

reflex

As this reflex is initiated
by nervous factor & completed
by hormonal action $\rightarrow$ neuroendocrine
reflex

Another ex: is parturition reflex

Descent of baby $\rightarrow$ dilatation of
cervix $\rightarrow$ rec. of cervix are
stimulated $\rightarrow$ afferent impulse
reach hypothalamic nuclei $\rightarrow$
 $\uparrow$ in secretion of oxytocin $\rightarrow$

$\uparrow$ uterine contraction. [diagram
from text]

Therapeutic use of oxytocin

- Induction of labor
- Arresting uterine bleeding
- Used in dairy farming to $\uparrow$ milk output

Thyroid gland

- Thyroid gland is the largest endocrine gland of the body
- It is a bilobed gland situated in front of trachea
- The two lobes of human thyroid are connected by a bridge of tissue, the thyroid isthmus, and there is sometimes a pyramidal lobe arising

from the isthmus in front of larynx

- The gland is well vascularized, and the thyroid has one of the highest rates of blood flow per gram of tissue of any organ in the body.

- The gland has 2 1° fn.

- The first is to secrete the thyroid hormones, which maintain the level of metabolism in tissues

- The second fn of thyroid gland is to secrete calcitonin, a hormone that regulates circulating level of Ca^{2+}

Histology of Thyroid gland.

- A no. of lobules are present in thyroid gland.
- Each lobule contains 20-40 acini or follicles
- Acini form the structural & final unit of gland
- Each acinus is surrounded by a single layer of cuboidal follicular cells, and is filled with proteinaceous material called colloid.
- Main constituent of colloid is a big protein molecule - thyroglobulin which contains thyroid hormones attached to it.

- The size of the follicle varies with the activity of the gland.
- When inactive, the amt of colloid is abundant & the follicle will be large with flat epithelial cells.
- When the gland is active, the follicle is smaller in size, amt of colloid is less & cells lining are cuboidal/columnar.

Hormones of thyroid gland

- * Thyroxine - T_4
- * Triiodothyronine - T_3
- * Calcitonin

Biosynthesis of thyroid hormones

Imp

- Iodine is essential for the synthesis of thyroid hormone
- It is ingested in the form of iodides
- Dietary iodide is absorbed by the intestine & enters the circulation.
- The minimum daily iodine intake that will maintain normal thyroid fn is $150 \mu\text{g}$ in adults
- The principal organs that take up circulating Iodine - are the thyroid, which uses it to make thyroid hormones, and the kidneys, which excrete it in urine.

Synthesis & Secretion of thyroglobulin

- Thyroglobulin is a large glycoprotein synthesised on RER of thyroid epithelial cells.
- The completed glycoprotein is contained in small vesicles, which move to the apical plasma membrane and release into the lumen of the follicle.
- Each molecule of thyroglobulin contains about 140 tyrosine residues which can serve as substrate for iodine for the formation of thyroid hormones.
- It is also the storage site of 2 hormones - within the thyroid gland.

Steps in synthesis of thyroid hormone

① IODIDE TRAPPING

- * Iodide is transported from blood to thyroid cells
- * The RMP of follicular cells is -50 mV .
- * Iodide is actively transported against the electric gradient into the cell by iodide pump, a Na^+/I^- co transporter which is situated in the basal membrane of the thyroid cell.

- From the thyroid cell iodide is transported into the colloid by a Cl^-/I^- exchanger, known as pendrin

* Iodide trapping is stimulated by TSH & inhibited by percholate & thiocyanate

② OXIDATION OF IODIDE

* The iodide is then immediately oxidised to iodine by the enzyme peroxidase present near the apical border of epithelial cells.

* Thyroid is the only tissue that can oxidize iodide to iodine

* TSH promotes this $\text{I}^- \rightarrow \text{I}_2$ while antithyroid drugs (thiourea, thiouracil, methimazole) inhibit

③ ORGANIFICATION OF THYROGLOBULIN

Iodination of tyrosine residues present in the thyroglobulin molecule

* This $\text{I}^- \rightarrow \text{I}_2$ occurs at the apical membrane of the cell as soon as thyroglobulin molecule is released by the secretory granules by exocytosis, and requires thyroid peroxidase

* Tyrosine (of thyroglobulin) is first iodinated @ posn 3 to form mono-iodotyrosine (MIT) & then @ posn 5 to form diiodotyrosine (DIT)

- This $\text{I}^- \rightarrow \text{I}_2$ is also stimulated by thyroid peroxidase

④ COUPLING REACTION

* Two molecules of DIT couple to form Thyroxine (T_4)

* One molecule of MIT, when coupled with one molecule of DIT, triiodothyronine (T_3) is produced

* When condensation of DIT occurs with MIT, reverse $-\text{T}_3$ (RT_3) is formed.

* Enzyme peroxidase is required during coupling as well as for iodination

* Once thyroglobulin has been iodinated, it is stored in the lumen of the follicle as colloid for several months.

HORMONE SECRETION

* The colloid containing iodinated thyroglobulin is retrieved from the lumen of the follicle by the epithelial cells through endocytosis

* By this process, the colloid enters the cytoplasm in the form of colloid droplets, which move through the cytoplasm towards the basal membrane

* The colloid droplets fuse with the lysosome vesicles containing proteolytic enz.

* The protease digest the thyroglobulin molecule releasing T_4 , T_3 , DIT, MIT & other a.a constituents into the cytoplasm of epithelial cells.

• T_4 & T_3 diffuse through the basal border of epithelial cells into the bloodstream.

• MIT & DIT are rapidly deiodinated within the follicular cells by the enz. iodothyrosine deiodinase.

* T_4 is the 1^o hormone secreted by the thyroid gland but T_3 has much biological activity than T_4 .

• Secreted T_4 & T_3 circulate in the bloodstream in 2 forms: bound & free.

• T_4 is more tightly bound to plasma protein than T_3 .

• T_3 is specifically generated at its site of action in peripheral tissues by deiodination of T_4 .

• T_3 is seen more in the free form & it has greater affinity for thyroid receptors. T_3 has a shorter half life and action is rapid.

• ~~T_4 some~~ Some T_4 is converted to RT_3 & RT_3 is physiologically inert.

Metabolism of thyroid hormones

• Thyroid hormones are metabolised in the liver, kidney & many other tissues.

• 80% of T_4 & T_3 are deiodinated into iodothyrosines.

• 20% of T_3 & T_4 undergo conjugation in liver to glucuronides & sulphates.

• These enter bile & in the intestine undergoes hydrolysis.

• A portion of iodine released undergoes enterohepatic circulation & rest is excreted through feces.

• Rest of the unbound & unconjugated T_3 & T_4 undergoes oxidation, decarboxylation, deamination & deiodination in liver & muscle into tetraiodothyroacetic & triiodothyroacetic acid.

Mechanism of action

• T_3 binds to specific thyroid receptors in the nucleus → hormone receptor complex → binds to the DNA molecule → specific mRNA is formed → specific enzymes → physiological action.

* Thyroxine synthesizes more Na-K ATPase and more of ATP is utilised by the cell.

* Thyroxine ↑ the number & size of mitochondria & leads to ↑ production of ATP.

[pending] (also myxo)

Actions of TSH

• TSH stimulates thyroid synthesis and secretion influencing almost all involved in it.

• This includes iodide iodide binding, synthesis and T_4 coupling in thyroglobulin into the endocytosis of colloid.

• TSH ↑ blood supply to gland.

• TSH ↑ the size of

• It causes growth of thyroid gland, in TSH; cause thy or goitre.

Regulation of thyroid

• TSH from ant. pit. 1^o regulatory factor.

• TSH is essential for growth and secretion of the thyroid gland.

• TSH secretion from ant. pit. is regulated by 2^o & 3^o factors.

[pending]

(also thyroid test)

15/3/23 Actions of TSH

- TSH stimulates thyroid hormone synthesis and secretion by influencing almost all the steps involved in it.
- This includes iodide trapping, iodide binding, synthesis of T_3 and T_4 (coupling in), secretion of thyroglobulin into the colloid & endocytosis of colloid
- TSH $\uparrow$ blood supply to thyroid gland
- TSH $\uparrow$ the size & no. of
- It causes growth & hypertrophy of thyroid gland, $\therefore$ chronic size in TSH; cause thyroid hypertrophy or goitre

Regulation of thyroid hormone

- TSH from ant. pituitary is the 1^o regulatory factor of thyroid gland.
- TSH is essential for the normal growth and secretory activity of the thyroid gland
- TSH secretion from ant. pit. is regulated by 2 mechanisms

- -ve feedback mechanism through conc. of circulating thyroid hormone

• A 2nd

Regulation

- Hypothalamus produces thyrotrophin releasing hormone, which stimulates the release of TSH from ant. pit.
- Negative feedback mechanism through conc. of circulating thyroid hormones may affect TRH from hypothalamus
- Nervous stimuli like emotion, stress & exposure to cold, etc. may effect TRH release from hypothalamus

Intrinsic mechanism of regulation

- Iodide is an imp. factor regulating the synthesis of thyroid hormones.
- when iodide intake is $\uparrow$ sed, iodide conc. in the gland is $\uparrow$ sed & it inhibits thyroid hormone synthesis - Wolff Chaikoff effect
- when there is deficiency of iodine content in the diet then the iodine trapping mechanism of the follicular cells becomes efficient.

Diseases of thyroid gland

- Normally functioning thyroid

↳ Euthyroid

- D/s result in hyperfunctioning or hypofunctioning of the gland
- Most imp. clinical condition is called goitre.
- Other conditions are thyroiditis & thyroid carcinoma.

Goitre

- Goitre refers to any abnormal ↑ in the size of thyroid gland.
- The term goitre does not denote the functional status of thyroid gland, because it may be associated with:
 - Euthyroid, i.e. normal thyroid hormone level.
 - Hypothyroidism, ↓ thyroid level
 - Hyperthyroidism, ↑ thyroid level

ENDOCRINE PANCREAS

- Dr. Meena Arum

- Exocrine & endocrine part

- Exocrine : 80%

- Endocrine: cluster of cells called islets of Langerhans

Islets of Langerhans

- 1-2 million cells
- Scattered within pancreas, abundant in tail

Depending on staining properties,

α cells secrete glucagon

β cells secrete Insulin, amylin

δ cells secrete somatostatin

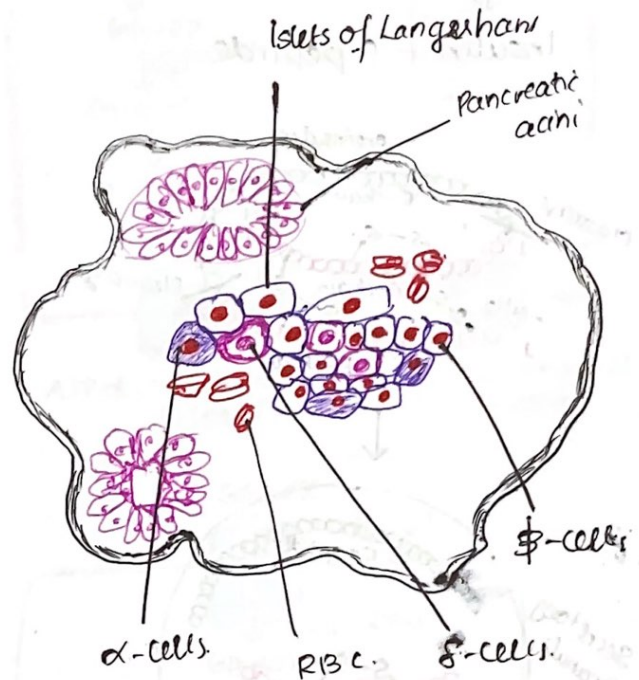
F cells secrete pancreatic poly-peptide

- β cells / B cells are most abundant forms central mass (60-75%)

- α cells / A cells constitute outer rim (20%)

- δ cells / D cells interposed b/w the rim of β & α cells

- Rest of cells (PP cells) are seen scattered.



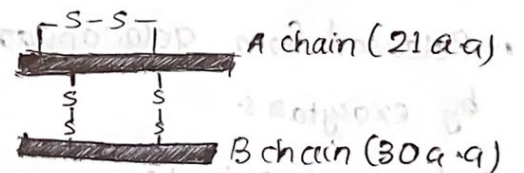
INSULIN

- Discovered by Banting & Best

- Insulin is a polypeptide hormone containing two chains of amino acids linked by disulfide bridges

- A chain = 21 a.a B chain = 30 a.a

- Only hypoglycemic hormone in the body



Synthesis of Insulin

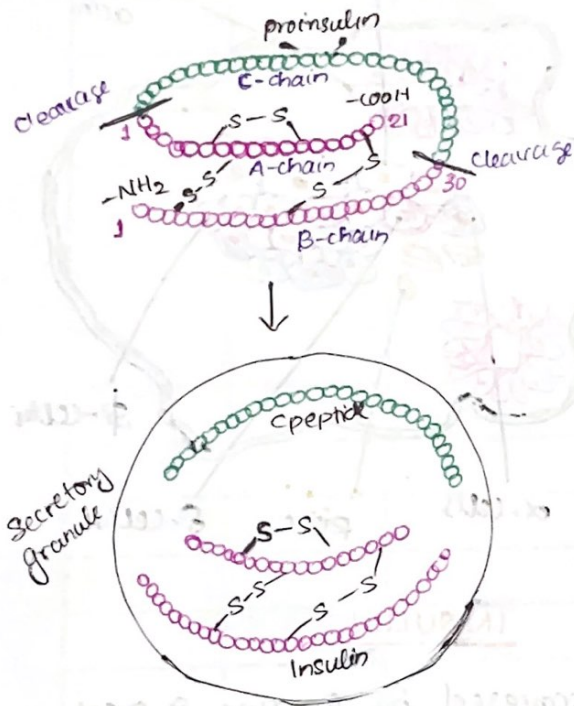
Proproinsulin



pro insulin



Insulin + C peptide



occurs in RER of β cells & transported to golgi apparatus & packed in membrane bound granules

Insulin & C peptide are packaged in the secretory granules and secreted in equimolar amounts with 5-10% proinsulin.

- Released from golgi apparatus by exocytosis.

$t_{1/2} = 5$ minutes

- Target organ: liver, muscle, adipose tissue

- Degraded by insulinase in liver, kidneys

C-Peptide

- ★ Levels indicate β cell activity... measured in diabetic patients to assess the amount of natural insulin secretion (much decreased in Type 1 diabetes)

- Activates Na/K ATPase and Endothelial NO synthase

How glucose enters the cell

2 mechanisms:

- facilitated diffusion via glucose transporters
- secondary active transport with sodium via sodium dependent glucose transporters SGLT (intestine & kidney)

Amount of glucose entering the cell depends on the conc. of glucose

Glucose transporters (GLUT)

7 types identified (GLUT-1 to GLUT-7)

- GLUT-1 & GLUT-3 - in most tissues specially CNS & RBC for basal uptake of glucose

organ: liver, muscle, adipose tissue

d by insulinase in kidneys

Peptide

indicate β cell activity...
diabetic patients
the amount of natural secretion, (much decreased diabetes)

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& kidney)

glucose entering the
on the conc. of glucose

transporters (GLUT)

identified (GLUT-1 to GLUT-7)

GLUT-3 - in most tissues
is β RBC for basal uptake

GLUT-2 - β -cells, liver, intestine, kidney

GLUT-4 - skeletal m., & adipose tissue
↓ * most insulin sensitive

★ For most of the CNS cells insulin is not needed for glucose entry. Glucose is the main source of energy.

Insulin independent glucose entry can occur in skeletal muscles during exercise.

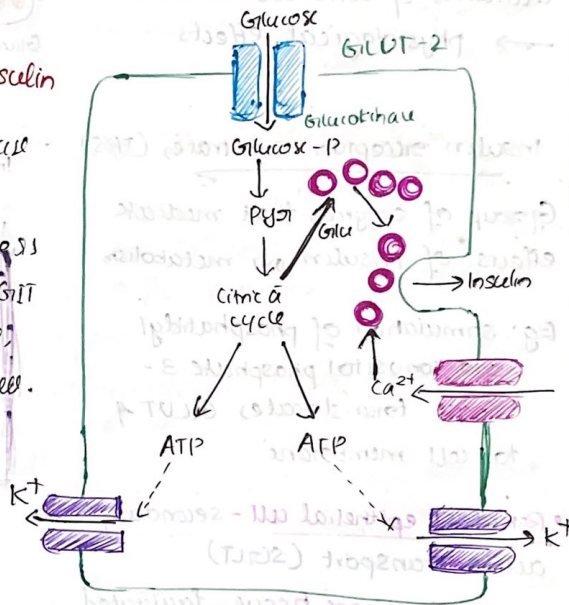
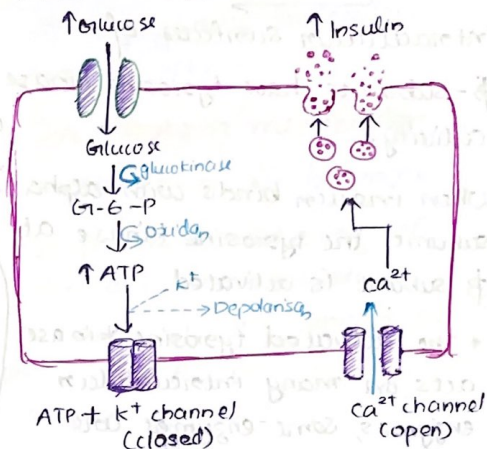
★ Mechanism of release of Insulin

- Most potent stimulus for release of insulin - Glucose
- Following a meal - glucose enters the portal circulation from GIT ... glucose is a large molecule, so can't diffuse freely into the cell.

Insulin receptor.

- Glycoprotein tetramers
- 2 α & 2 β subunits
- α subunit extracellularly
- β subunit transverse the membrane
- The α & β subunits are linked to each other by disulphide bonds

Mechanism of insulin release from β -cells

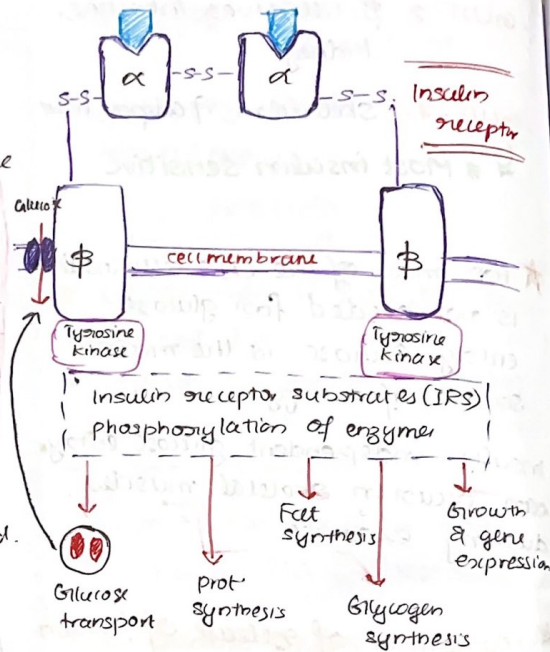


Mechanism of action of Insulin

Intracellular surfaces of β -subunits have tyrosine kinase activity.

When insulin binds with alpha subunit, the tyrosine kinase at β subunit is activated.

* The activated tyrosine kinase acts on many intracellular enzymes, some enzymes are activated & some are inactivated.
→ physiological effects

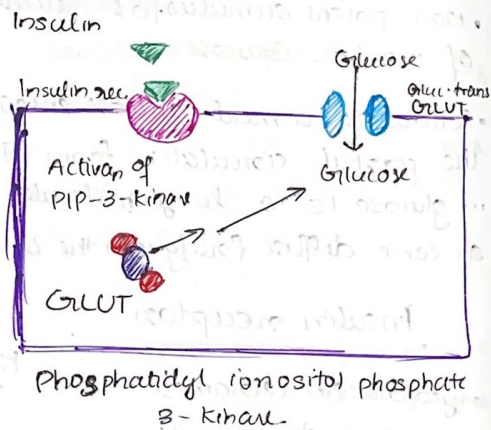


Insulin Receptor Substrates (IRS)

Group of enzymes that mediate effects of insulin on metabolism

Eg: stimulation of phosphatidylinositol phosphate 3-kinase translocates GLUT 4 to cell membrane

- Renal & epithelial cell - secondary active transport (SGLT)
- Muscle & adipose tissue - facilitated diffusion by GLUT-4
- Exercise - more GLUT insert, not insulin dependent
- Glucose entry into majority of brain cells is not insulin dep.



Glucose is the main source of energy for the brain cells (for retina & germinal epithelium of gonads also)

Actions of Insulin

"Hormone of Abundance"

- Secreted when nutrient abundant

Actions : on metabolism
on growth
other actions

ON METABOLISM

* On carbohydrate m

Hypoglycemic hormone

- ↓ blood glucose
- ↑ glucose entry into sensitive cells by insulin GLUT transporters

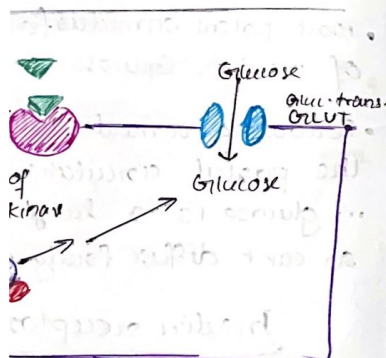
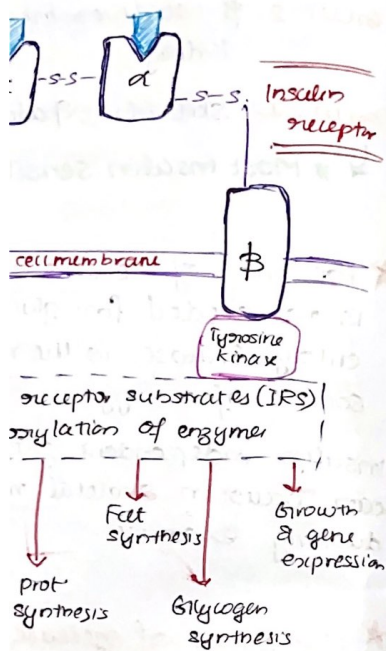
- ↑ peripheral utilization of glucose (Glycolysis in muscle are promoted)

• promotes storage of glucose as glycogen (Glycogen used to 5-6%)

Glycogen synthase

• converts excess glucose to fatty acids & stores in tissue (+ Lipoprotein hormone sensitive lipase)

• Inhibits glycogenolysis (inactivate glycogen phosphorylase)



Adyl (omosit) phosphate
B-kinase

is the main source of
the brain cells
na & germinal epithelium
s also)

Actions of Insulin

"Hormone of Abundance"

- Secreted when nutrients are abundant

Actions : on metabolism
on growth
other actions

ON METABOLISM

* On carbohydrate metabolism

Hypoglycemic hormone:

- $\downarrow$ blood glucose
- $\uparrow$ glucose entry into insulin sensitive cells by inserting GLUT transporters
- $\uparrow$ peripheral utilization of glucose (Glycolysis in liver & muscle are promoted)
- promotes storage of glucose as glycogen (Glycogen storage used to 5-6% liver mass. Glycogen synthase is stimulated)
- converts excess glucose to fatty acids & store it in adipose tissue (+ Lipoprotein lipase & - hormone sensitive lipase)
- Inhibits glycogenolysis (Inactivate glycogen phosphorylase)

Inhibits gluconeogenesis.
(Inactivate glycogen formation of new glucose molecules from amino acids)

On Protein metabolism

Protein anabolic hormone

1. It promotes the entry of amino acids into the cell.
2. Inhibits gluconeogenesis so that more AA are available for protein synthesis.
3. Acts directly on ribosomes & stimulates translation of mRNA
4. Inhibits catabolism of proteins

On Lipid Metabolism

Fat sparing action of insulin (glucose utilized for energy) leads to $\uparrow$ fat synthesis in adipose tissue

$\uparrow$ synthesis of f.a from acetyl CoA in the liver.

promotes triglyceride transport & deposit in adipose tissue.

Fatty a are packed into triglycerides in the liver & transported in the form of VLDL & deposited in adipose tissues... activate lipoprotein lipase

- Inhibits lipolysis by inhibiting the action of hormone sensitive lipase

- Increase the transport of glucose into adipose tissue (glucose used for forming α -glycerol phosphate which supplies glycerol for the formation of triglycerides)

• Anti-ketogenic action:

In the presence of insulin only minute amounts of ketone bodies like acetoacetate are formed and they are completely utilized in the peripheries

On cholesterol metabolism

Insulin is required for the utilization of VLDL & LDL. In diabetics, plasma cholesterol $\uparrow$ ser.

ON GROWTH

- $\uparrow$ protein synthesis promotes growth
- Insulin acts synergistically with GH (growth hormone) to stimulate growth.

- $\uparrow$ availability of glucose in cells $\rightarrow$ favour growth

OTHER ACTIONS

1. Stimulates entry of K^+ into cells.
2. decrease plasma potassium levels.
3. stimulate Na-K ATPase
4. $\uparrow$ entry of phosphate & magnesium into cell
5. Insulin inhibits Glucagon $\uparrow$ secretion.

RAPID ACTION OF INSULIN (in seconds):

Increase transport of glucose, α -G and potassium into insulin sensitive cells

INTERMEDIATE ACTIONS (minutes)

- Stimulate glycolysis & glycogen synthesis
- Inhibit gluconeogenesis
- Stimulate protein synthesis and inhibit catabolism

LATE / DELAYED ACTIONS (hours)

- Increase mRNA for fat synthesis

NSILA (Non suppressible Insulin like activity)

- Plasma contains a few substances in addition to insulin, with insulin like activity

- Their actions persist even after pancreatectomy

- IGF 1 & IGF 2

★ Normal plasma glucose

- * Fasting Blood Glucose (FBS) :- 80 - 100 mg/dL

- * Postprandial blood Glucose :- $\leq$ 140 mg/dL

Glycated Hb (HbA1c): less

★ Regulation of insulin

1. Blood glucose levels
2. Blood amino acid levels
3. Hormonal regulation
4. Neural regulation

1. Blood glucose level

$\rightarrow \uparrow$ in blood glucose $\rightarrow \uparrow$ insulin secretion

$\rightarrow$ Fasting $\rightarrow$ minimal secretion

$\rightarrow$ After meals... acute $\uparrow$ in blood glucose levels $\rightarrow \uparrow$ insulin release.

Insulin released in 2 phases
BIPHASIC RESPONSE.

ER ACTIONS

↑ entry of K^+ into
↓ plasma potassium

↑ Na^+-K ATPase
↑ of phosphate &
↓ into cell
inhibits Glucagon
release.

ON OF INSULIN (in seconds):

transport of glucose,
potassium into insulin
cells

ATE ACTIONS (minutes)

glycolysis & glycogen ↑

neogenesis

protein synthesis and
lipid synthesis

ED ACTIONS (hours)

VA for fat synthesis

appressible insulin

ins a few substances
insulin, with
activity

• Their actions persist, even after
pancreaticectomy

• IGF 1 & IGF 2

★ Normal plasma glucose levels

* Fasting Blood Glucose (FBS)

:- 80 - 100 mg/dL

* Postprandial blood Glucose (PPBS)

:- ≤ 140 mg/dL

Glycated Hb (HbA1c): less than 6%.

★ Regulation of insulin secretion

1. Blood glucose levels
2. Blood amino acid levels
3. Hormonal regulation
4. Neural regulation

1. Blood glucose level

➤ ↑ in blood glucose
→ ↑ insulin secretion

➤ Fasting → minimal insulin
secretion

➤ After meals... acute increase
in blood glucose levels →
↑ insulin release.

Insulin released in 2 phases -

BIPHASIC RESPONSE.

• Sharp increase in 3-5 mts
(100 micro units/ml stored
insulin)



• Decrease in 10 mts (40-50
micro units/ml)

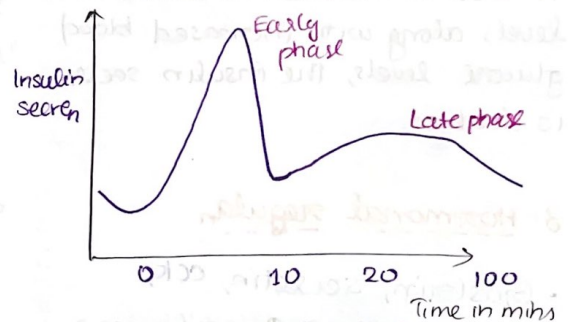


• again rise after 15-20 mts
and remain plateau for next
2-3 hrs.

In first 5 minutes - due to release
of stored insulin

After 15 mts - due to stimulation
of insulin synthesis & secretion.
Lasts for 2-3 hrs.

(intracellular Glutamate
second messenger system is
responsible for the prolonged
phase of insulin release)



★ Oral intake of glucose has a
greater insulin response than
intravenous administration.
Why?

- Oral intake causes release of a group of peptide hormones from wall of GIT - called **INCRETINS**.

• GLP-1 (L-cells), GIP (K cells), Cholecystinin (I cells)

- Incretins stimulate insulin secretion & glucose increases the secretion even further
- Vagal stimulation of β -cells primes the islets for an amplified response

2. Blood amino acids

- Arginine & lysine $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ insulin secretion

- Amino acids **potentiates** glucose stimulus for insulin secretion

- If there is increase in amino acids levels along with increased blood glucose levels, the insulin secretion is doubled.

3. Hormonal regulation

- Gastrin, secretin, CCK; GIP, GLP-1 $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ insulin secretion (after meals)
- Glucagon - $\uparrow$ insulin secretion
- Somatostatin - $\downarrow$ insulin secretion

- cortisol, ACTH, Thyroxine, GH, Estrogen, progesterone stimulates insulin secretion etc indirectly

* increased risk of diabetes in patients on long term steroids, hormone therapy, giants, acromegaly
eg: metahypophyseal diabetes

Hormones affecting blood glucose

$\uparrow$ blood glucose $\downarrow$ blood glucose

- | | |
|------------------|-----------|
| • cortisol | • Insulin |
| • ACTH | |
| • Glucagon | |
| • Growth hormone | |
| • Estrogen | |
| • Progesterone | |

Organs controlling blood glucose
Liver, skeletal muscle

4. Neural Regulation

- Parasympathetic $\rightarrow$ stimulates β -cells $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ insulin secretion
- Sympathetic effect - depends on the receptors stimulated
- β -receptors - $\uparrow$ insulin secretion
- $\alpha 2$ receptors - $\downarrow$ insulin secretion

* Net effect of E & NE on islets

is $\downarrow$ insulin secretion

Cyclic AMP & Insulin secretion

- stimuli that increase cAMP levels in β -cells $\uparrow$ insulin secretion including glucagon, β -adrenergic agonists.
- K depletion decreases insulin secretion.

Glycated Hb

- Glucose attached to terminal valine of β -chain of HbA
- Amount is proportional to blood glucose concentration
- Normal $< 6\%$
- Level of HbA_{1c} indicate the glycaemic state of an individual for past 2-3 months ($\because$ life cycle of RBC is 120 days)
 $\rightarrow$ 3-4 months.

Lecture note - Mera mada.

(Beane & Levy textbook) Table 42.2 some α_n of...

Epinephrine (β)

Norepinephrine (α)

CVS $\uparrow$ Systolic BP, $\downarrow$ Diastolic BP
 $\uparrow$ HR, $\uparrow$ CO

$\uparrow$ SBP, VC, $\uparrow$ DBP

$\uparrow$ Mean arterial pressure
 $\downarrow$ HR & $\downarrow$ CO

Other systems
Smooth m. relaxation in,
GIT, Bladder, Bronchus.

contraction of sphincters of
GIT & Bladder.

Metabolic
 $\uparrow$ Glycogenolysis &
Gluconeogenesis
 $\uparrow$ I^n secretion.

- same -
 $\downarrow$ I^n .

$\left[\begin{array}{l} \uparrow \text{lipolysis} \\ \uparrow \text{calorigenesis} \end{array} \right]$ exclusively
 $\uparrow$ EN

General adaptation syndrome

Stage of alarm

• Response to stress described by
SELYE.

• glucocorticoids & catecholamines

• 3 stages after...

1. Stage of alarm
2. " resistance
3. " exhaustion

- 6-24 hrs after exposure

- fatigue, scanty urine,

low glucose, shrinkage of
adrenal gland

(2) Stage of resistance

adaptation, recovery of animal
urine output $\uparrow$, hyperplasia
of adrenal cortex, $\uparrow$ secreted GC

Dopamine

- Produce renal & mesenteric vasodilation but vgo in other parts
- ↑ sys. BP, not much change in DBP.
- +ve inotropic effect
- Prolactin inhibitory factor
- Dopamine acts as NIT in Aortic ganglia
- Principal NIT in aortic & carotid body.

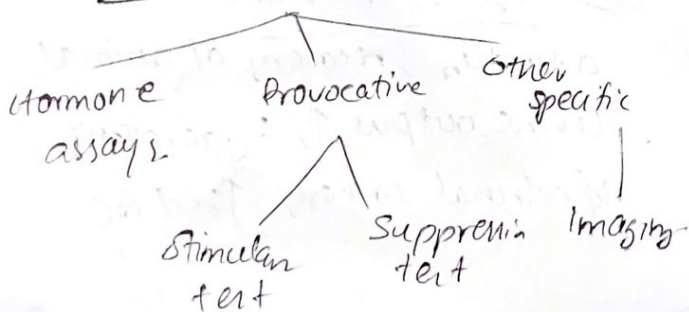
Therapeutic uses *

Pheochromocytoma:

Adrenal medullary tumor

- Rare benign tumor of adrenal medulla.
- Excess catecholamine secretn.
- (if NE ↑: hypertension)
- (if E ↑: glycosuria)

Adrenal function tests *



Tests for Zona Fasciculata

1. Serum cortisol measurement (diurnal variation to be considered)
2. urinary free cortisol
3. Serum ACTH levels
4. Dexamethasone suppression test
5. ACTH stimulation test (X: in the def.)
6. CRH stimulation test in GPC-def.

Test for Zona Glomerulosa

1. Plasma aldosterone level
2. Plasma Renin level
3. PRA (i° Renin activity)
4. Furosemide stimulation test
5. Saline suppression test
6. Fludrocortisone suppression test

Adrenal medullary test *

- clonidine suppression test
-