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基础与临床内分泌学

Basic & Clinical Endocrinology

Francis S. Greenspan

David G. Gardner



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Basic & Clinical Endocrinology

sixth edition

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Preface

The 21st century has witnessed a tremendous resurgence of interest in and understanding of the physiology and genetics of endocrinology. This is due largely to the application of modern molecular methods to the study of hormones, their synthesis, and their mechanisms of action. These advances have in turn engendered a host of newly created hormone agonists and antagonists as well as diagnostic tests for clinical endocrine problems. The current sixth edition of *Basic & Clinical Endocrinology* has incorporated many of these new concepts and therapies into a succinct, comprehensive, and up-to-date endocrinology textbook. Each chapter has been revised to incorporate important changes since the last edition.

Following the overview in Chapter 1, "Introduction to Endocrinology," new concepts of hormone synthesis, release, and actions are carefully reviewed. There is a new chapter on endocrine autoimmunity. Recent advances in diagnosis and management of major endocrine syndromes are reviewed, including new chapters on metabolic bone

disease, obesity, multiple endocrine neoplasia, and the hormonal aspects of malignancy. There is a new review of the endocrinopathies associated with AIDS and how to diagnose and manage them. In addition, there is a chapter dealing with endocrine emergencies that includes specific recommendations on the management of endocrine crises.

The reader will find that these chapters, each written by specialists in their fields, provide an authoritative review of the subject matter. The many tables, figures, and charts will help to facilitate understanding of the concepts presented.

This overview of the field of endocrinology should provide a solid foundation from which to view the exciting future developments in this rapidly moving discipline.

Francis S. Greenspan, MD, FACP
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San Francisco
October 2000

Contents

Authorsiv
Prefacexv
1. Introduction to Endocrinology1
<i>John D. Baxter, MD, & Ralf C. J. Ribeiro, MD, PhD</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Endocrine System 1 Paracrine & Autocrine Actions 3 Chemical Composition of Hormones 3 Vitamins & Hormones 4 Hormones & Oncogenes 4 Hormones & the Immune System 5 Eicosanoids: Prostaglandins, Thromboxanes, Leukotrienes, & Related Compounds 5 Mechanisms of Hormone Action 6 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hormone Receptors 6 Regulation of Responsiveness to Hormones 7 Interactions Between Hormone Response Systems 8 Classes of Hormone Action 8 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of Receptors for Classifying Types of Hormone Action 9 Classification of Hormones by the Types of Ligands: Agonists, Antagonists, Partial Agonists-Partial Antagonists, & Inactive Compounds 10 Endocrine & Nervous System Relationships: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Neuroendocrinology 11 Neurotransmitters & Hormones 11 Hypothalamic-Pituitary Relationships 11 Gene Expression in Endocrinology & Metabolism: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Molecular Basis for Function of the System & Genetic Endocrine Disease 13 Evolution of the Endocrine System 14 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cellular Control Networks & the Origins of Regulatory Chemicals 15 The Origins of Regulatory Proteins 15 The Origins of Hormones 15 Intracellular Communication 16 Evolution of Genes Involved in the Endocrine System 16 Integrative Networks 16 Evolution of the Endocrine Glands 16 Hormone Synthesis & Release 17 Hormone Transport 17 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Steroid & Thyroid Hormones & Vitamin D 18 Polypeptide Hormones 18 Metabolism & Elimination of Hormones 19 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Peptide Hormones 19 Steroid & Thyroid Hormones & Vitamin D 19 Catecholamine & Eicosanoid Metabolism 19 Regulation of the Endocrine System 20 Actions of Hormones 20 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developmental Effects 20 Cell Growth & Cancer 20 Central Nervous System Effects 21 Effects on Metabolism 21 Effects on Cardiovascular & Renal Function 21 Effects on Mineral & Water Metabolism 22 Effects on Skeletal Functions 22 Effects on Reproductive Function 22 Release of Other Hormones 22 Effects on Immunologic Functions 23 Disorders of the Endocrine System 23 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Endocrine Hypofunction 23 Endocrine Hyperfunction 24 Defects in Sensitivity to Hormones 25 Syndromes of Hormone Excess Due to Administration of Exogenous Hormone or Medication 26 Disorders of the Endocrine Glands not Associated With Endocrine Disease 27 Approach to the Patient With Endocrine Disease 27 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> History & Physical Examination 27 Laboratory Studies 28 Screening for Endocrine Diseases 32 Treatment of Endocrine Diseases 33 Uses of Hormones in Therapy of Nonendocrine Disease 34 	
2. Hormone Synthesis & Release38
<i>Vishwanath R. Lingappa, MD, PhD, & Synthia H. Mellon, PhD</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overview of Hormone Biosynthesis 38 Membrane Vesicle-Mediated Hormone Export 39 Hormone Export not Mediated by Membrane Vesicles 49 Metabolism, Transport, Elimination, & Regulation of Hormones 55 	
3. Mechanisms of Hormone Action59
<i>David G. Gardner, MD</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receptors 59 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Neurotransmitter & Peptide Hormone Receptors 61 Seven-Transmembrane Receptors 62 G Protein Transducers 62 Effectors 63 G Protein-Linked Receptors & Human Disease 66 	

Growth Factor Receptors 67
 Cytokine Receptors 69
 Guanylyl Cyclase-Linked Receptors 70
 Nuclear Action of Peptide Hormones 71
 Nuclear Receptors 72

Steroid Receptor Family 72
 Thyroid Receptor Family 74
 Nongenomic Effects of the Steroid Hormones 77
 Steroid & Thyroid Hormone Receptor Resistance
 Syndromes 77

4. Endocrine Autoimmunity80

Juan Carlos Jaume, MD

Basic Immune Components & Mechanisms 81
 Immune Recognition & Response 81
 Tolerance 85
 Autoimmunity Is Multifactorial 90
 Genetic Factors in Autoimmunity 90
 Environmental Factors in Autoimmunity 90
 Single Gland Autoimmune Syndromes 91
 Autoimmune Aspects of Thyroid Disease 91
 Autoimmune Aspects of Type 1 Diabetes 93

Autoimmune Aspects of Other
 Endocrinopathies 95
 Autoimmune Polyglandular Syndromes 97
 Autoimmune Polyglandular Syndrome I
 (APS-I) 97
 Autoimmune Polyglandular Syndrome II
 (APS-II) 98
 Management of Autoimmune Polyglandular
 Syndromes 98

5. Hypothalamus & Pituitary100

David C. Aron, MS, MD, James W. Findling, MD, & J. Blake Tyrrell, MD

Hypothalamic Hormones 105
 Anterior Pituitary Hormones 110
 ACTH & Related Peptides 110
 Growth Hormone 112
 Prolactin 114
 Thyrotropin 116
 Gonadotropins: Luteinizing Hormone,
 Follicle-Stimulating Hormone 117
 Endocrinologic Evaluation of the Hypothalamic-
 Pituitary Axis 119
 Evaluation of ACTH 120
 Evaluation of Growth Hormone 121
 Evaluation of Prolactin 122
 Evaluation of TSH 122
 Evaluation of LH & FSH 122
 Problems in Evaluation of the Hypothalamic-
 Pituitary Axis 122

Effects of Pharmacologic Agents on
 Hypothalamic-Pituitary Function 123
 Endocrine Tests of Hypothalamic-Pituitary
 Function 123
 Neuroradiologic Evaluation 123
 Pituitary & Hypothalamic Disorders 126
 Empty Sella Syndrome 128
 Hypothalamic Dysfunction 129
 Hypopituitarism 130
 Pituitary Adenomas 136
 Posterior Pituitary 151
 Antidiuretic Hormone (ADH; Vasopressin) 151
 Oxytocin 152
 Control of Water Balance 152
 Diabetes Insipidus 154
 Syndrome of Inappropriate Secretion of
 Antidiuretic Hormone (SIADH) 158

6. Growth163

Dennis Styne, MD

Normal Growth 163
 Intrauterine Growth 163
 The Placenta 164
 Classic Hormones of Growth & Fetal Growth 164
 Growth Factors & Oncogenes in Fetal Growth 164
 Insulin-like Growth Factors, Receptors, &
 Binding Proteins 164
 Insulin 165
 Epidermal Growth Factor 165
 Fetal Origins of Adult Disease 166

Postnatal Growth 166
 Measurement of Growth 176
 Skeletal (Bone) Age 178
 Disorders of Growth 178
 Short Stature Due to Nonendocrine
 Causes 178
 Short Stature Due to Endocrine Disorders 184
 The Diagnosis of Short Stature 195
 Tall Stature Due to Nonendocrine Causes 196
 Tall Stature Due to Endocrine Disorders 197

7. The Thyroid Gland201

Francis S. Greenspan, MD, FACP

Anatomy & Histology 202
 Physiology 204
 Structure of Thyroid Hormones 204
 Iodine Metabolism 204
 Thyroid Hormone Synthesis & Secretion 206
 Abnormalities in Thyroid Hormone Synthesis &
 Release 210
 Thyroid Hormone Transport 210
 Metabolism of Thyroid Hormones 213
 Control of Thyroid Function 217
 The Action of Thyroid Hormones 222
 Physiologic Changes in Thyroid Function 225
 Thyroid Autoimmunity 226
 Tests of Thyroid Function 227

Tests of Thyroid Hormones in Blood 227
 Evaluation of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-
 Thyroid Axis 228
 Iodine Metabolism & Biosynthetic Activity 229
 Thyroid Imaging 231
 Thyroid Ultrasonography or Magnetic Resonance
 Imaging 231
 Thyroid Biopsy 232
 Effects of Thyroid Hormones on Peripheral
 Tissues 232
 Measurement of Thyroid Autoantibodies 232
 Summary: Clinical Use of Thyroid Function
 Tests 233
 Disorders of the Thyroid 233

Hypothyroidism 235	Thyroiditis 256
Hyperthyroidism & Thyrotoxicosis 242	Effects of Ionizing Radiation on the Thyroid Gland 258
Thyroid Hormone Resistance Syndromes 253	Thyroid Nodules & Thyroid Cancer 260
Nontoxic Goiter 254	
8. Mineral Metabolism & Metabolic Bone Disease273
<i>Dolores Shoback, MD, Robert Marcus, MD, Daniel Bikle, MD, PhD, & Gordon Strewler, MD</i>	
Cellular & Extracellular Calcium Metabolism 273	Hypocalcemia 300
Parathyroid Hormone 274	Bone Anatomy & Remodeling 306
Calcitonin 279	Osteoporosis 310
Vitamin D 281	Osteomalacia & Rickets 320
Integrated Control of Mineral Homeostasis 288	Paget's Disease of Bone (Osteitis Deformans) 326
Medullary Thyroid Carcinoma 288	Renal Osteodystrophy 329
Hypercalcemia 288	
9. Glucocorticoids & Adrenal Androgens334
<i>David C. Aron, MD, MS, James W. Findling, MD, & J. Blake Tyrrell, MD</i>	
Embryology & Anatomy 334	Secondary Adrenocortical Insufficiency 355
Biosynthesis of Cortisol & Adrenal Androgens 337	Diagnosis of Adrenocortical Insufficiency 355
Circulation of Cortisol & Adrenal Androgens 342	Treatment of Adrenocortical Insufficiency 358
Metabolism of Cortisol & Adrenal Androgens 342	Prognosis of Adrenocortical Insufficiency 360
Biologic Effects 343	Cushing's Syndrome 360
Glucocorticoids 343	Hirsutism & Virilism 371
Adrenal Androgens 347	Incidental Adrenal Mass 371
Laboratory Evaluation 347	Glucocorticoid Therapy for Nonendocrine Disorders 373
Disorders of Adrenocortical Insufficiency 351	
Primary Adrenocortical Insufficiency (Addison's Disease) 351	
10. Endocrine Hypertension377
<i>Burl R. Don, MD, & Morris Schambelan, MD</i>	
Hypertension of Adrenal Origin 377	Other Hormone Systems & Hypertension 395
Hypertension of Renal Origin 389	
11. Adrenal Medulla399
<i>Alan Goldfien, MD</i>	
Anatomy 399	Disorders of Adrenal Medullary Function 410
Hormones of the Adrenal Medulla 400	Adrenal Medullary Hypofunction 410
Catecholamines 400	Adrenal Medullary Hyperfunction 410
Other Hormones 409	Pheochromocytoma 411
12. Testes422
<i>Glenn D. Braunstein, MD</i>	
Anatomy & Structure-Function Relationships 422	Clinical Male Gonadal Disorders 434
Testes 422	Klinefelter's Syndrome 434
Accessory Structures 424	Bilateral Anorchia 436
Physiology of the Male Reproductive System 424	Leydig Cell Aplasia 437
Gonadal Steroids 424	Cryptorchidism 437
Control of Testicular Function 426	Noonan's Syndrome (Male Turner's Syndrome) 439
Evaluation of Male Gonadal Function 428	Myotonic Dystrophy 440
Clinical Evaluation 428	Adult Seminiferous Tubule Failure 440
Laboratory Tests of Testicular Function 428	Adult Leydig Cell Failure (Andropause) 441
Pharmacology of Drugs Used to Treat Male Gonadal Disorders 431	Erectile Dysfunction (Impotence) 442
Androgens 431	Male Infertility 444
Gonadotropins 433	Gynecomastia 446
Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone 434	Testicular Tumors 448
13. Ovaries453
<i>Alan Goldfien, MD</i>	
Anatomy of the Ovaries 453	Relaxin 460
Hormones of the Ovary 454	Other Ovarian Hormones & Regulatory Substances 460
Steroid Hormones 454	

The Menstrual Cycle 461	Threatened Abortion 490
Hormonal Profiles During the Menstrual Cycle 461	Inadequate Luteal Phase 491
The Ovarian Cycle 463	Diagnostic Uses 491
Hormone Interaction & Regulation During the Menstrual Cycle 466	Inhibitors of Ovarian Function 491
Cyclic Changes in the Female Reproductive Tract 467	Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone Analogs & Antagonists 491
Histology of the Endometrium Throughout the Menstrual Cycle 467	Selective Estrogen Receptor Modulators & Antiestrogens 491
Cervical Mucus 469	Danazol 492
Vaginal Epithelium 470	Antiprogestins 492
Extragenital Symptoms Associated With Normal Menstrual Function 471	Antiandrogens 492
Premenstrual Dysmorphic Disorder (Premenstrual Syndrome) 471	Menopause 493
Dysmenorrhea 472	Hormonal Changes 493
Disorders of Ovarian & Menstrual Function 473	Clinical Manifestations of Menopause 494
Amenorrhea in the Absence of Sexual Maturation 474	Management of Menopause 495
Amenorrhea in Patients With Normal Secondary Sex Characteristics 474	Hormonal Contraception (Oral Contraceptives) 498
Disorders of Androgen Metabolism 480	Pharmacologic Effects of Estrogens & Synthetic Progestins 498
Hirsutism 483	Clinical Uses of Oral Contraceptives 499
Anovulatory Bleeding 488	Adverse Effects of Oral Contraceptives 500
Ovulation Induction 488	Noncontraceptive Advantages of Hormonal Contraception 502
Clomiphene Citrate 488	Contraindications & Cautions 502
Human Menopausal Gonadotropins (Menotropins) 489	Drug Interactions With Oral Contraceptives 502
Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone 490	Contraception With Progestins 503
Bromocriptine 490	Postcoital Contraceptives & Emergency Contraception 503
Therapeutic Use of Ovarian Hormones & Their Synthetic Analogs 490	Infertility 503
Treatment of Primary Hypogonadism 490	Semen Abnormalities 503
Ovarian Suppression 490	Ovulatory Disorders 504
	Infertility in the Presence of Ovulation 504
	In Vitro Fertilization 505
	Gamete Intrafollicular Transfer (GIFT) 505

14. Abnormalities of Sexual Determination & Differentiation 509

Felix A. Conte, MD, & Melvin M. Grumbach, MD

Normal Sex Differentiation 509	Female Pseudohermaphroditism 527
Testicular & Ovarian Differentiation 515	P450 Aromatase Deficiency 531
Psychosexual Differentiation 517	Maternal Androgens & Progestogens 531
Abnormal Sex Differentiation 519	Male Pseudohermaphroditism 531
Seminiferous Tubule Dysgenesis: Chromatin-Positive Klinefelter's Syndrome & Its Variants 520	Unclassified Forms of Abnormal Sexual Development in Males 540
Syndrome of Gonadal Dysgenesis: Turner's Syndrome & Its Variants 522	Unclassified Forms of Abnormal Sexual Development in Females 542
46,XX & 46,XY Gonadal Dysgenesis 524	Management of Patients With Intersex Problems 542
True Hermaphroditism 526	

15. Puberty 547

Dennis Styne, MD

Physiology of Puberty 547	Precocious Puberty (Sexual Precocity) 566
Delayed Puberty or Absent Puberty (Sexual Infantilism) 556	

16. The Endocrinology of Pregnancy 575

Robert N. Taylor, MD, PhD, Dan I. Lebovic, MD, & Mary C. Martin-Cadieux, MD

Conception & Implantation 575	Endocrine Disorders & Pregnancy 589
Fetal-Placental-Decidual Unit 576	Pregnancy & Pituitary Pathology 589
Polypeptide Hormones 577	Pregnancy & Breast Cancer 590
Steroid Hormones 580	Hypertensive Disorders of Pregnancy 591
Maternal Adaptation to Pregnancy 581	Hyperthyroidism in Pregnancy 592
Fetal Endocrinology 584	Hypothyroidism in Pregnancy 593
Endocrine Control of Parturition 586	Diabetes Mellitus & Pregnancy 593
Endocrinology of the Puerperium 587	(by John L. Kitzmiller, MD)

17. Regulatory Peptides of the Gut603
<i>Sean J. Mulvihill, MD, & Haile T. Debas, MD</i>	
Gastrin 607	Abnormalities of Regulatory Peptides in Diseases of the Gastrointestinal Tract 614
Cholecystokinin 608	Duodenal Ulcer 614
Secretin 609	Motility Disorders of the Gastrointestinal Tract 615
Somatostatin 609	Inflammatory Bowel Disease 615
Bombesin & Gastrin-Releasing Peptide 610	Neuroendocrine Tumors of the Gut 616
Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide 611	Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Syndromes 616
Gastric Inhibitory Peptide 611	Zollinger-Ellison Syndrome 616
Vasoactive Intestinal Peptide 611	VIPoma 617
Galanin 612	Glucagonoma 617
Substance P 612	Carcinoid Tumors & Carcinoid Syndrome 617
Enkephalins 612	Miscellaneous Tumors 618
Neurotensin 613	Minimally Invasive Approaches to Gut Endocrine Tumors 619
Motilin 613	Clinical Uses of Gut Peptides 619
Pancreatic Polypeptide Family 614	
Enteroglucagon 614	
18. Pancreatic Hormones & Diabetes Mellitus623
<i>Umesh Masharani, MRCP(UK), & John H. Karam, MD</i>	
The Endocrine Pancreas 623	Intravenous Glucose Tolerance Test 648
Anatomy & Histology 623	Treatment of Diabetes Mellitus 648
Hormones of the Endocrine Pancreas 624	Diet 651
Diabetes Mellitus 633	Oral Agents for the Treatment of Hyperglycemia 653
Classification 633	Insulin 661
Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus 633	Steps in the Management of the Diabetic Patient 666
Type 2 Diabetes 636	Acute Complications of Diabetes Mellitus 675
Other Specific Types of Diabetes 638	Hypoglycemia 675
Clinical Features of Diabetes Mellitus 641	Coma 678
Type 1 Diabetes 641	Chronic Complications of Diabetes Mellitus 686
Type 2 Diabetes 642	Specific Chronic Complications of Diabetes Mellitus 688
Laboratory Findings in Diabetes Mellitus 643	Surgery in the Diabetic Patient 694
Urinalysis 643	Diabetics Regulated by Diet Alone 694
Blood Glucose Testing 644	Diabetics Taking Oral Hypoglycemic Agents 694
Serum Ketone Determinations 645	Diabetics Taking Insulin 694
Glycosylated Hemoglobin Assays 645	Prognosis for Patients With Diabetes Mellitus 695
Capillary Morphometry 646	
Lipoproteins in Diabetes 646	
Diagnosis of Diabetes Mellitus 647	
Oral Glucose Tolerance Test 647	
Insulin Levels 648	
19. Hypoglycemic Disorders699
<i>John H. Karam, MD</i>	
Pathophysiology of the Counterregulatory Response to Neuroglycopenia 699	Symptomatic Fasting Hypoglycemia Without Hyperinsulinism 712
Classification of Hypoglycemic Disorders 703	Nonfasting Hypoglycemia (Reactive Hypoglycemia) 713
Clinical Presentation of Hypoglycemia 704	
Specific Hypoglycemic Disorders 706	
Symptomatic Fasting Hypoglycemia With Hyperinsulinism 706	
20. Disorders of Lipoprotein Metabolism716
<i>Mary J. Malloy, MD, & John P. Kane, MD, PhD</i>	
Atherosclerosis 716	LP(a) Hyperlipoproteinemia 732
Overview of Lipid Transport 717	Familial Ligand-Defective Apo B 732
Differentiation of Disorders of Lipoprotein Metabolism 722	Secondary Hypercholesterolemia 732
Clinical Descriptions of Primary & Secondary Disorders of Lipoprotein Metabolism 724	Hypothyroidism 732
The Hypertriglyceridemias 724	Nephrosis 733
Primary Hypertriglyceridemia 725	Immunoglobulin Disorders 733
Secondary Hypertriglyceridemia 727	Anorexia Nervosa 733
The Primary Hypercholesterolemias 731	Cholestasis 733
Familial Hypercholesterolemia 731	The Primary Hypolipidemias 733
Familial Combined Hyperlipidemia 732	Primary Hypolipidemia Due to Deficiency of High-Density Lipoproteins 734

Primary Hypolipidemia Due to Deficiency of Apo B-Containing Lipoproteins 735	Drugs Used in Treatment of Hyperlipoproteinemia 739
Secondary Hypolipidemia 736	Bile Acid Sequestrants 739
Other Disorders of Lipoprotein Metabolism 736	Niacin (Nicotinic Acid) 740
The Lipodystrophies 736	Fibric Acid Derivatives 741
Rare Disorders 737	HMG-CoA Reductase Inhibitors 741
Treatment of Hyperlipidemia 737	Combined Drug Therapy 742
Dietary Factors in the Management of Lipoprotein Disorders 738	Possible Untoward Consequences of Lipid-Lowering Therapy 743
21. Obesity & Overweight745
<i>Marc K. Hellerstein, MD, PhD, & Elizabeth J. Parks, PhD</i>	
Controversies & Uncertainties Regarding the Pathogenesis of Obesity 754	Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus 759
Survey of Treatment Approaches & Their Efficacy 755	Hyperlipidemia 759
Dietary Therapies 755	Polycystic Ovarian Syndrome 759
Surgical Treatment of Obesity 756	Hypertension 759
Pharmacologic Therapies 756	Gallstones 759
Other Conditions Affected by Treatment of Obesity or Overweight 759	Osteoarthritis & Other Weight-Sensitive States 759
	A Systematic Approach to the Treatment of Obesity 759
22. Hormones & Cancer762
<i>Debasish Tripathy, MD, & Christopher C. Benz, MD</i>	
Hormonal Effects on Tumors 762	Steroid Receptors & Treatment 767
Growth Promotion & Malignant Transformation 762	Primary Modalities of Endocrine Intervention 768
Tumor Growth Mediated by Autocrine & Paracrine Factors 764	Combination Endocrine Therapy 769
Steroid-Dependent Tumors 765	Chemo-Endocrine Therapy 770
Tumors Affecting Endocrine Status 765	Clinical Problems 770
Nonsecretory Tumors 765	Breast Cancer in Women 770
Secretory Tumors 765	Breast Cancer in Men 774
Treatment-Induced Endocrinopathy 766	Endometrial Cancer 774
Endocrine Therapy for Cancer 767	Prostatic Cancer 775
	Miscellaneous Tumors 776
23. Humoral Manifestations of Malignancy778
<i>Dolores Shoback, MD, & Janet Funk, MD</i>	
Ectopic Hormone & Receptor Syndromes 778	Other Hormones Secreted by Tumors 787
Hypercalcemia of Malignancy 779	Oncogenic Osteomalacia 788
Ectopic Cushing's Syndrome 783	Gut Hormones 789
Syndrome of Inappropriate ADH (SIADH) Secretion 785	Erythropoietin 789
Non-Islet Cell Tumors & Hypoglycemia 786	Renin 789
24. Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia792
<i>David G. Gardner, MD</i>	
Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 1 (MEN 1) 792	Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 2 (MEN 2) 797
25. Geriatric Endocrinology802
<i>Susan L. Greenspan, MD, & Neil M. Resnick, MD</i>	
Thyroid Function & Disease 802	Changes in Water Balance 816
Disorders of the Thyroid Gland 803	Hypernatremia 816
Carbohydrate Intolerance & Diabetes Mellitus 805	Hyponatremia 816
Aging & the Physiology of Carbohydrate Intolerance 805	Hyporeninemic Hypoaldosteronism 816
Diabetes Mellitus 806	Glucocorticoids & Stress 817
Nonketotic Hyperosmolar Coma 808	Disorders of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal Axis 817
Osteoporosis & Calcium Homeostasis 808	Changes in Reproductive Function in Men 818
Osteoporosis 808	Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia 819
Hyperparathyroidism 815	

26. Endocrine Emergencies823
<i>David G. Gardner, MD, & Francis S. Greenspan, MD</i>	
Myxedema Coma 823	Diabetic Ketoacidosis 829
Thyroid Storm 824	Nonketotic Hyperosmolar Coma 832
Thyrotoxic Periodic Paralysis 825	Hypercalcemic Crisis 835
Amiodarone Induced Thyrotoxicosis 826	Acute Hypocalcemia 837
Acute Adrenal Insufficiency 827	Hyponatremia 839
Pituitary Apoplexy 828	Diabetes Insipidus 841
27. AIDS Endocrinopathies846
<i>Deborah E. Sellmeyer, MD, & Carl Grunfeld, MD, PhD</i>	
Thyroid Disorders 846	Pituitary Disorders 850
Adrenal Disorders 847	Pancreatic Disorders 850
Bone & Mineral Disorders 849	Lipid Disorders 851
Gonadal Disorders 849	Conclusion 851
Appendix: Table of Normal Hormone Reference Ranges853
Index867

Introduction to Endocrinology

1

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THE ENDOCRINE SYSTEM

The endocrine and nervous systems are the major controllers of the flow of information between different cells and tissues, thereby regulating most functions of the body (Figure 1-1). The term "endocrine" denotes internal secretion of biologically active substances—in contrast to "exocrine," which denotes secretion outside the body, eg, through sweat glands or

ducts that lead into the gastrointestinal tract. The endocrine system uses hormones to convey its information. Hormones are typically defined as substances released by endocrine glands and transported through the bloodstream to tissues where they act to regulate specific functions. These actions are mediated by binding of the hormone to receptor molecules (Chapter 3). Hormones are allosteric effectors that alter the conformation of the receptors to which they bind. Re-

ACRONYMS USED IN THIS CHAPTER

ACTH	Adrenocorticotrophic hormone; corticotropin	HRE	Hormone response element
ADH	Antidiuretic hormone; vasopressin	IGF-1	Insulin-like growth factor-1
ADP	Adenosine diphosphate	IGF-2	Insulin-like growth factor-2
ANP	Atrial natriuretic peptide	LDL	Low-density lipoprotein
AP1	Activating protein 1	LH	Luteinizing hormone
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate	MAO	Monamine oxidase
cAMP	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate	MEN	Multiple endocrine neoplasia
CBG	Corticosteroid-binding globulin; transcortin	MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
CCK	Cholecystokinin	mRNA	Messenger RNA
CG	Chorionic gonadotropin	PAS	Period gene, Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator, and Single-minded gene
cGMP	Guanosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate	PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
CGRH	Calcitonin gene-related hormone	PGDF	Platelet-derived growth factor
COMT	Catechol-O-methyltransferase	PRL	Prolactin
CRH	Corticotropin-releasing hormone	PTH	Parathyroid hormone
CS	Chorionic somatomammotropin, placental lactogen	RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
EGF	Epidermal growth factor	SHBG	Sex hormone-binding globulin
ELISA	Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay	TBG	Thyroid hormone-binding globulin
ERE	Estrogen response element	TBPA	Thyroid hormone-binding prealbumin; transthyretin
FGF	Fibroblast growth factor	TGF	Transforming growth factor
FSH	Follicle-stimulating hormone	TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
GABA	γ -Aminobutyric acid	TRH	Thyrotropin-releasing hormone
GH	Growth hormone	TSH	Thyroid-stimulating hormone, thyrotropin
GHRH	Growth hormone-releasing hormone	VIP	Vasoactive intestinal peptide
GnRH	Gonadotropin-releasing hormone	VMA	Vanillylmandelic acid

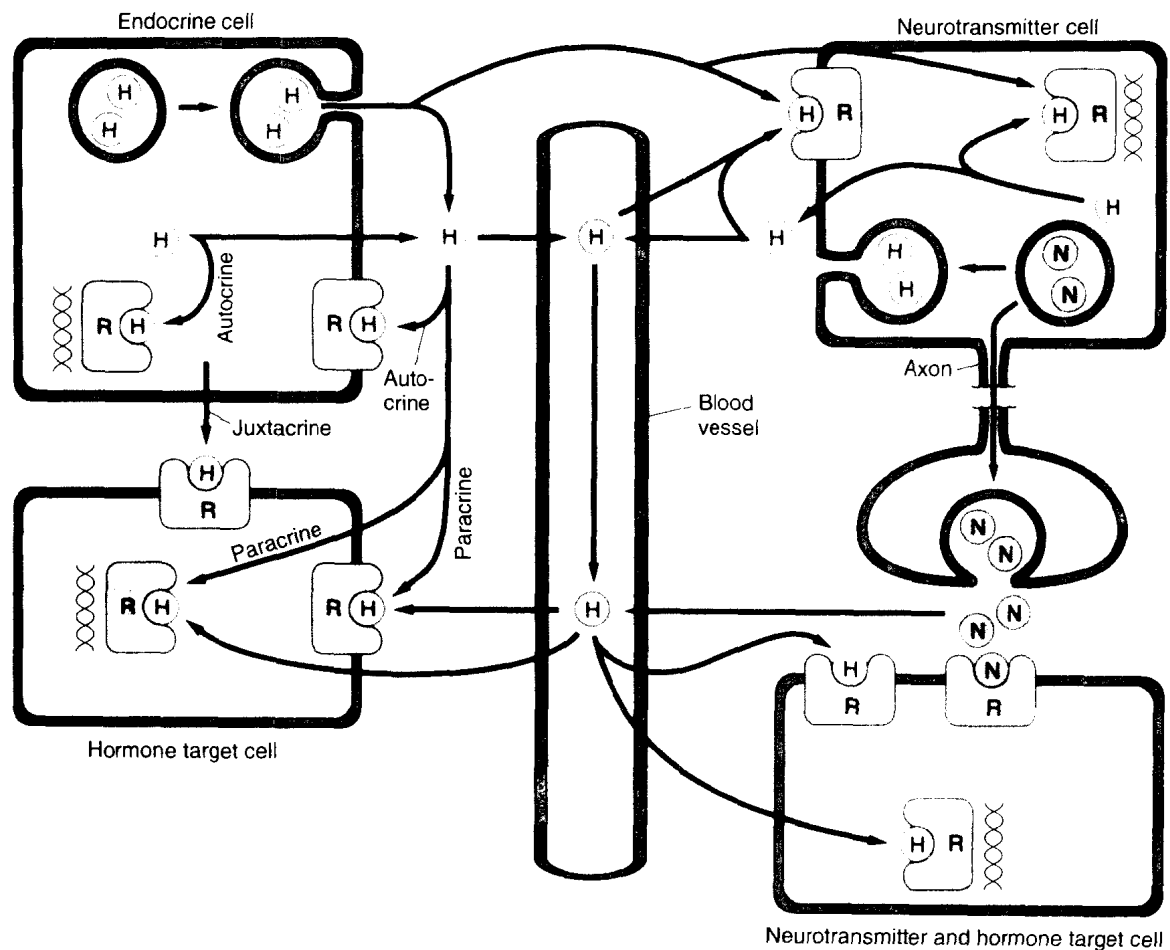


Figure 1-1. Actions of hormones and neurotransmitters and their interrelationships. Both endocrine and neurotransmitter cells synthesize and release hormones either from secretory vesicles or by diffusion. These hormones may act on the same cell in which they are produced (autocrine) without leaving the cell or after their release and subsequent binding to receptors in or on the cell. They may act on other target cells in their vicinity, including neurotransmitter cells, without entering the circulation (juxtacrine and paracrine). They may go to the target cell through the circulation (hormonal). Neurotransmitter cells produce neurotransmitters that are released at nerve terminals. These same neurotransmitters can be released to act as hormones through the synaptic junctions or directly by the cell. (H, hormone; R, receptor; N, neurotransmitter.)

ceptors are cellular proteins that have bifunctional properties of both recognition (ie, ability to distinguish the hormone from all of the other molecules to which they are exposed) and signal activation (ie, the ability to translate the binding information into postreceptor events).

The endocrine system is diverse and complex. There are varied and sophisticated mechanisms that control hormone synthesis, release, transport in the circulation, metabolism, and delivery to the surface or interior of target cells. In addition to this more traditional view of the system, many actions of hormones also occur in autocrine, paracrine, or juxtacrine fashions in which the hormones do not enter the circulation (Figure 1-1; and see below). In addition,

molecules that are usually not considered hormones, such as lymphokines and Ca^{2+} ions, may act as hormones, and tissues such as the kidney, liver, and heart, ordinarily not considered being endocrine glands, produce and release hormones.

There are numerous interrelationships between the endocrine, nervous, and immune systems. Some of these are briefly described below and to some extent in Chapters 5 (hypothalamus and pituitary gland) and 11 (the adrenal medulla). Also described are the class of molecules termed "eicosanoids," including the prostaglandins and prostacyclins, which have numerous relationships with the endocrine system.

This chapter provides a broad overview of the field of endocrinology, including basic science and princi-

ples that are important for diagnosis and management of patients with endocrine disease.

PARACRINE & AUTOCRINE ACTIONS

As mentioned above, hormones not only reach target tissues through the circulation but also act locally where they are released (Figure 1-1). When they act locally on cells other than those that produce them, the action is called "paracrine," as illustrated by the actions of sex steroids in the ovary, angiotensin II in the kidney, and platelet-derived growth factor in the vascular wall. As a variant of this action, the hormone in the membrane of one cell can interact directly with a receptor on a juxtaposed cell. This is seen, for example, with some hematopoietic growth factors and is termed "juxtacrine" regulation. The hormone can also act on the cell in which it is produced, a phenomenon referred to as "autocrine"; in this case, the hormone released by the cell acts on receptors located on the same cell. Autocrine actions appear to be especially important with cancer cells that synthesize various oncogene products, which act in the same cell to stimulate cell division and promote the growth of the cancer. Hormones may also act inside the cell without ever being released, ie, an

intracrine effect. For example, insulin released by the pancreatic islet B cells can inhibit insulin release by the same cells, and somatostatin can inhibit its own release from pancreatic D cells (Chapter 18).

CHEMICAL COMPOSITION OF HORMONES

Hormones derive from the major classes of compounds used by the body for general purposes (Figures 1-2 and 1-3; see also Chapter 2). In fact, derivatives of all types of small molecules provide examples of regulatory ligands that mediate autocrine, paracrine, juxtacrine, and endocrine functions. Thus, hormones can be proteins (including glycoproteins), smaller peptides or peptide derivatives, amino acid analogs, or lipids. Polypeptide hormones are direct translation products of specific mRNAs, cleavage products of larger precursor proteins, or modified peptides. Catecholamines and thyroid hormones are derivatives of amino acids. Steroid hormones and vitamin D are derived from cholesterol. Retinoids are derived from carotenoids in the diet that are modified by the body. Eicosanoids such as prostaglandins, prostacyclins, and leukotrienes are related to hormones (see below) and are derived from fatty acids. Whereas hormones are referred to as such

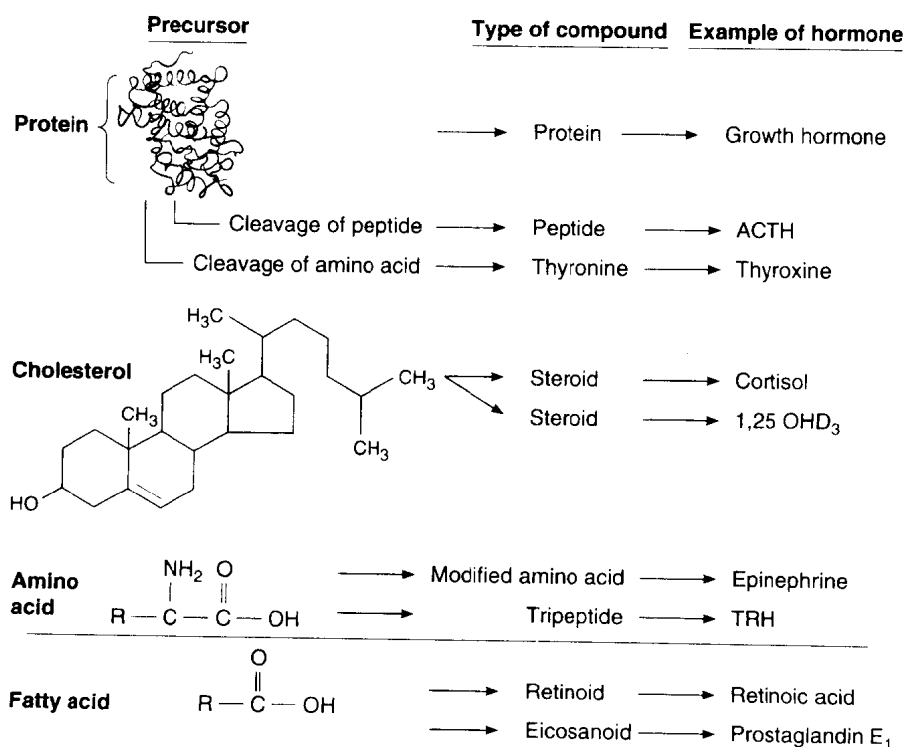


Figure 1-2. Precursors of hormones. Shown are representations of the sources of the major hormones, with examples of the molecular types of derivatives and hormones that reflect each chemical type.