

Translating...

အရေပြားအပူချိန်ပြောင်းလဲခြင်း

core အပူချိန်ပြောင်းလဲခြင်း

အရပ်စွမ်း
thermoreceptors များ
အရေပြား၌

ဗဟို
thermoreceptors များ
hypothalamus တွင်၊
ဝမ်းဗိုက်အင်္ဂါများ၊
နှင့်အခြားနေရာများ

Hypothalamic စင်တာများ
thermoregulation အတွက်
(ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အပူထိန်းကိရိယာ)

မော်တာအာရုံခံ

ကိုယ်ချင်းစာတယ်
အာရုံကြော

ကိုယ်ချင်းစာတယ်
အာရုံကြော

အရိုးအကြောများ

ကြွက်သားများကိုချောမွေ့စေသည့်
အရေပြား၌သွေးလွှတ်ကြောများ

ဈေးကလေးများ

ဆန့်အလျှောက်
နှုတ်ပြောင်းအလျား
အပြုအမူ

ကြွက်သားလေသံ၊
တုန်လှုပ်နေသည့်

Vasoconstriction
သွေးကြောပိတ်ခြင်း

ဈေးထွက်ခြင်း

ချိန်ညှိမှုများ
အပူပို
ထုတ်လုပ်မှု
သို့မဟုတ်အပူဆုံးရှုံးခြင်း

ပြုပြင်ပြောင်းလဲမှုများ
ကြွက်သားလှုပ်ရှားမှု
(ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်တွင်
အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှု)

ချိန်ညှိခြင်း
ဆုံးရှုံးခြင်းသို့မဟုတ်
ထိန်းသိမ်းရေး
အပူ၏

ချိန်ညှိခြင်း
အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှု

• 17-5 အဓိက thermoregulatory လမ်းကြောင်းများ။

duce ၎င်းကိုထပ်မံကန့်သတ်သည်။ ဒုတိယအချက်မှာခန္ဓာကိုယ်အမြင့်
ture သည်ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုနှုန်းကိုမြှင့်တက်စေသည်။

THERMOGENESIS ကို တုံ့ပြန်မှု မရှိသော်လည်း တွင်းလည်း တုံ့ပြန်မှုမရှိသော်လည်း။
ကြွက်သားလှုပ်ရှားမှုများတွင် tary အပြောင်းအလဲများသည်တိုးလာစေသောအဓိကအပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုများဖြစ်သည်။

အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုနှုန်းကိုမ နှောင့်နှေးစေသော (ဓာတုဗေဒနည်း) thermogenesis သည် thermoregulation အတွက်အခန်း ကဏ္ဍ တစ်ခုလည်းဖြစ်သည်။
စမ်းသပ်ဆဲတီရိစ္ဆာန်များ၊ နာတာရှည်အအေးထိတွေ့မှုသည်အကြောင်းတစ်ခုဖြစ်စေသော skin vasoconstriction၊
အမှီအခိုကင်းသောဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်ဆိုင်ရာအပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုတိုးစေသည်။
ကြွက်သားများကျုံ့ခြင်း၊ အပြောင်းအလဲများကြောင့်ဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသည့်
အပူဓာတ်ထုတ်ပေးသောဓာတုဗေဒလုပ်ဆောင်ချက် လူသားများတွင်မတူနဲ့လုပ်ပါ။
မွေးကင်းစကလေးများအတွက် thermogenesis သည်အရေးကြီးဆုံးဖြစ်သည့်
တုန်လှုပ်နိုင်စွမ်းမရှိခြင်း။ မတူနဲ့မလုပ် thermogenesis သည် medi
epinephrine ဟော်မုန်းနှင့်သိုးဗျိုက်ဟော်မုန်းနှစ်မျိုးလုံးကိုစားသည့်
ငှင်းသည်အဆီဓာတ်ကိုလွှဲဆောင်ပေးခြင်းဖြင့်အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုတိုးစေသည်။
lism ။ မွေးကင်းစတွင်အထူး adipose တစ်သျှူးအမျိုးအစားရှိသည်
အညိုရောင်အဆီ အဖြစ်လူသိများပြီး အထူးသဖြင့်ပြောင်းလဲနိုင်စွမ်းရှိသည့်
ဓာတုစွမ်းအင်သည်အပူထုသို့ မတူနဲ့မလုပ် thermogen- ၏အခန်းကဏ္ဍ
အရွယ်ရောက်ပြီးသူများတွင်အငြင်းပွားစရာဖြစ်နေဆဲဖြစ်သည်။

၆၅၄ အခန်း ၁၇

ကြော်ငြာအတွက်လုပ်ထုံးလုပ်နည်းများကိုလေ့လာပြီးမှ
အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုမျှတအောင်ကျွန်ုပ်တို့ယခုလုပ်ပါ။
ညီမျှခြင်း၏အခြားတစ်ဘက်
အရိုး။

အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုမရှိခြင်းအစီအစဉ်
အရေပြားမှတစ်ဆင့်

Original text

justing heat production, we now turn to the

Contribute a better translation

အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုယန္တရားများသည်
troll တစ်ဖန် hypothalamus ဖြင့်။ ဘယ်တော့လဲ
ငါတို့ကပုတယ်။ အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုတိုးဖို့လိုတယ်
ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်၊ ငါတို့အေးတဲ့အခါငါတို့လိုအပ်တယ်
အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုလျော့ကျစေသည်။ ဆုံးရှုံးသွားသောအပူပမာဏ
ဓာတ်ရောင်ခြည်နှင့်ထိတွေ့မှုဖြင့်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်ကို
convection ကို temm ဖြင့်ဆုံးဖြတ်သည်။
အရေပြားနှင့်အပြင်ပိုင်းကြားရှိ perature gradient
nal ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်။ ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့ဗဟိုအမာခံကတစ်ခုပါ
အပူကိုထုတ်ပေးသောအခန်း
ခန့်မှန်းခြေအားဖြင့်ခန့်မှန်းခြေအားဖြင့်ထိန်းသိမ်းရပါမည်
၁၀၀ ဒီဂရီဖာရင်ဟိုက် အမာခံပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သည် insulating တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်
အကြားအပူပမာဏပေးသောအခွံ
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်နှင့်ပြင်ပပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သည်နေရာယူသည်။
အစဉ်အမြဲ core အပူချိန်ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်၊
အခွံ၏ insulative စွမ်းရည်နှင့်အပူချိန်
အပူချိန်ကိုပြားစေရန်ချိန်ညှိနိုင်သည်
အရေပြားနှင့်ပြင်ပပတ်ဝန်းကျင်အကြား၊
ထို့ကြောင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုအတိုင်းအတာကိုလွှမ်းမိုးသည်။
အခွံ၏ insulative capacity သည်ဖြစ်နိုင်သည်
သွေးစီးဆင်းမှုပမာဏကိုထိန်းချုပ်ခြင်းဖြင့်ကြိုပြားသည်။
အရေပြားမှတစ်ဆင့် အရေပြားသွေးစီးဆင်းမှုကိုဆောင်ရွက်ပေးသည်
function နှစ်ခု ပထမ ဦး စွာ၎င်းသည်အာဟာရဖြစ်စေသည်
အရေပြားသို့သွေးထောက်ပံ့မှု။ ဒုတိယအချက်မှာအသားအရေ
သွေးစီးဆင်းမှုသည်အပူချိန်၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ဖြစ်သည်
စည်းမျဉ်း ပုံမှန်အခန်းအပူချိန်တွင် ၂၀ မှ
အရေပြားမှတစ်ဆင့်သွေး ၃၀ ဆပိုစီးသည်
အရေပြားအာဟာရအတွက်လိုအပ်သည်ထက် လုပ်ငန်းစဉ်၌
thermoregulation ၏အရေပြားသွေးစီးဆင်းမှုသည်ကြိုပြားနိုင်သည်
၄၀၀ မီလီလီတာ/မိနစ်မှ ၂၅၀၀ အထိ

ml/မိနစ် သွေးများပိုမိုနှေးထွေးလာသည်မှအရေပြားသို့ရောက်သည်
core, အရေပြား၏အပူချိန်သည် core အပူချိန်နှင့်ပိုနီးစပ်သည်။
အရေပြား၏သွေးကြောများသည်အရေပြား၏ထိရောက်မှုကိုကျဆင်းစေသည့်
insulator မှ insulator တစ်ခုသည်မျက်နှာပြင်ပေါ်သို့အပူ တင်၍ ဆုံးရှုံးနိုင်သည်
တိုးပွားလာစေသောအရေပြား arteriolar vasodilation ကိုခွင့်ပြုသည်
အရေပြားမှတစ်ဆင့်အပူစီးဆင်းမှုသည်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုတိုးစေသည်။ အကွန်း
အေးစက်။ သွေးမရှိသောအသားအရေသည်အလွန်အလွန် ကျန်းမာသော skin vasoconstriction၊
နှေးထွေးသောသွေးကိုဗဟိုပြုထားရှိခြင်းဖြင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုလျော့နည်းစေသည်
core သည်၎င်းကိုပြင်ပပတ်ဝန်းကျင်မှ insulated နေရာတွင်ရှိသည်။ ဒီ
တုံ့ပြန်မှုသည်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။
အေးစက်။ သွေးမရှိသောအသားအရေသည်အလွန်ကောင်းမွန်သော insulating insulating ကိုပေးသည်။
core နှင့်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်ကိုမြှင့်တင်ပါ။ သို့သော်အသားအရေသည်တစ် ဦး မဟုတ်
အများဆုံး vasoconstriction နှင့်ပင်လျှင်ပြီးပြည့်စုံသော insulator ငြား
အရေပြားသို့သွေးစီးဆင်းမှုအနည်းဆုံးဖြစ်သော်လည်းအချို့သောအပူများသည်ကူးစက်နိုင်သည်။
ပိုမိုနက်ရှိုင်းသောကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါများမှအရေပြားမျက်နှာပြင်သို့ပို့ဆောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်အေးပေးသည်
ထို့နောက်အရေပြားမှပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သို့ဆုံးရှုံးနိုင်သည်။
ဤအရေပြား vasomotor တုံ့ပြန်မှုကို hy- မှပေါင်းစပ်သည်။
pothalamus သည်ကိုယ်ချင်းစာတစ်ခုဖြစ်သောအာရုံကြောစနစ်မှတစ်ဆင့်ထုတ်လွှတ်သည်။

စာမျက်နှာ ၂

AB ဇယား ၁၇-၄

အအေးသို့မဟုတ်အပူထိတွေ့မှုတုံ့ပြန်မှုအတွက်ညှိနှိုင်းညှိနှိုင်းမှုများ

ထိတွေ့မှုအားစေ့စပ်တုံ့ပြန်မှု
(ပုံစံအားဖြင့်ညှိနှိုင်းသည်
ဟစ်ပိုလာမာတ်)

ထိတွေ့မှုကိုအပူပေးရန်တုံ့ပြန်ပါ
(ANTERIOR မှညှိနှိုင်းသည်
ဟစ်ပိုလာမာတ်)

အပူမြင့်တက်လာသည်
ထုတ်လုပ်ခြင်း

အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုလျော့နည်းသည်
(အပူထိန်းသိမ်းရေး)

အပူလျော့လာသည်
ထုတ်လုပ်ခြင်း

တိုးလာတယ်
အပူဆုံးရှုံးခြင်း

ကြက်သားသံတိုးလာသည် ခိုက်ခိုက်တုန်နေသည် စေတနာအလျောက်လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်ခြင်း* မတူနဲ့လုပ်သော thermogenesis *အမှူးအကူအညီလိုက်လျော့ထိတွေ့ခြင်းအောင်မပါ	အရေပြား vasoconstriction Postural အပြောင်းအလဲများထိတွေ့မှုကိုလျော့ချရန် မျက်နှာပြင်အကျယ်အဝန်း (ပန်းများကိုဖိခြင်း၊ စသည်)* အနွေးထည်*	ကြက်သားသံလျော့ကျသွားသည် စိတ်ဆန္ဒလေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလျော့ကျခြင်း	အရေပြားသွေးကြောစိတ်ခြင်း ချွေးထွက်ခြင်း အဝတ်အစားအေး
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Translating...

အရေပြားမှသွေးလွှတ်ကြောများသို့ကျယ်ချင်းစာတရားလုပ်ဆောင်မှုကိုတိုးမြှင့်ပေးအရေပြားမျက်နှာပြင်နှင့်အကြားလွှပ်စီးကြောင်းမကောင်းသောအလွှာအအေးထိတွေ့မှုကိုတုံ့ပြန်သည့်အနေဖြင့်အပူကိုထိန်းသိမ်းသော vasoconstriction ထိကြောင့်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်အကြား insulating barrier ကိုတိုးစေသည်ကိုယ်ချင်းစာစိတ်ထားမှုကူဆင်းခြင်းသည်အပူဆုံးရှုံးခြင်းကိုဖြစ်စေသည် core နှင့် cold air တို့ကိုအပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုလျော့ချပေးသည်။ ဒါတောင်မှအပူထိတွေ့မှုကိုတုံ့ပြန်သောအနေဖြင့်ကြွတ်တန်ဆာများကို vasodilation လုပ်သည်အအေးပြပွဲအားတုံ့ပြန်သည့်အနေဖြင့်ဆံပင်နှင့်ကြက်သားကျားကျားသည်။ medulla ရှိနည်းသွေးကြောထိန်းချုပ်ရေးဌာနကိုသတ်ရပါ။
အရေပြား၏သွေးလွှတ်ကြောများ (အပြင်သွေးလွှတ်ကြောများ) ကိုလည်းထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်ရှိသည့်ဆံပင်အပူများစုစည်းသည့်ဆန့်သောနွေးထည်မှု အဲဒီမှာ-ခန္ဓာကိုယ်တစ်လျှောက်လုံး) ကိုယ်ချင်းစာစိတ်ထိန်းညှိပေးခြင်းဖြင့် သွေးပေါင်ချိန်ထိန်းညှိခြင်းရည်ရွယ်ချက်အတွက်ဤရေယာဉ်များသို့ကြည့်ပါ။
p ၃၇၈)။ သန့်စင်မှုအတွက်အရေပြားသွေးလွှတ်ကြောများပေါ်တွင် Hypothalamic အထိန်းချုပ်မှုထိတွေ့မှုကိုလည်းကောင်း၊
အပူချိန်ထိန်းညှိမှုပုံစံသည် cardio ထက် ပိုစားပေးသည်။
ဤသွေးကြောများထိန်းချုပ်သည့်ဌာန၏ထိန်းချုပ်မှု (စာမျက်နှာ ၃၈၀ ကိုကြည့်ပါ)။ ထိတွေ့မှုအတတ်နိုင်ဆုံးလျော့နည်းစေသော tural အပြောင်းအလဲများထိကြောင့်သွေးပေါင်ချိန်အပြောင်းအလဲများသည်သိသာထင်ရှားသောအသံများကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။
ပိုမိုတိုးပွားလာသောအရေပြား vasomotor တုံ့ပြန်မှု ဥပမာအားဖြင့်သွေးထိန်းအလွန်ပူသောပတ်ဝန်းကျင်နှင့်ထိတွေ့နိုင်သည့်မှာသေချာသည်။
hypothalamic သီအိုရီအရအရေပြားပေါ်တွင် vasodilator တုံ့ပြန်မှုကိုသတ်မှတ်သည်။ ပူနွေးသော အဝတ်များကို ဝတ်ခြင်းကခန္ဓာကိုယ်ကိုပိုကာကွယ်ပေးသည် ပိုများသောလူ့ကိုယ်ခန္ဓာအရေပြား၏ vasoconstrictor တုံ့ပြန်မှုကိုလွှဲစားပေးသည်။ အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုများလွန်းသည်။ အဝတ်အစားသည်ပိုမိုပေးသောအလွှာများကိုဖုံးလွှမ်းသည်။
medullary နှလုံးသွေးကြောထိန်းချုပ်ရေးစင်တာမှပေါ်သည်။
ငင်းသည်အရေပြားမျက်နှာပြင်နှင့်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်အကြားလေကိုစုပ်ယူသည်။
အရေပြားမှအအေးဓာတ်သို့ပို့ဆောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုလျော့နည်းစေသည်။
ပြင်ပလေနှင့် convection current များစီးဆင်းမှုကိုကန့်သတ်သည်။

hypothalamus သည်တစ်ပြိုင်နက်တည်းညှိနိုင်သည်
အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုနှင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုယန္တရားများ

ကဲအပူညှိနိုင်ခြင်းမှတစ်ဆင့်အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုအတိုင်းအတာအရ ထုတ်လုပ်မှုနှင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုတစ်ခုခုကိုထိတွေ့မှုမှတုံ့ပြန်သည်အေးသောသို့မဟုတ်ပူသောပတ်ဝန်းကျင် (▲ ၈ ဟာ: ၁၇-၄)။

တုံ့ပြန်မှုကိုအေး စေရန် ညှိနိုင်ထားသောတုံ့ပြန်ချက်များ
အအေးထိတွေ့မှု၊ hypothalamus ၏အနောက်ဘက်ဒေသသည်ညွှန်ကြားသည် တုန်ခါခြင်းကိုသို့အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုတိုးစေသည်။
အရေပြားအားအပူဆုံးရှုံးခြင်း (ဆိုလိုသည်မှာအပူကိုထိန်းသိမ်းခြင်း) ကိုသိသော vasoconstriction နှင့်အခြားအစိအပိုင်းများ
အဘယ်ကြောင့်ဆိုသော်အရေပြားကိုလျော့ချရန်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်၏ကန့်သတ်ချက်ရှိခြင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။
vasoconstriction မှတဆင့်အပူချိန်အများဆုံး vaso-
အလွန်အကျွံအပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုကာကွယ်ရန်ကန့်သတ်ချက်သည်မလိုလောက်ပါ။
ပြင်ပအပူချိန်အလွန်နိမ့်ကျသည်။ ထို့ကြောင့်အခြားနည်းများ
အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုပိုမိုလျော့ချရန် sures ကိုသတ်မှတ်ရမည်။ တိရစ္ဆာန်တွေမှာ ထူထဲသောအမွှေးများ (သို့) အမွှေးများ၊ hypothalamus မှတဆင့်သရုပ်ဆောင်သည့်ကိုယ်တုံးလုံး ကိုယ်လုံးတီးအသားအရေသည်ထိတောက်ပသောစွမ်းအင်အားလုံးနီးပါးကိုစုပ်ယူသည် စာနာတတ်တဲ့အရေကြောစနစ်ကိုကြုံတွေ့ရ
ဆံပင် (သို့) အမွှေးရိုးအရင်းမြစ်ကြက်သားသေးသေးလေးများ
ဆံပင်သို့မဟုတ်အမွှေးများကိုအရေပြားမျက်နှာပြင်မှယ်ရှားပါ။ ဒါကထောင်ချောစေရန်အတွက်အလွန်အရေးကြီးသည်။

လုပ်ဆောင်ချက် အောက်တွင် ထိတွေ့မှုအားအပူပေးရန်တုံ့ပြန်မှုများ
အပြုသဘောဆောင်သောအခြေအနေ - အပူထိတွေ့မှု - ၏ရေပိုင်း
hypothalamus သည်အရိုးထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုလျော့ကျစေပြီးအပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုလျော့နည်းစေသည်
ကြက်သားလှုပ်ရှားမှုနှင့်လုံ့ဆော်မှုကြောင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုတိုးစေသည်
အရေပြား vasodilation ။ အရေပြားတွင်အပူဆုံးသွေးပြန်ကြောများပေါက်နေသည့်တိုင်
ပိုလုံ့ဆော်မှုအပူကိုခန္ဓာကိုယ်မှယ်ရှားရန်လိုလောက်စွာချွေးထွက်သည်
ရေငွေ့ပျံခြင်းမှတဆင့်နောက်ထပ်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုပြီးမြောက်ရန်ကစားပါ။ ညှိ
အမန်တော့၊ လေထုအပူချိန်သည်အမြင့်ဆုံးအပူချိန်ထက်မြင့်တက်လျှင်
ဒါကြောင့်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်ကနေအပူကိုရရှိနိုင်ပါတယ်။ ချွေးထွက်ခြင်းသည်
အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုလျော့နည်းစေသည်။
လူသားများသည်လည်းသီးခြားကဲ့သို့သောစေတနာအလျောက်ဆောင်ရွက်ချက်များကိုအသုံးပြုသည်
ပရိတ်သတ်များ၊ ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ကိုစိုစွတ်စေခြင်း၊ အချိုရည်များသောက်ခြင်းနှင့် ဝတ်ဆင်ခြင်း
အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုပိုမိုကောင်းမွန်စေရန်အအေးခံအဝတ်အစားများ လူကြိုက်များနှင့်ဆန့်ကျင်သည်
အရောင်ဖြောဖြော၊ ဝတ်ထားသောအဝတ်အစားကို ဝတ်ခြင်းသည်ပိုမိုကြည်ခြင်းထက်ပိုအေးသည်
အရောင်ဖြောသောအဝတ်သည်အားလုံးနီးပါးကိုထပ်ပေါ်စေသည်
ငင်းပေါ်မြို့ကျရောက်နေသောတောက်ပသောစွမ်းအင် ထို့ကြောင့်အရောင်ဖြောလျှင်အဝတ်အစားဖြစ်ပါသည်
အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှု

စွမ်းအင် Balance နှင့်အပူချိန်စည်းမျဉ်း ၆၅၅

စာမျက်နှာ ၃

အငွေ့ပျံစေသောအပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုသည်ငင်းထက်ပိုအေးသည်
အဝတ်အစားလုံးဝမပါဘဲသွားနေတယ်။

THERMONEUTRAL ZONE အရေပြား vasomotor လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်သည်အလွန် **ထိရောက်သည်။**
သာသာပတ်ဝန်းကျင်အပူချိန်တွင်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုထိန်းချုပ်ရာတွင်အစွမ်းထက်သည်
၆၀ အထက်နှင့် ၈၀ အလယ်ပိုင်းကြားတွင် ဤအပိုင်းအခြား၊ အတွင်း၌
vasomotor တုံ့ပြန်မှုများဖြင့် core အပူချိန်ကိုအမြဲထိန်းထားနိုင်သည်
အပိုအပူထုတ်လုပ်မှုသို့မဟုတ်အပူဆုံးရှုံးခြင်းကိုမခေါ်ဘဲ
ကစားရန်ယန္တရားများကို **thermoneutral zone** ဟုခေါ်သည် ။ ဘယ်တော့လဲ
ပြင်ပလေထုအပူချိန်သည် abil ၏အောက်ကန့်သတ်ချက်အောက်
အရေပြား၏ vasoconstriction ကြောင့်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုပိုလျော့နည်းစေခြင်း၊
ချွေးထွက်ခြင်း၊ အထူးသဖြင့်တုန်ခါမှုကြောင့်မလိုအပ်တော့ခြင်း၊
အဓိကအပူချိန်ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်အဓိကသောချက်။ ဟိုဘက်ရောက်ရင်၊
ပြင်ပလေထုအပူချိန်သည်အမြင့်ဆုံးကန့်သတ်ချက်ထက်ကျော်လွန်ပါက
အရေပြားမှသွေးယိုစီးမှု၏စွမ်းရည်သည်အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှုကိုပိုတိုးစေသည် ။
core အပူချိန်ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သည်။ (တစ်ခုအတွက်
အပူလွန်ကခြင်း (သို့) အအေးထိတွေ့မှု၏အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများကိုဆွေးနွေးကြည့်ပါ
ပူးတွဲပါ boxed အင်္ဂါရပ်၊ cep၊ အယူအဆများ၊ စိန်ခေါ်မှုများနှင့်
အငြင်းပွားမှုများ။)

ဖျားနေစဉ် hypothalamic thermostat ဖြစ်သည့် မြင့်မားသောအပူချိန်တွင် "ပြန်လည်သတ်မှတ်" သည်။

အများ ဟူသောအသုံးအနှုန်းသည်ကိုယ်အပူချိန်မြင့်တက်ခြင်းကို ရည်ညွှန်းသည်။
ကူးစက်ရောဂါသို့မဟုတ်ရောင်ရမ်းမှု၏ရလဒ်အဖြစ် တုန်ပြန်
microbial ကျူးကျော်ရန် phagocytic ဆဲလ်အချို့ (macro-
phages) သည် **endogenous pyrogen** အဖြစ်ဆောင်ရွက်သောဓာတုပစ္စည်းများကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သည် ။
ငင်းသည်ရောဂါကူးစက်မှုကိုတိုက်ဖျက်သောအာနိသင်များစွာအနက် (p 424 ကိုကြည့်ပါ)။
မြင့်တင်ရန် hypothalamic thermoregulatory စင်တာတွင်လုပ်ဆောင်သည့်
အပူထိန်းကိရိယာဆက်တင် (• ပုံ ၁၇-၆) ။ ယခုခေါ် hypothalamus

ကူးစက်မှုသို့မဟုတ်ရောင်ရမ်းခြင်း

Macrophages

လွှတ်ပါ

endogenous pyrogen ဖြစ်သည်

Prostaglandins ခေါ်

Hypothalamic သတ်မှတ်အချက်

"အအေးတုံ့ပြန်မှု" စတင်ခြင်း

အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ အပူဆုံးရှုံးမှု

ကိုယ်အပူချိန်တက်သည်
အသစ်တစ်ခုအချက် = ဖျားနာ

• FIGURE 17-6 Fever ထုတ်လုပ်မှု (ဓာတ်ပုံ - LJ Le Beau/

Translating...

ဆဲလ်များ
 ဆဲလ်များသည်အဆက်မပြတ်ထောက်ပံ့မှုလိုအပ်သည်
 သူတို့ရဲ့အာဟာရတွေကိုထောက်ပံ့ပေးတယ်
 စွမ်းအင်ထုတ်စာတု
 တိုပြန်မှု။ ပုံမှန်ဆဲလ်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်
 သင့်လျော်သောချိန်ခွင်လျှာပေါ်တွင်လည်းမှုတည်သည်
 ရေနှင့်အမျိုးမျိုးသော electrolytes များ။

ဆဲလ်များဖွဲ့စည်းသည်
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်စနစ်များ

အဆိုပါ **endocrine system** ကို dura- လိုအပ်ကြောင်းလှုပ်ရှားမှုများထိန်းညှိ
 အမြန်နှုန်းထက် Endocrine ဂလင်းမှဟော်မုန်းများထုတ်လွှတ်သည်။
 သွေးမှသယ်ဆောင်လာသောစာတုစေတမန်များသည်ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။
 endocrine ဂလင်းမှအကွာအဝေးကိုသတ်မှတ်ထားသည်။ ပစ်မှတ်အများစု-
 ဟော်မုန်းထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်ရှိဆဲလ်လှုပ်ရှားမှုများကို ဦး တည်သည်
 homeostasis ထိန်းသိမ်းခြင်း ဗဟို endocrine ဂလင်းများ၊
 ဦး နောက်နှင့်နီးကပ်စွာဆက်စပ်နေသည့်အချက်များ
 thalamus၊ pituitary gland နှင့် pineal gland တို့ဖြစ်သည်။ အဆိုပါ hy-
 pothalamus (ဦး နောက်၏အစိတ်အပိုင်း) နှင့် posterior pituitary
 ဂလင်း သည်ထိန်းသိမ်းရန်အတွက်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သောဟော်မုန်းများကိုထုတ်လွှတ်ပေးရန်ယူနစ်တစ်ခုအနေဖြင့်လုပ်ဆောင်သည်။

မွေးဖွားချိန်နှင့်မိခင်နို့တိုက်ကျွေးရေးအတွက်ရေဓာတ်မျှတအောင်စားသုံးပါ။ ဟိ
 hypothalamus သည်ထိန်းချုပ်သောစည်းမျဉ်းဟော်မုန်းများကိုလည်းလျှို့ဝှက်သည်
anterior pituitary gland ၏ဟော်မုန်း **ဓာတ်များ**
 တစ်နည်းအားဖြင့်အများစုကိုထိန်းချုပ်သောဟော်မုန်းခြောက်မျိုးကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သည်
 အရ endocrine ဂလင်းများစွာမှဟော်မုန်းဓာတ်များထွက်လာသည်။ တစ်ခုပေါ့
 anterior pituitary ဟော်မုန်း၊ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း၊ အားပေးအားမြှောက်
 ကြီးထွားမှုနှင့်အာဟာရဓာတ် homeostasis ကိုလွှမ်းမိုးသည်။ အဆိုပါ pineal
 ဂလင်း သည် ဦး နောက်၏ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သော ဦး နောက်၏အစိတ်အပိုင်းတစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။
 ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့စိတ်ဓာတ်ချက်ကိုတည်ဆောက်ရာမှာ tant

စာမျက်နှာ ၈

Endocrinology ၏အခြေခံများ

ဗဟို Endocrine ဂလင်း

အခန်း ၈

အကြောင်းအရာများအားအချက်ပြပါ

Endocrinology ၏အထွေထွေအခြေခံများ
 endocrine စနစ်၏ယေဘုယျလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ
 အပူပိုင်းဒေသဟော်မုန်းများ
 endocrine function ၏ရှုပ်ထွေးမှုများ
 ပလာစမာအားထိန်းညှိသည့်နည်းလမ်းများနှင့်သက်ရောက်မှုရှိသောအချက်များ
 ဟော်မုန်းများ၏အာရုံစိုက်မှု
 endocrine မှုမှန်အမျိုးအစားများ
 ပစ်မှတ်-ကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါကြံပြန်မှုဆိုင်ရာစည်းမျဉ်း

Hypothalamus နှင့် Pituitary
 Hypothalamus -posterior pituitary relationship
 Vasopressin; oxytocin
 Hypothalamus -anterior pituitary relationship
 Anterior pituitary နှင့် hypophysiotropic ဟော်မုန်းများ

ကြီးထွားမှု Endocrine ထိန်းချုပ်မှု
 ကြီးထွားမှုအပေါ်သက်ရောက်မှုရှိသောအချက်များ
 ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း၏တိုက်ရိုက်စိတ်ဖြာစဉ်ဆိုင်ရာလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ
 ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း၏သွယ်ဝိုက်သောကြီးထွားမှုအားမြှင့်တင်ပေးခြင်း၊
 အင်ဆူလင်ကိုသို့ကြီးထွားမှုအချက်များ
 အရိုးကြီးထွားမှု
 ကြီးထွားမှု၏အခြားဟော်မုန်းများ

Pineal Gland နှင့် Circadian Rhythms
 သခင်စီဝန်အဖြစ် Suprachiasmatic nucleus
 melatonin ၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ

အထွေထွေအခြေခံများ

Endocrinology ၏

အဆိုပါ **endocrine စနစ်** အဆိုပါ ductless endocrine ဂလင်းပါဝင်ပါသည်
 (စကြည့်ပါ။ 4) ခန္ဓာကိုယ် (လျှောက်လုံးကွဲပြားလျက်ရှိသော • ပုံ
 ၁၈-၁) ။ အများစုမှာ endocrine ဂလင်းများရှိနေသော်လည်း
 ခန္ဓာဗေဒနှင့်မချိတ်ဆက်ဘဲ၎င်းတို့သည်စနစ်တစ်ခုဖြစ်စည်းထားသည်။
 tional သဘောမျိုး။ သူတို့အားလုံးကသူတို့ရဲ့လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်တွေကိုလျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးလုပ်တယ်
 သွေးထဲသို့ဟော်မုန်းများနှင့်များစွာသောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အပြန်အလှန်ဆက်သွယ်မှုများရှိသည်
 အမျိုးမျိုးသော endocrine ဂလင်းများကြားတွင်နေရာယူသည်။ တစ်ချိန်ကလျှို့ဝှက်မှု
 ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးသည်၎င်း၏ဝေးလံသောပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များဆီသို့သွေးထဲတွင်ရောက်ရှိသွားသည်
 ၎င်းသည်အထူးလုပ်ငန်းတစ်ခုအားထိန်းညှိ (သို့) ညွှန်ကြားသည်။ **Endocrinology** သည်
 homeostatic စာတုချိန်ညှိမှုများနှင့်အခြားလေ့လာမှု
 ဟော်မုန်းများပြီးမြောက်စေသောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ
 သွေးသည်ဟော်မုန်းများကိုဖြန့်ဝေပေးသော်လည်း
 ခန္ဓာကိုယ် တစ်ခုစီတွင် တိကျသော **ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များ** သာတုံ့ပြန်နိုင်သည်။
 ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များသာလျှင်စည်းနှောင်ရန်လက်ခံနိုင်သော receptor များရှိသည်
 အထူးဟော်မုန်း (စာမျက်နှာ ၁၁၇ ကိုကြည့်ပါ) ။
 ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုအား၎င်း၏သီးခြားပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်လက်ခံမှုနှင့်စည်းနှောင်ထားခြင်း
 tors များသည် ဦး တည်သောဆဲလ်များအတွင်းမှဖြစ်ရပ်များကွင်းဆက်ကိုစတင်ပေးသည်
 ဟော်မုန်း၏နောက်ဆုံးအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုအကြောင်း ဆိုလိုသည်ကိုဆိုလိုသည်ကိုသတိရပါ
 ဟော်မုန်းသည်၎င်း၏အဆုံးစွန်သောစိတ်ဓာတ်ဆိုင်ရာအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်
 ဟော်မုန်းသည် hydrophilic (peptide ဟော်မုန်း) ဟုတ်၊
 catecholamines နှင့် indoleamines) သို့မဟုတ် lipophilic (steroid hor-
 mones နှင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်း) Peptide ဟော်မုန်း သည်အများဆုံးဖြစ်သည်
 များပြားသောစာတုဟော်မုန်းအမျိုးအစားသည်အမိုင်နိုအက်ဆစ်ဆက်များဖြစ်သည်
 ကွဲပြားခြားနားသောအရှည်၏အကန့်။ adate မှထုတ်လုပ်သော Catecholamines၊
 nal medullal အမိုင်နိုအက်ဆစ် tyrosine မှဆင်းသက်လာသည်။ **Indole-**
amines များကို pineal gland မှထုတ်လုပ်ပြီး၎င်းမှရရှိသည်
 အမိုင်နိုအက်ဆစ် tryptophan **Steroid** ဟိုမုန်းမှ ထုတ်လုပ်သည်
 adrenal cortex နှင့်မျိုးပွားနိုင်သော endocrine ဂလင်းများသည်ကြားနေသည်
 ကိုလက်စထရော့မုရရှိသော lipids သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းကို ထုတ်လုပ်သည်
 သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်းသည် iodinated tyrosine ဆင်းသက်လာသည်။
 အုပ်စုကြီးနှစ်ခုထူးခြားချက်တွေကိုပြန်သုံးသပ်ကြည့်ကြစို့
 ဟော်မုန်းများ၊ peptide ဟော်မုန်းများနှင့် steroid ဟော်မုန်းများ ရေအားလျှပ်စစ်

TROPIC HORMONES အချို့ဟော်မုန်းများသည်ထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုထိန်းညှိပေးသည် နှင့်အခြားဟော်မုန်းကိုထုတ်လုပ်သည်။ သူ့မှာပါတဲ့ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုရှိတယ် အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှုအားထိန်းညှိပေးခြင်း၏အဓိကပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ အခြား endocrine ဂလင်းကို **အပူပိုင်းဒေသ** အဖြစ်သတ်မှတ်ထားသည်။ **none (tro-pick)** (အပူပိုင်းဒေသ ဆိုသည်မှာအာဟာရဖြည့်ပေးသည်)။ အပူပိုင်းဒေသဟော်မုန်းများသည် ထုတ်လုပ်ရာတွင် endocrine ပစ်မှတ်တစ်ခုမျိုးတွေကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးပြီးထိန်းသိမ်းပါ။ ယခင်အတွက် tropic hormone thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) anterior pituitary မှသိမ်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ သိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်းအားဖြင့်စည်းတည်ဆောက်ပုံကိုပေါင်းစပ်ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။ ဤဂလင်း၏ရှားပါးမှု TSH မရှိသောအခါသိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်းသည်ကျဆင်းလာသည်။ phies (ကျိုသည်) နှင့်ငှင်း၏ဟော်မုန်းပမာဏအလွန်နည်းသည်။

အချို့သောကိုယ်အင်္ဂါများသည် endocrine (ငှင်းတိုက်တာ) ရှိသည် anterior pituitary တစ်ခုတည်းဟော်မုန်းထုတ်ခြင်းကိုအထူးပြုသည် ဥပမာတစ်ခု။ endocrine sys ၏အခြားအင်္ဂါများဖြစ်သော်လည်း ဤဂလင်းသည်အခြားဂလင်းများထက်ပို၍ပို၍ဂလင်းအပြင် nonendocrine လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များကိုလုပ်ဆောင်သည်။ **Tropic hormones** ဥပမာအားဖြင့်ဝှေးစေသည်သက်ပိုးကိုထုတ်ပေးသည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့်ဝှေးစေသည်သက်ပိုးကိုထုတ်ပေးသည်။ testosterone ။

ထိရောက်သောပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုသည်ဟော်မုန်း၏လွှမ်းမိုးမှုရှိသည် လုံ့ဆော်မှု၊ အရံပြောင်းလဲခြင်း၊ သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ လှုပ်ရှားမှုမရှိခြင်းနှင့်စွန့်ထုတ်ခြင်း

ဟော်မုန်းအများစု၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာစည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဖြစ်သည် homeostatic လှုပ်ရှားမှုအမျိုးမျိုး။ ဟော်မုန်းရဲ့အာနိသင်ကြောင့်ပါ ပလာစမာတွင်သူတို့၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုနှင့်အချိုးကျသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းအများစု၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာစည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဖြစ်သည်။ ဟော်မုန်းရဲ့အာနိသင်ကြောင့်ပါ ပလာစမာတွင်သူတို့၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုနှင့်အချိုးကျသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းအများစု၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာစည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဖြစ်သည်။ ဟော်မုန်းရဲ့အာနိသင်ကြောင့်ပါ ပလာစမာတွင်သူတို့၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုနှင့်အချိုးကျသည်။

ပြီးပြည့်စုံသော ENDOCRINE FUNCTION အောက်ပါအချက်များ စနစ်၏ရှုထောင့်ထူးကိုထည့်ပါ။

- တစ်ခုတည်းသော endocrine ဂလင်းသည်ဟော်မုန်းများစွာထုတ်လုပ်နိုင်သည်။ စင်တာများသည် homeostatic လိုအပ်ချက်များနှင့်အညီထိန်းချုပ်နိုင်သည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့်ရှေ့ပိုင်း pituitary သည်ကျားများအားသာ hor မြောက်မျိုးကိုထုတ်လုပ်ပြီးအမျိုးမရှိသူများတွင် ပြီးစုံစနစ်များတွင် ပြန်မူပမာဏပေါ်မူတည်သည်။ mones, တစ်ခုချင်းစီကိုပြားခြားနားသောထိန်းချုပ်မှုယန္တရားအောက်မှာရှိခြင်း ထူးခြားသောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်

ဟော်မုန်းအများစု၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာစည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဖြစ်သည်။ ဟော်မုန်းရဲ့အာနိသင်ကြောင့်ပါ ပလာစမာတွင်သူတို့၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုနှင့်အချိုးကျသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းအများစု၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှာစည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဖြစ်သည်။ ဟော်မုန်းရဲ့အာနိသင်ကြောင့်ပါ ပလာစမာတွင်သူတို့၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုနှင့်အချိုးကျသည်။

- ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးတည်းကို endo- တစ်ခုထက်ပိုသောအားဖြင့်လျှို့ဝှက်နိုင်သည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့် hypothalamus နှင့်ပန်ကရိယပ်စ်မှ somatostatin ဟော်မုန်းကိုစွန့်ထုတ်ပြီး somatostatin သည်ငှင်းကိုသို့လုပ်ဆောင်သည်။ ထိရောက်သောပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုသည်အခမဲ့ ဇီဝဗေဒ တက်ကြွသောဟော်မုန်း - ထိုကြောင့်ငှင်းဟော်မုန်းကိုရရှိနိုင်သည်။ paracrine သည်အစာအိမ်ရှိသည်။

ဟော်မုန်းအနည်းငယ်အတွက်ငှင်း၏ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်မှု (သို့) ပြောင်းလဲခြင်းနှုန်း sign ။ ငှင်းကို endocrine မှသွေးထဲသို့လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးနောက် ဗီလင်းအထူးသဖြင့် lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းများကိုမကြာခဏပြုပြင်သည်။ အခြားအင်္ဂါများ တခါတရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်း (အစွန့်အဖျားနဲ့ဝေးတဲ့နေရာမှာ endocrine gland) ကိုပြုပြင်ခြင်းသည်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းကို ဥပမာအားဖြင့်သိုင်းရွှိက်အပေါ်များဆုံးပုံစံ သိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်းမှသိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းသည် thyroxine ဖြစ်သည်။ အိုင်အိုဒင်း (၄) လုံးပါ ဝင်သော်လည်းအစွမ်းထက်ဆုံးသိုင်းရွှိက်ပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ သွေးထဲရှိဟော်မုန်းသည် tri-iodothyronine (ပါ ဝင်သည် အိုင်အိုဒင်းသုံးမျိုး) လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးတာနဲ့ thyroxine ကို the အဖြစ်ပြောင်းလိုက်တယ်။ ငှင်း၏အိုင်အိုဒင်းတစ်မျိုးကိုထုတ်ယူလိုက်ခြင်းကြောင့်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ အများအားဖြင့်အသွေးနှင့်ကျောက်ကပ်တို့မှထွက်သည်။ များသောအားဖြင့်နှုန်းထား ထိုသို့သောဟော်မုန်းကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးခြင်းသည်သူ့ကိုယ်သူ့ဟော်မုန်းထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်တွင်ရှိသည်။ တစ်ခါတစ်ရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်းကဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးကိုပြောင်းပေးတယ်။ functionally ကျားခြားနားသောဟော်မုန်းသို့။ ဥပမာအားတစ်ခုပေါ် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသားလိင်ဟော်မုန်းဖြစ်သော Testosterone ၏အချိုးအစားသည် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသမီးလိင်ကို estrogen သို့တစ်သျှူးများနှင့်အခြားနေရာများတွင်ထားပါ ဟော်မုန်း။

- များသောအားဖြင့်ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုတည်းကအမျိုးအစားတစ်မျိုးထက်ပိုပါတယ်။ ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်ဖြစ်သောကြောင့် cf- အမျိုးအစားတစ်မျိုးထက် ပို၍ ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေနိုင်သည်။ အဆုံးစွန်သောအားဖြင့်သွေးထဲသို့ဟော်မုန်းထွက်နှုန်း fast သည်ပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်ကျားများ receptors အမျိုးအစားများနှင့်စည်းနှောင်ထားသည်။ ငှင်း ။ စွန့်ထုတ်မှုနှုန်းကိုမြှင့်တင်စေသည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့် vasopressin သည် H : O ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူမှုကို အားပေးသည်။ ဟော်မုန်း၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းချုပ်သည်။ V : (vasopressin 2) receptors များ နှင့်စည်းနှောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်ကျောက်ကပ် tubules များကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ ထိုအချက်ကြောင့် သွေးချင်သော set point တွင်ဟော်မုန်းအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပါ။ distal နှင့် tubular cells များကိုစုဆောင်းပြီး vasoconstrict ဖြစ်စေသည်။

ဟော်မုန်းအနည်းငယ်အတွက်ငှင်း၏ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်မှု (သို့) ပြောင်းလဲခြင်းနှုန်း sign ။ ငှင်းကို endocrine မှသွေးထဲသို့လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးနောက် ဗီလင်းအထူးသဖြင့် lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းများကိုမကြာခဏပြုပြင်သည်။ အခြားအင်္ဂါများ တခါတရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်း (အစွန့်အဖျားနဲ့ဝေးတဲ့နေရာမှာ endocrine gland) ကိုပြုပြင်ခြင်းသည်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းကို ဥပမာအားဖြင့်သိုင်းရွှိက်အပေါ်များဆုံးပုံစံ သိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်းမှသိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းသည် thyroxine ဖြစ်သည်။ အိုင်အိုဒင်း (၄) လုံးပါ ဝင်သော်လည်းအစွမ်းထက်ဆုံးသိုင်းရွှိက်ပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ သွေးထဲရှိဟော်မုန်းသည် tri-iodothyronine (ပါ ဝင်သည် အိုင်အိုဒင်းသုံးမျိုး) လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးတာနဲ့ thyroxine ကို the အဖြစ်ပြောင်းလိုက်တယ်။ ငှင်း၏အိုင်အိုဒင်းတစ်မျိုးကိုထုတ်ယူလိုက်ခြင်းကြောင့်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ အများအားဖြင့်အသွေးနှင့်ကျောက်ကပ်တို့မှထွက်သည်။ များသောအားဖြင့်နှုန်းထား ထိုသို့သောဟော်မုန်းကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးခြင်းသည်သူ့ကိုယ်သူ့ဟော်မုန်းထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်တွင်ရှိသည်။ တစ်ခါတစ်ရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်းကဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးကိုပြောင်းပေးတယ်။ functionally ကျားခြားနားသောဟော်မုန်းသို့။ ဥပမာအားတစ်ခုပေါ် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသားလိင်ဟော်မုန်းဖြစ်သော Testosterone ၏အချိုးအစားသည် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသမီးလိင်ကို estrogen သို့တစ်သျှူးများနှင့်အခြားနေရာများတွင်ထားပါ ဟော်မုန်း။

- များသောအားဖြင့်ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုတည်းကအမျိုးအစားတစ်မျိုးထက်ပိုပါတယ်။ ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်ဖြစ်သောကြောင့် cf- အမျိုးအစားတစ်မျိုးထက် ပို၍ ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေနိုင်သည်။ အဆုံးစွန်သောအားဖြင့်သွေးထဲသို့ဟော်မုန်းထွက်နှုန်း fast သည်ပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်ကျားများ receptors အမျိုးအစားများနှင့်စည်းနှောင်ထားသည်။ ငှင်း ။ စွန့်ထုတ်မှုနှုန်းကိုမြှင့်တင်စေသည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့် vasopressin သည် H : O ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူမှုကို အားပေးသည်။ ဟော်မုန်း၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းချုပ်သည်။ V : (vasopressin 2) receptors များ နှင့်စည်းနှောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်ကျောက်ကပ် tubules များကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ ထိုအချက်ကြောင့် သွေးချင်သော set point တွင်ဟော်မုန်းအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပါ။ distal နှင့် tubular cells များကိုစုဆောင်းပြီး vasoconstrict ဖြစ်စေသည်။

- V : re- နှင့်ချည်နှောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်နွှော့ကိုယ်အနံ့ရှိသွေးလွတ်ကြောများတည်ဆောက်ခြင်း၊ arteriolar ကျော့မြေ့ကြက်သားပေါ်တွင်ရှိသည်။ တစ်ခါတစ်ရံမှာဟော်မုန်းတွေပါပါတယ်။ multiple-cell အမျိုးအစားများသည်ပေါင်းစပ်ညှိညှိနိုင်ပြီးပေါင်းစပ်နိုင်သည်။ ဘုံအဆုံးသို့တစ်သျှူးအမျိုးမျိုး၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ ဥပမာ၊ ကြက်သားများ၊ အသည်းနှင့်အဆီတို့အဆီဆူလင်၏သက်ရောက်မှုများသည်ဖျော့ပြောင်းစေခြင်းဖြင့် အစာစားပြီးနောက်အာဟာရစုပ်ယူရန်
- အချို့ဟော်မုန်းများထွက်နှုန်းသည်သိသိသာသာကျိုးပြားသည်။ အချို့အတန်ကြာစက်ဘီးပုံစံဖြင့် ထို့ကြောင့် endocrine စနစ်များသည်လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်တာများကိုယာယီ (အချိန်) ညှိနှိုင်းပေးသည်။ ငှင်းသည်မျိုးပွားထုတ်လုပ်ခြင်းကို endocrine ထိန်းချုပ်မှုတွင်အထူးသိသာထင်ရှား ပုံမှန်လည်ပတ်မှုများဖြစ်သောရာသီစက်ဝန်းကဲ့သို့ပုံမှန်လည်ပတ်မှုများ အစာခြေဖျက်မှုတွင်အလွန်တိကျသောပုံစံများလိုအပ်သည်။ အမျိုးမျိုးသောဟော်မုန်းများမှ
- ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်တစ်ခုတည်းကိုတစ်ခုထက်ပိုသောလွှမ်းမိုးမှုရှိနိုင်သည်။ ဟော်မုန်း။ အချို့ဆဲလ်တွေမှာပုံမှန်အတွက် receptors များစွာပါဝင်ပါတယ်။ မတူညီသောဟော်မုန်းများသို့ကျိုးပြားသောနည်းလမ်းများဖြင့်ယူသည်။ ဥပမာအနေနဲ့ ဂလူးကိုစီကိုအသည်းအတွင်းမှ glycogen သို့ပြောင်းလဲခြင်းကိုအားပေးသည်။ ဆဲလ်များကို hepatic enzyme တစ်ခုအားလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသော်လည်း။

ဟော်မုန်းအနည်းငယ်အတွက်ငှင်း၏ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်မှု (သို့) ပြောင်းလဲခြင်းနှုန်း sign ။ ငှင်းကို endocrine မှသွေးထဲသို့လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးနောက် ဗီလင်းအထူးသဖြင့် lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းများကိုမကြာခဏပြုပြင်သည်။ အခြားအင်္ဂါများ တခါတရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်း (အစွန့်အဖျားနဲ့ဝေးတဲ့နေရာမှာ endocrine gland) ကိုပြုပြင်ခြင်းသည်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းကို ဥပမာအားဖြင့်သိုင်းရွှိက်အပေါ်များဆုံးပုံစံ သိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်းမှသိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းသည် thyroxine ဖြစ်သည်။ အိုင်အိုဒင်း (၄) လုံးပါ ဝင်သော်လည်းအစွမ်းထက်ဆုံးသိုင်းရွှိက်ပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ သွေးထဲရှိဟော်မုန်းသည် tri-iodothyronine (ပါ ဝင်သည် အိုင်အိုဒင်းသုံးမျိုး) လျှို့ဝှက်ပြီးတာနဲ့ thyroxine ကို the အဖြစ်ပြောင်းလိုက်တယ်။ ငှင်း၏အိုင်အိုဒင်းတစ်မျိုးကိုထုတ်ယူလိုက်ခြင်းကြောင့်ပိုမိုတက်ကြွသောပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ အများအားဖြင့်အသွေးနှင့်ကျောက်ကပ်တို့မှထွက်သည်။ များသောအားဖြင့်နှုန်းထား ထိုသို့သောဟော်မုန်းကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးခြင်းသည်သူ့ကိုယ်သူ့ဟော်မုန်းထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်တွင်ရှိသည်။ တစ်ခါတစ်ရံမှာအရပ်စွမ်းကဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးကိုပြောင်းပေးတယ်။ functionally ကျားခြားနားသောဟော်မုန်းသို့။ ဥပမာအားတစ်ခုပေါ် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသားလိင်ဟော်မုန်းဖြစ်သော Testosterone ၏အချိုးအစားသည် အစွမ်းထက်အမျိုးသမီးလိင်ကို estrogen သို့တစ်သျှူးများနှင့်အခြားနေရာများတွင်ထားပါ ဟော်မုန်း။

စာမျက်နှာ ၁၁

- lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းများအတွက်ပလာစမာပရိုတိန်းများနှင့်တွယ်တာမှုခြောက်ကြိမ်ရှိသည်။ အဘယ်ကြောင့်ဆိုသော် lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းများသည်ရေတွင်ပျော်ဝင်မှုညံ့ဖျင်းသောကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။ ပလာစမာတွင်သိုင်းခြားပလာစမာပရိုတိန်းများနှင့်ချည်နှောင်ထားသည်။ အားလုံးအတွက်ပါ အကန့်အသတ်မရှိသောဟော်မုန်း၏သွေးငယ်သောအစိတ်အပိုင်းသည်အပြန်အလှန်အကျိုးပြုနိုင်သည်။ ငှင်း၏ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များ ဤအခမဲ့ရေကူးကန်၏ပြင်းအားသည် ဟော်မုန်းစုစုပေါင်းကိုစောင့်ကြည့်ထိန်းညှိရန်ညီညီသည့် ပုံမှန် endocrine လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်။ Clinical assays ကိုဆုံးဖြတ်ရန်အသုံးပြုသည်။ ပေးထားသောဟော်မုန်း၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုသည်စုစုပေါင်းအခြေအနေကိုတိုင်းတာသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းကို ဗဟိုပြု၍ အတိုင်းအတာကိုထည့်မတွက်ပါနှင့် ဟော်မုန်းချိတ်ဆက်မှု။ ဤရလဒ်များသည်တစ်ခါတစ်ရံအထင်မှားစေနိုင်သည်။ ဥပမာအားဖြင့်ကိုယ်ဝန်ဆောင်ချိန်မှာတိကျတဲ့ပလာစမာကိုပိုသုံးတယ်။ သိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းကိုချည်နှောင်သော vein ကိုထုတ်လုပ်သည်။ ပိုများတာကြောင့် roid ဟော်မုန်းသည်ကျားပလာစမာပရိုတိန်းနှင့်ပေါင်းစည်းထားသည်။ ပလာစမာတွင်သိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်းဓာတ်မြင့်တက်လာသည် နှစ်ဆ။ သို့သော်အခမဲ့တက်ကြွသောဟော်မုန်း၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုသည်ကျန်ရှိနေသည် မပြောင်းလဲပါ။ ထို့ကြောင့်ကိုယ်ဝန်ဆောင်အမျိုးသမီးသည်ပုံမှန်သိုင်းရွှိက်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ရှိသည် သိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်း၏ပလာစမာအဆင့်မြင့်တက်သော်လည်း။

ရှေ့ပိုင်း pituitary

သိုင်းရွှိက်ဟော်မုန်း

သိုင်းရွှိက်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည့် ဟော်မုန်း

သိုင်းရွှိက်ဂလင်း

- ငှင်း၏ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်မလုပ်မရှားမကြောင့်သွေးမှထုတ်ယူမှုနှုန်းသည် နှင့်ဆီးပွဲစွန့်ထုတ်မှု ဟော်မုန်းအားလုံးသည်နောက်ဆုံးတွင်အလုပ်မလုပ်တော့ပါ။ အသည်း၊ ကျောက်ကပ်၊ သွေး (သို့) ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်များတွင်အိုင်ဇိုင်းများဖြင့်ဆုံးဖြတ်သည်။ ဟို ဟော်မုန်းဓာတ်မလုပ်ခင်ဟော်မုန်းကိုထုတ်လိုက်တဲ့အချိန်ပမာဏ အတည်ပြုပြီးသည်နှင့်ဤအရာကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသောနည်းလမ်းများသည်ကျားခြားနားသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းအတန်းများ။ အများအားဖြင့် Hydrophilic peptides peptide bonds များ၏ hydrolysis ကြောင့်ဓာတ်မတည်ခြင်း (p ။ 29) ကိုကြည့်ပါ။ ဥ peptide ဟော်မုန်းများဖြစ်သောအင်ဆူလင်ကဲ့သို့ဦး တည်ဆဲလ်ဖြစ်သည်။ ချည်နှောင်ထားသောဟော်မုန်းကို receptor-mediated en- အားဖြင့်လွှမ်းခြုံသည်။ docytosis နှင့်ငှင်းအား intracellularly (အစ) တွင်ပျက်စီးစေသည်။ Catecholamines များသည်ဇီဝဗေဒဆိုင်ရာချိတ်မှုများနှင့် ဆက်စပ်၍ အိုင်ဇိုင်းအဖြစ်အသွင်ပြောင်းကြသည်။ ဟော်မုန်းသည်တက်ကြွသောအစိတ်အပိုင်း၏ပြောင်းလဲမှုကြောင့်တက်ကြွလှုပ်ရှားသည်။ ဇီဝဓာတုနည်းလမ်းအမျိုးမျိုးဖြင့်ဟော်မုန်း Lipophilic ဟော်မုန်းပြီးနောက်

ထိရောက်သောပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးကိုပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်အပြောင်းအလဲများဖြင့်ထိန်းညှိသည် ငှင်း၏အတွက်နှုန်း။ ပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုး၏ထိရောက်သောပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုသည်

Endocrine system: hormones are secreted into the blood and travel to target organs. Hypothalamus and pituitary gland are part of the endocrine system.

Endocrine system: hormones are secreted into the blood and travel to target organs. Hypothalamus and pituitary gland are part of the endocrine system.

Hypothalamus: secretes releasing and inhibiting hormones that control the pituitary gland.

Hypothalamus: secretes releasing and inhibiting hormones that control the pituitary gland.

▲ TABLE 18-2

အဓိကဟော်မုန်းများအကျဉ်းချုပ်

Table with 4 columns: Endocrine gland, Hormone, Primary actions, and Hormone's effect on target organs. Rows include Hypothalamus, Posterior Pituitary, Pituitary, Follicle-stimulating hormone, and Luteinizing hormone.

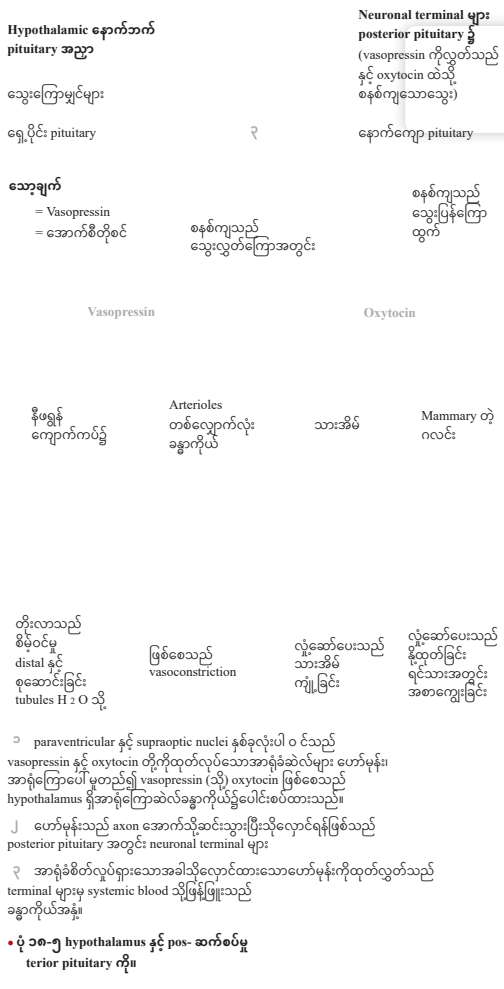
(ဆက်ရန်)

စာမျက်နှာ ၁၅

▲ TABLE 18-2

အဓိကဟော်မုန်းများအကျဉ်းချုပ် (ဆက်ရန်)

Table with 4 columns: Endocrine gland, Hormone, Primary actions, and Hormone's effect on target organs. Rows include Pituitary, Pineal, Follicular, Calcitonin, Adrenal Cortex, and Adrenal Medulla.



Neuronal terminal များ posterior pituitary (vasopressin ကို ထုတ်သည်နှင့် oxytocin ထပ်မံစနစ်ကျသောသွေး) နောက်ကျော pituitary

သွေးကြောထဲသို့ ထုတ်ပေးခြင်းသည် arteriolar ချောမွေ့ကြက်သား (တစ် ဦး ရေယာဉ်ဖိအားအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု) ။ ပထမဆုံး အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုကို အရေးကြီးတယ်။ ပုံမှန်အခြေအနေအထားမှာ vasopressin သည် ထိန်းညှိပေးသော အဓိက endocrine အချက်ဖြစ်သည်။

vasopressin ပမာဏသည် သွေးအားထိန်းညှိရာတွင် အနည်းငယ်သော အခန်းကဏ္ဍသာပါ ဝင်သည် ဟော်မုန်း၏ ဖိအားသက်ရောက်မှုအားဖြင့် ဖိအား။

hypothalamic-induced vaso- ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုအတွက် အဓိကထိန်းချုပ်မှု posterior pituitary မှ vasopressin သည် hypothalamic မှ input ဖြစ်သည် osmoreceptors သည် vasopressin တုံ့ပြန်မှုကို တိုးစေသည် plasma osmolarity မြင့်တက်လာသည်။ ဘယ်ဘက်မှ အင်အားနည်းသော input တစ်ခု atrial volume receptors များသည် vasopressin secretion ကို ပြန်လည်မြှင့်တက်စေသည်။ ECF ပမာဏနှင့် သွေးလွှတ်ကြောသွေးဖိအားကျဆင်းခြင်းကို ကြည့်ခြင်း (ကြည့်ပါ p ၅၆၇) ။ (vasopressin ၏ အရေးပါပုံနှင့် ပတ်သက်၍ နောက်ထပ်အချက်အလက်များအတွက် နေ့ပထမတွင် လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်သော အခါ အပြစ်လို့ ပုဂံချက်ကို boxed အင်္ဂါရပ်ကို ကြည့်ပါ p ပေါ်မှာ 672. ။ လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းစီဝင်ကမ္ဘာမှ တစ်ဦးပိုမိုနီးကပ်စွာ မှော်။)

စနစ်ကျသည့် သွေးပြန်ကြောထွက်

Vasopressin Oxytocin

နို့မိန်းကျောက်ကပ်၍ Arterioles တစ်လျှောက်လုံး ခန္ဓာကိုယ် သားအိမ် Mammary တွဲဂလင်း

နို့မိတ်မိတ် ကျောက်ကပ်၍

Arterioles တစ်လျှောက်လုံး ခန္ဓာကိုယ်

သားအိမ်

Mammary တွဲဂလင်း

တိုးလာသည့် စိမ့်ဝင်မှု distal နှင့် စုဆောင်းခြင်း tubules H₂O သို့

ဖြစ်စေသည့် vasoconstriction

လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည် သားအိမ် ကျိုးခြင်း

လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည် နို့ထုတ်ခြင်း ရင်သားအတွင်း အစာကျွေးခြင်း

paraventricular နှင့် supraoptic nuclei နှစ်ခုလုံးပါ ဝင်သည် vasopressin နှင့် oxytocin တို့ကို ထုတ်လုပ်သော အာရုံခံဆဲလ်များ ဟော်မုန်း၊ အာရုံကြောပေါ် မှတည်၍ vasopressin (သို့) oxytocin ဖြစ်စေသည့် hypothalamus ရှိ အာရုံကြောဆဲလ်များကို ယှဉ်ပေါင်းစပ်ထားသည်။

ဟော်မုန်းသည် axon အောက်သို့ ဆင်းသွားပြီး သို့လျှင် ရန်ဖြစ်သည် posterior pituitary အတွင်း neuronal terminal များ

အာရုံခံဆဲလ်လုပ်ရားသော အခါ သို့လျှင် ထားသော ဟော်မုန်းကို ထုတ်လွှတ်သည် terminal များမှ systemic blood သို့ဖြန့်ဖြူးသည် ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အနှံ့။

• ပုံ ၁၈-၅ hypothalamus နှင့် pos- anterior pituitary ကို။

OXYTOCIN Oxytocin သည် သားအိမ်ကျိုးခြင်းကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည် ကလေးဗီးဖွားစဉ်က လေးငယ်အား နှင့် ထုတ်ရန် ချောမွေ့သော ကြွက်သားရှိသည့် mammary glands မှ နို့ထုတ်ခြင်းကို အားပေးသည် (နို့) နို့ထုတ်နေစဉ်။ သင့်တော်သော oxytocin လျှို့ဝှက် မွေးလမ်းကြောင်းအတွင်း မူလာသော reflexes များ မြင့်တက်လာသည် ကလေးမွေးဖွားစဉ် ဖြစ်ပွားသော အခါ တုံ့ပြန်မှုများ ကလေးငယ်သည် ရင်သားကို စုပ်သည်။

ဤအဓိကစီဝင်ကမ္ဘာမှ ထုတ်ပေးခြင်းသည် အပြင် oxytocin မကြာသေးမီက အပြုအမူအမျိုးမျိုးကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးရန် ပြုသင့်သည် အထူးသဖြင့် မိခင်အပြုအမူ ပုံပမာအားဖြင့် ဒီဟော်မုန်းဟာ မိခင်တစ် ဦး နှင့် တစ် ဦး အကြား သံယောဇဉ်တွင် တာမူကို ဖြစ်စေသည့် သူမ၏ ရင်သွေးငယ်

ရှေ့ပိုင်း pituitary ဟော်မုန်းအများစုသည် အပူပိုင်းဒေသဖြစ်သည်။

ဟော်မုန်း synth- ထုတ်လွှတ်သော posterior pituitary နှင့် မတူပါ။ hypothalamus မှ ထုတ်လွှတ်သော ဟော်မုန်းများကို တိုင်းတာသည်။ ဆဲလ်ငါးမျိုး anterior pituitary အတွင်း မူလ ဦး ရေသည် အဓိက pep ခြောက်မျိုးကို ထုတ်ပေးသည်။ ဒီရေဟော်မုန်း ဒီဟော်မုန်း တစ်ခုစီ ရှိလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်တွေက နောက်ပိုင်း အခန်းများတွင် အသေးစိတ် ရေးထားသည်။ လောလောဆယ်၊ ဒီမှာ အကျဉ်းချုပ် အခြေအနေ ကျိုးကြောင်း ဆီလျော်မှု ရရှိရန် ငင်းတို့၏ အရေးအမြစ်နှင့် မူလသက်ရောက်မှုများကို ဖော်ပြသည့် ငင်းတို့၏ အမည်များကို (အဘို့အ • ပုံ 18-6) :

၁။ somatotropes ဟုခေါ်သော anterior pituitary ဆဲလ်အမျိုးအစား ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း (GH, somatotropin) ကို အဓိက ထုတ်ပေးသည် ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ကြီးထွားမှုကို ထိန်းညှိရန် တာဝန်ရှိသည့် ဟော်မုန်း (somato "ခန္ဓာကိုယ်" ဟုဆိုလိုသည်။ GH သည် အရေးကြီးသော စီဝင်ဖြစ်စဉ်ဆိုင်ရာ လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များကို လည်း လုပ်ဆောင်သော somatotropes သည် သိုင်းရွိုက်လှုံ့ဆော်ဟော်မုန်း (TSH) ကို ထုတ်ပေး သည် ။ thyrotropin) သည် သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းများ ထုတ်ပေးခြင်းကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည် နှင့် သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်းကြီးထွားမှု။

စာမျက်နှာ ၁၉

လေ့ကျင့်ခန်း ရောဂါဗေဒကို အနီးကပ်ကြည့်ပါ

စိန်ခေါ်မှုကို Endocrine တုံ့ပြန်မှု ပေါင်းစပ်အပူနှင့် ဘင်ခရာခြေဖမ်း

ပူပြင်းတဲ့ ပတ်ဝန်းကျင် တစ်ခုမှာ လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်တဲ့အခါ၊ ပလာစမာပမာဏကို ထိန်းသိမ်းခြင်းသည် အရေးပါလာသည်။ ical homeostatic စိုးရိမ်မှု။ လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်ပါ အပူကြောင့် အရည်ပမာဏများစွာ ဆုံးရှုံးသည်။ ခန္ဓာထွက်ခြင်းမှာ အတိအကျ တပြိုင်နက်တည်းမှာပင် သွေးသည် အအေးခံရန် အပြောကို shunting ရန် လိုအပ်သည်။ ၎င်းကို အာဟာရဓာတ်ဖြည့်ရန် သွေးဆင်းစိတ်တက်စေရန် အလုပ်လုပ်ကြကံသာ။ နှလုံးခုန်နှုန်း ထိန်းရန် put, venous return သည် လည်လှဲလောက်ရမည်။ hypothalamus - posterior pituitary neu- သည် rosecretory system သည် ကျွန်ုပ်တို့ ပြန်သည်။ ကျေးဇူးပြု၍ ထုတ်လွှတ်ခြင်းဖြင့် အရည်အတွက် လိုအပ်ချက်များကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ vasopressin ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို မြင့်တက်စေသော လက္ခဏာဖြစ်သည်။ ရေကို ထိန်းသိမ်းသော vasopressin သည် uri ကို လျော့ကျစေသည်။ plasma osmolarity နှင့် ဆဲလ်စုပ်သည်။ အရည်ဆုံးရှုံးလျှင် ပလာစမာပမာဏကို ထိန်းသိမ်းရန် nary အရည်ဆုံးရှုံးခြင်း။

လေ့လာမှုများက ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့် ပြသသည်။ အပူတွင် cise သည် vasopressin ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ ၎င်းသည် ဆီအရည်ဆုံးရှုံးမှုကို လျော့နည်းစေသည်။ ၁၈ ဖိုင်းအတွင်း ကောက်ယူထားသော လေ့လာမှုတစ်ခုတွင် ပူပူနွေးနွေးလမ်းလျှောက်ချီတက်သူများ၊ အသက်အရွယ်ဆီထွက်နှုန်း ၁၃၄ စီလီစီတာ သို့ကျဆင်းသွားသည်။ တစ်ချိန်တည်းတွင် ဆီထွက်နှုန်း မမှန်ခြင်း riod သည် နှစ်ဆခန့် ရှိလိမ့်မည်။ ခန္ဓာဆုံးရှုံးမှုမှာ ပျမ်းမျှ ၄ လီတာ ဖြစ်သည်။ ကျော်လွန်- vasopressin ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို မြင့်တက်စေသော လက္ခဏာဖြစ်သည်။ plasma osmolarity နှင့် ဆဲလ်စုပ်သည်။ အရည်ဆုံးရှုံးလျှင်

လုံလောက်စွာ အစားထိုးမှုမှ plasma osmolarity တိုးလာသည်။ hypothalamic osmore- ceptors များသည် ဤ hypertonic အခြေအနေကို ရှာဖွေသည်။ သူတို့သည် vaso- ၏ ပိုလျှံထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို မြင့်တင်ပေးသည်။ posterior pituitary မှ pressin ။ အချို့ သို့သော် ခုစမ်းစစ်ဆေးသူများက ထိုအရာသည် creased vasopressin မှ ထုတ်လွှတ်သော ရလဒ်များ သွေးအပြောင်းအလဲများကို သို့အခြားအချက်များ ဖိအားသို့မဟုတ် ကျောက်ကပ်သွေးစီးဆင်းမှု။ အားဂရုမထားပဲ vasopressin ထုတ်လွှတ်မှု ယန္တရားသည် တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။ လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်ဖို့ အရေးကြီးတဲ့ စီဝင်ကမ္ဘာမှ တုံ့ပြန်မှု အပူပို

၃။ Corticotropes သည် adrenocorticotropin ကို ထုတ်လုပ်ပြီး ထုတ်လွှတ်သည် စိတ်ဝင်စားစရာမှာ ACTH ကို ကြီးမားသော ကြိုတင်စီမံချက်၏ တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်း အဖြစ် ပေါင်းစပ်ထားသည်။ hormone (ACTH, adrenocorticotropin), ဟို မုန်း sor ဖော်လီကျိုးကို pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) ဟုခေါ်သည်။ POMC adrenal cortex မှ cortisol secretion ကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးပြီး အားပေးသည် ACTH, melanocyte : တက်ကြွသော ထုတ်ကုန် သုံးမျိုး သို့ခွင့်သည် ဟော်မုန်း (MSH) ကို ဆွေ့ နှင့် န်အတူ Endorphins ။ ဆဲလ်မျိုးစုံ အမျိုးအစားများသည် POMC ကို ထုတ်လုပ်ပြီး ၎င်းပေါ် မှတည်၍ ထူးခြားသော နည်းလမ်းများဖြင့် လှုံ့ဖြတ်သည်။ သူတို့သည် processing enzymes တွေက မတူညီတဲ့ active တွေကို ထုတ်ပေးတယ် မသိသော နှစ်ပုဂံစရာ peptide+ scraps" နှင့် အတူ ထုတ်ကုန်များ

ဟော်မုန်းများ၏ ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို ထိခိုက်စေသည့် သို့မဟုတ် ထိခိုက်စေနိုင်သည့် ဆေးဝါးများသည် နာမည် ဥပမာ - thyrotropin ထုတ်လွှတ်သည့်

ဟော်မုန်း (TRH) သည် ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည့် အရှေ့မှ TSH (alias thyrotropin)

pituitary ဖြစ်သော်လည်း prolactin-inhibiting ဖြစ်သည့်

ဟော်မုန်း (PIH) သည် dopamine (the "အသနားခံစာ" တွင် neurotransmitter ကဲ့သို့ ဦး နောက်၌ သေချာသော လမ်းကြောင်းများ၊ p ကို ကြည့်ပါ။ ၁၅၇။ Antepita မှ prolactin ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကို ဟန့်တားသည်။

rior pituitary ဖြစ်ပါတယ်။ hypophysiotropic ကိုသတိပြုပါ

ကို အများစုတွင် ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုသည် ပါဝင်ပတ်သက်သည်

သုံးဟော်မုန်းအဆင့်ဆင့် ကွင်းဆက်

mand (• ပုံ ၁၈-၇) : hypothalamic

hypophysiotropic ဟော်မုန်း (ဟော်မုန်း ၁)

anterior-pituitary ၏ အထွက်ကို ထိန်းချုပ်သည်

အပူပိုင်းဒေသ ဟော်မုန်း (ဟော်မုန်း ၂) ကျိအပူပိုင်းဒေသ

တစ်ဖန် ဟော်မုန်းသည် အဝလွန်ခြင်းကို ထိန်းညှိပေးသည်

ပစ်မှတ် endocrine ဂလင်း၏ ဟော်မုန်း (ဟော်မုန်း

၃) နောက်ဆုံး ဇီဝကမ္မဗေဒအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုကို အသုံးပြုသည်။

ဤ ဟော်မုန်းသုံးမျိုးကို an ဟု ခေါ်သည်

hypothalamus - တွင် ကဲ့သို့ endocrine endocrine

pituitary - သိုင်းရွိုက်ဝင်ရိုး

endocrinologist များသည် မူလက ဖြစ်သည်

hypophysiotro- တစ်ခုရှိခဲ့သည့် ဟု ခန့်မှန်းသည်။

anterior pituitary hor တစ်ခုစီအတွက် pic ဟော်မုန်း

monc, hypothalamic ဟော်မုန်းများစွာရှိသည်

အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုတစ်ခုစီကို ပိုသောကြောင့် သူတို့၏ အမည်များကို ညွှန်ပြသည့်

function ကို ပထမ ဦး စွာ ဖော်ထုတ်သည်။ ဒါအပြင် a

တစ် ဦး တည်း anterior pituitary ဟော်မုန်းဖြစ်နိုင်သည်

hypophysiotropic နှစ်ခုသို့မဟုတ် ထိုထက်ပိုသော အားဖြင့် ထိန်းညှိသည်

ဟော်မုန်းများသည် ဆန့်ကျင်ဘက်ပင် ဖြစ်စေနိုင်သည်

သက်ရောက်မှု။ ဥပမာ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း

ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှု (GHRH) ကို လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်

ကြီးထွားမှုဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုမှာ ကြီးထွားမှုဖြစ်သည်

ဟော်မုန်း - တားဆီးဟော်မုန်း (GHIH)။

somatostatin ဟုလည်းလူသိများပြီး ၎င်းကို တားဆီးပေးသည်။

anterior-pituitary somatotropes ၏ ရလဒ်

(ဆိုလိုသည်မှာ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းလျှို့ဝှက်နှုန်း

ဤကဲ့သို့ သော ဆန့်ကျင်ဘက်နှစ်ခုကို တွဲပြန်ရာတွင်

put ရဲ့ relative concentrations ပေါ်မူတည်တယ်

ဤ hypothalamic ဟော်မုန်းများအပြင်

အခြားစည်းမျဉ်းများသွင်းအားစုများ၏ ပြင်းထန်မှုအပေါ်

ဖွဲ့စည်းတည်ဆောက်ပုံနှင့် တူညီသော ဓာတုဓာတ်မန်များ

hypothalamic ဟော်မုန်းများထုတ်လွှတ်ခြင်းနှင့် တားဆီးခြင်းနှင့် vaso-

pressin ကို ဦး နောက်၏ အပြင်ဘက် နေရာများစွာ၌ ထုတ်လုပ်သည်

hypothalamus ။ အဲဒါတွေကို သွေးထဲကို လွှတ်မယ့်အစား

ဓာတ်မန်များသည် ဒေသအလိုက် neurotransmitter အဖြစ်နှင့် neuromodu-

အဖြစ် ဆောင်ရွက်သည်။

(အထူးပေါ်တယ်တိုတိုစနစ်) (အထူးပေါ်တယ်တိုတိုစနစ်)

Translati... ခြေပုံပိုင်း pituitary ခြေပုံပိုင်း pituitary

(လျှို့ဝှက်ချက်များ) Adrenocorticotropi ဟော်မုန်း (ACTH; corticotropin)

ဟော်မုန်း ၂ (စနစ်လည်ပတ်မှု) (စနစ်လည်ပတ်မှု)

ပစ်မှတ် endocrine ဂလင်း Adrenal cortex ဖြစ်သည်

(လျှို့ဝှက်ချက်များ) ဟော်မုန်း ၃ Cortisol

(အထွေထွေလည်ပတ်မှု) (အထွေထွေလည်ပတ်မှု)

ခါးမဟုတ် ဆဲလ်အများစု

ဇီဝကမ္မဗေဒအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု အဲဒါက Metabolic ကို ပြောင်းလဲစေတယ်

စိတ်စိမ်းမှုကို တွန်းလှန်ပေးပါသည်။

• ပုံ 18-7 endo- အတွက် command ကို နှင့် အပျက်သဘောတုံ့ပြန်ချက်၏ hierarchical ကွင်းဆက်

crine ထိန်းချုပ်မှု ၎င်းတွင် hierarchic command of the chain ၌ပါဝင်သော သေတ္တာယူလမ်းကြောင်း

hypothalamus nter anterior pituitary - peripheral target endocrine-gland axis ကို သရုပ်ဖော်ထားသည်။

ဤတွင် cortisol secretion သို့မဟုတ် သော ဘာဘက်လမ်းကြောင်းသည် တိကျသောစစ်ဆေးမှုကို ပေးသည်။

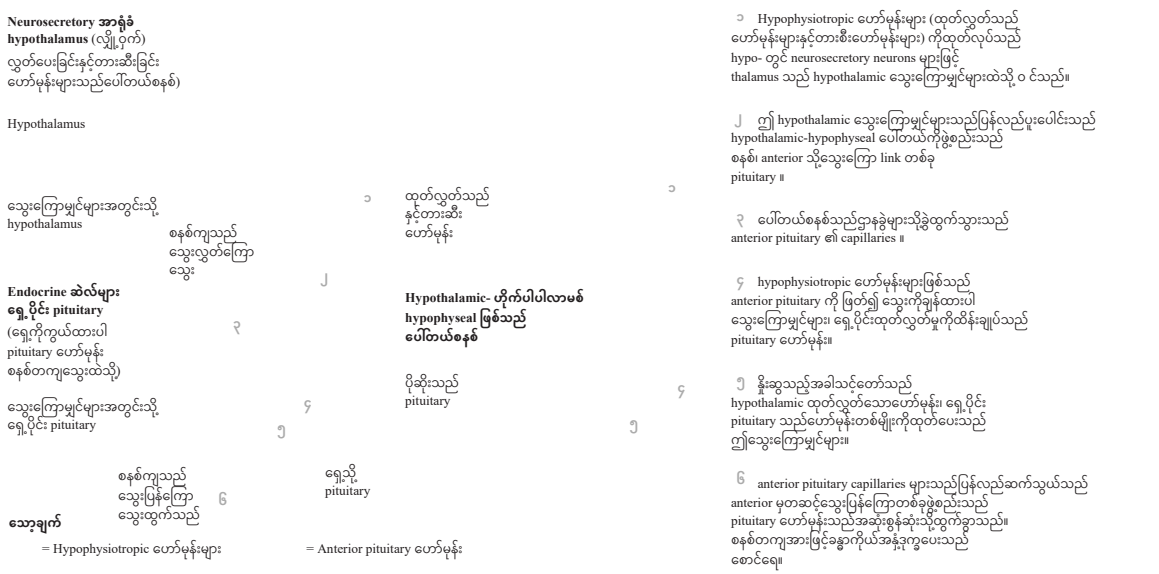
ဤ endocrine ကွင်းဆက်၏ အစိန်မို ဟော်မုန်းသည် နောက်ဆုံးတွင် ပစ်မှတ်မူလျှို့ဝှက်သည်

cortisol ကဲ့သို့ endocrine ဂလင်းသည် အဝလွန်ခြင်းကို လျော့ချရန်အနုတ်လက္ခဏာတုံ့ပြန်သည့် ပုံစံဖြင့် လုပ်ဆောင်သည်

ကွပ်ကဲမှုတွင် ထွက်ပေးခြင်းသည် ကမ်းဟော်မုန်းများ ပိုမိုမြင်စားသည်။

ဤအခြား site များတွင် lators ဥပမာအားဖြင့် PIH သည် လုပ်ဆောင်ရန် တူညီသည်။ pamine သည် basal nuclei များနှင့် အခြားအဓိက neurotransmitter တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။ ဘယ်မှာလဲ။ အခြားသူများသည် လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အမျိုးမျိုးကို ပြောင်းလဲရန် စဉ်းစားသည် မော်တာလုပ်ရှားမှု (TRH) မူလင်စိတ် (GnRH) အထိ သင်ယူခြင်း (vasopressin) ဤဥပမာများက ပြသသည်

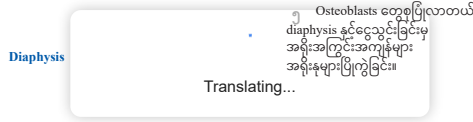
စာမျက်နှာ ၂၃



• ပုံ 18-8 အဆိုပါ hypothalamus နှင့် anterior pituitary အကြား သွေးကြောဆိုင်ရာ link ကို။

HYPOTHALAMIC LE HYPOPHYSEAL PORTAL SYSTEM ၏ အခန်းကဏ္ဍ hypothalamic စည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဟော်မုန်းများသည် anterior pitu- ထူးခြားသော သွေးကြော link တစ်ခုကြောင့် itary ။ မတူတာက-

စောင်ရေ။ ပေါ်တယ်စနစ်မရှိခဲ့လျှင် hypo hypothalamus ၌ physiotropic ဟော်မုန်းများကို ကောက်ယူသည်။ ၎င်းတို့ကို စနစ်တကျ သွေးပြန်ကြောများဖြင့် နှလုံးသို့ ပြန်ပို့လိမ့်မည်



(၈) မတူညီသောအချိန်များတွင်တူညီသော epiphyseal ပန်းကန်၏အပိုင်းနှစ်ခု ရှည်သောအရိုးများရှည်ခြင်းကိုသရုပ်ဖော်သည်။

• ၃၈-၁၀ ခန္ဓာပေးနှင့်အရိုးရှည်များကြီးထွားမှု။

epiphysis ဘေးရှိပန်းကန်ပြားကို ခွဲ၍ မြောက်ပါ။ ယာယီထားပါ။
 epiphyseal ပန်းကန်ကိုချဲ့ခြင်း။ chondrocytes အသစ်များဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသည်နှင့်အမျှ diaphy မှအထက်သို့ပျံ့တက်နေသော osteoblasts များကကျူးကျော်လာသည်။
 epiphyseal နယ်နိမိတ်ရှိအရိုးနုဆဲလ်ဟောင်းများသည်
 diaphyseal နယ်နိမိတ်သည်ပိုကျယ်လာသည်။ ဤ proliferate- ပေါင်းစပ်မှု
 အရိုးနုဆဲလ်အသစ်များနှင့်ရင့်ကျက်သော chon- မြင့်တက်ခြင်း
 drocytes များသည် epiphyseal ပန်းကန်ပြားကိုယာယီကျယ်စေသည်။ ဒါကတူတယ်ပန်းကန်၏ diaphyseal ဘက်၌ ဤအခါ ossification
 ကြားဖြတ်ဝင်နေသောအရိုးနုပြားကိုအရိုးထဲသို့တွန်းပို့သည်
 epiphysis သည် diaphysis နှင့်ပိုဝေးသည်။ မကြာခင်မှာပင်မကတ်ထရစ်
 ရှေးအကျဆုံး hypertrophied အရိုးနုများကိုပတ်ပိုးစုပ်ခြင်းဖြင့် calcified ဖြစ်လာသည်။ အရိုးပေါ်ရှိအရိုးနုသည်အစားထိုးလိုက်သည်
 အရိုးနုသည်၎င်း၏ကိုယ်ပိုင်သွေးကြောမျှင်ကွန်ယက်မရှိခြင်းကြောင့်ရှင်သန်မှုဖြစ်ထွန်းရန် diaphyseal အဆုံးသည်အပေါ်မှအရိုးနုအသစ်ကိုသို့ထူသည်
 အရိုးနုဆဲလ်များသည်အာဟာရများပျံ့နှံ့မှုနှင့် O₂ မတူဆင့် မတူသည်
 matrix, ကယ်လစီယမ်၏စုပ်ယူမှုအားဖြင့်တားဆီးသောဖြစ်စဉ်တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။ "spacer" ကဲ့သို့ပြုသောအရိုးနုကြီးထွားခြင်းနှင့်သေဆုံးခြင်းတို့ကြောင့်
 ဆားများ ထိုကြောင့်အာဟာရဓာတ်ချို့တဲ့နေသောအရိုးနုဆဲလ်များဟောင်းနွမ်းလာသည်။ မတူညီသည့်အဆင့်တစ်ခုပေးသောအခါ epiphysis ကိုပိုမိုဝေးဝေးသို့တွန်းထုတ်သည်
 diaphyseal border သေဆုံးသည်။ osteoclasts သည်သေဆုံးနေသော chondro- မျှင်များကိုဖျက်ဆီးပစ်သည်။ အနာဂတ်အရိုးဖွဲ့စည်းမှုအတွက်

၆၈၀ အခန်း ၁၈

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၈

ရင့်ကျက်, NONGROWING သွေးခြောက်သောအရိုး အတိုင်း
 extracellular matrix တစ်ခုမှထုတ်လုပ်သည်
 osteoblast သည် calcobes ကဲ့သို့ osteoblast ကဲ့သို့ဖြစ်သည်။
 ၎င်း၏ chondrocyte သည်ယခင်ဖြစ်လာသည်
 matrix ဖြင့်မြှုပ်နှံထားသည်။
 သူ့ကိုယ်သူလှည့်ပတ်နေတယ်။ chondrocytes နှင့်မတူ၊
 သို့သော် osteoblasts များသည်တစ်ခုအတွင်း၌ပိတ်မိနေသည်
 calcified matrix ကြောင့်မသေပါဘူး
 ၎င်းတို့ကိုအာဟာရဓာတ်များဖြင့်ပို့ဆောင်ပေးသည်
 သူတို့ကိုတူးမြောင်းသေးသေးလေးတွေကတဆင့်ပို့ပေးတယ်
 osteoblasts များသည်၎င်းတို့ကိုယ်တိုင်ပြုလုပ်သည်
 cytoplasmic extension များထုတ်လွှတ်သည်
 bony matrix သည် de- ပတ်လည်
 တင်ခဲ့သည်။ ထို့ကြောင့်နောက်ဆုံးအရိုးစုအတွင်း
 ထုတ်ကုန်များထိုးဖောက်ဝင်ရောက်နိုင်သောကွန်ယက်
 ပိတ်မိနေသောနေရာအသီးသီးမှ nels များသည်ရောင်ခြည်များ
 teoblast သည်အသက်သွေးကြောစနစ်တစ်ခုအနေနှင့်ထမ်းဆောင်သည်။
 အာဟာရဖြန့်ဝေခြင်းနှင့်စွန့်ပစ်ခြင်း
 ယခုခေါ်သော entrapped osteoblasts
 osteocytosis တက်ကြွသောအရိုးများမှအနားယူပါ။
 ၎င်းတို့အားထောင်ချခြင်းကြောင့်တာဝန်ဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်း၊
 ment သည်သူတို့ကိုအိပ်စက်ခြင်းမှကာကွယ်ပေးသည်
 အရိုးအသစ် ဒါပေမယ့်သူတို့ကိုပါဝင်ပတ်သက်တယ်
 ဟော်မုန်းထိန်းညှိဖလှယ်မှုတွင်
 အရိုးနှင့်သွေးအကြားကယ်လစီယမ်
 ဤလဲလှယ်မှုသည်ထိန်းချုပ်မှုအောက်တွင်ရှိသည်
 parathyroid ဟော်မုန်း (မြို့ဆွေးနွေးသည်
 နောက်အခန်း) GH မဟုတ်ပါ။

ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း/IGF-I အရိုးကြီးထွားမှုကိုအားပေးပါတယ် အရှည်နှင့်အတူနှစ်ခုလုံး

GH သည်အရိုးနှစ်ခုလုံးကိုကြီးထွားစေသည်
 နှင့်အထူး။ GH သည် IGF-I မှတဆင့်လှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်
 epiphyseal အရိုးနုများပြန့်ပွားခြင်း၊
 ထို့ကြောင့်အရိုးပိုများစေရန်နေရာလွတ်ပေးသည်
 ဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်းနှင့် osteoblast ac- ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။
 ကာကွယ်မှု။ GH ၏ရှည်ခြင်းကိုမြှင့်တင်နိုင်သည်
 epiphyseal ကဲ့သို့ရှည်သောအရိုးများ
 ပန်းကန်သည်အရိုးနုပုံစံဖြစ်သည်။ သို့မဟုတ်* ဖွင့်ထားသည်
 မြီးကောင်ပေါက်အရွယ်ရှိအဆုံးမှာ၊
 လင်ဟော်မုန်းတွေရလွယ်မိုးမှု၊ ဒါတွေက
 ပန်းကန်များသည်လုံး o ossify (သို့) "ပိတ်" သည်
 အရိုးများသည်အမွှေးရှည်ခြင်းကိုမရှည်နိုင်ပါ။
 GH ရှိနေသော်လည်း ထိုကြောင့်
 ပန်းကန်များပိတ်ပြီးနောက်တစ် ဦး ချင်း
 ဘယ်အပင်မှမကြီးထွားဘူး။

ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုထိန်းညှိပေးသည် hypophysiotropic ဟော်မုန်းနှစ်ခုကြောင့်

GH secretion ထိန်းချုပ်မှုသည် hypothalamic နှစ်ခုနှင့်ရှုပ်ထွေးသည်
 hypophysiotropic ဟော်မုန်းများသည်အဓိကအခန်းကဏ္ဍပါဝင်သည်။

ling growth hormone secretion: ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သည်
 ဟော်မုန်း (GHRH) သည်လှုံ့ဆော်မှုနှင့်လှမ်းမီမှုရှိသော
 ကျွမ်းကျင်မှုနှင့်ကြီးထွားဟန်တားဟော်မုန်း (GHIH, သို့မဟုတ်)
 somatostatin) သည်တားဆီးနိုင်သော (• ပုံ ၁၈-၁၁) (သတိပြုပါ
 somatotropin, alias ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း တို့တွင်ခြားနားချက်များ ၊ ဒါကြောင့်
 matomedin သည်အသည်းအားဟော်မုန်း (alias IGF-I) ကိုတိုက်ရိုက် ဖြန့်ဖြူး ပေးသည်

ငင်းသည်နေအလင်းရောင်တွင်အခန်းကဏ္ဍသည်။ အတော်အကျ
melatonin secretion သည်တစ်ဖန်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်၏ဇီဝဓမ္မာကိုစွဲလျက်ရှိသည်။
cal အပြင်ဘက်အလင်းအမှောင်အချက်များနှင့် cal rhythms
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့ထိန်းညှိမှုအပြင် melatonin ရဲ့အခန်းကဏ္ဍကိုအဆိုပြုခဲ့တယ်
ဇီဝဓမ္မာသည်အောက်ပါပုံပါဝင်သည်။

- (ဆေးလုံးတစ်လုံးအတွင်း) melatonin သည်ဘာဝကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည့်
hypnotic seda နှင့်တူပင်သောဘေးထွက်ဆိုးကျိုးမရှိဘဲအိပ်ပါ။
အိပ်စက်ခြင်းကြောင့်ငင်းသည်အိပ်မက်မှုကိုမြှင့်တင်ရာတွင်ပုံမှန်အခန်းကဏ္ဍပါဝင်နိုင်သည်။
- Melatonin သည်လှုံ့ဆော်သောဟော်မုန်းများကိုကာစီးသည်ဟုယုံကြည်သည်။
မျိုးဆက်ပွားလှုပ်ရှားမှု၊ အပျိုဖော်ဝင်မှုကိုလျော့ချခြင်းဖြင့်စတင်နိုင်ပါသည်။
melatonin ထုတ်လုပ်မှု
- ဆက်စပ်နေသောအခန်းကဏ္ဍ In တစ်ခုတွင်အချို့မျိုးစိတ်များတွင်ရာသီအလိုက်အတိအကျရှိသည်။
melatonin secretion အရေအတွက်ပြောင်းလဲခြင်းနှင့်ဆက်စပ်သည်။
နေအလင်းရောင်သည်ရာသီအလိုက်မွေးမြူရေးအတွက်အရေးကြီးသောအချက်များဖြစ်သည်။
ရွှေ့ပြောင်းခြင်းနှင့်ဆောင်းဦးခြင်း
- အခြားဆက်စပ်အခန်းကဏ္ဍ In တစ်ခုတွင် melatonin ကိုဆေးခန်းတွင်သုံးသည်။
စမ်းသပ်မှုများကိုသားဆက်ခြားနည်းတစ်ခုအနေနှင့်မြင့်မားသောအဆင့်တွင်ပိတ်ထားသည်။
မျိုးဥထွက်ခြင်း (ဥလွတ်ခြင်း)။ mel- ကို သုံး၍ အမျိုးသားသန္ဓေကားဆေး
သက်ပိုထုတ်လုပ်မှုရပ်တန့်ရန်တိုက်ခိုက်သည်လည်းဖြစ်ပြီးဆဲဖြစ်သည်။
- melatonin အလွန်ထိရောက်သောဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသော **ခါတ်တိုး** တွဲ de-
ဇီဝဓမ္မာကိုထိခိုက်စေသော free radicals များကိုဆန့်ကျင်သောလက်နက် အခမဲ့ရေဒီယို
ကယ်လ် များသည်အလွန်မတည်ငြိမ်သောအီလက်ထရွန်ချို့တဲ့သောအမှုန်များဖြစ်သည်။
ဓာတ်ပြုမှုနှင့်အဖျက်သဘောဆောင်သည်။ ဖရီးရယ်ဒီကယ်များပါဝင်ပတ်သက်နေသည့်
သွေးကြောကျဉ်းရောဂါကဲ့သို့နာတာရှည်ရောဂါများစွာ (ကြည့်ပါ။
p ၃၃၃) ကင်ဆာနှင့်အိုမင်းရှင့်ရောဂါကိုအထောက်အကူပြုသည်ဟုယုံကြည်ကြသည်
လုပ်ငန်းစဉ်။
- အထောက်အထားများအရ melatonin သည်အိုမင်းရှင့်ကိုနှေးကွေးစေနိုင်သည်။
free radicals များကိုဖယ်ရှားခြင်းသို့မဟုတ်အခြားနည်းလမ်းများဖြင့်ပြုလုပ်နိုင်သည်။
- Melatonin သည်ကိုယ်ခံစွမ်းအားကိုမြှင့်တင်ပေးသည်ပင်ပေါ်သည်။
သင်၏အသက်အရွယ်နှင့်ဆိုင်သောကျွမ်းကျင်မှုအချို့ကိုပြန်လှန်ပြုထားသည်။
အတွေ့အကြုံဟောင်းတွင် T lymphocytes ၏အရင်းအမြစ် (စာမျက်နှာ ၄၂၈) ကိုကြည့်ပါ။
စိတ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာတိရစ္ဆာန်များ

melatonin ၏များစွာသောအဆိုပြုထားသောအခန်းကဏ္ဍ Because များကြောင့်အစွဲအမူးဖြစ်ခြင်း
အခြေအနေအမျိုးမျိုးအတွက်ဖြည့်စွက် melatonin သည်
အလွန်အလားအလာ သို့သော်သုတေသီအများစုသည်
ငင်းမပြည့်စုံစွာ melatonin ကိုထောက်ခံသည်နှင့် ပတ်သက်၍ စိတ် ဝ င်စားသည်
ဆေးဝါးတစ်ခုအဖြစ်ထိရောက်မှုကိုထပ်မံအတည်ပြုသည်။ ဒီအချိန်မှာ၊
လူများစွာသည် melatonin ကိုကျန်းမာရေးအားဖြည့်အစာအဖြစ်ပြောင်းလဲလာကြသည်။
ထို့ကြောင့်ငင်းကိုအစားအသောက်နှင့်ဆေးဝါးကွပ်ကဲမှုမှထိန်းချုပ်ပါ။
လုံခြုံရေးနှင့်ထိရောက်မှုအတွက် ဝ န်ဆောင်မှု အကြီးဆုံးကိုယ်ပိုင်နှစ်ခု
သတ်မှတ်ထားသော melatonin ကိုအသုံးပြုခြင်းသည် jet lag နှင့်ကာကွယ်ရန်ဖြစ်သည်။
အိပ်စက်ခြင်းအထောက်အကူအဖြစ်

မိတ်ဆက်ရေးအဖွဲ့အစည်းကော်မရှင်လှိုင်အောင်ထုတ်လုပ်မှုဖြစ်သည်။
H : O ဟန်ချက်ကိုထိန်း ရန်ကူညီသည်။ H : O ချိန်ခွင်လျှက် ထိန်းချုပ် သည်
အလှည့်သည် ECF osmolarity ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်နှင့်သင့်လျော်ရန်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သည်
ဆဲလ်မာဏ

- Translating**
- အများအားဖြင့်ရှေ့ပိုင်းမှထုတ်သောဟော်မုန်းများဖြစ်သည်။
pituitary သည် homeostasis ကိုတိုက်ရိုက်ထောက်ပံ့ပါ။ အစား၊
အများစုမှာအပူပိုင်းဒေသ၊ ဆိုလိုသည်မှာဂရင်းတိုက်သည်အ ဝ လွန်ခြင်းကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်
ဖြစ်ပေမည်။
 - သို့သော် anterior pituitary မကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းကိုထည့်သွင်းသည်
ကြီးထွားမှုမြှင့်တင်ရေးလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များအပြင် meta ကိုလည်းလုပ်ဆောင်သည်။
ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်ကူညီသော bolus အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ
အပိုအားကိုးကွယ်သည်။
• pineal ဂလင်းသည် ဝ င်ရောက်မှုကိုကူညီသော melatonin ကိုလျှိုဇာတ်ပေးသည်
၏ circadian ရစ်ချက်သည်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်လှည့်ပတ်မှု၏လုပ်ပုံဖြစ်သည်
အလင်း (လှုပ်ရှားမှုကာလ) နှင့်အမှောင် (လှုပ်ရှားမှုမရှိသောကာလ)
• အနုဆဲလ် endocrine ဂလင်းများသည်ဟိုဟိုဒီထိန်းသိမ်းရန်ကူညီသည်။
homeostasis ကိုအောက်ပါနည်းလမ်းများဖြင့်
 - ဟော်မုန်းများသည်အာဟာရဓာတ်များကိုသင့်တင့်လျောက်ပတ်သောအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်ကူညီသည်။
ဓာတုဗေဒနည်းဖြင့်ညွှန်းကြားခြင်းဖြင့်အတွင်းပတ်ဝန်းကျင်၌
ဓာတ်ယူလျာဓုပ်ယူခြင်း၊ သို့လျှင်ခြင်းနှင့်ထုတ်လွှတ်ခြင်းတွင်ပါဝင်သောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ
ဖော်လီကျူးတွေ့ရုံအပြင်ဒီဇန်းတွေ
အာဟာရဓာတ်များကို metabolized လုပ်ခြင်းအားဖြင့်ကြီးကြီးမားမားထိန်းချုပ်ထားသည်
endocrine စနစ်။
 - သင့်တင့်လျောက်ပတ်မှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရာတွင်အရေးကြီးသောဓာတ်ဆား
ECF ထုထည်နှင့်သွေးလွှတ်ကြောသွေးဖိအားကို hor-by
ဆားမှပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူခြင်းကို monally ထိန်းချုပ်ထားသောပြုပြင်ပြောင်းလဲမှုများ
ဆီးဖွဲ့စည်းစနစ်ကျောက်ကပ်
 - ထိုနည်းတူစွာဟော်မုန်းများကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်အမျိုးမျိုးသောပစ်ဆဲလ်များပေါ်တွင်လည်းလုပ်ဆောင်သည်
ကယ်လ်စီယမ်နှင့်အခြား electrolytes များ၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု
အစွဲဖန်တီး electrolytes များသည် homeostatic ac- တွင်အဓိကအခန်းကဏ္ဍပါ ဝ င်သည်။
ကာကွယ်မှုများ ဥပမာအားဖြင့်ကယ်လ်စီယမ်ပမာဏကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပါ
ကျဉ်းမြောင်းသောကန့်သတ်ချက်များသည်အာရုံကြောကြွက်သားများနှင့်စိတ်လှုပ်ရှားမှုအတွက်အရေးကြီးသည်
အစွဲအမူးဖြစ်ခြင်းအသက်ကယ်အထောက်အကူပြုလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များတွင်
 - endocrine စနစ်သည်ချိန်ညှိရန်ကျယ်ပြန့်သည်။
တိုပြန်မှုကိုအခြားကိုယ်မှ homeostasis ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန်ကူညီသောစာများ
စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုအခြေအနေများသို့
 - endocrine နဲ့အာရုံကြောစနစ်တွေကပျော်ဖြေပွဲတွေမှာအလုပ်လုပ်ပါတယ်
သွေးလည်ပတ်မှုနှင့်အစာချေစနစ်များကိုထိန်းချုပ်သည်
အရေးကြီး homeostatic လှုပ်ရှားမှုများလုပ်ဆောင်ပါ။

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၅

လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းများကိုပြန်လည်သုံးသပ်ပါ

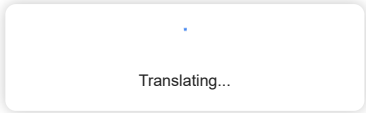
- ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ (p II A-54 တွင်အဖြေများ)**
- ၁။ endocrine ဂလင်းတစ်ခုသည်ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုထက်ပိုထွက်နိုင်သည်။
none (မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၂။ ဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးသည် tar အမျိုးအစားတစ်မျိုးထက်ပိုလွှမ်းမိုးနိုင်သည်။
ဆဲလ်ရယူပါ။ (မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၃။ endocrine ဂလင်းအားလုံးသည် endocrine function တစ်ခုတည်းတွင်သာရှိသည်။
(မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၄။ ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်တစ်ခုတည်းသည်တစ်ခုထက်ပိုသောဩဇာလွှမ်းမိုးနိုင်သည်။
ဟော်မုန်း။ (မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၅။ တိကျသောဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခု၏ Hyposecretion သို့မဟုတ် hypersecretion
ငင်း၏ endocrine ဂလင်းသည်လုံးဝတည်ဆဲဖြစ်သော်လည်းဖြစ်ပွားနိုင်သည်
ပုံမှန် (မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၆။ သွေးအတွင်းကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းပမာဏသည်မြင့်မားခြင်းမရှိပါ။
ငယ်ရွယ်စဉ်ကလေးဘဝသည်အရွယ်ရောက်ချိန်ထက်ပိုမိုကြီးထွားလာသည်။
(မှန်သည်မှားသလား။)
 - ၇။ ဟော်မုန်းသည်ငင်း၏အဓိကလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ဖြစ်သောစည်းမျဉ်းဖြစ်သည်။
အခြား endocrine ဂလင်းတစ်ခု၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ကိုအမျိုးအစားတစ်ခုအဖြစ်ခွဲခြားသည်။
_____ ဟော်မုန်း
 - ၈။ တစ် ဦး အတွက်လက်ခံနိုင်သောအရေအတွက်လျော့ကျလာသည်။
တိကျသောဟော်မုန်းကို _____ ဟုခေါ်သည်။
 - ၉။ အမြစ်လှည့်များ cartilaginous အရိုးအလွှာအတွင်းလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်
_____ သည်အရိုးရည်များရည်ရန်တာဝန်ရှိသည်။
 - ၁၀။ hypothalamus ရှိ _____ သည်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်၏ master bio- ဖြစ်သည်။
ယုတ္တိအာရီ
 - ၁၁။ ဟော်မုန်းများအကြားဆက်သွယ်မှုကိုညွှန်ပြပါ
hypothalamic/anterior pituitary/adrenal cortex system ဖြင့်ပြုလုပ်သည်
အောက်ပါအဖြေကဒီကို သုံး၍
ကွက်လပ်တစ်ခုစီ၌ none သည်
(က) cortisol
(ခ) ACTH

- (၁) hypothalamus မှ _____ သည်စိတ်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်
anterior pituitary မှ (၂) _____ ကိုစွန့်ထုတ်ခြင်း
- (၃) _____ သည်တစ်နည်းအားဖြင့်ငင်း၏လျှို့ဝှက်ချက်ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်
- (၄) adrenal cortex မှ _____ အနုတ်လက္ခဏာမှ-
တုံ့ပြန်မှုဟုခေါ် (၅) _____ သည်အ ဝ လွန်ခြင်းကိုကာစီးပေးသည်
ဟော်မုန်း (၆) _____ ကိုထုတ်လွှတ်ပေးပြီးငင်းသည်တားဆီးပေးသည်
အပူပိုင်းဟော်မုန်း (၇) _____

စာစိစာကုံးမေးခွန်းများ

- ၁။ endocrine စနစ်၏လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်တာများကိုစာရင်းပြုစုပါ။
- ၂။ ဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခု၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုဘယ်လိုလဲ
စည်းမျဉ်း?
- ၃။ ရာထူး၏အရင်းအမြစ်နှင့်လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်တာများကိုအကျဉ်းချုံးဖော်ပြပါ။
terior pituitary ဟော်မုန်း။
- ၄။ ante- ရဲ့အရင်းအမြစ်နှင့်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်တွေကိုစာရင်းလုပ်ပြီးအကျဉ်းချုပ်ဖော်ပြပါ။
rior pituitary ဟော်မုန်း။
- ၅။ hypothalamus နှင့်ဆက်သွယ်မှုရှိသည့်ပါ
hypo အကြားဆက်သွယ်မှုနှင့်အတူ posterior pituitary၊
pohalamus နှင့် anterior pituitary ၏အခန်းကဏ္ဍဖော်ပြပါ
hypothalamic - hypophyseal ပေါ်တယ်စနစ်နှင့် hypo-
thalamic ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကိုဟန်တားပေးသည်။
- ၆။ ကြီးထွားမှုမရှိသောကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်း၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များကိုဖော်ပြပါ။
ကြီးထွားရန်နောက်ကျသည်။ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းရဲ့ကြီးထွားမှုကာလ။
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များအားဖြင့်ငင်းခြင်း? IGFs တွေရဲ့အခန်းကဏ္ဍဘာလဲ။
- ၇။ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုထိန်းချုပ်ရန်ဆွေးနွေးပါ။
- ၈။ နာရီပိုက်တီး၏အခန်းကဏ္ဍဖော်ပြပါ။
- ၉။ စွန့်ထုတ်မှုအတွက်အရင်းအမြစ်၊ လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်တွေနဲ့လှုံ့ဆော်မှုတွေကဘာတွေလဲ
melatonin ၏?

(၈) CRH



အမှတ်များ

(စာမျက်နှာ -၅၄ တွင်ရှင်းလင်းချက်များ)

- ၁။ hypothalamic ပြန်လည်စုစည်းမှုကိုသင်မြောက်လင့်ပါသလား။ စနစ်တကျသွေးပြန်ကြော့ဟော်မုန်းများကိုငှားရမ်းခြင်းနှင့်ကန့်သတ်ခြင်း သွေးနမူနာကိုပိုမိုမြင်သည်။ နမူနာသည် (သို့) တူညီသည် နမူနာတစ်ခုတွင်ကြိုဟော်မုန်းများ၏အာရုံစိုက်မှု hypothalamic – hypophyseal ပေါ်တယ်သွေးလား။
- ၂။ TRH တို့တွင် feedback control loop အကြောင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း၊ TSH နှင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းတို့ပေါင်းစပ်မှုကိုသင်မြောက်လင့်ပါသလား။ TSH ၏ပတ်ချက်သည်ပုံမှန်၊ ပုံမှန်အထက် (သို့) အောက်တွင်ရှိသည် အိုင်အိုဒင်းဓာတ်ချိုတို့သောသူတစ်ဦး တွင်ပုံမှန်ဖြစ်သည် သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းကိုပေါင်းစပ်ရန်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သောခြစ်စင်

- ၃။ လူနာတစ်ဦးသည်ပိုလျှံသော cortisol အထွက်လက္ခဏာကိုပြသည်။ သွေးနမူနာကိုမည်သည့်အချက်များဖြင့်တိုင်းတာနိုင်သနည်း။ termine ချို့ယွင်းမှုကြောင့်ဖြစ်ရတဲ့အခြေအနေဟုတ်မဟုတ် termine hypothalamic/anterior pituitary အဆင့် (သို့) adrenal cortex အဆင့်?
- ၄. testicular feminization syndrome ရှိသောအမျိုးသားများအဘယ်ကြောင့်ဖြစ်ရသနည်း ပုံမှန်မဟုတ်သောအရပ်ရပ်သည်သလား။
- ၅။ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းအလွဲသုံးမှုအတွက်မောင်းခိုဈေးကွက်တစ်ခုရှိနေပြီ ကိုယ်အလေးချိန်မြင့်တင်သူများနှင့်အခြားအားကစားသမားများအကြား ဘယ်လိုလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်တွေလဲ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းသည်အရွယ်ရောက်ပြီးသူအားကစားသမားတစ်ဦး ကိုလုံဆော်ပေးလိမ့်မည် ဒီဟော်မုန်းကိုအပိုဖြည့်ဆေးတွေယူမလား။ ဘာတွေလဲ ဖြစ်နိုင်သောဘေးထွက်ဆိုးကျိုးများ

၆၈၈ အခန်း ၁၈

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၆

ဆေးခန်းစဉ်းစားပါ

(စာမျက်နှာ -၅၅ တွင်ရှင်းပြချက်)

အသက် ၁၈ နှစ်နှင့်အရပ်ရစ်ပေရှိသော Anthony O. သည်မျက်မှန်တပ်ခဲ့သည်။ pituitary အကျိတ်ကြောင့်ဖြစ်ရတဲ့ gigantism နှင့်နာခေါင်း။ ကွန်ဒို

သူ၏ pituitary gland ကိုခွဲစိတ်ဖယ်ရှားခြင်းဖြင့်ကုသသည်။ Anthony သည်မည်သည့်ဟော်မုန်းအစားထိုးကုသမှုကိုလိုအပ်ပါသနည်း။

Endocrinology ၵါအခြေခံမူများ၊ ဗဟို Endocrine ဂလင်း
Translating...

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၇

Endocrine စနစ်

ခန္ဓာကိုယ်စနစ်များ
homeostasis ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပါ

Homeostasis ဖြစ်သည်
endocrine စနစ်သည်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်၏တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်
အဓိကစည်းမျဉ်းစနစ်နှစ်ခု၊ လျှို့ဝှက်ချက်များ
သူတို့ရဲ့ဦး တည်ဆဲလ်တွေကိုလုပ်ဆောင်ပေးတဲ့ဟော်မုန်းတွေ
သွေး၏အာဟာရဓာတ်ပါဝင်မှုကိုထိန်းညှိပေးသည်
မော်လီကျူးများ၊ ရေ၊ ဆားနှင့်အခြားအရာများ
အခြား homeostatic တို့တွင် electrolytes
လုပ်ငန်းများ၊ ဟော်မုန်းများသည်လည်းအဓိကအခန်းကဏ္ဍပါဝင်သည်
ကြီးထွားမှုနှင့်မျိုးပွားမှုကိုထိန်းချုပ်ရာတွင်
စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုကိုလျှော့ချပေးပေးအောင်နေပါ။

Homeostasis ဖြစ်သည်
အတွက်မရှိမဖြစ်
ဆဲလ်များ၏ရှင်သန်မှု

အပျို

ဆဲလ်များ
ဆဲလ်များသည်အဆက်မပြတ်ထောက်ပံ့မှုလိုအပ်သည်
သူတို့ရဲ့အာဟာရတွေကိုထောက်ပံ့ပေးတယ်
စွမ်းအင်ထုတ်ပေးတာ
တုံ့ပြန်မှု။ ပုံမှန်ဆဲလ်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်
သင့်လျော်သောချိန်ခွင့်လျှာပေါ်တွင်လည်းမူတည်သည်
ရေနှင့်အမျိုးမျိုးသော electrolytes များ။

ဆဲလ်များဖွဲ့စည်းသည်
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်စနစ်များ

အဆိုပါ endocrine စနစ်၊ ထိုအသွေးကိုဖွားအားဖွဲ့လျှ **hor-**
mones it secretes သည် ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့်လိုအပ်သောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များကိုထိန်းညှိပေးသည်။
မြန်နှုန်းထက်ကြာချိန် အရ endocrine ဂလင်းများ
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့ Basal ကိုထိန်းချုပ် ပေးတဲ့ **သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း** ပါဝင်ပါတယ်
ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်နှုန်း; အဆိုပါ **adrenal ဂလင်း**၊ ဟော်မုန်း secrete ရာ

လိုက်လျောညီထွေဖြစ်စေရန်အာဟာရမော်လီကျူးများကို metabolizing လုပ်ရာတွင်အရေးကြီးသည်
စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုနှင့်ဆားမျှတမှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းခြင်း၊ အဆိုပါ **endocrine pan-**
creas၊ သည် metabolizing အတွက်အရေးကြီးသောဟော်မုန်းများကို ထုတ်ပေးသည်
အာဟာရမော်လီကျူးများ; နှင့် **parathyroid ဂလင်း**၊ အရာ se-
Ca ၊ ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ် အတွက်အရေးပါသောဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုဖြစ်သည် ။

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၈

အရံပစ္စည်း
Endocrine ဂလင်း

အကြောင်းအရာများအားအချက်ပြပါ

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း၏အခွေဗေဒ

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်း

Adrenal ဂလင်း၏အခွေဗေဒ

Adrenocortical mineralocorticoids

Adrenocortical glucocorticoids

Adrenocortical လိင်ဟော်မုန်း

Adrenal medullary catecholamines

ပေါင်းစည်းစိတ်စိမ်းမှုတုံ့ပြန်မှု

Fuel Metabolism ၏ Endocrine ထိန်းချုပ်မှု

Metabolism, anabolism, catabolism

စွမ်းအင်သိုလှောင်မှု

စုပ်ယူမှုနှင့်စုပ်ယူနိုင်သောအခြေအနေများ

Endocrine ပန်ကရိယ - အင်ဆူလင်နှင့် glucagon

အခြားဟော်မုန်းများ၏စိတ်စိမ်းမှုအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု

Calcium Metabolism ၏ Endocrine ထိန်းချုပ်မှု

Calcium homeostasis နှင့် calcium balance

အရိုးပြုပြင်ခြင်း

Parathyroid ဟော်မုန်း

Calcitonin

ဗီတာမင် D

ကယ်လ်ဆီယမ်နှင့်ဟော့မိုနစ်တစ်ဖလှယ်မှုဆက်သွယ်မှု

metabolism

<http://www.tutor2u.com> တွင် CengageNOW သို့ဝင်ရောက်ပါ

ကတိတ်များ ကိုစူးစမ်းလေ့လာရန်အတွက် www.cengage.com/ssn/

သင်လေ့လာ၊ ပြန်လည်သုံးသပ်ခြင်းနှင့်ကျွမ်းကျင်ရန်ကူညီပေးမည့်အပြန်အလှန်တုံ့ပြန်ပေးစနစ်များ

စီတကမ္မဗေဒသဘာဝတရားများ

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း

အဆိုပါ သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း endocrine တစ်ရုံးနှစ်ခုပေါ်ရှိသောအမြွေးပါဝင်ပါသည်။ Thyroid ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်အတွက် အပိုင်းတစ်ခုနှင့်အလယ်၌ ပေါင်းစည်းထားသည်။

must ဝင်ရောက်ပါ။ (• ပုံ ၁၉-၁) ဂလင်းသည်

ဦး နှစ်ခုနှင့်ဆက်သွယ်နေရာတွင်တည်ရှိသည်

အသီးအားအောက်က လျှောက်ပါ။

အခန်းအစိတ်အပိုင်းကိုဖော်ပြပါ

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်းမှ ထွက်ရှိသည့်

colloid ပြည့်နေသော follicles များထဲသို့

follicular ဆဲလ် ဟုလူသိများသော အဓိက သိုင်းရွိုက် secretory ဆဲလ် များသည်

တစ်ခုစီသည်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အား အခြေအနေများထားထားသော အခေါင်းပေါက်များထဲသို့စိစပ်ပေးသည်

follicle ဟုခေါ်သည်။ အဓိကပြုပြင်မှုများအတွက် (• ပုံ ၁၉-၁b)၊ follicles များသည်အလွှာတစ်ခုတည်းပါဝင်သော အခေါင်းပေါက်များကိုသို့ပေါ်လာသည်

နှင့် ပြည့်နေသော extracellular သိုလှောင်ရာနေရာအဖြစ်ဆောင်ရွက်သောပစ္စည်း

ဟော်မုန်း။ follicular lumen အတွင်းရှိ colloid သည်သတိပြုပါ

extracellular (ဆိုလိုသည်မှာသိုင်းရွိုက်ဆဲလ်များအပြင်ဘက်) ဖြစ်သည်

follicle ၏အတွင်းပိုင်း၌တည်ရှိသည်။ Colloid မပါဝင်ပါ

ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်ရှိ extracellular အရည်နှင့်တိုက်ရိုက်ထိတွေ့သည်

တိုက်ရိုက်မထိတွေ့သောကုန်းတွင်းရေကန်နှင့်တူသည်

တိုက်ကြီးကိုဝန်းရံနေသောသမုဒ္ဒရာများနှင့်

colloid ၏အဓိကအစိတ်အပိုင်းသည်ကြီးမားသော glycoprotein mol

thyroglobulin (Tg) ဟုခေါ်သော ချေး သည်ဂင်းတွင်ပါဝင်သည်။

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းများကိုသုတိ၏ကြိုးပြားသောအဆင့်အမျိုးမျိုးတွင်ဖြတ်တောက်ခဲ့သည်။

စာတမ်း။ follicular ဆဲလ်များသည်အိုင်အိုဒိုင်းပါဝင်သောနှစ်မျိုးထုတ်လုပ်သည်

အိုင်အိုအက်ဆစ် tyrosine မှဆင်းသက်လာသောဟော်မုန်းများ tetraiodo-

thyronine (T₄ or thyroxine) နှင့် tri-iodothyronine (T₃) ။ ဟို

prefixes tetra နှင့် tri နှင့် subscripts 4 နှင့် 3 တို့သည်ဂင်းကိုရည်ညွှန်းသည်

ဤဟော်မုန်းတစ်ခုချင်းစီတွင်အိုင်အိုဒိုင်းအက်တမ်အရေအတွက်

mones ဒီဟော်မုန်းနှစ်ခုကိုပေါင်းပြီး မင်းရို

roid ဟော်မုန်း သည်ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့် basal meta- ၏အရေးပါသောထိန်းညှိသူဖြစ်သည်။

bolic နှုန်း

follicles များအကြား interstitial space များတွင်ကွဲပြားသည်

နောက်ထပ် secretory cell အမျိုးအစားတစ်ခုဖြစ်တဲ့ C cells တွေက pep

ဒီရေဟော်မုန်း calcitonin Calcitonin သည်ကယ်လ်ဆီယမ်တွင်အဓိကအခန်းကဏ္ဍပါဝင်သည်

metabolism နှင့်အခြားအဓိကနှစ်ခုမှထွက်ရှိသည့်နည်းနှင့်မျှဆက်စပ်မှုမရှိပါ

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်း။ ကျနော်တို့ကဒီမှာ T ကဆွေးနွေးကြမည် ၊ နဲ့ T₃ နှင့်ဟောပြောပွဲ

နောက်ပိုင်းတွင် calcitonin အကြောင်း endocrine ထိန်းချုပ်မှုနှင့်ပတ်သက်သောအပိုင်း၌

ကယ်လ်ဆီယမ်လက်ကျန်ပမာဏ

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၉

ဆန့်ကျင်ဘက်အားဖြင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပေါင်းစပ်မှုအတွက်လိုအပ်သောအိုင်အိုဒိုင်း အဟာရစားသုံးမှုမရှိပါ။ အိုင်အိုဒိုင်းဓါတ် (I) သည်ပြန်လည် အသိမ်စုပ်ယူခြင်းမပြုမီ iodide (I) ကိုသုံးသည်။ ယခုကျွန်ုပ်တို့ပေါင်းစပ်မှု၊ သိုလှောင်မှုတွင်ပါဝင်သောအဆင့်များကိုဆန်းစစ်သည်။ သကြားဓာတ်နှင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းများကိုပိုဆောင်ပေးသည်။

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပေါင်းစပ်မှု၏ခြေလှမ်းအများစုသည်နေရာပေါ်တွင်ရှိသည့် colloid အတွင်းရှိ thyroglobulin ဖော်လီကျူးများ Thyroglobulin ကိုယ်တိုင်ဖြစ်သည် endoplasmic reticulum/Golgi complex မှထုတ်လုပ်သည်

thyroid follicular ဆဲလ်များ အမိုင်အိုအက်ဆစ် tyrosine ဖြစ်လာသည် ပိုကြီးသော thyroglobulin ဖော်လီကျူးများတွင်ထည့်သွင်းထားသည်

နောက်ဆုံးထုတ်လုပ်လျက်ရှိသည်။ ထုတ်လုပ်ပြီးသည်နှင့် tyrosine ပါဝင်သည့် thyroglobulin ကို follicular ဆဲလ်များမှ vesicles များတွင်တင်ပို့သည်

exocytosis အားဖြင့် colloid (ခြေလှမ်းသို့ ။ အတွက် • ပုံ 19-2) ။ ဟို သိုင်းရွိုက်သည်ကျွန်ုပ်အားသွေးမှမ်းယူလိုက်ပြီးဂင်းကို colus ထဲသို့ပို့ဆောင်သည်။ အား ကောင်းသော၊ စွမ်းအင်လိုအပ်သောသယ်ဆောင်သူ iodide စုပ်စက် ဖြင့်ဖွင့်သည်

follicular ဆဲလ်များ၏အပြင်ဘက်အမြွေးပါး၌ပရိုတိုနီး (အဆင့် ၂) အိုင်အိုဒိုင်းစုပ်စက်သည် Na အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုမှမောင်းနှင်အားဖြည့်ပေးသူဖြစ်သည်။ Na မှသတ်မှတ်ထားသော ion gradient basolat- တွင်စုပ်စက် K

eral membrane (follicular cell ၏အပြင်ဘက်အမြွေးပါး interstitial fluid နှင့်ထိတွေ့ပါ။) iodide စုပ်စက်သည်သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ပေးသည် Na သည် follicular cell ထဲသို့ဂင်း၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု gradient ကိုကျဆင်းစေသည်

ငါသို့အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု gradient ကိုဆန့်ကျင်ဘက်သို့ကိုင်ရာကနေတယ်။ အားလုံးနီးပါး ကျွန်ုပ်တို့၏ခန္ဓာကိုယ်သည်ဂင်း၏အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု gradient ကိုဆန့်ကျင်သည် သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပေါင်းစပ်မှုအတွက်သိုင်းရွိုက်တွင်ပိတ်မိနေခြင်း

sis အိုင်အိုဒိုင်းသည်များသောအားဖြင့်ဂင်းထက်အဆ ၃၀ ခန့်ပိုများသည် သွေးထက်သိုင်းရွိုက် follicular ဆဲလ်များ Iodide သည်အခြားအရာများကိုမလုပ်ဆောင်ပါ ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ထဲမှာ function ကို။

follicular cell အတွင်း၌ iodide သည် oxidized“ active” iodide သို့ oxidized ဖြစ်သည် တစ်ဦးအမြွေးပါး-ဘောင်းအင်ဇိုင်းက thyroperoxidase (TPO), lo- luminal membrane, follicular ၏အမြွေး

ဆဲလ်သည် colloid (အဆင့် ၃) နှင့်ထိတွေ့သည်။ ။ ဤတက်ကြွသော iodide သည်ထွက်သည် luminal membrane ရှိ channel တစ်ခုမှဆင့် colloid သို့ဝင်ရောက်သည် (အဆင့် ၄)

colloid, TPO, အမြွေးပါးဖြင့်ချည်နှောင်ထားဆဲ၊ လျင်မြန်စွာ

စတီရှိုက် ဂလင်း

ညာဘက်အမြွေး Trachea လည်ပင်း ဘယ်ဘက်စူး

(က) သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း၏စုပေါင်းအခွေဗေဒ

Follicular ဆဲလ် Colloid C ဆဲလ်

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းကို ဝှက်ချက် (၏ ologic ထိန်းသိမ်းပုံ 19-3) (စာမျက်နှာ ၆၇၃ ကိုကြည့်ပါ။) TSH သည် thyrotropes များတွင် cAMP ကိုတိုးမြှင့်ခြင်းဖြင့်လုပ်ဆောင်သည်။ သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပေါင်းစပ်မှုနှင့်ထုတ်လွှတ်မှု၏ခြေလှမ်းတိုင်းနီးပါးသည် TSH မှလွှဲဆောင်ခြင်း- iodide စုပ်ယူခြင်း၊ iodine ဓာတ်တိုးခြင်း၊ tyrosine atom အိုင်ဒိုဒင်းဓာတ်ပါဝင်သောထုတ်ကုန်များပေါင်းစပ်ခြင်း၊ T ကိုအကွက်နှုန်းတိုးစေသည်နှင့် T₄ , follicular ဆဲလ်များမှ colloid phagocytic စုပ်ယူခြင်းနှင့်ကိုပြားခြားနားသည်။ ထုတ်လွှတ်သောဟော်မုန်းထုတ်ကုန်များကိုသွေးထဲသို့ပေါင်းစပ်ခြင်း၊ လျှို့ဝှက်ချက်) ဖြစ်သည်။

ရှေ့ပိုင်း pituitary

သိုင်းရွိုက်ကိုလွှဲဆောင်ပေးသည် TSH (ဟော်မုန်း)

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်း (T₃ နှင့် T₄)

သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှုကိုတိုးတက်စေသည့်အပြင် TSH သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်း၏ဖြစ်ပွားမှုကိုထိန်းသိမ်းသည်။ TSH မရှိခြင်း၊ သိုင်းရွိုက်အကျိတ်များ (အရွယ်အစားကျဆင်းခြင်း) နှင့် ၎င်း၏ဟော်မုန်းများကိုအလွန်နည်းသောနှုန်းဖြင့်ထုတ်သည်။ အပြန်အလှန်အားဖြင့်၎င်းသည် hypertrophy (follicular ဆဲလ်တစ်ခုစီ၏အရွယ်အစားတိုးလာခြင်း) hyperplasia (follicular ဆဲလ်အရေအတွက်တိုးလာခြင်း) ပိုလျှံ TSH လွှဲဆောင်မှုကိုတုံ့ပြန်သည်။

hypothalamic thyrotropin-release hormone (TRH)
အပူပိုင်းဒေသပုံစံအရ ရှေ့ပိုင်း pitu- TSH secretion ကိုဖွင့်သည်။ itary (p 675) ကိုကြည့်ပါ။ သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းသည်အပျက်သဘောတုံ့ပြန်ချက်တွင်ရှိသည် ဖက်ရှင်၊ “ TSH secretion ကိုပိတ်ပစ်ခြင်းအားဖြင့်ရှေ့ပိုင်း Pituitary နှင့် hypothalamus TRH လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များကို IP₃ /DAG /Ca²⁺ မှတဆင့်လုပ်ဆောင်စေသည်။ ခုတ်ယူမှုလမ်းကြောင်း (စာမျက်နှာ ၁၂၂ ကိုကြည့်ပါ) ။ အခြားအပျက်သဘောများကဲ့သို့ သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းနှင့် TSH အကြားရှိတုံ့ပြန်မှု loops တည်ရှိသောသိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းအထွက်ထိန်းသိမ်းရန်အားပေးသည်။

ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်နှင့်အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ တိုးတက်မှုနှင့် CNS ဖွံ့ဖြိုးရေးကိုမြှင့်တင်ခြင်း၊ ကိုယ်ချင်းစာစိတ်ကိုတိုးတက်စေသည်

သိုင်းရွိုက်နှင့်ရှေ့ပိုင်း pitu- အကြားအနှုတ်လက္ခဏာတုံ့ပြန်ချက် itary သည်နှေ့စဉ်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းအခမဲ့ထိန်းချုပ်မှုကိုပြီးမြောက်စေသည်။ mone အဆင့်၊ hypothalamus သည်တာရှည်ကိုညှိနှိုင်းပေးသည် ချိန်ညှိမှုများ အခြားဟော်မုန်းစနစ်အများစုနှင့်မတူဘဲ၊ အရွယ်ရောက်ပြီးသူများတွင် hypothalamuspituitarythyroid ဝင်ရိုး၌ mone ပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်ရုတ်တရက်ကျယ်ပြန့်စွာလျှို့ဝှက် ခြင်းကိုမခံရပါ။ ဟို သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုနှုန်းအတော်အတန်တည်ငြိမ်သည် နှေးကွေး။ ကြာရှည်ခံနိုင်သောတုံ့ပြန်မှုများနှင့်အတူကျော်ဟော်မုန်းသည် duces; ရုတ်တရက်တိုးတက်လာသောအလိုက်သင့်တန်ဖိုးမရှိနိုင်ပေ သို့မဟုတ်လလာစာသိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပမာဏကိုကျဆင်းစေသည်။

ဤဝင်ရိုး၌ mone သည် BMR ကိုမြှင့်တင်ရန်နည်းလမ်းတစ်ခုအဖြစ်တိုးစေသည် နှင့်အပူထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ ရုပ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာဖိစီးမှု၊ အစာဝတ်ခြင်းအပါအဝင်စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုအမျိုးမျိုး၊ ကူးစက်မှု၊ TSH နှင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုကိုဟန့်တားသည်။ hypothalamus အပေါ်အာရုံကြောလွှမ်းမိုးမှုများကြောင့်ဖြစ်နိုင်သည်။ ဤတာဝန်များ၏လိုက်လျောညီထွေမှုအရေးကြီးပုံမှာမရှင်းလင်းသော်လည်း

သိုင်းရွိုက်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှမဟုတ်မှုများပါဝင်သည့် hypothyroidism နှင့် hyperthyroidism နှစ်မျိုးလုံး

TRH secretion ကိုမြှင့်တင်စေသောတစ်ခုတည်းသောအချက် (နှင့်၊ ထို့ကြောင့် TSH နှင့်သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှု) သည်ထိတွေ့မှုဖြစ်သည် မွေးကင်းစမွေးကင်းစကလေးငယ်များကိုအေးမိခြင်း၊ အလွန်လိုက်လျောညီထွေဖြစ်စေသော endocrine ဂရောဂါများ။ သူတို့ကအဓိကနှစ်ပိုင်းဖြစ်သွားတယ် အပူထုတ်လုပ်သည့်သိုင်းရွိုက်သို့သောသောမြင်တက်လာသည်ဟုယူဆသည် ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှုသည်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အပူချိန်ကိုထိန်းထားရန်ကူညီသည် မွေးဖွားချိန်တွင်ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်အပူချိန်ရုတ်တရက်ကျဆင်းခြင်း စိတ်ကူးယဉ်မိခင်၏နှေးကွေးသောခန္ဓာကိုယ်မှအေးမြသောပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သို့ဖြတ်သန်းသည့်အခါ သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုအလွန်နည်းခြင်း (သို့) အလွန်များနေခြင်း စိတ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာလေ။ အအေးထိတွေ့မှုနှင့်ဆင်တူသော TSH တုန်ပြန်မှုသည် အရွယ်ရောက်ပြီးသူများတွင်ဖြစ်ပွားလေ့မရှိသော်လည်း၎င်းသည်ဇီဝကမ္မဗေဒသဘောတရားအရ အချို့အထောက်အထားများအရကာလကြာရှည်အခြေခံတွင်၊ အေးမြသောပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သို့ရာသီဥတုပြောင်းလဲခြင်း၊ ဟော်မုန်းများစုစည်းမှု

သိုင်းရွိုက်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်မှမဟုတ်မှုများသည်အများဆုံးဖြစ်သည် အဖြစ်များသော endocrine ဂရောဂါများ။ သူတို့ကအဓိကနှစ်ပိုင်းဖြစ်သွားတယ် **hypothyroidism နှင့် hyperthyroidism** - သိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းချို့တဲ့ခြင်းနှင့်ပိုလျှံနေခြင်းကိုထင်ဟပ်စေသည်။ အစဉ်အတိုင်း တိကျသောအကြောင်းအရင်းများစွာသည်တစ်ခုစီကိုမြှင့်တင်စေနိုင်သည် ကျွန်ုပ်တို့အနေအထား (▲ စာပိုဒ် 19-1) ။ ဘယ်လိုအကြောင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်ဖြစ် ဤသိုင်းရွိုက်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှုအလွန်နည်းခြင်း (သို့) အလွန်များနေခြင်း သိုင်းရွိုက်၏လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်တာများကိုသိရှိခြင်းဖြင့်ကြိုတင်မှန်းဆနိုင်သည်

HYPOTHYROIDISM Hypothyroidism သည် Pri- မှ (၁) အထိဖြစ်ပေါ်စေနိုင်သည်။ mary သိုင်းရွိုက်ဂလင်းသို့ဟာသုပျက်ကွက်; (၂) အကာအကွယ်အတွက်အလယ်တန်း

စာမျက်နှာ ၄၃

▲ TABLE 19-1 **Types of Thyroid Dysfunctions**

Thyroid Dysfunction	Cause	Plasma Concentrations of Relevant Hormones	Goiter Present?
Hypothyroidism	Primary failure of the thyroid gland	g T ₃ and T ₄ , h TSH	Yes
	Secondary to hypothalamic or anterior pituitary failure	g T ₃ and T ₄ , g TRH and/or g TSH	No
	Lack of dietary iodine	g T ₃ and T ₄ , h TSH	Yes
Hyperthyroidism	Abnormal presence of thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulin (TSI) (Graves' disease)	h T ₃ and T ₄ , g TSH	Yes
	Secondary to excess hypothalamic or anterior pituitary secretion	h T ₃ and T ₄ , h TRH and/or h TSH	Yes
	Hypersécréting thyroid tumor	h T ₃ and T ₄ , g TSH	No

TRH, TSH (သို့) နှစ်ခုလုံး; (၃) အာဟာရမလုံလောက်ခြင်းမှ အိုင်ဒိုဒင်းထောက်ပံ့ရေး
hypothyroidism ၏လက္ခဏာများသည်တစ် ဦး မှတစ် ဦး သို့ဖြစ်စေသည် ယောယျအားဖြင့်ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်လုပ်ဆောင်မှုကိုလျော့ကျစေသည်။ ပမာ၊ hypothyroidism လူနာသည် BMR (စွမ်းအင်နည်းသည် အနားယူချိန်တွင်အသုံးစရိတ်) အအေးဒဏ်ကိုခံနိုင်ရည်ညီမျှမှုကိုပြသည် calorogenic အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု; အလွန်အကျွံကိုယ်အလေးချိန်တက်လိုတုံ့စိတ်ရှိတယ် ပုံမှန်နှုန်းဖြင့်လောင်ကျွမ်းခြင်း) မောပန်းလွယ်သည် (စွမ်းအင်နည်းသည် ထုတ်လုပ်မှု); နှေးကွေး။ အားနည်းသောသွေးခဲနုနှုန်းရှိသည် နှလုံးကျွံနှုန်းနှင့်ခွန်အားနှင့်လျော့ကျလာသောကာသိac အထွက်; နှေးကွေးသောတုံ့ပြန်မှုများနှင့်စိတ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာတုံ့ပြန်မှုနှေးကွေးခြင်းကိုပြသည်။ siveness (အာရုံကြောစနစ်အပေါ်သက်ရောက်မှုကြောင့်) ။ ဟို စိတ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာသက်ရောက်မှုများသည်သတိလစ်မေ့မောခြင်း၊ နှေးကွေးခြင်းတို့ဖြင့်သွင်ပြင်လက္ခဏာရှိသည် အပြောအဆို၊ မှတ်ဉာဏ်အားနည်းခြင်း။ အခြားထင်ရှားသောဇီဝသေသလက္ခဏာတစ်ခုမှာအကိုက်ခံရသောအခြေအနေဖြစ်သည်

Anterior pituitary

Thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulin (TSI) (an antibody) No TSH

(No stimulation)

Thyroid gland

Thyroid hormone

axis and feedback control, we can predict which types of thyroid secretion of thyroid hormone. Because the high levels of circulating

Translating...



(a) Location and gross structure of adrenal glands

(b) Layers of adrenal cortex

• **FIGURE 19-7 Anatomy of and hormonal secretion by the adrenal glands.**

T₃ and T₄ inhibit the anterior pituitary, TSH secretion itself is low. In all other cases when a goiter is present, TSH levels are elevated and are directly responsible for excessive growth of the thyroid.

Hyperthyroidism resulting from overactivity of the thyroid in the absence of overstimulation, such as caused by an uncontrolled thyroid tumor, is not accompanied by a goiter. The spontaneous secretion of excessive amounts of T₃ and T₄ inhibits TSH, so there is no stimulatory input to promote growth of the thyroid. (Even though a goiter does not develop, a tumor may cause enlargement of the thyroid, depending on the nature or size of the tumor.)

Adrenal Glands

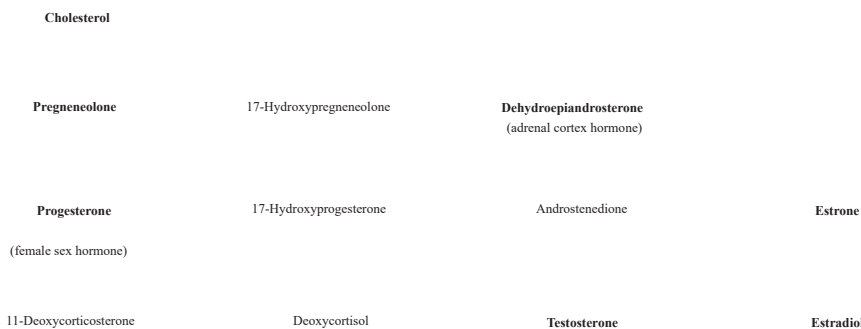
There are two **adrenal glands**, one embedded above each kidney in a capsule of fat (*ad* means “next to”; *renal* means “kidney”) (• Figure 19-7a).

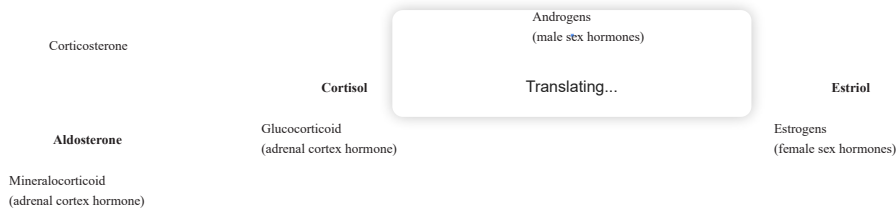
Each adrenal gland consists of a steroid-secreting cortex and a catecholamine-secreting medulla.

Each adrenal is composed of two endocrine organs, one surrounding the other. The outer layers composing the **adrenal cortex** secrete a variety of steroid hormones; the inner portion, the **adrenal medulla**, secretes catecholamines. Thus, the adrenal cortex and medulla secrete hormones belonging to different chemical categories, whose functions, mechanisms of action, and regulation are entirely different. We will first examine the adrenal cortex before turning our attention to the adrenal medulla.

The adrenal cortex secretes mineralocorticoids, glucocorticoids, and sex hormones.

The adrenal cortex consists of three layers or zones: the **zona glomerulosa**, the outermost layer; the **zona fasciculata**, the middle and largest portion; and the **zona reticularis**, the innermost zone (• Figure 19-7b). The adrenal cortex produces a





• **FIGURE 19-8 Steroidogenic pathways for the major steroid hormones.** All steroid hormones are produced through a series of enzymatic reactions that modify cholesterol molecules, such as by varying the side groups attached to them. Each steroidogenic organ can produce only those steroid hormones for which it has a complete set of the enzymes needed to appropriately modify cholesterol, after first converting it to pregnenolone. The active hormones produced in the steroidogenic pathways are highlighted by screens. The intermediates that are not biologically active in humans are not screened. The adrenal cortex has the enzymes necessary to convert cholesterol into the mineralocorticoid aldosterone, the glucocorticoid cortisol, and the weak androgen dehydroepiandrosterone. The testes can synthesize the potent androgen testosterone. The ovaries produce various estrogens and progesterone.

number of different **adrenocortical hormones**, all of which are steroids derived from the common precursor molecule, cholesterol. All steroidogenic (“steroid-producing”) tissues first convert cholesterol to *pregnenolone*, then modify this common core molecule by stepwise enzymatic reactions to produce active steroid hormones. Each steroidogenic tissue has a complement of enzymes to produce one or several but not all steroid hormones (• Figure 19-8). The adrenal cortex produces a greater variety of hormones than any other steroidogenic tissue. Slight variations in structure confer different functional capabilities on the various adrenocortical hormones. On the basis of their primary actions, the adrenal steroids can be divided into three categories:

1. **Mineralocorticoids**, mainly *aldosterone*, influence mineral (electrolyte) balance, specifically Na and K balance.
2. **Glucocorticoids**, primarily *cortisol*, play a major role in glucose metabolism as well as in protein and lipid metabolism and in adaptation to stress.
3. **Sex hormones** are identical or similar to those produced by the gonads (testes in males, ovaries in females). The most abundant and physiologically important of the adrenocortical sex

hormones is *dehydroepiandrosterone*, an androgen, or “male” sex hormone.

The three categories of adrenal steroids are produced in anatomically distinct portions of the adrenal cortex as a result of differential distribution of the enzymes required to catalyze the different biosynthetic pathways leading to the formation of each of these steroids. Of the two major adrenocortical hormones, aldosterone is produced exclusively in the zona glomerulosa, whereas cortisol synthesis is limited to the two inner layers of the cortex, with the zona fasciculata being the major source of this glucocorticoid (see • Figure 19-7b). No other steroidogenic tissues have the capability of producing either mineralocorticoids or glucocorticoids. In contrast, the adrenal sex hormones, also produced by the two inner cortical zones, are produced in far greater abundance in the gonads.

Because the adrenocortical hormones are all lipophilic and immediately diffuse through the plasma membrane of the steroidogenic cell into the blood after being synthesized, the rate of secretion is regulated by controlling the rate of synthesis.

Being lipophilic, the adrenocortical hormones are all carried in the blood extensively bound to plasma proteins. Cortisol

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is bound mostly to a plasma protein specific for it called **corticosteroid-binding globulin (transcortin)**, whereas aldosterone and dehydroepiandrosterone are largely bound to albumin, which nonspecifically binds a variety of lipophilic hormones.

Each of the adrenocortical steroid hormones binds with a receptor specific for it within the cytoplasm of the hormone’s target cells: Mineralocorticoids bind to the **mineralocorticoid receptor (MR)**, glucocorticoids to the **glucocorticoid receptor (GR)**, and dehydroepiandrosterone to the **androgen receptor (AR)**. As is true of all steroid hormones, each hormone-receptor complex moves to the nucleus and binds with a complementary hormone-response element in DNA, namely the **mineralocorticoid response element, glucocorticoid response element, and androgen response element**. This binding initiates specific gene transcription leading to synthesis of new proteins that carry out the effects of the hormone.

[The major effects of mineralocorticoids are on Na and K balance and blood pressure homeostasis.](#)

The actions and regulation of the primary adrenocortical mineralocorticoid, **aldosterone**, are described thoroughly elsewhere (Chapters 14 and 15). The principal site of aldosterone action is on the distal and collecting tubules of the kidney, where it promotes Na retention and enhances K elimination during the formation of urine. The promotion of Na retention by aldosterone secondarily induces osmotic retention of H₂O, expanding the ECF volume, which is important in the long-term regulation of blood pressure.

Mineralocorticoids are *essential for life*. Without aldosterone, a person rapidly dies from circulatory shock because of the marked fall in plasma volume caused by excessive losses of

METABOLIC EFFECTS The overall effect of cortisol’s metabolic actions is to increase the concentration of blood glucose at the expense of protein and fat stores. Specifically, cortisol performs the following functions:

- It stimulates hepatic **gluconeogenesis**, the conversion of noncarbohydrate sources (namely, amino acids) into carbohydrate within the liver (*gluco* means “glucose”; *neo* means “new”; *genesis* means “production”). Between meals or during periods of fasting, when no new nutrients are being absorbed into the blood for use and storage, the glycogen (stored glucose) in the liver tends to become depleted as it is broken down to release glucose into the blood. Gluconeogenesis is an important factor in replenishing hepatic glycogen stores and thus in maintaining normal blood glucose levels between meals. This is essential because the brain can use only glucose as its metabolic fuel, yet nervous tissue cannot store glycogen to any extent. The concentration of glucose in the blood must therefore be maintained at an appropriate level to adequately supply the glucose-dependent brain with nutrients.
- It inhibits glucose uptake and use by many tissues, but not the brain, thus sparing glucose for use by the brain, which absolutely requires it as a metabolic fuel. This action contributes to the increase in blood glucose concentration brought about by gluconeogenesis.
- It stimulates protein degradation in many tissues, especially muscle. By breaking down a portion of muscle proteins into their constituent amino acids, cortisol increases the blood amino acid concentration. These mobilized amino acids are available for use in gluconeogenesis or wherever else they are needed, such as for repair of damaged tissue or synthesis of new cellular structures.
- It facilitates lipolysis, the breakdown of lipid (fat) stores in adipose tissue, thus releasing free fatty acids into the blood (*lysis* means “breakdown”). The mobilized fatty acids are available

H₂O holding Na⁺. With most other hormonal deficiencies, death is not imminent, even though a chronic hormonal deficiency may eventually lead to a premature death.

Aldosterone secretion is increased by (1) activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) by factors related to a reduction in Na and a fall in blood pressure and (2) direct stimulation of the adrenal cortex by a rise in plasma K concentration (see • Figure 14-22, p. 535). In addition to its effect on aldosterone secretion, angiotensin promotes growth of the zona glomerulosa, in a manner similar to the effect of TSH on the thyroid. Adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) from the anterior pituitary primarily promotes the secretion of cortisol, not aldosterone. Thus, unlike cortisol regulation, the regulation of aldosterone secretion is largely independent of anterior pituitary control.

Glucocorticoids exert metabolic effects and play a key role in adaptation to stress.

Cortisol, the primary glucocorticoid, plays an important role in carbohydrate, protein, and fat metabolism; executes significant permissive actions for other hormonal activities; and helps people resist stress.

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as an alternative metabolic fuel for tissues that can use this energy source in lieu of glucose, thereby conserving glucose for the brain.

PERMISSIVE ACTIONS Cortisol is extremely important for its permissiveness. For example, cortisol must be present in adequate amounts to permit the catecholamines to induce vasoconstriction. A person lacking cortisol, if untreated, may go into circulatory shock in a stressful situation that demands immediate widespread vasoconstriction.

ROLE IN ADAPTATION TO STRESS Cortisol plays a key role in adaptation to stress. Stress of any kind is one of the major stimuli for increased cortisol secretion. Although cortisol's precise role in adapting to stress is not known, a speculative but plausible explanation might be as follows. A primitive human or an animal wounded or faced with a life-threatening situation must forgo eating. A cortisol-induced shift away from protein and fat stores in favor of expanded carbohydrate stores and increased availability of blood glucose would help protect the brain from malnutrition during the imposed fasting period. Also, the amino acids liberated by protein degradation would

provide a readily available supply of building blocks for tissue repair if physical injury occurred. Thus, an increased pool of glucose, amino acids, and fatty acids is available for use as needed.

ANTI-INFLAMMATORY AND IMMUNOSUPPRESSIVE EFFECTS

When stress is accompanied by tissue injury, inflammatory and immune responses accompany the stress response. Cortisol exerts *anti-inflammatory* and *immunosuppressive* effects to help hold these immune system responses in check-and-balance. An exaggerated inflammatory response has the potential of causing harm. Cortisol interferes with almost every step of inflammation. For example, among other anti-inflammatory actions, cortisol partially blocks production of inflammatory chemical mediators, such as prostaglandins and leukotrienes (see p. 758); it suppresses migration of neutrophils to the injured site and interferes with their phagocytic activity (see p. 423); and it inhibits proliferation of fibroblasts in wound repair (see p. 425). Cortisol also inhibits immune responses by interfering with antibody production by lymphocytes. Blurring the line between endocrine and immune control, lymphocytes have been shown to secrete ACTH, and some of the cytokines (such as IL-1, IL-2, and IL-6; see pp. 424 and 441) released from immune cells can stimulate the hypothalamuspituitary-adrenal axis. In feedback fashion, cortisol in turn has a profound dampening (turning-down) impact on the immune system. These interactions between the immune system and cortisol secretion help maintain immune homeostasis, an area only beginning to be explored.

Administering large amounts of glucocorticoid inhibits almost every step of the inflammatory response, making these steroids effective drugs in treating conditions in which the inflammatory response itself has become destructive, such as *rheumatoid arthritis*. Glucocorticoids used in this manner do not affect the underlying disease process; they merely suppress the body's response to the disease. Because glucocorticoids also exert multiple inhibitory effects on the overall immune process, such as "knocking out of commission" the white blood cells responsible for antibody production as well as those that directly destroy foreign cells, these agents have also proved useful in managing various allergic disorders and in preventing organ transplant rejections.

When glucocorticoids are administered at pharmacological levels (that is, at higher-than-physiologic concentrations), not only are their anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects increased but their metabolic effects are also magnified. Therefore, synthetic glucocorticoids have been developed that maximize the anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects of these steroids while minimizing the metabolic effects.

Even then, when these steroids are employed therapeutically, they should be used only when warranted and then only sparingly, for several important reasons. First, because these drugs suppress the normal inflammatory and immune responses that form the backbone of the body's defense system, a glucocorticoid-treated person has limited ability to resist infections. Second, troublesome side effects may occur with pro-

Stress Diurnal rhythm

Hypothalamus

Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH)

Anterior pituitary

Adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH)

Adrenal cortex

Cortisol

Blood glucose (by stimulating gluconeogenesis and inhibiting glucose uptake)

Blood amino acids (by stimulating protein degradation)

Blood fatty acids (by stimulating lipolysis)

Metabolic fuels and building blocks available to help resist stress

• **FIGURE 19-9** Control of cortisol secretion.

corticoids. These effects include development of gastric ulcers, high blood pressure, atherosclerosis, menstrual irregularities, and bone thinning. Third, high levels of exogenous glucocorticoids act in negative-feedback fashion to suppress the hypothalamuspituitary-adrenal axis that drives normal glucocorticoid secretion and maintains the integrity of the adrenal cortex. Prolonged suppression of this axis can lead to irreversible atrophy of the cortisol-secreting cells of the adrenal gland and thus to permanent inability of the body to produce its own cortisol.

Cortisol secretion is regulated by the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal cortex axis.

Cortisol secretion by the adrenal cortex is regulated by a negative-feedback system involving the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary (• Figure 19-9). ACTH from the anterior pituitary corticotropes, acting through the cAMP pathway,

longed exposure to higher-than-normal concentrations of glu-

stimulates the adrenal cortex to secrete cortisol. Being tropic

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to the zona fasciculata and zona reticularis, ACTH stimulates both the growth and the secretory output of these two inner layers of the cortex. In the absence of adequate amounts of ACTH, these layers shrink considerably and cortisol secretion is drastically reduced. Recall that angiotensin, not ACTH, maintains the size of the zona glomerulosa. Like the actions of TSH on the thyroid gland, ACTH enhances many steps in the synthesis of cortisol. ACTH mobilizes cholesterol from the lipid droplets stored in the zona fasciculata and reticularis; increases production of pregnenolone from cholesterol; and increases the concentration of enzymes needed to convert pregnenolone into primarily cortisol, with lesser amounts of dehydroepiandrosterone. The ACTH-producing cells, in turn, secrete only at the command of corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) from the hypothalamus. CRH stimulates the corticotropes via the cAMP pathway. The feedback control loop is completed by cortisol's inhibitory actions on CRH and ACTH secretion by the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary, respectively.

The negative-feedback system for cortisol maintains the level of cortisol secretion relatively constant around the set point. Superimposed on the basic negative-feedback control system are two additional factors that influence plasma cortisol concentrations by changing the set point: *diurnal rhythm* and *stress*, both of which act on the hypothalamus to vary the secretion rate of CRH.

INFLUENCE OF DIURNAL RHYTHM ON CORTISOL SECRETION Recall that the plasma cortisol concentration displays a characteristic diurnal rhythm, with the highest level occurring in the morning and the lowest level at night (see • Figure 18-3, p. 665). This diurnal rhythm, which is governed by the suprachiasmatic nucleus (the master biological clock that serves as the pacemaker for the body's circadian rhythms; see p. 685) is related primarily to the sleep-wake cycle. The peak and low levels are reversed in a person who works at night and sleeps during the day. Such time-dependent variations in secretion are of more than academic interest because it is important clinically to know at what time of day a blood sample was taken when interpreting the significance of a particular value. Also, the linking of cortisol secretion to day-night activity patterns raises serious questions about the common practice of swing shifts at work (that is, constantly switching day and night shifts among employees). Furthermore, because cortisol helps a person resist stress, increasing attention is being given to the time of day various surgical procedures are performed.

INFLUENCE OF STRESS ON CORTISOL SECRETION The other major factor that is independent of, and in fact can override, the stabilizing negative-feedback control is stress. Dramatic increases in cortisol secretion, mediated by the central nervous system through enhanced activity of the CRH/ACTH cortisol system, occur in response to all kinds of stressful situations. The magnitude of the increase in plasma cortisol concentration is generally proportional to the intensity of the stressful stimulation: A greater increase in cortisol levels is evoked in response to severe stress than to mild stress.

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Some scientists suspect that the age-related decline of DHEA and other hormones such as GH (see p. 684) and melatonin (see p. 687) plays a role in some problems of aging. Early studies with DHEA replacement therapy demonstrated some physical improvement, such as an increase in lean muscle mass and a decrease in fat, but the most pronounced effect was a marked increase in psychological well-being and an improved ability to cope with stress. Advocates for DHEA replacement therapy do not

The adrenal cortex secretes both male and female sex hormones in both sexes.

In both sexes, the adrenal cortex produces both *androgens*, or “male” sex hormones, and *estrogens*, or “female” sex hormones. The main site of production for the sex hormones is the gonads: the testes for androgens and the ovaries for estrogens. Accordingly, males have a preponderance of circulating androgens, whereas in females estrogens predominate. However, no hormones are unique to either males or females (except those from the placenta during pregnancy), because the adrenal cortex in both sexes produces small amounts of the sex hormone of the opposite sex. Additional small amounts of sex hormone of the opposite sex come from nonadrenal sources. Some testosterone in males is converted into estrogen by the enzyme *aromatase*, found especially in adipose tissue (see p. 752). In females, the ovaries produce androgen as an intermediate step in estrogen production (see • Figure 19-8). A little of this androgen is released into the blood instead of being converted into estrogen.

Under normal circumstances, the adrenal androgens and estrogens are not sufficiently abundant or powerful to induce masculinizing or feminizing effects, respectively. The only adrenal sex hormone that has any biological importance is the androgen **dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA)**. The testes' primary androgen product is the potent testosterone, but the most abundant adrenal androgen is the much weaker DHEA. (Testosterone exerts about 100 times greater “androgenicity” than DHEA.) Adrenal DHEA is overpowered by testicular testosterone in males but is of physiologic significance in females, who otherwise have very little androgens. This adrenal androgen governs androgen-dependent processes in the female such as growth of pubic and axillary (armpit) hair, enhancement of the pubertal growth spurt, and development and maintenance of the female sex drive.

Because the enzymes required for the production of estrogens are found in very low concentrations in the adrenocortical cells, estrogens are normally produced in very small quantities from this source.

In addition to controlling cortisol secretion, ACTH (not the pituitary gonadotropic hormones) controls adrenal androgen secretion. In general, cortisol and DHEA output by the adrenal cortex parallel each other. However, adrenal androgens feed back outside the hypothalamuspituitaryadrenal axis. Instead of inhibiting CRH, DHEA inhibits gonadotropin-releasing hormone, just as testicular androgens do. Furthermore, sometimes adrenal androgen and cortisol output diverge from each other—for example, at the time of puberty adrenal androgen secretion undergoes a marked surge, but cortisol secretion does not change. This enhanced secretion initiates the development of androgen-dependent processes in females. In males the same thing is accomplished primarily by testicular androgen secretion, which is also aroused at puberty. The nature of the pubertal inputs to the adrenals and gonads is still unresolved.

A surge in DHEA secretion begins at puberty and peaks between the ages of 25 and 30. After 30, DHEA secretion slowly tapers off until, by the age of 60, the plasma DHEA concentration is less than 15% of its peak level.

suggest that maintaining youthful levels of this hormone is a fountain of youth (that is, it is not going to extend the life span), but they do propose that it may help people feel and act younger as they age. Other scientists caution that evidence supporting DHEA as an anti-aging therapy is still sparse. Also, they are concerned about DHEA supplementation until it has been thoroughly studied for possible harmful side effects. For example, some research suggests a potential increase in the risk of heart disease among women taking DHEA because of an observed reduction in HDL, the "good" cholesterol (see p. 336). Also, high doses of DHEA have been linked with increased facial hair in women. Furthermore, some experts fear that DHEA supplementation may raise the odds of acquiring ovarian or breast cancer in women and prostate cancer in men.

Ironically, although the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) banned sales of DHEA as an over-the-counter drug in 1985 because of concerns about very real risks coupled with little proof of benefits, the product is widely available today as an unregulated food supplement. DHEA can be marketed as a dietary supplement without approval by the FDA as long as the product label makes no specific medical claims.

The adrenal cortex may secrete too much or too little of any of its hormones.

Although uncommon, there are a number of different disorders of adrenocortical function. Excessive secretion may occur with any of the three categories of adrenocortical hormones. Accordingly, three main patterns of symptoms resulting from hyperadrenalism can be distinguished, depending on which hormone type is in excess: aldosterone hypersecretion, cortisol hypersecretion, and adrenal androgen hypersecretion.

ALDOSTERONE HYPERSECRETION Excess mineralocorticoid secretion may be caused by (1) a hypersecreting adrenal tumor made up of aldosterone-secreting cells (**primary hyperaldosteronism**, or **Conn's syndrome**) or (2) inappropriately high activity of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (**secondary hyperaldosteronism**). The latter may be produced by any

amino acids from body proteins for use as glucose precursors. Loss of muscle protein leads to muscle weakness and fatigue. The protein-poor, thin skin of the abdomen becomes overstretched by the excessive underlying fat deposits, forming irregular, reddish purple linear streaks. Loss of structural protein within the walls of the small blood vessels leads to easy bruisability. Wounds heal poorly, because formation of collagen, a major structural protein found in scar tissue, is depressed. Furthermore, loss of the collagen framework of bone weakens the skeleton, so fractures may result from little or no apparent injury.

ADRENAL ANDROGEN HYPERSECRETION Excess adrenal androgen secretion, a masculinizing condition, is more common than the extremely rare feminizing condition of excess adrenal estrogen secretion. Either condition is referred to as **adrenogenital syndrome**, emphasizing the pronounced effects that excessive adrenal sex hormones have on the genitalia and associated sexual characteristics.

The symptoms that result from excess androgen secretion depend on the sex of the individual and the age when the hyperactivity first begins.

- *In adult females.* Because androgens exert masculinizing effects, a woman with this disease tends to develop a male pattern of body hair, a condition referred to as **hirsutism**. She usually also acquires other male secondary sexual characteristics, such as deepening of the voice and more muscular arms and legs. The breasts become smaller, and menstruation may cease as a result of androgen suppression of the woman's hypothalamuspituitaryovarian axis for her own female sex-hormone secretion.
- *In newborn females.* Female infants born with adrenogenital syndrome manifest male-type external genitalia because excessive androgen secretion occurs early enough during fetal life to induce development of their genitalia along male lines, similar

(a) Young boy prior to onset of the condition
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(b) Only four months later, the same boy displaying a "moon face" characteristic of Cushing's syndrome

• FIGURE 19-10 Patient with Cushing's syndrome.

number of conditions that cause a chronic reduction in arterial blood flow to the kidneys, thereby excessively activating RAAS. An example is atherosclerotic narrowing of the renal arteries.

The symptoms of both primary and secondary hyperaldosteronism are related to the exaggerated effects of aldosterone—namely, excessive Na retention (*hyponatremia*) and K depletion (*hypokalemia*). Also, high blood pressure (hypertension) is generally present, at least partially because of excessive Na and fluid retention.

CORTISOL HYPERSECRETION Excessive cortisol secretion (**Cushing's syndrome**) can be caused by (1) overstimulation of the adrenal cortex by excessive amounts of CRH and/or ACTH, (2) adrenal tumors that uncontrollably secrete cortisol independent of ACTH, or (3) ACTH-secreting tumors located in places other than the pituitary, most commonly in the lung. Whatever the cause, the prominent characteristics of this syndrome are related to the exaggerated effects of glucocorticoid, with the main symptoms being reflections of excessive gluconeogenesis. When too many amino acids are converted into glucose, the body suffers from combined glucose excess (high blood glucose) and protein shortage. Because the resultant hyperglycemia and glucosuria (glucose in the urine) mimic diabetes mellitus, the condition is sometimes referred to as *adrenal diabetes*. For reasons that are unclear, some of the extra glucose is deposited as body fat in locations characteristic for this disease, typically in the abdomen, above the shoulder blades, and in the face. The abnormal fat distributions in the latter two locations are descriptively called a "buffalo hump" and a "moon face," respectively (• Figure 19-10). The appendages, in contrast, remain thin because of muscle breakdown.

Besides the effects attributable to excessive glucose production, other effects arise from the widespread mobilization of

able in the face of the powerful masculinizing effects of the much more abundant and potent testosterone from the testes.

The adrenogenital syndrome is most commonly caused by an inherited enzymatic defect in the cortisol steroidogenic pathway. The pathway for synthesis of androgens branches from the normal biosynthetic pathway for cortisol (see • Figure 19-8). When an enzyme specifically essential for synthesis of cortisol is deficient, the result is decreased secretion of cortisol. The decline in cortisol secretion removes the negative-feedback effect on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary so that levels of CRH and ACTH increase considerably (• Figure 19-11). The defective adrenal cortex is incapable of responding to this increased ACTH secretion with cortisol output and instead shunts more of its cholesterol precursor into the androgen pathway. The result is excess DHEA production. This excess androgen does not inhibit ACTH but rather inhibits the gonadotropins. Because gamete production is not stimulated in the absence of gonadotropins, people with adrenogenital syndrome are sterile. Of course, they also exhibit symptoms of cortisol deficiency.

The symptoms of adrenal virilization, sterility, and cortisol deficiency are all reversed by glucocorticoid therapy. Administration of exogenous glucocorticoid replaces the cortisol deficit and, more dramatically, inhibits the hypothalamus and pituitary so that ACTH secretion is suppressed. Once ACTH secretion is reduced, the profound stimulation of the adrenal cortex ceases and androgen secretion declines markedly. Removing the large quantities of adrenal androgens from circulation allows masculinizing characteristics to gradually recede and normal gonadotropin secretion to resume. Without understanding how these hormonal systems are related, it would be very difficult to comprehend how glucocorticoid administration could dramatically reverse symptoms of masculinization and sterility.

ADRENOCORTICAL INSUFFICIENCY If one adrenal gland is non-functional or removed, the other healthy organ can take over

to the development of males under the influence of testicular androgen. The clitoris, which is the female homolog of the male penis, enlarges under androgen influence and takes on a penile appearance, so in some cases it is difficult at first to determine the child's sex. Thus, this hormonal abnormality is one of the major causes of **female pseudohermaphroditism**, a condition in which female gonads (ovaries) are present but the external genitalia resemble those of a male. (A true hermaphrodite has the gonads of both sexes.)

- *In prepubertal males.* Excessive adrenal androgen secretion in prepubertal boys causes them to prematurely develop male secondary sexual characteristics—for example, deep voice, beard, enlarged penis, and sex drive. This condition is referred to as **precocious pseudopuberty** to differentiate it from true puberty, which occurs as a result of increased testicular activity. In precocious pseudopuberty, the androgen secretion from the adrenal cortex is not accompanied by sperm production or any other gonadal activity, because the testes are still in their non-functional prepubertal state.
- *In adult males.* Overactivity of adrenal androgens in adult males has no apparent effect, because any masculinizing effect induced by the weak DHEA, even when in excess, is unnotice-

the function of both through hypertrophy and hyperplasia. Therefore, both glands must be affected before adrenocortical insufficiency occurs.

In **primary adrenocortical insufficiency**, also known as **Addison's disease**, all layers of the adrenal cortex are undersecreting. This condition is most commonly caused by autoimmune destruction of the cortex by erroneous production of adrenal cortex-attacking antibodies, in which case both aldosterone and cortisol are deficient. **Secondary adrenocortical insufficiency** may occur because of a pituitary or hypothalamic abnormality, resulting in insufficient ACTH secretion. In this case, only cortisol is deficient because aldosterone secretion does not depend on ACTH stimulation.

The symptoms associated with aldosterone deficiency in Addison's disease are the most threatening. If severe enough, the condition is fatal because aldosterone is essential for life. However, the loss of adrenal function may develop slowly and insidiously so that aldosterone secretion may be subnormal but not totally lacking. Patients with aldosterone deficiency display K retention (*hyperkalemia*), caused by reduced K loss in the urine, and Na depletion (*hyponatremia*), caused by excessive urinary loss of Na. The former disturbs cardiac rhythm. The



• **FIGURE 19-11 Hormonal interrelationships in adrenogenital syndrome.** The adrenocortical cells that are supposed to produce cortisol produce androgens instead because of a deficiency of a specific enzyme essential for cortisol synthesis. Because no cortisol is secreted to act in negative-feedback fashion, CRH and ACTH levels are elevated. The adrenal cortex responds to increased ACTH by further increasing androgen secretion. The excess androgen produces virilization and inhibits the gonadotropin pathway, with the result that the gonads stop producing sex hormones and gametes.

latter reduces ECF volume, including circulating blood volume, which in turn lowers blood pressure (hypotension).

Symptoms of cortisol deficiency are as would be expected: poor response to stress, hypoglycemia (low blood glucose) caused by reduced gluconeogenic activity, and lack of permissive action for many metabolic activities. The primary form of the disease also produces hyperpigmentation (darkening of the skin) resulting from excessive secretion of ACTH. Because the pituitary is normal, the decline in cortisol secretion brings about an uninhibited elevation in ACTH output (resulting from reduced negative feedback). Recall that ACTH and melanocyte-stimulating hormone (-MSH, a skin-darkening hormone that promotes dispersion of the pigment melanin) can both be cleaved from the same pro-opiomelanocortin precursor molecule (but not at the same time nor in the same organ; see p. 672). However, being closely related, at high levels ACTH can

also bind with -MSH's receptors in the skin and cause darkening of the skin.

Having completed discussion of the adrenal cortex, we now shift attention to the adrenal medulla.

The adrenal medulla consists of modified sympathetic postganglionic neurons

The adrenal medulla is actually a modified part of the sympathetic nervous system. A sympathetic pathway consists of two neurons in sequence—a preganglionic neuron originating in the CNS, whose axonal fiber terminates on a second peripherally located postganglionic neuron, which in turn terminates on the effector organ (see p. 238). The neurotransmitter released by sympathetic postganglionic fibers is norepinephrine, which interacts locally with the innervated organ by binding with specific target receptors known as *adrenergic receptors*.

The adrenal medulla consists of modified postganglionic sympathetic neurons called **chromaffin cells** because of their staining preference for chromium ions. Unlike ordinary postganglionic sympathetic neurons, chromaffin cells do not have axonal fibers that terminate on effector organs. Instead, on stimulation by the preganglionic fiber the chromaffin cells release their chemical transmitter directly into the circulation (see • Figure 7-2, p. 239). In this case, the transmitter qualifies as a hormone instead of a neurotransmitter. Like sympathetic fibers, the adrenal medulla does release norepinephrine, but its most abundant secretory output is a similar chemical messenger known as **epinephrine**. Both epinephrine and norepinephrine belong to the chemical class of catecholamines, which are derived from the amino acid tyrosine (see p. 661). Epinephrine and norepinephrine are the same except that epinephrine also has a methyl group.

Epinephrine and norepinephrine belong to the chemical class of catecholamines, which are derived from the amino acid tyrosine (see p. 661). Epinephrine and norepinephrine are the same except that epinephrine also has a methyl group.

STORAGE OF CATECHOLAMINES IN CHROMAFFIN GRANULES
Catecholamine is synthesized almost entirely within the cytosol of the adrenomedullary secretory cells. Once produced, epinephrine and norepinephrine are stored in **chromaffin granules**, which are similar to the transmitter storage vesicles found in sympathetic nerve endings. Segregation of catecholamines in chromaffin granules protects them from being destroyed by cytosolic enzymes during storage.

SECRETION OF CATECHOLAMINES FROM THE ADRENAL MEDULLA
Catecholamines are secreted into the blood by exo-

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cytosis of chromaffin granules. Their release is analogous to the release mechanism for secretory vesicles that contain stored peptide hormones or the release of norepinephrine at sympathetic postganglionic terminals.

Of the total adrenomedullary catecholamine output, epinephrine accounts for 80% and norepinephrine for 20%. Whereas epinephrine is produced exclusively by the adrenal medulla, the bulk of norepinephrine is produced by sympathetic postganglionic fibers. Adrenomedullary norepinephrine is generally secreted in quantities too small to exert significant effects on target cells. Therefore, for practical purposes we can assume that norepinephrine effects are predominantly mediated directly by the sympathetic nervous system and that epinephrine effects are brought about exclusively by the adrenal medulla.

Epinephrine and norepinephrine vary in their affinities for the different adrenergic receptor types.

Epinephrine and norepinephrine have differing affinities for four distinctive receptor types: α_1 , α_2 , β_1 , and β_2 adrenergic receptors (see p. 243) (see ▲ Tables 7-3 and 7-4 to review the distribution of these receptor types among target organs).

Norepinephrine binds predominantly with α_1 and β_1 receptors located near postganglionic sympathetic-fiber terminals. Hormonal epinephrine, which can reach all α_1 and β_1 receptors via its circulatory distribution, interacts with these same receptors. Norepinephrine has a little greater affinity than epinephrine for the receptors, and the two hormones have approximately the same potency at the β_2 receptors. Thus, epinephrine and norepinephrine exert similar effects in many tissues, with epinephrine generally reinforcing sympathetic nervous activity. In addition, epinephrine activates β_2 receptors, over which the sympathetic nervous system exerts little influence. Many of the essentially epinephrine-exclusive β_2 receptors are located at tissues not even supplied by the sympathetic nervous system but reached by epinephrine through the blood. Examples include skeletal muscle, where epinephrine exerts metabolic effects such as promoting the breakdown of stored glycogen, and bronchiolar smooth muscle, where it causes bronchodilation.

Sometimes epinephrine, through its exclusive β_2 -receptor activation, brings about a different action from that elicited by norepinephrine and epinephrine action through their mutual activation of other adrenergic receptors. As an example, norepinephrine and epinephrine bring about a generalized vasoconstrictor effect mediated by α_1 -receptor stimulation. By contrast, epinephrine promotes vasodilation of the blood vessels that supply skeletal muscles and the heart through β_2 -receptor activation (see p. 359).

Realize, however, that epinephrine functions only at the bidding of the sympathetic nervous system, which is solely responsible for stimulating its secretion from the adrenal medulla. Epinephrine secretion always accompanies a generalized sympathetic nervous system discharge, so sympathetic activity indirectly controls actions of epinephrine. By having the more versatile circulating epinephrine at its call, the sympathetic nervous system has a means of reinforcing its own neurotransmit-

ter effects plus a way of executing additional actions on tissues that it does not directly innervate.

Epinephrine reinforces the sympathetic nervous system and exerts additional metabolic effects.

Adrenomedullary hormones are not essential for life, but virtually all organs in the body are affected by these catecholamines. They play important roles in mounting stress responses, regulating arterial blood pressure, and controlling fuel metabolism. The following sections discuss epinephrine's major effects, which it achieves either in collaboration with the sympathetic transmitter norepinephrine or alone to complement direct sympathetic response.

EFFECTS ON ORGAN SYSTEMS Together, the sympathetic nervous system and adrenomedullary epinephrine mobilize the body's resources to support peak physical exertion in emergency or stressful situations. The sympathetic and epinephrine actions constitute a fight-or-flight response that prepares the person to combat an enemy or flee from danger (see p. 240). Specifically, the sympathetic system and epinephrine increase the rate and strength of cardiac contraction, increasing cardiac output, and their generalized vasoconstrictor effects increase total peripheral resistance. Together, these effects raise arterial blood pressure, thus ensuring an appropriate driving pressure to force blood to the organs most vital for meeting the emergency. Meanwhile, vasodilation of coronary and skeletal muscle blood vessels induced by epinephrine and local metabolic factors shifts blood to the heart and skeletal muscles from other vasoconstricted regions of the body.

Because of their profound influence on the heart and blood vessels, the sympathetic system and epinephrine also play an important role in the ongoing maintenance of arterial blood pressure.

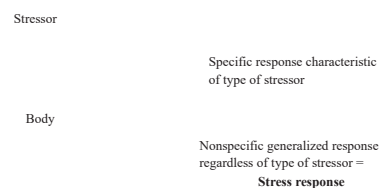
Epinephrine (but not norepinephrine) dilates the respiratory airways to reduce the resistance encountered in moving air in and out of the lungs. Epinephrine and norepinephrine also reduce digestive activity and inhibit bladder emptying, both activities that can be "put on hold" during a fight-or-flight situation.

METABOLIC EFFECTS Epinephrine exerts some important metabolic effects. In general, epinephrine prompts the mobilization of stored carbohydrate and fat to provide immediately available energy for use as needed to fuel muscular work. Specifically, epinephrine increases the blood glucose level by several different mechanisms. First, it stimulates both hepatic (liver) gluconeogenesis and **glycogenolysis**, the latter being the breakdown of stored glycogen into glucose, which is released into the blood. Epinephrine also stimulates glycogenolysis in skeletal muscles. Because of the difference in enzyme content between liver and muscle, however, muscle glycogen cannot be converted directly to glucose. Instead, the breakdown of muscle glycogen releases lactate into the blood. The liver removes lactate from the blood and converts it into glucose, so epinephrine's actions on skeletal muscle indirectly help raise blood glucose levels. Epinephrine and the sympathetic system may further add to this hyperglycemic effect by inhibiting the secre-

tion of insulin, the pancreatic hormone primarily responsible for removing glucose from the blood, and by stimulating glucagon, another pancreatic hormone that promotes hepatic glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. In addition to increasing blood glucose levels, epinephrine also increases the level of blood fatty acids by promoting lipolysis.

Epinephrine's metabolic effects are appropriate for fight-or-flight situations. The elevated levels of glucose and fatty acids provide additional fuel to power the muscular movement required by the situation and also assure adequate nourishment for the brain during the crisis when no new nutrients are being consumed. Muscles can use fatty acids for energy production, but the brain cannot.

Because of its other widespread actions, epinephrine also



• FIGURE 19-12 Action of a stressor on the body.

hemorrhagic shock, pain); *infectious* (bacterial invasion); *psy-*

increases the overall metabolic rate. Under the influence of epinephrine, many tissues metabolize faster. For example, the work of the heart and respiratory muscles increases, and the pace of liver metabolism steps up. Thus, epinephrine as well as thyroid hormone can increase the metabolic rate.

chological or emotional (anxiety, fear, sorrow); and *social* (personal conflicts, change in lifestyle).

The stress response is a generalized pattern of reactions to any situation that threatens homeostasis.

OTHER EFFECTS Epinephrine affects the central nervous system to promote a state of arousal and increased CNS alertness. This permits “quick thinking” to help cope with the impending emergency. Many drugs used as stimulants or sedatives exert their effects by altering catecholamine levels in the CNS.

Both epinephrine and norepinephrine cause sweating, which helps the body rid itself of extra heat generated by increased muscular activity. Also, epinephrine acts on smooth muscles within the eyes to dilate the pupil and flatten the lens. These actions adjust the eyes for more encompassing vision so that the whole threatening scene can be quickly viewed.

Sympathetic stimulation of the adrenal medulla is solely responsible for epinephrine release.

Catecholamine secretion by the adrenal medulla is controlled entirely by sympathetic input to the gland. When the sympathetic system is activated under conditions of fear or stress, it simultaneously triggers a surge of adrenomedullary catecholamine release. The concentration of epinephrine in the blood may increase up to 300 times normal, with the amount of epinephrine released depending on the type and intensity of the stressful stimulus.

Because both components of the adrenal gland play an extensive role in responding to stress, this is an appropriate place to pull together the major factors involved in the stress response.

Integrated Stress Response

Stress is the generalized, nonspecific response of the body to any factor that overwhelms, or threatens to overwhelm, the body’s compensatory abilities to maintain homeostasis. Contrary to popular usage, the agent inducing the response is correctly called a *stressor*; whereas *stress* refers to the state induced by the stressor. The following types of noxious stimuli illustrate the range of factors that can induce a stress response: *physical* (trauma, surgery, intense heat or cold); *chemical* (reduced O₂ supply, acidbase imbalance); *physiologic* (heavy exercise,

Different stressors may produce some specific responses characteristic of that stressor; for example, the body’s specific response to cold exposure is shivering and skin vasoconstriction, whereas the specific response to bacterial invasion includes increased phagocytic activity and antibody production. In addition to their specific response, however, all stressors produce a similar nonspecific, generalized response (• Figure 19-12). This set of responses common to all noxious stimuli is called the **general adaptation syndrome**. When a stressor is recognized, both nervous and hormonal responses bring about defensive measures to cope with the emergency. The result is a state of intense readiness and mobilization of biochemical resources.

To appreciate the value of the multifaceted stress response, imagine a primitive cave dweller who has just seen a large wild beast lurking in the shadows. We will consider both the neural and hormonal responses that would take place in this scenario. The body responds in the same way to modern-day stressors. You are already familiar with all these responses. At this time we are just examining how these responses work together.

ROLES OF THE SYMPATHETIC NERVOUS SYSTEM AND EPINEPHRINE IN STRESS The major neural response to such a stressful stimulus is generalized activation of the sympathetic nervous system. The resultant increase in cardiac output and ventilation as well as the diversion of blood from vasoconstricted regions of suppressed activity, such as the digestive tract and kidneys, to the more active vasodilated skeletal muscles and heart prepare the body for a fight-or-flight response. Simultaneously, the sympathetic system calls forth hormonal reinforcements in the form of a massive outpouring of epinephrine from the adrenal medulla. Epinephrine strengthens sympathetic responses and reaches places not innervated by the sympathetic system to perform additional functions, such as mobilizing carbohydrate and fat stores.

ROLES OF THE CRH ACTH CORTISOL SYSTEM IN STRESS Besides epinephrine, a number of other hormones are involved in

▲ TABLE 19-2 Major Hormonal Changes during the Stress Response

Hormone	Change	Purpose Served
Epinephrine	h	Reinforces the sympathetic nervous system to prepare the body for “fight or flight” Mobilizes carbohydrate and fat energy stores; increases blood glucose and blood fatty acids
CRH–ACTH–Cortisol	h	Mobilizes energy stores and metabolic building blocks for use as needed; increases blood glucose, blood amino acids, and blood fatty acids ACTH facilitates learning and behavior
Glucagon	h	Act in concert to increase blood glucose and blood fatty acids
Insulin	g	
Renin–Angiotensin–Aldosterone; Vasopressin	h	Conserve salt and H ₂ O to expand the plasma volume; help sustain blood pressure when acute loss of plasma volume occurs Angiotensin II and vasopressin cause arteriolar vasoconstriction to increase blood pressure Vasopressin facilitates learning

the overall stress response (▲ Table 19-2). The predominant hormonal response is activation of the CRHACTHcortisol system. Recall that cortisol’s role in helping the body cope with stress is presumed to be related to its metabolic effects. Cortisol breaks down fat and protein stores while expanding carbohydrate stores and increasing the availability of blood glucose. A logical assumption is that the increased pool of glucose, amino acids, and fatty acids is available for use as needed, such as to sustain nourishment to the brain and provide building blocks for repair of damaged tissues.

In addition to the effects of cortisol in the hypothalamus pituitaryadrenal cortex axis, ACTH may also play a role in

lower blood glucose. If it were not for the deliberate inhibition of insulin during the stress response, the hyperglycemia caused by stress would stimulate secretion of glucose-lowering insulin. As a result, the elevation in blood glucose could not be sustained. Stress-related hormonal responses also promote a release of fatty acids from fat stores because lipolysis is favored by epinephrine, glucagon, and cortisol but opposed by insulin.

▪ *Maintenance of blood volume and blood pressure through increased renin angiotensin aldosterone and vasopressin activity.* In addition to the hormonal changes that mobilize energy stores during stress, other hormones are simultaneously called into play to sustain blood volume and blood pressure during the emer-

resisting stress. ACTH is one of several peptides that facilitate learning and behavior. Thus, an increase in ACTH during psychosocial stress may help the body cope more readily with similar stressors in the future by facilitating the learning of appropriate behavioral responses.

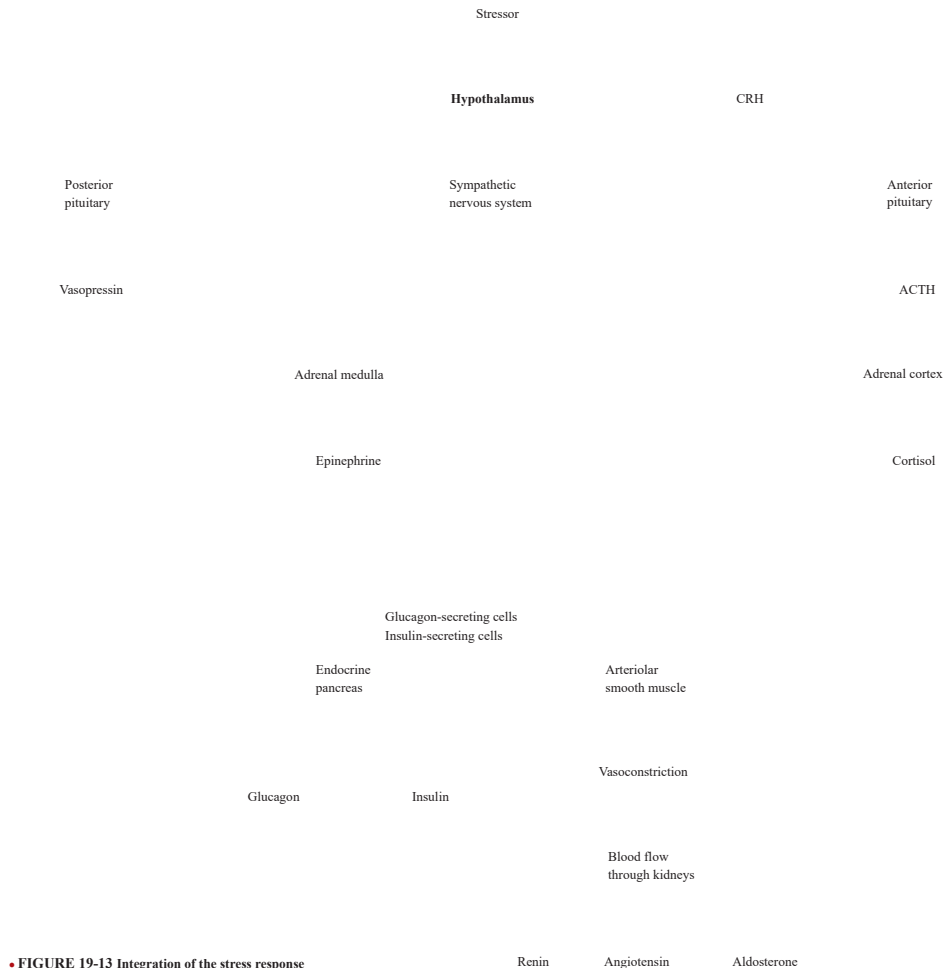
ROLE OF OTHER HORMONAL RESPONSES IN STRESS Besides the CRH/ACTH/cortisol system, other hormonal systems play key roles in the stress response, as follows:

- *Elevation of blood glucose and fatty acids through decreased insulin and increased glucagon.* The sympathetic nervous system and the epinephrine secreted at its bidding both inhibit insulin and stimulate glucagon. These hormonal changes act in concert to elevate blood levels of glucose and fatty acids. Epinephrine and glucagon, whose blood levels are elevated during stress, promote hepatic glycogenolysis and (along with cortisol) hepatic gluconeogenesis. However, insulin, whose secretion is suppressed during stress, opposes the breakdown of liver glycogen stores. All these effects help increase the concentration of blood glucose. The primary stimulus for insulin secretion is a rise in blood glucose; in turn, a primary effect of insulin is to

gency. The sympathetic system and epinephrine play major roles in acting directly on the heart and blood vessels to improve circulatory function. In addition, RAAS is activated as a consequence of a sympathetically induced reduction of blood supply to the kidneys (see p. 527). Vasopressin secretion is also increased during stressful situations (see p. 565). Collectively, these hormones expand the plasma volume by promoting retention of salt and H₂O. Presumably, the enlarged plasma volume serves as a protective measure to help sustain blood pressure should acute loss of plasma fluid occur through hemorrhage or heavy sweating during the impending period of danger. Vasopressin and angiotensin also have direct vasopressor effects, which would be of benefit in maintaining an adequate arterial pressure in the event of acute blood loss (see p. 359). Vasopressin is further believed to facilitate learning, which has implications for future adaptation to stress.

The multifaceted stress response is coordinated by the hypothalamus.

All the individual responses to stress just described are either directly or indirectly influenced by the hypothalamus (Figure 19-13). The hypothalamus receives input concerning physical



• **FIGURE 19-13** Integration of the stress response by the hypothalamus.

and emotional stressors from virtually all areas of the brain and from many receptors throughout the body. In response, the hypothalamus directly activates the sympathetic nervous system, secretes CRH to stimulate ACTH and cortisol release, and triggers the release of vasopressin. Sympathetic stimulation, in turn, brings about the secretion of epinephrine, with which it has a conjoined effect on the pancreatic secretion of insulin and glucagon. Furthermore, vasoconstriction of the renal afferent arterioles by the catecholamines indirectly triggers the secretion of renin by reducing the flow of oxygenated blood through the kidneys. Renin, in turn, sets in motion RAAS. In this way, the hypothalamus integrates the responses of both the sympathetic nervous system and the endocrine system during stress.

Activation of the stress response by chronic psychosocial stressors may be harmful.

Acceleration of cardiovascular and respiratory activity, retention of salt and H₂O, and mobilization of metabolic fuels and building blocks can be of benefit in response to a physical stressor, such as an athletic competition. Most of the stressors in our everyday lives are psychosocial in nature; however, they induce these same magnified responses. Stressors such as anxiety about an exam, conflicts with loved ones, or impatience while sitting in a traffic jam can elicit a stress response. Although the rapid mobilization of body resources is appropriate in the face of real or threatened physical injury, it is generally inappropriate in re-

Translating...

sponse to nonphysical stress. If no extra energy is demanded, no tissue is damaged, and no blood lost, body stores are being broken down and fluid retained needlessly, probably to the detriment of the emotionally stressed individual. In fact, there is strong circumstantial evidence for a link between chronic exposure to psychosocial stressors and the development of pathological conditions such as high blood pressure, although no definitive cause-and-effect relationship has been ascertained. As a result of “unused” stress responses, could hypertension result from too much sympathetic vasoconstriction? From too much salt and H₂O retention? From too much vasopressin and angiotensin pressor activity? A combination of these? Other factors? Recall that hypertension can develop with prolonged exposure to pharmacological levels of glucocorticoids. Could long-standing lesser elevations of cortisol, such as might occur in the face of continual psychosocial stressors, do the same thing, only more slowly? Considerable work remains to be done to evaluate the contributions that the stressors in our everyday lives make toward disease production.

Endocrine Control of Fuel Metabolism

We have just discussed the metabolic changes that are elicited during the stress response. Now we will concentrate on the metabolic patterns that occur in the absence of stress, including the hormonal factors that govern this normal metabolism.

Fuel metabolism includes anabolism, catabolism, and interconversions among energy-rich organic molecules.

The term **metabolism** refers to all the chemical reactions that occur within the cells of the body. Those reactions involving the degradation, synthesis, and transformation of the three classes of energy-rich organic molecules—protein, carbohydrate, and fat—are collectively known as **intermediary metabolism**, or **fuel metabolism** (▲ Table 19-3).

During the process of digestion, large nutrient molecules (**macromolecules**) are broken down into their smaller absorbable subunits as follows: Proteins are converted into amino acids, complex carbohydrates into monosaccharides (mainly glucose), and triglycerides (dietary fats) into monoglycerides and free fatty acids. These absorbable units are transferred from the digestive tract lumen into the blood, either directly or by way of the lymph (Chapter 16).

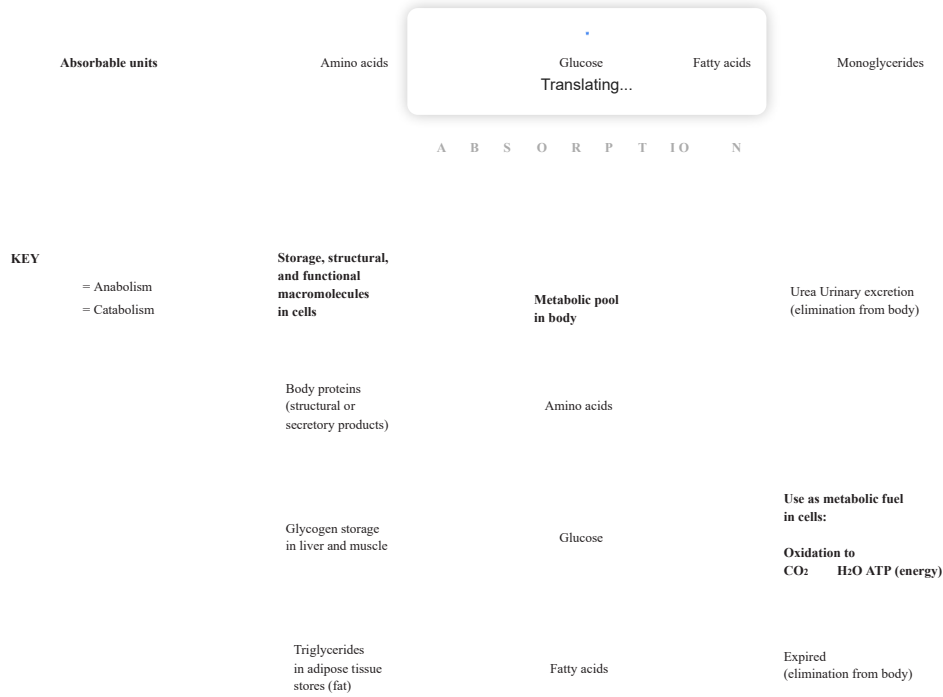
ANABOLISM AND CATABOLISM These organic molecules are constantly exchanged between the blood and body cells. The chemical reactions in which the organic molecules participate within the cells are categorized into two metabolic processes: anabolism and catabolism (• Figure 19-14). **Anabolism** is the buildup or synthesis of larger organic macromolecules from small organic molecular subunits. Anabolic reactions generally require energy input in the form of ATP. These reactions result in either (1) the manufacture of materials needed by the cell, such as cellular structural proteins or secretory products; or (2) storage of excess ingested nutrients not immediately needed for energy production or needed as cellular building blocks. Storage is in the form of glycogen (the storage form of glucose) or fat reservoirs. **Catabolism** is the breakdown, or degradation, of large, energy-rich organic molecules within cells. Catabolism encompasses two levels of breakdown: (1) hydrolysis (see p. 29) of large cellular organic macromolecules into their smaller subunits, similar to the process of digestion except that the reactions take place within the body cells instead of within the digestive tract lumen (for example, release of glucose by the catabolism of stored glycogen); and (2) oxidation of the smaller subunits, such as glucose, to yield energy for ATP production (see p. 37).

As an alternative to energy production, the smaller, multi-potential organic subunits derived from intracellular hydrolysis may be released into the blood. These mobilized glucose, fatty acid, and amino acid molecules can then be used as needed for energy production or cellular synthesis elsewhere in the body.

In an adult, the rates of anabolism and catabolism are generally in balance, so the adult body remains in a dynamic

▲ TABLE 19-3 Summary of Reactions in Fuel Metabolism

Metabolic Process	Reaction	Consequence
Glycogenesis	Glucose → glycogen	g Blood glucose
Glycogenolysis	Glycogen → glucose	h Blood glucose
Gluconeogenesis	Amino acids → glucose	h Blood glucose
Protein Synthesis	Amino acids → protein	g Blood amino acids
Protein Degradation	Protein → amino acids	h Blood amino acids
Fat Synthesis (Lipogenesis or Triglyceride Synthesis)	Fatty acids and glycerol → triglycerides	g Blood fatty acids
Fat Breakdown (Lipolysis or Triglyceride Degradation)	Triglycerides → fatty acids and glycerol	h Blood fatty acids



• FIGURE 19-14 Summary of the major pathways involving organic nutrient molecules.

▲ TABLE 19-4 Stored Metabolic Fuel in the Body

Metabolic Fuel	Circulating Form	Storage Form	Major Storage Site	Percentage of Total Body Energy Content (and Calories*)	Reservoir Capacity	Role
Carbohydrate	Glucose	Glycogen	Liver, muscle	1% (1500 calories)	Less than a day's worth of energy	First energy source; essential for the brain
Fat	Free fatty acids Triglycerides		Adipose tissue	77% (143,000 calories)	About two months' worth of energy	Primary energy reservoir; energy source during a fast
Protein	Amino acids	Body proteins	Muscle	22% (41,000 calories)	Death results long before capacity is fully used because of structural and functional impairment	Source of glucose for the brain during a fast; last resort to meet other energy needs

*Actually refers to kilocalories; see p. 642.

steady state and appears unchanged even though the organic molecules that determine its structure and function are continuously being turned over. During growth, anabolism exceeds catabolism.

INTERCONVERSIONS AMONG ORGANIC MOLECULES In addition to being able to resynthesize catabolized organic molecules back into the same type of molecules, many cells of the body, especially liver cells, can convert most types of small organic molecules into other types—as in, for example,

Because food intake is intermittent, nutrients must be stored for use between meals.

Dietary fuel intake is intermittent, not continuous. As a result, excess energy must be absorbed during meals and stored for use during fasting periods between meals, when dietary sources of metabolic fuel are not available. Despite discontinuous energy intake, the body cells' demand for energy is ever-present and fluctuating. That is, energy must constantly be available for cells to use on an as-needed basis no matter what the status of food

transforming amino acids into glucose or fatty acids. Because of these interconversions, adequate nourishment can be provided by a wide range of molecules present in different types of foods. There are limits, however. **Essential nutrients**, such as the essential amino acids and vitamins, cannot be formed in the body by conversion from another type of organic molecule.

The major fate of both ingested carbohydrates and fats is catabolism to yield energy. Amino acids are predominantly used for protein synthesis but can be used to supply energy after being converted to carbohydrate or fat. Thus, all three categories of foodstuff can be used as fuel, and excesses of any foodstuff can be deposited as stored fuel, as you will see shortly.

At a superficial level, fuel metabolism appears relatively simple: The amount of nutrients in the diet must be sufficient to meet the body's needs for energy production and cellular synthesis. This apparently simple relationship is complicated, however, by two important considerations: (1) nutrients taken in at meals must be stored and then released between meals, and (2) the brain must be continuously supplied with glucose. Let us examine the implications of each.

intake is. Stored energy fills in the gaps between meals. Energy storage takes three forms (▲ Table 19-4):

- *Excess circulating glucose* is stored in the liver and muscle as *glycogen*, a large molecule consisting of interconnected glucose molecules. **Translating** about twice as much glycogen is stored in the skeletal muscles collectively as in the liver. Because glycogen is a relatively small energy reservoir, less than a day's energy needs can be stored in this form. Once the liver and muscle glycogen stores are "filled up," additional glucose is transformed into fatty acids and glycerol, which are used to synthesize *triglycerides* (glycerol with three fatty acids attached), primarily in adipose tissue (fat).
- *Excess circulating fatty acids* derived from dietary intake also become incorporated into triglycerides.
- *Excess circulating amino acids* not needed for protein synthesis are not stored as extra protein but are converted to glucose and fatty acids, which ultimately end up being stored as triglycerides.

Thus, the major site of energy storage for excess nutrients of all three classes is adipose tissue. Normally, enough triglyceride is

stored to provide energy for about two months, more so in an overweight person. Consequently, during any prolonged period of fasting, the fatty acids released from triglyceride catabolism serve as the primary source of energy for most tissues. The catabolism of stored triglycerides frees glycerol as well as fatty acids, but quantitatively speaking, the fatty acids are far more important. Catabolism of stored fat yields 90% fatty acids and 10% glycerol by weight. Glycerol (but not fatty acids) can be converted to glucose by the liver and contributes in a small way to maintaining blood glucose during a fast.

As a third energy reservoir, a substantial amount of energy is stored as *structural protein*, primarily in muscle, the most abundant protein mass in the body. Protein is not the first choice to tap as an energy source, however, because it serves other essential functions; in contrast, the glycogen and triglyceride reservoirs serve solely as energy depots.

The brain must be continuously supplied with glucose.

The second factor complicating fuel metabolism besides intermittent nutrient intake and the resultant necessity of storing nutrients is that the brain normally depends on the delivery of adequate blood glucose as its sole source of energy. Consequently, the blood glucose concentration must be maintained above a critical level. The blood glucose concentration is typically 100 mg glucose/100 ml plasma and is normally kept within the narrow limits of 70 to 110 mg/100 ml. Liver glycogen is an important reservoir for maintaining blood glucose levels during a short fast. However, liver glycogen is depleted relatively rapidly, so during a longer fast other mechanisms must meet the energy requirements of the glucose-dependent brain. First, when no new dietary glucose is entering the blood, tissues not obligated to use glucose shift their metabolic gears to burn fatty acids instead, sparing glucose for the brain. Fatty acids are made available by catabolism of triglyceride stores as an alternative energy source for tissues that are not glucose dependent. Second, amino acids can be converted to glucose by gluconeogenesis, whereas fatty acids cannot. Thus, once glycogen stores are depleted despite glucose sparing, new glucose supplies for the brain are provided by the catabolism of body proteins and conversion of the freed amino acids into glucose.

Metabolic fuels are stored during the absorptive state and mobilized during the postabsorptive state.

The preceding discussion should make clear that the disposition of organic molecules depends on the body's metabolic state. The two functional metabolic states—the *absorptive state* and the *postabsorptive state*—are related to eating and fasting cycles, respectively (▲ Table 19-5).

¹Blood glucose concentration is sometimes given in terms of molarity, with normal blood glucose concentration hovering around 5 mM (see p. A-9).

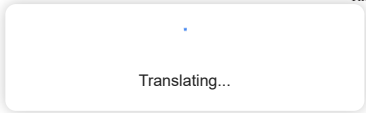
▲ TABLE 19-5 Comparison of Absorptive and Postabsorptive States

Metabolic Fuel	Absorptive State	Postabsorptive State
Carbohydrate	Glucose providing major energy source	Glycogen degradation and depletion
	Glycogen synthesis and storage	Glucose sparing to conserve glucose for the brain
	Excess converted and stored as triglyceride fat	Production of new glucose through gluconeogenesis
Fat	Triglyceride synthesis and storage	Triglyceride catabolism
		Fatty acids providing major energy source for non-glucose-dependent tissues
Protein	Protein synthesis	Protein catabolism
	Excess converted and stored as triglyceride fat	Amino acids used for gluconeogenesis

ABSORPTIVE STATE After a meal, ingested nutrients are being absorbed and are entering the blood during the **absorptive**, or **fed**, state. During this time, glucose is plentiful and serves as the major energy source. Very little of the absorbed fat and amino acids are used for energy during the absorptive state, because most cells use glucose when it is available. Extra nutrients not immediately used for energy or structural repairs are channeled into storage as glycogen or triglycerides.

POSTABSORPTIVE STATE The average meal is completely absorbed in about four hours. Therefore, on a typical three-meals-a-day diet, no nutrients are being absorbed from the digestive tract during late morning and late afternoon and throughout the night. These times constitute the **postabsorptive**, or **fasting**, state. During this state, endogenous energy stores are mobilized to provide energy, whereas gluconeogenesis and glucose sparing maintain the blood glucose at an adequate level to nourish the brain. Synthesis of protein and fat is curtailed. Instead, stores of these organic molecules are catabolized for glucose formation and energy production, respectively. Carbohydrate synthesis does occur through gluconeogenesis, but the use of glucose for energy is greatly reduced.

Note that the blood concentration of nutrients does not fluctuate markedly between the absorptive and postabsorptive states. During the absorptive state, the glut of absorbed nutrients is swiftly removed from the blood and placed into storage;



during the postabsorptive state, these stores are catabolized to maintain the blood concentrations at levels necessary to fill tissue demands.

ROLES OF KEY TISSUES IN METABOLIC STATES During these alternating metabolic states, various tissues play different roles as summarized here.

- The *liver* plays the primary role in maintaining normal blood glucose levels. It stores glycogen when excess glucose is available, releases glucose into the blood when needed, and is the principal site for metabolic interconversions such as gluconeogenesis.
- *Adipose tissue* serves as the primary energy storage site and is important in regulating fatty acid levels in the blood.
- *Muscle* is the primary site of amino acid storage and is the major energy user.
- The *brain* normally can use only glucose as an energy source, yet it does not store glycogen, making it mandatory that blood glucose levels be maintained.

Lesser energy sources are tapped as needed.

Several other organic intermediates play a lesser role as energy sources—namely, glycerol, lactate, and ketone bodies.

- As mentioned earlier, *glycerol* derived from triglyceride hydrolysis (it is the backbone to which the fatty acid chains are attached) can be converted to glucose by the liver.
- Similarly, *lactate*, which is produced by the incomplete catabolism of glucose via glycolysis in muscle (see p. 278), can also be converted to glucose in the liver.
- **Ketone bodies** (namely acetone, acetoacetic acid, and -hydroxybutyric acid) are a group of compounds produced by the liver during glucose sparing. Unlike other tissues, when the liver uses fatty acids as an energy source, it oxidizes them only to acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl CoA), which it is unable to process through the citric acid cycle for further energy extraction. Thus, the liver does not degrade fatty acids all the way to CO₂ and H₂O for maximum energy release. Instead, it partially extracts the available energy and converts the remaining energy-bearing acetyl CoA molecules into ketone bodies, which it releases into the blood. Ketone bodies serve as an alternative energy source for tissues capable of oxidizing them further by means of the citric acid cycle.

During long-term starvation, the brain starts using ketones instead of glucose as a major energy source. Because death resulting from starvation is usually the result of protein wasting rather than hypoglycemia (low blood glucose), prolonged survival without any caloric intake requires that gluconeogenesis be kept to a minimum as long as the energy needs of the brain are not compromised. A sizable portion of cell protein can be catabolized without serious cellular malfunction, but a point is finally reached at which a cannibalized cell can no longer function adequately. To ward off the fatal point of failure as long as possible during prolonged starvation, the brain starts using ketones as a major energy source, correspondingly decreasing its use of glucose. Use by the brain of this fatty acid “table scrap”

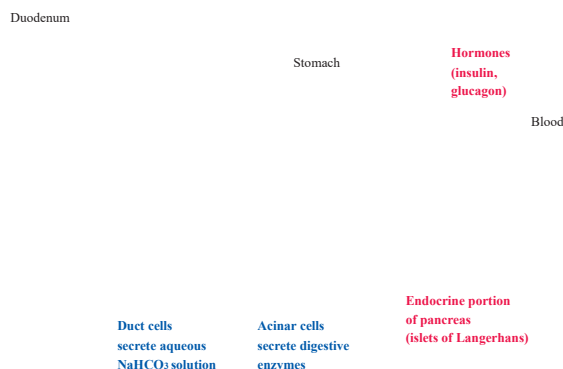
left over from the liver’s “meal” limits the necessity of mobilizing body proteins for glucose production to nourish the brain. Both the major metabolic adaptations to prolonged starvation—a decrease in protein catabolism and use of ketones by the brain—are attributable to the high levels of ketones in the blood at the time. The brain uses ketones only when blood ketone level is high. The high blood levels of ketones also directly inhibit protein degradation in muscle. Thus, ketones spare body proteins while satisfying the brain’s energy needs.

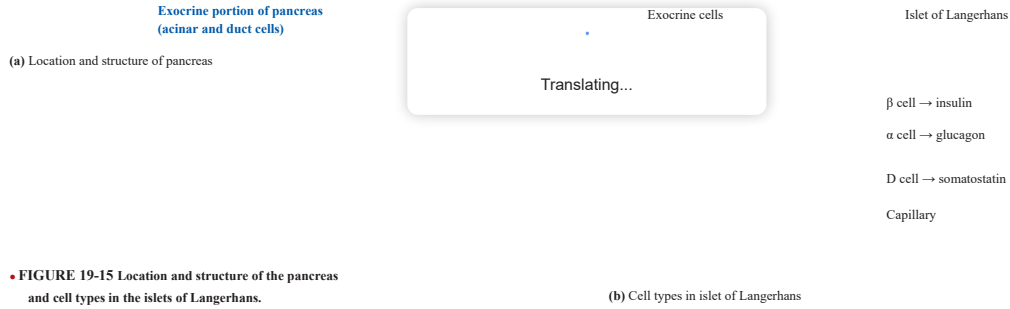
The pancreatic hormones, insulin and glucagon, are most important in regulating fuel metabolism.

How does the body “know” when to shift its metabolic gears from a system of net anabolism and nutrient storage to one of net catabolism and glucose sparing? The flow of organic nutrients along metabolic pathways is influenced by a variety of hormones, including insulin, glucagon, epinephrine, cortisol, and growth hormone. Under most circumstances, the pancreatic hormones, insulin and glucagon, are the dominant hormonal regulators that shift the metabolic pathways back and forth from net anabolism to net catabolism and glucose sparing, depending on whether the body is in a state of feasting or fasting, respectively.

ISLETS OF LANGERHANS The **pancreas** is an organ composed of both exocrine and endocrine tissues. The exocrine portion secretes a watery, alkaline solution and digestive enzymes through the pancreatic duct into the digestive tract lumen. Scattered throughout the pancreas between the exocrine cells are about a million clusters, or “islands,” of endocrine cells known as the **islets of Langerhans** (• Figure 19-15a). The islets make up about 1% to 2% of the total pancreatic mass. The most abundant pancreatic endocrine cells are the **(beta) cells**, which are the site of *insulin* synthesis and secretion and constitute about 60% of the total islet mass. The **(alpha) cells** produce the hormone *glucagon* and make up 25% of the islet mass. Less common (making up 10% of islet mass), the **D (delta) cells** are the pancreatic site of *somatostatin* synthesis. The least common islet cells (1% of islet mass), the **F cells**, secrete *pancreatic polypeptide*, which plays a possible role in reducing appetite and food intake, is poorly understood, and will not be discussed any further. (The remaining 4% of islet mass consists of connective tissue, blood vessels, and nerves.) The cells are concentrated centrally in the islets, with the other cells clustered around the periphery (• Figure 19-15b). We will briefly highlight somatostatin now and then will pay the most attention to insulin and glucagon, the most important hormones in the regulation of fuel metabolism.

SOMATOSTATIN Acting as a hormone, pancreatic **somatostatin** inhibits the digestive system in a variety of ways, the overall effect of which is to inhibit digestion of nutrients and to decrease nutrient absorption. Somatostatin is released from the pancreatic D cells in direct response to an increase in blood glucose and blood amino acids during absorption of a meal. By exerting its inhibitory effects, pancreatic somatostatin acts in negative-





feedback fashion to put the brakes on the rate at which the meal is being digested and absorbed, thereby preventing excessive plasma levels of nutrients. Pancreatic somatostatin also acts as a paracrine in regulating pancreatic hormone secretion. The local presence of somatostatin decreases the secretion of insulin, glucagon, and somatostatin itself, but the physiologic importance of such paracrine function has not been determined.

Somatostatin is also produced by cells lining the digestive tract, where it acts locally as a paracrine to inhibit most digestive processes (see p. 609). Furthermore, somatostatin (alias GHIH) is produced by the hypothalamus, where it inhibits the secretion of growth hormone and TSH (see p. 681).

We next consider insulin and then glucagon, followed by a discussion of how insulin and glucagon function as an endocrine unit to shift metabolic gears between the absorptive and postabsorptive states.

Insulin lowers blood glucose, fatty acid, and amino acid levels and promotes their storage.

Insulin has important effects on carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism. It lowers the blood levels of glucose, fatty acids, and amino acids and promotes their storage. As these nutrient molecules enter the blood during the absorptive state, insulin promotes their cellular uptake and conversion into glycogen, triglycerides, and protein, respectively. Insulin exerts its many

effects either by altering transport of specific blood-borne nutrients into cells or by altering the activity of the enzymes involved in specific metabolic pathways. To accomplish its effects, in some instances insulin increases the activity of an enzyme, for example *glycogen synthase*, the key regulated enzyme that synthesizes glycogen from glucose molecules, a process known as **glycogenesis**. In other cases, however, insulin decreases the activity of an enzyme, for example by inhibiting *hormone-sensitive lipase*, the enzyme that catalyzes the breakdown of stored triglycerides back to free fatty acids and glycerol.

ACTIONS ON CARBOHYDRATES The maintenance of blood glucose homeostasis is a particularly important function of the pancreas. Circulating glucose concentrations are determined by the balance among the following processes (• Figure 19-16): glucose absorption from the digestive tract, transport of glucose into cells, hepatic glucose production, and (abnormally) urinary excretion of glucose. Among these factors, only glucose transport into cells and hepatic glucose production are subject to control.

Insulin exerts four effects that lower blood glucose levels and promote carbohydrate storage:

1. Insulin facilitates glucose transport into most cells. (The mechanism of this increased glucose uptake is explained after insulin's other blood glucoselowering effects are listed.)

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Factors that increase blood glucose

Glucose absorption from digestive tract

Hepatic glucose production:
 —Through glycogenolysis of stored glycogen
 —Through gluconeogenesis

KEY

= Factors subject to hormonal control to maintain blood glucose level

Factors that decrease blood glucose

Transport of glucose into cells:
 —For utilization for energy production
 —For storage as glycogen through glycogenesis as triglycerides

Urinary excretion of glucose (occurs only abnormally, when blood glucose level becomes so high it exceeds the reabsorptive capacity of kidney tubules during urine formation)

Blood glucose

• **FIGURE 19-16** Factors affecting blood glucose concentration.

2. Insulin stimulates glycogenesis, the production of glycogen from glucose, in both skeletal muscle and the liver.
3. Insulin inhibits glycogenolysis, the breakdown of glycogen into glucose. By inhibiting the breakdown of glycogen into glucose, insulin likewise favors carbohydrate storage and decreases glucose output by the liver.
4. Insulin further decreases hepatic glucose output by inhibiting gluconeogenesis, the conversion of amino acids into glucose in the liver. Insulin does so by decreasing the amount of amino acids in the blood available to the liver for gluconeogenesis and by inhibiting the hepatic enzymes required for converting amino acids into glucose.

Thus, insulin decreases the concentration of blood glucose by promoting the cells' uptake of glucose from the blood for use

Each member of the GLUT family performs slightly different functions. For example, *GLUT-1* transports glucose across the blood-brain barrier, *GLUT-2* transfers into the adjacent bloodstream the glucose that has entered the kidney and intestinal cells by means of the sodium and glucose cotransporter (SGLT; see p. 73), and *GLUT-3* is the main transporter of glucose into neurons. The glucose transporter responsible for the majority of glucose uptake by most cells of the body is *GLUT-4*, which operates only at the bidding of insulin. Glucose molecules cannot readily penetrate most cell membranes in the absence of insulin, making most tissues highly dependent on insulin for uptake of glucose from the blood and for its subsequent use. *GLUT-4* is especially abundant in the tissues that account for the bulk of glucose uptake from the blood during the absorptive state, namely, skeletal muscle and adipose tissue cells.

and storage, while simultaneously blocking the two mechanisms by which the liver releases glucose into the blood (glycolysis and gluconeogenesis). Insulin is the only hormone capable of lowering the blood glucose level. Insulin promotes the uptake of glucose by most cells through glucose transporter recruitment, a topic to which we now turn attention.

Glucose transport between the blood and cells is accomplished by means of a plasma membrane carrier known as a **glucose transporter (GLUT)**. Fourteen forms of glucose transporters have been identified, named in the order they were discovered—GLUT-1, GLUT-2, and so on. These glucose transporters all accomplish passive facilitated diffusion of glucose across the plasma membrane (see p. 69). Once GLUT transports glucose into a cell, an enzyme within the cell immediately phosphorylates glucose to **glucose-6-phosphate**, which has no means out of the cell, unlike “plain” glucose, which could exit through the bidirectional glucose transporter. Therefore, glucose is trapped inside the cell. Furthermore, the phosphorylation of glucose as it enters the cell keeps the intracellular concentration of plain glucose low so that a gradient favoring the facilitated diffusion of glucose into the cell is maintained.

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times by means of GLUT-1 and GLUT-3 molecules. Skeletal muscle cells do not depend on insulin for their glucose uptake during exercise, even though they are dependent at rest. Muscle contraction triggers the insertion of GLUT-4 into the plasma membranes of exercising muscle cells in the absence of insulin. This fact is important in managing diabetes mellitus (insulin deficiency), as described later. The liver also does not depend on insulin for glucose uptake, because it does not use GLUT-4. However, insulin does enhance the metabolism of glucose by the liver by stimulating the first step in glucose metabolism, the phosphorylation of glucose to form glucose-6-phosphate.

Insulin also exerts important actions on fat and protein.

ACTIONS ON FAT Insulin exerts multiple effects to lower blood fatty acids and promote triglyceride storage:

1. It enhances the entry of fatty acids from the blood into adipose tissue cells.
2. It increases the transport of glucose into adipose tissue cells by means of GLUT-4 recruitment. Glucose serves as a precursor for the formation of fatty acids and glycerol, which are the raw materials for triglyceride synthesis.
3. It promotes chemical reactions that ultimately use fatty acids and glucose derivatives for triglyceride synthesis.
4. It inhibits lipolysis (fat breakdown), reducing the release of fatty acids from adipose tissue into the blood.

Collectively, these actions favor removal of fatty acids and glucose from the blood and promote their storage as triglycerides.

ACTIONS ON PROTEIN Insulin lowers blood amino acid levels and enhances protein synthesis through several effects:

1. It promotes the active transport of amino acids from the blood into muscles and other tissues. This effect decreases the circulating amino acid level and provides the building blocks for protein synthesis within the cells.
2. It increases the rate of amino acid incorporation into protein by stimulating the cells' protein-synthesizing machinery.
3. It inhibits protein degradation.

The collective result of these actions is a protein anabolic effect. For this reason, insulin is essential for normal growth.

SUMMARY OF INSULIN'S ACTIONS In short, insulin primarily exerts its effects by acting on nonworking skeletal muscle, the liver, and adipose tissue. It stimulates biosynthetic pathways that lead to increased glucose use, increased carbohydrate and fat storage, and increased protein synthesis. In so doing, this hormone lowers the blood glucose, fatty acid, and amino acid levels. This metabolic pattern is characteristic of the absorptive state. Indeed, insulin secretion rises during this state and shifts metabolic pathways to net anabolism.

When insulin secretion is low, the opposite effects occur. The rate of glucose entry into cells is reduced, and net catabolism occurs rather than net synthesis of glycogen, triglycerides, and protein. This pattern is reminiscent of the postabsorptive state; indeed, insulin secretion is reduced during the postabsorptive state. However, the other major pancreatic hormone, glucagon, also plays an important role in shifting from absorptive to postabsorptive metabolic patterns, as described later.

GLUT-4 is the only type of glucose transporter that responds to insulin. Unlike the other types of GLUT molecules, which are always present in the plasma membranes at the sites where they perform their functions, GLUT-4 in the absence of insulin is excluded from the plasma membrane. Insulin promotes glucose uptake by **transporter recruitment**. Insulin-dependent cells maintain a pool of intracellular vesicles containing GLUT-4. When insulin binds with its receptor (a receptor that acts as a tyrosine kinase enzyme; see p. 115) on the surface membrane of the target cell, the subsequent signaling pathway induces these vesicles to move to the plasma membrane and fuse with it, thus inserting GLUT-4 molecules into the plasma membrane. In this way, increased insulin secretion promotes a rapid 10- to 30-fold increase in glucose uptake by insulin-dependent cells. When insulin secretion decreases, these glucose transporters are retrieved from the membrane by endocytosis and returned to the intracellular pool.

Several tissues do not depend on insulin for their glucose uptake—namely, the brain, working muscles, and liver. The brain, which requires a constant supply of glucose for its minute-to-minute energy needs, is freely permeable to glucose at all

sorptive state. However, the other major pancreatic hormone, glucagon, also plays an important role in shifting from absorptive to postabsorptive metabolic patterns, as described later.

The primary stimulus for increased insulin secretion is an increase in blood glucose concentration.

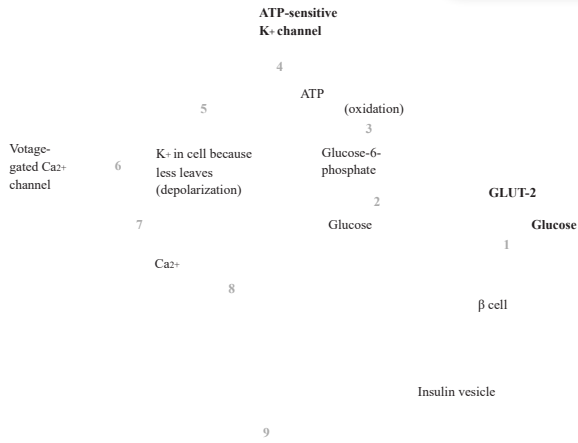
The primary control of insulin secretion is a direct negative-feedback system between the pancreatic cells and the concentration of glucose in the blood flowing to them. An elevated blood glucose level, such as during absorption of a meal, directly stimulates the cells to synthesize and release insulin. The increased insulin, in turn, reduces blood glucose to normal and promotes use and storage of this nutrient. Conversely, a fall in blood glucose below normal, such as during fasting, directly inhibits insulin secretion. Lowering the rate of insulin secretion shifts metabolism from the absorptive to the postabsorptive pattern. Thus, this simple negative-feedback system can maintain a relatively constant supply of glucose to the tissues without requiring the participation of nerves or other hormones.

Glucose stimulates insulin secretion by means of an excitation-secretion coupling process. That is, glucose initiates a chain of events that changes the cell's membrane potential, leading to secretion of insulin. This is one of the few known examples where cells other than nerve or muscle cells undergo functionally related changes in membrane potential. Specifically, glucose enters the cell by means of GLUT-2 (• Figure 19-17, step 1). Once inside, glucose is immediately phosphorylated to glucose-6-phosphate (step 2), which is oxidized by the cell to yield ATP (step 3). A cell has two types of channels: an **ATP-sensitive K channel**, which is a leak channel that remains open unless ATP binds to it, and a **voltage-gated Ca_v channel**, which is closed at resting potential. The ATP-sensitive K channel closes when ATP generated from glucose-6-phosphate binds to it (step 4). The resultant decrease in K permeability leads to depolarization of the cell (because of less outward movement of positively charged K⁺) (step 5). This depolarization causes the voltage-gated Ca_v channels to open (step 6). The subsequent Ca_v entry (step 7) triggers exocytosis of secretory vesicles containing insulin (step 8), resulting in insulin secretion (step 9).

In addition to blood glucose concentration, which is the major controlling factor, other inputs are involved in regulating insulin secretion, as follows (• Figure 19-18):

- An elevated blood amino acid level, such as after a high-protein meal, directly stimulates the cells to increase insulin secretion. In negative-feedback fashion, the increased insulin enhances the entry of these amino acids into the cells, lowering the blood amino acid level while promoting protein synthesis. Amino acids increase insulin secretion in the same way as glucose does, by generating ATP that leads to excitation-secretion coupling.
- Gastrointestinal hormones secreted by the digestive tract in response to the presence of food, especially *glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide (GIP)* (see p. 637) and a similar candidate hormone *glucagon-like peptide (GLP)*, stimulate pancreatic in-

Translating...



- 1 Glucose enters β cell by facilitated diffusion via GLUT-2.
- 2 Glucose is phosphorylated to glucose-6-phosphate.
- 3 Oxidation of glucose-6-phosphate generates ATP.
- 4 ATP acts on ATP-sensitive K^+ channel, closing it.
- 5 Reduced exit of K^+ depolarizes membrane.
- 6 Depolarization opens voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels.
- 7 Ca^{2+} enters β cell.
- 8 Ca^{2+} triggers exocytosis of insulin vesicles.
- 9 Insulin is secreted.

• FIGURE 19-17 Stimulation of insulin secretion by glucose via excitation-secretion coupling.

ulin secretion in addition to having direct regulatory effects on the digestive system. Through this control, insulin secretion is increased in “feedforward,” or anticipatory, fashion even before nutrient absorption increases the blood concentration of glucose and amino acids. Hormones released from the digestive tract that “notify” the pancreatic cell of the impending rise in blood nutrients (primarily blood glucose) are termed **incretins**. Incretins increase insulin secretion by increasing cAMP, which enhances Ca^{2+} -induced release of insulin.

▪ The autonomic nervous system also directly influences insulin secretion. The islets are richly innervated by both parasympathetic (vagal) and sympathetic nerve fibers. The increase in parasympathetic activity that occurs in response to food in the digestive tract stimulates insulin release, with the parasympathetic neurotransmitter acetylcholine acting through the IP_3/Ca^{2+} pathway. This, too, is a feedforward response in anticipation of nutrient absorption. In contrast, sympathetic stimulation and the concurrent increase in epinephrine both inhibit

insulin secretion by decreasing cAMP. The fall in insulin level allows the blood glucose level to rise, an appropriate response to the circumstances under which generalized sympathetic activation occurs—namely, stress (fight or flight) and exercise. In both these situations, extra fuel is needed for increased muscle activity.

The symptoms of diabetes mellitus are characteristic of an exaggerated postabsorptive state.

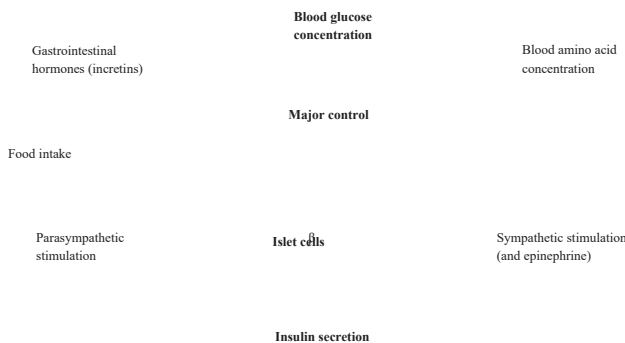
Diabetes mellitus is by far the most common of all endocrine disorders. The acute symptoms of diabetes mellitus are attributable to inadequate insulin action. Because insulin is the only hormone capable of lowering blood glucose levels, one of the most prominent features of diabetes mellitus is elevated blood glucose levels, or *hyperglycemia*. *Diabetes* literally means “siphon” or “running through,” a reference to the large urine volume accompanying this condition. A large urine volume occurs in both diabetes mellitus (a result of insulin insufficiency) and diabetes insipidus (a result of vasopressin deficiency). *Mellitus* means “sweet”; *insipidus* means “tasteless.” The urine of patients with diabetes mellitus acquires its sweetness from excess blood glucose that spills into the urine, whereas the urine of patients with diabetes insipidus contains no sugar, so it is tasteless. (Aren’t you glad you were not a health professional at the time when these two conditions were distinguished on the basis of the taste of the urine?)

Diabetes mellitus has two major variants, differing in the capacity for pancreatic insulin secretion: *Type 1 diabetes*, characterized by a lack of insulin secretion, and *Type 2 diabetes*, characterized by normal or even increased insulin secretion but reduced sensitivity of insulin’s target cells to its presence. (For a further discussion of the distinguishing features of these two types of diabetes mellitus, see the boxed feature on pp. 720–721, ■ Concepts, Challenges, and Controversies.)

The acute consequences of diabetes mellitus can be grouped according to the effects of inadequate insulin action on carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism (• Figure 19-19, p. 722). The figure may look overwhelming, but the numbers, which correspond to the numbers in the following discussion, help you work your way through this complex disease step by step.

CONSEQUENCES RELATED TO EFFECTS ON CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM Because the postabsorptive metabolic pattern is induced by low insulin activity, the changes that occur in diabetes mellitus are an exaggeration of this state, with the exception of hyperglycemia. In the usual fasting state, the blood glucose level is slightly below normal. Hyperglycemia, the hallmark of diabetes mellitus, arises from reduced glucose uptake by cells, coupled with increased output of glucose from the liver (step 1 in • Figure 19-19). As the glucose-yielding processes of glycogenolysis

CONSEQUENCES RELATED TO EFFECTS ON FAT METABOLISM Triglyceride synthesis decreases while lipolysis increases, resulting in large-scale mobilization of fatty acids from triglyceride stores (step 12). The increased blood fatty acids are largely used by the cells as an alternative energy source. Increased liver use of fatty acids results in the release of excessive ketone bodies into the blood, causing *ketosis* (step 13). Ketone bodies include several different acids, such as acetoacetic acid, that result from incomplete breakdown of fat during hepatic energy production. Therefore, this developing ketosis leads to progressive metabolic acidosis (step 14). Aci-



Blood glucose
Blood fatty acids
Blood amino acids
Protein synthesis
Fuel storage

Translating...

dosis depresses the brain and, if severe enough, can lead to diabetic coma and death (step 15).

A compensatory measure for metabolic acidosis is increased ventilation to blow off extra, acid-forming CO₂ (step 16). Exhalation of one of the ketone bodies, acetone, causes a "fruity" breath odor that smells like a combination of Juicy Fruit gum and nail polish remover. Sometimes, because of this

odor, passersby unfortunately mistake a patient collapsed in a diabetic coma for a "wino" passed out in a state of drunkenness. (This situation illustrates the merits of medical alert identification tags.) People with Type 1 diabetes are much more prone to develop ketosis than are Type 2 diabetics.

CONSEQUENCES RELATED TO EFFECTS ON PROTEIN METABOLISM The effects of a lack of insulin on protein metabolism result in a net shift toward protein catabolism. The net breakdown of muscle proteins leads to wasting and weakness of skeletal muscles (step 17) and, in child diabetics, a reduction in overall growth. Reduced amino acid uptake coupled with increased protein degradation results in excess amino acids in the blood (step 18). The increased circulating amino acids can be used for additional gluconeogenesis, which further aggravates the hyperglycemia (step 19).

As you can readily appreciate from this overview, diabetes mellitus is a complicated disease that can disturb both carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism and fluid and acidbase balance. It can also have repercussions on the circulatory system, kidneys, respiratory system, and nervous system.

LONG-TERM COMPLICATIONS In addition to these potential acute consequences of untreated diabetes, which can be explained on the basis of insulin's short-term metabolic effects, numerous long-range complications of this disease frequently occur after 15 to 20 years despite treatment to prevent the short-term effects. These chronic complications, which account for the shorter life expectancy of diabetics, primarily involve degenerative disorders of the blood vessels and nervous system. Cardiovascular lesions are the most common cause of premature death in diabetics. Heart disease and strokes occur with

• FIGURE 19-18 Factors controlling insulin secretion.

and gluconeogenesis proceed unchecked in the absence of insulin, hepatic output of glucose increases. Because many of the body's cells cannot use glucose without the help of insulin, an ionic extracellular glucose excess occurs coincident with an intracellular glucose deficiency—"starvation in the midst of plenty." Even though the non-insulin-dependent brain is adequately nourished during diabetes mellitus, further consequences of the disease lead to brain dysfunction, as you will see shortly.

When the blood glucose rises to the level where the amount of glucose filtered exceeds the tubular cells' capacity for reabsorption, glucose appears in the urine (*glucosuria*) (step 2). Glucose in the urine exerts an osmotic effect that draws H₂O with it, producing an osmotic diuresis characterized by *polyuria* (frequent urination) (step 3). The excess fluid lost from the body leads to dehydration (step 4), which in turn can ultimately lead to peripheral circulatory failure because of the marked reduction in blood volume (step 5). Circulatory failure, if uncorrected, can lead to death because of low cerebral blood flow (step 6) or secondary renal failure resulting from inadequate filtration pressure (step 7). Furthermore, cells lose water as the body becomes dehydrated by an osmotic shift of water from the cells into the hypertonic extracellular fluid (step 8). Brain cells are especially sensitive to shrinking, so nervous system malfunction ensues (step 9) (see p. 564). Another characteristic symptom of diabetes mellitus is *polydipsia* (excessive thirst) (step 10), which is actually a compensatory mechanism to counteract the dehydration.

The story is not complete. In intracellular glucose deficiency, appetite is stimulated, leading to *polyphagia* (excessive food intake) (step 11). Despite increased food intake, however, progressive weight loss occurs from the effects of insulin deficiency on fat and protein metabolism.

CONCEPTS, CHALLENGES, AND CONTROVERSIES

Diabetics and Insulin: Some Have It and Some Don't

There are two distinct types of diabetes mellitus (see the accompanying table). **Type 1 (insulin-dependent, or juvenile-onset) diabetes mellitus**, which accounts for about 10% of all cases of diabetes, is characterized by a lack of insulin secretion. Because their pancreatic cells secrete no or nearly no insulin, Type 1 diabetics require exogenous insulin for survival. In **Type 2 (non-insulin-dependent, or maturity-onset) diabetes mellitus**, insulin secretion may be normal or even increased, but insulin's target cells are less sensitive than normal to this hormone. Ninety percent of diabetics have the Type 2 form. Although either type can first be manifested at any age, Type 1 is more prevalent in children, whereas Type 2 more generally arises in adulthood, hence the age-related designations.

Diabetes of both types currently affects more than 20 million people in the United States, costing this country an estimated \$132 billion annually in health-care expenses. The disease accounts for 10% of the health-care dollars spent in the United States. The U.S. diabetes-related death rate has increased by 30% since 1980, largely because the incidence of the disease has been rising. Because diabetes is so prevalent and exacts such a huge economic toll, coupled with the fact that it forces a change in the lifestyle of affected individuals and places them at increased risk for developing a variety of troublesome and even life-threatening conditions, intensive research is directed toward better under-

sensitivity of insulin's target cells to its presence. Various genetic and lifestyle factors appear important in the development of Type 2 diabetes. Obesity is the biggest risk factor; 90% of Type 2 diabetics are obese.

Many Type 2 diabetics have *metabolic syndrome*, or *syndrome X*, as a forerunner of diabetes. **Metabolic syndrome** encompasses a cluster of features that predispose the person to developing Type 2 diabetes and atherosclerosis (see p. 333). These features include obesity, large waist circumference (that is, "apple" shapes; see p. 649), high triglyceride levels, low HDL (the "good" cholesterol; see p. 336), high blood glucose, and high blood pressure. An estimated 20% of the U.S. population has metabolic syndrome, with this number climbing to 45% for those over age 50.

The ultimate cause of Type 2 diabetes remains elusive despite intense investigation, but researchers have identified a number of possible links between obesity and reduced insulin sensitivity. Recent studies indicate that the responsiveness of skeletal muscle and liver to insulin can be modulated by circulating adipokines (hormones secreted by adipose cells). The implicated adipokines are distinct from leptin, the adipose hormone that plays a role in controlling food intake (see p. 646). For example, adipose tissue secretes the hormone **resistin**, which promotes insulin resistance by interfering with insulin action. Resistin production increases in obesity. By contrast, the adipokine **adiponectin** increases insulin sensitivity by en-

betes are usually slower in onset and less severe than in Type 1 diabetes.

Treatment of Diabetes

The treatment for Type 1 diabetes is a controlled balance of regular insulin injections timed around meals, management of the amounts and types of food consumed, and exercise. Insulin is injected because if it were swallowed, this peptide hormone would be digested by proteolytic enzymes in the stomach and small intestine. Inhaled insulin was available for a while but was withdrawn from the market because of financial considerations. Pharmaceutical companies are also in late-stage clinical trials with an oral insulin spray product that can be absorbed in the mouth. Exercise is also useful in managing both types of diabetes, because working muscles are not insulin dependent. Exercising muscles take up some of the excess glucose in the blood, reducing the overall need for insulin.

Whereas Type 1 diabetics are permanently insulin dependent, dietary control and weight reduction may be all that is necessary to completely reverse the symptoms in Type 2 diabetics. Six classes of oral medications are currently available for use if needed for treating Type 2 diabetes in conjunction with a dietary and exercise regime. These pills help the patient's body use its own insulin more effectively, each by a different mechanism, as follows:

standing and controlling or preventing both types of the disease.

Underlying Defect in Type 1 Diabetes

Type 1 diabetes is an autoimmune process involving the erroneous, selective destruction of the pancreatic cells by inappropriately activated T lymphocytes (see p. 437). The precise cause of this self-attack is unclear. Some have a genetic susceptibility to acquiring Type 1 diabetes. Environmental triggers also appear to play a role, but investigators have not been able to definitively pin down any culprits.

Underlying Defect in Type 2 Diabetes

Type 2 diabetes do secrete insulin, but the affected individuals exhibit *insulin resistance*. That is, the basic problem in Type 2 diabetes is not lack of insulin but reduced

hancing insulin's effects, but its production is decreased in obesity. Furthermore, free fatty acids released from adipose tissue can abnormally accumulate in muscle and interfere with insulin action in muscle by decreasing insulin's ability to promote GLUT-4 mediated uptake of glucose in skeletal muscle. Also, evidence suggests that excessive fatty acids can indirectly trigger apoptosis of cells.

Early in the development of the disease, the resulting decrease in sensitivity to insulin is overcome by secretion of additional insulin. However, the sustained overtaxing of the genetically weak cells eventually exceeds their reserve secretory capacity. Even though insulin secretion may be normal or even elevated, symptoms of insulin insufficiency develop because the amount of insulin is still inadequate to prevent hyperglycemia. The symptoms in Type 2 dia-

1. By stimulating the cells to secrete more insulin than they do on their own (*sulfonylureas*; for example, Glucotrol)

2. By suppressing liver output of glucose (*metformin*; for example, Glucophage)

3. By blocking enzymes that digest complex carbohydrates, thus slowing glucose absorption into the blood from the digestive tract and blunting the surge of glucose immediately after a meal (*alpha-glycosidase inhibitors*; for example, Precose)

4. By making muscle and fat cells more receptive to insulin (*thiazolidinediones*; for example, Avandia)

5. By mimicking naturally occurring incretins (*incretin mimetics*; for example, Byetta). Incretin mimetics are a recently approved class of drugs for treating Type 2 diabetes. Incretins are hormones released by the digestive tract in response to food that act in feedforward fashion on the endo-

Comparison of Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

Characteristic	Type 1 Diabetes	Type 2 Diabetes
Level of Insulin Secretion	None or almost none	May be normal or exceed normal
Typical Age of Onset	Childhood	Adulthood
Percentage of Diabetics	10%–20%	80%–90%
Basic Defect	Destruction of cells	Reduced sensitivity of insulin's target cells
Treatment	Insulin injections; dietary management; exercise	Dietary control and weight reduction; exercise; sometimes oral hypoglycemic drugs

ocrine pancreas to reduce the anticipated rise in blood glucose. The first drug on the market of this type, *Byetta*, mimics the gut-released hormone *glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1)*; see p. 717). GLP-1 is released from the small intestine L cells in response to food intake and has multiple glucose-lowering effects. GLP-1 itself is too short-lived to be suitable as a drug. *Byetta*, which is a version of a peptide found in the venom of a poisonous Gila monster, must be injected. Like GLP-1, this drug stimulates insulin secretion when blood glucose is high but not when glucose is in the normal range. It also suppresses production of glucose-raising glucagon and slows gastric emptying. By promoting satiety, *Byetta* decreases food intake and in the long term causes weight loss (see p. 644). Evidence suggests that *Byetta* even stimulates regeneration of pancreatic cells.

6. By increasing endogenous GLP-1 levels (*dipeptidyl peptidase-4 or DPP-4 inhibitors*; for example, *Januvia*). The newest approved class of drugs, the DPP-4 inhibitors increase endogenous GLP-1 levels by blocking DPP-4, an enzyme that breaks down GLP-1, thus prolonging action of this incretin. Prolonged activity of GLP-1 boosts insulin secretion until glucose levels return to normal. *Januvia* also suppresses the release of glucose by the liver and slows digestion.

Because none of these drugs deliver new insulin to the body, they cannot re-

place insulin therapy for people with Type 1 diabetes. Furthermore, sometimes the weakened cells of Type 2 diabetics eventually burn out and can no longer produce insulin. In such a case, the previously non-insulin-dependent patient must be placed on insulin therapy for life.

New Approaches to Managing Diabetes

Several newer approaches are currently available for insulin-dependent diabetics that preclude the need for the one or two insulin injections daily.

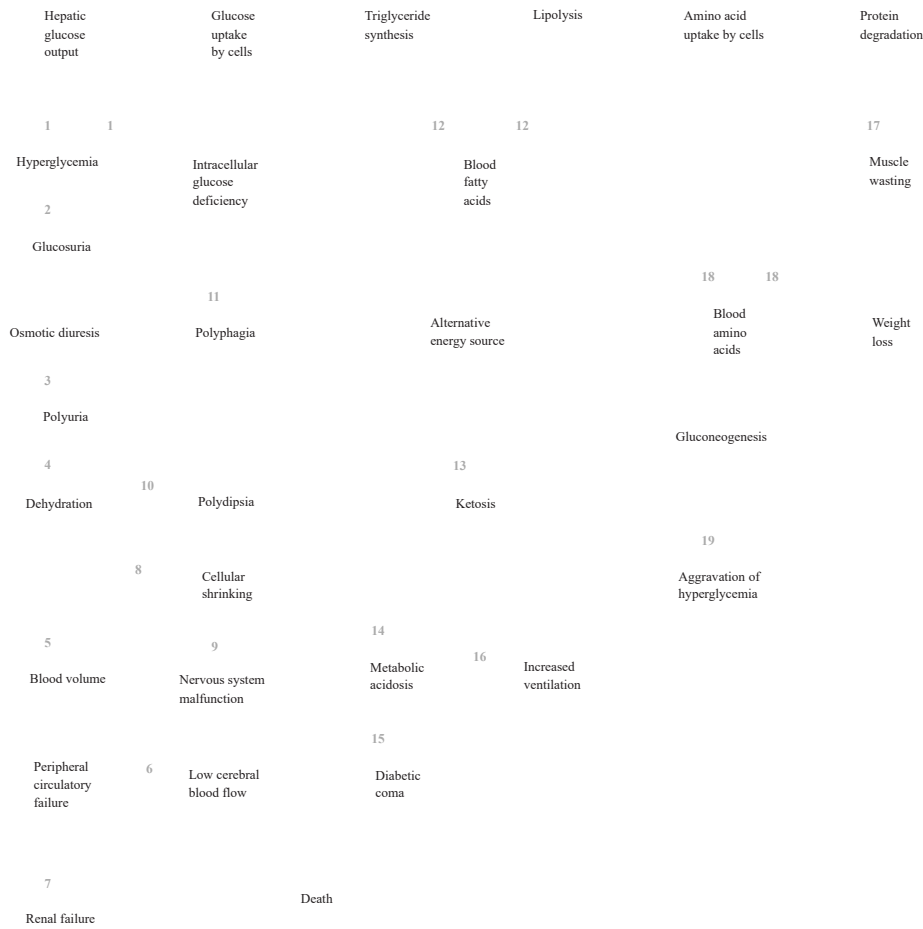
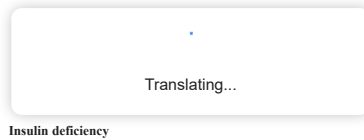
- Implanted insulin pumps can deliver a prescribed amount of insulin on a regular basis, but the recipient must time meals with care to match the automatic insulin delivery.
- Pancreas transplants are also being performed more widely now, with increasing success rates. On the downside, recipients of pancreas transplants must take immunosuppressive drugs for life to prevent rejection of their donated organs. Also, donor organs are in short supply.

Current research on several fronts may dramatically change the approach to diabetic therapy in the near future. The following new treatments are on the horizon:

- Some methods under development circumvent the need for insulin injections by using alternative routes of administration

that bypass the destructive digestive tract enzymes, such as by using ultrasound to force insulin into the skin from an insulin-impregnated patch. Some researchers are seeking methods to protect swallowed insulin from destruction by the digestive tract, for example, by attaching oral insulin to vitamin B₁₂, which protects the insulin from digestive enzymes until the vitamin–insulin complex is absorbed by intrinsic factor-induced endocytosis in the terminal ileum (see p. 608).

- Others have identified a potential oral substitute for insulin—namely, a nonpeptide chemical that binds with the insulin receptors and brings about the same intracellular responses as insulin does. Because this insulin mimetic is not a protein, it would not be destroyed by the proteolytic digestive enzymes if taken as a pill.
- Another hope is pancreatic islet transplants. Scientists have developed several types of devices that isolate donor islet cells from the recipient's immune system. Such immunoisolation of islet cells permits use of grafts from other animals, circumventing the shortage of human donor cells. Pig islet cells are an especially good source, because pig insulin is nearly identical to human insulin.
- Some researchers have coaxed stem cells to develop into insulin-secreting cells that hopefully can be implanted.
- In a related approach, others are turning to genetic engineering in the hope of developing surrogates for pancreatic cells. An example is the potential reprogramming of the small-intestine endocrine cells that produce GIP. The goal is to cause these non- cells to cosecrete both insulin and GIP on feeding.
- Another approach under development is an implanted, glucose-detecting, insulin-releasing “artificial pancreas” that would continuously monitor the patient's blood glucose level and deliver insulin in response to need.
- On another front, scientists are hopeful of one day developing immunotherapies that specifically block the attack of the immune system against the cells, thus curbing or preventing Type 1 diabetes.
- Nearly 400 new drugs for diabetes, mostly for the Type 2 form of the disease, are under development.



• **FIGURE 19-19 Acute effects of diabetes mellitus.** The acute consequences of diabetes mellitus can be grouped according to the effects of inadequate insulin action on carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism. These effects ultimately cause death through a variety of pathways. See pp. 718–719 for an explanation of the numbers.

greater incidence than in nondiabetics. Because vascular lesions often develop in the kidneys and retinas of the eyes, diabetes is the leading cause of both kidney failure and blindness in the United States. Impaired delivery of blood to the extremities may cause these tissues to become gangrenous, and toes or even whole limbs may have to be amputated. In addition to circula-

tory problems, degenerative lesions in nerves lead to multiple neuropathies that result in dysfunction of the brain, spinal cord, and peripheral nerves. The latter is most often characterized by pain, numbness, and tingling, especially in the extremities.

Regular exposure of tissues to excess blood glucose over a prolonged time leads to tissue alterations responsible for the

development of these long-range vascular and neural degenerative complications. Thus, the best management for diabetes mellitus is to continuously keep blood glucose levels within normal limits to diminish the incidence of these chronic abnormalities. However, the blood glucose levels of diabetic patients on traditional therapy typically fluctuate over a broader range than normal, exposing their tissues to a moderately elevated blood glucose level during a portion of each day. Fortunately, recent advances in understanding and learning how to manipulate underlying molecular defects in diabetes offer hope that more effective therapies will be developed within this decade to better manage or even cure existing cases and perhaps to prevent new cases of this devastating disease. (See the boxed feature on diabetes on pp. 720–721 for current and potential future treatment strategies for this disorder.)

dose, the diabetic person should eat or drink something sugary. Prompt treatment of severe hypoglycemia is imperative to prevent brain damage. Note that a diabetic can lose consciousness and die from either diabetic ketoacidotic coma caused by prolonged insulin deficiency or acute hypoglycemia caused by insulin shock. Fortunately, the other accompanying signs and symptoms differ sufficiently between the conditions to enable medical caretakers to administer appropriate therapy, either insulin or glucose. For example, ketoacidotic coma is accompanied by deep, labored breathing (in compensation for the metabolic acidosis) and fruity breath (from exhaled ketone bodies), whereas insulin shock is not.

Ironically, even though reactive hypoglycemia is characterized by a low blood glucose level, people with this disorder are treated by limiting their intake of sugar and other glucose-yielding carbohydrates to prevent their cells from overrespond-

Insulin excess causes brain-starving hypoglycemia.

Let us now look at the opposite of diabetes mellitus, insulin excess, which is characterized by *hypoglycemia* (low blood glucose) and can arise in two different ways.

First, insulin excess can occur in a diabetic patient when too much insulin has been injected for the person's caloric intake and exercise level, resulting in so-called **insulin shock**. Second, blood insulin level may rise abnormally high in a nondiabetic individual who has a β -cell tumor or whose cells are over-responsive to glucose, a condition called **reactive hypoglycemia**. Such cells "overshoot" and secrete more insulin than necessary, in response to elevated blood glucose after a high-carbohydrate meal. The excess insulin drives too much glucose into the cells, resulting in hypoglycemia.

The consequences of insulin excess are primarily manifestations of the effects of hypoglycemia on the brain. Recall that the brain relies on a continuous supply of blood glucose for its nourishment and that glucose uptake by the brain does not depend on insulin. With insulin excess, more glucose than necessary is driven into the other insulin-dependent cells. The result is a lowering of the blood glucose level so that not enough glucose is left in the blood to be delivered to the brain. In hypoglycemia, the brain literally starves. The symptoms, therefore, are primarily referable to depressed brain function, which, if severe enough, may rapidly progress to unconsciousness and death. People with overresponsive cells usually do not become sufficiently hypoglycemic to manifest these more serious consequences, but they do show milder symptoms of depressed CNS activity.

The true incidence of reactive hypoglycemia is a subject of intense controversy because laboratory measurements to confirm the presence of low blood glucose during the time of symptoms have not been performed in most people who have been diagnosed as having the condition. In mild cases, the symptoms of hypoglycemia, such as tremor, fatigue, sleepiness, and inability to concentrate, are nonspecific. Because these symptoms could also be attributable to emotional problems or other factors, a definitive diagnosis based on symptoms alone is impossible to make.

The treatment of hypoglycemia depends on the cause. At the first indication of a hypoglycemic attack with insulin over-

ing to a high glucose intake. With low carbohydrate intake, the blood glucose does not rise as much during the absorptive state. Because blood glucose elevation is the primary regulator of insulin secretion, the cells are not stimulated as much with a low-carbohydrate meal as with a typical meal. Accordingly, reactive hypoglycemia is less likely to occur. Giving a symptomatic individual with reactive hypoglycemia something sugary temporarily alleviates the symptoms. The blood glucose level is transiently restored to normal so that the brain's energy needs are once again satisfied. However, as soon as the extra glucose triggers further insulin release, the situation is merely aggravated.

Glucagon in general opposes the actions of insulin.

Even though insulin plays a central role in controlling metabolic adjustments between the absorptive and postabsorptive states, the secretory product of the pancreatic islet cells, **glucagon**, is also very important. Many physiologists view the insulin-secreting cells and the glucagon-secreting cells as a coupled endocrine system whose combined secretory output is a major factor in regulating fuel metabolism.

Glucagon affects many of the same metabolic processes that insulin influences, but in most cases glucagon's actions are opposite to those of insulin. The major site of action of glucagon is the liver, where it exerts a variety of effects on carbohydrate, fat, and protein metabolism. Glucagon acts by increasing cAMP.

ACTIONS ON CARBOHYDRATE The overall effects of glucagon on carbohydrate metabolism result in an increase in hepatic glucose production and release and thus an increase in blood glucose levels. Glucagon exerts its hyperglycemic effects by decreasing glycogen synthesis, promoting glycogenolysis, and stimulating gluconeogenesis.

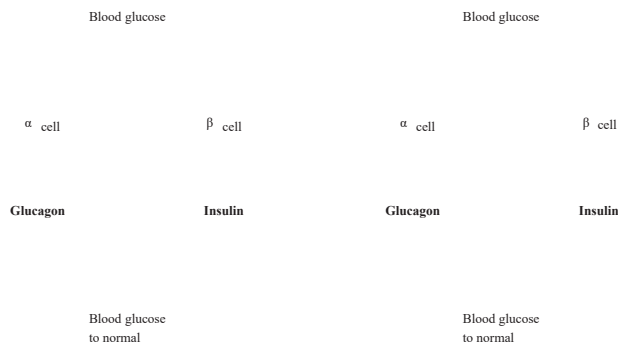
ACTIONS ON FAT Glucagon also antagonizes the actions of insulin with regard to fat metabolism by promoting fat breakdown and inhibiting triglyceride synthesis. Glucagon enhances hepatic ketone production (**ketogenesis**) by promoting the conversion of fatty acids to ketone bodies. Thus, the blood levels of fatty acids and ketones increase under glucagon's influence.

ACTIONS ON PROTEIN Glucagon inhibits hepatic protein synthesis and promotes degradation of hepatic protein. Stimulation of gluconeogenesis further contributes to glucagon's catabolic effect on hepatic protein metabolism. Glucagon promotes protein catabolism in the liver, but it does not have any significant effect on blood amino acid levels because it does not affect muscle protein, the major protein store in the body.

Glucagon secretion is increased during the postabsorptive state.

Considering the catabolic effects of glucagon on energy stores, you would be correct in assuming that glucagon secretion increases during the postabsorptive state and decreases during the absorptive state, just the opposite of insulin secretion. In fact, insulin is sometimes referred to as a "hormone of feasting" and glucagon as a "hormone of fasting." Insulin tends to put nutrients in storage when their blood levels are high, such as after a meal, whereas glucagon promotes catabolism of nutrient stores between meals to keep up the blood nutrient levels, especially blood glucose.

As in insulin secretion, the major factor regulating glucagon secretion is a direct effect of the blood glucose concentration on the endocrine pancreas. In this case, the pancreatic cells increase glucagon secretion in response to a fall in blood glucose. The hyperglycemic actions of this hormone tend to raise the blood glucose level back to normal. Conversely, an increase in blood glucose concentration, such as after a meal, inhibits glucagon secretion, which tends to drop the blood glucose level back to normal.



• FIGURE 19-20 Complementary interactions of glucagon and insulin.

bohydrate and fat metabolism oppose one another. The effect of blood amino acid concentration on the secretion of these two hormones is a different story. A rise in blood amino acid concentration stimulates *both* insulin and glucagon secretion. Why this seeming paradox, because glucagon does not exert any effect on blood amino acid concentration? The identical effect of high blood amino acid levels on both insulin and glucagon secretion makes sense if you consider the concomitant effects these two hormones have on blood glucose levels (• Figure 19-21). If, during absorption of a protein-rich meal, the rise in blood amino acids stimulated only insulin secretion, hypoglycemia might result. Because little carbohydrate is available for absorption following consumption of a high-protein meal, the amino acid-induced increase in insulin secretion would drive too much glucose into the cells, causing a sudden, inappropriate drop in the blood glucose level. However, the simultaneous in-

Insulin and glucagon work as a team to maintain blood glucose and fatty acid levels.

Thus, a direct negative-feedback relationship exists between blood glucose concentration and both the cells' and cells' rates of secretion, but in opposite directions. An elevated blood glucose level stimulates insulin secretion but inhibits glucagon secretion, whereas a fall in blood glucose level leads to decreased insulin secretion and increased glucagon secretion (• Figure 19-20). Because insulin lowers and glucagon raises blood glucose, the changes in secretion of these pancreatic hormones in response to deviations in blood glucose work together homeostatically to restore blood glucose levels to normal.

Similarly, a fall in blood fatty acid concentration directly inhibits insulin output and stimulates glucagon output by the pancreas, both of which are negative-feedback control mechanisms to restore the blood fatty acid level to normal.

The opposite effects exerted by blood concentrations of glucose and fatty acids on the pancreatic and cells are appropriate for regulating the circulating levels of these nutrient molecules because the actions of insulin and glucagon on car-

crease in glucagon secretion elicited by elevated blood amino acid levels increases hepatic glucose production. Because the hyperglycemic effects of glucagon counteract the hypoglycemic actions of insulin, the net result is maintenance of normal blood glucose levels (and prevention of hypoglycemic starvation of the brain) during absorption of a meal that is high in protein but low in carbohydrates.

Glucagon excess can aggravate the hyperglycemia of diabetes mellitus.

No known clinical abnormalities are caused by glucagon deficiency or excess per se. However, diabetes mellitus is frequently accompanied by excess glucagon secretion because insulin is required for glucose to gain entry into the cells, where it can exert control over glucagon secretion. As a result, diabetics frequently have a high rate of glucagon secretion concurrent with their insulin insufficiency because the elevated blood glucose cannot inhibit glucagon secretion as it normally would. Because glucagon is a hormone that raises blood glucose,

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• **FIGURE 19-21** Counteracting actions of glucagon and insulin on blood glucose during absorption of a high-protein meal.



its excess intensifies the hyperglycemia of diabetes mellitus. For this reason, some insulin-dependent diabetics respond best to a combination of insulin and somatostatin therapy. By inhibiting glucagon secretion, somatostatin indirectly helps achieve better reduction of the elevated blood glucose concentration than can be accomplished by insulin therapy alone.

Epinephrine, cortisol, and growth hormone also exert direct metabolic effects.

The pancreatic hormones are the most important regulators of normal fuel metabolism. However, several other hormones exert direct metabolic effects, even though control of their secretion is keyed to factors other than transitions in metabolism between feasting and fasting states (▲ Table 19-6).

The stress hormones, epinephrine and cortisol, both increase blood levels of glucose and fatty acids through a variety of metabolic effects. In addition, cortisol mobilizes amino acids by promoting protein catabolism. Neither hormone plays an important role in regulating fuel metabolism under resting conditions, but both are important for the metabolic responses to stress. During long-term starvation, cortisol also seems to help maintain blood glucose concentration.

Growth hormone (GH) (acting through IGF-I) has protein anabolic effects in muscle. In fact, this is one of its growth-

promoting features. Although GH can elevate the blood levels of glucose and fatty acids, it is normally of little importance to the overall regulation of fuel metabolism. Deep sleep, stress, exercise, and severe hypoglycemia stimulate GH secretion, possibly to provide fatty acids as an energy source and spare glucose for the brain under these circumstances. GH, like cortisol, appears to help maintain blood glucose concentrations during starvation.

Although thyroid hormone increases the overall metabolic rate and has both anabolic and catabolic actions, changes in thyroid hormone secretion are usually not important for fuel homeostasis, for two reasons. First, control of thyroid hormone secretion is not directed toward maintaining nutrient levels in the blood. Second, the onset of thyroid hormone action is too slow to have any significant effect on the rapid adjustments required to maintain normal blood levels of nutrients.

Note that, with the exception of the anabolic effects of GH on protein metabolism, all the metabolic actions of these other hormones are opposite to those of insulin. Insulin alone can reduce blood glucose and blood fatty acid levels, whereas glucagon, epinephrine, cortisol, and GH all increase blood levels of these nutrients. These other hormones are therefore considered **insulin antagonists**. Thus, the main reason diabetes mellitus has such devastating metabolic consequences is that no other control mechanism is available to pick up the slack to promote anabolism when insulin activity is insufficient, so the catabolic

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▲ TABLE 19-6 Summary of Hormonal Control of Fuel Metabolism

Hormone	MAJOR METABOLIC EFFECTS			CONTROL OF SECRETION		
	Effect on Blood Glucose	Effect on Blood Fatty Acids	Effect on Blood Amino Acids	Effect on Muscle Protein	Major Stimuli for Secretion	Primary Role in Metabolism
Insulin	g Glucose uptake Glycogenesis Glycogenolysis Gluconeogenesis	g Triglyceride synthesis Lipolysis	g Amino acid uptake	h Protein synthesis Protein degradation	h Blood glucose h Blood amino acids	Primary regulator of absorptive and postabsorptive cycles
Glucagon	h Glycogenolysis Gluconeogenesis Glycogenesis	h Lipolysis Triglyceride synthesis	No effect	No effect	g Blood glucose h Blood amino acids	Regulation of absorptive and post-absorptive cycles in concert with insulin; protection against hypoglycemia
Epinephrine	h Glycogenolysis Gluconeogenesis Insulin secretion Glucagon secretion	h Lipolysis	No effect	No effect	Sympathetic stimulation during stress and exercise	Provision of energy for emergencies and exercise
Cortisol	h Gluconeogenesis Glucose uptake by tissues other than brain; glucose sparing	h Lipolysis	h Protein degradation	g Protein degradation	Stress	Mobilization of metabolic fuels and building blocks during adaptation to stress
Growth Hormone	h Glucose uptake by muscles; glucose sparing	h Lipolysis	g Amino acid uptake	h Protein synthesis Protein degradation Synthesis of DNA and RNA	Deep sleep Stress Exercise Hypoglycemia	Promotion of growth; normally little role in metabolism; mobilization of fuels plus glucose sparing in extenuating circumstances

h increase g decrease

reactions promoted by other hormones proceed unchecked. The only exception is protein anabolism stimulated by GH.

Endocrine Control of Calcium Metabolism

Besides regulating the concentration of organic nutrient molecules in the blood by manipulating anabolic and catabolic pathways, the endocrine system regulates the plasma concentration of a number of inorganic electrolytes. As you already know, aldosterone controls Na and K concentrations in the ECF. Three other hormones—*parathyroid hormone*, *calcitonin*, and *vitamin D*—

control calcium (Ca_2) and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) metabolism. These hormonal agents concern themselves with regulating plasma Ca_2 , and in the process, plasma PO_4^{3-} is also maintained. Plasma Ca_2 concentration is one of the most tightly controlled variables in the body. The need for the precise regulation of plasma Ca_2 stems from its critical influence on so many body activities.

Plasma Ca_2 must be closely regulated to prevent changes in neuromuscular excitability.

About 99% of the Ca_2 in the body is in crystalline form within the skeleton and teeth. Of the remaining 1%, about 0.9% is found intracellularly within the soft tissues; less than 0.1% is

present in the ECF. Approximately half of the ECF Ca_2 either is bound to plasma proteins and therefore restricted to the plasma or is complexed with PO_4^{3-} and not free to participate in chemical reactions. The other half of the ECF Ca_2 is freely diffusible and can readily pass from the plasma into the interstitial fluid and interact with the cells. The free Ca_2 in the plasma and interstitial fluid is considered a single pool. Only this free ECF Ca_2 is biologically active and subject to regulation; it constitutes less than one thousandth of the total Ca_2 in the body.

This small, free fraction of ECF Ca_2 plays a vital role in a number of essential activities, including the following:

1. Neuromuscular excitability. Even minor variations in the concentration of free ECF Ca_2 can have a profound and immediate impact on the sensitivity of excitable tissues. A fall in free Ca_2 results in overexcitability of nerves and muscles;

5. Maintenance of tight junctions between cells. Calcium forms part of the intercellular cement that holds particular cells tightly together.

6. Clotting of blood. Calcium serves as a cofactor in several steps of the cascade of reactions that leads to clot formation.

In addition to these functions of free ECF Ca_2 , intracellular Ca_2 serves as a second messenger in many cells and is involved in cell motility and cilia action. Finally, the Ca_2 in bone and teeth is essential for the structural and functional integrity of these tissues.

Because of the profound effects of deviations in free Ca_2 , especially on neuromuscular excitability, the plasma concentration of this electrolyte is regulated with extraordinary precision. Let us see how.

conversely, a rise in free Ca^{2+} depresses neuromuscular excitability. These effects result from the influence of Ca^{2+} on membrane permeability to Na^+ . A decrease in free Ca^{2+} increases Na^+ permeability, with the resultant influx of Na^+ moving the resting potential closer to threshold. Consequently, in the presence of *hypocalcemia* (low blood Ca^{2+}), excitable tissues may be brought to threshold by normally ineffective physiologic stimuli so that skeletal muscles discharge and contract (go into spasm) "spontaneously" (in the absence of normal stimulation). If severe enough, spastic contraction of the respiratory muscles results in death by asphyxiation. *Hypercalcemia* (elevated blood Ca^{2+}) is also life threatening, because it causes cardiac arrhythmias and generalized depression of neuromuscular excitability.

2. Excitation-contraction coupling in cardiac and smooth muscle. Entry of ECF Ca^{2+} into cardiac and smooth muscle cells, resulting from increased Ca^{2+} permeability in response to an action potential, triggers the contractile mechanism. Calcium is also necessary for excitation-contraction coupling in skeletal muscle fibers, but in this case the Ca^{2+} is released from intracellular Ca^{2+} stores in response to an action potential. A significant part of the increase in cytosolic Ca^{2+} in cardiac muscle cells also derives from internal stores.

Note that a rise in cytosolic Ca^{2+} within a muscle cell causes contraction, whereas an increase in free ECF Ca^{2+} decreases neuromuscular excitability and reduces the likelihood of contraction. Unless one keeps this point in mind, it is difficult to understand why low plasma Ca^{2+} levels induce muscle hyperactivity when Ca^{2+} is necessary to switch on the contractile apparatus. We are talking about two different Ca^{2+} pools, which exert different effects.

3. Stimulus-secretion coupling. The entry of Ca^{2+} into secretory cells, which results from increased permeability to Ca^{2+} in response to appropriate stimulation, triggers the release of the secretory product by exocytosis. This process is important for the secretion of neurotransmitters by nerve cells and for peptide and catecholamine hormone secretion by endocrine cells.

4. Excitation-secretion coupling. In pancreatic cells, Ca^{2+} entry from the ECF in response to membrane depolarization leads to insulin secretion.

Control of Ca^{2+} metabolism includes regulation of both Ca^{2+} homeostasis and Ca^{2+} balance.

Maintaining the proper plasma concentration of free Ca^{2+} differs from the regulation of Na^+ and K^+ in two important ways. Na^+ and K^+ homeostasis is maintained primarily by regulating the urinary excretion of these electrolytes so that controlled output matches uncontrolled input. Although urinary excretion of Ca^{2+} is hormonally controlled, in contrast to Na^+ and K^+ , not all ingested Ca^{2+} is absorbed from the digestive tract; instead, the extent of absorption is hormonally controlled and depends on the Ca^{2+} status of the body. In addition, bone serves as a large Ca^{2+} reservoir that can be drawn on to maintain the free plasma Ca^{2+} concentration within the narrow limits compatible with life should dietary intake become too low. Exchange of Ca^{2+} between the ECF and bone is also subject to hormonal control. Similar in-house stores are not available for Na^+ and K^+ .

Regulation of Ca^{2+} metabolism depends on hormonal control of exchanges between the ECF and three other compartments: bone, kidneys, and intestine. Control of Ca^{2+} metabolism encompasses two aspects:

- First, regulation of **calcium homeostasis** involves the immediate adjustments required to maintain a *constant free plasma Ca^{2+} concentration* on a minute-to-minute basis. This is largely accomplished by rapid exchanges between bone and ECF and to a lesser extent by modifications in urinary excretion of Ca^{2+} .
- Second, regulation of **calcium balance** involves the more slowly responding adjustments required to maintain a *constant total amount of Ca^{2+} in the body*. Control of Ca^{2+} balance ensures that Ca^{2+} intake is equivalent to Ca^{2+} excretion over the long term (weeks to months). Calcium balance is maintained by adjusting the extent of intestinal Ca^{2+} absorption and urinary Ca^{2+} excretion.

Parathyroid hormone (PTH), the principal regulator of Ca^{2+} metabolism, acts directly or indirectly on all three of these effector sites. It is the primary hormone responsible for maintenance of Ca^{2+} homeostasis and is essential for maintaining Ca^{2+} balance, although vitamin D also contributes in important ways to Ca^{2+} balance. The third Ca^{2+} -influencing hormone, calcitonin, is not essential for maintaining either Ca^{2+} homeo-

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stasis or balance. It serves a backup function during the rare times of extreme hypercalcemia. We will examine the specific effects of each of these hormonal systems in more detail.

Parathyroid hormone raises free plasma Ca^{2+} levels by its effects on bone, kidneys, and intestine.

Parathyroid hormone (PTH) is a peptide hormone secreted by the **parathyroid glands**, four rice grain-sized glands located on the back surface of the thyroid gland, one in each corner (see Figure 19-25, p. 734). Like aldosterone, PTH is essential for life. The overall effect of PTH is to increase the Ca^{2+} concentration of plasma (and, accordingly, of the entire ECF), thereby preventing hypocalcemia. In the complete absence of PTH, death ensues within a few days, usually because of asphyxiation caused by hypocalcemic spasm of respiratory muscles. By its actions on bone, kidneys, and intestine, PTH raises plasma Ca^{2+} level when it starts to fall so that hypocalcemia and its effects are normally avoided. This hormone also acts to lower plasma PO_4^{3-} concentration. We will consider each of these mechanisms, beginning with an overview of bone remodeling and the actions of PTH on bone.

Bone continuously undergoes remodeling.

Because 99% of the body's Ca^{2+} is in bone, the skeleton serves as a storage depot for Ca^{2+} . (See Table 19-7 for other functions of the skeleton.) Bone is a living tissue composed of an organic extracellular matrix or *osteoid* (see p. 679) impregnated with **hydroxyapatite crystals** consisting primarily of precipitated $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ (calcium phosphate) salts. Normally, $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ salts are in solution in the ECF, but the conditions within bone are suitable for these salts to precipitate (crystallize) around the collagen fibers in the matrix. By mobilizing some of these Ca^{2+} stores in bone, PTH raises plasma Ca^{2+} concentration when it starts to fall.

▲ TABLE 19-7 Functions of the Skeleton

Support
Protection of vital internal organs
Assistance in body movement by giving attachment to muscles and providing leverage
Manufacture of blood cells (bone marrow)
Storage depot for Ca^{2+} and PO_4^{3-} , which can be exchanged with the plasma to maintain plasma concentrations of these electrolytes

bone. Thus attached, the osteoclast actively secretes hydrochloric acid that dissolves the $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ crystals and enzymes that break down the organic matrix. After it has created a cavity, the osteoclast moves on to an adjacent site to burrow another hole or dies by apoptosis (cell suicide; see p. 124), depending on the regulatory signals it receives. Osteoblasts move into the cavity and secrete osteoid to fill in the hole. Subsequent mineralization of this organic matrix results in new bone to replace the bone dissolved by the osteoclast. Thus, a constant cellular tug-of-war goes on in bone, with bone-forming osteoblasts countering the efforts of the bone-destroying osteoclasts. These construction and demolition crews, working side by side, continuously remodel bone. At any given time, about a million microscopic-sized sites throughout the skeleton are undergoing resorption or deposition. Throughout most of adult life, the rates of bone formation and bone resorption are about equal, so total bone mass remains fairly constant during this period.

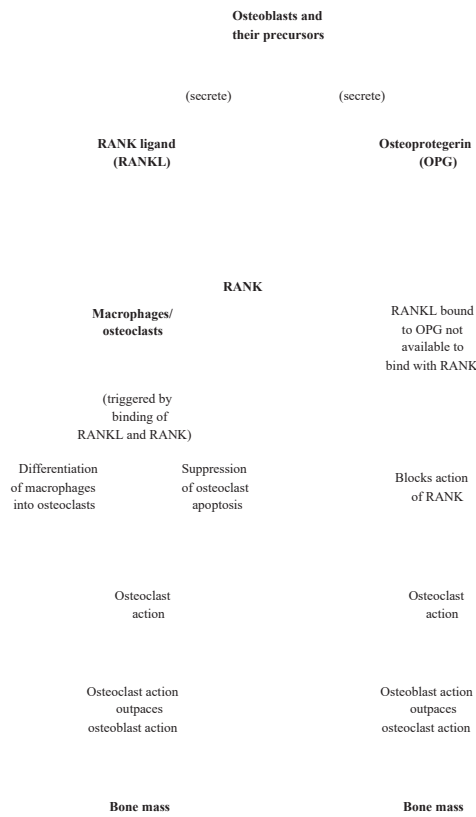
Osteoblasts and osteoclasts both trace their origins to the bone marrow. Osteoblasts are derived from *stromal cells*, a type of connective tissue cell in the bone marrow, whereas osteoclasts differentiate from *macrophages*, which are tissue-bound derivatives of monocytes, a type of white blood cell (see p. 404).

BONE REMODELING depends primarily on the balance between **bone deposition** (formation) and **bone resorption** (removal) normally go on concurrently so that bone is constantly being remodeled, much as people remodel buildings by tearing down walls and replacing them. Through remodeling, the adult human skeleton is completely regenerated an estimated every 10 years. Bone remodeling serves two purposes: (1) it keeps the skeleton appropriately “engineered” for maximum effectiveness in its mechanical uses, and (2) it helps maintain the plasma Ca_2 level. Let us examine in more detail the underlying mechanisms and controlling factors for each of these purposes.

Recall that three types of bone cells are present in bone (see pp. 679 and 681). The *osteoblasts* secrete the extracellular organic matrix within which the $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ crystals precipitate. The *osteocytes* are the retired osteoblasts imprisoned within the bony wall they have deposited around themselves. The *osteoclasts* resorb bone in their vicinity. The large, multinucleated osteoclasts attach to the organic matrix and form a “ruffled membrane” that increases its surface area in contact with the

In a unique communication system, osteoblasts and their immature precursors produce two chemical signals that govern osteoclast development and activity in opposite ways—*RANK ligand* and *osteoprotegerin*—as follows (• Figure 19-22):

- **RANK ligand (RANKL)** revs up osteoclast action. (A *ligand* is a small molecule that binds with a larger protein molecule; an example is an extracellular chemical messenger binding with a plasma membrane receptor.) As its name implies, RANK ligand binds to **RANK** (for *receptor activator of NF- κ B*), a protein receptor on the membrane surface of nearby macrophages. This binding induces the macrophages to differentiate into osteoclasts and helps them live longer by suppressing apoptosis. As a result, bone resorption is stepped up and bone mass decreases.
- Alternatively, neighboring osteoblasts can secrete **osteoprotegerin (OPG)**, which by contrast suppresses osteoclast activity. OPG secreted into the matrix serves as a freestanding decoy receptor that binds with RANKL. By taking RANKL out of action so that it cannot bind with its intended RANK receptors,



• **FIGURE 19-22** Role of osteoblasts in governing osteoclast development and activity.

OPG prevents RANKL from revving up osteoclasts’ bone-resorbing activity. As a result, the matrix-making osteoblasts are able to outpace the matrix-removing osteoclasts, so bone mass increases. The balance between RANKL and OPG thus is an important determinant of bone density. If osteoblasts produce more RANKL, the more osteoclast action, the lower the bone mass. If osteoblasts produce more OPG, the less osteoclast action, the greater the bone mass. Importantly, scientists are currently unraveling the influence of various factors on this balance. For example, the female sex hormone estrogen stimulates activity of the OPG-producing gene in osteoblasts and also promotes apoptosis of osteoclasts, both mechanisms by which this hormone preserves bone mass.

Mechanical stress favors bone deposition.

As a child grows, the bone builders keep ahead of the bone destroyers under the influence of GH and IGF-I (see pp. 679–681).

Mechanical stress also tips the balance in favor of bone deposition, causing bone mass to increase and the bones to strengthen. Mechanical factors adjust the strength of bone in response to the demands placed on it. The greater the physical stress and compression to which a bone is subjected, the greater is the rate of bone deposition. For example, the bones of athletes are stronger and more massive than those of sedentary people.

By contrast, bone mass diminishes and the bones weaken when bone resorption gains a competitive edge over bone deposition in response to removal of mechanical stress. For example, bone mass decreases in people who undergo prolonged bed confinement or those in spaceflight. Early astronauts lost up to 20% of their bone mass during their time in orbit. Therapeutic exercise can limit or prevent such loss of bone.

Bone mass also decreases as a person ages. Bone density peaks when a person is in the 30s, then starts to decline after age 40. By 50 to 60 years of age, bone resorption often exceeds bone formation. The result is a reduction in bone mass known as **osteoporosis** (meaning “porous bones”). This bone-thinning condition is characterized by a diminished laying down of organic matrix as a result of reduced osteoblast activity and/or increased osteoclast activity rather than abnormal bone calcification. The underlying cause of osteoporosis is uncertain. Plasma Ca_2 and PO_4^{3-} levels are normal, as is PTH. Osteoporosis occurs with greatest frequency in postmenopausal women because of the associated withdrawal of bone-preserving estrogen. (For more details on osteoporosis, see the boxed feature on pp. 730–731, ■ A Closer Look at Exercise Physiology.)

PTH raises plasma Ca_2 by withdrawing Ca_2 from the bone bank.

In addition to the factors geared toward controlling the mechanical effectiveness of bone, throughout life PTH uses bone as a “bank” from which it withdraws Ca_2 as needed to maintain plasma Ca_2 level. Parathyroid hormone has two major effects on bone that raise plasma Ca_2 concentration. First, it induces a fast Ca_2 efflux into the plasma from the small *labile pool* of Ca_2 in the bone fluid. Second, by stimulating bone dissolution, it promotes a slow transfer into the plasma of both Ca_2 and PO_4^{3-} from the *stable pool* of bone minerals in bone itself. As a result, ongoing bone remodeling is tipped in favor of bone resorption over bone deposition. Let us examine more thoroughly PTH’s actions in mobilizing Ca_2 from its labile and stable pools in bone.

The immediate effect of PTH is to promote the transfer of Ca_2 from bone fluid into plasma.

Compact bone forms the dense outer portion of a bone. Interconnecting spicules of **trabecular bone** make up the more lacy-appearing inner core of a bone (• Figure 19-23, p. 732). Compact bone is organized into **osteon** units, each of which consists of a **central canal** surrounded by concentrically arranged **lamellae** (• Figure 19-23b). Lamellae are layers of osteocytes entombed within the bone they have deposited around themselves (• Figure 19-23c). The osteons typically run parallel to the long axis of the bone. Blood vessels penetrate the bone from either

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A CLOSER LOOK AT EXERCISE PHYSIOLOGY

Osteoporosis: The Bane of Brittle Bones

Osteoporosis, a decrease in bone density resulting from reduced deposition of the bone's organic matrix (see the accompanying figure), is a major health problem that affects 38 million people in the United States. The condition is especially prevalent among perimenopausal and postmenopausal women. (*Perimenopause* is the transition period from normal menstrual cycles to no cycles brought about by waning ovarian function. *Menopause* is permanent cessation of menstruation.) During this time, women start losing 1% or more bone density each year. Skeletons of elderly women are typically only 50% to 80% as dense as at their peak at about age 35, whereas elderly men's skeletons retain 80% to 90% of their youthful density.

Osteoporosis is responsible for the greater incidence of bone fractures among women over the age of 50 than among the population at large. Because bone mass is reduced, the bones are more brittle and more susceptible to fracture in response to a fall, blow, or lifting action that normally would not strain stronger bones. For every 10% loss of bone mass, the risk of fracture doubles. Osteoporosis is the underlying cause of approximately 1.5 million fractures each year, of which 530,000 are vertebral fractures and 227,000 are hip fractures. The attendant medical and rehabilitation cost is \$14 billion per year. The cost in pain, suffering, and loss of independence is not measurable. Half of all American women have spinal pain and deformity by age 75.

Normal bone

Osteoporotic bone

Comparison of normal and osteoporotic bone. Note the reduced density of osteoporotic trabecular bone compared to normal trabecular bone.

D. P. Motta/SPL/Photo Researchers, Inc.

Drug Therapy for Osteoporosis

Estrogen replacement therapy, Ca_2 supplementation, and a regular weight-bearing exercise program traditionally have been the most common therapeutic approaches used to minimize or reverse bone loss. Estrogen slows bone loss by promoting apoptosis (cell suicide) of osteoclasts and by enhancing activity of osteoblasts. However, estrogen therapy has been linked to an increased risk of breast cancer and cardiovascular disease, and Ca_2 alone has not been as effective in halting bone thinning as was once hoped.

The Food and Drug Administration has recently approved four new classes of drugs

for treating osteoporosis: bisphosphonates, calcitonin in a nasal-spray form, raloxifene, and teriparatide; and several other promising drugs are in the pipeline, as follows:

- **Alendronate** (Fosamax), a bisphosphonate, was the first nonhormonal osteoporosis drug. It works by blocking osteoclasts' bone-destroying actions. Alendronate pills have to be taken daily, or a newer version can be taken weekly. Even newer bisphosphonates can be taken at longer intervals, such as *ibon-dronate* (Boniva) (once-a-month pill) and *zoledronic acid* (Reclast) (once-a-year intravenous infusion).

the outer surface or the marrow cavity and run through the central canals. Osteoblasts are present along the outer surface of the bone and along the inner surfaces lining the central canals. Osteoclasts are also located on bone surfaces undergoing resorption. The surface osteoblasts and entombed osteocytes are connected by an extensive network of small, fluid-containing canals, the **canaliculi**, which allow substances to be exchanged between trapped osteocytes and the circulation. These small canals also contain long, filmy cytoplasmic extensions, or "arms," of osteocytes and osteoblasts that are connected to one another, much as if these cells were "holding hands." The "hands" of adjacent cells

are connected by gap junctions, which permit communication and exchange of materials among these bone cells. The interconnecting cell network, which is called the **osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane**, separates the mineralized bone itself from the blood vessels within the central canals (• Figure 19-24a). The small, labile pool of Ca_2 is in the **bone fluid** that lies between this bone membrane and the adjacent bone, both within the canaliculi and along the surface of the central canal.

PTH exerts its effects via cAMP. The earliest effect of PTH is to activate membrane-bound Ca_2 pumps located in the plasma membranes of the osteocytes and osteoblasts. These

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- **Calcitonin** (Miacalcin), the thyroid C-cell hormone that slows osteoclast activity, is used to treat advanced osteoporosis, but traditionally it had to be injected daily, a deterrent to patient compliance. Now calcitonin is available in a more patient-friendly nasal spray (Fortical).
- **Raloxifene** (Evista) belongs to a new class of drugs known as *selective estrogen receptor modulators* (SERMs). Raloxifene does not bind with estrogen receptors in reproductive organs, but it does bind with estrogen receptors outside the

- The *statins* (for example, Lipitor) are another group of drugs with some promise for treating osteoporosis. The statins are already commonly used as cholesterol-lowering agents. They also stimulate osteoblast activity, promoting bone formation and reducing the fracture rate, which are side benefits to their favorable cholesterol actions. They still have not been approved specifically for use in preventing bone loss.
- **ANGELS** (*activators of nongenomic estrogen-like signaling*) is a new class of

ffects. Therefore, prevention is by far the best approach to managing this disease. Development of strong bones to begin with before menopause through a good, Ca_2 -rich diet and adequate exercise appears to be the best preventive measure. A large reservoir of bone at midlife may delay the clinical manifestations of osteoporosis in later life. Continued physical activity throughout life appears to retard or prevent bone loss, even in the elderly.

It is well documented that osteoporosis can result from disuse—that is, from re-

reproductive system, such as in bone. Through this selective receptor binding, raloxifene mimics estrogen's beneficial effects on bone to provide protection against osteoporosis by keeping osteoclasts in check while avoiding estrogen's potentially harmful effects on reproductive organs, such as increased risk of breast cancer.

- *Teriparatide* (Forteo) is the newest class of osteoporosis drugs and the first approved treatment that stimulates bone formation instead of acting to prevent bone loss, as the other drugs do. Teriparatide, which must be injected, is an active fragment of parathyroid hormone (PTH). Even though continuous exposure to PTH, as with hyperparathyroidism, increases osteoclast activity and thereby promotes the breakdown of bone, evidence suggests that, by contrast, intermittent administration of PTH (or its active teriparatide fragment) increases osteoblast formation and prolongs survival of these bone builders by blocking osteoblast apoptosis.

osteoporosis drug under development. Most of estrogen's effects are brought about by estrogen binding with its receptors in the target cell's nucleus, thereby turning on specific genes, just as all steroids do (see p. 126). However, scientists recently discovered that estrogen blocks apoptosis among osteoblasts by using a different pathway. In this alternative cytoplasmic-signaling pathway, estrogen binds with a cytoplasmic receptor instead of binding with its nuclear receptor to bring about its effect. Estren, the first ANGELS drug, triggers estrogen's cytoplasmic signaling pathway to block osteoblast apoptosis. The term *ANGELS* refers to activation of this nongene pathway, by contrast to SERMs, which trigger estrogen's traditional nuclear gene pathway in bone.

Benefits of Exercise on Bone

Despite advances in osteoporosis therapy, treatment is still often less than satisfactory, and all the current therapeutic agents are associated with some undesirable side ef-

duced mechanical loading of the skeleton. Space travel has clearly shown that lack of gravity results in a decrease in bone density. Studies of athletes, by contrast, demonstrate that weight-bearing physical activity increases bone density. Within groups of athletes, bone density correlates directly with the load the bone must bear. If one looks at athletes' femurs (thigh bones), the greatest bone density is found in weight lifters, followed in order by throwers, runners, soccer players, and finally swimmers. In fact, the bone density of swimmers does not differ from that of nonathletic controls. Swimming does not place any strain on bones. The bone density in the playing arm of male tennis players has been found to be as much as 35% greater than in their other arm; female tennis players have been found to have 28% greater density in their playing arm than in their other arm. One study found that very mild activity in nursing-home patients, whose average age was 82 years, not only slowed bone loss but even resulted in bone buildup over a 36-month period. Thus, exercise is a good defense against osteoporosis.

pumps promote movement of Ca₂, without the accompaniment of PO₄³⁻, from the bone fluid into these cells, which in turn transfer the Ca₂ into the plasma within the central canal. Thus, PTH stimulates the transfer of Ca₂ from the bone fluid across the osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane into the plasma. Movement of Ca₂ out of the labile pool across the bone membrane accounts for the fast exchange between bone and plasma (• Figure 19-24b). Because of the large surface area of the osteocytic-osteoblastic membrane, small movements of Ca₂ across individual cells are amplified into large Ca₂ fluxes between the bone fluid and plasma.

After Ca₂ is pumped out, the bone fluid is replenished with Ca₂ from the partially mineralized bone along the adjacent bone surface. Thus, the fast exchange of Ca₂ does not involve resorption of completely mineralized bone, and bone mass is not decreased. Through this means, PTH draws Ca₂ out of the "quick-cash branch" of the bone bank and rapidly increases the plasma Ca₂ level without actually entering the bank (that is, without breaking down mineralized bone itself). Normally, this exchange is much more important for maintaining plasma Ca₂ concentration than is the slow exchange.

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Translating...

PTH's chronic effect is to promote localized dissolution of bone to release Ca₂ into plasma.

Under conditions of chronic hypocalcemia, such as may occur with dietary Ca₂ deficiency, PTH influences the slow exchange of Ca₂ between bone itself and the ECF by promoting actual localized dissolution of bone. It does so by acting on osteoblasts, causing them to secrete RANKL, thereby indirectly stimulating osteoclasts to gobble up bone and increasing the formation of more osteoclasts while transiently inhibiting the bone-forming activity of osteoblasts. Bone contains so much Ca₂ compared to the plasma (more than 1000 times as much) that even when PTH promotes increased bone re-

sorption, there are no immediate discernible effects on the skeleton because such a tiny amount of bone is affected. Yet the negligible amount of Ca₂ "borrowed" from the bone bank can be lifesaving in terms of restoring free plasma Ca₂ level to normal. The borrowed Ca₂ is then redeposited in the bone at another time when Ca₂ supplies are more abundant. Meanwhile, the plasma Ca₂ level has been maintained without sacrificing bone integrity. However, prolonged excess PTH secretion over months or years eventually leads to the formation of cavities throughout the skeleton that are filled with very large, overstuffed osteoclasts.

When PTH promotes dissolution of the Ca₃(PO₄)₂ crystals in bone to harvest their Ca₂ content, both Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻ are

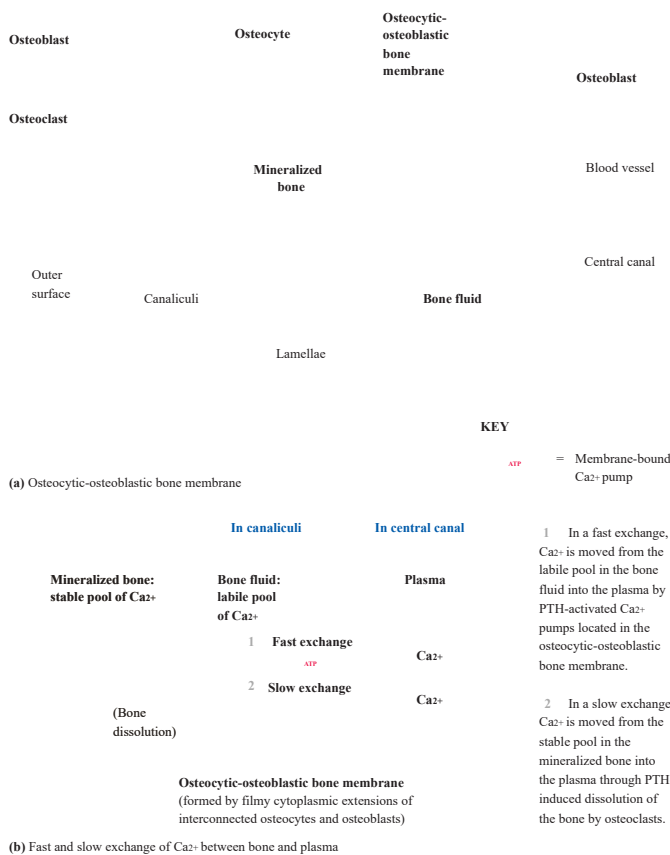


FIGURE 19-24 Fast and slow exchanges of Ca₂ across the osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane. (a) Entombed osteocytes and surface osteoblasts are interconnected by long cytoplasmic processes that extend from these cells and connect to one another within the canaliculi. This interconnecting cell network, the osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane, separates the mineralized bone from the plasma in the central canal. Bone fluid lies between the membrane and the mineralized bone. (b) Fast exchange of Ca₂ between the bone and plasma is accomplished by Ca₂ pumps in the osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane that transport Ca₂ from the bone fluid into these bone cells, which transfer the Ca₂ into the plasma. Slow exchange of Ca₂ between the bone and plasma is accomplished by osteoclast dissolution of bone.

released into the plasma. An elevation in plasma PO₄³⁻ is undesirable, but PTH deals with this dilemma by its actions on the kidneys.

PTH acts on the kidneys to conserve Ca₂ and eliminate PO₄³⁻.

PTH promotes Ca₂ conservation and PO₄³⁻ elimination by the kidneys during urine formation. Under the influence of PTH, the kidneys can reabsorb more of the filtered Ca₂, so less Ca₂

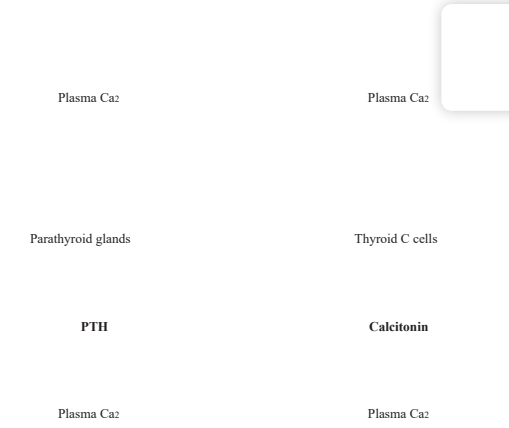
escapes into urine. This effect increases the plasma Ca₂ level and decreases urinary Ca₂ losses. (It would be counterproductive to dissolve bone to obtain more Ca₂ only to lose it in urine.) By contrast, PTH decreases PO₄³⁻ reabsorption, thus increasing urinary PO₄³⁻ excretion. As a result, PTH reduces plasma PO₄³⁻ levels at the same time it increases plasma Ca₂ concentrations.

This PTH-induced removal of extra PO₄³⁻ from the body fluids is essential for preventing reprecipitation of the Ca₂ freed from bone. Because of the solubility characteristics of Ca₃(PO₄)₂ salt, the product of the plasma concentration of Ca₂ times the plasma concentration of PO₄³⁻ must remain roughly constant. Therefore, an inverse relationship exists between the plasma concentrations of Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻; for example, when the plasma PO₄³⁻ level rises, some plasma Ca₂ is forced back into bone through hydroxyapatite crystal formation, reducing plasma Ca₂ level and keeping constant the calcium phosphate product. This inverse relationship occurs because the concentrations of free Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻ ions in the ECF are in equilibrium with the bone crystals.

Recall that both Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻ are released from bone when PTH promotes bone dissolution. Because PTH is secreted only when plasma Ca₂ falls below normal, the released Ca₂ is needed to restore plasma Ca₂ to normal, yet the released PO₄³⁻ tends to raise plasma PO₄³⁻ levels above normal. If plasma PO₄³⁻ levels were allowed to rise above normal, some of the released Ca₂ would have to be redeposited back in bone along with the PO₄³⁻ to keep the calcium phosphate product constant. This self-defeating redeposition of

Ca₂ would lower plasma Ca₂, just the opposite of the needed effect. Therefore, PTH acts on the kidneys to decrease the reabsorption of PO₄³⁻ by the renal tubules. This increases urinary excretion of PO₄³⁻ and lowers its plasma concentration, even though extra PO₄³⁻ is being released from bone into the blood.

The third important action of PTH on the kidneys (besides increasing Ca₂ reabsorption and decreasing PO₄³⁻ reabsorption) is to enhance the activation of vitamin D by the kidneys.



• FIGURE 19-25 Negative-feedback loops controlling parathyroid hormone (PTH) and calcitonin secretion.

PTH indirectly promotes absorption of Ca₂₊ and PO₄³⁻ by the intestine.

Although PTH has no direct effect on the intestine, it indirectly increases both Ca₂₊ and PO₄³⁻ absorption from the small intestine by helping activate vitamin D. This vitamin, in turn, directly increases intestinal absorption of Ca₂₊ and PO₄³⁻, a topic we will discuss more thoroughly shortly.

The primary regulator of PTH secretion is plasma concentration of free Ca₂₊.

All the effects of PTH raise plasma Ca₂₊ levels. Appropriately, PTH secretion increases when plasma Ca₂₊ falls and decreases when plasma Ca₂₊ rises. The secretory cells of the parathyroid glands are directly and exquisitely sensitive to changes in free plasma Ca₂₊. Because PTH regulates plasma Ca₂₊ concentration, this relationship forms a simple negative-feedback loop for controlling PTH secretion without involving any nervous or other hormonal intervention (• Figure 19-25).

Calcitonin lowers plasma Ca₂₊ concentration but is not important in the normal control of Ca₂₊ metabolism.

Calcitonin, the hormone produced by the C cells of the thyroid gland, also exerts an influence on plasma Ca₂₊ levels. Like PTH, calcitonin has two effects on bone, but in this case both effects *decrease* plasma Ca₂₊ levels. First, on a short-term basis calcitonin decreases Ca₂₊ movement from the bone fluid into the plasma. Second, on a long-term basis calcitonin decreases bone resorption by inhibiting the activity of osteoclasts via the cAMP pathway. The suppression of bone resorption lowers plasma PO₄³⁻ levels as well as reduces plasma Ca₂₊ concentration. Calcitonin also inhibits Ca₂₊ and PO₄³⁻ reabsorption from the nephron, further reinforcing its hypocalcemic and hypophosphatemic effects. Calcitonin has no effect on the intestine.

Calcitonin, the primary regulator of calcitonin release is free plasma Ca₂₊ concentration, but unlike with PTH, an increase in plasma Ca₂₊ stimulates calcitonin secretion and a fall in plasma Ca₂₊ inhibits calcitonin secretion (• Figure 19-25). Because calcitonin reduces plasma Ca₂₊ levels, this system constitutes a second simple negative-feedback control over plasma Ca₂₊ concentration, one opposed to the PTH system.

Most evidence suggests, however, that calcitonin plays little or no role in the normal control of Ca₂₊ or PO₄³⁻ metabolism. Although calcitonin protects against hypercalcemia, this condition rarely occurs under normal circumstances. Moreover, neither thyroid removal nor calcitonin-secreting tumors alter circulating levels of Ca₂₊ or PO₄³⁻, implying that this hormone is not normally essential for maintaining Ca₂₊ or PO₄³⁻ homeostasis. Calcitonin may, however, play a role in protecting skeletal integrity when there is a large Ca₂₊ demand, such as during pregnancy or breast-feeding. Furthermore, some experts speculate that calcitonin may hasten the storage of newly absorbed Ca₂₊ following a meal.

Vitamin D is actually a hormone that increases calcium absorption in the intestine.

The final factor involved in regulating Ca₂₊ metabolism is **cholecalciferol**, or **vitamin D**, a steroidlike compound essential for Ca₂₊ absorption in the intestine. Strictly speaking, vitamin D should be considered a hormone because the body can produce it in the skin from a precursor related to cholesterol (7-dehydrocholesterol) on exposure to sunlight. It is subsequently released into the blood to act at a distant target site, the intestine. The skin, therefore, is actually an endocrine gland and vitamin D a hormone. Traditionally, however, this chemical messenger has been considered a vitamin, for two reasons. First, it was originally discovered and isolated from a dietary source and tagged as a vitamin. Second, even though the skin would be an adequate source of vitamin D if it were exposed to sufficient sunlight, indoor dwelling and clothing in response to cold weather and social customs preclude significant exposure of the skin to sunlight in the United States and many other parts of the world most of the time. At least part of the essential vitamin D must therefore be derived from dietary sources.

ACTIVATION OF VITAMIN D Regardless of its source, vitamin D is biologically inactive when it first enters the blood from either the skin or the digestive tract. It must be activated by two sequential biochemical alterations that involve the addition of two hydroxyl (—OH) groups (• Figure 19-26). The first of these reactions occurs in the liver and the second in the kidneys. The end result is production of the active form of vitamin D, *1,25-(OH)₂-vitamin D₃*, also known as *calcitriol*. The kidney enzymes involved in the second step of vitamin D activation are stimulated by PTH in response to a fall in plasma Ca₂₊. To a lesser extent, a fall in plasma PO₄³⁻ also enhances the activation process.

FUNCTION OF VITAMIN D The most dramatic effect of activated vitamin D is to increase Ca₂₊ absorption in the intestine. Unlike



vitamin D exerts its effects by binding with a nuclear vitamin D receptor, with this complex regulating gene transcription in the target cells by binding with the vitamin D-response element in DNA.

PTH is principally responsible for controlling Ca₂₊ homeostasis because the actions of vitamin D are too sluggish for it to contribute substantially to the minute-to-minute regulation of plasma Ca₂₊ concentration. However, both PTH and vitamin D are essential to Ca₂₊ balance, the process ensuring that, over the long term, Ca₂₊ input into the body is equivalent to Ca₂₊ output. When dietary Ca₂₊ intake is reduced, the resultant transient fall in plasma Ca₂₊ level stimulates PTH secre-



• FIGURE 19-26 Activation of vitamin D.

most dietary constituents, dietary Ca₂ is not indiscriminately absorbed by the digestive system. In fact, the majority of ingested Ca₂ is typically not absorbed but is lost in the feces. When needed, more dietary Ca₂ is absorbed into the plasma under the influence of vitamin D. Independently of its effects on Ca₂ transport, the active form of vitamin D also increases intestinal PO₄³⁻ absorption. Furthermore, vitamin D increases the responsiveness of bone to PTH. Thus, vitamin D and PTH are closely interdependent (• Figure 19-27). Like steroid hormones,

lipid-soluble PTH also affects (1) it stimulates Ca₂ reabsorption by the kidneys, thereby decreasing Ca₂ output; and (2) it activates vitamin D, which increases the efficiency of uptake of ingested Ca₂. Because PTH also promotes bone resorption, a substantial loss of bone minerals occurs if Ca₂ intake is reduced for a prolonged period, even though bone is not directly involved in maintaining Ca₂ input and output in balance.

Recent research indicates that vitamin D's functions are more far reaching than its effects on uptake of ingested Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻. Vitamin D, at higher blood concentrations than those sufficient to protect bone, appears to bolster muscle strength and is also an important force in energy metabolism and immune health. It helps thwart development of diabetes mellitus, fights some types of cancer, and counters autoimmune diseases like multiple sclerosis by presently unknown mechanisms. Because of these newly found actions, scientists and dieticians are reevaluating the recommended daily allowance (RDA) for vitamin D in the diet, especially when sufficient sun exposure is not possible. The RDA will likely be bumped up, but what the optimal value will be is yet to be determined by further study.

Phosphate metabolism is controlled by the same mechanisms that regulate Ca₂ metabolism.

Intracellular PO₄³⁻ is important in the high-energy phosphate bonds of ATP, plays a key regulatory role in phosphorylating designated proteins in second-messenger pathways, and helps form the backbone of DNA molecules. Excreted PO₄³⁻ is an im-



• FIGURE 19-27 Interactions between PTH and vitamin D in controlling plasma calcium.

portant urinary buffer. In the ECF, plasma PO₄³⁻ concentration is not as tightly controlled as plasma Ca₂ concentration. Phos-

Disorders in Ca₂ metabolism may arise from abnormal levels of PTH or vitamin D.

The primary disorders that affect Ca₂ metabolism are too much or too little PTH or a deficiency of vitamin D.

PTH HYPERSECRETION Excess PTH secretion, or **hyperparathyroidism**, which is usually caused by a hypersecreting tumor in one of the parathyroid glands, is characterized by hypercalcemia and hypophosphatemia. The affected individual can be asymptomatic or symptoms can be severe, depending on the magnitude of the problem. The following are among the possible consequences:

- Hypercalcemia reduces the excitability of muscle and nervous tissue, leading to muscle weakness and neurologic disorders, including decreased alertness, poor memory, and depression. Cardiac disturbances may also occur.

- Excessive mobilization of Ca₂ and PO₄³⁻ from skeletal stores leads to thinning of bone, which may result in skeletal deformities and increased incidence of fractures.

- An increased incidence of Ca₂-containing kidney stones occurs because the excess quantity of Ca₂ being filtered through the kidneys may precipitate and form stones. These stones

may impair renal function. Passage of the stones through the ureters causes extreme pain. Because of these potential multiple consequences, hyperparathyroidism has been called a disease of

phate is regulated directly by vitamin D and indirectly by the plasma Ca^{2+} PTH feedback loop. To illustrate, a fall in plasma PO_4^{3-} concentration exerts a twofold effect to help raise the circulating PO_4^{3-} level back to normal (• Figure 19-28). First, because of the inverse relationship between the PO_4^{3-} and Ca^{2+} concentrations in the plasma, a fall in plasma PO_4^{3-} increases plasma Ca^{2+} , which directly suppresses PTH secretion. In the presence of reduced PTH, PO_4^{3-} reabsorption by the kidneys increases, returning plasma PO_4^{3-} concentration toward normal. Second, a fall in plasma PO_4^{3-} also increases activation of vitamin D, which then promotes PO_4^{3-} absorption in the intestine. This further helps alleviate the initial hypophosphatemia. Note that these changes do not compromise Ca^{2+} balance. Although the increase in activated vitamin D stimulates Ca^{2+} absorption from the intestine, the concurrent fall in PTH produces a compensatory increase in urinary Ca^{2+} excretion because less of the filtered Ca^{2+} is reabsorbed. Therefore plasma Ca^{2+} remains unchanged while plasma PO_4^{3-} is being increased to normal.

“bones, stones, and abdominal groans.”

- To further account for the “abdominal groans,” hypercalcemia can cause peptic ulcers, nausea, and constipation.

Translating...
PTH HYPOSECRETION Because of the parathyroid glands' close anatomic relation to the thyroid, the most common cause of deficient PTH secretion, or **hypoparathyroidism**, used to be inadvertent removal of the parathyroid glands (before doctors knew about their existence) during surgical removal of the thyroid gland (to treat thyroid disease). If all the parathyroid tissue was removed, these patients died, of course, because PTH is essential for life. Physicians were puzzled why some patients died soon after thyroid removal but others did not. Now that the location and importance of the parathyroid glands are known, surgeons are careful to leave parathyroid tissue during thyroid removal. Rarely, PTH hyposecretion results from an autoimmune attack against the parathyroid glands.

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• FIGURE 19-28 Control of plasma phosphate.

Hypoparathyroidism leads to hypocalcemia and hyperphosphatemia. The symptoms are mainly caused by increased neuromuscular excitability from the reduced level of free plasma Ca^{2+} . In the complete absence of PTH, death is imminent. With a relative deficiency of PTH, milder symptoms of increased neuromuscular excitability become evident. Muscle cramps and twitches occur from spontaneous activity in the motor nerves, whereas tingling and pins-and-needles sensations result from spontaneous activity in the sensory nerves. Mental changes include irritability and paranoia.

VITAMIN D DEFICIENCY The major consequence of vitamin D deficiency is impaired intestinal absorption of Ca^{2+} . In the face of reduced Ca^{2+} uptake, PTH maintains the plasma Ca^{2+} level at

the expense of the bones. As a result, the bone matrix is not properly mineralized, because Ca^{2+} salts are not available for deposition. The demineralized bones become soft and deformed, bowing under the pressures of weight bearing, especially in children. This condition is known as **rickets** in children and **osteomalacia** in adults (• Figure 19-29).

• FIGURE 19-29 Rickets.

Chapter in Perspective: Focus on Homeostasis

A number of peripherally located endocrine glands play key roles in maintaining homeostasis, primarily by means of their regulatory influences over the rate of various metabolic reactions and over electrolyte balance. These endocrine glands all secrete hormones in response to specific stimuli. The hormones, in turn, exert effects that act in negative-feedback fashion to resist the change that induced their secretion, thus maintaining stability in the internal environment. The specific contributions of the peripheral endocrine glands to homeostasis include the following:

- Two closely related hormones secreted by the thyroid gland, tetraiodothyronine (T_4) and tri-iodothyronine (T_3), increase the overall metabolic rate. Not only does this action influence the rate at which cells use nutrient molecules and O_2 within the internal environment, but it also produces heat, which helps maintain body temperature.
- The adrenal cortex secretes three classes of hormones. Aldosterone, the primary mineralocorticoid, is essential for Na and K balance. Because of Na's osmotic effect, Na balance is critical to maintaining the proper ECF volume and arterial blood pressure. This action is essential for life. Without aldosterone's Na- and H_2O -conserving effect, so much plasma volume would be lost in the urine that death would quickly ensue. Maintaining K balance is essential for homeostasis because changes in extracellular K profoundly impact neuromuscular excitability, jeopardizing normal heart function, among other detrimental effects.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Objective Questions (Answers on p. A-55)

1. The response to thyroid hormone is detectable within a few minutes after its secretion. (*True or false?*)
2. "Male" sex hormones are produced in both males and females by the adrenal cortex. (*True or false?*)
3. Adrenal androgen hypersecretion is caused by a deficit of an enzyme crucial to cortisol synthesis. (*True or false?*)
4. Excess glucose and amino acids as well as fatty acids can be stored as triglycerides. (*True or false?*)
5. Insulin is the only hormone that can lower blood glucose levels. (*True or false?*)
6. The most life-threatening consequence of hypocalcemia is reduced blood clotting. (*True or false?*)
7. All ingested Ca^{2+} is indiscriminately absorbed in the intestine. (*True or false?*)
8. The $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ bone crystals form a labile pool from which Ca^{2+} can rapidly be extracted under the influence of PTH. (*True or false?*)
9. The lumen of the thyroid follicle is filled with _____, the chief constituent of which is a large protein molecule known as _____.
10. _____ is the conversion of glucose into glycogen. _____ is the conversion of glycogen into glucose. _____ is the conversion of amino acids into glucose.
11. The three major tissues that do *not* depend on insulin for their glucose uptake are _____, _____, and _____.
12. The three compartments with which ECF Ca^{2+} is exchanged are _____, _____, and _____.
13. Among the bone cells, _____ are bone builders, _____ are bone dissolvers, and _____ are entombed.
14. Which of the following hormones does *not* exert a direct metabolic effect?

a. epinephrine	d. cortisol
b. growth hormone	e. thyroid hormone
c. aldosterone	

15. Which of the following are characteristic of the postabsorptive state? (*Indicate all that apply.*)

a. glycogenolysis	f. triglyceride synthesis
b. gluconeogenesis	g. protein degradation
c. lipolysis	h. increased insulin secretion
d. glycogenesis	i. increased glucagon secretion
e. protein synthesis	j. glucose sparing

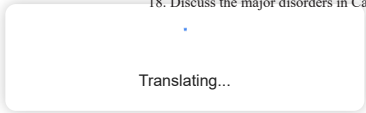
Essay Questions

1. Describe the steps of thyroid hormone synthesis.
2. What are the effects of T_3 and T_4 ? Which is the more potent? What is the source of most circulating T_3 ?
3. Describe the regulation of thyroid hormone.
4. Discuss the causes and symptoms of both hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism. For each cause, indicate whether or not a goiter occurs, and explain why.
5. What hormones are secreted by the adrenal cortex? What are the functions and control of each of these hormones?

8. Define stress. Describe the neural and hormonal responses to a stressor.
9. Define *fuel metabolism*, *anabolism*, and *catabolism*.
10. Indicate the primary circulating form and storage form of each of the three classes of organic nutrients.
11. Distinguish between the absorptive and postabsorptive states with regard to the handling of nutrient molecules.
12. Name the two major cell types of the islets of Langerhans, and indicate the hormonal product of each.
13. Compare the functions and control of insulin secretion with those of glucagon secretion.
14. What are the consequences of diabetes mellitus? Distinguish between Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes mellitus.
15. Why must plasma Ca^{2+} be closely regulated?
16. Explain how osteoblasts influence osteoclast function.
17. Discuss the contributions of parathyroid hormone, calcitonin, and vitamin D to Ca^{2+} metabolism. Describe the

- 6. Discuss the causes and symptoms of each type of adrenocortical dysfunction.
- 7. What is the relationship of the adrenal medulla to the sympathetic nervous system? What are the functions of epinephrine? How is epinephrine release controlled?

- 18. Discuss the major disorders in Ca²⁺ metabolism.



POINTS TO PONDER

(Explanations on p. A-55)

- 1. Iodine is naturally present in salt water and is abundant in soil along coastal regions. Fish and shellfish living in the ocean and plants grown in coastal soil take up iodine from their environment. Fresh water does not contain iodine, and the soil becomes more iron poor the farther inland it is. Knowing this, explain why the midwestern United States was once known as an endemic goiter belt. Why is this region no longer an endemic goiter belt even though the soil is still iodine poor?
- 2. Why do doctors recommend that people who are allergic to bee stings and thus are at risk for anaphylactic shock (see p. 453) carry a vial of epinephrine for immediate injection in case of a sting?
- 3. Why would an infection tend to raise the blood glucose level of a diabetic individual?
- 4. Tapping the facial nerve at the angle of the jaw in a patient with moderate hyposcretion of a particular hor-

mone elicits a characteristic grimace on that side of the face. What endocrine abnormality could give rise to this so-called Chvostek's sign?

- 5. Soon after a technique to measure plasma Ca²⁺ levels was developed in the 1920s, physicians observed that hypercalcemia accompanied a broad range of cancers. Early researchers proposed that malignancy-associated hypercalcemia arose from metastatic (see p. 447) tumor cells that invaded and destroyed bone, releasing Ca²⁺ into the blood. This conceptual framework was overturned when physicians noted that hypercalcemia often appeared in the absence of bone lesions. Furthermore, cancer patients often manifested hypophosphatemia in addition to hypercalcemia. This finding led investigators to suspect that the tumors might be producing a PTH-like substance. Explain how they reached this conclusion. In 1987, this substance was identified and named parathyroid hormone-related peptide (PTHrP), which binds to and activates PTH receptors.

CLINICAL CONSIDERATION

(Explanation on p. A-56)

Najma G. sought medical attention after her menstrual periods ceased and she started growing excessive facial hair. Also, she had been thirstier than usual and urinated more fre-

quently. A clinical evaluation revealed that Najma was hyperglycemic. Her physician told her that she had an endocrine disorder dubbed "diabetes of bearded ladies." What underlying defect do you think is responsible for Najma's condition?

Reproductive System

Body systems maintain homeostasis

Homeostasis
The reproductive system does not contribute to homeostasis but is essential for perpetuation of the species.

Homeostasis is essential for survival of cells

Cells

Cells make up body systems

Translating...

Normal functioning of the **reproductive system** is not aimed toward homeostasis and is not necessary for survival of an individual, but it is essential for survival of the species. Only

through reproduction can the complex genetic blueprint of each species survive beyond the lives of individual members of the species.

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The Reproductive System **20**

CHAPTER

CONTENTS AT A GLANCE

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- Unique sex determination and sexual differentiation between males and females

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- Puberty; menopause
- Fertilization
- Implantation; placentation
- Gestation
- Parturition
- Lactation

Uniqueness of the Reproductive System

The central theme of this book has been the physiologic processes aimed at maintaining homeostasis to ensure survival of the individual. We are now going to disengage from this theme to discuss the reproductive system, which serves primarily the purpose of perpetuating the species.

Unique among body systems, the reproductive system does not contribute to homeostasis but exerts other important effects.

Even though the reproductive system does not contribute to homeostasis and is not essential for survival of an individual, it still plays an important role in a person's life. For example, the manner in which people relate as sexual beings contributes in significant ways to psychosocial behavior and has important influences on how people view themselves and how they interact with others. Reproductive function also has a profound effect on society. The universal organization of societies into family units provides a stable environment that is conducive for perpetuating our species. On the other hand, the population explosion and its resultant drain on dwindling resources have led to worldwide concern with the means by which reproduction can be limited.

Reproductive capability depends on intricate relationships among the hypothalamus, anterior pituitary, reproductive organs, and target cells of the sex hormones. These relationships employ many of the regulatory mechanisms used by other body systems for maintaining homeostasis, such as negative-feedback control. In addition to these basic biological processes, sexual behavior and attitudes are deeply influenced by emotional factors and the socio-cultural mores of the society in which the individual lives. We will concentrate on the basic sexual and reproductive functions that are under nervous and hormonal control and will not examine the psychological and social ramifications of sexual behavior.

The reproductive system includes the gonads, reproductive tract, and accessory sex glands, all of which are different in males and females.

Reproduction depends on the union of male and female **gametes (reproductive, or germ, cells)**, each with a half set of chromosomes, to form a new individual with a full, unique set

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of chromosomes. Unlike the other body systems, which are essentially identical in the two sexes, the reproductive systems of males and females are markedly different, befitting their different roles in the reproductive process. The **male and female reproductive systems** are designed to enable union of genetic material from the two sexual partners, and the female system is equipped to house and nourish the offspring to the developmental point at which it can survive independently in the external environment.

The **primary reproductive organs**, or **gonads**, consist of a pair of **testes** in the male and a pair of **ovaries** in the female. In both sexes, the mature gonads perform the dual function of (1) producing gametes (**gametogenesis**), that is, **spermatozoa (sperm)** in the male and **ova (eggs)** in the female; and (2) secreting sex hormones, specifically, **testosterone** in males and **estrogen and progesterone** in females.

In addition to the gonads, the reproductive system in each sex includes a **reproductive tract** encompassing a system of ducts that are specialized to transport or house the gametes after they are produced, plus **accessory sex glands** that empty their supportive secretions into these passageways. In females, the **breasts** are also considered accessory reproductive organs. The externally visible portions of the reproductive system are known as **external genitalia**.

SECONDARY SEXUAL CHARACTERISTICS The **secondary sexual characteristics** are the many external characteristics not directly involved in reproduction that distinguish males and females, such as body configuration and hair distribution. In humans, for example, males have broader shoulders, whereas females have curvier hips; and males have beards, whereas females do not. Testosterone in the male and estrogen in the female govern the development and maintenance of these characteristics. Progesterone has no influence on secondary sexual characteristics. Even though growth of axillary and pubic hair at puberty is promoted in both sexes by androgens—testosterone in males and adrenocortical dehydroepiandrosterone in females (see p. 702)—this hair growth is not a secondary sexual characteristic, because both sexes display this feature. Thus, testosterone and estrogen alone govern the nonreproductive distinguishing features.

In some species, the secondary sexual characteristics are of great importance in courting and mating behavior; for example, the rooster's headdress or comb attracts the female's attention, and the stag's antlers are useful to ward off other males. In humans, the differentiating marks between males and females do serve to attract the opposite sex, but attraction is also strongly influenced by the complexities of human society and cultural behavior.

OVERVIEW OF MALE REPRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND ORGANS The essential reproductive functions of the male are as follows:

1. Production of sperm (*spermatogenesis*)
2. Delivery of sperm to the female

The sperm-producing organs, the testes, are suspended outside the abdominal cavity in a skin-covered sac, the **scrotum**,

which lies within the angle between the legs. The male reproductive system is designed to deliver sperm to the female reproductive tract in a liquid vehicle, **semen**, which is conducive to sperm viability. The major **male accessory sex glands**, whose secretions provide the bulk of the semen, are the **seminal vesicles**, **prostate gland**, and **bulbourethral glands** (• Figure 20-1). The **penis** is the organ used to deposit semen in the female. Sperm exit each testis through the **male reproductive tract**, consisting on each side of an **epididymis**, **ductus (vas) deferens**, and **ejaculatory duct**. These pairs of reproductive tubes empty into a single **urethra**, the canal that runs the length of the penis and empties to the exterior. These parts of the male reproductive system are described more thoroughly later when their functions are discussed.

OVERVIEW OF FEMALE REPRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND ORGANS The female's role in reproduction is more complicated than the male's. The essential female reproductive functions include the following:

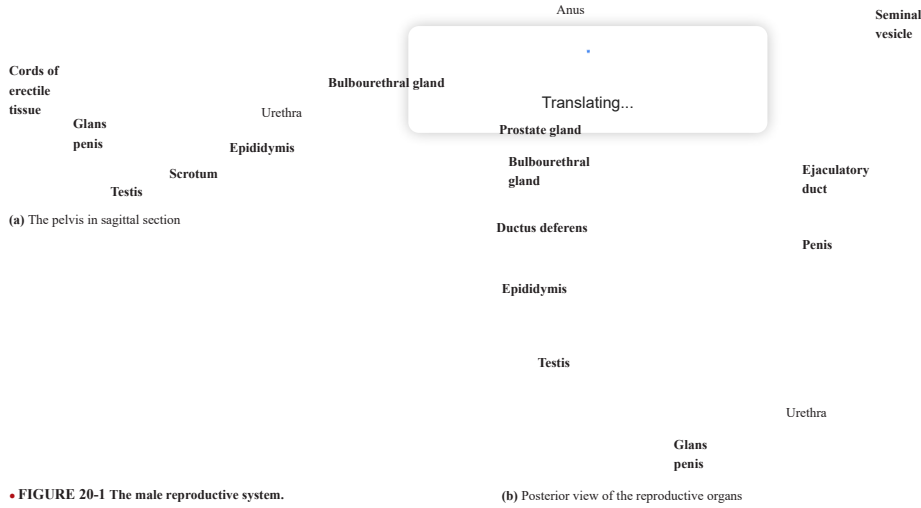
1. Production of ova (*oogenesis*)
2. Reception of sperm
3. Transport of the sperm and ovum to a common site for union (*fertilization*, or *conception*)
4. Maintenance of the developing fetus until it can survive in the outside world (*gestation*, or *pregnancy*), including formation of the **placenta**, the organ of exchange between mother and fetus
5. Giving birth to the baby (*parturition*)
6. Nourishing the infant after birth by milk production (*lactation*)

The product of fertilization is known as an **embryo** during the first two months of intrauterine development when tissue differentiation is taking place. Beyond this time, the developing living being is recognizable as human and is known as a **fetus** during the remainder of gestation. Although no further tissue differentiation takes place during fetal life, it is a time of tremendous tissue growth and maturation.

The ovaries and female reproductive tract lie within the pelvic cavity (• Figure 20-2a and b). The **female reproductive tract** consists of the following components. Two **oviducts (uterine, or Fallopian tubes)**, which are in close association with the two ovaries, pick up ova on ovulation (ovum release from an ovary) and serve as the site for fertilization. The thick-walled, hollow **uterus** is primarily responsible for maintaining the fetus during its development and expelling it at the end of pregnancy. The **vagina** is a muscular, expandable tube that connects the uterus to the external environment. The lowest portion of the uterus, the **cervix**, projects into the vagina and contains a single, small opening, the **cervical canal**. Sperm are deposited in the vagina by the penis during sexual intercourse. The cervical canal serves as a pathway for sperm through the uterus to the site of fertilization in the oviduct and, when greatly dilated during parturition, serves as the passageway for delivery of the baby from the uterus.

The **vaginal opening** is located in the **perineal region** between the urethral opening anteriorly and the anal opening posteriorly (• Figure 20-2c). It is partially covered by a thin





• FIGURE 20-1 The male reproductive system.

(b) Posterior view of the reproductive organs

mucous membrane, the **hymen**, which typically is physically disrupted by the first sexual intercourse. The vaginal and urethral openings are surrounded laterally by two pairs of skin folds, the **labia minora** and **labia majora**. The smaller labia minora are located medially to the more prominent labia majora. The externally visible part of the **clitoris**, an erotic structure composed of tissue similar to that of the penis, lies at the anterior end of the folds of the labia minora. The female external genitalia are collectively referred to as the **vulva**.

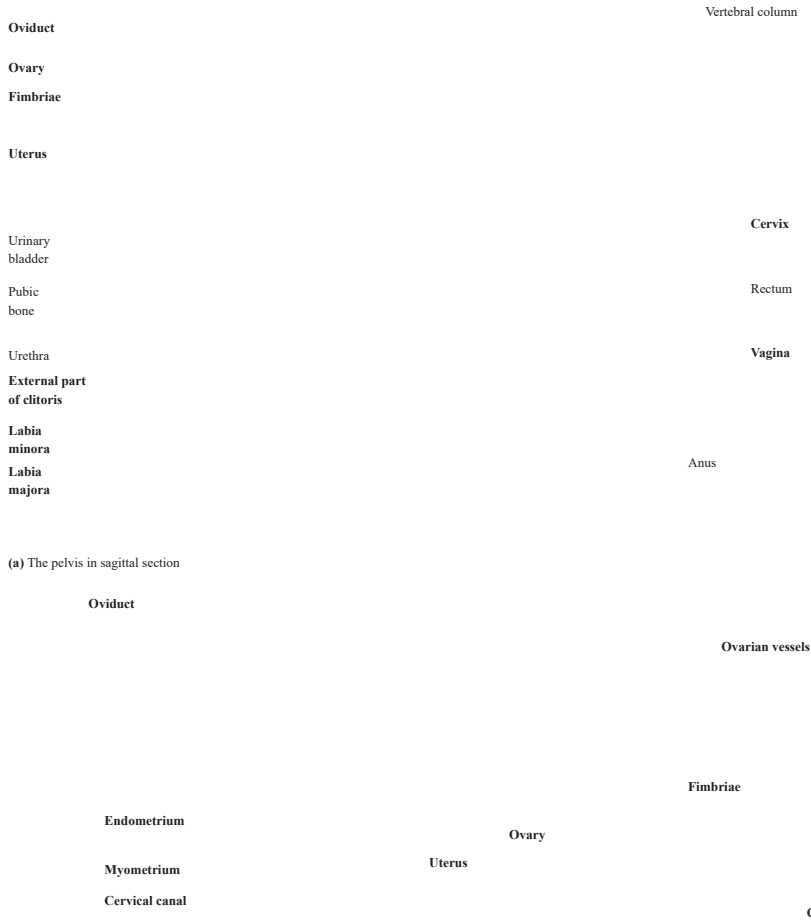
Reproductive cells each contain a half set of chromosomes.

The DNA molecules that carry the cell's genetic code are not randomly crammed into the nucleus but are precisely organized into **chromosomes** (see p. A-19). Each chromosome consists of a dif-

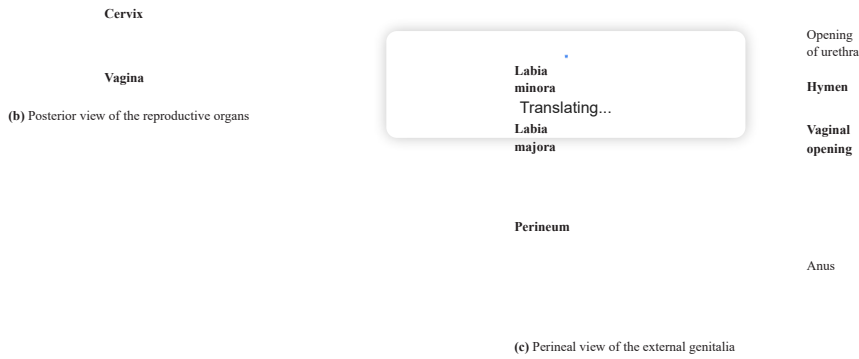
ferent DNA molecule that contains a unique set of genes. Somatic (body) cells contain 46 chromosomes (the **diploid number**), which can be sorted into 23 pairs on the basis of various distinguishing features. Chromosomes composing a matched pair are termed **homologous chromosomes**, one member of each pair having been derived from the individual's maternal parent and the other member from the paternal parent. Gametes (that is, sperm and eggs) contain only one member of each homologous pair for a total of 23 chromosomes (the **haploid number**).

Gametogenesis is accomplished by meiosis, resulting in genetically unique sperm and ova.

Most cells in the human body have the ability to reproduce themselves, a process important in growth, replacement, and repair of tissues. Cell division involves two components: division



(a) The pelvis in sagittal section



• FIGURE 20-2 The female reproductive system.

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of the nucleus and division of the cytoplasm. Nuclear division in somatic cells is accomplished by **mitosis**. In mitosis, the chromosomes replicate (make duplicate copies of themselves); then the identical chromosomes are separated so that a complete set of genetic information (that is, a diploid number of chromosomes) is distributed to each of the two new daughter cells. Nuclear division in the specialized case of gametes is accomplished by **meiosis**, in which only a half set of genetic information (that is, a haploid number of chromosomes) is distributed to each of four new daughter cells (see p. A-30).

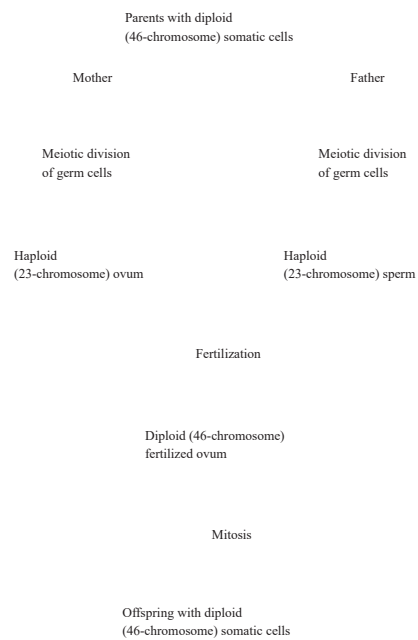
During meiosis, a specialized diploid germ cell undergoes one chromosome replication followed by two nuclear divisions. In the first meiotic division, the replicated chromosomes do not separate into two individual, identical chromosomes but remain joined. The doubled chromosomes sort themselves into homologous pairs, and the pairs separate so that each of two daughter cells receives a half set of doubled chromosomes. During the second meiotic division, the doubled chromosomes within each of the two daughter cells separate and are distributed into two cells, yielding four daughter cells, each containing a half set of chromosomes, a single member of each pair. During this process, the maternally and paternally derived chromosomes of each homologous pair are distributed to the daughter cells in random assortments containing one member of each chromosome pair without regard for its original derivation. That is, not all of the mother-derived chromosomes go to one daughter cell and the father-derived chromosomes to the other cell. More than 8 million (2^{23}) different mixtures of the 23 paternal and maternal chromosomes are possible. This genetic mixing provides novel combinations of chromosomes. Crossing-over contributes even further to genetic diversity. *Crossing-over* refers to the physical exchange of chromosome material between the homologous pairs prior to their separation during the first meiotic division (see p. A-31).

Thus, sperm and ova each have a unique haploid number of chromosomes. When fertilization takes place, a sperm and ovum fuse to form the start of a new individual with 46 chromosomes, one member of each chromosomal pair having been inherited from the mother and the other member from the father (• Figure 20-3).

The sex of an individual is determined by the combination of sex chromosomes.

Whether individuals are destined to be males or females is a genetic phenomenon determined by the sex chromosomes they possess. As the 23 chromosome pairs are separated during meiosis, each sperm or ovum receives only one member of each chromosome pair. Of the chromosome pairs, 22 are **autosomal chromosomes** that code for general human characteristics as well as for specific traits such as eye color. The remaining pair of chromosomes consists of the **sex chromosomes**, of which there are two genetically different types—a larger **X chromosome** and a smaller **Y chromosome**.

Sex determination depends on the combination of sex chromosomes: **Genetic males** have both an X and a Y sex chromosome; **genetic females** have two X sex chromosomes. Thus, the genetic difference responsible for all the anatomic and func-



• FIGURE 20-3 Chromosomal distribution in sexual reproduction.

tional distinctions between males and females is the single Y chromosome. Males have it; females do not.

As a result of meiosis during gametogenesis, all chromosome pairs are separated so that each daughter cell contains only one member of each pair, including the sex chromosome pair. When the XY sex chromosome pair separates during sperm formation, half the sperm receive an X chromosome and the other half a Y chromosome. In contrast, during oogenesis, every ovum receives an X chromosome because separation of the XX sex chromosome pair yields only X chromosomes. During fertilization, combination of an X-bearing sperm with an X-bearing ovum produces a genetic female, XX, whereas union of a Y-bearing sperm with an X-bearing ovum results in a genetic male, XY. Thus, genetic sex is determined at the time of conception and depends on which type of sex chromosome is contained within the fertilizing sperm.

Sexual differentiation along male or female lines depends on the presence or absence of masculinizing determinants.

Differences between males and females exist at three levels: genetic, gonadal, and phenotypic (anatomic) sex (• Figure 20-4).



(a) Male sex determination and sexual differentiation

(b) Female sex determination and sexual differentiation

• FIGURE 20-4 Sex determination and sexual differentiation.

GENETIC AND GONADAL SEX **Genetic sex**, which depends on the combination of sex chromosomes at the time of conception, in turn determines **gonadal sex**, that is, whether testes or ovaries develop. The presence or absence of a Y chromosome determines gonadal differentiation. For the first month and a half of gestation, all embryos have the potential to differentiate along either male or female lines because the developing reproductive tissues of both sexes are identical and indifferent. Gonadal specificity appears during the seventh week of intrauterine life when the indifferent gonadal tissue of a genetic male begins to differentiate into testes under the influence of the **sex-determining region** of the Y chromosome (**SRY**), the single gene responsible for sex determination. This gene triggers a chain of reactions that leads to physical development of a male. SRY “masculinizes” the gonads by coding for production of **testis-determining factor (TDF)** (also known as **SRY protein**) within primitive gonadal cells. TDF directs a series of events that leads to differentiation of the gonads into testes.

Because genetic females lack the SRY gene and conse-

and more or less completely covers the glans penis. In females, the urethral folds and genital swellings do not fuse at midline but develop instead into the labia minora and labia majora, respectively. The urethral groove remains open, providing access to the interior through both the urethral opening and the vaginal opening.

SEXUAL DIFFERENTIATION OF THE REPRODUCTIVE TRACT Although the male and female external genitalia develop from the same undifferentiated embryonic tissue, this is not the case with the reproductive tracts. Two primitive duct systems—the Wolffian ducts and the Müllerian ducts—develop in all embryos. In males, the reproductive tract develops from the **Wolffian ducts** and the Müllerian ducts degenerate, whereas in females the **Müllerian ducts** differentiate into the reproductive tract and the Wolffian ducts regress (• Figure 20-6). Because both duct systems are present before sexual differentiation occurs, the early embryo has the potential to develop either a male or a female reproductive tract.

quently do not produce TDF, their gonadal cells never receive a signal for testes formation, so by default during the ninth week the undifferentiated gonadal tissue starts developing into ovaries instead.

PHENOTYPIC SEX **Phenotypic sex**, the apparent anatomic sex of an individual, is hormonally mediated and depends on the genetically determined gonadal sex. The term **sexual differentiation** refers to the embryonic development of the external genitalia and reproductive tract along either male or female lines. As with the undifferentiated gonads, embryos of both sexes have the potential to develop either male or female external genitalia and reproductive tracts. Differentiation into a male-type reproductive system is induced by **androgens**, which are masculinizing hormones secreted by the developing testes. Testosterone is the most potent androgen. The absence of these testicular hormones in female fetuses results in the development of a female-type reproductive system. By 10 to 12 weeks of gestation, the sexes can easily be distinguished by the anatomic appearance of the external genitalia.

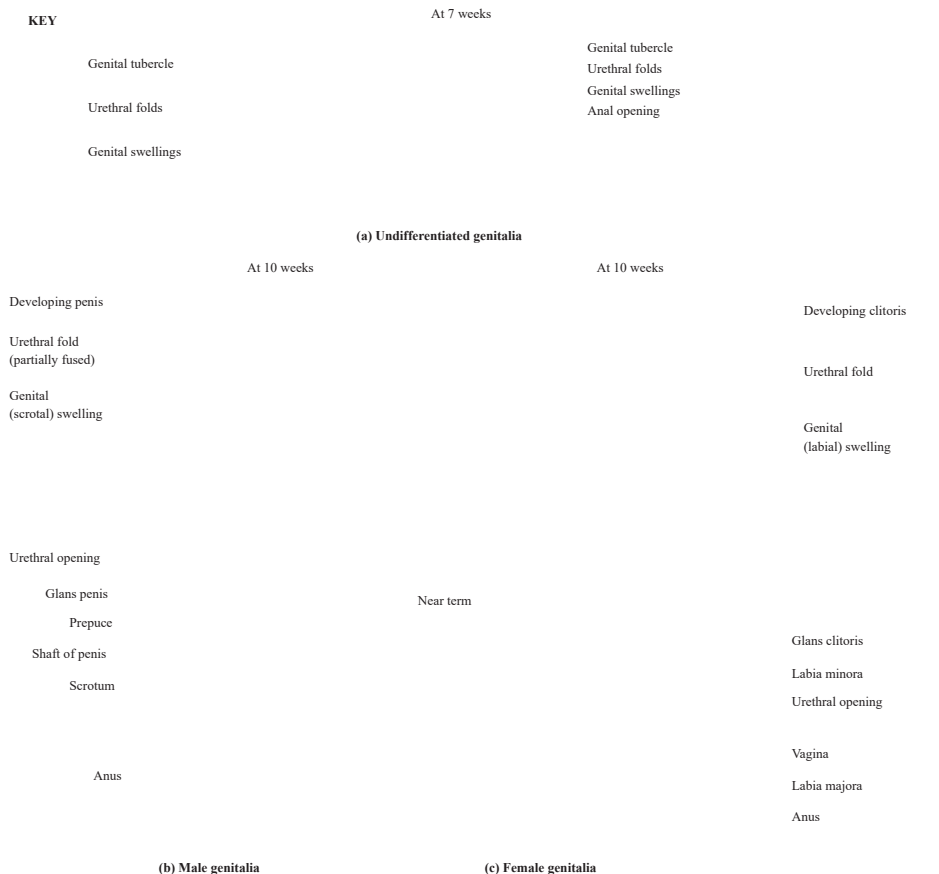
SEXUAL DIFFERENTIATION OF THE EXTERNAL GENITALIA Male and female external genitalia develop from the same embryonic tissue. In both sexes, the undifferentiated external genitalia consist of a *genital tubercle*, paired *urethral folds* surrounding a urethral groove, and, more laterally, *genital (labioscrotal) swellings* (• Figure 20-5). The **genital tubercle** gives rise to exquisitely sensitive erotic tissue—in males the **glans penis** (the cap at the distal end of the penis) and in females the glans clitoris. The major distinctions between the glans penis and glans clitoris are the smaller size of the glans clitoris and the penetration of the glans penis by the urethral opening. The urethra is the tube through which urine is transported from the bladder to the outside and also serves in males as a passageway for exit of semen through the penis to the outside. In males, the **urethral folds** fuse around the urethral groove to form the penis, which encircles the urethra. The **genital swellings** similarly fuse to form the scrotum and **prepuce**, a fold of skin that extends over the end of the penis

Development of the reproductive tract along male or female lines is determined by the presence or absence of two hormones secreted by two different cell types in the fetal testes—*testosterone* produced by the newly developed Leydig cells and *Müllerian-inhibiting factor* (also known as *anti-Müllerian hormone*), produced by the early Sertoli cells (see • Figure 20-4). A hormone released by the placenta, *human chorionic gonadotropin*, is the stimulus for this early testicular secretion. Testosterone induces development of the Wolffian ducts into the male reproductive tract (epididymis, ductus deferens, and seminal vesicles). This hormone, after being converted into **dihydrotestosterone (DHT)**, is also responsible for differentiating the external genitalia into the penis and scrotum. Meanwhile, Müllerian-inhibiting factor causes regression of the Müllerian ducts.

In the absence of testosterone and Müllerian-inhibiting factor in females, the Wolffian ducts regress, the Müllerian ducts develop into the female reproductive tract (oviducts, uterus, and upper part of vagina), and the external genitalia differentiate into the clitoris and labia.

Note that the undifferentiated embryonic reproductive tissue passively develops into a female structure unless actively acted on by masculinizing factors. In the absence of male testicular hormones, a female reproductive tract and external genitalia develop regardless of the genetic sex of the individual. For feminization of the fetal genital tissue, ovaries do not even need to be present. Such a control pattern for determining sexual differentiation is appropriate, considering that fetuses of both sexes are exposed to high concentrations of female sex hormones throughout gestation. If female sex hormones influenced the development of the reproductive tract and external genitalia, all fetuses would be feminized.

ERRORS IN SEXUAL DIFFERENTIATION Genetic sex and phenotypic sex are usually compatible; that is, a genetic male anatomically appears to be a male and functions as a male, and the same compatibility holds true for females. Occasionally, however, discrepancies occur between genetic and anatomic sexes because of errors in sexual differentiation, as the following examples illustrate:



• FIGURE 20-5 Sexual differentiation of the external genitalia.

If testes in a genetic male fail to properly differentiate and secrete hormones, the result is the development of an apparent anatomic female in a genetic male, who, of course, will be sterile. Similarly, genetic males whose target cells lack receptors for testosterone are feminized, even though their testes secrete adequate testosterone (see p. 666, *testicular feminization syndrome*).

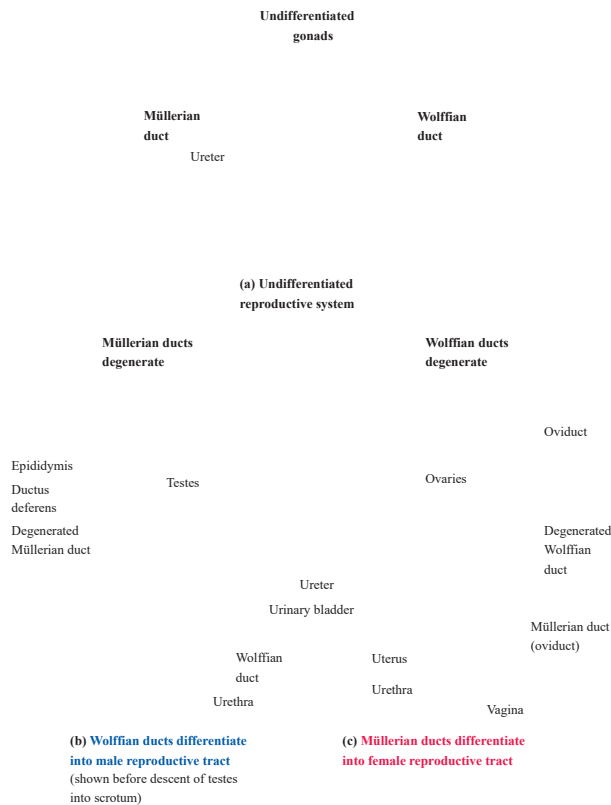
- Because testosterone acts on the Wolffian ducts to convert them into a male reproductive tract but the testosterone derivative DHT is responsible for masculinization of the external genitalia, a genetic deficiency of the enzyme that converts testosterone into DHT results in a genetic male with testes and a male reproductive tract but with female external genitalia.
- The adrenal gland normally secretes a weak androgen, *dehydroepiandrosterone*, in insufficient quantities to masculinize females. However, pathologically excessive secretion of this hormone in a genetically female fetus during critical developmental

stages, imposes differentiation of the reproductive tract and genitalia along male lines (see *adrenogenital syndrome*, p. 704).

Sometimes these discrepancies between genetic sex and apparent sex are not recognized until puberty, when the discovered **transsexuals** a psychologically traumatic gender identity crisis. For example, a masculinized genetic female with ovaries but with male-type external genitalia may be reared as a boy until puberty, when breast enlargement (caused by estrogen secretion by the awakening ovaries) and lack of beard growth (caused by lack of testosterone secretion in the absence of testes) signal an apparent problem. Therefore, it is important to diagnose any problems in sexual differentiation in infancy. Once a sex has been assigned, it can be reinforced, if necessary, with surgical and hormonal treatment so that psychosexual development can proceed as normally as possible. Less dramatic cases of inappropriate sexual differentiation often appear as sterility problems.

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• FIGURE 20-6 Sexual differentiation of the reproductive tract.

Male Reproductive Physiology

In the embryo, the testes develop from the gonadal ridge located at the rear of the abdominal cavity. In the last months of fetal life, they begin a slow descent, passing out of the abdominal cavity through the **inguinal canal** into the scrotum, one testis dropping into each pocket of the scrotal sac. Testosterone from the fetal testes induces descent of the testes into the scrotum.

After the testes descend into the scrotum, the opening in the abdominal wall through which the inguinal canal passes closes snugly around the sperm-carrying duct and blood vessels that traverse between each testis and the abdominal cavity. Incomplete closure or rupture of this opening permits abdominal viscera to slip through, resulting in an **inguinal hernia**.

Although the time varies somewhat, descent is usually complete by the seventh month of gestation. As a result, descent is complete in 98% of full-term baby boys.

However, in a substantial percentage of premature male infants the testes are still within the inguinal canal at birth. In most instances of retained testes, descent occurs

naturally before puberty or can be encouraged with administration of testosterone. Rarely, a testis remains undescended into adulthood, a condition known as **cryptorchidism** (“hidden testis”).

The scrotal location of the testes provides a cooler environment essential for spermatogenesis.

The temperature within the scrotum averages several degrees Celsius less than normal body (core) temperature. Descent of the testes into this cooler environment is essential because spermatogenesis is temperature sensitive and cannot occur at normal body temperature. Therefore, a cryptorchid is unable to produce viable sperm.

The position of the scrotum in relation to the abdominal cavity can be varied by a spinal reflex mechanism that plays an important role in regulating testicular temperature. Reflex contraction of scrotal muscles on exposure to a cold environment raises the scrotal sac to bring the testes closer to the warmer abdomen. Conversely, relaxation of the muscles on exposure to heat permits the scrotal sac to become more pendulous, moving the testes farther from the warm core of the body.

The testicular Leydig cells secrete masculinizing testosterone.

The testes perform the dual function of producing sperm and secreting testosterone. About 80% of the testicular mass consists of highly coiled **seminiferous tubules**, within which spermatogenesis takes place. The endocrine cells that produce testosterone—the **Leydig**, or **interstitial cells**—lie in the connective tissue (interstitial tissue) between the seminiferous tubules (• Figure 20-7b). Thus, the portions of the testes that produce sperm and secrete testosterone are structurally and functionally distinct.

Testosterone is a steroid hormone derived from a cholesterol precursor molecule, as are the female sex hormones, estrogen and progesterone (see • Figure 19-8, p. 699). Once produced, some of the testosterone is secreted into the blood, where it is transported, primarily bound to plasma proteins, to its target sites of action. A substantial portion of the newly synthesized testosterone goes into the lumen of the seminiferous tubules, where it plays an important role in sperm production.

To exert its effects, testosterone (and other androgens) bind with androgen receptors in the cytoplasm of target cells. The androgen-receptor complex moves to the nucleus, where it binds with the androgen-response element on DNA, leading to transcription of genes that direct synthesis of new proteins that carry out the desired cellular response.

Most but not all of testosterone’s actions ultimately function to ensure delivery of sperm to the female. The effects of testos-



FIGURE 20-7 Anatomy of testis depicting the site of spermatogenesis. (a) The seminiferous tubules are the sperm-producing portion of the testis. (b) The undifferentiated germ cells (the spermatogonia) lie in the periphery of the tubule, and the differentiated spermatozoa are in the lumen, with the various stages of sperm development in between. (c) Note the presence of the highly differentiated spermatozoa (recognizable by their tails) in the lumen of the seminiferous tubules. (d) Relationship of the Sertoli cells to the developing sperm cells.

terone can be grouped into five categories: (1) effects on the reproductive system before birth; (2) effects on sex-specific tissues after birth; (3) other reproduction-related effects; (4) effects on secondary sexual characteristics; and (5) nonreproductive actions (▲ Table 20-1).

EFFECTS ON THE REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEM BEFORE BIRTH Before birth, testosterone secretion by the Leydig cells of the fetal testes masculinizes the reproductive tract and external genitalia and promotes descent of the testes into the scrotum, as already described. After birth, testosterone secretion ceases, and the testes