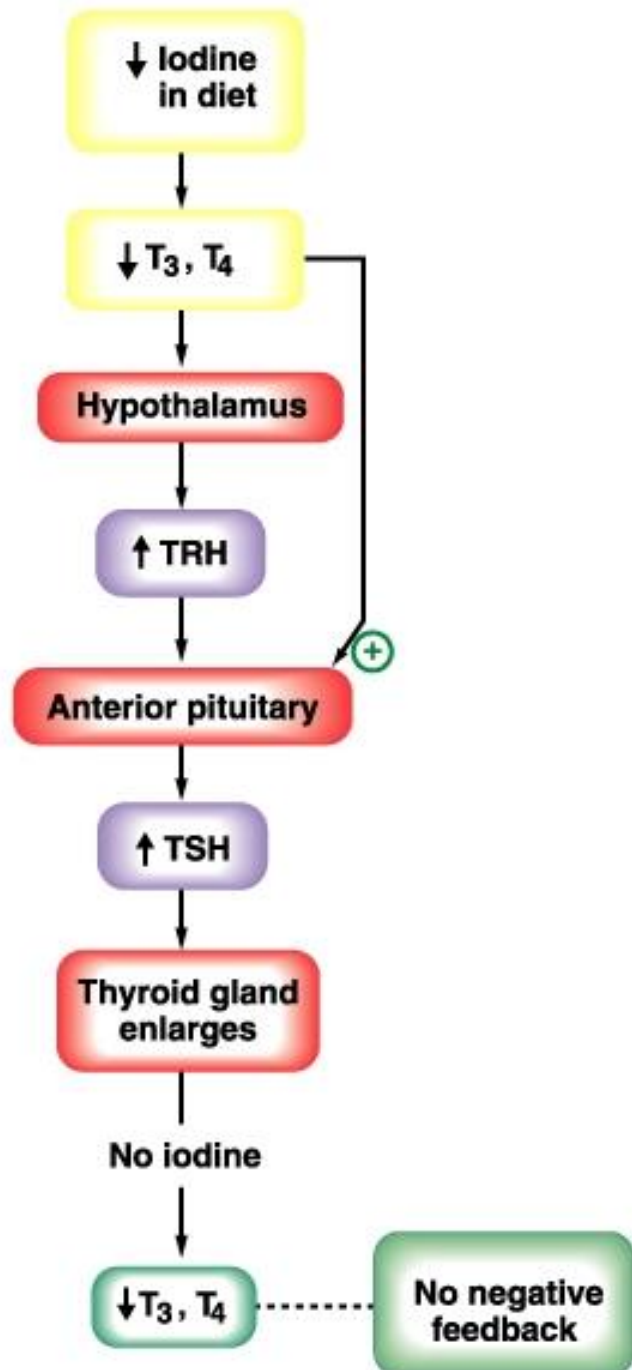
Occurs due to increase stress and increase demand for T3 and T4 necessary for growth.

e.g. puberty &
Pregnancy

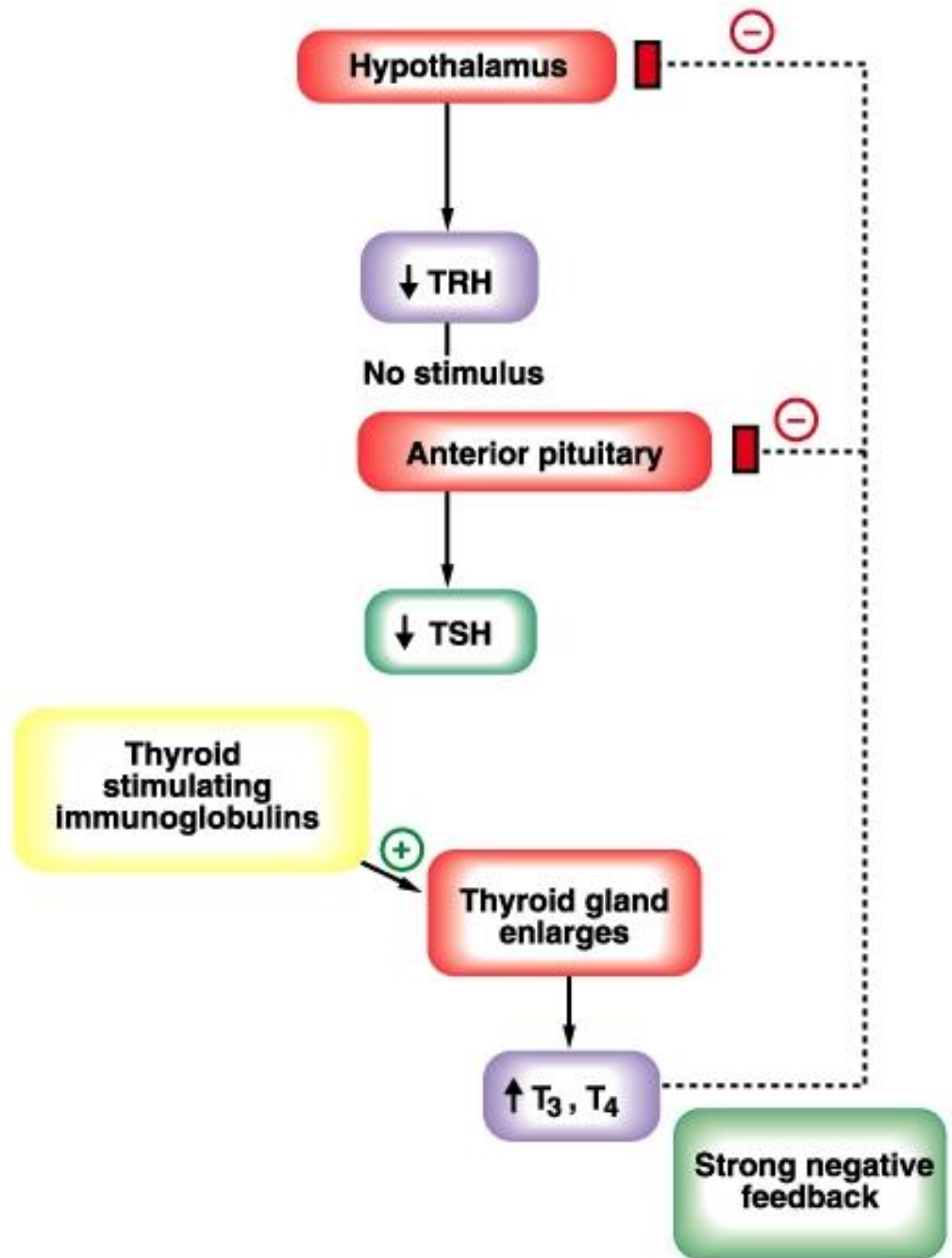
Endemic Goiter

When the dietary intake is less than $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{day}$, the thyroid hormone synthesis is inadequate and T3 and T4 levels decline. As a result TSH is stimulated leading the thyroid to be hypertrophied producing an iodine deficiency endemic goiter which may be very large. It occurs in certain areas around the great lakes and in inland areas where the iodine is leached out of the soil by the rain so food will be grown in the soil is iodine deficient.

Hypothyroidism due to low iodine

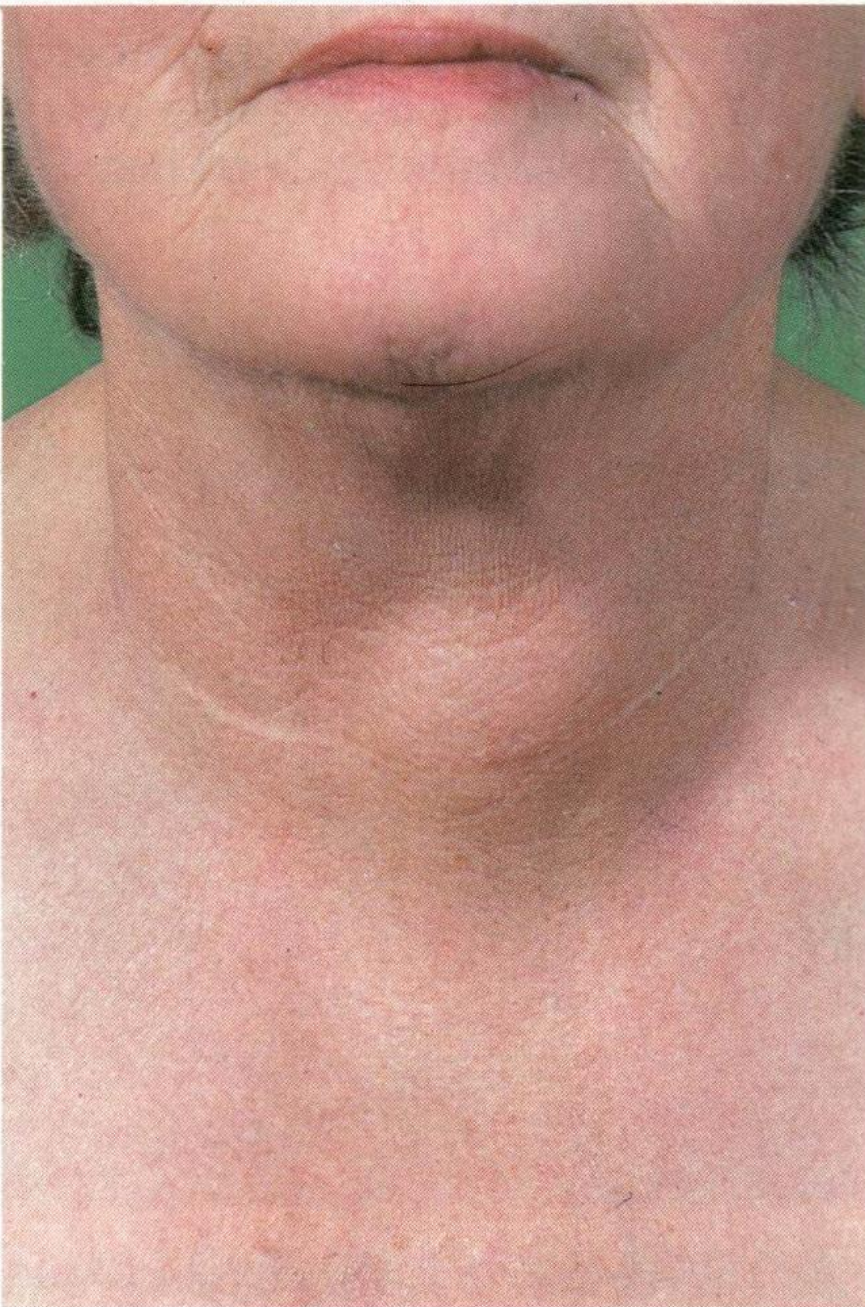


Hyperthyroidism due to Graves' disease

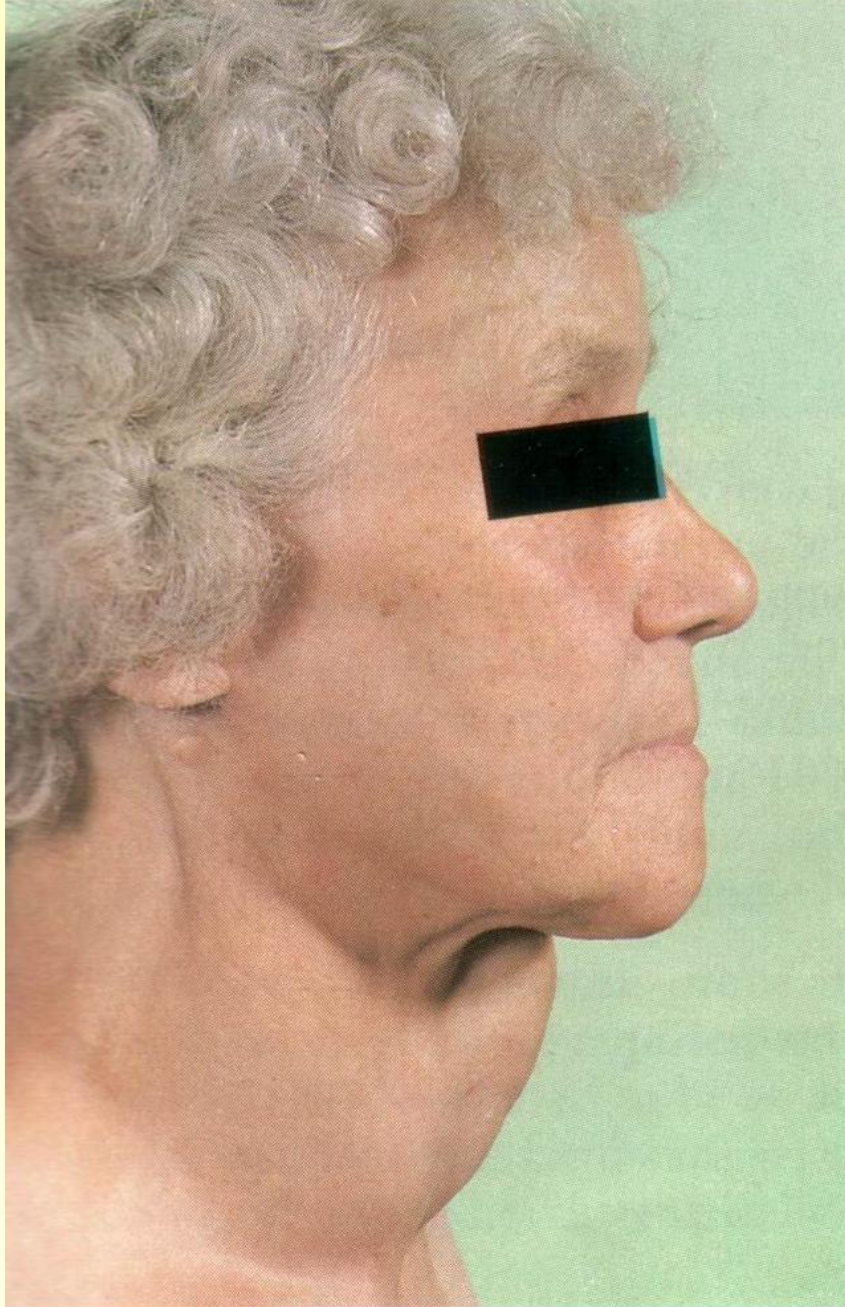


ABNORMALITIES OF THYROID FUNCTION

- HYPO
 - REDUCED BMR
 - POOR TOLERANCE OF COLD
 - GAIN OF WEIGHT
 - FATIGUE
 - SLOW, WEAK PULSE
 - SLOW REFLEXES AND MENTATION
 - MYXEDEMA
 - GOITER
 - CRETINISM
- HYPER
 - GRAVE'S DISEASE:TSI
 - EXOPHTALMOS
 - GOITER



7.64 Toxic adenoma causing hyperthyroidism. This patient had a partial thyroidectomy 20 years previously, and a toxic nodule has now recurred. This was confirmed by isotope scanning.



7.71 Multinodular goitre. The patient was euthyroid, but surgical treatment was ultimately required because of retrosternal extension with tracheal compression.



7.66 Hypothyroidism is not always clinically obvious. This patient shows some facial features, with a generalised pallor, puffiness and coarsening of the features, and coarse, uncontrollable hair. She was grossly hypothyroid on biochemical testing.



7.67 Gross clinical hypothyroidism produces characteristic non-pitting oedematous changes in the skin of the face, giving rise to a characteristic clinical appearance. Note the dry, puffy facial appearance and the coarse hair. This patient was admitted with hypothermia. Her skin was cold and she showed mental apathy.



7.68 Hair loss is a common feature of hypothyroidism, as in this 48-year-old woman.



7.69 Hashimoto's disease is the most common cause of goitrous hypothyroidism in the world and is much more common in women than in men. This teenage patient has a marked goitre but few obvious signs of hypothyroidism. She is rather unusual, as the condition is much more common in older women.



7.70 Endemic goitre. Large goitres like this are not unusual in areas of iodine deficiency, but they are not always associated with hypothyroidism. This African patient was euthyroid.



7.56 Graves' disease. This usually affects women between the ages of 20 and 40 years. This patient presented classically with a diffuse goitre over which a vascular bruit could be heard, and with eye signs.



7.57 Pretibial myxoedema in Graves' disease. When this sign occurs, it may be combined with thyroid acropachy, in which there is oedema of the nail folds, producing a condition resembling clubbing.



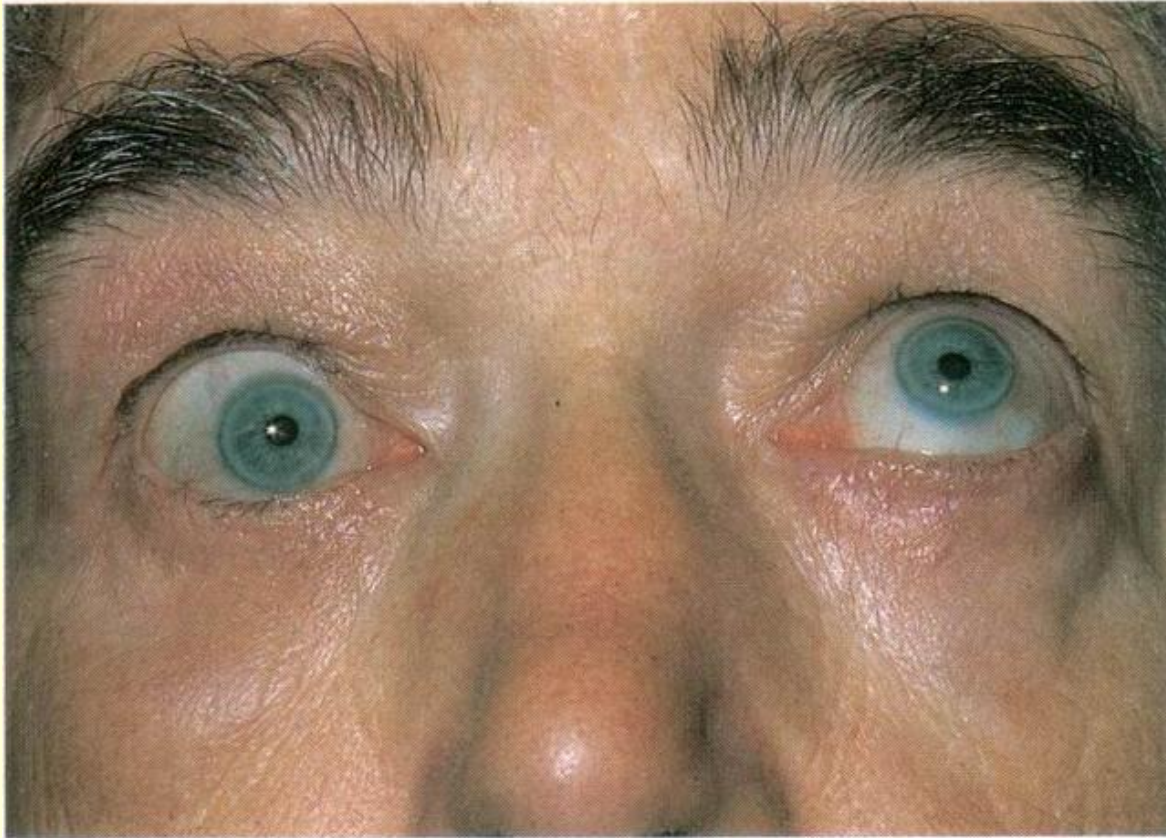
7.58 Exophthalmos (proptosis) in Graves' disease. This results from enlargement of the muscles, and fat within the orbit as a result of mucopolysaccharide infiltration.



7.59 Lid retraction is a common eye sign in Graves' disease, which can be recognised when the sclera is visible between the lower margin of the upper lid and the cornea. Lid retraction is usually bilateral, but may be unilateral.



7.60 Periorbital swelling may be associated with other eye signs, giving an erythematous and oedematous appearance to the eyelids. Note that this patient also has chemosis, seen as reddening of the sclera.



7.62 Ophthalmoplegia in Graves' disease. This is not caused by nerve palsy, but is the long-term result of swelling and infiltration of the extrinsic muscles of the eye. In this case, there is impaired upward and outward gaze in the patient's right eye. Ophthalmoplegia is usually accompanied by other eye signs. Note the presence of lid retraction. This patient also has marked corneal arcus.