Chemical Signals

[Note: This is the text version of this lecture file. To make the lecture notes downloadable over a slow connection (e.g. modem) the figures have been replaced with figure numbers as found in the textbook. See the full version with complete graphics if you have a faster connection.] Two classes of receptors: <u>membrane</u> and <u>intracellular</u> receptors

[See Fig. 45.3]

Response to most chemical signals through membrane receptors involves second messengers

(e.g. cAMP, cGMP, IP₃, Ca²⁺)

[See Fig. 11.12]

Some hormones (especially steroids) have intracellular receptors ("nuclear receptors") that regulate gene expression

[See Fig. 45.5]

One chemical signal can have different effects

<u>different receptors</u>: <u>nicotinic</u> acetylcholine receptors <u>depolarize</u> skeletal muscle; <u>muscarinic</u> acetycholine receptors activate G proteins and <u>hyperpolarize</u> cardiac muscle
 <u>different intracellular pathways</u>: acetylcholine receptors can trigger intracellular release or influx of Ca²⁺ and hormone secretion (<u>tropic</u> hormones trigger release of second hormone)

[See Fig. 45.4]

One chemical signal can have different effects

<u>Thyroxine</u> secreted from human <u>thyroid gland</u> regulates metabolic rate but <u>stimulates metamorphosis</u> of tadpole into frog

[See Fig. 45.6]

[See Fig. 45.8]

Chemical signal modes of action

 <u>pheromones</u>: signaling between organisms
 <u>local regulation</u>: direct signaling between cells
 <u>hormonal</u>: indirect signaling through blood or interstitial fluid

[See Fig. 11.3]

Examples of local regulators

NO (nitric oxide) is a gas

- neurons: acts as neurotransmitter
- white blood cells: used to kill invaders and damaged cells
- endothelial cells: relaxes smooth muscle

Viagra (sildenafil) inhibits phosphdiesterase type V (PDE-V) and prolong's effect of NO. Used to treat disorders of blood flow like <u>angina</u> and <u>impotence</u>. NO \Rightarrow guanylate cyclase \Rightarrow cGMP \Rightarrow PKG \Rightarrow phosphorylation; cGMP + PDE \Rightarrow GMP

Growth factors are generally peptides (proteins)

- <u>nerve</u> growth factor (NGF)
- <u>epithelial</u> growth factor (ÉGF)
- insulin-like growth factor (IGF)
- transforming growth factor (TGF)

Prostaglandins (PGs) are modified fatty acids

- <u>discovered</u> in semen (prostate secretion)
 released from most cells into interstitial fluid
- <u>PGE and PGF</u> relax and constrict blood vessels of lung to regulate oxygenation

• PGs also regulate fever and pain (aspirin and ibuprofen inhibit **PG** synthesis)

Vertebrate endocrine system

(don't forget organs of the digestive system, excretory system, and circulatory system)

[See Fig. 45.6]

Antagonistic hormones insure accurate regulation

[See Fig. 45.1]

the posterior pituitary (<u>neurohypophysis</u>) is an extension of hypothalamus

[See Fig. 45.7a]

the anterior pituitary (<u>adenohypophysis</u>) develops from the roof of the mouth (adenoids)

[See Fig. 45.7b]

[See Fig. 45.7b]

 GH is a 200 amino acid protein <u>stimulates growth directly</u> <u>stimulates release of other factors</u>: tropic action (e.g. IGF from liver)

too much \Rightarrow gigantism (childhood) or acromegaly (middle age) too little \Rightarrow dwarfism

<u>Gigantism</u> in identical twins <u>Acromegaly</u>: Before and after

Dwarfism

The anterior pituitary also secretes <u>gonadotropins</u> (FSH, LH) to regulate gonadal function

[See Fig. 46.14]

mineralocorts. (e.g. <u>aldosterone</u>) *glucocorts.* (e.g. <u>cortisol</u>)

[See Fig. 45.14a]

[See Fig. 45.15]

Thyroid gland and thyroid hormones

[See Fig. 45.8 & 45.9]

Thyroid gland and thyroid hormones

 \Downarrow = <u>hypothyroidism</u>: opposite symptoms in adults, <u>cretinism</u> in infants (decreased brain and bone growth)

<u>goiter</u> (enlarged thyroid) caused by lack of iodine in diet (reason salt is <u>iodized now</u>).

[See Fig. 45.10]

[See Fig. 45.11]

 $\frac{\text{lslets of}}{\text{Langerhans}} \text{ contain} \\ \alpha \& \beta \text{ cells} \\ \text{(1-2% of pancreas)}$

[glucose] = 90 mg/dL

Diabetes mellitus

<u>Diabetes</u> is from *Greek* for $\hat{1}$ urination (diuresis) <u>mellitus</u> is *Greek* for honey (glucose in urine)

 $\begin{array}{l} \Downarrow \text{ beta cells} \Rightarrow \Downarrow \text{ insulin} \Rightarrow \Uparrow \text{ glucose in blood} \Rightarrow \Uparrow \text{ glucose secretion} \Rightarrow \Uparrow \text{ urination} \Rightarrow \Uparrow \text{ thirst} \end{array}$

 \Downarrow glucose in cells \Rightarrow \Uparrow fat metabolism \Rightarrow \Downarrow blood pH (acidosis)

<u>Type I</u> (insulin dependent)

- usually occurs in childhood
- may be caused by autoimmune disorder
- β cells are destroyed

<u>Type II</u> (non-insulin dependent)

- usually occurs after age 40
- >90% of diabetics are Type II
- may be caused by change in insulin receptors
- heredity and weight are important

[See Fig. 45.14b]

[See Fig. 46.8]