

CAMPBELL BIOLOGY

TENTH
EDITION

Reece • Urry • Cain • Wasserman • Minorsky • Jackson

45

Hormones and the Endocrine System

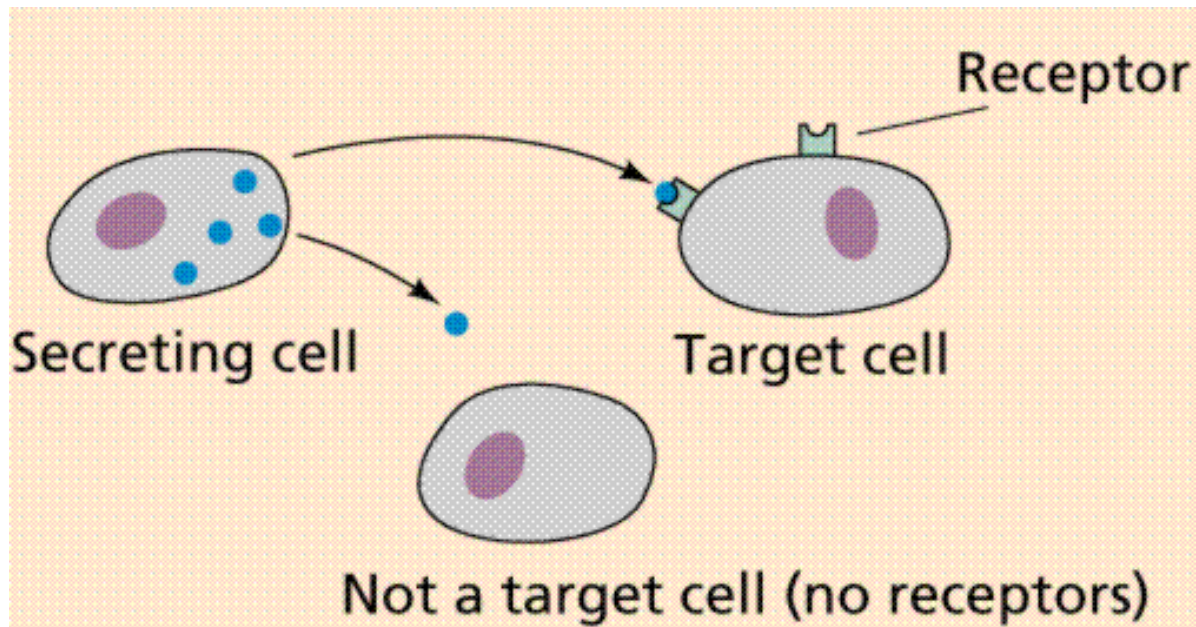
Lecture Presentation by
Nicole Tunbridge and
Kathleen Fitzpatrick



1. Overview of Endocrine Hormone Signaling

The Body's Long-Distance Regulators

- Animal **hormones** are chemical signals that are secreted into the circulatory system and communicate regulatory messages within the body
- Hormones reach all parts of the body, but only target cells have receptors for that hormone



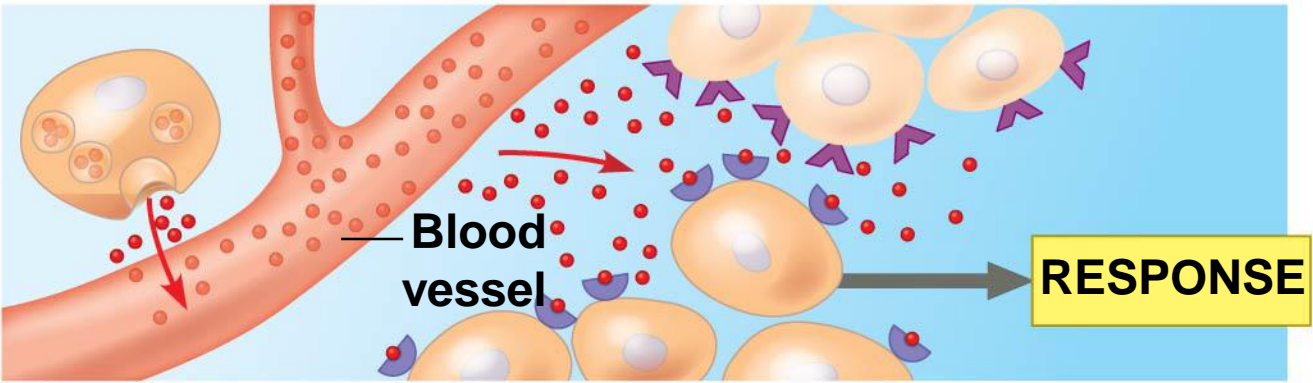
Intercellular Communication

- The ways that signals are transmitted between animal cells are classified by two criteria
 - The type of secreting cell
 - The route taken by the signal in reaching its target

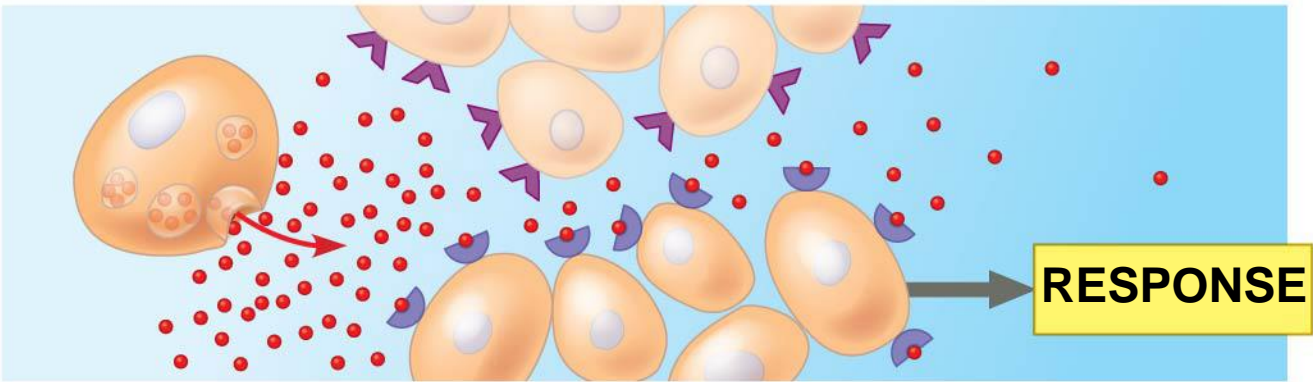
Paracrine and Autocrine Signaling

- **Local regulators** are molecules that act over short distances, reaching target cells solely by diffusion
- In **paracrine signaling**, the target cells lie near the secreting cells
- In **autocrine signaling**, the target cell is also the secreting cell

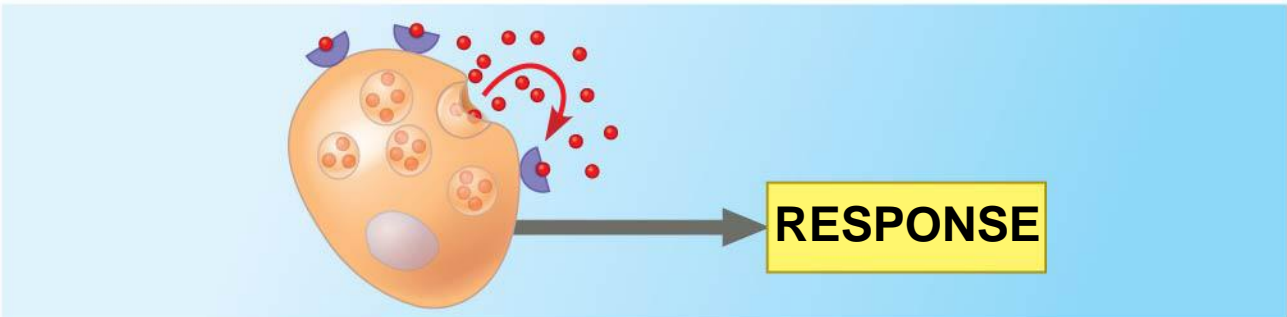
Figure 45.2a



(a) Endocrine signaling



(b) Paracrine signaling



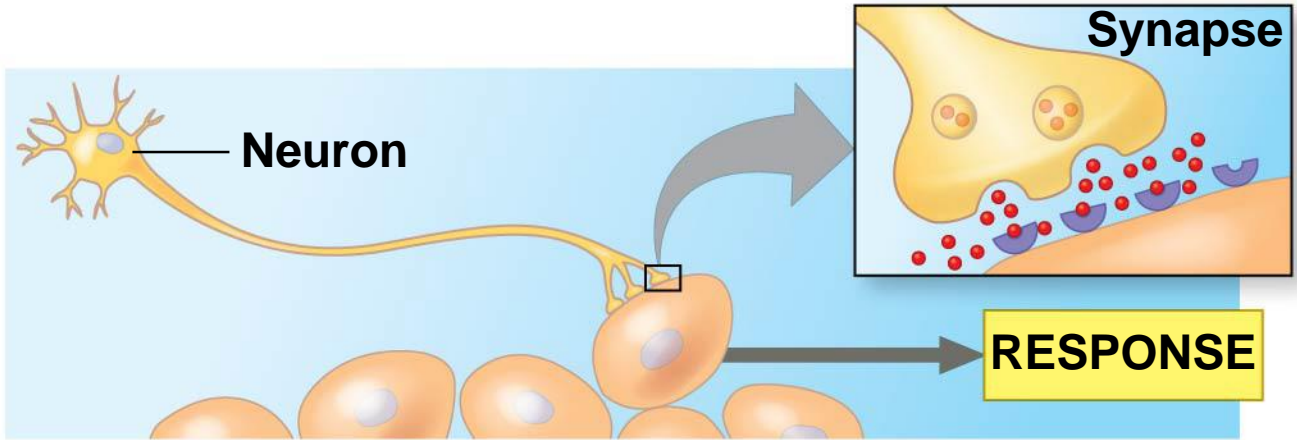
(c) Autocrine signaling

- Paracrine and autocrine signaling play roles in processes such as blood pressure regulation, nervous system function, and reproduction
- Local regulators that mediate such signaling include the **prostaglandins**
 - Prostaglandins function in reproduction, the immune system, and blood clotting

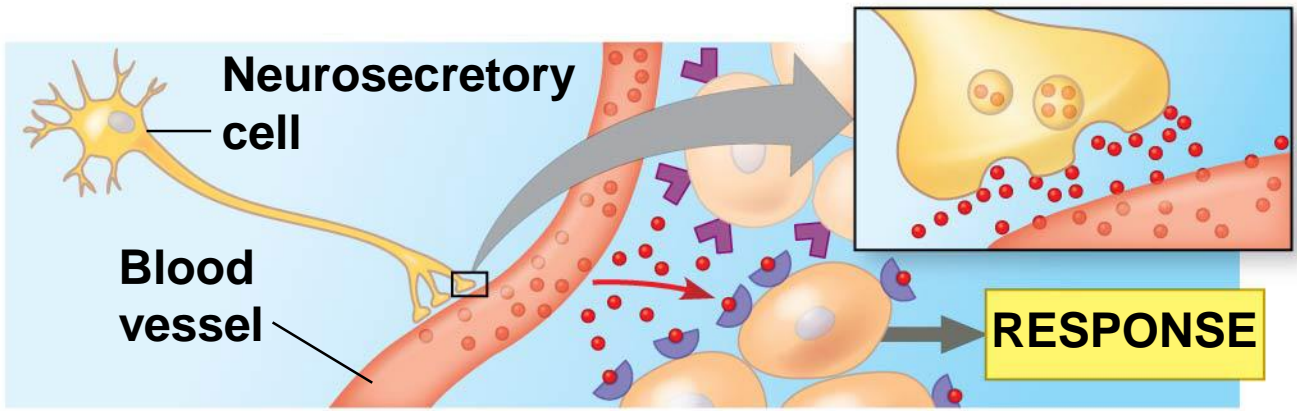
Synaptic and Neuroendocrine Signaling

- In synaptic signaling, neurons form specialized junctions with target cells, called **synapses**
- At synapses, neurons secrete molecules called **neurotransmitters** that diffuse short distances and bind to receptors on target cells
- In neuroendocrine signaling, specialized neurosecretory cells secrete molecules called **neurohormones** that travel to target cells via the bloodstream

Figure 45.2b



(d) Synaptic signaling



(e) Neuroendocrine signaling

Signaling by Pheromones

- Members of an animal species sometimes communicate with **pheromones**, chemicals that are released into the environment
- Pheromones serve many functions, including marking trails leading to food, defining territories, warning of predators, and attracting potential mates



Classes of Local Regulators

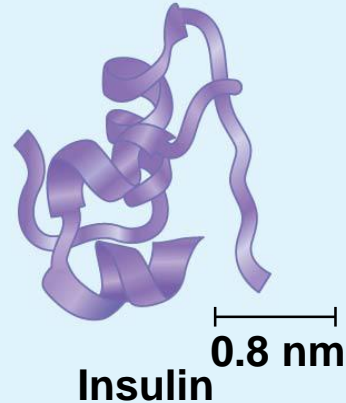
- Local regulators such as the prostaglandins are modified fatty acids
- Others are polypeptides and some are gases
 - **Nitric oxide (NO)** is a gas that functions in the body as both a local regulator and a neurotransmitter
 - When the level of oxygen in blood falls, NO activates an enzyme that results in vasodilation, increasing blood flow to tissues

Classes of Hormones

- Hormones fall into three major classes: **polypeptides**, **steroids**, and **amines**
- Polypeptides and amines are water-soluble whereas steroid hormones and other largely nonpolar hormones are lipid-soluble

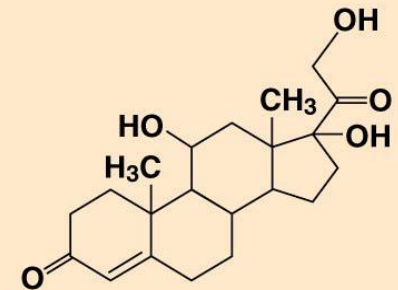
Water-soluble (hydrophilic)

Polypeptides



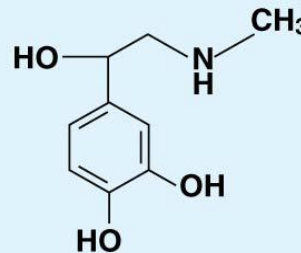
Lipid-soluble (hydrophobic)

Steroids

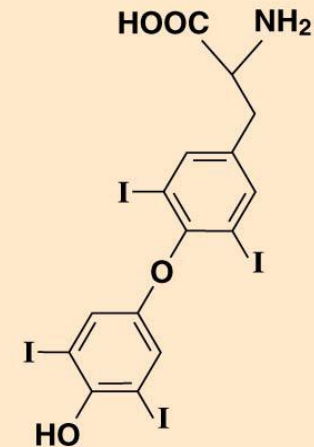


Cortisol

Amines



Epinephrine

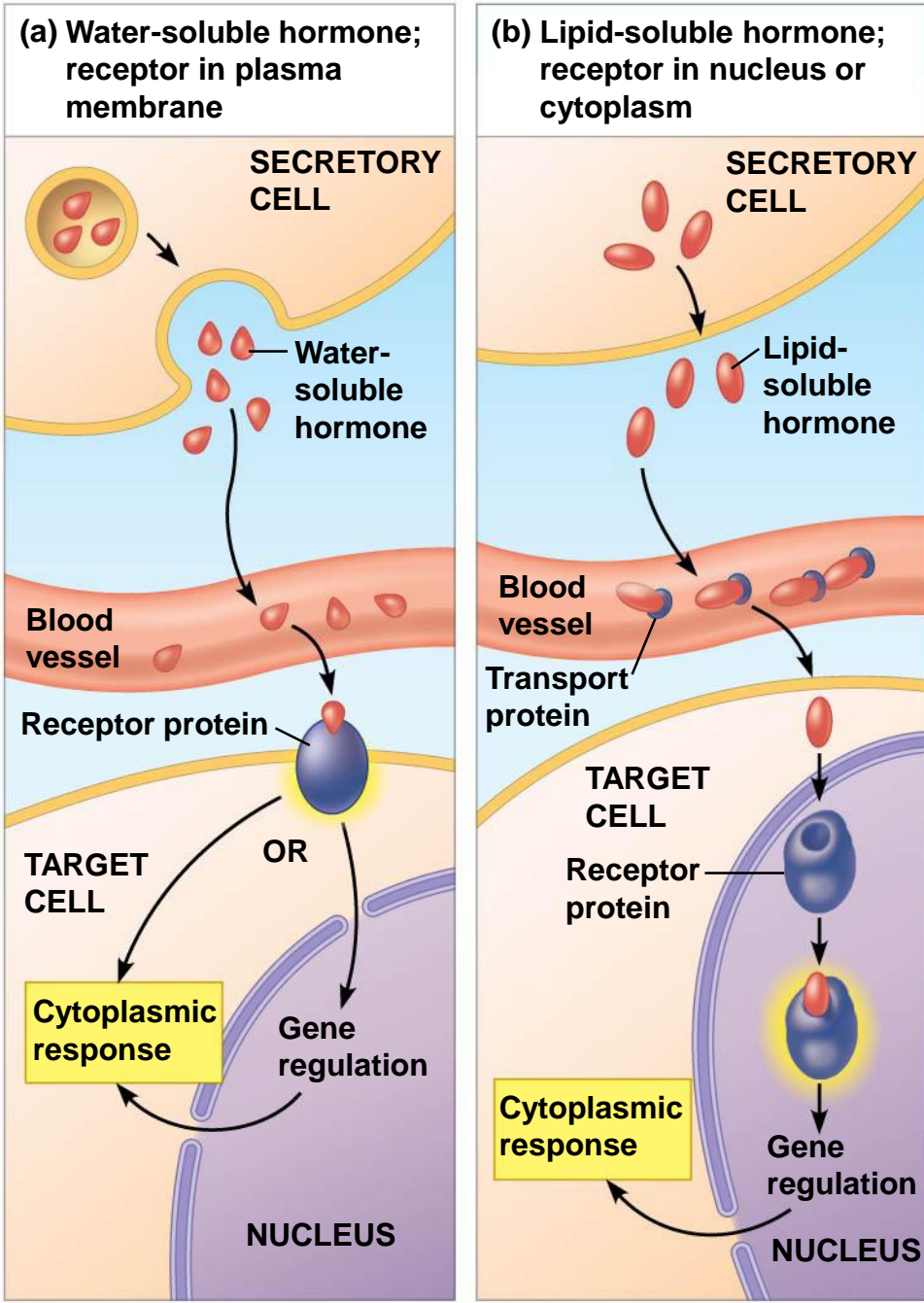


Thyroxine

Cellular Response Pathways

- Water-soluble hormones are secreted by exocytosis, travel freely in the bloodstream, and bind to cell-surface receptors
- Lipid-soluble hormones diffuse across cell membranes, travel in the bloodstream bound to transport proteins, and diffuse through the membrane of target cells
- They bind to receptors in the cytoplasm or nucleus of the target cells

Figure 45.5

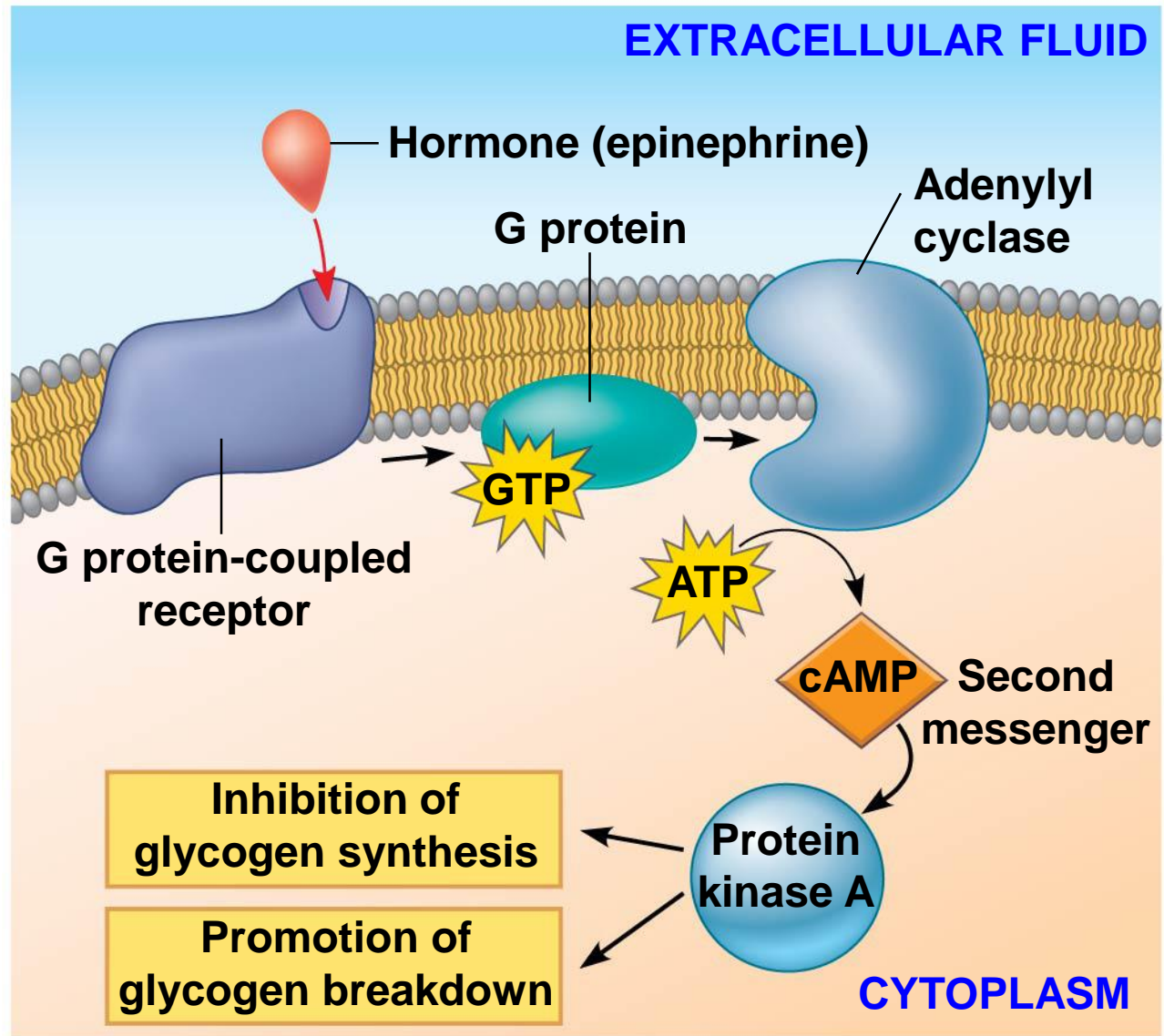


Water-Soluble Hormones require Signal Transduction

For example:

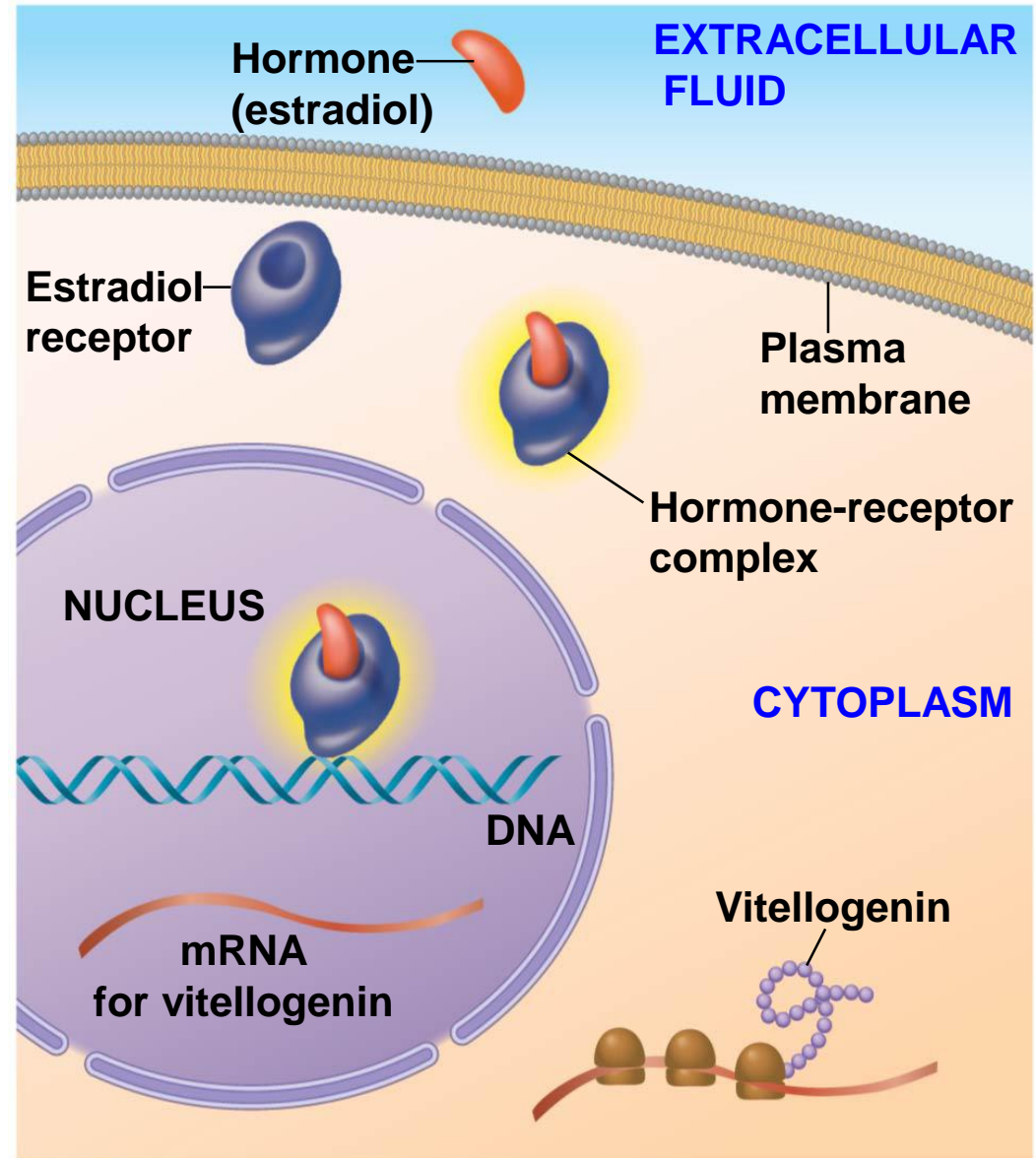
- The hormone **epinephrine** has multiple effects in mediating the body's response to short-term stress
- Epinephrine binds to receptors on the plasma membrane of liver cells
- This triggers the release of messenger molecules that activate enzymes and result in the release of glucose into the bloodstream

An Example of Signal Transduction



Signaling with Lipid-Soluble Hormones

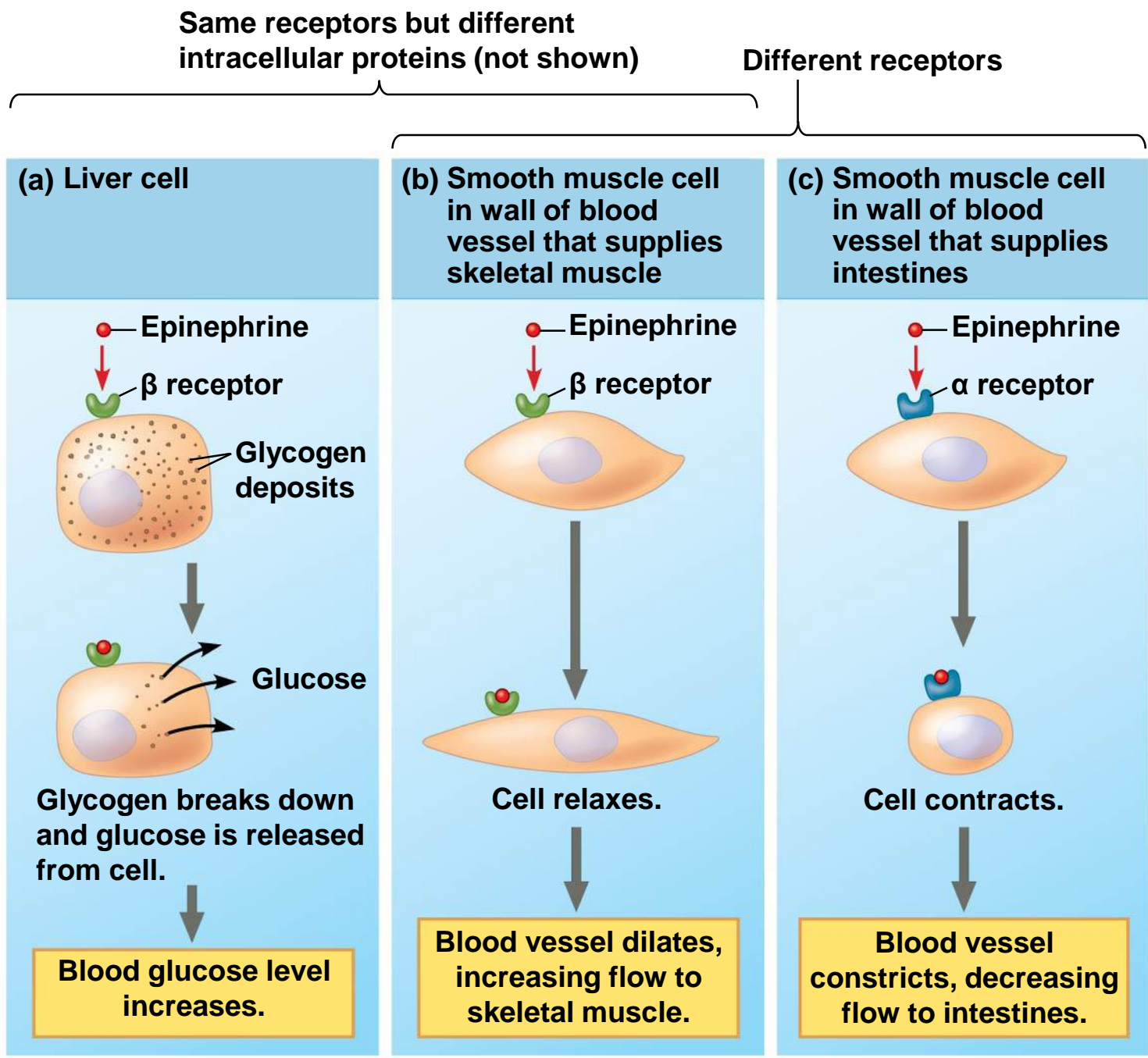
- When a steroid hormone binds to its cytosolic receptor, a hormone-receptor complex forms that moves into the nucleus
- There, the receptor part of the complex acts as a transcriptional regulator of specific target genes



Multiple Effects of Hormones

- The same hormone may have different effects on target cells that have
 - Different receptors for the hormone
 - Different signal transduction pathways
- For example, the hormone epinephrine can increase blood flow to major skeletal muscles, but decrease blood flow to the digestive tract

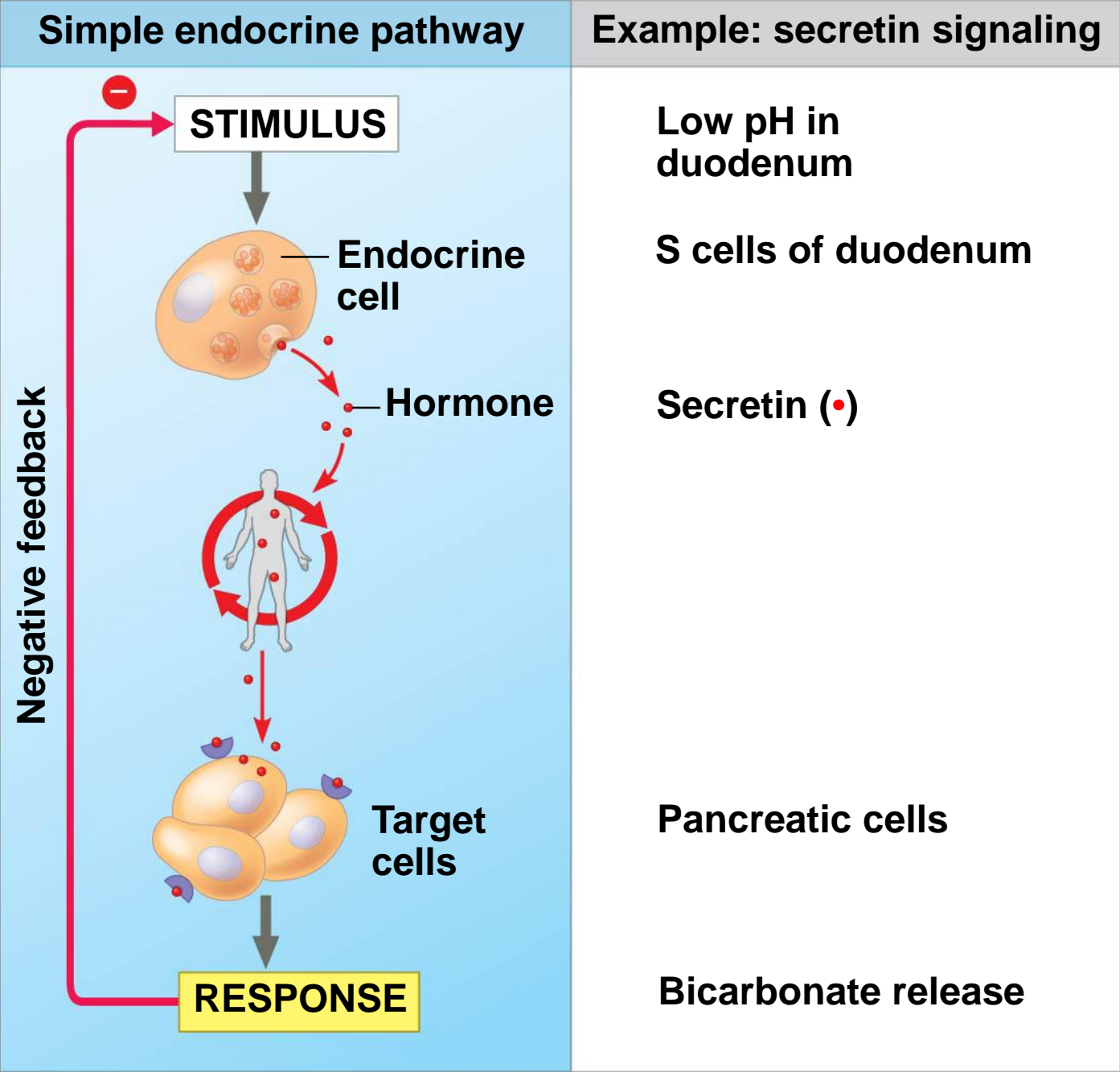
Figure 45.8



Feedback Regulation

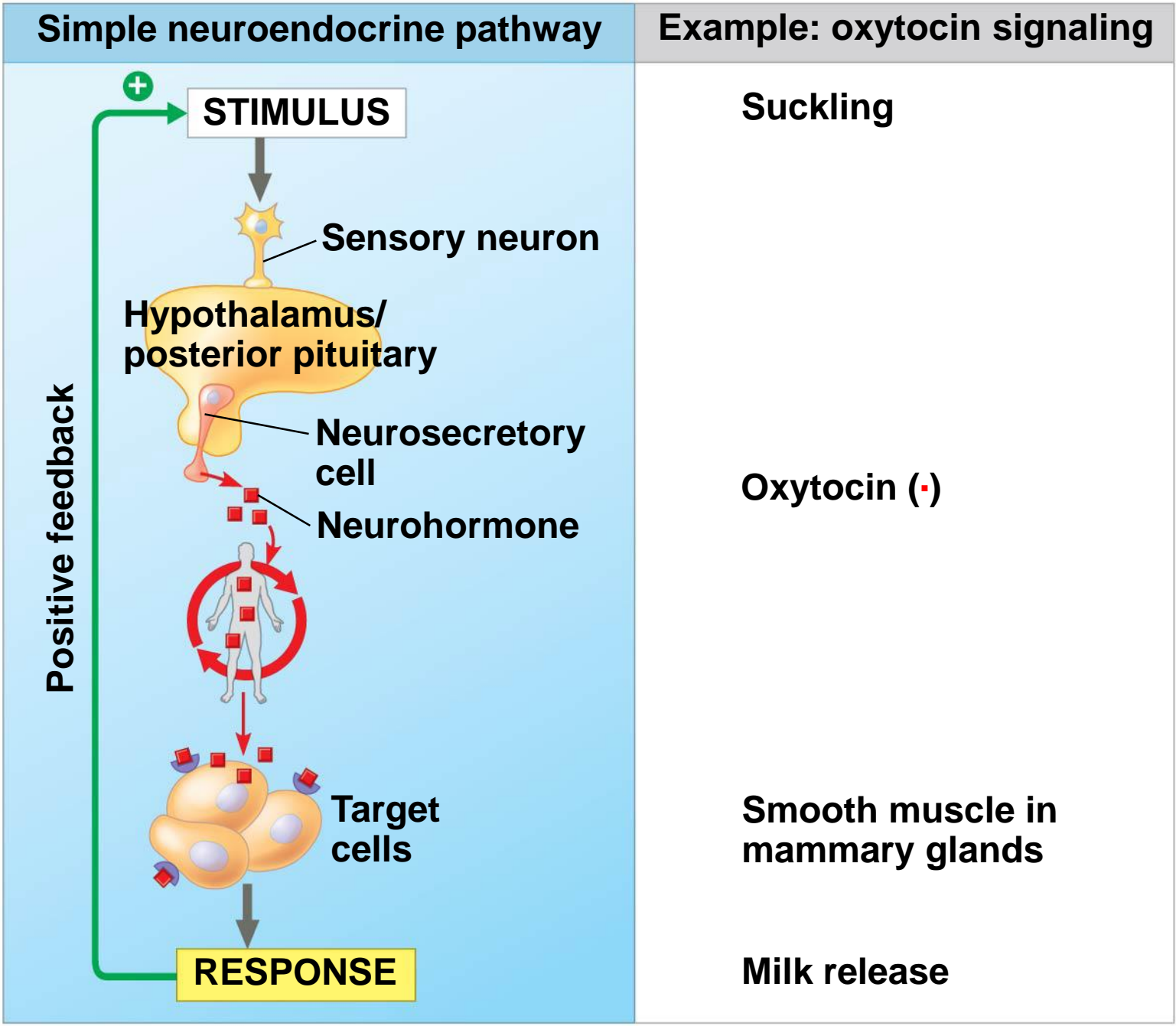
- A **negative feedback** loop inhibits a response by reducing the initial stimulus, thus preventing excessive pathway activity
 - For example, the release of acidic contents of the stomach into the duodenum stimulates endocrine cells there to secrete secretin
 - This causes target cells in the pancreas, a gland behind the stomach, to raise the pH in the duodenum

Figure 45.10



- **Positive feedback** reinforces a stimulus to produce an even greater response
- For example, in mammals oxytocin causes the release of milk, causing greater suckling by offspring, which stimulates the release of more oxytocin

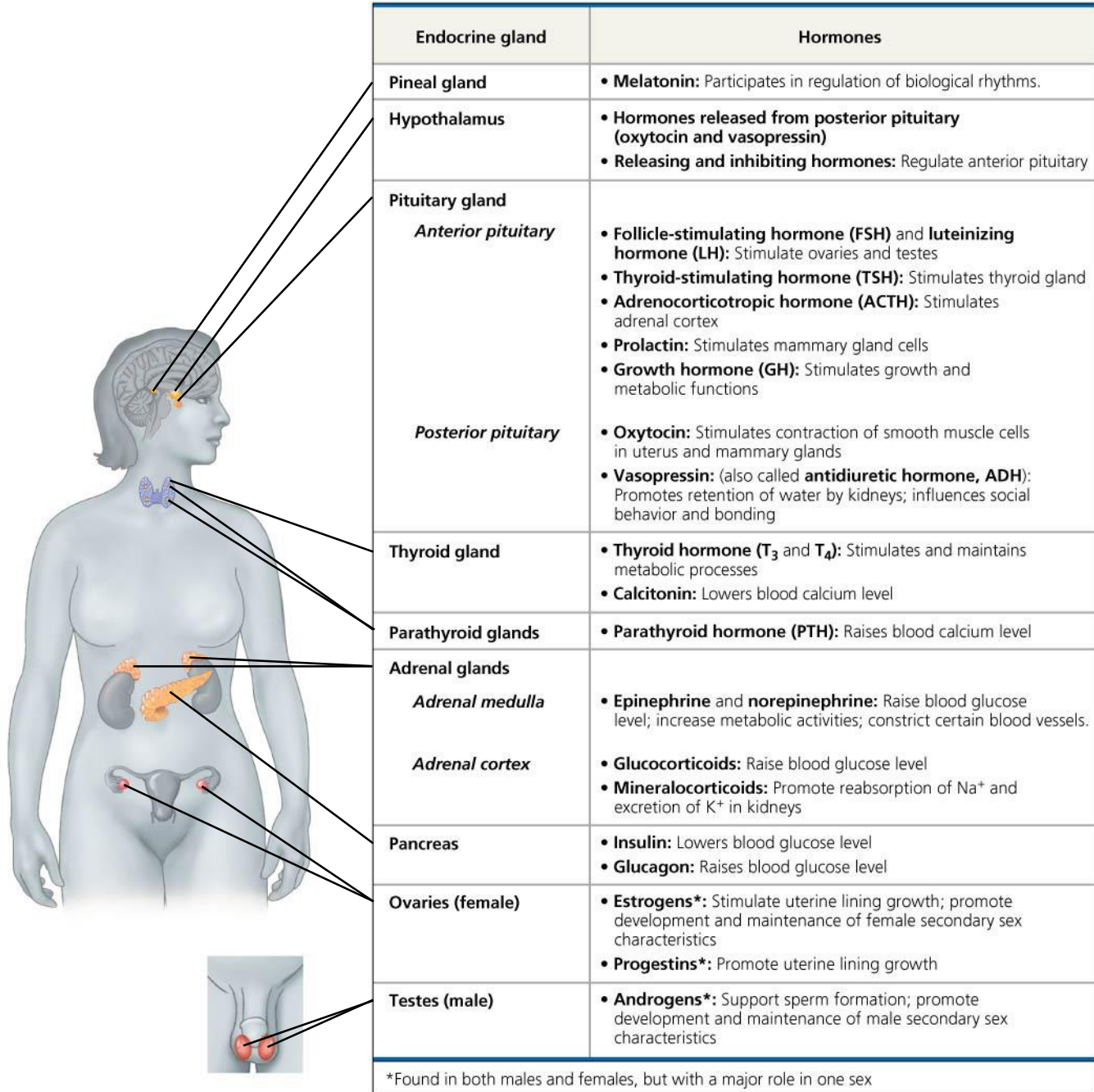
Figure 45.11



Endocrine Tissues and Organs

- Endocrine cells are often grouped in ductless organs called **endocrine glands**, such as the thyroid and parathyroid glands, testes, and ovaries
- In contrast, **exocrine glands**, such as salivary glands have ducts to carry secreted substances onto body surfaces or into body cavities

Figure 45.9



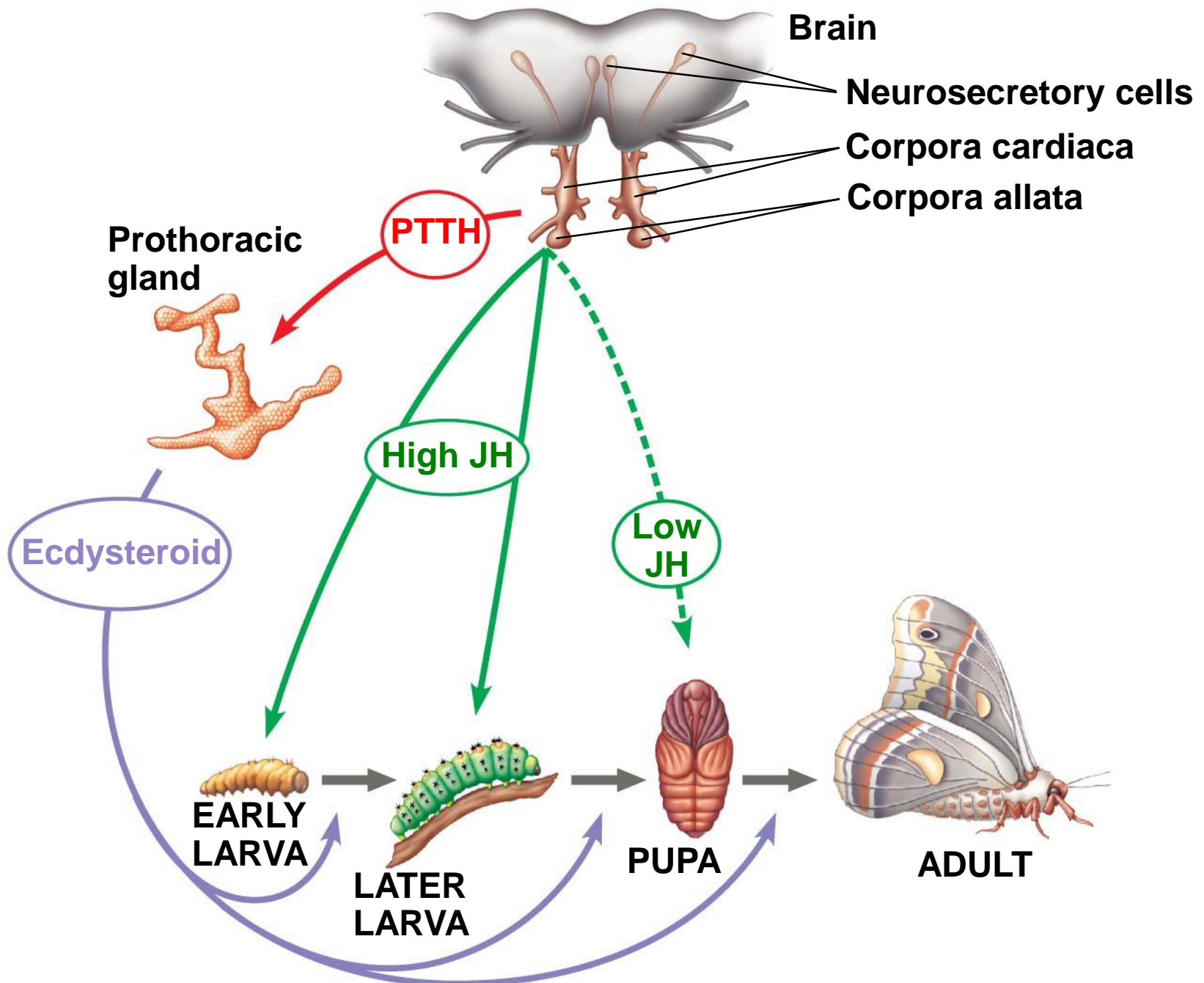
*Found in both males and females, but with a major role in one sex

2. Coordination of the Endocrine and Nervous Systems

Invertebrates

- The endocrine pathway that controls the molting of larva originates in the larval brain where neurosecretory cells produce PTTH
- In the prothoracic gland, PTTH directs the release of ecdysteroid
- Bursts of ecdysteroid trigger each successive molt as well as metamorphosis
- Metamorphosis is not triggered until the level of another hormone, JH (juvenile hormone), drops

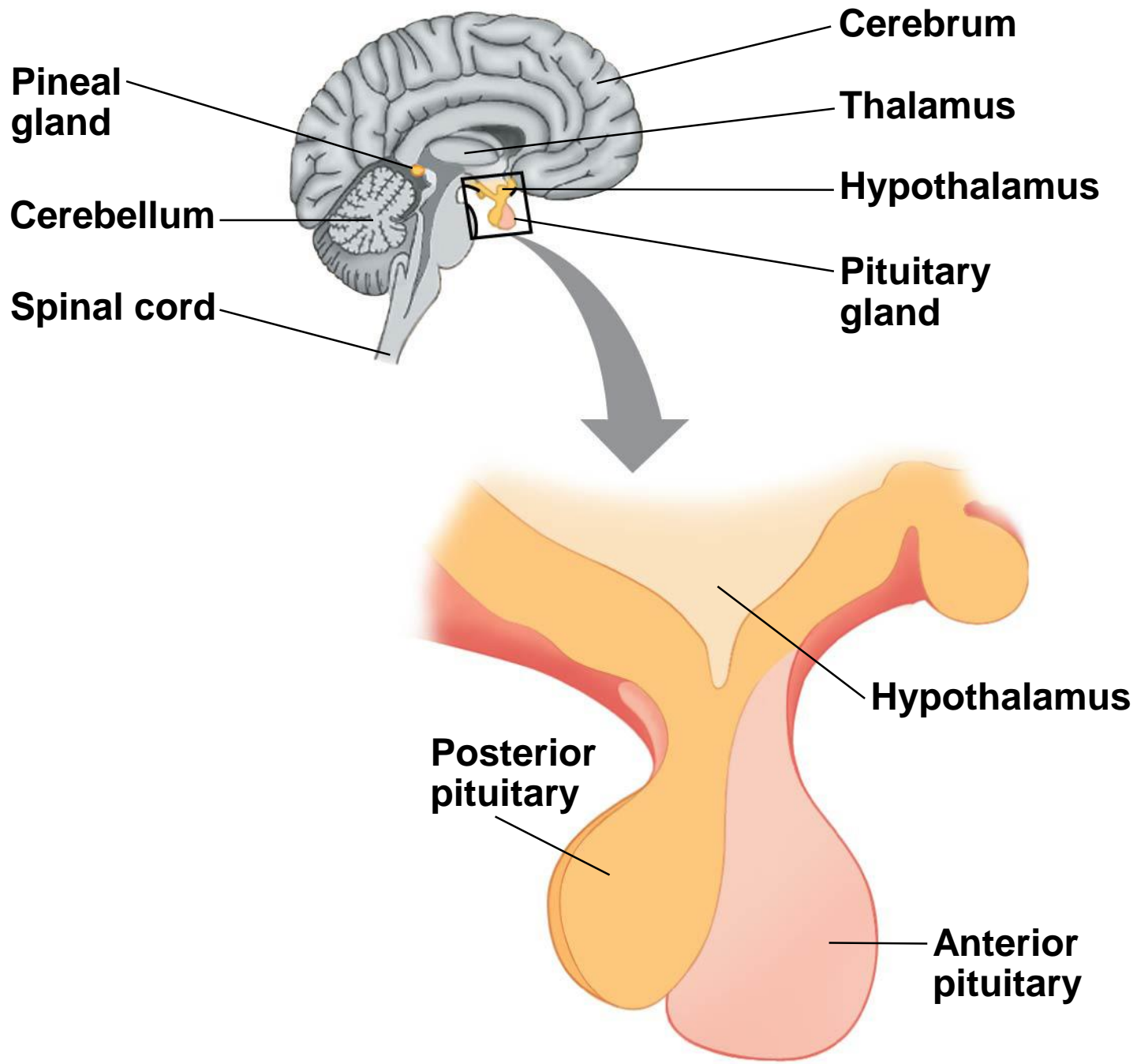
Figure 45.12-4



Vertebrates

- The **hypothalamus** receives information from the nervous system and initiates responses through the endocrine system
- Attached to the hypothalamus is the **pituitary gland**, composed of the posterior pituitary and anterior pituitary
- The **posterior pituitary** stores and secretes hormones that are made in the hypothalamus
- The **anterior pituitary** makes and releases hormones under regulation of the hypothalamus

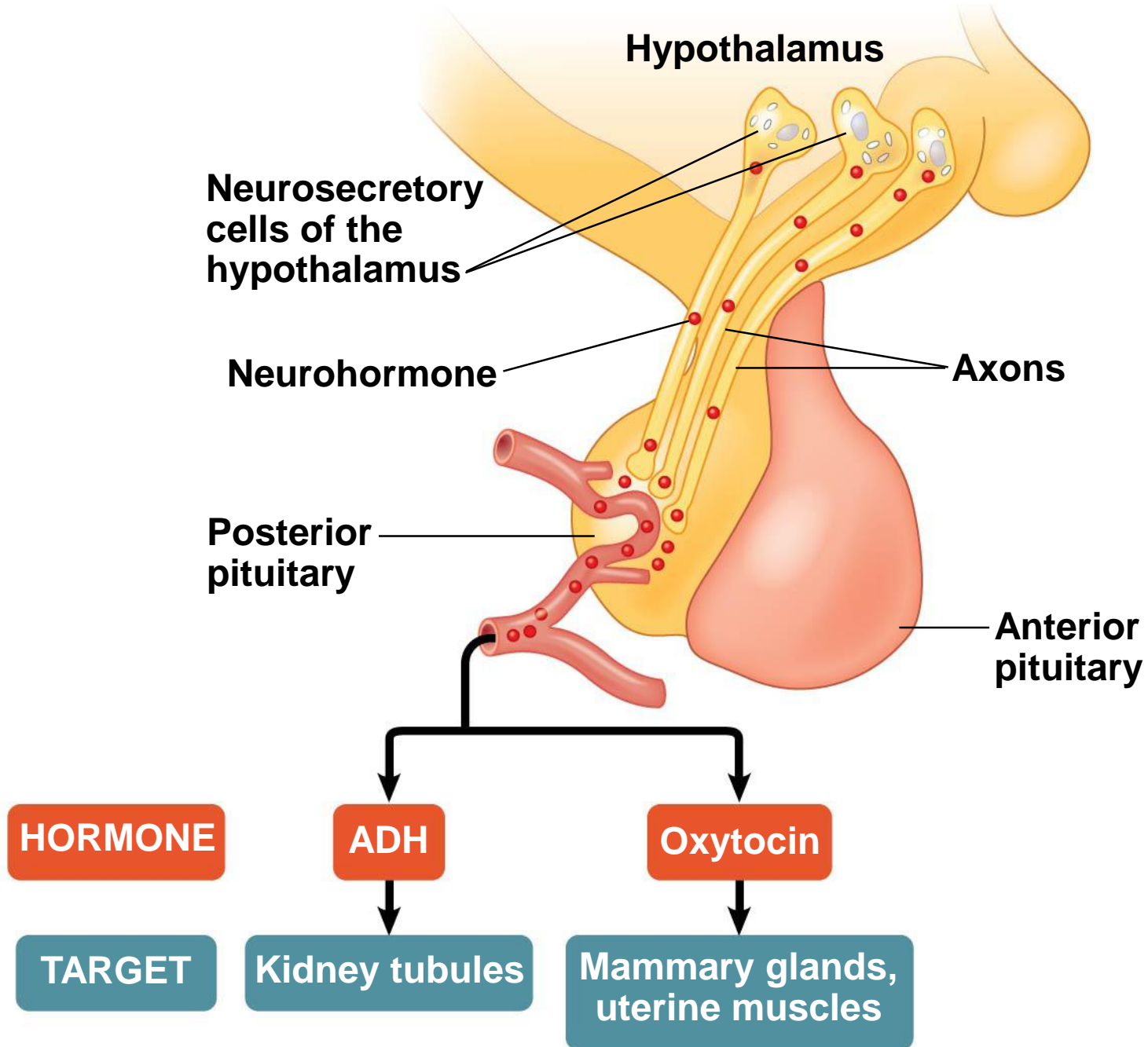
Figure 45.13



Posterior Pituitary Hormones

- Neurosecretory cells of the hypothalamus synthesize the two posterior pituitary hormones
 - **Antidiuretic hormone (ADH)** regulates physiology and behavior
 - Oxytocin regulates milk secretion by the mammary glands

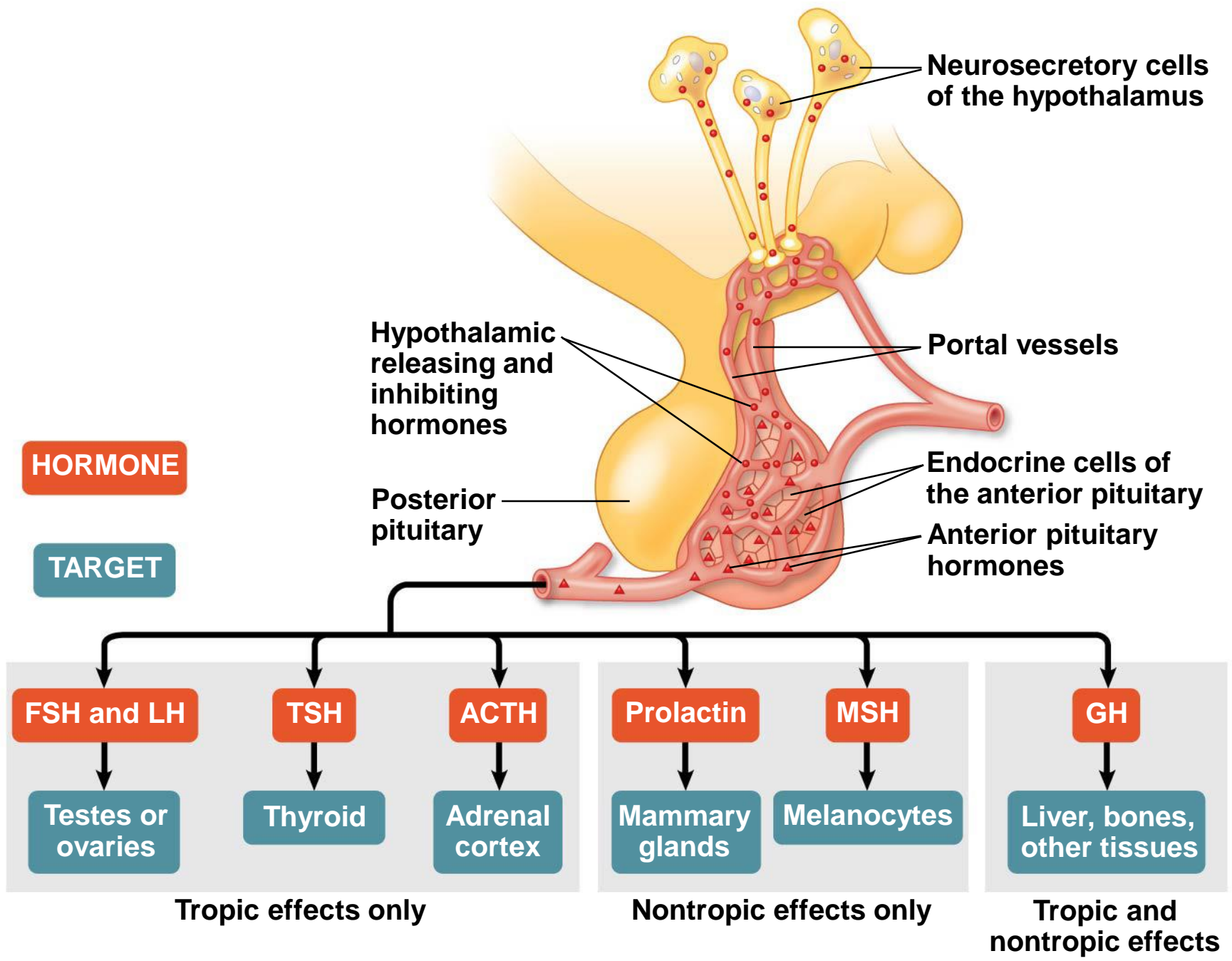
Figure 45.14



Anterior Pituitary Hormones

- Hormone production in the anterior pituitary is controlled by releasing hormones and inhibiting hormones secreted by the hypothalamus
- For example, prolactin-releasing hormone from the hypothalamus stimulates the anterior pituitary to secrete **prolactin (PRL)**, which has a role in milk production

Figure 45.15



Hormone Cascades

- Sets of hormones from the hypothalamus, anterior pituitary, and a target endocrine gland are often organized into a hormone cascade pathway
- The anterior pituitary hormones in these pathways are called **tropic hormones** – hormones that target other endocrine glands
 - **Non-tropic hormones** stimulate targets other than endocrine glands

Thyroid Regulation: A Hormone Cascade Pathway

- In humans and other mammals, **thyroid hormone** regulates many functions
- If thyroid hormone level drops in the blood, the hypothalamus secretes thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) causing the anterior pituitary to secrete thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)
- TSH stimulates release of thyroid hormone by the **thyroid gland**

Figure 45.16a

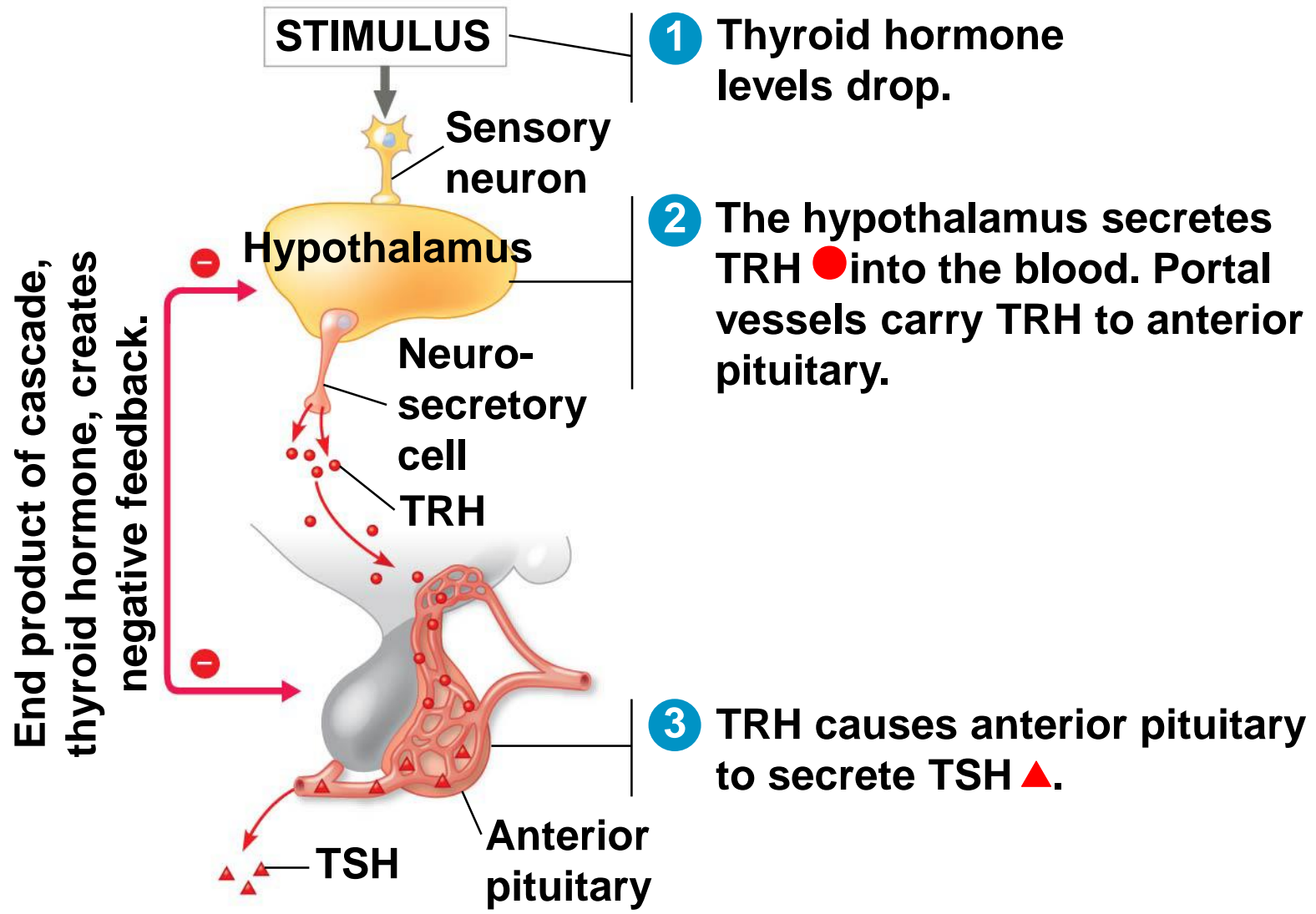
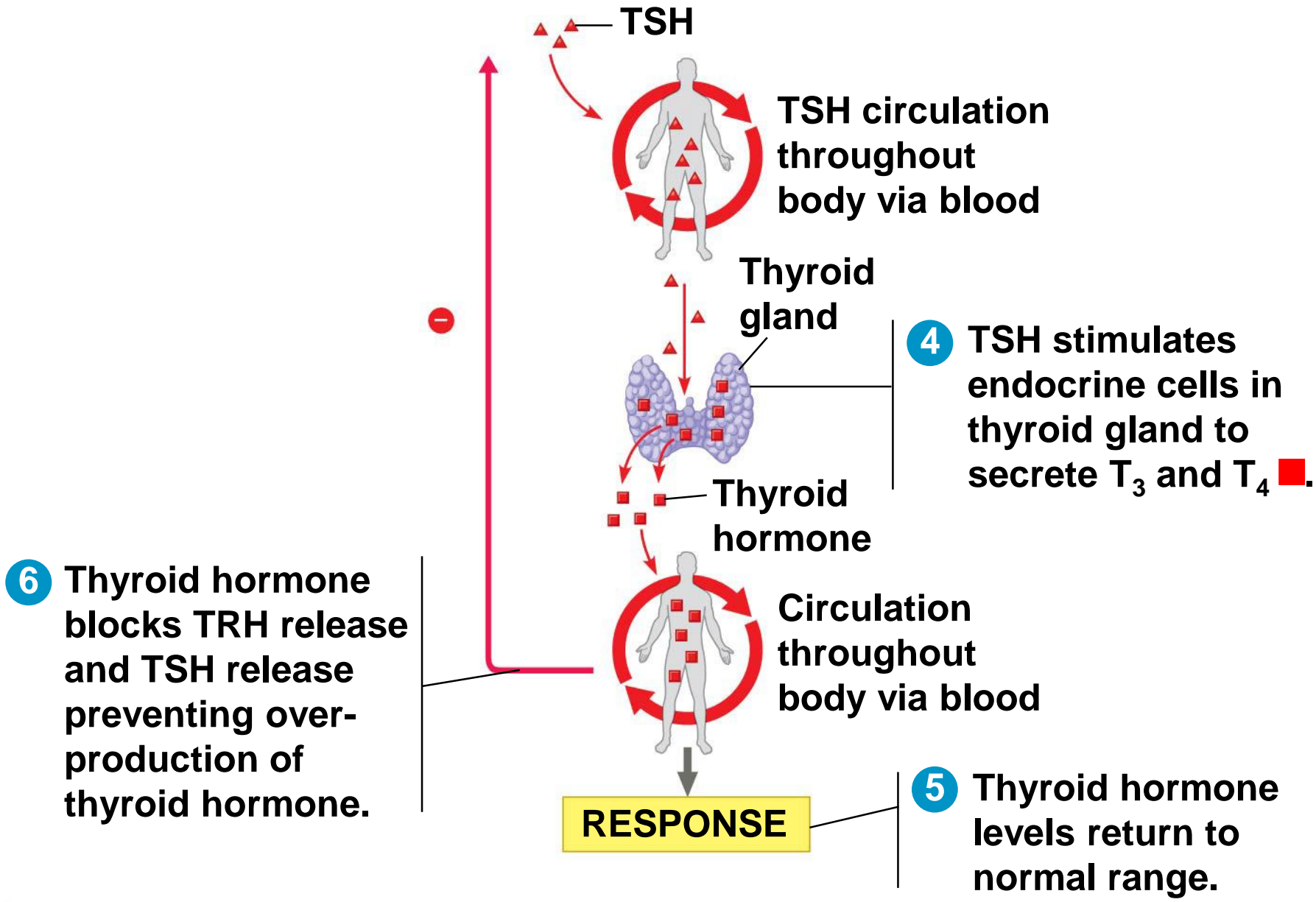


Figure 45.16b



Disorders of Thyroid Function and Regulation

- Hypothyroidism, too little thyroid function, can produce symptoms such as
 - Weight gain, lethargy, cold intolerance
- Hyperthyroidism, excessive production of thyroid hormone, can lead to
 - High temperature, sweating, weight loss, irritability, and high blood pressure
- Malnutrition can alter thyroid function

- Graves' disease, a form of hyperthyroidism caused by autoimmunity, is typified by protruding eyes
- *Thyroid hormone* refers to a pair of hormones
 - Triiodothyronin (T_3), with three iodine atoms
 - Thyroxine (T_4), with four iodine atoms
- Insufficient dietary iodine leads to an enlarged thyroid gland, called a goiter

Hormonal Regulation of Growth

- **Growth hormone (GH)** is secreted by the anterior pituitary gland and has tropic and nontropic effects
- It promotes growth directly and has diverse metabolic effects
- It stimulates production of growth factors
- An excess of GH can cause gigantism, while a lack of GH can cause dwarfism

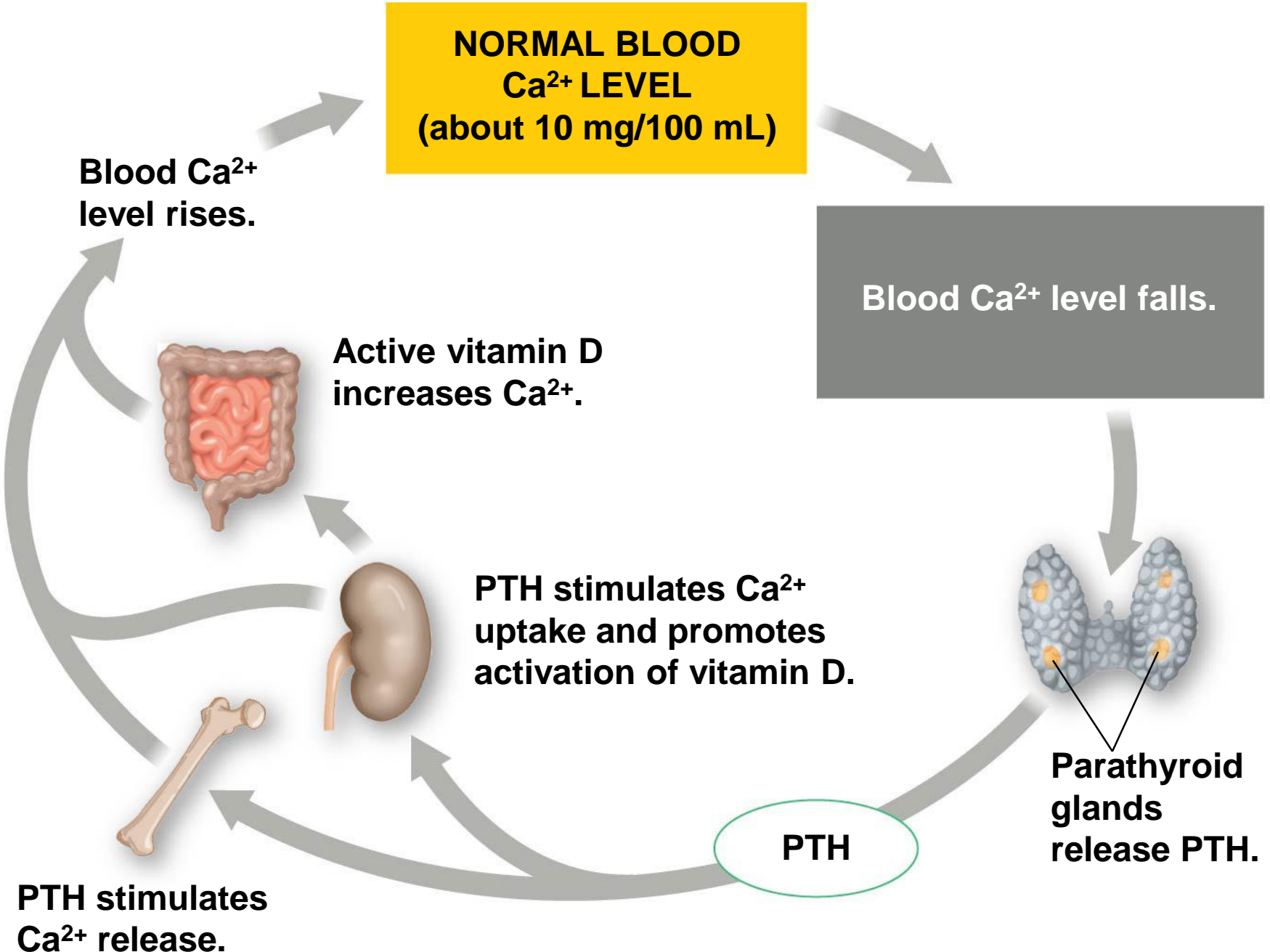


3. Other Endocrine Hormones

Parathyroid Hormone and Vitamin D: Control of Blood Calcium

- Two antagonistic hormones regulate the homeostasis of calcium (Ca^{2+}) in the blood of mammals
 - **Parathyroid hormone (PTH)** is released by the **parathyroid glands**
 - **Calcitonin** is released by the thyroid gland

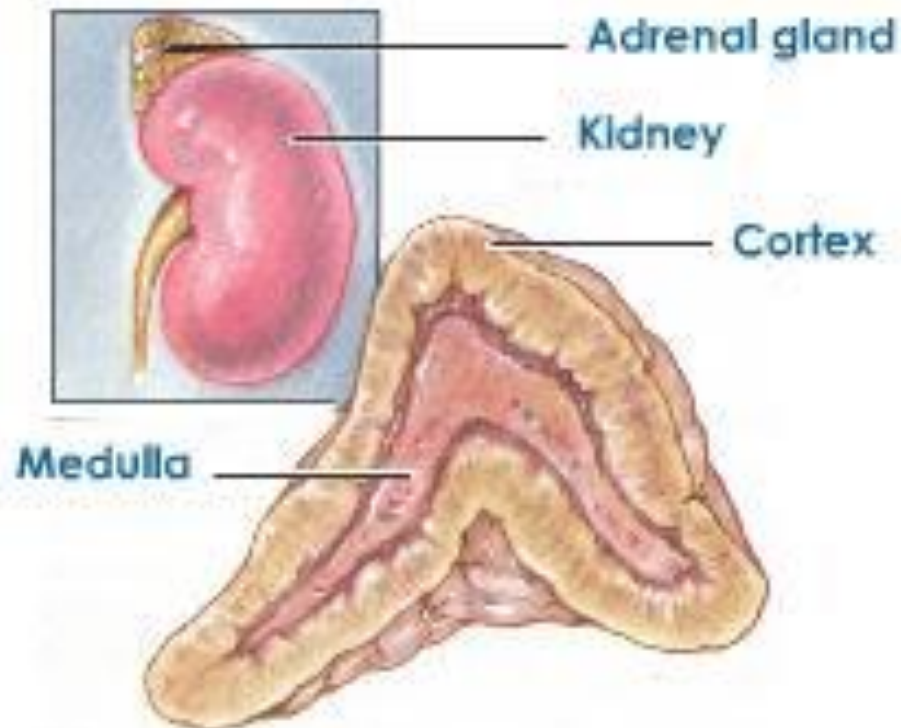
Figure 45.19



- PTH increases the level of blood Ca^{2+}
 - It releases Ca^{2+} from bone and stimulates reabsorption of Ca^{2+} in the kidneys
 - It also has an indirect effect, stimulating the kidneys to activate vitamin D, which promotes intestinal uptake of Ca^{2+} from food
- Calcitonin decreases the level of blood Ca^{2+}
 - It stimulates Ca^{2+} deposition in bones and secretion by kidneys

Adrenal Hormones: Response to Stress

- The adrenal glands are associated with the kidneys
- Each **adrenal gland** actually consists of two glands: the *adrenal medulla* (inner portion) and *adrenal cortex* (outer portion)



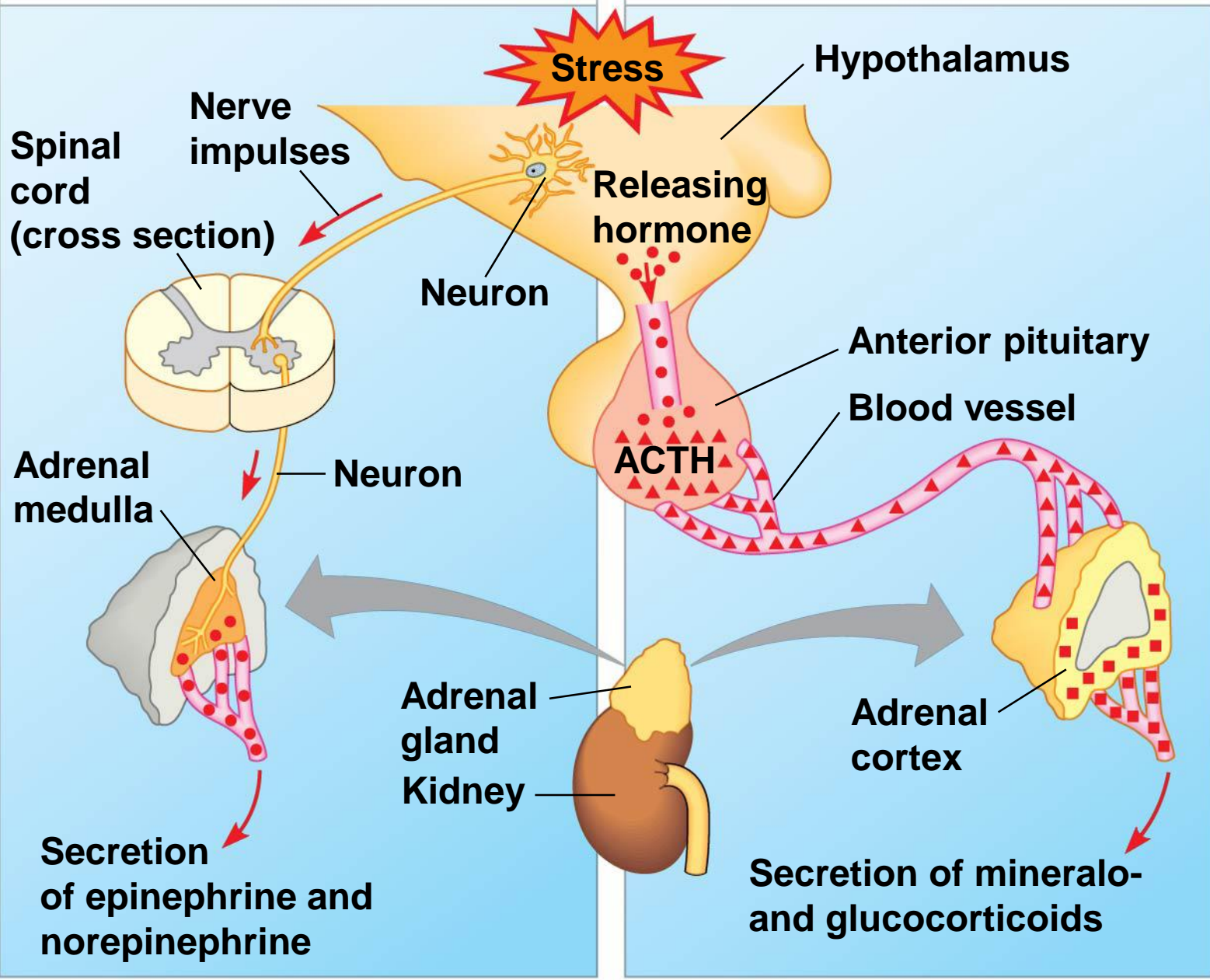
Catecholamines from the Adrenal Medulla

- The adrenal medulla secretes **epinephrine** (adrenaline) and **norepinephrine** (noradrenaline)
- These hormones are members of a class of compounds called **catecholamines**
- They are secreted in response to stress-activated impulses from the nervous system

Figure 45.20a

(a) Short-term stress response

(b) Long-term stress response



Epinephrine and Norepinephrine

- Trigger the release of glucose and fatty acids into the blood
- Increase oxygen delivery to body cells
- Direct blood toward heart, brain, and skeletal muscles and away from skin, digestive system, and kidneys

(a) Short-term stress response and the adrenal medulla

Effects of epinephrine and norepinephrine:

- **Glycogen broken down to glucose; increased blood glucose**
- **Increased blood pressure**
- **Increased breathing rate**
- **Increased metabolic rate**
- **Change in blood flow patterns, leading to increased alertness and decreased digestive, excretory, and reproductive system activity**

Steroid Hormones from the Adrenal Cortex

- The adrenal cortex reacts to endocrine signals
- It releases a family of steroids called **corticosteroids** in response to stress
- These hormones are triggered by a hormone cascade pathway via the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary
- Humans produce two types of corticosteroids: **glucocorticoids** and **mineralocorticoids**

- **Glucocorticoids**, such as cortisol, influence glucose metabolism and the immune system
- **Mineralocorticoids**, such as aldosterone, affect salt and water balance

(b) Long-term stress response and the adrenal cortex

Effects of mineralocorticoids:

- Retention of sodium ions and water by kidneys
- Increased blood volume and blood pressure

Effects of glucocorticoids:

- Proteins and fats broken down and converted to glucose, leading to increased blood glucose
- Partial suppression of immune system

Sex Hormones

- The gonads, testes and ovaries, produce most of the sex hormones: **androgens**, **estrogens**, and **progestins**
- All three sex hormones are found in both males and females, but in significantly different proportions

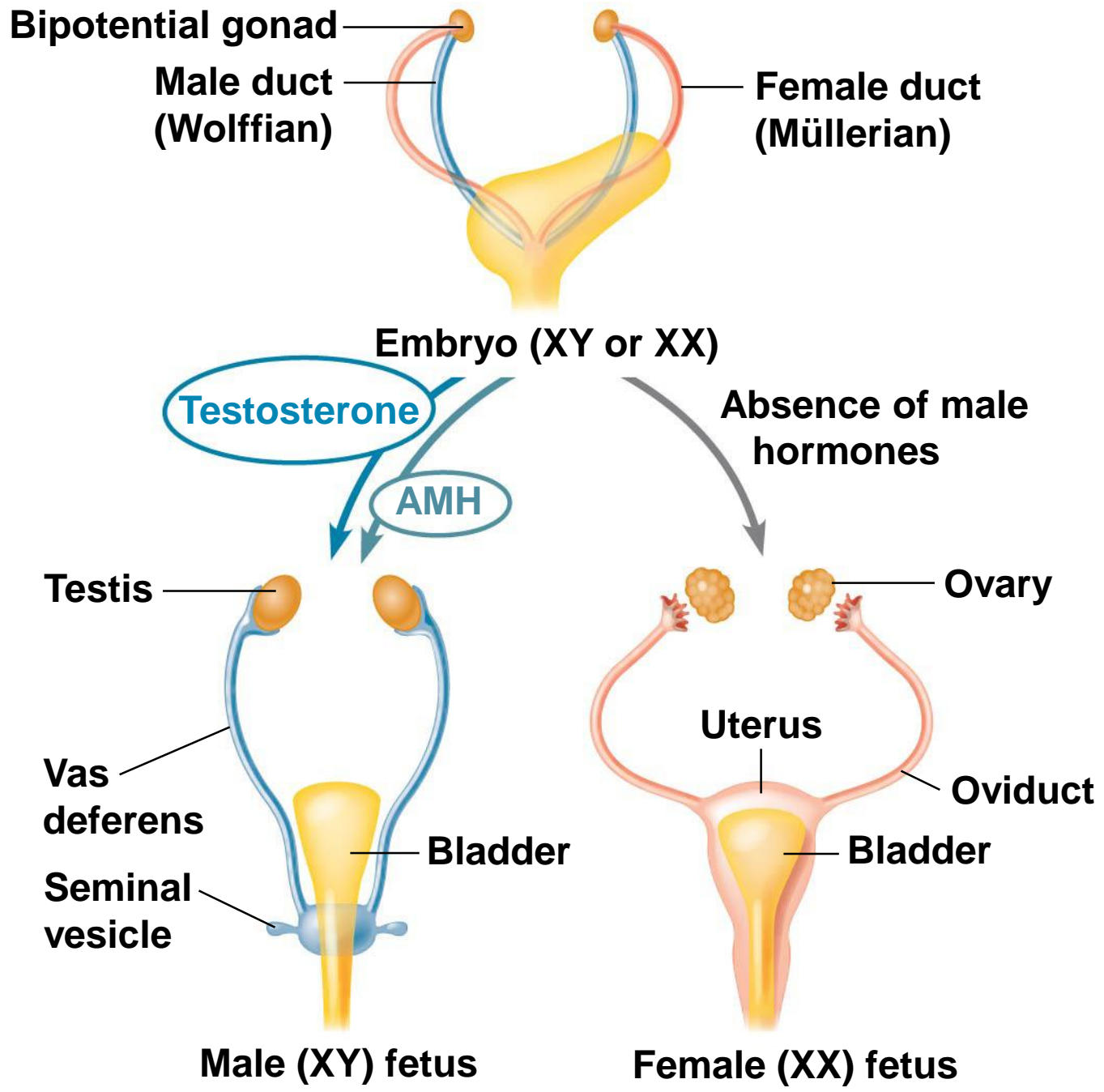
Androgens

- The testes primarily synthesize **androgens**, mainly **testosterone**, which stimulate development and maintenance of the male reproductive system
- Testosterone causes an increase in muscle and bone mass and is often taken as a supplement to cause muscle growth, which carries health risks

Estrogens & Progestins

- **Estrogens**, most importantly **estradiol**, are responsible for maintenance of the female reproductive system and the development of female secondary sex characteristics
- In mammals, **progestins**, which include **progesterone**, are primarily involved in preparing and maintaining the uterus
- Synthesis of the sex hormones is controlled by follicle-stimulating hormone and luteinizing hormone from the anterior pituitary

Figure 45.21



Hormones and Biological Rhythms

- The **pineal gland**, located in the brain, secretes **melatonin**
- Primary functions of melatonin appear to relate to biological rhythms associated with reproduction and with daily activity levels
- The release of melatonin by the pineal gland is controlled by a group of neurons in the hypothalamus called the **suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN)**