

# Physiologic effects of mineralocorticoids pineal gland biology essay

[Science](#), [Biology](#)



Released: Melatonin  
Function: Regulates the body's internal clock responding to light and dark as well as sleep/wake rhythms. Melatonin can also have an inhibitory effect on the sexual glands by decreasing stimulation of these organs by the brain

D) Thyroid  
Released: Thyroxine (T4) and triiodothyronine (T3)  
Function: Regulates growth and development. They also help maintain our body's core temperature and metabolic levels (<http://www.medadvocate.net/complimentary/ThyroidFunctionOverview.pdf>, 2009)

Released: Calcitonin  
Function: Decreases rate of bone breakdown, It also prevents large increase in blood calcium levels

E) Parathyroids  
Releases: Parathyroid (PTH)  
Function: Increases rate of bone breakdown by osteoclasts; increases vitamin D synthesis, essential for maintenance of normal blood calcium levels

continued

F) Thymus  
Release: Thymosin  
Function: helps in the development of certain white blood cells, called T cells. T cells help protect the body against infection by foreign organisms. The thymus gland is most important early in life, becoming smaller in the adult.

G) Adrenal cortex:  
Released: Glucocorticoids (cortisol)  
Function: Raise blood glucose level; stimulate breakdown of protein, and increases blood concentration of amino acids. It also promotes the release of fatty acids from adipose tissue.

Released: Mineralocorticoids (aldosterone)  
Function: stimulates the exchange of sodium and potassium by reabsorbing sodium and excreting potassium

Released: Sex hormones  
Function: Stimulate reproductive organs and bring about sex characteristics

Adrenal medulla: Released: Epinephrine and norepinephrine  
Function: in situations of fear or stress Epinephrine and norepinephrine can be released this causes an increase in heart rate, widening of blood vessels (increasing blood flow), widening of bronchi and a

breakdown of glycogen to glucose, this in turn raises the blood sugar level.

Metabolic rate also increasesH) Pancreas: Released: InsulinFunction:

secreted by the beta cells of the pancreas in situations of high blood sugar. It

allows muscles, red blood cells and fat to take in excess glucose from the

blood, Lowering blood glucose levels. It also promotes formation of

glycogenReleased: GlucagonFunction: if the blood sugar level in the body is

low glucagon is released from the alpha cells in the pancreas, causing the

liver to release stored glucose, Raising the blood glucose level

## **I) Testes:**

Released: Androgens (testosterone)Function: responsible for the growth and

developmentof the male reproductive structures, muscle enlargement,

growth of body hair, voice changes, and the male sexualdrive. J) Ovaries:

Released: Estrogens and progesteroneFunction: development and function of

female reproductive structuresand other female sexual characteristics.

These characteristicsinclude enlargement of the breasts and distribution of

fat, which influences the shape of the hips, breasts, and legs. Thefemale

menstrual cycle is controlled by the cyclical release ofestrogen and

progesterone from the ovaries.

## **Task 2**

List all hormones produced by the adrenal cortex and medulla (see figure

B)The adrenal medulla secretes two major hormones:

epinephrine(adrenaline), 80%, and norepinephrine (noradrenaline) 20%. As

well as a trace of dopamine. The adrenal cortex secretes three hormone

types: mineralocorticoids which include aldosteroneAnd glucocorticoids

which include cortisol and cortisone. The adrenal cortex also secretes androgens (sex hormones like testosterone or androsterone). (Criterion 1. 2) Figure 8.12 Adrenal cortex/adrenal medulla. 2a. Explain the physiological effects of the catecholamines. Catecholamines such as epinephrine and norepinephrine. Adrenaline binds to receptors on the heart, arteries, pancreas, liver, muscles and fatty tissue. The main overall effect is to increase alertness and stamina during situations of fear, stress or danger. Epinephrine and norepinephrine have different physiological functions as shown in the table below.

## Function Affected

### Epinephrine

### Norepinephrine

Function Affected	Epinephrine	Norepinephrine
Heart rate	Increases	Increases
Force of contraction	Increases	Increases
Blood vessels	Vessels in skeletal muscle widen, decreasing resistance to blood flow	Vessels in skin and viscera constrict, increasing resistance to blood flow
Blood flow to skeletal muscles	Increases	Decreases
Systemic blood pressure	Some increase	Great increase due to vasoconstriction, output counteracted in muscle blood vessels
Airways	Dilated	Some dilation
Reticular formation of brain	Activated	Little effect
Liver	Promotes breakdown of glycogen to glucose, increasing blood sugar level	Little effect on blood sugar
Metabolic rate	Increases	Increases

2b. Explain the physiological effects of the mineralocorticoids and the glucocorticoids.

## **Physiologic Effects of Mineralocorticoids**

Mineralocorticoids help regulate sodium and potassium in the body. A lack of these hormones can be life threatening, due to abnormalities in electrolyte and fluid balance. Aldosterone is the most important mineralocorticoid, The major target of Mineralocorticoids and in particular aldosterone is the kidney, where it stimulates the exchange of sodium and potassium, it does this in three ways

- 1) Increases absorption of sodium and therefore less sodium is lost in urine
- 2) Increases absorption of water, which in turn aids sodium absorption as there is more fluid inside the body causing an osmotic effect.
- 3) Increases excretion of potassium via the kidney

Aldosterone also has effects on sweat glands, salivary glands and the colon which all aid with the retention of sodium

## **Physiologic Effects of Glucocorticoids**

Cortisol (hydrocortisone) is a glucocorticoid, which means it affects glucose metabolism. In addition to affecting glucose, cortisol influences protein and fat metabolism. Cortisol inhibits the synthesis of protein in various tissues, and increases blood concentration of amino acids. It promotes the release of fatty acids from adipose tissue, increasing the use of fatty acids as an energy source and decreasing the use of glucose as an energy source. It stimulates liver cells to synthesize glucose from noncarbohydrates (gluconeogenesis), such as circulating amino acids and glycerol, thus increasing blood glucose concentration. Cortisol's actions help keep the blood glucose concentration within the normal range between meals. These actions are important because just a few hours without food can

exhaust liver glycogen, another major source of glucose. Cortisol also relieves pain by • decreasing permeability of capillaries, preventing leakage of fluids that swell surrounding tissues • stabilizing lysosomal membranes, preventing release of their enzymes, which destroy tissue • inhibiting prostaglandin synthesis (Criteria 1. 2, 2. 1 and 2. 2, Max 150 each) Explain how and when adrenaline is secreted by the adrenal glands (Criteria 2. 2 and 3. 4 Max 150) When the brain perceives an environment as threatening, stressful or exciting, the hypothalamus signals to the adrenal glands to produce adrenaline. Adrenaline is produced in the adrenal medulla which are located on top of the kidney. The adrenal medulla converts tyrosine into dopamine. When dopamine receives oxygen it turns into noradrenaline this is then converted to adrenaline. Adrenaline binds to receptors on the heart, arteries, pancreas, liver, muscles and fatty tissue. This in turn increases the heart rate, widens the blood vessels (increasing blood flow), widens the bronchi and breaks down glycogen to glucose, this in turn raises the blood sugar level providing energy/fuel in a flight or fight situation. Metabolic rate also increases

### **Task 3**

1. Explain what happens if blood calcium levels rise above 11mg/100ml 99% of calcium ions ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) in the body is contained in the bones and teeth. The remaining 1% (around 1.5 grams) is contained in the blood. The blood calcium levels are regulated by hormones and kept within the range of 9mg/100ml to 11mg/100ml. If the blood calcium levels rise above 11mg/100ml in the blood it is termed hypercalcemia. Hypocalcemia increases

the permeability of plasma membranes to Na. As a result, nerve and muscle tissues undergo spontaneous action. Hypercalcemia prevents normal depolarization of nerve and muscle cells. High levels of Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels cause the deposits of calcium carbonate salts in soft tissues to build up, causing irritation and inflammation. When the calcium levels rise, the thyroid gland releases Calcitonin, this reduces Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels. Bones can also play a role in reducing blood calcium levels, by inhibiting calcium from bone into the blood. Explain what happens if blood calcium levels drop below 9mg/100ml

When the blood calcium levels drop below 9mg/100ml it is termed Hypocalcemia . Hypocalcemia means an increase in the permeability of plasma membranes to Na. As a result, nerve and muscle tissues undergo spontaneous action. As a result the para- thyroid gland secretes parathyroid hormone (PTH) resulting in increased numbers of osteoclasts, which causes increased bone breakdown allowing more calcium to enter the blood, raising calcium levels. PTH also regulates blood calcium levels by increasing calcium uptake in the small intestine Increased PTH promotes the formation of vitamin D in the kidneys, and vitamin D increases the absorption of calcium from the small intestine. PTH also increases the reabsorption of calcium from urine in the kidneys, which reduces calcium lost in the urine. Explain the positive feedback mechanism by which oxytocin promotes labour contracts during birth. Stretching of the uterine and vaginal tissues towards the end of a pregnancy during labour initiates nerve impulses to the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus signals the posterior pituitary gland to release the hormone oxytocin. Oxytocin promotes uterine contractions. As the fetus is pushed more against the cervix, more oxytocin is released in a continuous positive

feedback cycle Combined with the greater excitability of the myometrium due to the decline in progesterone secretion, oxytocin aids labor in its later stages. Oxytocin promotes uterine contractions in two ways. Oxytocin stimulates the release of prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> and prostaglandin F<sub>2a</sub> in fetal membranes by activation of phospholipase C. The prostaglandins stimulate uterine contractility. Oxytocin can also directly induce myometrial contractions through phospholipase C, which in turn activates calcium channels and the release of calcium from intracellular stores. (Criterion 3. 3, Max 150 each)

#### **Task 4**

1. List all hormones produced by the anterior and posterior pituitary (Criterion 1. 2) The Anterior Pituitary (Adenohypophysis) Produces the following hormones, Prolactin, Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), Luteinizing hormone (LH), Melanocyte hormone (MSH), Beta Endorphins, Lipotropins Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) and Growth hormone (GH). The Posterior Pituitary (Neurohypophysis), produces, Antidiuretic hormone (ADH) and oxytocin

#### **Posterior Pituitary (Neurohypophysis)**

ADH ADH promotes the retention of water by the kidneys so that less water is excreted in the urine and more water is retained in the blood. oxytocin stimulates contractions of the uterus during labor. Oxytocin also stimulates contractions of the mammary gland alveoli and ducts, which result in the milk-ejection reflex in a lactating woman. In men, a rise in oxytocin secretion



at the time of ejaculation has been measured, but the physiological significance of this hormone in males remains to be demonstrated.

### **Anterior Pituitary (Adenohypophysis)**

GH acts on the liver, stimulating it to produce another hormone called growth factors. It is this second hormone, which directly affects the growth of bone and muscle. GH also increases glycogen synthesis, blood glucose levels and somatomedin production. TSH stimulates thyroid hormone secretion. ACTH binds to membrane-bound receptors on cells of the adrenal cortex and stimulates the secretion of glucocorticoids. Lipotropins increase fat breakdown. Beta Endorphins help with pain relief in the brain and also inhibition of gonadotropin-releasing hormone secretion. MSH function is to increase melanin production in melanocytes to make the skin darker in color. LH stimulates Ovulation and progesterone production in ovaries; testosterone synthesis and support for sperm cell production in testes. FSH stimulates Follicle maturation and estrogen secretion in ovaries as well as sperm cell production in testes. Prolactin stimulates Milk production in lactating women however it has an unclear physiological effect in males.

2a. Explain the physiological effects of the anterior pituitary hormones.

2b. Explain the physiological effects of the posterior pituitary hormones. (Criteria

1. 2, 2. 1 and 2. 2, Max 150 each)

3a. Describe how and when ADH is secreted by the posterior pituitary. Antidiuretic hormone (ADH), is secreted by the posterior pituitary gland. The release of ADH from the posterior pituitary is regulated by the hypothalamus. Certain cells of the hypothalamus are sensitive to changes in the solute concentration of the fluid within the

hypothalamus. An increased solute concentration of the blood and fluid results in messenger hormones being sent along the axons of the ADH secreting neurons of the hypothalamus to the posterior pituitary, causing ADH to be released from the ends of the axons. A reduced solute concentration in the blood and interstitial fluid within the hypothalamus causes inhibition of ADH release. Baroreceptors that monitor blood pressure also influence ADH secretion. Increased blood pressure causes a decrease in ADH secretion, and decreased blood pressure increases ADH secretion<sup>3b</sup>.

Describe how and when ACTH is secreted by the anterior pituitary (Criterion 3.1 and 3.4, Max 150 each) When the brain receives signals of stress, the hypothalamus releases Corticotrophin which travels down the hypothalamohypophysial portal system, to the anterior pituitary gland. In the anterior pituitary CRH binds to and stimulates cells that secrete adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH). During this process several other hormones are also created such as lipoproteins, Beta-endorphins, Met-enkephalins and Melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH). ACTH is then released into the blood stream and attaches to the adrenal gland, stimulating the adrenal cortex to secrete glucocorticoids such as cortisol. It doesn't control aldosterone (the other hormone secreted by the adrenal cortex). Cortisol inhibits CRH and ACTH secretion. And is thus called a negative feedback loop (<http://www.vivo.colostate.edu/hbooks/pathphys/endocrine/hypopit/acth.html>, 2012) Explain the functional relationship between the hypothalamus and the pituitary gland (see Figure C) Hypothalamic Control of the Posterior Pituitary Both of the posterior pituitary hormones—ADH and oxytocin, are actually produced in

neuron cell bodies of the supraoptic nuclei and paraventricular nuclei of the hypothalamus. These nuclei within the hypothalamus are thus endocrine glands. The hormones they produce are transported along axons of the hypothalamo-hypophyseal tract to the posterior pituitary, where they are stored and later released. The posterior pituitary is thus more a storage organ than a producing gland. The release of ADH and oxytocin from the posterior pituitary is controlled by neuroendocrine reflexes. In nursing mothers, for example, the mechanical stimulus of suckling acts, via sensory nerve impulses to the hypothalamus, to stimulate the reflex secretion of oxytocin. The secretion of ADH is stimulated by osmoreceptor neurons in the hypothalamus in response to a rise in blood osmotic pressure; its secretion is inhibited by sensory impulses from stretch receptors in the left atrium of the heart in response to a rise in blood volume.

#### Hypothalamic Control of the Anterior Pituitary

The anterior pituitary is not really the master gland, since secretion of its hormones is in turn controlled by hormones secreted by the hypothalamus.

#### Releasing and Inhibiting Hormones

Since axons do not enter the anterior pituitary, the hypothalamus controls the anterior pituitary with hormones as opposed to neural regulation. Hormones, produced by the hypothalamus, are transported to the axon endings in the basal portion of the hypothalamus. This area has extremely small blood vessels. The blood vessels that drain the hypothalamus deliver blood to a second set of blood vessels in the anterior pituitary. Since these blood vessels below the blood vessels in the hypothalamus, receive and receive deoxygenated blood from it, the vascular link between the outer part of the hypothalamus and the anterior pituitary forms a portal system. The vascular link between the

hypothalamus and the anterior pituitary is thus called the hypothalamohypophyseal portal system. Regulatory hormones are secreted into the hypothalamohypophyseal portal system by neurons of the hypothalamus. These hormones regulate the anterior pituitary. Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) stimulates the secretion of TSH. Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) stimulates the secretion of ACTH from the anterior pituitary. A single releasing hormone, gonadotropin-releasing hormone, or GnRH, stimulates the secretion of both gonadotropin hormones (FSH and LH) from the anterior pituitary. Prolactin and the growth hormone from the (anterior pituitary) is regulated by hormones, known as prolactin-inhibiting hormone (PIH) and somatostatin. A specific growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH)