

Anatomy (1)

المحاضرة الأولى

→ Brain diencephalon → Hypothalamus, thalamus and epithalamus.

→ The hypothalamus affects the endocrine system by 2 ways:-

1. Secretions of two hormones → ADH and oxytocin.

2. Controlling the secretion of the pituitary hormones.

→ Pituitary gland = Hypophyseal → Hypothalamus

→ Some glands are only endocrine glands → Pituitary, pineal, thyroid, Parathyroid and adrenal/suprarenal.

→ other glands have other functions:-

1. Hypothalamus → ^{Brain} Brain Function.

2. Thymus → neural function.

3. Pancreas → exocrine function.

→ Hormones could be:- 1. lipid soluble

2. Water soluble

- Bind to cytoplasmic receptors

- Bind to extracellular

or enter the nucleus inducing

receptors.

genetic effects.

→ The endocrine hormones may NOT be able to effect nearby cells and the secreting cell.

→ PITUITARY:-

- it is connected to the brain, Hypothalamus, by a stalk called the infundibulum.

- Has two lobes:- 1. adenohypophysis 2. neurohypophysis.

- it is located in the hypophyseal fossa (sella turcica).

↳ in the sphenoid bone.

- Anterior → sphenoid sinus.

- Posterior → dorsum sellae, basilar

- Inferior → the body of the sphenoid (sinus).

artery, pons

- superior → Diaphragma sellae.

opening.

↳ ACTS as a roof with a central aperture that

allows the passage of the infundibulum, it separates the PG from overlying optic chiasma.

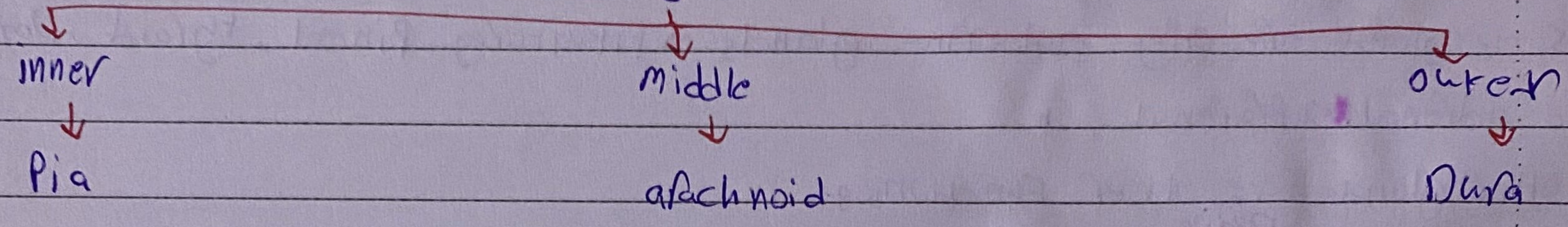
- optic chiasma where the left and right optic nerves cross each other before reaching the orbits.

↳ Any adenoma or carcinoma in this place will affect the vision.

- lateral cavernous sinus ↳ sphenoid bone.

- No medial relation.

Meninges



embedded in the brain to the spinal cord. in the spinal cord it has only 1 layer while in the brain it has 2 layers.

veinous network ↳ cavernous sinus ↳ external ↳ internal

↳ cavernous sinus ↳

→ The cavernous sinus is responsible for orbital drainage, carotid artery and ophthalmic artery.

Endoscopic Transnasal

↳ The most common procedure for removing pituitary tumors.

↳ The neurosurgeon reaches the tumor through the nasal passages and the sphenoid sinus ↳ it is called transphenoidal.

↳ Avoid important brain structures by accessing the pituitary gland from underneath the brain.

↳ leaves no visible scar, minimizes the risk of complications and enables faster recovery.

↳ craniotomy ↳ surgical opening into the skull.

↳ in some serious cases (malignant carcinoma), the endoscopic is not effective and surgery is the solution.

→ The pharynx join with three parts forming nasopharyngeal (anterior to PG), oropharyngeal and laryngopharyngeal.

STRUCTURE AND ORIGIN :-

PG has two lobes

Adenohypophysis

↳ Anterior lobe.

↳ pars tuberalis (where the Rathke's pouch attaches to the infundibulum)

↳ pars intermedia.

↳ pars distalis.

Neurohypophysis

↳ Posterior lobe.

↳ infundibular stalk.

↳ pars nervosa.

↳ connected to the

hypothalamus by a stalk called infundibulum.

PITUITARY ORGANOGENESIS

↳ Both lobes of PG are originated from thickened ectoderm.

↳ Begins during week 4 of fetal development.

↳ oral ectoderm → hypophyseal placode → Rathke's Pouch (upward invagination that extends towards the neural ectoderm).

At the same time

↳ Downward extension of the ventral diencephalon → forms the posterior lobe.

↳ Both lobes connect to form the composite structure of the adult pituitary.

↳ During week 6-8 Rathke's pouch constricts at its base and eventually separates altogether from the oral epithelium.

↳ Hypothalamus has many nuclei, some of them are responsible of producing ADH and oxytocin, these hormones transmit through the axons of the infundibulum's neurons to the pars nervosa → we call this way Hypothalamo-Hypophyseal tract.

↳ it is short.

Hypothalamus

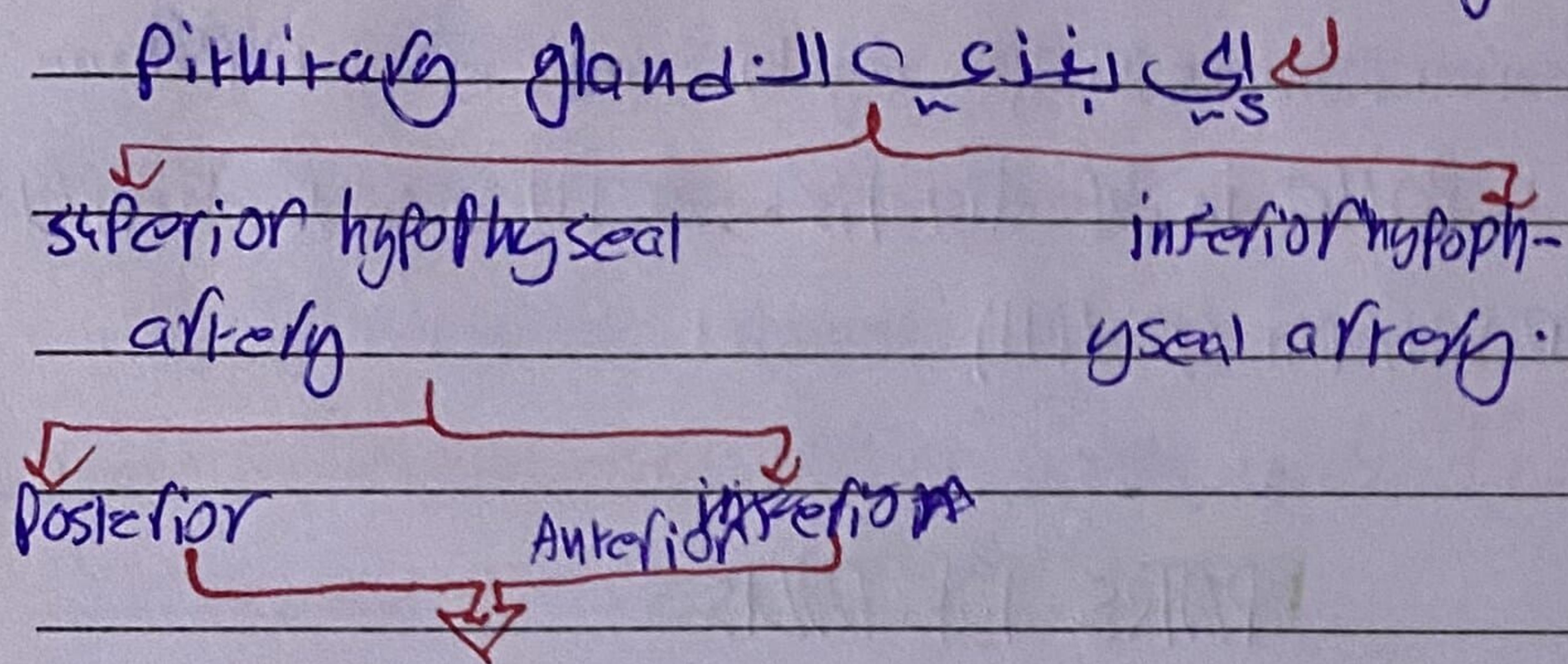
releasing and inhibitory secretion.

effect on the anterior lobe.

its own hormones effect on the posterior lobe.

Anatomy (2)

↳ the arch of the aorta and the
 brachiocephalic artery ↳ common carotid
 artery ↳ the internal carotid artery.



circle around the lowest
 part of the hypothalamus
 and the hormones manufacturing
 happens here.

↳ The inferior hypophyseal is a branch of
 the cavernous portion.

↳ The superior hypophyseal is a branch of
 intracranial portion.

↳ superior hypophyseal artery ↳ primary plexus
 secondary plexus ↳ Hypophyseal portal veins

SECRETIONS OF THE HYPOTHALAMUS

1. ↳ The two nuclei of hypothalamus (supraoptic
 and paraventricular) make two hormones ↳
 ADH and oxytocin ↳ Delivered through
 the axons and will be stored in the pars
 nervosa ↳ nerve impulses ↳ released to the
 blood.

↳ They are transmitted by nerve axons in
 hypothalamus-hypophyseal tract (portal circulation).

المحاضرة الثانية

2. Releasing and inhibiting hormones :-

↳ Mainly the hormones in the anterior pituitary
 gland.

↳ These hormones must first reach the
 adenohypophysis instead of going to the
 systemic circulation.

↳ Veins ↳ ~~branch~~ branch again to form
 the secondary plexus ↳ the hormones reach
 the adenohypophysis.

↳ Hormones: - TRH, GnRH, GHRH, CRH,
 PIH, GHIH.

↳ After that the capillaries will form normal
 veins and go back to the systemic circulation.
 Hypophyseal vein.

↳ Portal circulation can also be found in
 liver and kidney.

NEUROHYPOPHYSIS (Posterior Pituitary)

↳ Neural tissue. ↳ collection of unmyelinated
 axons with glia cells ↳ called pituicytes.

↳ consists of pars nervosa and the infundibular
 stalk.

↳ DOESN'T contain the cells that synthesize
 its own hormones.

↳ carrier proteins: neurophysin I and II.

ADENOHYPOPHYSIS (Anterior Pituitary)

↳ ONLY Hormonal & secretory
 ↳ epithelial cells.

↳ pars distalis, pars intermedia,
 and pars tuberalis.

~~Ant~~ Anatomy (3)

→ ADENOHYPOPHYSIS - MAJOR CELL TYPES

↳ These cells are found mainly in pars distalis, which has the main function.

↳ Cells:-

1. Somatotrophs - 50%

↳ Hormons:- A. Somatotropin (GH)

B. A 22-kDa protein

↳ Function:- stimulates growth in epiphyseal plates of long bones via insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) produced in liver.

2. Lactotrophs (mammatotrophs) - 15-20%

↳ Hormons:- A. Prolactin (PRL)

B. a 25 kDa protein.

↳ Function:- promotes milk secretion.

3. Gonadotrophs (10%)

↳ Hormons: A. Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH).

B. Luteinizing hormone (LH).

C. ICSTH in male. D. 28-kDa glycoprotein dimer and thyrotrophs.

↳ Functions:-

- FSH → promotes ovarian follicle development and estrogen secretion in women and spermatogenesis in men.

- LH → promotes ovarian follicle maturation and progesterone secretion in women and interstitial cell androgen secretion in men.

4. Thyrotrophs - 5%

↳ Hormons:- A. Thyrotropin (TSH).

B. 28-kDa glycoprotein dimer.

↳ Function:- stimulates thyroid hormone synthesis, storage, and liberation (تحرير).

5. Corticotrophs - 15-20%

↳ Hormons:- A. Adrenal corticotropin (ACTH).

B. 4-kDa polypeptide. D. lipoprotein (LPH).

↳ Function:- stimulates secretion of adrenal cortex hormones, helps regulate lipid metabolism.

↳ POMC in pars distalis → ACTH and ~~lipoprotein~~ lipotropin (β-LPH)

PARS DISTALIS

↳ The biggest. ↳ Has a thin fibrous capsule.

↳ cords of well-stained endocrine cells interspersed with fenestrated capillaries (the 2nd set of portal system) and supporting reticular connective tissue.

↳ chromophils → secretory cells that store the hormone in cytoplasmic granules (basophils and acidophils) and have many vessels around.

↳ Acidophils → somatotrophs and lactotrophs.

↳ Basophils → corticotrophs, gonadotrophs,

↳ chromophobes → no stain and less

vessels.

PARS TUBERALIS

↳ Most of the cells of ~~gonadotrophs~~ gonadotrophs.

↳ wraps (لف) the infundibulum.

↳ Has less cells.

PAIRS INTERMEDIA

↳ Between pars distalis and pars nervosa.

↳ Contains:- 1. Basophilic corticotrophs)

2. chromophobes. 3. small, colloid-filled

cysts → Derived from the lumen of the embryonic hypophysial pouch.

↳ Best-developed and active during Fetal life.

↳ Unique Function:- Express POMC → MSH*

γ-LPH and β-endorphin.

Different from the pars distalis. ↪

* MSH → Melano-stimulating hormone.

↳ Remnants of the embryonic hypophysial pouch's lumen are usually present in this region as colloid-filled cysts.

HYPOTHALAMIC HORMONS TO THE ADENOPHYSIS

↳ only two inhibitory hormones

Dopamin
inhibits release

of Prolactin (PRL)

somatostatin
inhibits release

of both somatotropin

1. and 2.
(GH) & TSH

↳ Releasing hormones:-

1. Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH))

2. Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH))

↳ FSH

↳ LH

3. Growth-hormone releasing hormone (GHRH))

4. corticotropin-releasing hormone

Anatomy (5)

STROMA:-

A double capsule:-

The outer

Perifascial Fascia

Joba

CT septa:- Dividing the gland

into incomplete lobes and lobules.

Reticular Fibers:- A network supporting

the thyroid parenchyma.

PARENCHYMA:-

composed of follicles.

The follicles are surrounded by network of fenestrated blood capillaries.

colloid
أي مادة سائلة عذبة اللون من جزيئات كبيرة لينة اللدنة.

They contain a gelatinous material in their lumina called colloid.

the follicles are lined by cuboidal cells of two types

Follicular cells

Follicular cells.

Follicular cells synthesis and secretion of thyroid hormones (T3, T4)

T3
أي هرمون الخلية الجارية

shape simple cuboidal cells.

Nucleus central and rounded.

cytoplasm basophilic

protein synthesis
أي جزيئات الخلية الجارية
أي جزيئات الخلية الجارية

Basophilic
أي جزيئات الخلية الجارية

The cells change their shape according to the degree of activity:-

Active

columnar

squamous.

Synthesis of Thyroid Hormons:-

1. synthesis of thyroglobulin (glycoprotein)

A. The protein part is synthesized from the amino acids tyrosine by the rough endoplasmic reticulum.

B. The golgi apparatus adds carbohydrates to the protein to form thyroglobulin and packed into secretory vesicles.

C. The secretory vesicles are discharged into the lumen of follicle by exocytosis where thyroglobulin contributes in the formation of the colloid.

2. Uptake of iodide:- The follicular cells take the iodide from the capillaries oxidation into iodine released to the follicular lumen.

3. Iodination of thyroglobulin:- takes place in the colloid to form monoiodo-tyrosine and diiodo-tyrosine

4. Formation of T3 and T4 by coupling reaction in the colloid, where they are stored in the lumen of the follicle.

5. Release of T3 and T4:-

TSR endocytosis of the colloid

in endocytic vesicles by the follicular

cells -> fusion of the vesicles with lysosomes

-> hydrolysis -> release of T3 and T4 to

the blood stream.

→ T₃ → Diiodotyrosine + Monoiodotyrosine.
 → T₄ → Diiodotyrosine + diiodotyrosine.

↳ in ~~Heart~~ Electron microscope the para follicular cells appears polypeptides secreting cells.

→ Follicular cells →
 - Basally → IER
 - Apically →

↳ Moderate amount of organelles because of it it appears pale.

1. supranuclear golgi → secretory vesicles
2. secretory vesicles containing thyroglobulin
3. Microvilli → Enzymes surface area ↑
 peroxidase
 catalyze the oxidation of iodide to iodine
4. Endocytotic vesicles and lysosomes.

↳ infra nuclear golgi →
 ↳ secretory granules are small

and basal →
 capillaries.

→ The thyroid gland is unique gland which stores its hormone precursor as a colloid extracellular and Not intracellular.

→ it is stored for 2-3 months, and because of that the decreasing in the thyroid hormones start after 2-3 months.

→ secretory granule store the protein inside itself → so the thyroid granule doesn't have secretory granules.

- ParaFollicular cells (C cells)

↳ synthesis and secretion of calcitonin
 Decrease blood Ca^{level} ↓
 ↳ cytoplasm → pale (clear cells).

↳ Their basal surface rest on the follicular basement membrane but their apical surfaces never reach the lumen of the follicle.

