ADRENAL GLANDS

Adrenal Glands

- Paired organs that cap the kidneys.
- Each: outer cortex and inner medulla.



The Adrenal Cortex

Adrenal Cortex: 3 Zones (Glomerulosa, Fasiculata, Reticularis).

- Zona Glomerulosa: aldosterone, deficient in 17 α-hydroxylase
- Zona Fasiculata: cortisol + androgens, ACTH control (acute)

3. Zona Reticularis: surrounds medulla, cortisol + androgens, ACTH control (prolonged stimulation)

Steroidogenesis



Fig. 2 The major adrenal steroids and pathways. Note that not all precursors or pathways are shown.

Synthesis of adrenal hormones

Zona glomerulosa

Zona fasciculata and zona reticularis



Figure 11.19 Simplified pathways for the synthesis of steroid hormones in the adrenal cortex. The adrenal cortex produces steroids that regulate Na⁺ and K⁺ balance (mineralocorticoids), steroids that regulate glucose balance (glucocorticoids), and small amounts of sex steroid hormones. (DHEA = dehydroepiandrosterone.)



Figure 9–4. Steroid biosynthesis in the zona fasciculata and zona reticularis of the adrenal cortex. The major secretory products are underlined. The enzymes for the reactions are numbered on the left and at the top of the chart, with the steps catalyzed shown by the shaded bars. ① P450scc, cholesterol 20,22-hydroxylase:20,22 desmolase activity; ② 3 β HSD/ISOM, 3-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase: δ^5 -oxosteroid isomerase activity; ③ P450c21, 21 α -hydroxylase activity; ④ P450c11 = 11 β -hydroxylase activity; ⑤ P450c17, 17 α -hydroxylase activity; ⑥ P450c17, 17,20-lyase/desmolase activity; ⑦ sulfokinase. (See also Figures 7–1, 9–2, 10–4, and 11–13.) (Modified and reproduced, with permission, from Ganong WF: *Review of Medical Physiology*, 16th ed. McGraw-Hill, 1993.)

Biosynthesis of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

Zones

- Adrenal cortex: 2 separate units (glomerulosa + inner 2 zones)
- Aldosterone: regulated by rennin angiotensin system $+ K^+$

Cholesterol

- Precursor of steroid hormones: cholesterol.
- Sources: LDL (80%), free cholesterol (small pool)cholesterol esters (stored), de novo synthesis.
- StAR (Steroidogenic acute regulatory protein): cholesterol transport from outer to inner mitochondrial membrane.

Biosynthesis of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

Steroidogenesis

Steroidogenic enzymes:

- Cytochrome P₄₅₀ Oxygenases
- Mixed function oxidases (O₂ + NADPH)

> Mitochondria:

- P_{450scc} (cholesterol side chain cleavage)
- P_{450c11} (11 β -hydroxylation: cortisol, corticosterone) in zona fasiculata and reticularis.

Endoplasmic reticulum:

- P_{450c17} (17 α -hydroxylase + 17,20 lyase)
- P_{450c21} (21-hydroxylation)
- Non-P₄₅₀ microsomal enzyme: 3 β -HDS: $\Delta^{4,5}$ -isomerase

SYNTHESIS AND "SECRETION" OF STEROID HORMONES BY ADRENAL CORTEX





Biosynthesis of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

Androgen Synthesis

- Requires 17α-hydroxylation
- 17 α -OH pregnenolone \rightarrow DHEA \rightarrow DHEA-sulfate (ER)
- DHEA and 17 α -OH progesterone \rightarrow androstenedione
- Androstenedione → Testosterone (peripheral tissue).



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Biosynthesis of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

A. Secretion of ACTH and CRH

ACTH: major regulator of cortisol and adrenal androgen. ACTH: under CRH, AVP.

B. ACTH Effects on the Adrenal Cortex

ACTH: †steroid secretion and synthesis.
↑ Adrenal hypertrophy and hyperplasia.
C. ACTH and Steroidogenesis

↑cAMP → activation of phosphoprotein kinases
↑Cholesterol esterase → ↑free cholesterol
↑ LDL uptake
↑ Cholesterol delivery to P_{450see}

D. Neuroendocrine Control

- Cortisol levels parallel ACTH.
- 1. Circadian rhythm: fast, delayed
 - Low cortisol in late evening, high 6-8hr after sleep
 - Altered circadian rhythm by: stress, CNS and pituitary.
- 2. Stress abolishes circadian rhythm.
- 3. Feedback inhibition: Glucocorticoids ↓CRH ACTH

E. ACTH Effects on Androgens: DHEA, androstenedione, circadian rhythm.

"Diurnal Rhythm"



Circulation of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

Plasma Binding Proteins ➤ Cortisol:

- 1. 10% free.
- 75% bound to Corticosteroid–Binding Globulin (CBG or transcortin).
- 3. 15% albumin.

Androgens: mainly to albumin Salivary Cortisol: free cortisol

Circulation of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens ...

A. Cortisol Binding

- **1. CBG**
 - Produced by liver.
 - \uparrow Estrogen (pregnancy, estrogen contraceptives), hyperthyroidism, diabetes $\rightarrow \uparrow$ CBG.
 - Hypothyroidism, familial CBG deficiency, protein deficiency (liver disease, nephritic syndrome) $\rightarrow \downarrow$ CBG.

2. Albumin

- Greater capacity, lower affinity for cortisol
- Dexamethasone75% to albumin.

B. Androgen Binding

- 1. Androstenedione, DHEA, DHEA-S: weakly to albumin.
- 2. Testosterone: to sex hormone–binding globulin (SHBG).

Metabolism of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens

Steroid metabolism

Inactive, water soluble, conjugation with glucoronide or sulfate \rightarrow kidney

Cortisol Metabolism

Hepatic Conversion

cortisol \rightarrow dihydrocortisol \rightarrow tetrahydrocortisol \rightarrow cortisone

Hepatic conjugation

Cortisol and cortisone metabolites with glucocuronic acid \rightarrow excreted in urine.

Adrenal Androgen metabolism

Inactivation: glucuronides or sulfates Activation: Androstenedione \rightarrow testosterone \rightarrow DHT

Metabolism of Cortisol and Adrenal Androgens ...

Cortisol–Cortisone Shunt

- Cortisol binds to mineralocorticoid receptors in kidney.
- No effect on Na⁺ + K⁺, cortisol \rightarrow inactive cortisone by 11β-HSD type 2.
- In liver, skin, placenta, adipose tissue:
 Cortisone → cortisol by 11β-HSD type 1 (effective cortisone cream).

Cushing's syndrome

Pre-receptor conversion of cortisol is overwhelmed in kidney \rightarrow hypertension, hypokalemia.



Figure 9–8. Cortisol-cortisone shunt. Contrasting functions of the isozymes of 11β-HSD. 11β-HSD2 is an exclusive 11β-dehydrogenase that acts in classical aldosterone target tissues to exclude cortisol from otherwise nonselective mineralocorticoid receptors. Inactivation of cortisol also occurs in placenta. 11β-HSD1 is a predominant 11β-reductase in vivo that acts in many tissues to increase local intracellular glucocorticoid concentrations and thereby maintain adequate exposure of relatively low affinity glucocorticoid receptors to their ligand. (Modified from Seckl JR, Walker BR: Minireview: 11beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 1—a tissue-specific amplifier of glucocorticoid action. Endocrinology 2001;142:1371.)

Glucocorticoids

- Cytosolic receptors: include hsp 90
- Synthetic glucocorticoids: e.g. dexamethasone, prednisone (higher activity).
 - higher affinity for glucocorticoid receptors
 - lower plasma clearance.
 - Negligible mineralocorticoid effects.
- > Agonists: cortisol, corticosterone and aldosterone.
- Antagonists: progesterone, 17β estradiol, T, DOC.
 RU486 (mifepristone): glucocorticoid antagonist (treatment of Cushing's).

Intermediary Metabolism

Glucocorticoids ↓DNA synthesis, ↓RNA and protein synthesis (most tissues).
 ↑ Protein catabolism: deleterious effects on muscle, bone, connective tissue, lymphatic tissues.

↑ RNA and protein synthesis in **liver**.

Intermediary Metabolism

A. Hepatic Glucose Metabolism

- Glucocorticoids ↑ hepatic gluconeogenesis (↑ PEP-CK, G-6-Pase)
- Permissive effects on glucagon.
- ↓ Peripheral amino acid uptake, protein synthesis, ↑lactate release (muscles), ↑ lipolysis.
- ↑ Glycogen synthetase (insulin dependent).

B. Peripheral Glucose Metabolism

Glucocorticoids \downarrow glucose uptake (muscle and adipose tissue).

C. Effect on Adipose Tissue

- \uparrow Lipolysis (release of glycerol + FFA).

1. Fed state: minimal effects of glucocorticoids. **Fasting:** maintenance of plasma glucose (gluconeogenesis) [†] glycogen deposition. 2. [↑]Hepatic glucose production, RNA, protein synthesis. 3. Catabolic effects on muscle: \downarrow glucose uptake, ↓ protein synthesis, ↑ release of amino acids. 4. Adipose tissue: 1 lipolysis. 5. Glucocorticoid deficiency: hypoglycemia. Glucocorticoid excess: hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia, muscle wasting, weight gain, abdominal fat distribution.

- A. Connective Tissue: ↑ glucocorticoids: loss of collagen and connective tissue, inhibit fibroblasts, thinning of the skin, easy bruising, poor wound healing.
- **B.** Bone: ↑glucocorticoids: ↓bone formation (↓cell proliferation, synthesis of RNA, protein, collagen).
 - ↑ Bone-resorbing cells.
 - \uparrow PTH and 1,25 (OH)₂ D₃ activity.
- **C. Calcium Metabolism**
 - Glucocorticoids \downarrow intestinal Ca absorption $\rightarrow \uparrow$ PTH \uparrow PTH release directly. Intestinal effect not through vitamin D \uparrow cortisol $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Ca excretion, \downarrow tubular reabsorption PO₄
 - Glucocorticoid excess \rightarrow osteoporosis.

D. Growth and Development

Fetal tissues: Glucocorticoids ↑ development (mechanism?)

- ↑ Surfactant production in fetal lungs
- ↑ Development of hepatic and G.I enzyme systemsExcess glucocorticoids: inhibit growth in children.
- E. Blood Cells and Immunologic Function

↓ circulating lymphocytes, monocytes, eosinophils.
↓ migration of inflammatory cells to site of injury.
↓ phospholipase A₂→ ↓ PGs, ↓IL-1, ↓Ab.
Glucocorticoids: anti-inflammatory.

- **F.** Cardiovascular Function
 - Glucocorticoids:
 - ↑ Cardiac output, ↑ peripheral vascular tone.
 - ↑ Catecholamine effect and receptors.
 - Cause hypertension (renin substrate).
- **G. Renal Function**
 - Affect H₂O and electrolyte balance through:
 - Mineralocorticoid receptors: Na^+ , $\downarrow K^+$, hypertension

H. Effects on other Hormones

- 1. Thyroid Function: inhibit TSH synthesis or release, TSH response to TRH.
- 2. Gonadal Function: inhibit gonadotropin in males.
- 3. \downarrow LH response to GnRH in females \rightarrow inhibition of ovulation, amenorrhea.

I. Miscellaneous Effects

- 1. Peptic Ulcer: controversial, \uparrow risk with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs.
- 2. Ophthalmologic Effects: Glucocorticoid therapy may cause cataract, intraocular pressure.

Adrenal Androgens

Males

Androstenedione contribute ~5% of testosterone.

↑ Androgens in boys: early development of secondary sexual characteristic.

Females

Cushing's syndrome, adrenal carcinoma, congenital adrenal hyperplasia causes acne, hirsutism, virilization

Hirsutism

Excess hair growth, especially in women.





Laboratory Evaluation

Plasma ACTH A. Methods of Measurement Immunometric Assay (IMA): 9-12 pg/ml **B.** Adrenal Insufficiency Primary adrenal disease: **†**ACTH Pituitary ACTH deficiency: normal or less than 10 pg/ml Cushing's syndrome (adrenal tumor: ACTH less than 5 pg/ml) Cushing's disease (pituitary tumor: ACTH normal or elevated) Ectopic ACTH syndrome: ACTH markedly elevated Congenital adrenal hyperplasia: ACTH markedly elevated.

- **Plasma Cortisol**
- **A.Methods of Measurement**
- RIA, HPLC, salivary cortisol (Free cortisol), GC-MS **B. Interpretation**
- 1. normal values: 8 am (3-20 μ g/dl), 4 pm (½ morning levels) 10 pm -2 am (under 3 μ g/dl). Saliva (midnight <0.15 μ g/dl).
- 2. Stress: 40-60 µg/dl
- 3. High-estrogen states: (pregnancy): $2 3 \times$ normal.
- 4. Other conditions: (severe anxiety, depression, starvation, alcoholism, chronic renal failure: elevated cortisol)

Laboratory Evaluation ...

Late-Night Salivary Cortisol Diagnosis of Cushing's Syndrome: $> 5.2 \,\mu g/dl$ midnight serum cortisol. $> 0.1 \,\mu\text{g/dl}$ salivary cortisol. **Urinary Corticosteroids Free Cortisol** Excellent methods for Cushing's syndrome vs. obesity. HPLC 5-50 μ g/24h (normal).

Laboratory Evaluation ...

Dexamethasone – Suppression Tests

A. Low-Dose Test

- Dexamethasone suppresses pituitary ACTH 1 mg overnight.
- Cushing's syndrome excluded if cortisol less than 1.8 μg/dl
- 3. Cushing's syndrome (probable cause) if cortisol > $10 \mu g/dl$.

Laboratory Evaluation ...

Dexamethasone – Suppression Tests ... B. High – Dose Test Cushing's disease vs. Ectopic ACTH and adrenal tumor 1. Overnight high dose: 8mg at 11.00 pm, measure cortisol at 8.00 am Cushing's disease: less than 50% basal Ectopic ACTH, adrenal tumor: fail to suppress 2. Two-day high dose: 2 mg every 6 h for 2days Cushing's disease: levels < 50% base line ↑ 90% decrease in urine free cortisol: 100% Cushing's disease (exclude ACTH ectopic syndrome).
Laboratory Evaluation ...

Pituitary – Adrenal Reserve

- Assess hypothalamic pituitary- adrenal axis
- A. ACTH stimulation Testing: Synthetic ACTH (1 μ g)
 - 1. Inadequate response: adrenal insufficiency
 - Primary adrenal insufficiency: destruction of cortical cells \rightarrow reduced cortisol \rightarrow \uparrow ACTH
 - Secondary adrenal insufficiency: ACTH deficiency \rightarrow atrophy of cortical zone.
 - Normal response: exclude both primary and secondary adrenal insufficiency. Does not rule out partial ACTH deficiency: further testing.

Pituitary – Adrenal Reserve ...

- **B. Metyrapone Testing:** diagnosis of suspected pituitary ACTH deficiency
 - ➤ Metyrapone blocks 11 β-hydroxylase: 11 deoxycortisol → cortisol →↑ ACTH (> 100 pg/ml) → 11-deoxycortisol (>7 ng/dl) in normal ACTH secretion and normal adrenal function.
 - Subnormal response of adrenal: adrenocortical insufficiency.

Laboratory Evaluation ...

Pituitary – Adrenal Reserve ...

C. Insulin – induced Hypoglycemia Testing

- Hypoglycemia $\rightarrow \uparrow CRH \rightarrow \uparrow ACTH \rightarrow \uparrow Cortisol.$
- Plasma ACTH response to hypoglycemia >100 pg/ml.
- Normal cortisol response: exclude adrenal insufficiency and decreased pituitary reserve.

D. CRH Testing

- Primary adrenal failure: exaggerated ACTH response.
- Hypopituitarism: absent ACTH response.

Laboratory Evaluation ...

- Pituitary Adrenal Reserve ... Androgens
- A. Plasma levels
 - DHEA, DHEA-sulfate, androstenedione, T, DHT.
- **B.** Free Testosterone

Requires separation bound from free (difficult) Women: 5 pg/ml free T. Hirsute women: 16 pg/ml free T.

Disorders of Adrenocortical Insufficiency

Primary Adrenocortical Insufficiency

A. Addison's Disease

- Autoimmune Adrenocortical Insufficiency
- Two syndromes:
- 1. Autoimmune polyglandular disease type I (hyperparathyroidism, adrenal failure)
- 2. Polyglandular autoimmune syndrome type II (Schmidt's)
 - HLA-related (Diabetes mellitus)
 - Autoantibodies against 21α -hydroxylase.

Primary Adrenocortical Insufficiency ...

B. Adrenal Hemorrhage

Adrenal vein thrombosis.

Primary anti phospholipids antibody syndrome.

C. Infections

Tuberculosis, systemic fungal infections, AIDS.

D. Adrenoleukodystrophy

- Malfunction of adrenal cortex. 1
- 2. Demyelinization in CNS.

↑ Very long chain fatty acids (VLCFAs) in brain, adrenal cortex, testes, liver.

Primary Adrenocortical Insufficiency ...

E. Metastatic Adrenal Disease

Lung, G.I., breast and renal neoplasia Subnormal cortisol response to ACTH Bilateral adrenal enlargement.

F. Familial Glucocorticoid Deficiency Hereditary adrenocortical unresponsiveness to ACTH Mutation in ACTH receptor in adrenal cortex

G. Cortisol Resistance

Abnormalities of glucocorticoid receptor \rightarrow \uparrow ACTH \rightarrow \uparrow cortisol, mineralocorticoids, adrenal androgens \rightarrow hypertension, hypokalemia, virilization.

Primary Adrenocortical Insufficiency ...

Pathophysiology

- Gradual destruction of adrenal cortex
- Initial phase: decrease adrenal reserve, normal cortisol, no response to stress.

Clinical Features

- Chronic: fatigue, nausea, hypotension, \downarrow Na+.
- Hypoglycemia: hyperpigmentation, weakness
- Acute Abdominal, flank and back pain, hypotension, fevers shock, vomiting.

Lab. Findings:

 \downarrow Na⁺, \uparrow K⁺, CT scan: adrenal enlargement

Secondary Adrenocortical Insufficiency

Etiology

- 1. ACTH deficiency due to exogenous glucocorticoid therapy
- 2. Pituitary and hypothalamic tumors.

Pathophysiology

- ↓Cortisol and adrenal androgen (atrophy of fasiculata –reticularis).
- 2. Normal aldosterone
- 3. ACTH reserve is impaired.

Secondary Adrenocortical Insufficiency ...

Clinical features

- 1. Dehydration, \downarrow Na⁺ due to H₂O retention, \downarrow GFR due to \downarrow cortisol
- 2. Weakness, nausea, vomiting
- 3. Pituitary Tumors (hypogonadism and hypothyroidism).
- 4. Hypersecretion of PRL and GH.

Diagnosis of Adrenocortical Insufficiency

1. Rapid ACTH Stimulation Test

1 mg cosyntropin (synthetic ACTH):

- Subnormal response: adrenocortical insufficiency (primary or secondary) → measure ACTH
- Normal response: excludes primary adrenal failure does not exclude partial secondary adrenocortical insufficiency → metyrapone or insulin – induced hypoglycemia.

2. Plasma ACTH levels

Primary adrenal insufficiency: ACTH > 200 pg/ml Secondary adrenal insufficiency: ACTH normal or <10pg/ml.

Diagnosis of Adrenocortical Insufficiency

- 3. Partial ACTH Deficiency Overnight metyrapone test Insulin –induced hypoglycemia
 - Normal response: excludes secondary adrenal insufficiency
 - Subnormal response (normal response to ACTH): secondary adrenal insufficiency.

Cushing's Syndrome

Chronic glucocorticoid excess Classification

- ACTH –dependent: ectopic ACTH syndrome and Cushing's disease. Chronic ACTH hypersecretion → Adrenal hyperplasia (fasiculata - reticularis) →↑ cortisol, androgens, DOC.
- 2. ACTH independent: primary adrenal tumors \uparrow cortisol $\rightarrow \downarrow$ ACTH. 50

Cushing's Syndrome

A. Cushing's disease

most common (70% of cases) Women: men (8:1).

B. Ectopic ACTH hypersecretion

15-20% of cases, severe hypercortisolism.Small cell carcinoma of the lungMore common in men.

C. Primary Adrenal Tumors 10% of cases, mostly benign adrenocortical adenomas. Adrenocortical carcinomas, uncommon. More common in women.

D. Childhood Cushing's Syndrome

Adrenal carcinomas, most frequent cause More common in girls (1-8 years)

Cushing's Syndrome ...

Clinical Features: Symptoms

- Obesity: most common manifestation, central obesity "Moon facies": accumulation of fat in the face.
 "Buffalo hump": accumulation of fat around the neck.
- 2. Skin Changes: Atroply of epidermis "thinning", easy bruisability, striae, acne (from hyperpigmentation) rare in Cushing's disease, common in ectopic ACTH syndrome.
- 3. Hirsutism: due to ↑ adrenal androgens (↑ hair growth in ♀ over abdomin, breasts, chest, upper thighs).
- 4. Hypertension

Cushing's Syndrome ...

Clinical Features: Symptoms ...

- 5. Gonadal Dysfunction: common in females due to ↑ androgens, in males due to ↑ cortisol. Amenorrhea 75% women
- 6. CNS and Psychologic disturbances
- 7. Muscle weakness: low muscle ass and low total body protein.
- 8. Osteoporosis: osteopenia and osteoporosis.
- **9. Renal Calculi:** due to glucocorticoid induced hypercalciuria.
- **10. Thirst ad polyuria:** polyuria due to glucocorticoid inhibition of vasopressin, ↑ GFR.

Cushing's Syndrome



Cushing's Syndrome ...

Diagnosis

A. Dexamethasone Suppression Test Normal subject: cortisol < 1.8µg/dL
B. Urine Free Cortisol
24h urine collection, free cortisol by HPLC, GC-MS Normal : cortisol < 50µg / 24h.

C. Diurnal Rhythm

Absence of diurnal rhythm: Cushing's syndrome Serum cortisol > $7\mu g/dL$ at midnight: Cushing's syndrome Salivary cortisol = free cortisol > $0.1\mu g/dL$ (Cushing's syndrome).

Cushing's Syndrome ...

Differential Diagnosis : Plasma ACTH

- 1. Measurement of Plasma ACTH by IRMA
 - ACTH > 5pg/dL, blunted response to TRH (<10pg/dL)
 - = bilateral adrenal cortical hyperplasia.
 - ACTH > 10pg/dL (frequently > 52pg/dL)
 - = ACTH secreting tumors

Source of ACTH – secreting tumor (90% pituitary tumor)

- 2. Plasma ACTH levels are usually higher with ectopic ACTH than pituitary ACTH dependent Cushing's syndrome.
- 3. Enhanced ACTH response for CRH; frequently in Cushing's syndrome compared to ectopic ACTH syndrome (less accurate).

Glucocorticoid Therapy for Nonendocrine Disorders

Principles

Glucocorticoids: anti-inflammatory, immunosuppressive Rheumatologic disorder: rheumatoid arthritis. Pulmonary disease: asthma. Renal disease: glomerulonephritis. Because of side effects: minimum effective does shortest duration. **Synthetic Glucocorticoids** Prednisone: 3-5 times more glucocorticoid activity.

Dexamethasone: 10-20 times the glucocorticoid activity of cortisol, negligible mineralocorticoid activity.

Side Effects:

Hypothalamic – pituitary – adrenal axis suppression; Cushing's syndrome; Steroid withdrawal. 58

Mineralocorticoid Hormones

Mineralocorticoid Hormones

Mineralocorticoids: Aldosterone, DOC. Cortisol: degradation by kidney. Aldosterone:

- Produced exclusively by zona glomerulosa.
- Controlled by renin-angiotensin system, Na⁺ and K⁺ levels.

Biosynthesis of aldosterone



Mineralocorticoid Hormones ...

- Aldosterone + DOC
- Aldosterone: 30-50% free, binds weakly to CBG, mainly albumin.
- DOC: 5% free, binds mainly to CBG.
- Aldosterone, DOC: same affinity for mineralocorticoid receptor (cytosol), equal concentrations (more free aldosterone).

Mineralocorticoid Hormones ...

Action

Na⁺ channel:

- Increase apical membrane targeting in collecting tubules
- \uparrow Na⁺ movement into cells.
- ↑ aldosterone regulated kinase (serum glucocorticoid regulated kinase 56k)
 →↑ Na⁺ channel activity.
- \uparrow K⁺, H⁺ secretion

Osmoregulation: Aldosterone



Endocrine Hypertension

- Adrenal Gland: Pheochromocytoma, primary aldosteronism.
- 2. Pituitary: ACTH producing tumor (Cushing's disease, ectopic ACTH production).
- 3. Kidney: renin-angiotensin system.

Endocrine Hypertension: Hypertension of Adrenal Origin

Mineralocorticoid Hypertension Mineralocorticoids:

- \uparrow expansion of plasma + ECF.
- Na⁺ and fluid retention $\rightarrow \uparrow$ cardiac output.
- Renal K⁺ wasting.
- ↑ total peripheral resistance.
- ↑ sensitivity to catecholamine.

Primary Aldosteronism

Zona glomerulosa:

Adenoma or hyperplasia: †aldosterone Aldosterone – Producing adenomas (APA). Aldosterone, DOC, Corticosterone, 18 (OH) corticosterone.

Lack 17α -hydroxylase = (normal cortisol). Clinical Features

Symptoms of hypokalemia, hypertension.

Endocrine Hypertension: Excess DOC

17 α-hydroxylase deficiency:

- Suppression of the renin-angiotensin system.
- High levels of DOC, corticosterone, 18 (OH) corticosterone, 18- (OH) DOC.

11 β –hydroxylase deficiency:

- > Virilization (high androgens)
- High levels of DOC, 11-deoxy cortisol, 17
 (OH) progesterone.



Figure 9–4. Steroid biosynthesis in the zona fasciculata and zona reticularis of the adrenal cortex. The major secretory products are underlined. The enzymes for the reactions are numbered on the left and at the top of the chart, with the steps catalyzed shown by the shaded bars. ① P450scc, cholesterol 20,22-hydroxylase:20,22 desmolase activity; ② 3 β HSD/ISOM, 3-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase: δ^5 -oxosteroid isomerase activity; ③ P450c21, 21 α -hydroxylase activity; ④ P450c11 = 11 β -hydroxylase activity; ⑤ P450c17, 17 α -hydroxylase activity; ⑥ P450c17, 17,20-lyase/desmolase activity; ⑦ sulfokinase. (See also Figures 7–1, 9–2, 10–4, and 11–13.) (Modified and reproduced, with permission, from Ganong WF: *Review of Medical Physiology*, 16th ed. McGraw-Hill, 1993.)

Endocrine Hypertension Cushing's Syndrome ...

- Hypertension is common.
- ACTH- dependent hypercortisolism: Cushing's disease, ectopic ACTH production: →↑ DOC, corticosterone, cortisol.

Mechanism of hypertension

- Mineralocorticoid- independent mechanisms
- ↑ angiotensin II (↑ hepatic angiotensinogen)
- ↑ Vascular reactivity to vasoconstrictors
- ↓ Catecholamine degradation (↑epinephrine)
- \downarrow vasodilation.
- Na⁺ shift from ICF \rightarrow ECF \uparrow cardiac output

Hypertension of Renal Origin

The Renin–Angiotensin System Renin

- Secreted by juxtaglomerular cells (smooth muscle cells of afferent arteriole as it enters the glomerulus).
- A proteolytic enzyme M.W. 40,000
- Secretion: controlled by
 - (1) baroreceptors
 - (2) cardiac and systemic arterial receptors
 - (3) cells of macula densa (\downarrow Na⁺, Cl⁻).
- Catalyzes angiotensin I formation from angiotensinogen
- Angiotensin I is then converted by ACE to angiotensin II.

The Renin–Angiotensin System
Renin-Angiotensin System



Regulation of Aldosterone Secretion



- The Renin–Angiotensin System Angiotensinogen
- α2 Globulin secreted by liver
- M.W. 60,000
- Essential hypertension: linked to variant allele for angiotensinogen gene.

The Renin–Angiotensin System Angiotensin – Converting Enzyme (ACE).

- A dipeptidyl carboxypeptidase, a glycoprotein, M.W. 130,000-160,000
- Substrates: angiotensin I, bradykinin, enkaphlins, substance P.
- Converts angiotensin I to angiotensin II.
- ACE inhibitors: also ↑ nitric oxide (hypotensive) by ↑ kinins → improve insulin sensitivity (↓ glucose) in type 2 diabetes.

The Renin–Angiotensin System ... Angiotensin II

- Bind to plasma membrane receptors (AT1 and AT2).
- AT1: mediates cardiovascular, renal, adrenal-stimulatory effects.
- AT2: cell differentiation and growth.

The Renin–Angiotensin System ... Angiotensin II ...

- Chronic volume depletion (↓ Na⁺ intake): ↑ angiotensin II → down regulation of AT1 receptors in vasculature (Na reabsorption without ↑ blood pressure.
- Angiotensin II $\rightarrow \uparrow$ catecholamines.
- ACE inhibitors + angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) ↓ blood pressure.

The Renin–Angiotensin System and Hypertension

Essential Hypertension

- Blood pressure: Cardiac output + peripheral vascular resistance.
- Essential Hypertension:

 peripheral vascular resistance
 (renin-angiotensin system implicated).

 Causes of essential hypertension:
- $\frac{1}{2}$ patients: normal or \uparrow plasma renin; $\frac{1}{4}$ low renin.
- Abnormality: local angiotensin II production or AT receptor.
- Genetic linkage between angiotensinogen gene allele and essential hypertension.

The Renin–Angiotensin System and Hypertension ...

Essential Hypertension:

Treatment:

- ACE inhibitor (captopril, ↓ angiotensin II → restore adrenal and vascular responsiveness);
- ACE inhibitors: effective by ↑ bradykinins, ↓ local angiotensin II production.
- AT1 antagonist.
- Diuretics, Ca blockers.
- β-Adrenergic antagonists.

The Renin–Angiotensin System and Hypertension ...

Renovascular Hypertension

- Renin–dependent hypertension.
- Most common correctable cause of secondary hypertension.
- Due to atherosclerosis or fibromuscular hyperplasia of renal arteries.
- Treatment:

ACE inhibitor (captopril) or AT1 antagonist.Renal stenosis: anatomic correction.Ca channel blocker, β-adrenergic antagonist.

81

Adrenal Medulla

Is a specialized part of the sympathetic nervous system.

- Secretes catecholamines: epinephrine, nor epinephrine.
- Chromaffin Cells or Pheochromocytes
 80% epinephrine, 20% norepinephrine
 Nerve Supply
- Innervated by preganglionic fibers: acetylcholine.

Catecholamine hormones - amines that control our response to acute stress



Cardiac output increases.
Blood vessels to skeletal muscles dilate.
Blood vessels to digestive organs constrict

Liver produces glucose.

Catecholamines: Biosynthesis





Figure 1. Biosynthesis of catecholamines. BH_2/BH_4 , dihydro/tetrahydrobiopterin; DHBR, dihydrobiopterin reductase; PNMT, phenylethanolamine N-CH₃ transferase; SAH, S-adenosylhomocysteine; SAM, S-adenosylmethionine

Stress Figure 2. Regulation of the release Chronic of catecholamines and synthesis of Hypothalamus regulation epinephrine in the adrenal medulla chromaffin cell. ACTH from adrenal Cortisol cortex via intra-Tyrosine adrenal portal system L-Dopa -Acute **DPN** regulation induction granule **DPN** Neuron Ca²⁺ NE **PNMT Epinephrine** NE EEE neuroacetylcholine promotes NE E secretory exocytosis **Adrenal Medulla** granules E E **Chromaffin Cell** ENE EE. E EE NE



Figure 11–3. Metabolism of catecholamines by catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) and monoamine oxidase (MAO).

Table 1. Classification of Adrenergic Hormone Receptors

Receptor	Agonists	Second Messenger	G protein
$alpha_1(\alpha_1)$	E>NE	IP ₃ /Ca ²⁺ ; DAG	G _q
$alpha_2(\alpha_2)$	NE>E	\downarrow cyclic AMP	G _i
beta ₁ (β_1)	E=NE	↑ cyclic AMP	G _s
beta ₂ (β_2)	E>>NE	↑ cyclic AMP	G _s

E = epinephrine; **NE** = norepinephrine

Synthetic agonists:

isoproterenol binds to beta receptors phenylephrine binds to alpha receptors (nose spray action)

Synthetic antagonists:

propranolol binds to beta receptors phentolamine binds to alpha receptors

Adrenergic Receptors

Transmembrane proteins (7 hydrophobic regions)

- A. Alpha Adrenergic Receptors: smooth muscle contraction
 - al Agonist $\rightarrow G_q$
 - $\alpha 2$ Agonies $\rightarrow G_i$

B. Beta – Adrenergic Receptors: Agonist \rightarrow G_s

 β_1 receptors: direct cardiac effects

 β_2 receptors: vascular, bronchial, uterine smooth muscle relaxation β_3 receptors: lipolysis

C. Dopamine Receptors

Five subtypes: D1 to D5.

D1 receptors: ↑ cAMP, postsynaptic in brain

D2 receptors: \downarrow cAMP, pituitary open K⁺ channel, \downarrow Ca⁺⁺ influx.

Catecholamine Actions

1. Dopamine

Important Central neurotransmitter

2. Norepinephrine

- Mainly in sympathetic innervation: heart, kidneys, muscles, salivary glands, vascular smooth muscle, liver; and adrenal medulla.
- $\uparrow \alpha 1$ -adrenergic receptors \uparrow cardiac contraction, hypertension, dilation of pupils, \uparrow sweating.
- $\uparrow \beta$ 3-adrenergic receptors: \uparrow lipolysis.

3. Epinephrine

- Stimulates $\alpha 1$ and $\beta 1$ adrenergic receptors
- Hypoglycemia \uparrow epinephrine $\rightarrow \uparrow$ glycogenolysis, lipolysis.
- **†** BMR

Physiologic Effects

A. Cardiovascular Effects

↑ Rate and force of contraction (β receptors)
 Contraction of vascular smooth muscle (α1 receptors)

B. Effects on Extracellular smooth Muscle
 Relaxation and Contraction of uterine myometrium
 Relaxation of intestinal and bladder smooth muscle

C. Metabolic Effects

 \uparrow O₂ consumption and heat production Glucose and fat mobilization (Glycogenolysis and lipolysis)

Disorders of Adrenal Medullary Function

Hypofunction

- No disability: intact sympathetic NS
- Autonomic Insufficiency: orthostatic hypotension

Hyperfunction

↑ Blood pressure: ↑ cardiac output,
 ↑Vasoconstriction, ↑ renin

Pheochromocytoma

Pheochromocytomas

- Rare tumors of adrenal medulla (mainly right adrenal)
- Secrete more norepinephrine than epinephrine
- severe hypertensive episodes (spontaneous hemorrhage)

Paragangliomas

- Rarely secrete epinephrine
- Extra-adrenal pheochromocytomas: arise from sympathetic ganglia.
- Metastasize to lungs, lymph nodes, bones

