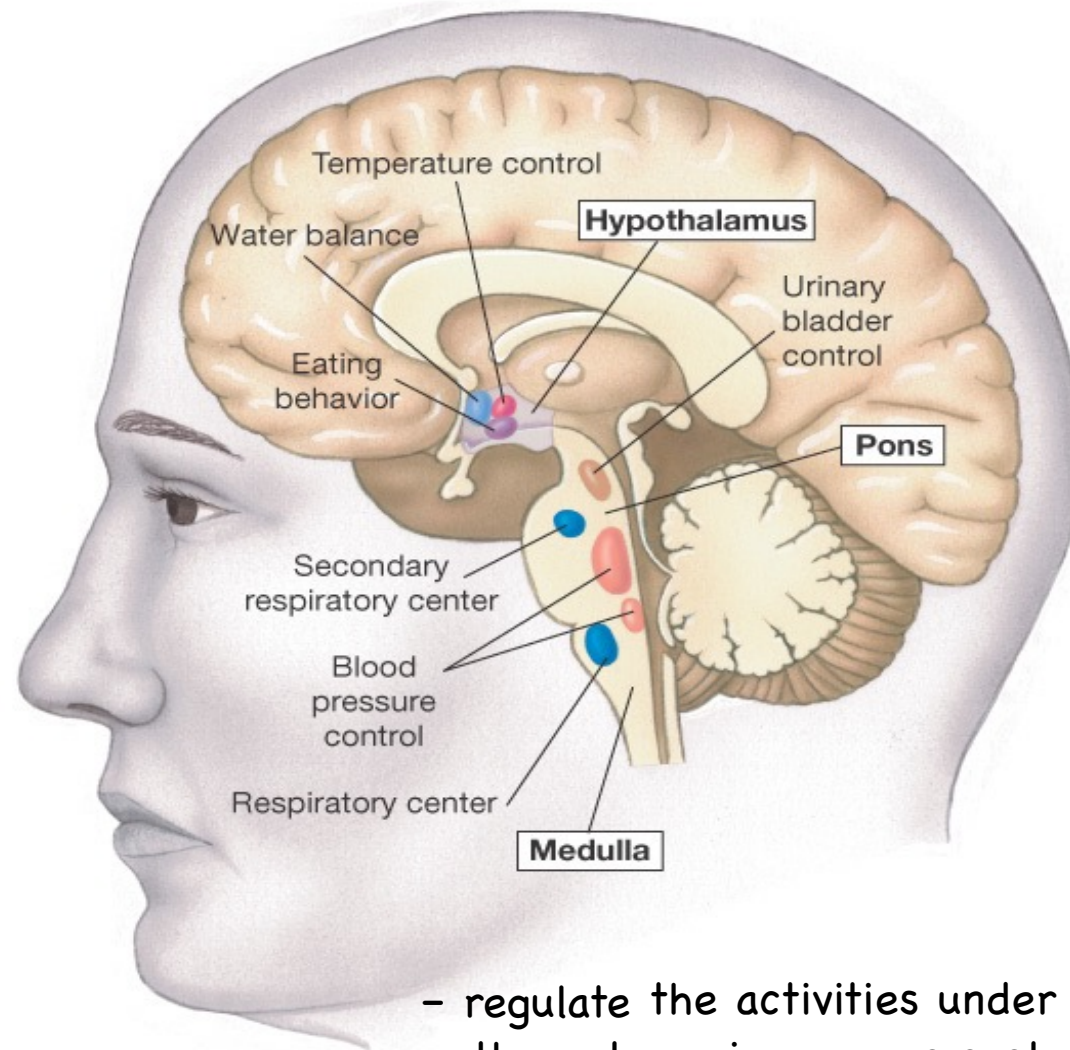


Hypothalamus and Pituitary gland

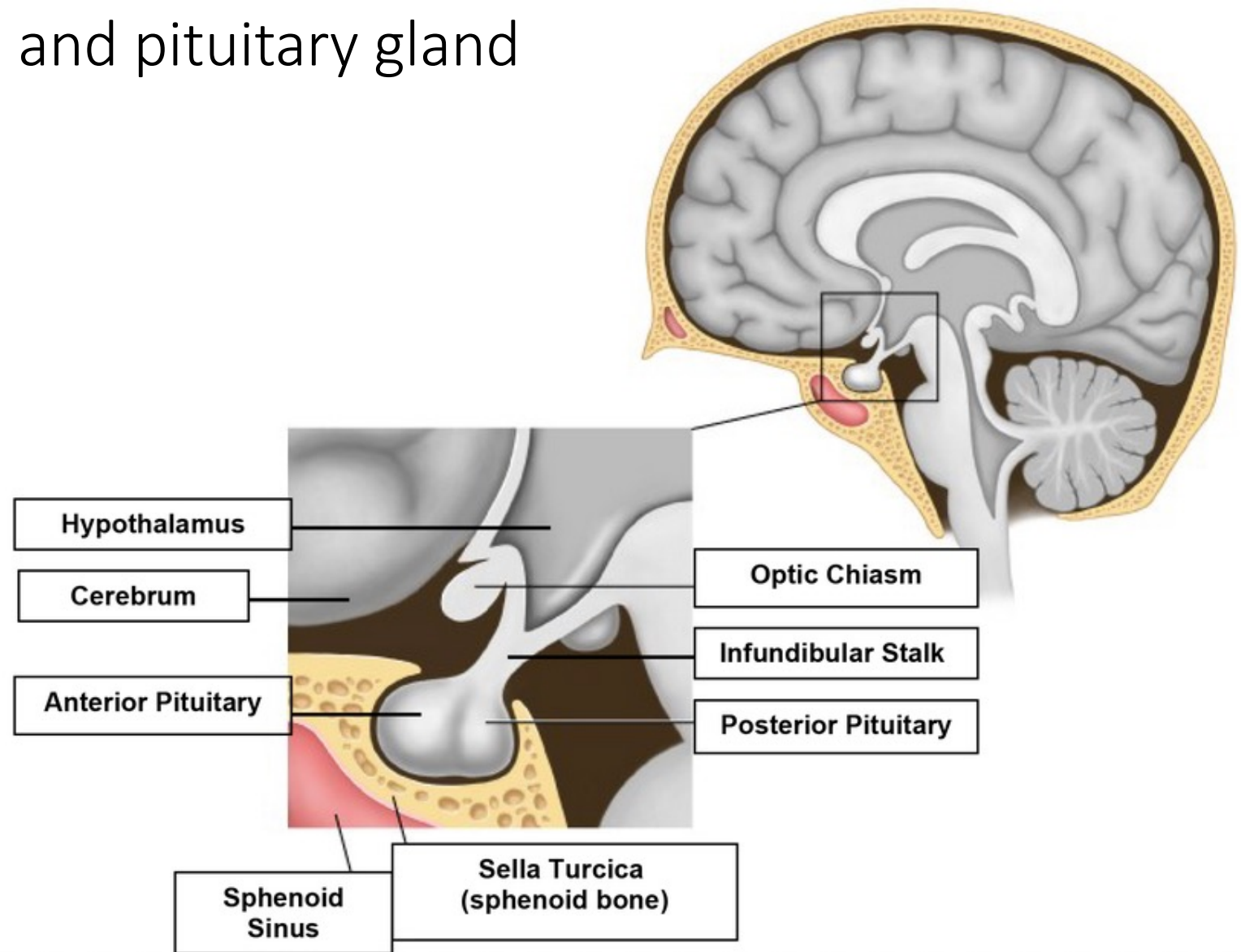
The endocrine system and the autonomic nervous system

Autonomic Control Centers in the Brain



- regulate the activities under the control of the autonomic nervous system

Hypothalamus and pituitary gland -localization-



Paraventricular and supraoptic nuclei

- regulate water balance
- produce ADH and oxytocin
- destruction causes diabetes insipidus
- paraventricular nucleus projects to autonomic nuclei of brainstem and spinal cord

Anterior nucleus

- thermal regulation (dissipation of heat)
- stimulates parasympathetic NS
- destruction results in hyperthermia

Preoptic area

- contains sexually dimorphic nucleus
- regulates release of gonadotropic hormones

Suprachiasmatic nucleus

- receives input from retina
- controls circadian rhythms

Dorsomedial nucleus

- stimulation results in obesity and savage behavior

Posterior nucleus

- thermal regulation (conservation of heat)
- destruction results in inability to thermoregulate
- stimulates the sympathetic NS

Lateral nucleus

- stimulation induces eating
- destruction results in starvation

Mammillary body

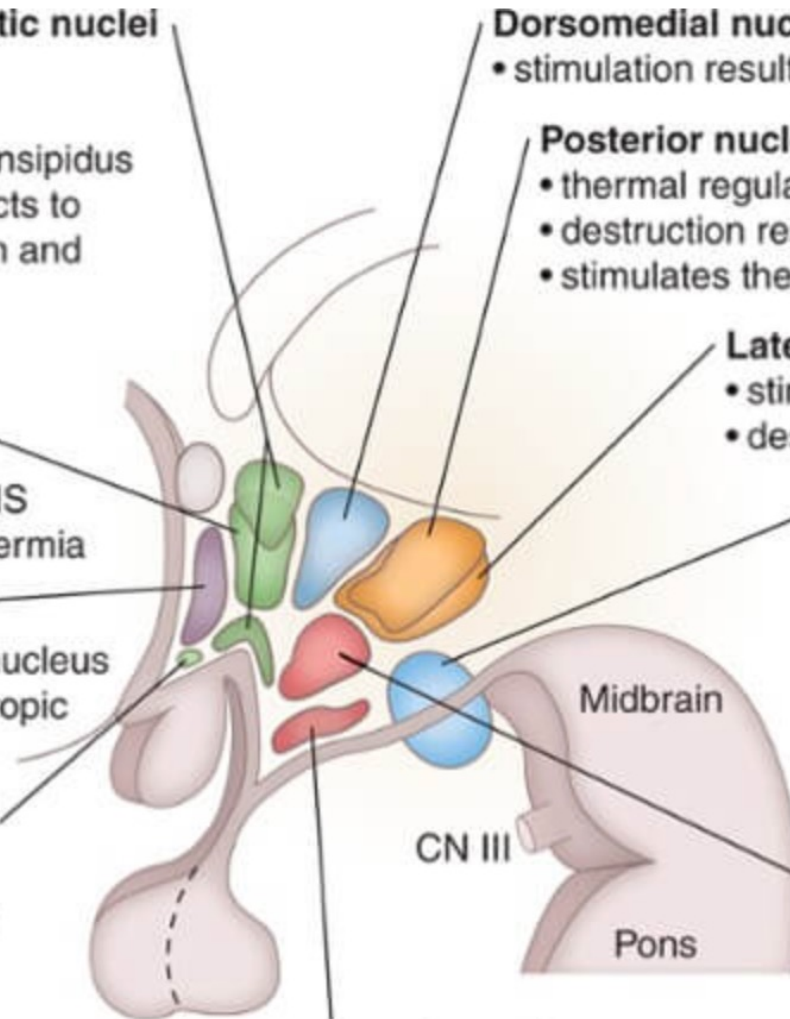
- receives input from hippocampal formation via fornix
- projects to anterior nucleus of thalamus
- contains hemorrhagic lesions in Wernicke's encephalopathy

Ventromedial nucleus

- satiety center
- destruction results in obesity and savage behavior

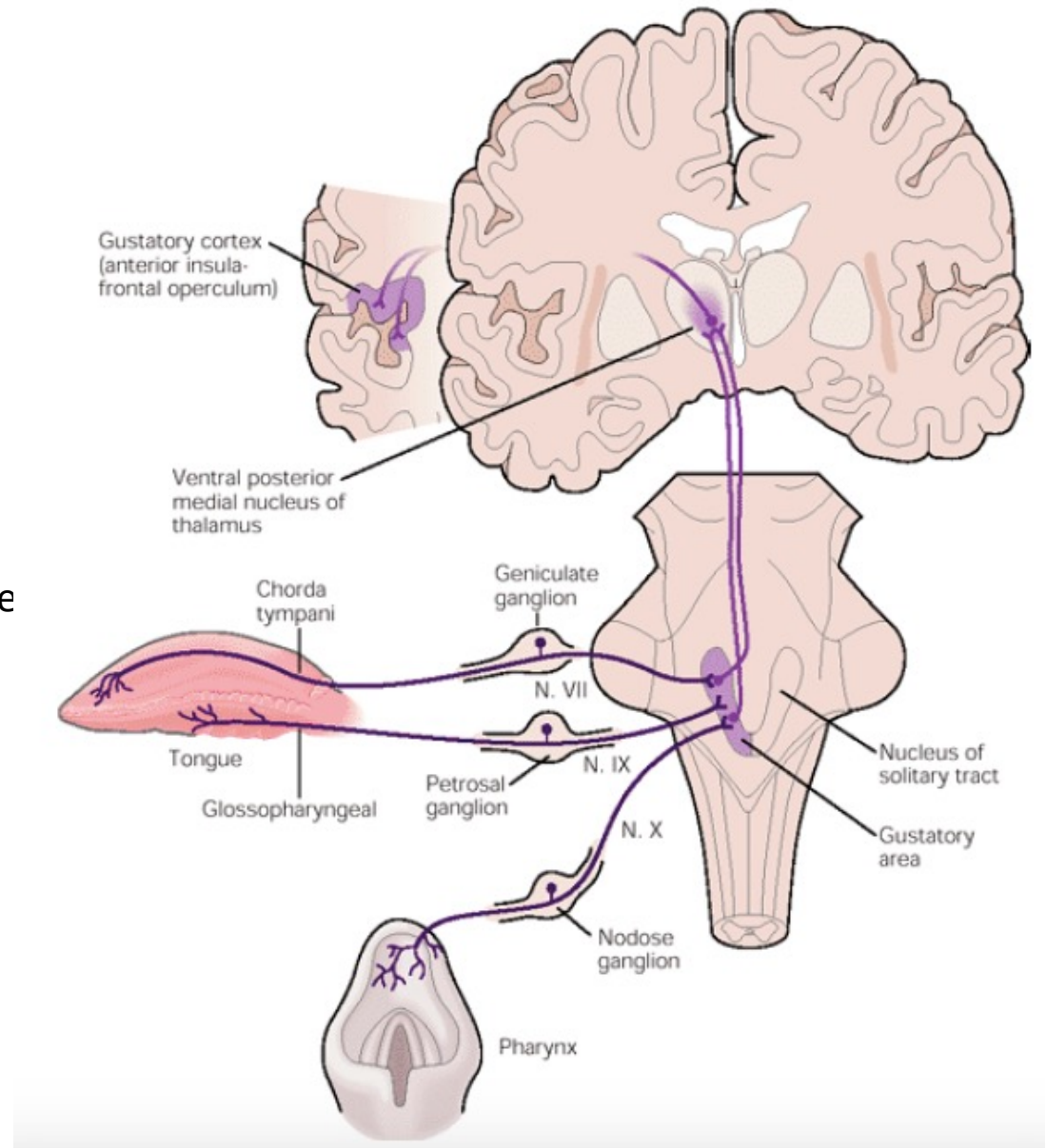
Arcuate nucleus

- produces hypothalamic releasing factors
- contains DOPA-ergic neurons that inhibit prolactin release



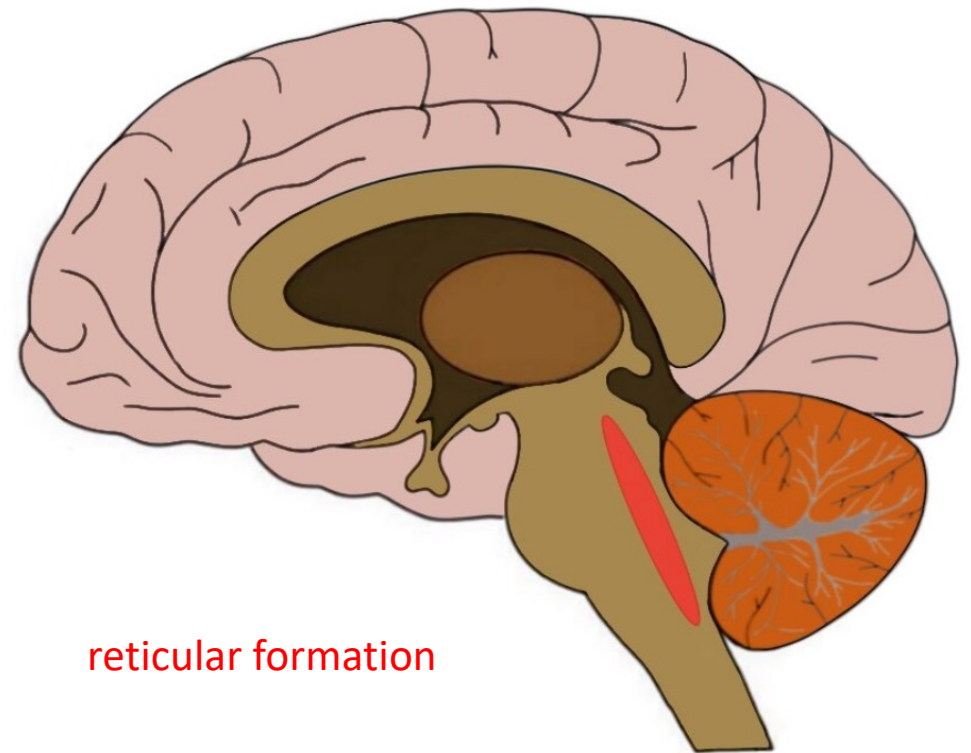
Input to the hypothalamus-1

- nucleus of the solitary tract:
collects all of the visceral sensory information f.i. blood pressure and gut distension
- limbic and olfactory systems:
structures such as amygdala, hippocampus, and olfactory cortex project to the hypothalamus, and probably help to regulate behaviors such as eating and reproduction.
- hypothalamus intrinsic receptors:
thermoreceptors and osmoreceptors to monitor temperature and ionic balance, respectively



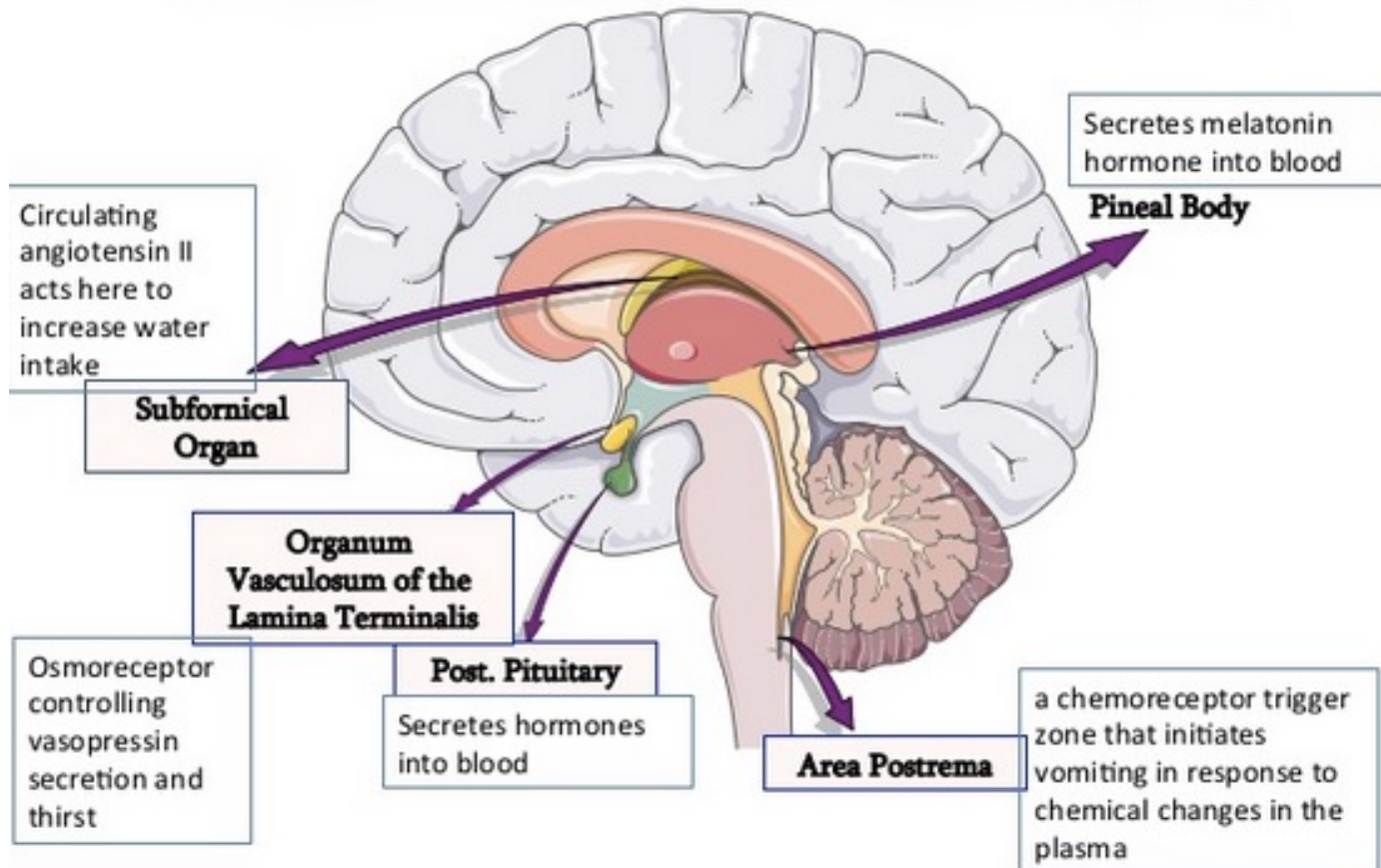
Input to the hypothalamus-2

- reticular formation:
 - nucleus in the brainstem, receives a variety of inputs via spinal cord f.i. skin temperature
- limbic and olfactory systems:
 - structures such as amygdala, hippocampus, and olfactory cortex project to the hypothalamus, and probably help to regulate behaviors such as eating and reproduction
- hypothalamus intrinsic receptors:
 - thermoreceptors and osmoreceptors to monitor temperature and ionic balance, respectively



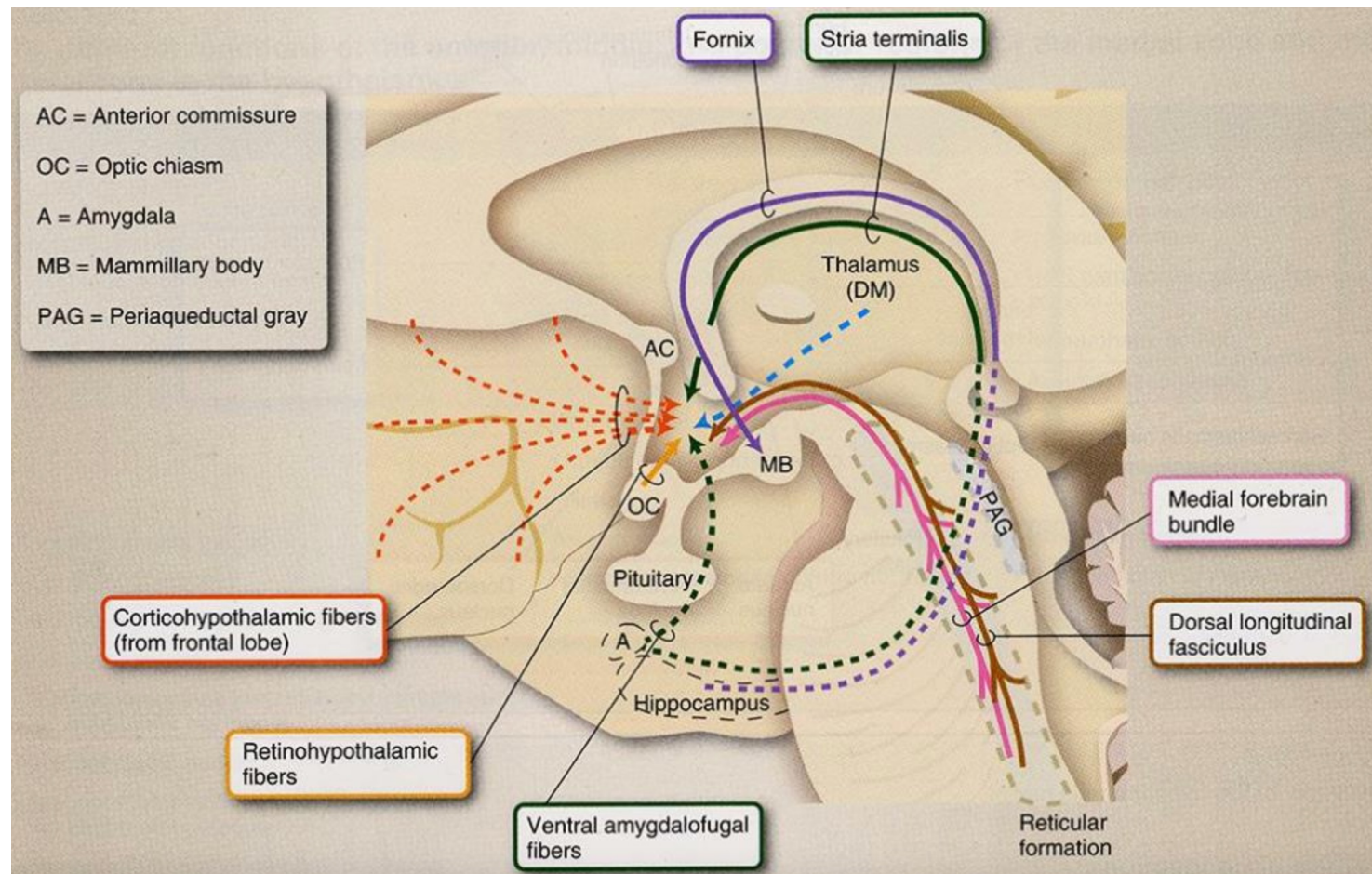
Input to the hypothalamus-3

Circumventricular Organs



nuclei located along the ventricles, lack a blood-brain barrier: can monitor substances in the blood that would normally be shielded from neural tissue. F.I. area postrema, which is sensitive to toxins in the blood and can induce vomiting

Input to the hypothalamus-4



retina:

some fibers from the optic nerve go directly to a small nucleus within the hypothalamus called the suprachiasmatic nucleus. This nucleus regulates circadian rhythms, and couples the rhythms to the light/dark cycles.

Hormones of the Hypothalamus

Hypothalamus

Thyrotropin-releasing hormone
Dopamine
Growth hormone-releasing hormone
Somatostatin
Gonadotropin-releasing hormone
Corticotropin-releasing hormone
Oxytocin
Vasopressin

Thyroid

Triiodothyronine
Thyroxine

Pineal gland

Melatonin

Pituitary Gland

Anterior pituitary

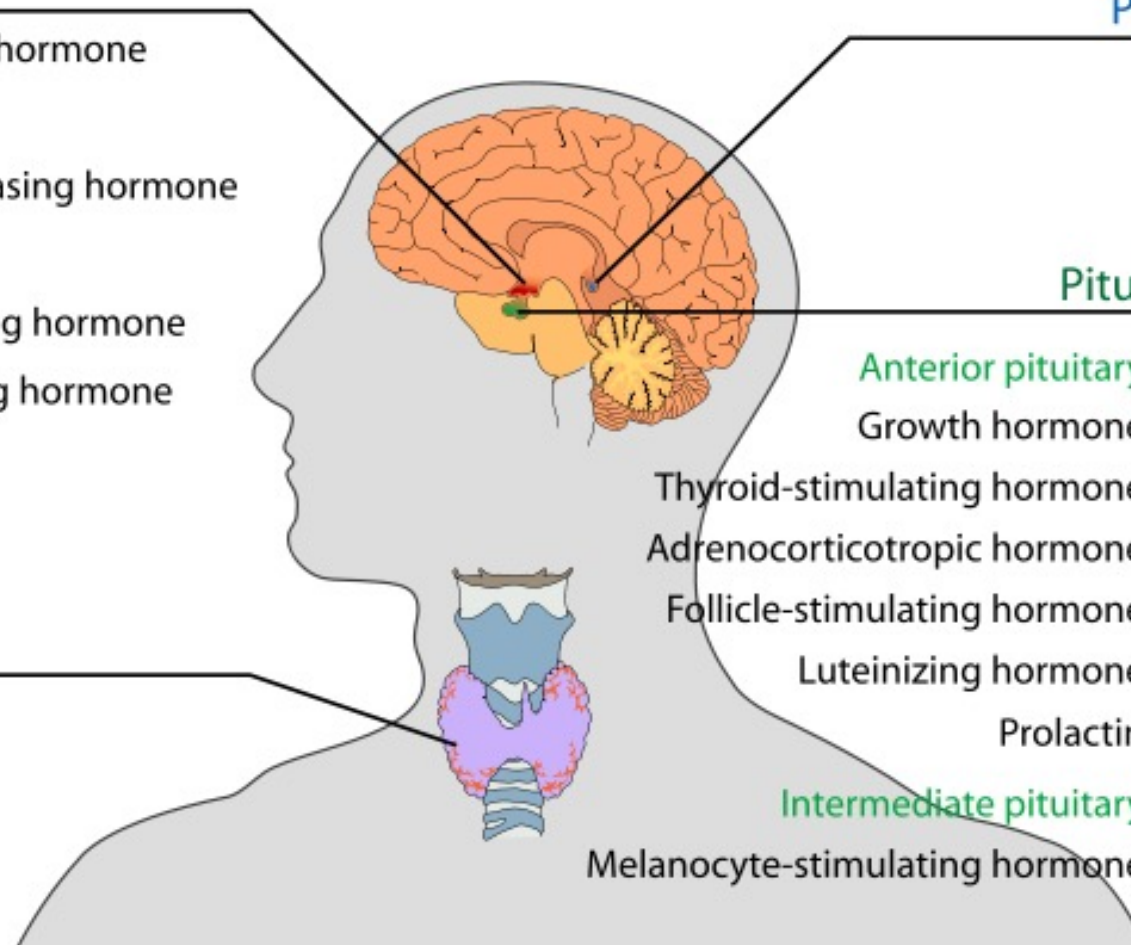
Growth hormone
Thyroid-stimulating hormone
Adrenocorticotrophic hormone
Follicle-stimulating hormone
Luteinizing hormone
Prolactin

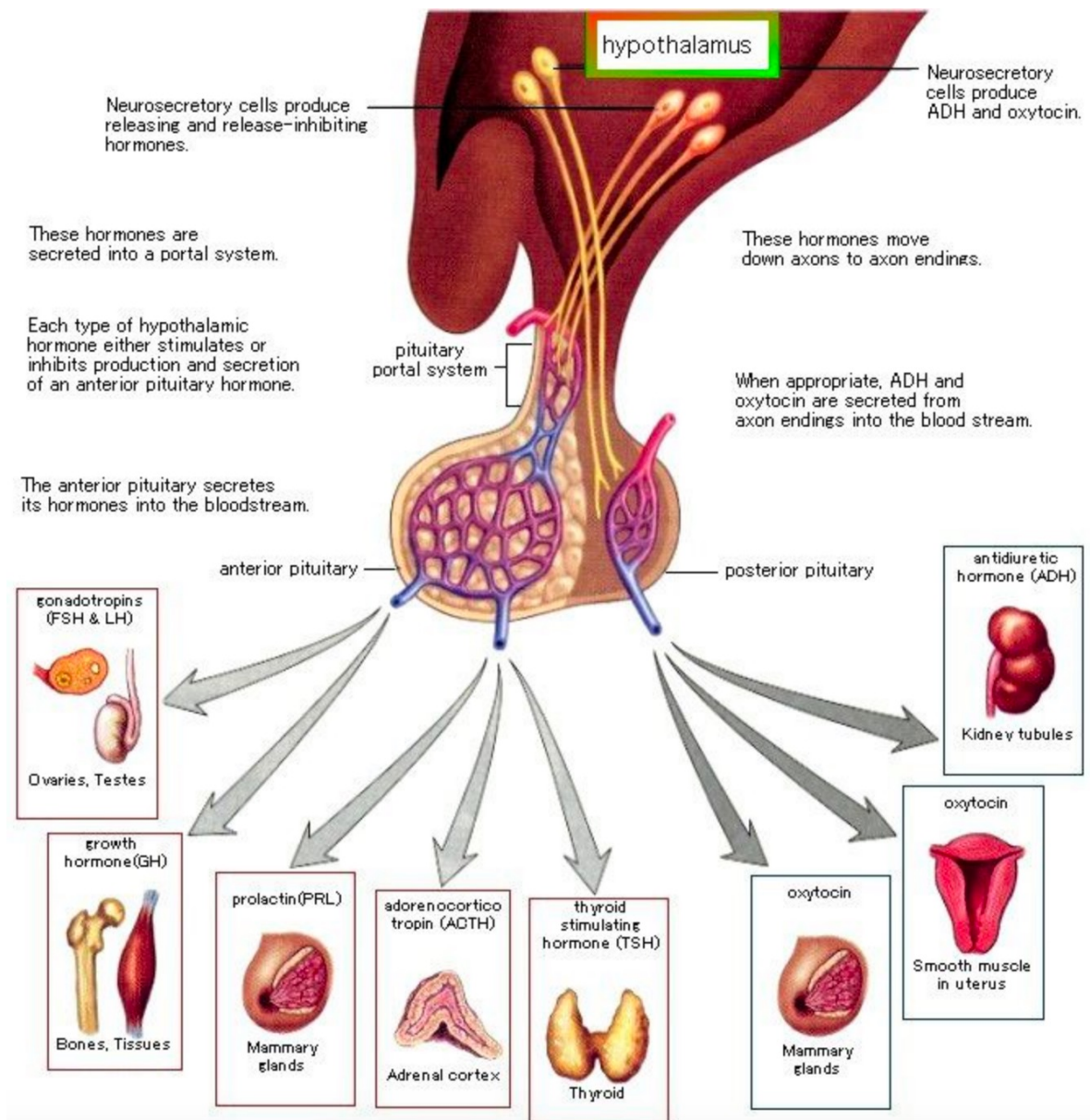
Posterior pituitary

Oxytocin
Vasopressin
Oxytocin (stored)
Anti-diuretic hormone (stored)

Intermediate pituitary

Melanocyte-stimulating hormone



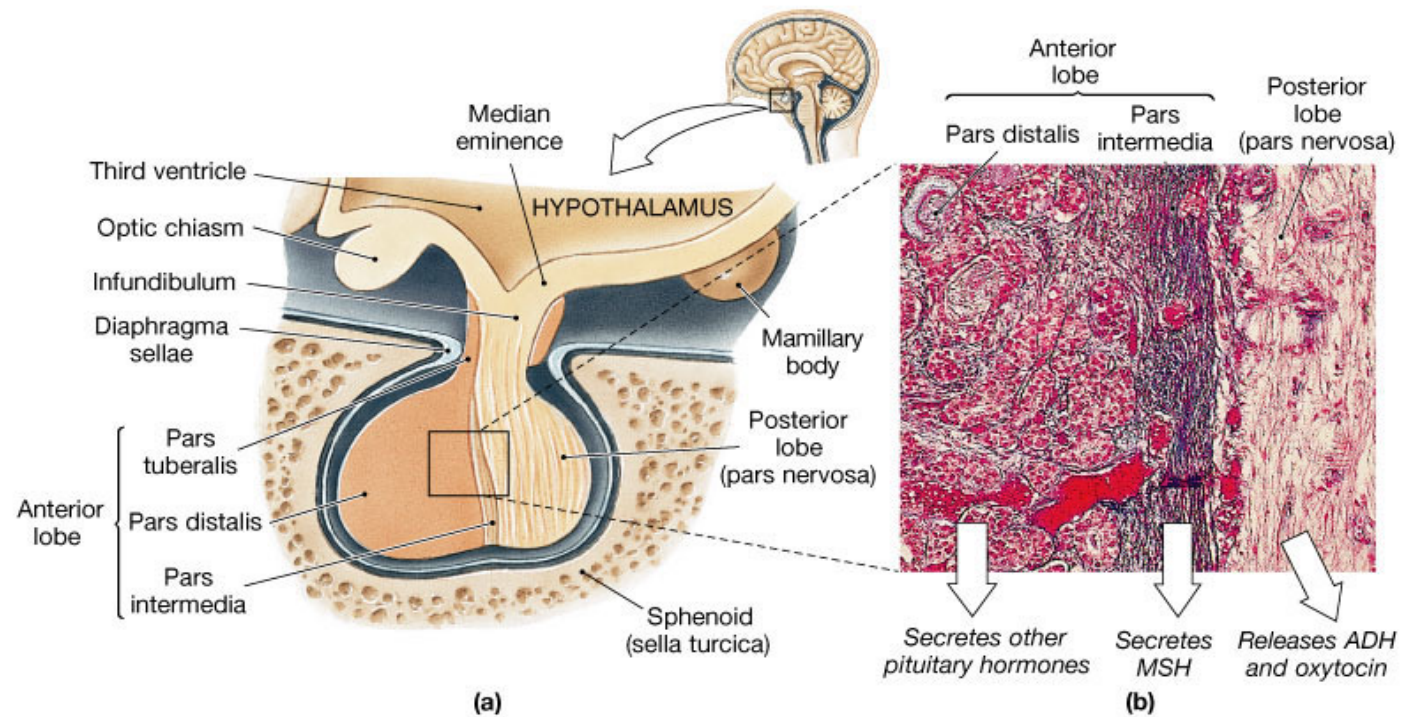
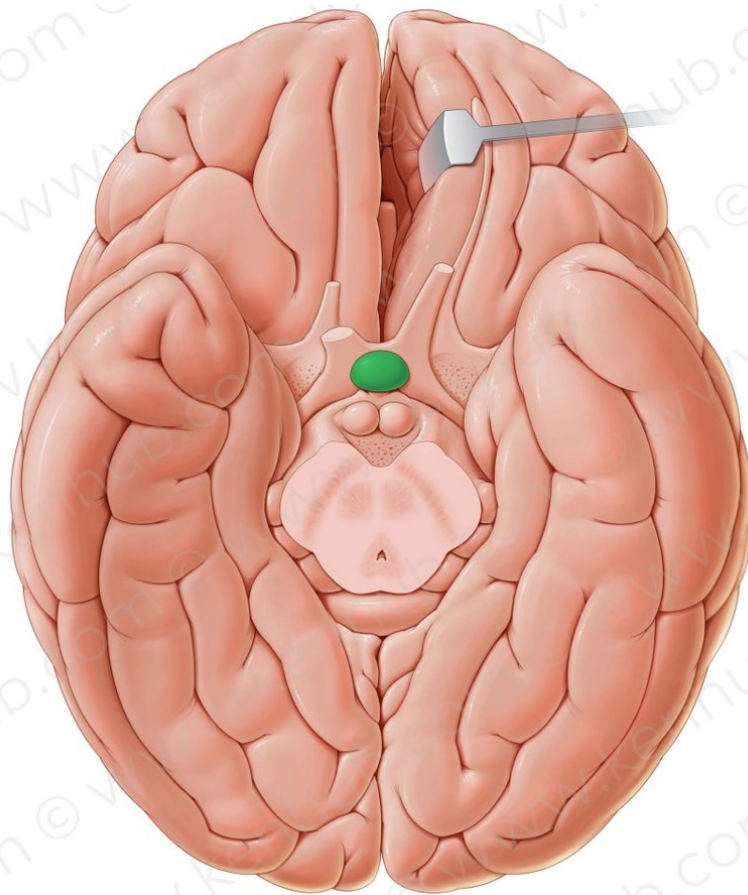


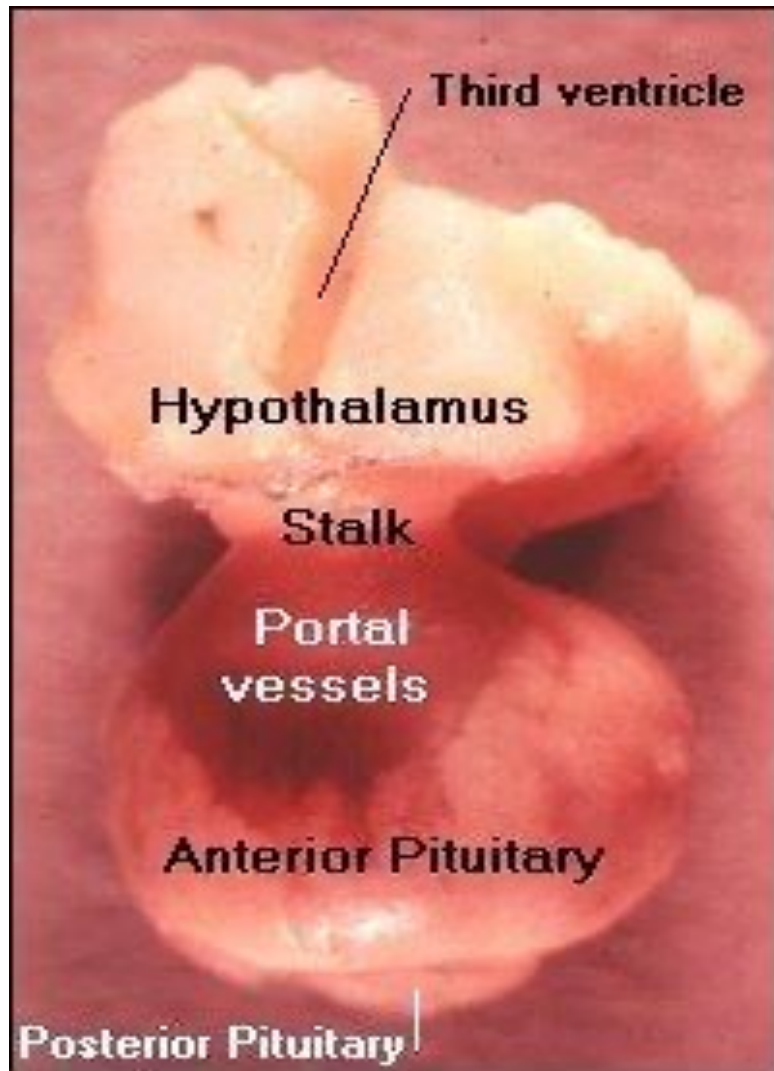


Pituitary Gland -Hypophysis-

- 0.5-1g, enlarges during pregnancy
- is composed of :
 - adenohypophysis (glandular or epithelial hypophysis)
 - Neurohypophysis
- releases nine important peptide hormones
- all nine bind to membrane receptors and use cyclic AMP as a second messenger

The Anatomy and Orientation of the Pituitary Gland





- **Anterior pituitary or *adenohypophysis*:**

- a classical gland
- composed of cells that secrete protein hormones

- **Posterior pituitary or neurohypophysis**

- not really an organ, but an extension of the hypothalamus.

-composed largely of the axons of hypothalamic neurons which extend downward as a large bundle behind the anterior pituitary and form the **pituitary stalk**, which appears to suspend the anterior gland from the hypothalamus.

neurons of the paraventricular nucleus secrete oxytocin

Stimulates contractile cells in mammary gland

Stimulates smooth muscle cells in the uterus

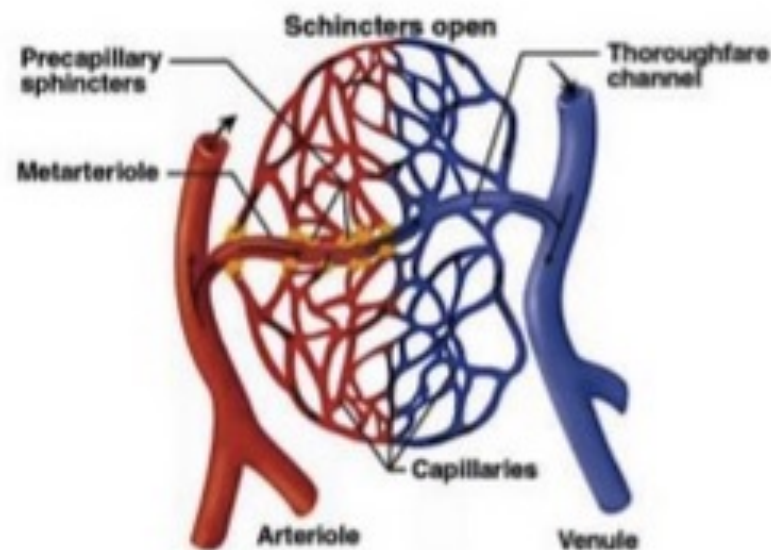
neurons of the supraoptic nucleus manufacture antidiuretic hormone (ADH)

decreases the amount of water lost in the kidneys; elevates blood pressure

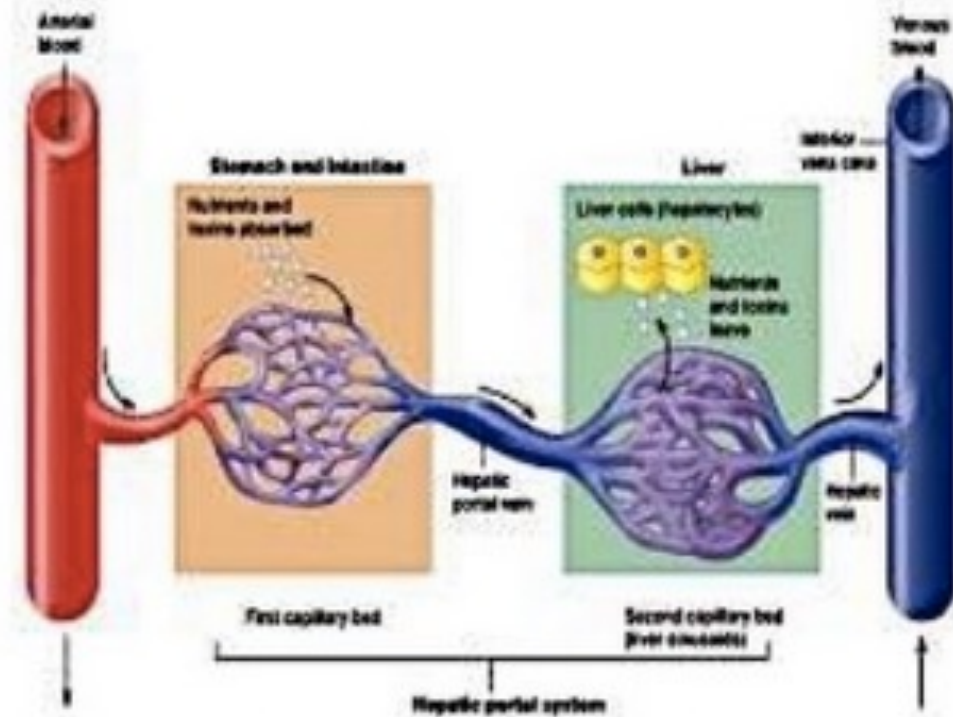
In many mammals, there is also an **intermediate lobe** (pars intermedia) between the anterior and posterior pituitary.

Portal System

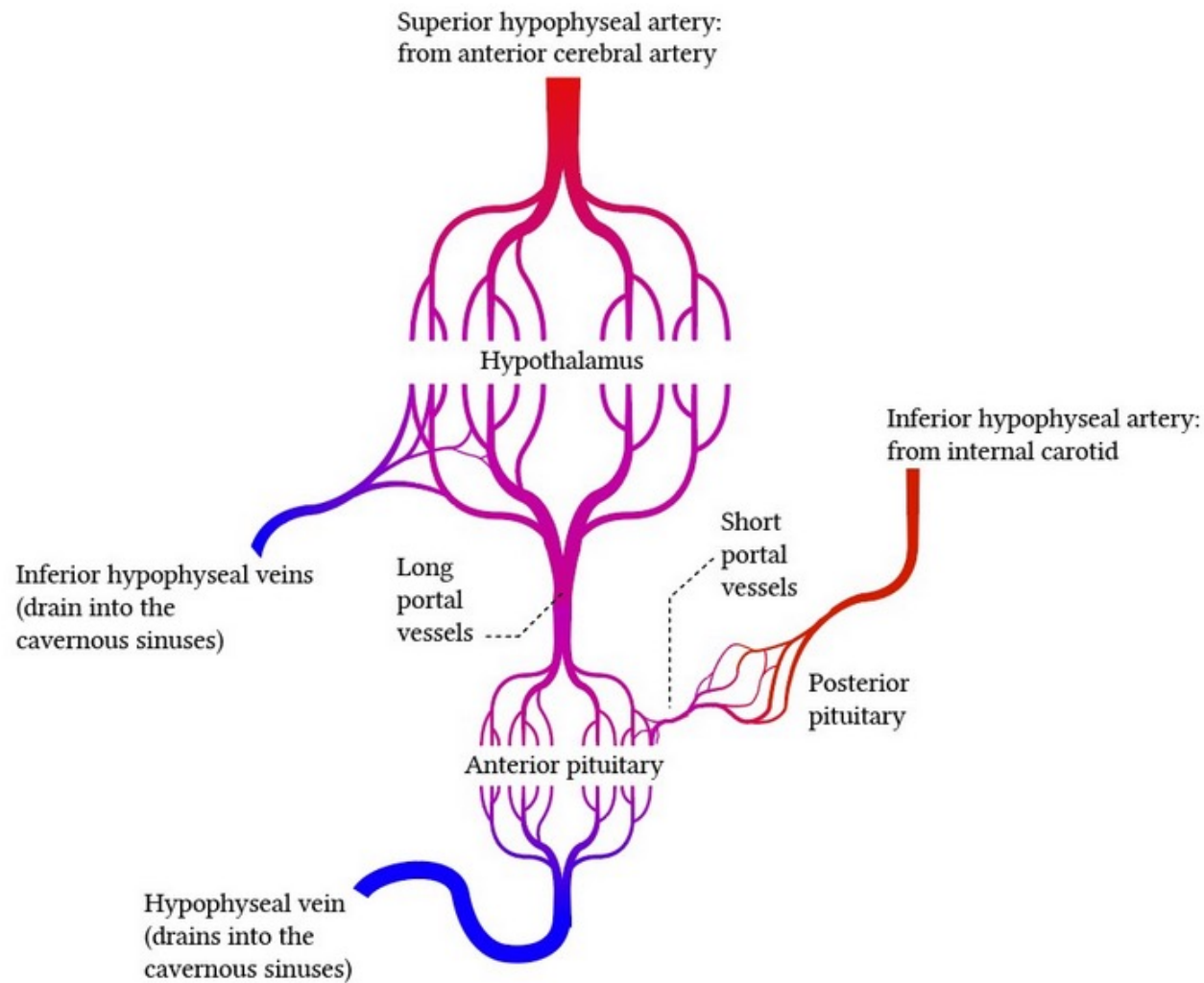
Usual circulation



Portal circulation



Pituitary portal circulation

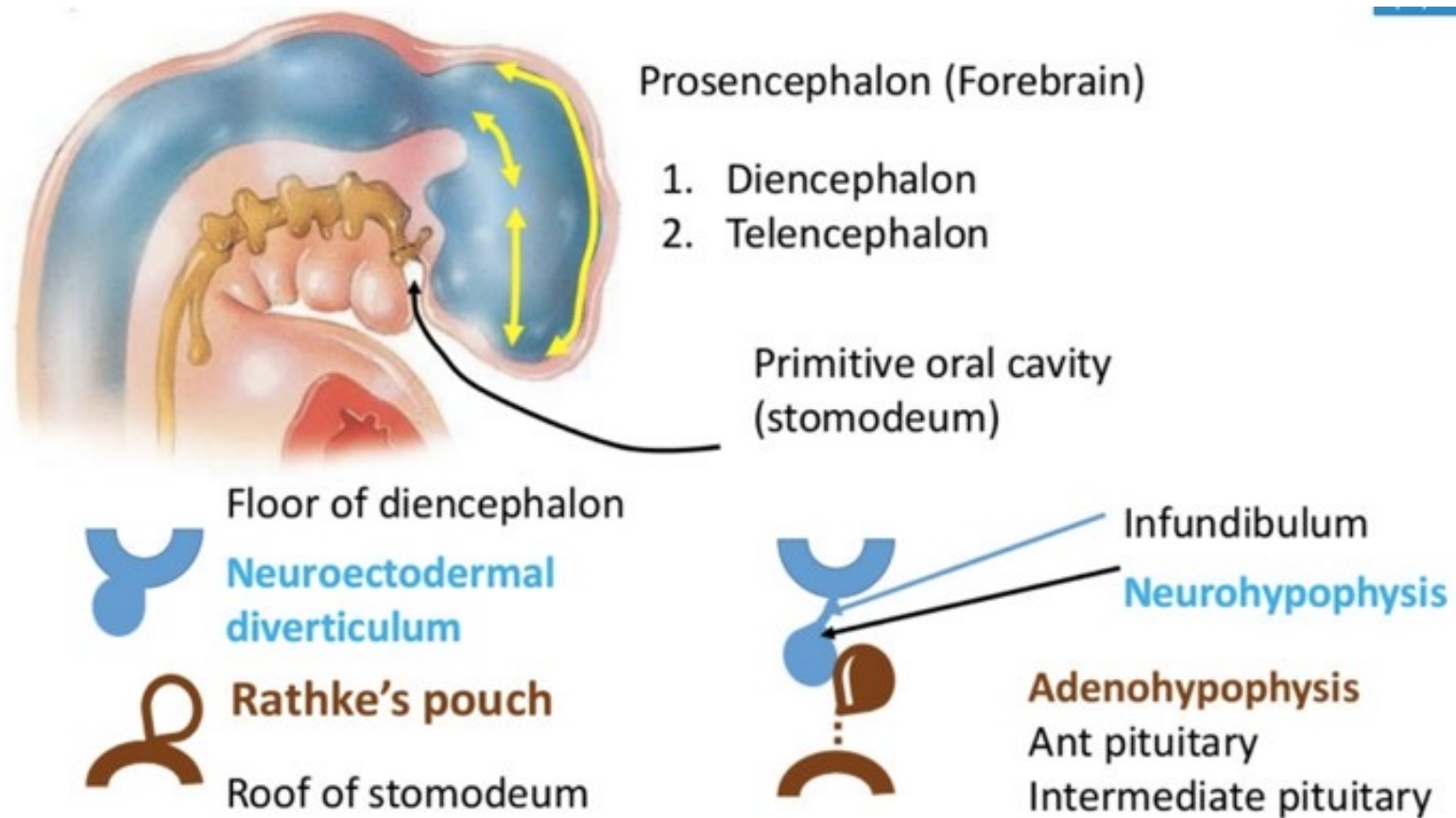


This diagram illustrates the anatomical and functional connection between the hypothalamus and the pituitary gland. The hypothalamus at the top contains supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei, which produce hormones that travel through the infundibulum (pituitary stalk) to the median eminence. From there, these hormones enter the primary capillary plexus. The infundibulum also contains the optic chiasm. The secondary capillary plexus in the posterior lobe of the pituitary gland (neurohypophysis) receives these hormones and releases them into the systemic circulation. The anterior lobe of the pituitary gland (adenohypophysis) contains endocrine cells that produce and release their own hormones. The diagram also shows the blood supply to the pituitary gland, including the superior and inferior hypophyseal arteries and veins.

Labels in the diagram:

- Supraoptic nuclei
- Paraventricular nuclei
- HYPOTHALAMUS
- Mamillary body
- MEDIAN EMINENCE
- Superior hypophyseal artery
- Infundibulum
- Portal veins
- Inferior hypophyseal artery
- POSTERIOR LOBE OF PITUITARY GLAND
- Hypophyseal vein
- ANTERIOR LOBE OF PITUITARY GLAND
- Hypophyseal veins
- Endocrine cells
- Capillary beds
- Optic chiasm

Embryonic development of the pituitary gland



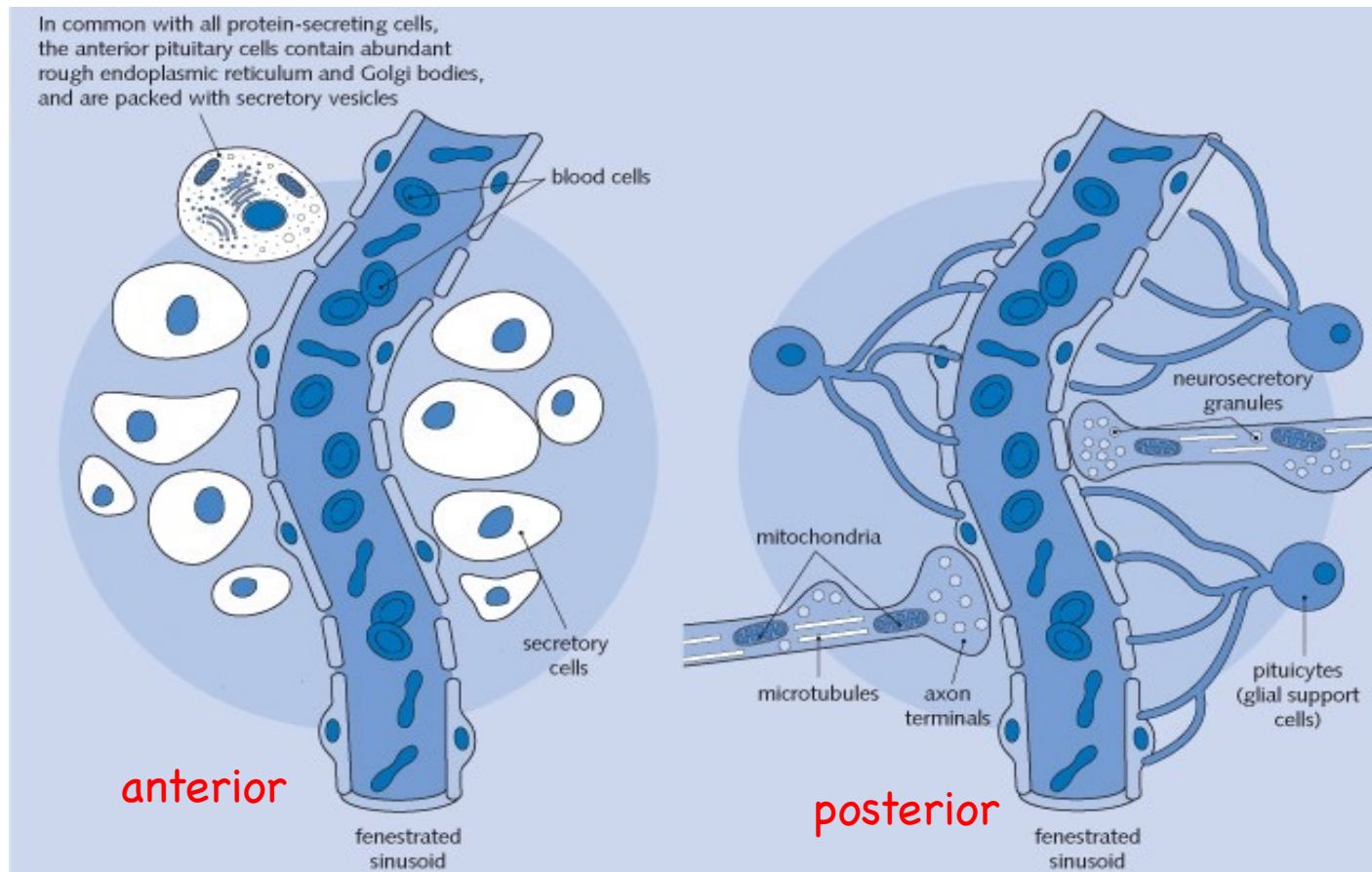
Pituitary Gland:

- **Posterior pituitary “gland”, neurohypophysis**
 - part of the endocrine system
 - collection of axonal projections from the hypothalamus
 - octapeptides: oxytocin, vasopressin
- **Anterior pituitary, Adenohypophysis** [ἀδὴν](#), *adên* (« gland »), ἀδένοϛ, *adénos* (« de la glande »)
 - Rathke's pouch
 - no direct nerve supply
 - chemical hypophyseal-portal system
 - ACTH, TSH, FSH, LH, GH, prolactin

Size of the pituitary varies between species

- Size of the pituitary varies between different species:
 - animals that rapidly change their colors may have a relatively large pars intermedia
 - birds lack a pars intermedia
 - aquatic species may have a small pars nervosa whereas land-dwelling species, particularly those in arid climate may have relatively large pars nervosa

Histology of the anterior and posterior pituitary gland



1901 Magnus and Schafer demonstrate the oxytocic, pressor and antidiuretic activities of posterior pituitary extracts



Magnus, R. & Schafer, E. A. Effects of post-pituitary extracts. J. Physiol. 12, 32–38 (1901).

Rudolf Magnus
1873–1927
Brunswick-Pontresina

1939 LM Pickford demonstrated that acetylcholine releases ADH

First female professor of Medicine in Edinburgh

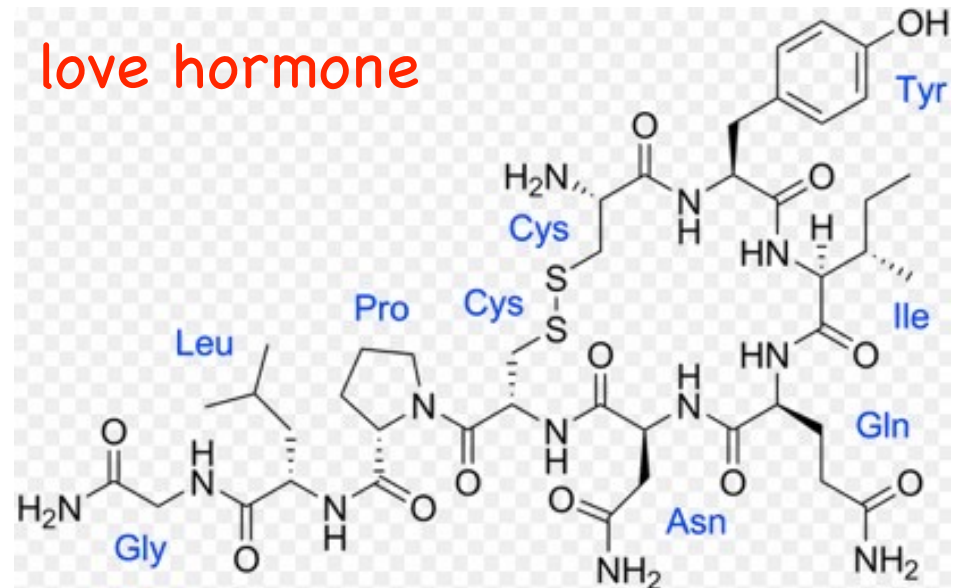
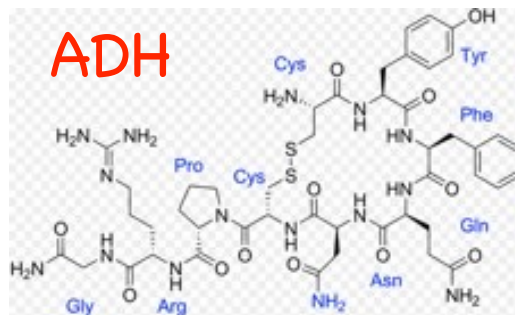
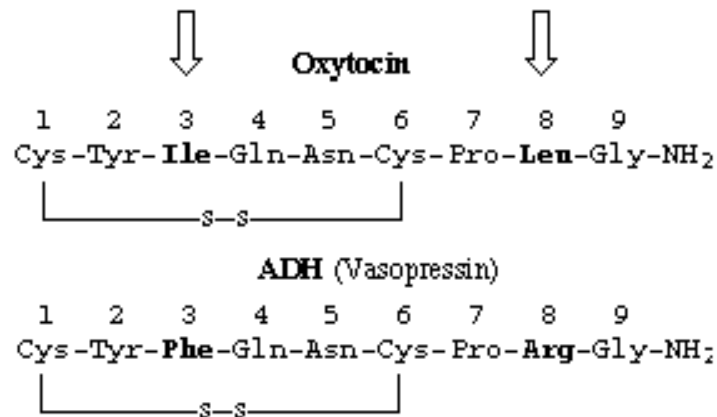
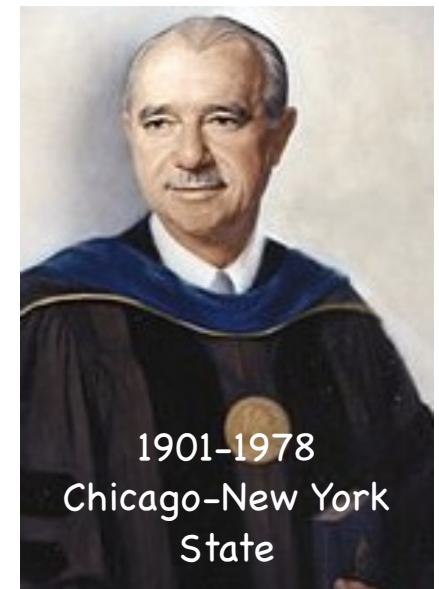
Lilian Mary Pickford 1902–
2002
Jabalpur, India–Hampshire, UK



Vincent Du Vigneaud

- sequenced and synthesized oxytocin and vasopressin in 1953
- Lasker Award 1948, Nobel Prize Chemistry 1955

"A trail of sulfa research: from insulin to oxytocin"

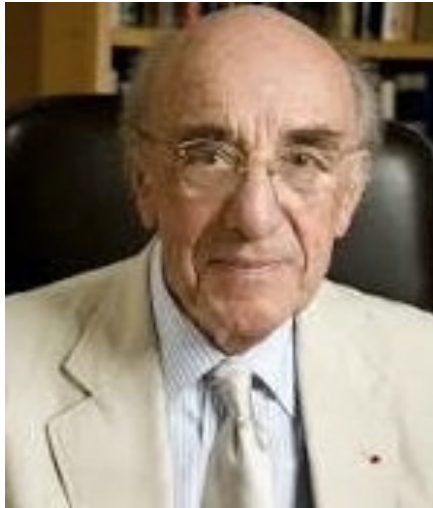


Discovery of neurohormones

1971 Purification of hypothalamic hormones

1977 Nobel Prize Medicine and Physiology

Roger Guillemin
Dijon; Baylor, Salk
1924–



Andrzej Wiktor Schally
Vilnius, McGill, Tulane, Baylor
1926–



Rosalyn Yalow: RIA
Bronx, Urbana Champaign,
Mount Sinai
1921–2011



Hypothalamic Releasing Hormones

- 1. Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH)
- 2. Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH)
- 3. Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH)
- 4. Growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH)
- 5. Growth hormone-release inhibiting hormone (GHIH)
- 6. Prolactin-releasing factor (PRF)
- 7. Prolactin-inhibiting hormone (PIH)

Secretion

Is influenced by emotions

Can be influenced by the metabolic state of the individual

Delivered to the anterior pituitary via the hypothalamic-hypophyseal portal system

Usually initiates a three-hormone sequence

Endocrine Control: Three Levels of Integration

- Hypothalamic stimulation \leftarrow CNS
- Pituitary stimulation \leftarrow hypothalamic trophic hormones
- Endocrine gland stimulation \leftarrow pituitary trophic hormones

Endocrine Control: 3 Levels of Integration

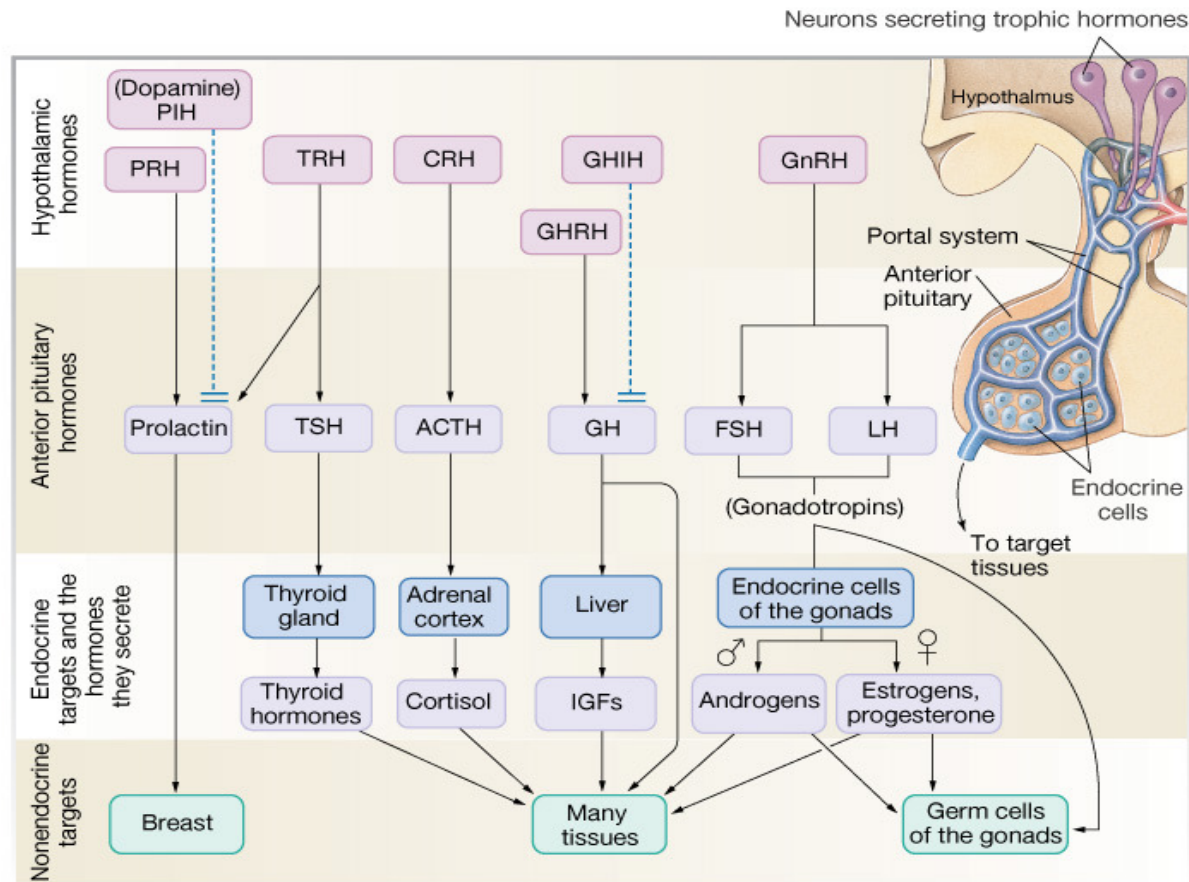


Figure 7-13: Hormones of the hypothalamic-anterior pituitary pathway

Disorders of the hypothalamus and the pituitary

Akhenaten reign: 1353-1336 BC



André le géant

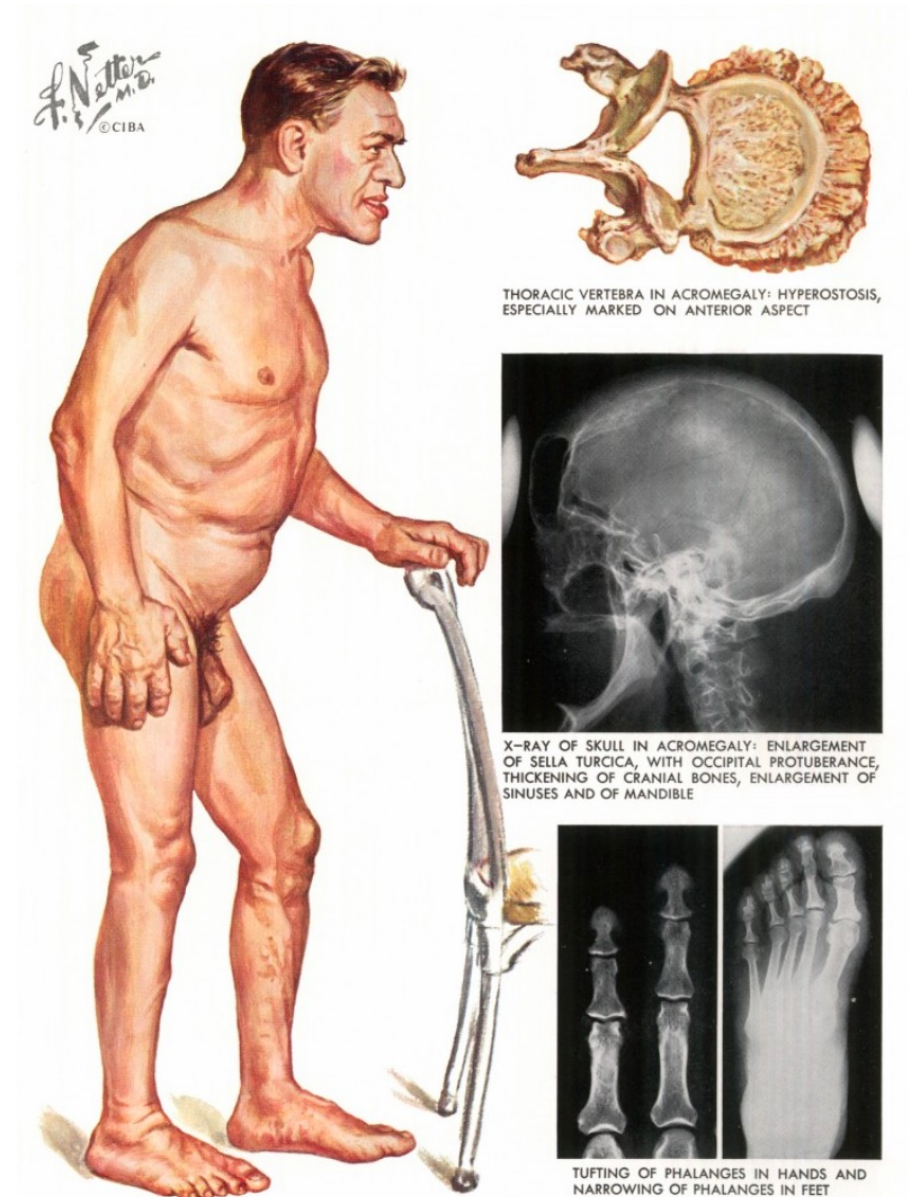
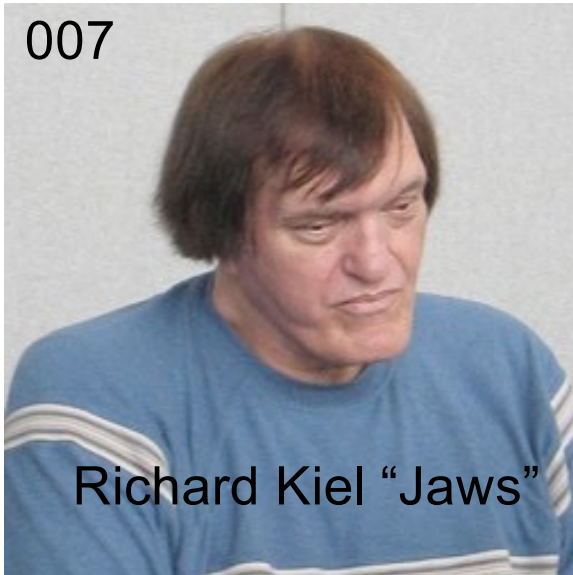
1946-1993

- Wrestler and actor
- 2.36 m, 235 kg
- not expected to live past 40
- He chose not to be treated



Acromegaly

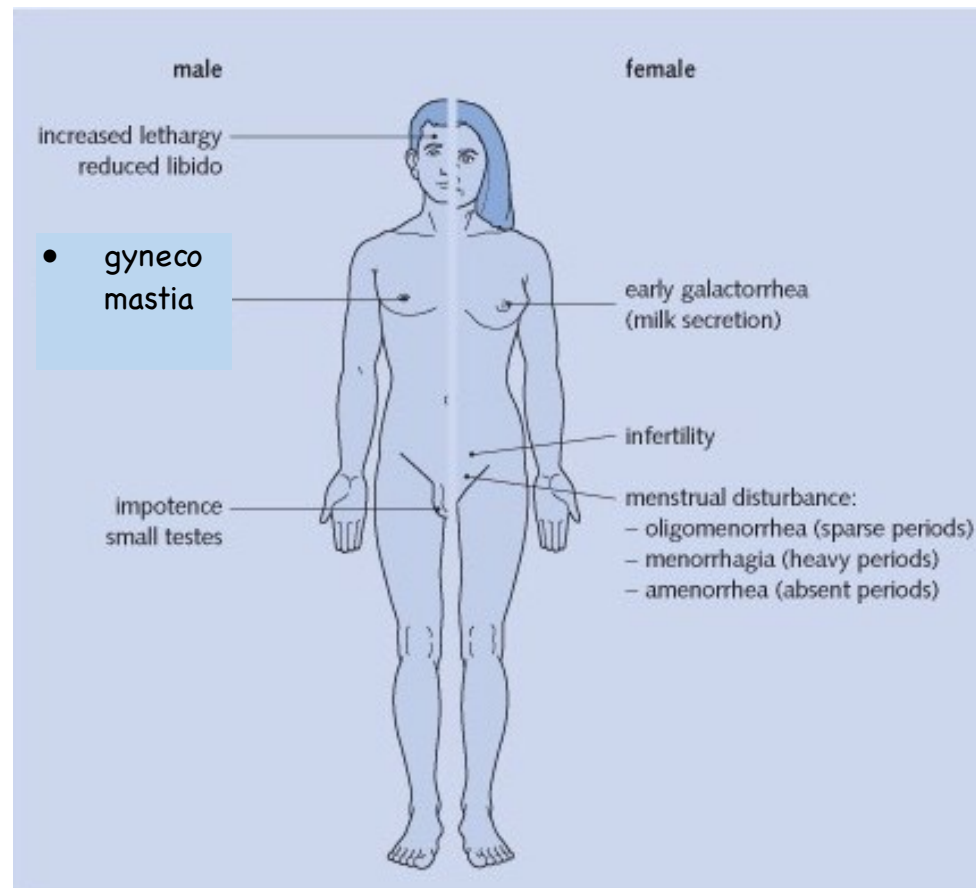
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Anterior pituitary hormones and the disorders caused by their deficiency and excess

Hormone	Deficiency	Excess
GH	Dwarfism in children GH deficiency syndrome	Gigantism in children Acromegaly in adults
LH and FSH	Gonadal insufficiency (decreased sex steroids)	rare: infertility
ACTH	Adrenocortical insufficiency (decreased cortisol and adrenal androgens)	Cushing's disease (increased cortisol and adrenal androgens)
TSH	Hypothyroidism	Hyperthyroidism (rare)
Prolactin	Hyperprolactinemia (failure in postpartum lactation)	Hyperprolactinemia (impotence in males, amenorrhea in females, and decreased libido)

Symptoms and signs of hyperprolactinemia



Posterior pituitary hormones and the disorders caused by their deficiency and excess

Hormone	Deficiency	Excess
ADH	Diabetes insipidus	Syndrome of inappropriate ADH secretion (SIADH)
Oxytocin	Failure to progress in labor and difficulty with breastfeeding	No effect

SIADH

syndrome of inappropriate diuretic hormone
(excessive secretion of ADH)

- diagnostic criteria
 - hyponatremia
 - hyponatremia
 - natriuresis
 - exclusion of other causes

- symptoms
 - muscle cramps
 - nausea and vomiting
 - loss of balance
 - seizures

treatment

- water restriction 600–800 ml/day
- demeclocycline 900–1200 mg/day– blocks vasopressin at distal collecting tubule (kidney)
- hypertonic saline if sodium < 115 mEq/L

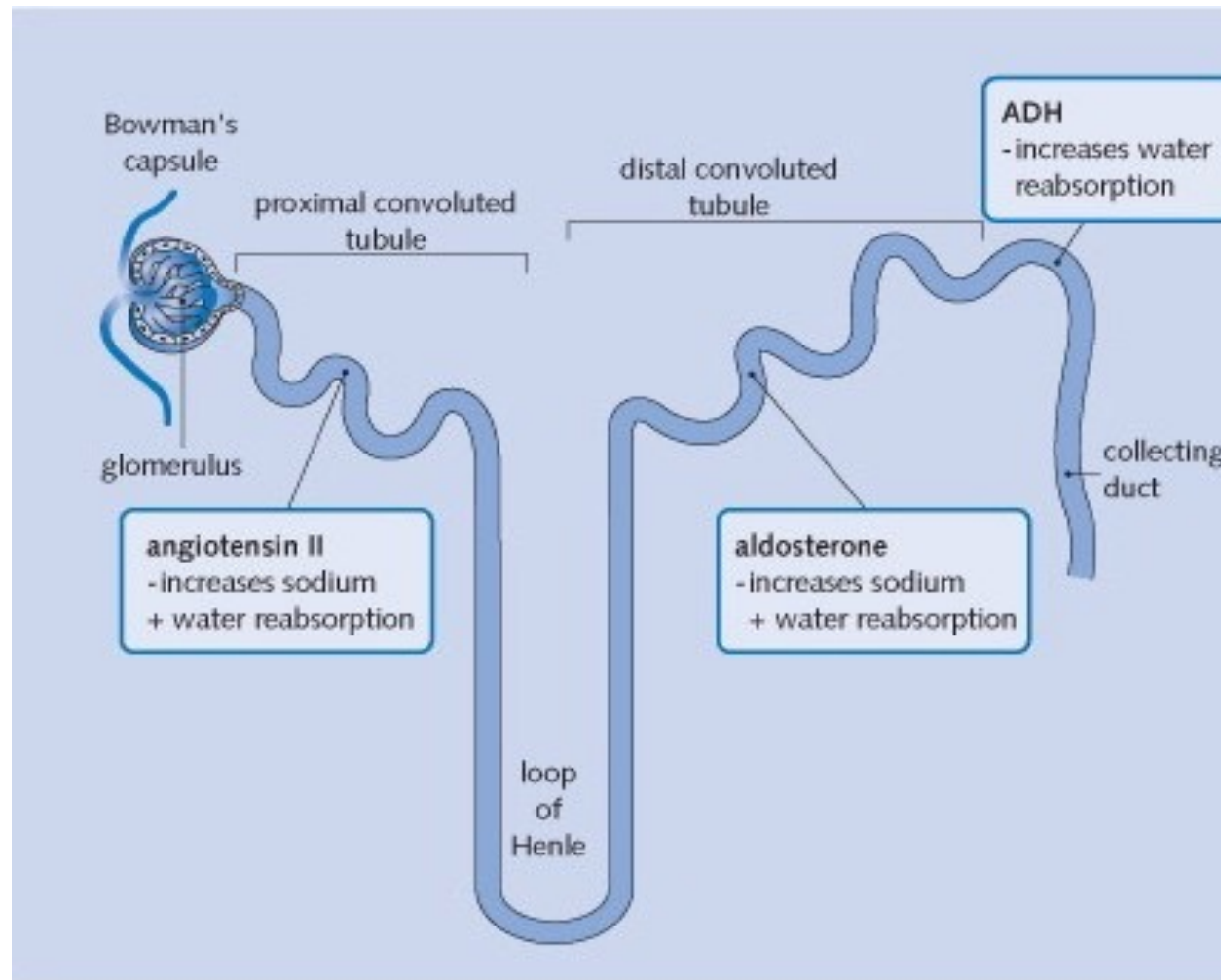
Pituitary - antidiuretic hormone (ADH)/ vasopressin

- CNS osmoreceptors supraoptic, periventricular nuclei hypothalamus
 - plasma osmolality changes
- baroreceptors, aortic arch, carotid sinus, left atrium
 - Cervical nerves IX, X
- renal action
 - ADH increases water permeability of the distal convoluted tubule and the collecting duct

Expected intake and output of water over a 24-hour period

Water intake (mL)	Water loss (mL)
Drinking: 1500 Food: 500 Metabolism: 400	Urine: 1500 Respiration: 500 Skin evaporation: 400 Feces: 100
Total 2400	Total 2400

Kidney: sites of hormone action



Pituitary – Diabetes Insipidus

- partial or complete absence of vasopressin
- Causes: tumor, inflammation, granuloma, trauma, vascular
- clinical features
 - polyuria- 3-15 L/day
 - urine osmolality drops to <200 mOsm/kg
 - plasma osmolality, normally maintained between 285-290 mOsm/kg may raise to >330 mOsm/kg
 - polydipsia- compensatory mechanism,
 - center destruction disastrous
 - associated features:
 - visual field loss
 - optic atrophy
 - papilledema
 - other pituitary hormone abnormalities

