Endocrine

"If you skew the endocrine system, you lose the pathways to self."
—Hilary Mantel

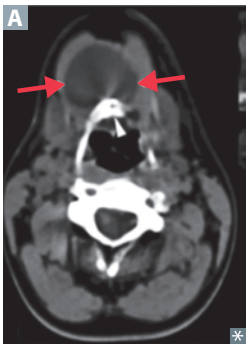
"We have learned that there is an endocrinology of elation and despair, a chemistry of mystical insight, and, in relation to the autonomic nervous system, a meteorology and even . . . an astro-physics of changing moods."
—Aldous Huxley

"Chocolate causes certain endocrine glands to secrete hormones that affect your feelings and behavior by making you happy."
—Elaine Sherman, *Book of Divine Indulgences*

The endocrine system comprises widely distributed organs that work in a highly integrated manner to orchestrate a state of hormonal equilibrium within the body. Generally speaking, endocrine diseases can be classified either as diseases of underproduction or overproduction, or as conditions involving the development of mass lesions—which themselves may be associated with underproduction or overproduction of hormones. Therefore, study the endocrine system first by learning the glands, their hormones, and their regulation, and then by integrating disease manifestations with diagnosis and management. Take time to learn the multisystem connections.

▸ ENDOCRINE—EMBRYOLOGY

Thyroid development

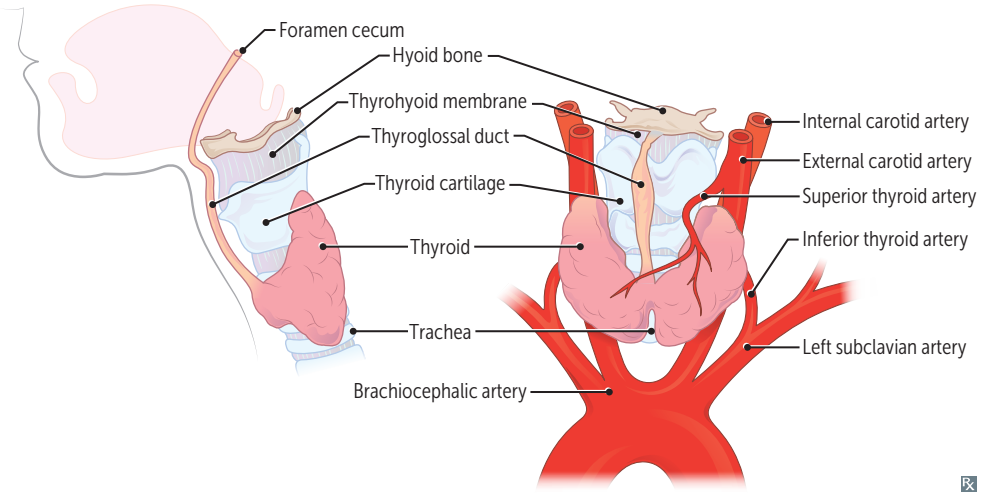


Thyroid diverticulum arises from floor of primitive pharynx and descends into neck. Connected to tongue by thyroglossal duct, which normally disappears but may persist as cysts or the pyramidal lobe of thyroid. Foramen cecum is normal remnant of thyroglossal duct.

Most common ectopic thyroid tissue site is the tongue (lingual thyroid). Removal may result in hypothyroidism if it is the only thyroid tissue present.

Thyroglossal duct cyst A presents as an anterior midline neck mass that moves with swallowing or protrusion of the tongue (vs persistent cervical sinus leading to pharyngeal cleft cyst in lateral neck).

Thyroid follicular cells derived from endoderm.



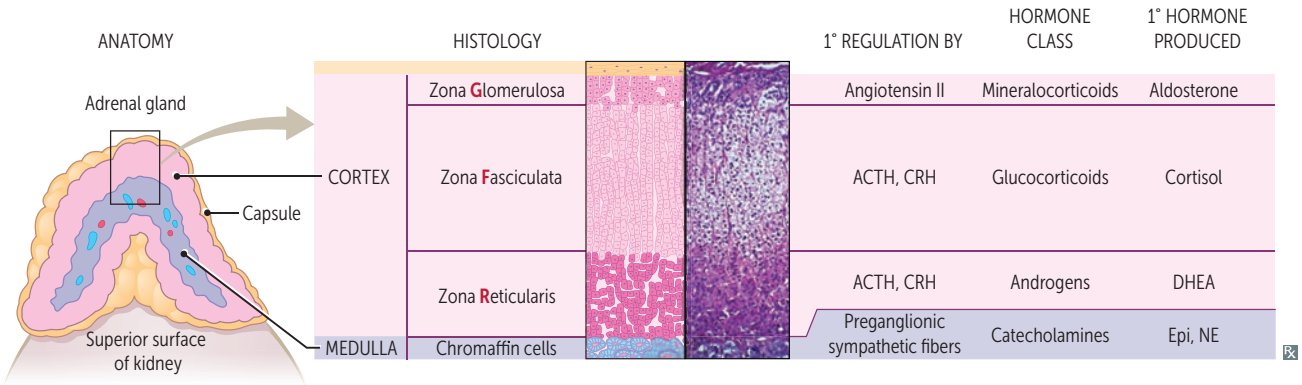
▸ ENDOCRINE—ANATOMY

Pituitary gland

Anterior pituitary (adenohypophysis)	Secretes FSH, LH, ACTH, TSH, prolactin, GH, and β-endorphin. Melanotropin (MSH) secreted from intermediate lobe of pituitary. Derived from oral ectoderm (Rathke pouch). ▪ α subunit—hormone subunit common to TSH, LH, FSH, and hCG. ▪ β subunit—determines hormone specificity.	Proopiomelanocortin derivatives—β-endorphin, ACTH, and MSH. Go pro with a BAM! FLAT PiG: FSH, LH, ACTH, TSH, PRL, GH. B-FLAT: Basophils—FSH, LH, ACTH, TSH. Acid PiG: Acidophils — PRL, GH.
Posterior pituitary (neurohypophysis)	Stores and releases vasopressin (antidiuretic hormone, or ADH) and oxytocin, both made in the hypothalamus (supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei) and transported to posterior pituitary via neurophysins (carrier proteins). Derived from neuroectoderm.	

Adrenal cortex and medulla

Adrenal cortex (derived from mesoderm) and medulla (derived from neural crest).

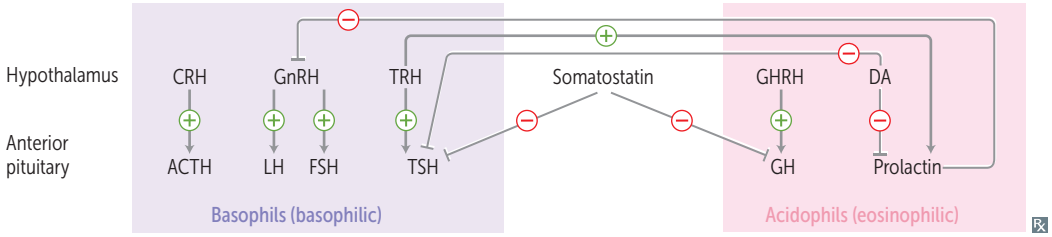


GFR corresponds with Salt (mineralocorticoids), Sugar (glucocorticoids), and Sex (androgens). "The deeper you go, the sweeter it gets."

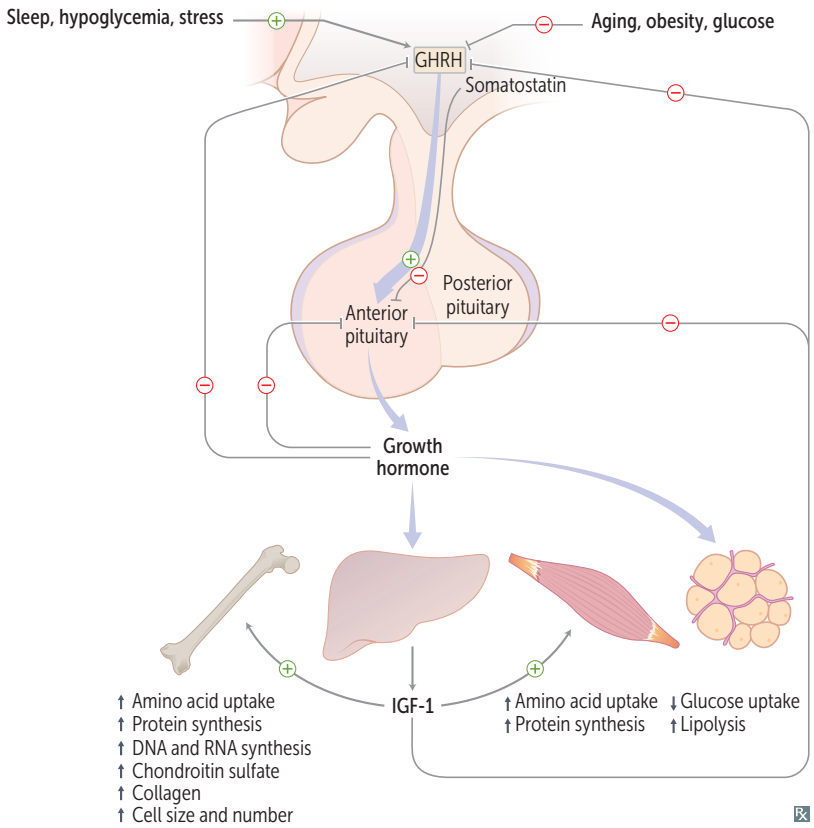
▸ ENDOCRINE—PHYSIOLOGY

Hypothalamic-pituitary hormones

HORMONE	FUNCTION	CLINICAL NOTES
ADH	↑ water permeability of distal convoluted tubule and collecting duct cells in kidney to ↑ water reabsorption	Stimulus for secretion is ↑ plasma osmolality, except in SIADH, in which ADH is elevated despite ↓ plasma osmolality
CRH	↑ ACTH, MSH, β-endorphin	↓ in chronic exogenous steroid use
Dopamine	↓ prolactin, TSH	Also called prolactin-inhibiting factor Dopamine antagonists (eg, antipsychotics) can cause galactorrhea due to hyperprolactinemia
GHRH	↑ GH	Analog (tesamorelin) used to treat HIV-associated lipodystrophy
GnRH	↑ FSH, LH	Suppressed by hyperprolactinemia Tonic GnRH analog (eg, leuprolide) suppresses hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis. Pulsatile GnRH leads to puberty, fertility
MSH	↑ melanogenesis by melanocytes	Causes hyperpigmentation in Cushing disease, as MSH and ACTH share the same precursor molecule, proopiomelanocortin
Oxytocin	Causes uterine contractions during labor. Responsible for milk letdown reflex in response to suckling.	Modulates fear, anxiety, social bonding, mood, and depression
Prolactin	↓ GnRH Stimulates lactogenesis.	Pituitary prolactinoma → amenorrhea, osteoporosis, hypogonadism, galactorrhea Breastfeeding → ↑ prolactin → ↓ GnRH → delayed postpartum ovulation (natural contraception)
Somatostatin	↓ GH, TSH	Also called growth hormone inhibiting hormone (GHIH) Analogs used to treat acromegaly
TRH	↑ TSH, prolactin	↑ TRH (eg, in 1°/2° hypothyroidism) may increase prolactin secretion → galactorrhea



Growth hormone



Also called somatotropin. Secreted by anterior pituitary.

Stimulates linear growth and muscle mass through IGF-1 (somatomedin C) secretion by liver. ↑ insulin resistance (diabetogenic).

Released in pulses in response to growth hormone–releasing hormone (GHRH).

Secretion ↑ during exercise, deep sleep, puberty, hypoglycemia, CKD.

Secretion ↓ by glucose, somatostatin, somatomedin (regulatory molecule secreted by liver in response to GH acting on target tissues).

Excess secretion of GH (eg, pituitary adenoma) may cause acromegaly (adults) or gigantism (children). Treatment: somatostatin analogs (eg, octreotide) or surgery.

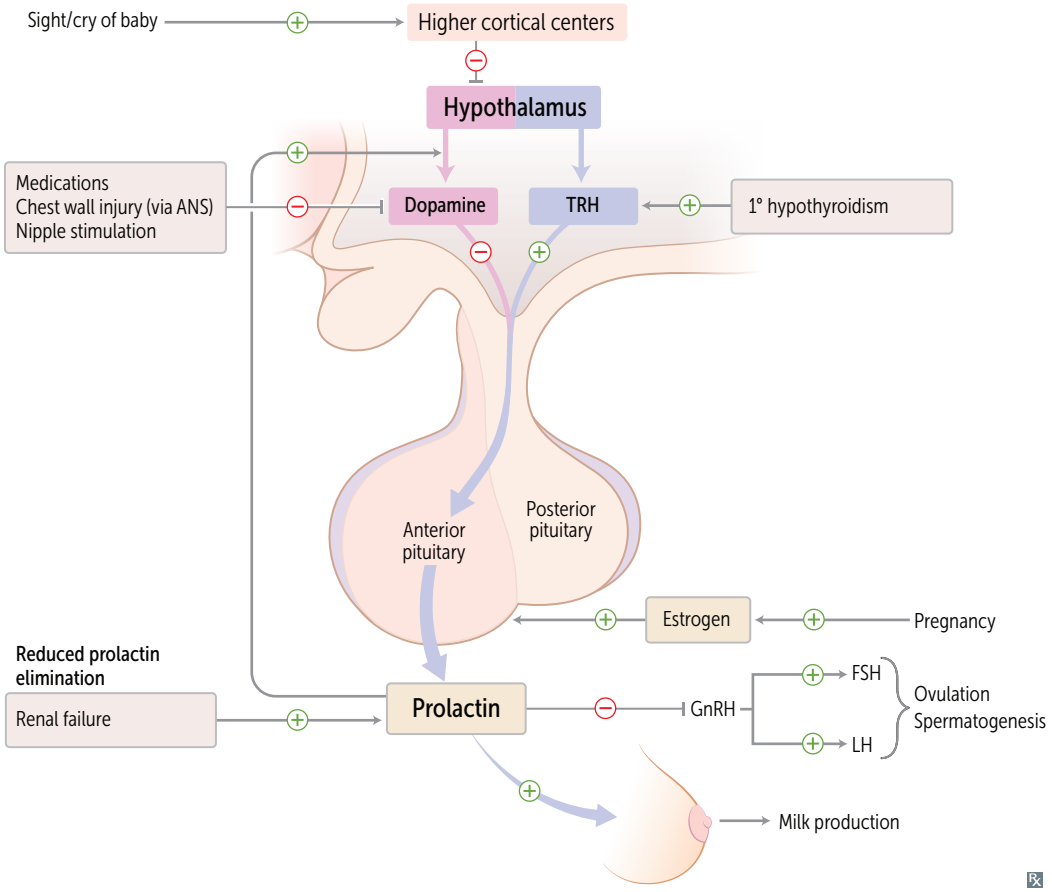
Antidiuretic hormone

Also called vasopressin.

SOURCE	Synthesized in hypothalamus (supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei), stored and secreted by posterior pituitary.	
FUNCTION	Regulates blood pressure (V_1-receptors) and serum osmolality (V_2-receptors). Primary function is serum osmolality regulation (ADH ↓ serum osmolality, ↑ urine osmolality) via regulation of aquaporin channel insertion in principal cells of renal collecting duct.	ADH level is ↓ in central diabetes insipidus (DI), normal or ↑ in nephrogenic DI. Nephrogenic DI can be caused by mutation in V_2-receptor. Desmopressin (ADH analog) is a treatment for central DI and nocturnal enuresis.
REGULATION	Plasma osmolality (1°); hypovolemia.	

Prolactin

SOURCE	Secreted mainly by anterior pituitary.	Structurally homologous to growth hormone.
FUNCTION	Stimulates milk production in breast; inhibits ovulation in females and spermatogenesis in males by inhibiting GnRH synthesis and release.	Excessive amounts of prolactin associated with ↓ libido.
REGULATION	Prolactin secretion from anterior pituitary is tonically inhibited by dopamine from tuberoinfundibular pathway of hypothalamus. Prolactin in turn inhibits its own secretion by ↑ dopamine synthesis and secretion from hypothalamus. TRH ↑ prolactin secretion (eg, in 1° or 2° hypothyroidism).	Dopamine agonists (eg, bromocriptine) inhibit prolactin secretion and can be used in treatment of prolactinoma. Dopamine antagonists (eg, most antipsychotics, metoclopramide) and estrogens (eg, OCPs, pregnancy) stimulate prolactin secretion.



Thyroid hormones

Thyroid produces triiodothyronine (T_3) and thyroxine (T_4), iodine-containing hormones that control the body's metabolic rate.

SOURCE

Follicles of thyroid. 5′-deiodinase converts T_4 (the major thyroid product) to T_3 in peripheral tissue (5, 4, 3). Peripheral conversion is inhibited by glucocorticoids, β-blockers, and propylthiouracil (PTU). Reverse T_3 (rT_3) is a metabolically inactive byproduct of the peripheral conversion of T_4 and its production is increased by growth hormone and glucocorticoids. Functions of thyroid peroxidase include oxidation, organification of iodine, and coupling of monoiodotyrosine (MIT) and diiodotyrosine (DIT). Inhibited by PTU and methimazole. DIT + DIT = T_4. DIT + MIT = T_3. Wolff-Chaikoff effect—excess iodine temporarily turns off thyroid peroxidase → ↓ T_3/T_4 production (protective autoregulatory effect).

FUNCTION

Only free hormone is active. T_3 binds nuclear receptor with greater affinity than T_4. T_3 functions —7 B's:

- Brain maturation
- Bone growth (synergism with GH)
- β-adrenergic effects. ↑ β_1 receptors in heart → ↑ CO, HR, SV, contractility; β-blockers alleviate adrenergic symptoms in thyrotoxicosis
- Basal metabolic rate ↑ (via Na^+/K^+-ATPase activity → ↑ O_2 consumption, RR, body temperature)
- Blood sugar (↑ glycogenolysis, gluconeogenesis)
- Break down lipids (↑ lipolysis)
- Stimulates surfactant synthesis in Babies

REGULATION

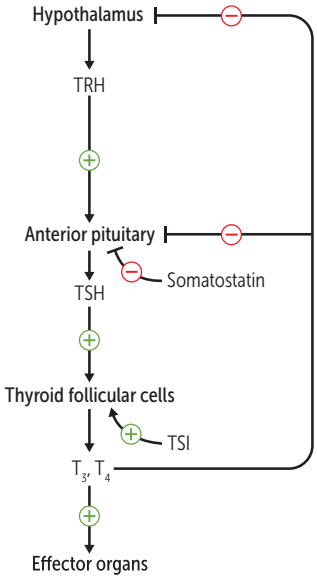
TRH ⊕ TSH release → ⊕ follicular cells. Thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulin (TSI) may ⊕ follicular cells in Graves disease.

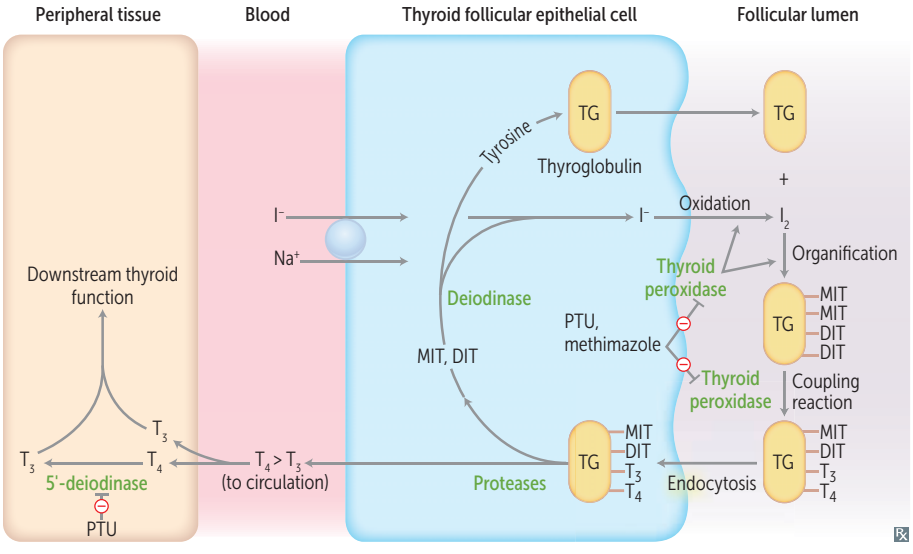
Negative feedback primarily by free T_3/T_4:

- Anterior pituitary → ↓ sensitivity to TRH
- Hypothalamus → ↓ TRH secretion

Thyroxine-binding globulin (TBG) binds most T_3/T_4 in blood. Bound T_3/T_4 = inactive.

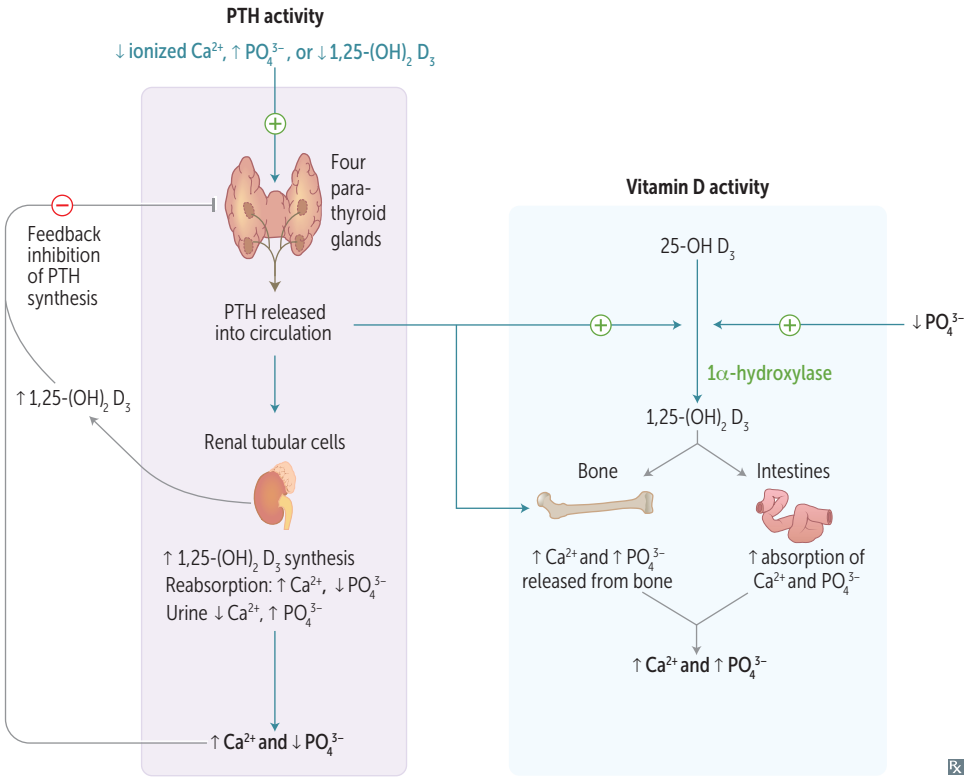
- ↑ TBG in pregnancy, OCP use (estrogen → ↑ TBG) → ↑ total T_3/T_4
- ↓ TBG in steroid use, nephrotic syndrome





Parathyroid hormone

SOURCE	Chief cells of parathyroid	
FUNCTION	↑ free Ca^{2+} in the blood (1° function) ↑ Ca^{2+} and PO_4^{3-} absorption in GI system ↑ Ca^{2+} and PO_4^{3-} from bone resorption ↑ Ca^{2+} reabsorption from DCT ↓ PO_4^{3-} reabsorption in PCT ↑ 1,25-$(OH)_2D_3$ (calcitriol) production by activating 1α-hydroxylase in **PCT** **Tri** to make D_3 in the **PCT**	PTH ↑ serum Ca^{2+}, ↓ serum PO_4^{3-}, ↑ urine PO_4^{3-}, ↑ urine cAMP ↑ RANK-L (receptor activator of NF-κB ligand) secreted by osteoblasts and osteocytes; binds RANK (receptor) on osteoclasts and their precursors to stimulate osteoclasts and ↑ Ca^{2+} → bone resorption (intermittent PTH release can also stimulate bone formation) **PTH** = **P**hosphate-**T**rashing **H**ormone PTH-related peptide (PTHrP) functions like PTH and is commonly increased in malignancies (eg, squamous cell carcinoma of the lung, renal cell carcinoma)
REGULATION	↓ serum Ca^{2+} → ↑ PTH secretion ↑ serum PO_4^{3-} → ↑ PTH secretion ↓ serum Mg^{2+} → ↑ PTH secretion ↓↓ serum Mg^{2+} → ↓ PTH secretion Common causes of ↓ Mg^{2+} include diarrhea, aminoglycosides, diuretics, alcohol abuse	



Calcium homeostasis

Plasma Ca^{2+} exists in three forms:
- Ionized/free (~ 45%, active form)
- Bound to albumin (~ 40%)
- Bound to anions (~ 15%)

↑ **pH** (less H^+) → albumin binds more Ca^{2+} → ↓ ionized Ca^{2+} (eg, cramps, pain, paresthesias, carpopedal spasm) → ↑ **PTH**
↓ **pH** (more H^+) → albumin binds less Ca^{2+} → ↑ ionized Ca^{2+} → ↓ **PTH**
Ionized/free Ca^{2+} is 1° regulator of PTH; changes in pH alter PTH secretion, whereas changes in albumin concentration do not

Calcitonin

SOURCE	Parafollicular cells (C cells) of thyroid.
FUNCTION	↓ bone resorption of Ca^{2+}.
REGULATION	↑ serum Ca^{2+} → ↑ calcitonin secretion.

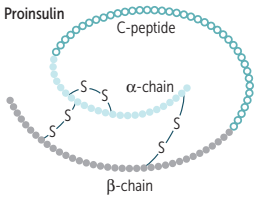
Calcitonin opposes actions of PTH. Not important in normal Ca^{2+} homeostasis
Calcitonin tones down serum Ca^{2+} levels and keeps it in bones

Glucagon

SOURCE	Made by α cells of pancreas.
FUNCTION	Promotes glycogenolysis, gluconeogenesis, lipolysis, ketogenesis. Elevates blood sugar levels to maintain homeostasis when bloodstream glucose levels fall too low (ie, fasting state).
REGULATION	Secreted in response to hypoglycemia. Inhibited by insulin, hyperglycemia, somatostatin.

Insulin

SYNTHESIS



Preproinsulin (synthesized in RER of pancreatic β cells) → cleavage of "presignal" → proinsulin (stored in secretory granules) → cleavage of proinsulin → exocytosis of insulin and C-peptide equally. Insulin and C-peptide are ↑ in insulinoma and sulfonylurea use, whereas exogenous insulin lacks C-peptide.

FUNCTION

Binds **in**sulin receptors (tyrosine kinase activity ❶), **in**ducing glucose uptake (carrier-mediated transport) **in**to insulin-dependent tissue ❷ and gene transcription.

Anabolic effects of insulin:

- ↑ glucose transport in skeletal muscle and adipose tissue
- ↑ glycogen synthesis and storage
- ↑ triglyceride synthesis
- ↑ Na^+ retention (kidneys)
- ↑ protein synthesis (muscles)
- ↑ cellular uptake of K^+ and amino acids
- ↓ glucagon release
- ↓ lipolysis in adipose tissue

Unlike glucose, insulin does not cross placenta.

Insulin-dependent glucose transporters:

- GLUT4: adipose tissue, striated muscle (exercise can also ↑ GLUT4 expression)

Insulin-independent transporters:

- GLUT1: RBCs, brain, cornea, placenta
- GLUT2 (**bi**directional): β islet cells, liver, kidney, GI tract (think **2**-way street)
- GLUT3: brain, placenta
- GLUT5 (**F**ructose): spermatocytes, GI tract
- SGLT1/SGLT2 (Na^+-glucose cotransporters): kidney, small intestine

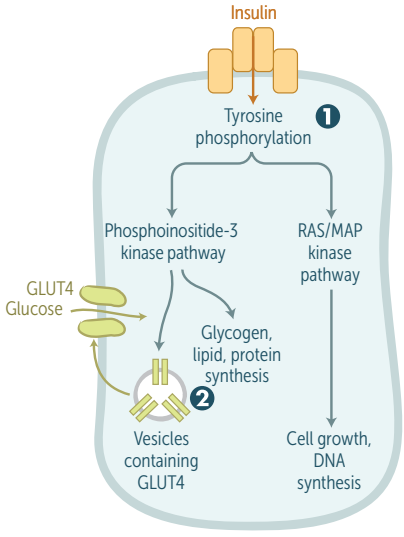
Brain prefers glucose, but may use ketone bodies during starvation. RBCs utilize glucose, as they lack mitochondria for aerobic metabolism.

BRICK LIPS (insulin-independent glucose uptake): **B**rain, **R**BCs, **I**ntestine, **C**ornea, **K**idney, **L**iver, **I**slet (β) cells, **P**lacenta, **S**permatocytes.

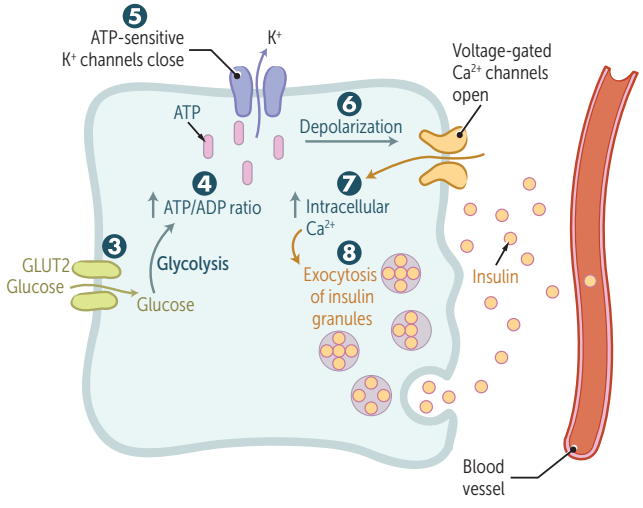
REGULATION

Glucose is the major regulator of insulin release. ↑ insulin response with oral vs IV glucose due to incretins (eg, glucagon-like peptide 1 [GLP-1], glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide [GIP]), which are released after meals and ↑ β cell sensitivity to glucose. Release ↓ by α_2, ↑ by β_2 stimulation (**2** = regulates **in**sul**in**)

Glucose enters β cells ❸ → ↑ ATP generated from glucose metabolism ❹ closes K^+ channels (target of sulfonylureas) ❺ and depolarizes β cell membrane ❻. Voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels open → Ca^{2+} influx ❼ and stimulation of insulin exocytosis ❽.

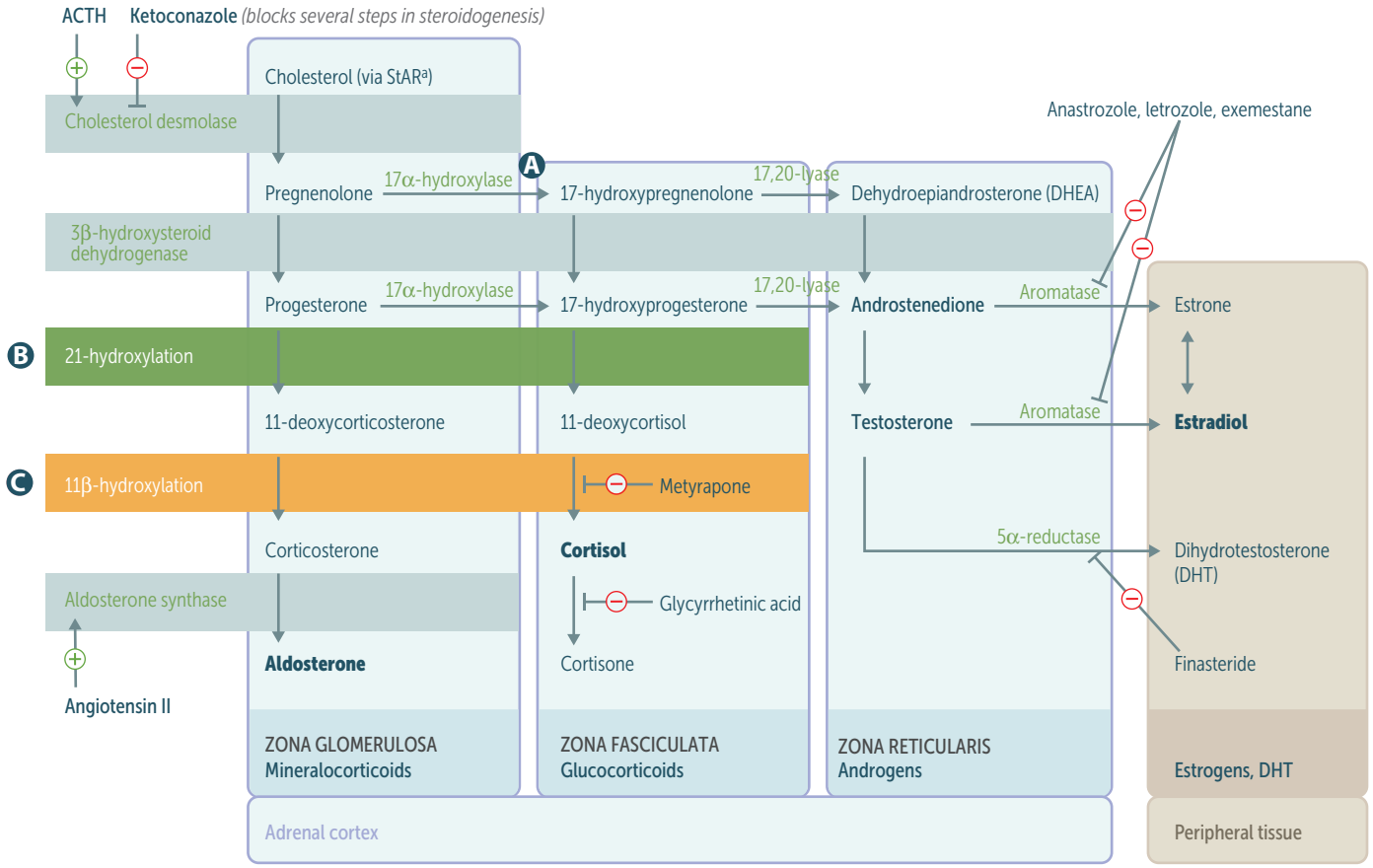


Insulin-dependent glucose uptake



Insulin secretion by pancreatic β cells

Adrenal steroids and congenital adrenal hyperplasias



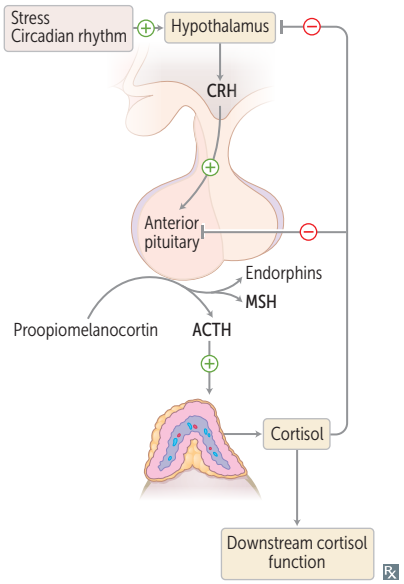
[a]Rate-limiting step.

ENZYME DEFICIENCY	MINERALOCORTICOIDS	[K^+]	BP	CORTISOL	SEX HORMONES	LABS	PRESENTATION
A 17α-hydroxylase[a]	↑	↓	↑	↓	↓	↓ androstenedione	XY: ambiguous genitalia, undescended testes XX: lacks 2° sexual development
B 21-hydroxylase[a]	↓	↑	↓	↓	↑	↑ renin activity ↑ 17-hydroxy-progesterone	Most common Presents in infancy (salt wasting) or childhood (precocious puberty) XX: virilization
C 11β-hydroxylase[a]	↓ aldosterone ↑ 11-deoxycorti-costerone (results in ↑ BP)	↓	↑	↓	↑	↓ renin activity	Presents in infancy (severe hypertension) or childhood (precocious puberty) XX: virilization

[a]All congenital adrenal enzyme deficiencies are autosomal recessive disorders and most are characterized by skin hyperpigmentation (due to ↑ MSH production, which is coproduced and secreted with ACTH) and bilateral adrenal gland enlargement (due to ↑ ACTH stimulation).

If deficient enzyme starts with 1, it causes hypertension; if deficient enzyme ends with 1, it causes virilization in females.

Cortisol

SOURCE	Adrenal zona fasciculata.	Bound to corticosteroid-binding globulin.
FUNCTION	↑ **A**ppetite ↑ **B**lood pressure: ▪ Upregulates α_1-receptors on arterioles → ↑ sensitivity to norepinephrine and epinephrine (permissive action) ▪ At high concentrations, can bind to mineralocorticoid (aldosterone) receptors ↑ **I**nsulin resistance (diabetogenic) ↑ **G**luconeogenesis, lipolysis, and proteolysis (↓ glucose utilization) ↓ **F**ibroblast activity (poor wound healing, ↓ collagen synthesis, ↑ striae) ↓ **I**nflammatory and **I**mmune responses: ▪ Inhibits production of leukotrienes and prostaglandins ▪ Inhibits WBC adhesion → neutrophilia ▪ Blocks histamine release from mast cells ▪ Eosinopenia, lymphopenia ▪ Blocks IL-2 production ↓ **B**one formation (↓ osteoblast activity)	Cortisol is **A BIG FIB**. Exogenous corticosteroids can cause reactivation of TB and candidiasis (blocks IL-2 production). 
REGULATION	CRH (hypothalamus) stimulates ACTH release (pituitary) → cortisol production in adrenal zona fasciculata. Excess cortisol ↓ CRH, ACTH, and cortisol secretion.	Chronic stress may induce prolonged cortisol secretion, cortisol resistance, impaired immunocompetency, and dysregulation of HPA axis.

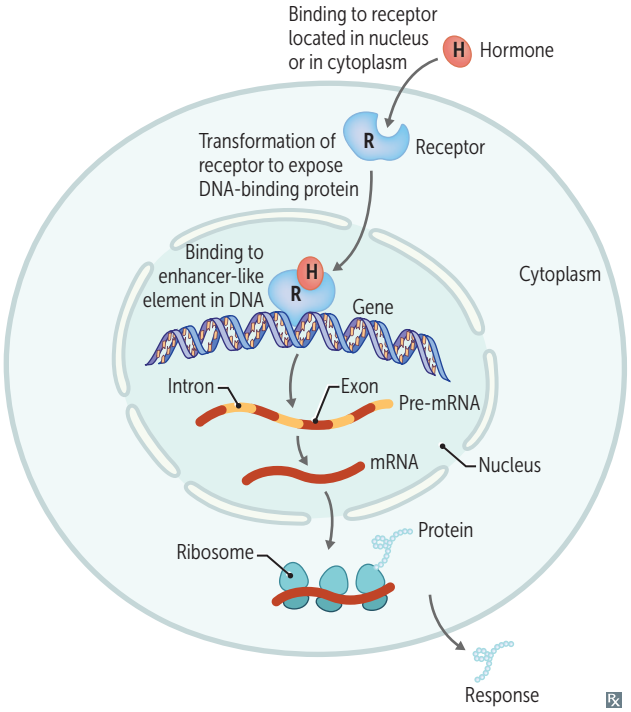
Appetite regulation

Ghrelin	Stimulates hunger (orexigenic effect) and GH release (via GH secretagog receptor). Produced by stomach. Sleep deprivation, fasting, or Prader-Willi syndrome → ↑ ghrelin production. **Ghr**elin makes you hung**hr**e and **gh**row. Acts on lateral area of hypothalamus (hunger center) to ↑ appetite.
Leptin	Satiety hormone. Produced by adipose tissue. Mutation of leptin gene → central obesity. (Obese people have ↑ leptin due to ↑ adipose tissue but also appear resistant to leptin's anorexigenic effect.) Sleep deprivation or starvation → ↓ leptin production. Lept**in** keeps you th**in**. Acts on ventromedial area of hypothalamus (satiety center) to ↓ appetite.
Endocannabinoids	Act at cannabinoid receptors in hypothalamus and nucleus accumbens, two key brain areas for the homeostatic and hedonic control of food intake → ↑ appetite. Exogenous cannabinoids cause "the munchies."

Signaling pathways of endocrine hormones

cAMP	FSH, LH, ACTH, TSH, CRH, hCG, ADH (V_2-receptor), MSH, PTH, Calcitonin, Histamine (H_2-receptor), Glucagon, GHRH	FLAT ChAMPs CHuGG
cGMP	BNP, ANP, EDRF (NO)	BAD GraMPa Think vasodilation and diuresis
IP_3	GnRH, Oxytocin, ADH (V_1-receptor), TRH, Histamine (H_1-receptor), Angiotensin II, Gastrin	GOAT HAG
Intracellular receptor	Progesterone, Estrogen, Testosterone, Cortisol, Aldosterone, T_3/T_4, Vitamin D	PET CAT on TV
Receptor tyrosine kinase	IGF-1, FGF, PDGF, EGF, TGF-β, Insulin	MAP kinase pathway Get Found In the MAP
Nonreceptor tyrosine kinase	Prolactin, Immunomodulators (eg, cytokines IL-2, IL-6, IFN), GH, G-CSF, Erythropoietin, Thrombopoietin	JAK/STAT pathway Think acidophils and cytokines PIGGLET

Signaling pathways of steroid hormones



Steroid hormones are lipophilic and therefore must circulate bound to specific binding globulins, which ↑ their solubility.

In men, ↑ sex hormone–binding globulin (SHBG) lowers free testosterone → gynecomastia.

In women, ↓ SHBG raises free testosterone → hirsutism.

↑ estrogen (eg, OCPs, pregnancy) → ↑ SHBG.

▸ ENDOCRINE—PATHOLOGY

Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion

Characterized by:
- Excessive free water retention
- Euvolemic hyponatremia with continued urinary Na^+ excretion
- Urine osmolality > serum osmolality

Body responds to water retention with ↓ aldosterone and ↑ ANP and BNP → ↑ urinary Na^+ secretion → normalization of extracellular fluid volume → euvolemic hyponatremia. Very low serum Na^+ levels can lead to cerebral edema, seizures. Correct slowly to prevent osmotic demyelination syndrome (formerly called central pontine myelinolysis).

SIADH causes include:
- Ectopic ADH (eg, small cell lung cancer)
- CNS disorders/head trauma
- Pulmonary disease
- Drugs (eg, SSRIs, carbamazepine, cyclophosphamide)

Treatment: fluid restriction (first line), salt tablets, IV hypertonic saline, diuretics, ADH antagonists (eg, conivaptan, tolvaptan, demeclocycline).

Diabetes insipidus

Characterized by intense thirst and polyuria with inability to concentrate urine due to lack of ADH (central) or failure of response to circulating ADH (nephrogenic).

	Central DI	Nephrogenic DI
ETIOLOGY	Pituitary tumor, autoimmune, trauma, surgery, ischemic encephalopathy, idiopathic	Hereditary (ADH receptor mutation), 2° to hypercalcemia, hypokalemia, lithium, demeclocycline (ADH antagonist)
FINDINGS	↓ ADH	Normal or ↑ ADH levels
	Urine specific gravity < 1.006 Urine osmolality < 300 mOsm/kg Serum osmolality > 290 mOsm/kg Hyperosmotic volume contraction	
WATER DEPRIVATION TEST[a]	> 50% ↑ in urine osmolality only after administration of ADH analog	Minimal change in urine osmolality, even after administration of ADH analog
TREATMENT	Desmopressin Hydration	HCTZ, indomethacin, amiloride Hydration, dietary salt restriction, avoidance of offending agent

[a]No water intake for 2–3 hr followed by hourly measurements of urine volume and osmolality as well as plasma Na^+ concentration and osmolality. ADH analog (desmopressin) is administered if serum osmolality > 295–300 mOsm/kg, plasma $Na^+ \geq 145$ mEq/L, or urine osmolality does not rise despite a rising plasma osmolality.

Hypopituitarism

Undersecretion of pituitary hormones due to:

- Nonsecreting pituitary adenoma, craniopharyngioma
- Sheehan syndrome—ischemic infarct of pituitary following postpartum bleeding; pregnancy-induced pituitary growth → ↑ susceptibility to hypoperfusion. Usually presents with failure to lactate, absent menstruation, cold intolerance
- Empty sella syndrome—atrophy or compression of pituitary (which lies in the sella turcica), often idiopathic, common in obese women; associated with idiopathic intracranial hypertension
- Pituitary apoplexy—sudden hemorrhage of pituitary gland, often in the presence of an existing pituitary adenoma. Usually presents with sudden onset severe headache, visual impairment (eg, bitemporal hemianopia, diplopia due to CN III palsy), and features of hypopituitarism
- Brain injury
- Radiation

Treatment: hormone replacement therapy (corticosteroids, thyroxine, sex steroids, human growth hormone)

Acromegaly

Excess GH in adults. Typically caused by pituitary adenoma.

FINDINGS

Large tongue with deep furrows, deep voice, large hands and feet, coarsening of facial features with aging A, frontal bossing, diaphoresis (excessive sweating), impaired glucose tolerance (insulin resistance), hypertension. ↑ risk of colorectal polyps and cancer.

↑ GH in children → gigantism (↑ linear bone growth). HF most common cause of death.

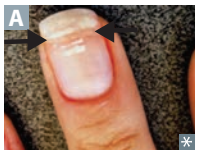
DIAGNOSIS

↑ serum IGF-1; failure to suppress serum GH following oral glucose tolerance test; pituitary mass seen on brain MRI.

TREATMENT

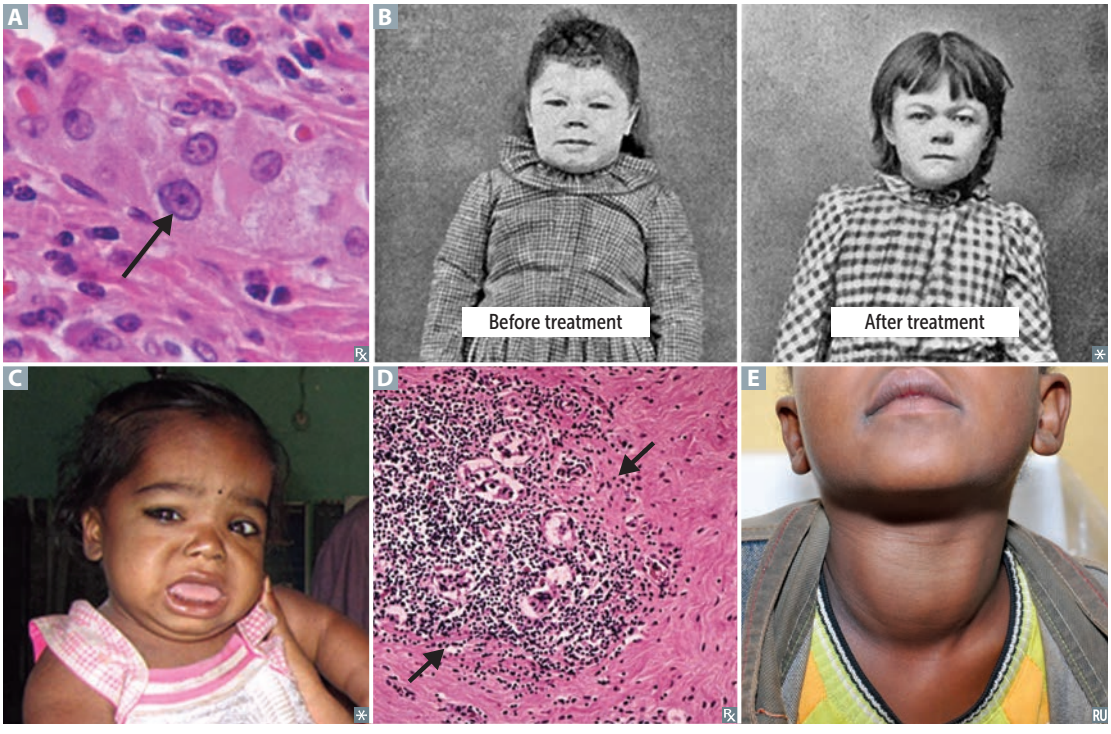
Pituitary adenoma resection. If not cured, treat with octreotide (somatostatin analog), pegvisomant (GH receptor antagonist), or dopamine agonists (eg, cabergoline).

Hypothyroidism vs hyperthyroidism

FINDINGS	Hypothyroidism	Hyperthyroidism
METABOLIC	Cold intolerance, ↓ sweating, weight gain (↓ basal metabolic rate → ↓ calorigenesis), hyponatremia (↓ free water clearance)	Heat intolerance, ↑ sweating, weight loss (↑ synthesis of Na^+-K^+ ATPase → ↑ basal metabolic rate → ↑ calorigenesis)
SKIN/HAIR 	Dry, cool skin (due to ↓ blood flow); coarse, brittle hair; diffuse alopecia; brittle nails; puffy facies and generalized nonpitting edema (myxedema) due to ↑ GAGs in interstitial spaces → ↑ osmotic pressure → water retention	Warm, moist skin (due to vasodilation); fine hair; onycholysis (A); pretibial myxedema in Graves disease
OCULAR	Periorbital edema	Ophthalmopathy in Graves disease (including periorbital edema, exophthalmos), lid lag/retraction (↑ sympathetic stimulation of levator palpebrae superioris and superior tarsal muscle)
GASTROINTESTINAL	Constipation (↓ GI motility), ↓ appetite	Hyperdefecation/diarrhea (↑ GI motility), ↑ appetite
MUSCULOSKELETAL	Hypothyroid myopathy (proximal weakness, ↑ CK), carpal tunnel syndrome, myoedema (small lump rising on the surface of a muscle when struck with a hammer)	Thyrotoxic myopathy (proximal weakness, normal CK), osteoporosis/↑ fracture rate (T_3 directly stimulates bone resorption)
REPRODUCTIVE	Abnormal uterine bleeding, ↓ libido, infertility	Abnormal uterine bleeding, gynecomastia, ↓ libido, infertility
NEUROPSYCHIATRIC	Hypoactivity, lethargy, fatigue, weakness, depressed mood, ↓ reflexes (delayed/slow relaxing)	Hyperactivity, restlessness, anxiety, insomnia, fine tremors (due to ↑ β-adrenergic activity), ↑ reflexes (brisk)
CARDIOVASCULAR	Bradycardia, dyspnea on exertion (↓ cardiac output)	Tachycardia, palpitations, dyspnea, arrhythmias (eg, atrial fibrillation), chest pain and systolic HTN due to ↑ number and sensitivity of β-adrenergic receptors, ↑ expression of cardiac sarcolemmal ATPase and ↓ expression of phospholamban
LABS	↑ TSH (if 1°) ↓ free T_3 and T_4 Hypercholesterolemia (due to ↓ LDL receptor expression)	↓ TSH (if 1°) ↑ free T_3 and T_4 ↓ LDL, HDL, and total cholesterol

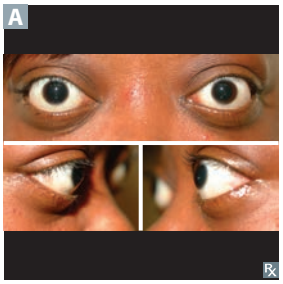
Hypothyroidism

Hashimoto thyroiditis	Most common cause of hypothyroidism in iodine-sufficient regions; an autoimmune disorder with antithyroid peroxidase (antimicrosomal) and antithyroglobulin antibodies. Associated with HLA-DR3, HLA-DR5, ↑ risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma (typically of B-cell origin). May be hyperthyroid early in course due to thyrotoxicosis during follicular rupture. Histology: Hürthle cells A, lymphoid aggregates with germinal centers. Findings: moderately enlarged, **nontender** thyroid.
Postpartum thyroiditis	Self-limited thyroiditis arising up to 1 year after delivery. Presents as transient hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism, or hyperthyroidism followed by hypothyroidism. Majority of women are euthyroid following resolution. Thyroid usually painless and normal in size. Histology: lymphocytic infiltrate with occasional germinal center formation.
Congenital hypothyroidism (cretinism)	Severe fetal hypothyroidism due to antibody-mediated maternal hypothyroidism, thyroid dysgenesis (most common cause in US; eg, agenesis, ectopy, hypoplasia), iodine deficiency, dyshormonogenetic goiter (commonly due to mutations in thyroid peroxidase). Findings (6 P's): Pot-bellied, Pale, Puffy-faced child B with Protruding umbilicus, Protuberant tongue C, and Poor brain development.
Subacute granulomatous thyroiditis (de Quervain)	Self-limited disease often following a flu-like illness (eg, viral infection). May be hyperthyroid early in course, followed by hypothyroidism (permanent in ~15% of cases). Histology: granulomatous inflammation. Findings: ↑ ESR, jaw pain, very **tender** thyroid. (de Quervain is associated with pain.)
Riedel thyroiditis	Thyroid replaced by fibrous tissue and inflammatory infiltrate D. Fibrosis may extend to local structures (eg, trachea, esophagus), mimicking anaplastic carcinoma. ⅓ of patients are hypothyroid. Considered a manifestation of IgG_4-related systemic disease (eg, autoimmune pancreatitis, retroperitoneal fibrosis, noninfectious aortitis). Findings: fixed, hard (rock-like), **painless** goiter.
Other causes	Iodine deficiency (with goiter E), goitrogens (eg, amiodarone, lithium), Wolff-Chaikoff effect (thyroid gland downregulation in response to ↑ iodide).



Hyperthyroidism

Graves disease



Most common cause of hyperthyroidism. Thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulin (IgG, can cause transient neonatal hyperthyroidism; type II hypersensitivity) stimulates TSH receptors on thyroid (hyperthyroidism, diffuse goiter), dermal fibroblasts (pretibial myxedema), and orbital fibroblasts (Graves orbitopathy). Activation of T-cells → lymphocytic infiltration of retroorbital space → ↑ cytokines (eg, TNF-α, IFN-γ) → ↑ fibroblast secretion of hydrophilic GAGs → ↑ osmotic muscle swelling, muscle inflammation, and adipocyte count → exophthalmos A. Often presents during stress (eg, pregnancy). Associated with HLA-DR3 and HLA-B8.

Histology: tall, crowded follicular epithelial cells; scalloped colloid.

Toxic multinodular goiter

Focal patches of hyperfunctioning follicular cells distended with colloid working independently of TSH (due to TSH receptor mutations in 60% of cases). ↑ release of T_3 and T_4. Hot nodules are rarely malignant.

Thyroid storm

Uncommon but serious complication that occurs when hyperthyroidism is incompletely treated/untreated and then significantly worsens in the setting of acute stress such as infection, trauma, surgery. Presents with agitation, delirium, fever, diarrhea, coma, and tachyarrhythmia (cause of death). May see ↑ LFTs. Treat with the 4 P's: β-blockers (eg, Propranolol), Propylthiouracil, corticosteroids (eg, Prednisolone), Potassium iodide (Lugol iodine). Iodide load → ↓ T_4 synthesis → Wolff-Chaikoff effect.

Jod-Basedow phenomenon

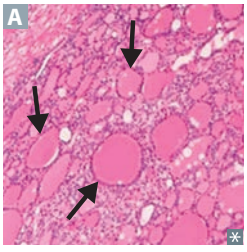
Iodine-induced hyperthyroidism. Occurs when a patient with iodine deficiency and partially autonomous thyroid tissue (eg, autonomous nodule) is made iodine replete. Can happen after iodine IV contrast or amiodarone use. Opposite to Wolff-Chaikoff effect.

Causes of goiter

Smooth/diffuse: Graves disease, Hashimoto thyroiditis, iodine deficiency, TSH-secreting pituitary adenoma.

Nodular: toxic multinodular goiter, thyroid adenoma, thyroid cancer, thyroid cyst.

Thyroid adenoma

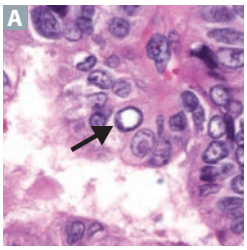


Benign solitary growth of the thyroid. Most are nonfunctional ("cold"), can rarely cause hyperthyroidism via autonomous thyroid hormone production ("hot" or "toxic"). Most common histology is follicular (arrows in A); absence of capsular or vascular invasion (unlike follicular carcinoma).

Thyroid cancer

Typically diagnosed with fine needle aspiration; treated with thyroidectomy. Complications of surgery include hypocalcemia (due to removal of parathyroid glands), transection of recurrent laryngeal nerve during ligation of inferior thyroid artery (leads to dysphagia and dysphonia [hoarseness]), and injury to the external branch of the superior laryngeal nerve during ligation of superior thyroid vascular pedicle (may lead to loss of tenor usually noticeable in professional voice users).

Papillary carcinoma

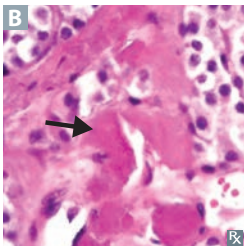


Most common, excellent prognosis. Empty-appearing nuclei with central clearing ("**Orphan Annie**" eyes) A, psam**Moma** bodies, nuclear grooves (**Papi** and **Moma** adopted **Orphan Annie**). ↑ risk with *RET/PTC* rearrangements and *BRAF* mutations, childhood irradiation.
Papillary carcinoma: most **P**revalent, **P**alpable lymph nodes. Good prognosis.

Follicular carcinoma

Good prognosis. Invades thyroid capsule and vasculature (unlike follicular adenoma), uniform follicles; hematogenous spread is common. Associated with *RAS* mutation and *PAX8-PPAR-γ* translocations.

Medullary carcinoma

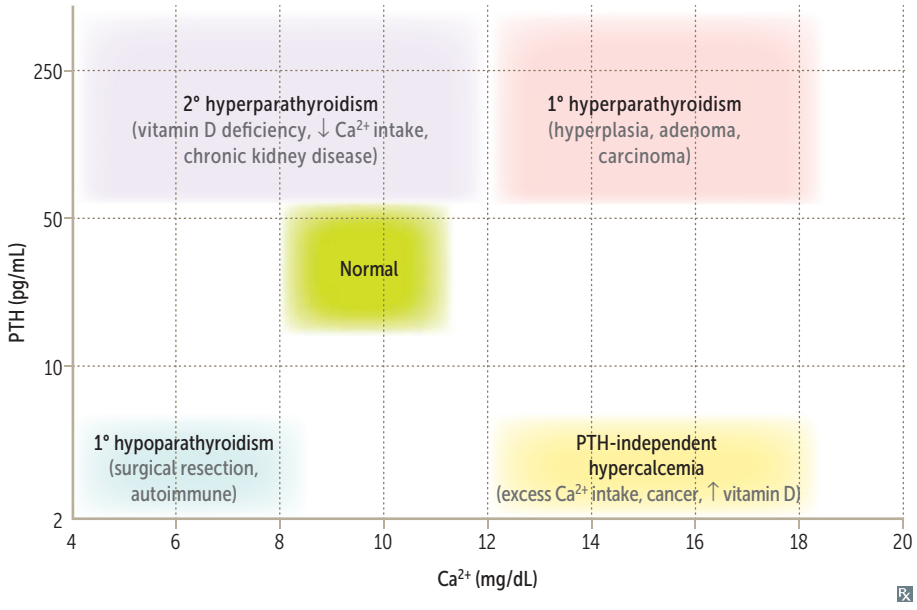


From parafollicular "**C** cells"; produces **c**alcitonin, sheets of polygonal cells in an amyloid stroma B (stains with **C**ongo red). Associated with MEN 2A and 2B (*RET* mutations).

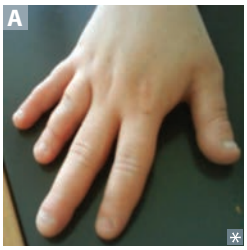
Undifferentiated/ anaplastic carcinoma

Older patients; presents with rapidly enlarging neck mass → compressive symptoms (eg, dyspnea, dysphagia, hoarseness); very poor prognosis. Associated with *TP53* mutation.

Diagnosing parathyroid disease



Hypoparathyroidism



Due to injury to parathyroid glands or their blood supply (usually during surgery), autoimmune destruction, or DiGeorge syndrome. Findings: tetany, hypocalcemia, hyperphosphatemia.

Chvostek sign—tapping of facial nerve (tap the **Ch**eek) → contraction of facial muscles.

Trousseau sign—occlusion of brachial artery with BP cuff (cuff the **Tr**iceps) → carpal spasm.

Pseudohypoparathyroidism type 1A—autosomal dominant, maternally transmitted mutations (imprinted *GNAS* gene). GNAS1-inactivating mutation (coupled to PTH receptor) that encodes the G_s protein α subunit → inactivation of adenylate cyclase when PTH binds to its receptor → end-organ resistance (kidney and bone) to PTH.

Physical findings: Albright hereditary osteodystrophy (shortened 4th/5th digits A, short stature, round face, subcutaneous calcifications, developmental delay).

Labs: ↑ PTH, ↓ Ca^{2+}, ↑ PO_4^{3-}.

Pseudopseudohypoparathyroidism—autosomal dominant, paternally transmitted mutations (imprinted *GNAS* gene) but without end-organ resistance to PTH due to normal maternal allele maintaining renal responsiveness to PTH.

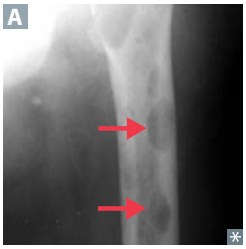
Physical findings: same as Albright hereditary osteodystrophy.

Labs: normal PTH, Ca^{2+}, PO_4^{3-}.

Lab values in hypocalcemia

DISORDER	Ca^{2+}	PO_4^{3-}	PTH
Vitamin D deficiency	↓	↓	↑
Hypoparathyroidism	↓	↑	↓
2° hyperparathyroidism (CKD)	↓	↑	↑
Pseudohypoparathyroidism	↓	↑	↑
Hyperphosphatemia	↓	↑	↑

Hyperparathyroidism

Primary hyperparathyroidism A 	Usually due to parathyroid adenoma or hyperplasia. **Hypercalcemia**, hypercalciuria (renal stones), polyuria (thrones), hypophosphatemia, ↑ PTH, ↑ ALP, ↑ urinary cAMP. Most often asymptomatic. May present with bone pain, weakness, constipation ("groans"), abdominal/flank pain (kidney stones, acute pancreatitis), neuropsychiatric disturbances ("psychiatric overtones").	**Osteitis fibrosa cystica**—cystic bone spaces filled with brown fibrous tissue A ("brown tumor" consisting of osteoclasts and deposited hemosiderin from hemorrhages; causes bone pain). Due to ↑ PTH, classically associated with 1° (but also seen with 2°) hyperparathyroidism. "Stones, thrones, bones, groans, and psychiatric overtones."
Secondary hyperparathyroidism	2° hyperplasia due to ↓ Ca^{2+} absorption and/or ↑ PO_4^{3-}, most often in chronic kidney disease (causes hypovitaminosis D and hyperphosphatemia → ↓ Ca^{2+}). **Hypocalcemia**, hyperphosphatemia in chronic kidney disease (vs hypophosphatemia with most other causes), ↑ ALP, ↑ PTH.	**Renal osteodystrophy**—renal disease → 2° and 3° hyperparathyroidism → bone lesions.
Tertiary hyperparathyroidism	Refractory (autonomous) hyperparathyroidism resulting from chronic kidney disease. ↑↑ PTH, ↑ Ca^{2+}.	

Familial hypocalciuric hypercalcemia	Defective G-coupled Ca^{2+}-sensing receptors in multiple tissues (eg, parathyroids, kidneys). Higher than normal Ca^{2+} levels required to suppress PTH. Excessive renal Ca^{2+} reabsorption → mild hypercalcemia and hypocalciuria with normal to ↑ PTH levels.

Diabetes mellitus

ACUTE MANIFESTATIONS

Polydipsia, polyuria, polyphagia, weight loss, DKA (type 1), hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state (type 2).

Rarely, can be caused by unopposed secretion of GH and epinephrine. Also seen in patients on glucocorticoid therapy (steroid diabetes).

CHRONIC COMPLICATIONS

Nonenzymatic glycation:

- Small vessel disease (diffuse thickening of basement membrane) → retinopathy (hemorrhage, exudates, microaneurysms, vessel proliferation), glaucoma, nephropathy. Nodular glomerulosclerosis → progressive proteinuria (initially microalbuminuria; ACE inhibitors and ARBs are renoprotective) and arteriolosclerosis (causing hypertension) → chronic kidney disease.
- Large vessel atherosclerosis, CAD, peripheral vascular occlusive disease, gangrene → limb loss, cerebrovascular disease. MI most common cause of death.

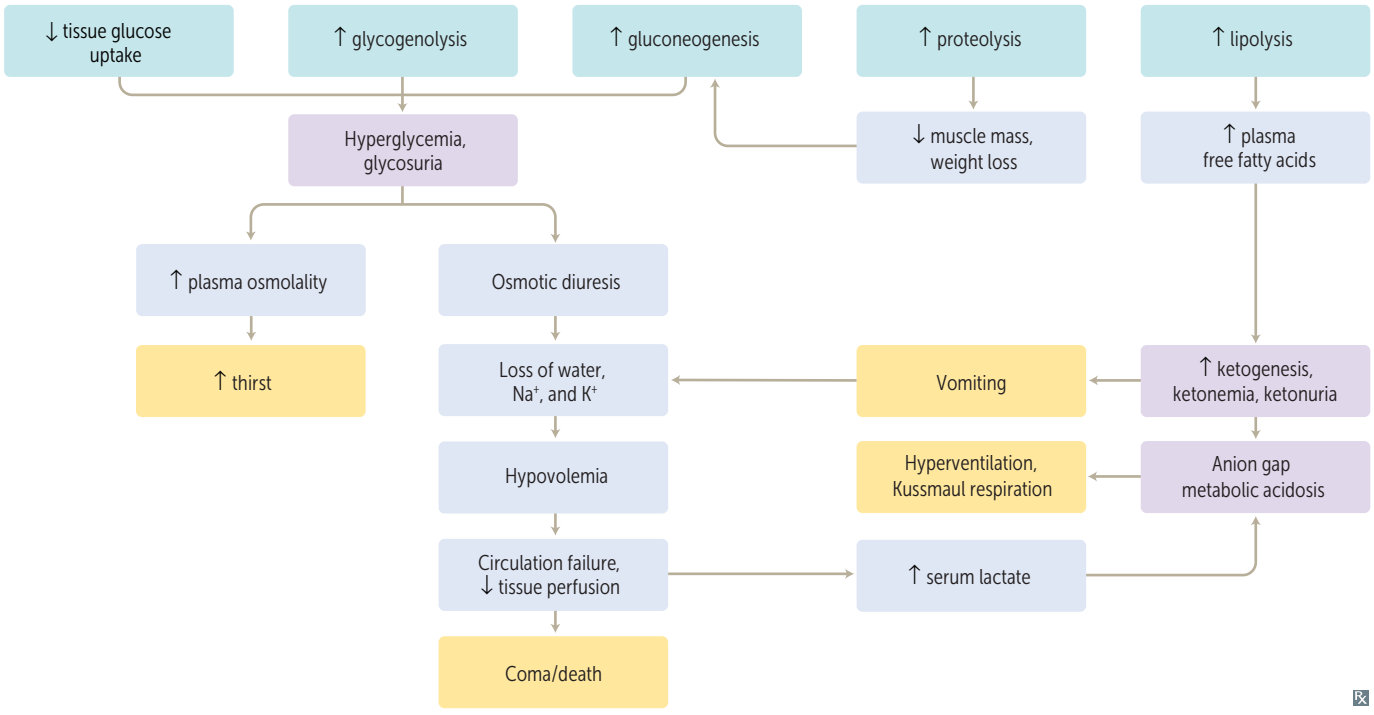
Osmotic damage (sorbitol accumulation in organs with aldose reductase and ↓ or absent sorbitol dehydrogenase):

- Neuropathy (motor, sensory [glove and stocking distribution], and autonomic degeneration).
- Cataracts.

DIAGNOSIS

TEST	DIAGNOSTIC CUTOFF	NOTES
HbA_{1c}	≥ 6.5%	Reflects average blood glucose over prior 3 months
Fasting plasma glucose	≥ 126 mg/dL	Fasting for > 8 hours
2-hour oral glucose tolerance test	≥ 200 mg/dL	2 hours after consumption of 75 g of glucose in water

Insulin deficiency or severe insulin insensitivity



Type 1 vs type 2 diabetes mellitus

	Type 1	Type 2
1° DEFECT	Autoimmune T-cell–mediated destruction of β cells (eg, due to presence of glutamic acid decarboxylase antibodies)	↑ resistance to insulin, progressive pancreatic β-cell failure
INSULIN NECESSARY IN TREATMENT	Always	Sometimes
AGE (EXCEPTIONS COMMON)	< 30 yr	> 40 yr
ASSOCIATION WITH OBESITY	No	Yes
GENETIC PREDISPOSITION	Relatively weak (50% concordance in identical twins), polygenic	Relatively strong (90% concordance in identical twins), polygenic
ASSOCIATION WITH HLA SYSTEM	Yes, HLA-DR4 and -DR3 (4 – 3 = type 1)	No
GLUCOSE INTOLERANCE	Severe	Mild to moderate
INSULIN SENSITIVITY	High	Low
KETOACIDOSIS	Common	Rare
β-CELL NUMBERS IN THE ISLETS	↓	Variable (with amyloid deposits)
SERUM INSULIN LEVEL	↓	↑ initially, but ↓ in advanced disease
CLASSIC SYMPTOMS OF POLYURIA, POLYDIPSIA, POLYPHAGIA, WEIGHT LOSS	Common	Sometimes
HISTOLOGY	Islet leukocytic infiltrate	Islet amyloid polypeptide (IAPP) deposits

Diabetic ketoacidosis

Insulin absent, ketones present (→ complications).
Insulin noncompliance or ↑ requirements from ↑ stress (eg, infection) → excess fat breakdown and ↑ ketogenesis from ↑ free fatty acids → ketone bodies (β-hydroxybutyrate > acetoacetate).

SIGNS/SYMPTOMS	DKA is Deadly: Delirium/psychosis, Kussmaul respirations (rapid, deep breathing), Abdominal pain/nausea/vomiting, Dehydration. Fruity breath odor (due to exhaled acetone).
LABS	Hyperglycemia, ↑ H^+, ↓ HCO_3^- (↑ anion gap metabolic acidosis), ↑ urine and blood ketone levels, leukocytosis. Normal/↑ serum K^+, but depleted intracellular K^+ due to transcellular shift from ↓ insulin and acidosis. Osmotic diuresis → ↑ K^+ loss in urine → total body K^+ depletion.
COMPLICATIONS	Life-threatening mucormycosis, cerebral edema, cardiac arrhythmias, HF.
TREATMENT	IV fluids, IV insulin, K^+ (to replete intracellular stores) +/– glucose to prevent hypoglycemia.

Hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state

Insulin present, ketones absent.
Profound hyperglycemia → excessive osmotic diuresis → dehydration and ↑ serum osmolality → HHS. Classically seen in elderly type 2 diabetics with limited ability to drink.

SIGNS/SYMPTOMS	Thirst, polyuria, lethargy, focal neurologic deficits, seizures.
LABS	Hyperglycemia (often >600 mg/dL), ↑ serum osmolality (> 320 mOsm/kg), normal pH (no acidosis), no ketones. Normal/↑ serum K^+, ↓ intracellular K^+.
COMPLICATIONS	Can progress to coma and death if untreated.
TREATMENT	IV fluids, IV insulin, and K^+ (to replete intracellular stores).

Cushing syndrome

ETIOLOGY

↑ cortisol due to a variety of causes:

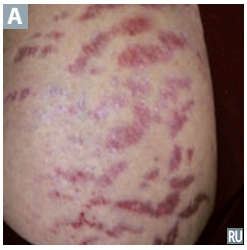
- Exogenous corticosteroids → ↓ ACTH → bilateral adrenal atrophy. Most common cause.
- Primary adrenal adenoma, hyperplasia, or carcinoma → ↓ ACTH → atrophy of uninvolved adrenal gland.
- ACTH-secreting pituitary adenoma (Cushing disease); paraneoplastic ACTH secretion (eg, small cell lung cancer, bronchial carcinoids)→ bilateral adrenal hyperplasia. Cushing disease is responsible for the majority of endogenous cases of Cushing syndrome.

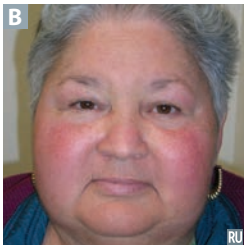
FINDINGS

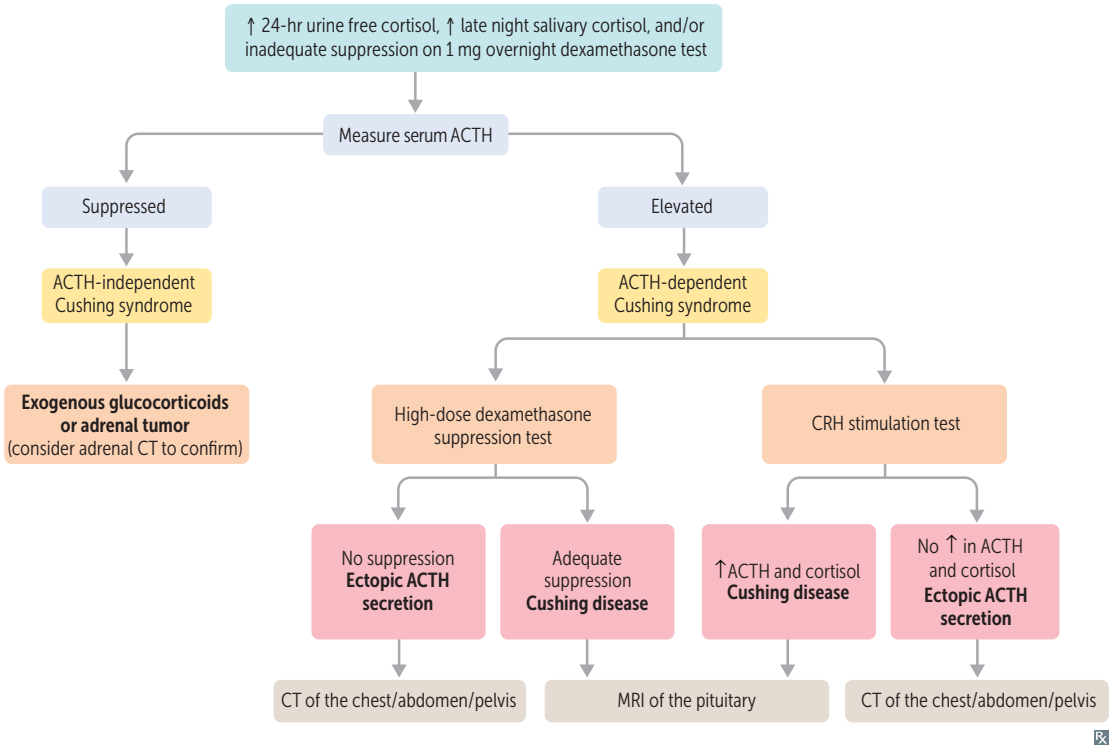
CUSHING Syndrome: ↑ Cholesterol, ↑ Urinary free cortisol, Skin changes (thinning, striae A), Hypertension, Immunosuppression, Neoplasm (a cause, not a finding), Growth retardation (in children), ↑ Sugar (hyperglycemia, insulin resistance). Also, amenorrhea, moon facies B, buffalo hump, osteoporosis, ↑ weight (truncal obesity), hirsutism.

DIAGNOSIS

Screening tests include: ↑ free cortisol on 24-hr urinalysis, ↑ late night salivary cortisol, and no suppression with overnight low-dose dexamethasone test.







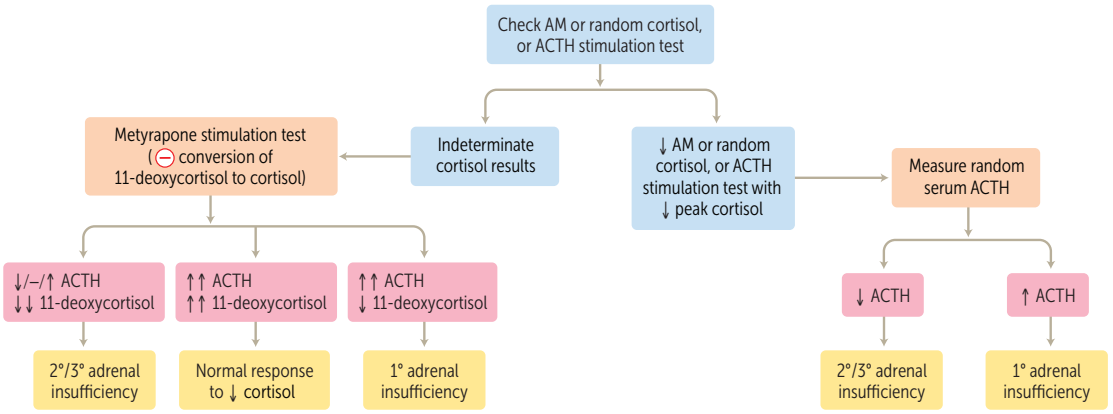
Nelson syndrome

Enlargement of pre-existing ACTH–secreting pituitary adenoma after bilateral adrenalectomy for refractory Cushing disease → ↑ ACTH (hyperpigmentation), mass effect (headaches, bitemporal hemianopia).

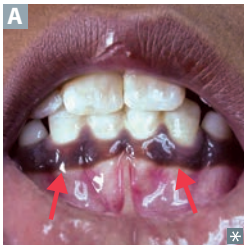
Treatment: transsphenoidal resection, postoperative pituitary irradiation for residual tumor.

Adrenal insufficiency

Inability of adrenal glands to generate enough glucocorticoids +/– mineralocorticoids for the body's needs. Symptoms include weakness, fatigue, orthostatic hypotension, muscle aches, weight loss, GI disturbances, sugar and/or salt cravings. Treatment: glucocorticoid/mineralocorticoid replacement.



Primary adrenal insufficiency



↓ gland function → ↓ cortisol, ↓ aldosterone → hypotension (hyponatremic volume contraction), hyperkalemia, metabolic acidosis, skin/mucosal hyperpigmentation A (↑ melanin synthesis due to ↑ MSH, a byproduct of ACTH production from POMC).

- **Acute**—sudden onset (eg, due to massive hemorrhage). May present with shock in acute adrenal crisis.
- **Chronic**—**Addison disease**. Due to adrenal atrophy or destruction by disease (autoimmune destruction most common in the Western world; TB most common in the developing world).

Primary Pigments the skin/mucosa.
Associated with autoimmune polyglandular syndromes.
Waterhouse-Friderichsen syndrome—acute 1° adrenal insufficiency due to adrenal hemorrhage associated with septicemia (usually *Neisseria meningitidis*), DIC, endotoxic shock.

Secondary adrenal insufficiency

Seen with ↓ pituitary ACTH production. No skin/mucosal hyperpigmentation (ACTH is not elevated), no hyperkalemia (aldosterone synthesis preserved due to functioning adrenal gland, intact RAAS).

Secondary Spares the skin/mucosa.

Tertiary adrenal insufficiency

Seen in patients with chronic exogenous steroid use, precipitated by abrupt withdrawal. Aldosterone synthesis unaffected.

Tertiary from Treatment.

Hyperaldosteronism

Increased secretion of aldosterone from adrenal gland. Clinical features include hypertension, ↓ or normal K^+, metabolic alkalosis. 1° hyperaldosteronism does not directly cause edema due to aldosterone escape mechanism. However, certain 2° causes of hyperaldosteronism (eg, heart failure) impair the aldosterone escape mechanism, leading to worsening of edema.

Primary hyperaldosteronism

Seen with adrenal adenoma (Conn syndrome) or bilateral adrenal hyperplasia. ↑ aldosterone, ↓ renin. Leads to treatment-resistant hypertension.

Secondary hyperaldosteronism

Seen in patients with renovascular hypertension, juxtaglomerular cell tumors (renin-producing), and edema (eg, cirrhosis, heart failure, nephrotic syndrome).

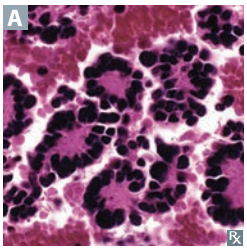
Neuroendocrine tumors

Heterogeneous group of neoplasms originating from neuroendocrine cells (which have traits similar to nerve cells and hormone-producing cells).

Most neoplasms occur in the GI system (eg, carcinoid, gastrinoma), pancreas (eg, insulinoma, glucagonoma), and lungs (eg, small cell carcinoma). Also in thyroid (eg, medullary carcinoma) and adrenals (eg, pheochromocytoma).

Neuroendocrine cells (eg, pancreatic β cells, enterochromaffin cells) share a common biologic function through amine precursor uptake decarboxylase (APUD) despite differences in embryologic origin, anatomic site, and secretory products (eg, chromogranin A, neuron-specific enolase [NSE], synaptophysin, serotonin, histamine, calcitonin). Treatment: surgical resection, somatostatin analogs.

Neuroblastoma

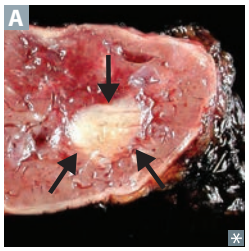


Most common tumor of the adrenal medulla in **children,** usually < 4 years old. Originates from Neural crest cells. Occurs anywhere along the sympathetic chain.

Most common presentation is abdominal distension and a firm, irregular mass that can cross the midline (vs Wilms tumor, which is smooth and unilateral). Less likely to develop hypertension than with pheochromocytoma (Neuroblastoma is Normotensive). Can also present with opsoclonus-myoclonus syndrome ("dancing eyes-dancing feet").

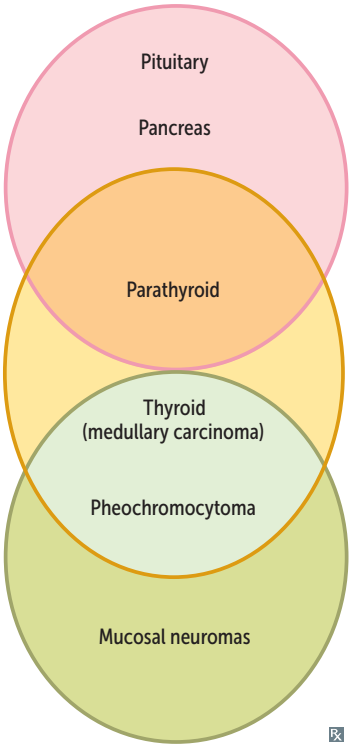
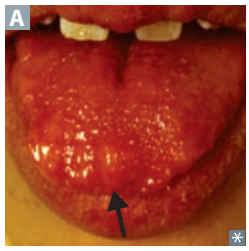
↑ HVA and VMA (catecholamine metabolites) in urine. Homer-Wright rosettes (neuroblasts surrounding a central lumen A) characteristic of neuroblastoma and medulloblastoma. Bombesin and NSE ⊕. Associated with amplification of N-*myc* oncogene.

Pheochromocytoma

ETIOLOGY 	Most common tumor of the adrenal medulla in **adults** A. Derived from chromaffin cells (arise from neural crest). May be associated with germline mutations (eg, *NF-1*, *VHL*, *RET* [MEN 2A, 2B]).	Rule of 10's: 10% malignant 10% bilateral 10% extra-adrenal (eg, bladder wall, organ of Zuckerkandl) 10% calcify 10% kids
SYMPTOMS	Most tumors secrete epinephrine, norepinephrine, and dopamine, which can cause episodic hypertension. May also secrete EPO → polycythemia. Symptoms occur in "spells"—relapse and remit.	Episodic hyperadrenergic symptoms (5 P's): Pressure (↑ BP) Pain (headache) Perspiration Palpitations (tachycardia) Pallor
FINDINGS	↑ catecholamines and metanephrines (eg, homovanillic acid, vanillylmandelic acid) in urine and plasma.	Chromogranin, synaptophysin and NSE ⊕.
TREATMENT	Irreversible α-antagonists (eg, phenoxybenzamine) followed by β-blockers prior to tumor resection. α-blockade must be achieved before giving β-blockers to avoid a hypertensive crisis. A before B.	Phenoxybenzamine for pheochromocytoma.

Multiple endocrine neoplasias

All **MEN** syndromes have autosomal **dominant** inheritance.
"All **MEN** are **dominant**" (or so they think).

SUBTYPE	CHARACTERISTICS	COMMENTS
MEN 1	**P**ituitary tumors (prolactin or GH) **P**ancreatic endocrine tumors—Zollinger-Ellison syndrome, insulinomas, VIPomas, glucagonomas (rare) **P**arathyroid adenomas Associated with mutation of *MEN1* (menin, a tumor suppressor, chromosome 11), angiofibromas, collagenomas, meningiomas	
MEN 2A	**P**arathyroid hyperplasia Medullary thyroid carcinoma—neoplasm of parafollicular C cells; secretes calcitonin; prophylactic thyroidectomy required **P**heochromocytoma (secretes catecholamines) Associated with mutation in *RET* (codes for receptor tyrosine kinase)	
MEN 2B 	Medullary thyroid carcinoma **P**heochromocytoma Mucosal neuromas A (oral/intestinal ganglioneuromatosis) Associated with marfanoid habitus; mutation in *RET* gene	

MEN 1 = 3 **P**'s: **P**ituitary, **P**arathyroid, and **P**ancreas
MEN 2A = 2 **P**'s: **P**arathyroid and **P**heochromocytoma
MEN 2B = 1 **P**: **P**heochromocytoma

Pancreatic islet cell tumors

Insulinoma

Tumor of pancreatic β cells → overproduction of insulin → hypoglycemia.
May see Whipple triad: low blood glucose, symptoms of hypoglycemia (eg, lethargy, syncope, diplopia), and resolution of symptoms after normalization of plasma glucose levels. Symptomatic patients have ↓ blood glucose and ↑ C-peptide levels (vs exogenous insulin use). ~ 10% of cases associated with MEN 1 syndrome.
Treatment: surgical resection.

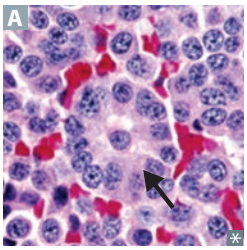
Glucagonoma

Tumor of pancreatic α cells → overproduction of glucagon.
Presents with 6 **D**'s: **D**ermatitis (necrolytic migratory erythema), **D**iabetes (hyperglycemia), **D**VT, **D**eclining weight, **D**epression, **D**iarrhea.
Treatment: octreotide, surgical resection.

Somatostatinoma

Tumor of pancreatic δ cells → overproduction of somatostatin → ↓ secretion of secretin, cholecystokinin, glucagon, insulin, gastrin, gastric inhibitory peptide (GIP).
May present with diabetes/glucose intolerance, steatorrhea, gallstones, achlorhydria.
Treatment: surgical resection; somatostatin analogs (eg, octreotide) for symptom control.

Carcinoid syndrome



Carcinoid tumors arise from neuroendocrine cells most commonly in the intestine or lung. Rare and does not occur if tumor is limited to the GI tract.

Prominent rosettes (arrow in A), chromogranin A ⊕ and synaptophysin ⊕).

Neuroendocrine cells secrete 5-HT → recurrent diarrhea, wheezing, right-sided valvular heart disease (eg, tricuspid regurgitation, pulmonic stenosis), niacin deficiency (pellagra). 5-HT undergoes hepatic first-pass metabolism and enzymatic breakdown by MAO in the lung.

Treatment: surgical resection, somatostatin analog (eg, octreotide, telotristat) for symptom control.

Rule of thirds:

- **1/3** metastasize
- **1/3** present with 2nd malignancy
- **1/3** are multiple

Zollinger-Ellison syndrome

Gastrin-secreting tumor (gastrinoma) of pancreas or duodenum. Acid hypersecretion causes recurrent ulcers in duodenum and jejunum. Presents with abdominal pain (peptic ulcer disease, distal ulcers), diarrhea (malabsorption). Positive secretin stimulation test: gastrin levels remain elevated after administration of secretin, which normally inhibits gastrin release. May be associated with MEN 1.

▸ ENDOCRINE—PHARMACOLOGY

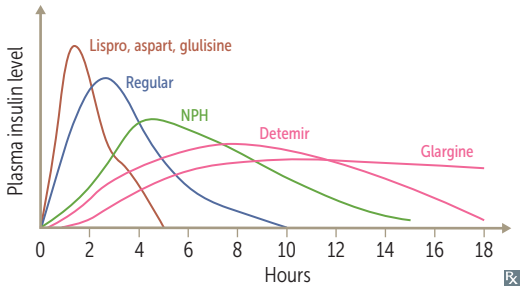
Diabetes mellitus therapy

All patients with diabetes mellitus should receive education on diet, exercise, blood glucose monitoring, and complication management. Treatment differs based on the type of diabetes and glycemic control:

- Type 1 DM—insulin replacement
- Type 2 DM—oral agents (metformin is first line), non-insulin injectables, insulin replacement; weight loss particularly helpful in lowering blood glucose
- Gestational DM—insulin replacement if nutrition therapy and exercise alone fail

Regular (short-acting) insulin is preferred for DKA (IV), hyperkalemia (+ glucose), stress hyperglycemia.

To **N**ormalize **P**ancreatic **F**unction (-gli**T**s, -gli**N**s, -gli**P**s, -gli**F**s).

DRUG CLASS	MECHANISM	ADVERSE EFFECTS
Insulin preparations		
Rapid acting (1-hr peak): **L**ispro, **A**spart, **G**lulisine (no **LAG**) Short acting (2–3 hr peak): regular Intermediate acting (4–10 hr peak): NPH Long acting (no real peak): detemir, glargine	Bind insulin receptor (tyrosine kinase activity) Liver: ↑ glucose storage as glycogen Muscle: ↑ glycogen, protein synthesis Fat: ↑ TG storage Cell membrane: ↑ K^+ uptake	Hypoglycemia, lipodystrophy, hypersensitivity reactions (rare), weight gain 

Diabetes mellitus therapy *(continued)*

DRUG CLASS	MECHANISM	ADVERSE EFFECTS
Increase insulin sensitivity		
Biguanides Metformin	Inhibit mGPD → inhibition of hepatic gluconeogenesis and the action of glucagon. ↑ glycolysis, peripheral glucose uptake (↑ insulin sensitivity).	GI upset, lactic acidosis (use with caution in renal insufficiency), vitamin B_{12} deficiency. Weight loss (often desired).
Glitazones/ thiazolidinediones "-gliTs" Pioglitazone, rosiglitazone	Activate PPAR-γ (a nuclear receptor) → ↑ insulin sensitivity and levels of adiponectin → regulation of glucose metabolism and fatty acid storage.	Weight gain, edema, HF, ↑ risk of fractures. Delayed onset of action (several weeks). Rosiglitazone: ↑ risk of MI, cardiovascular death.
Increase insulin secretion		
Sulfonylureas (1st gen) Chlorpropamide, tolbutamide	Close K^+ channels in pancreatic B cell membrane → cell depolarizes → insulin release via ↑ Ca^{2+} influx.	DisulFIRam-like reaction (FIRst-generation only). Rarely used.
Sulfonylureas (2nd gen) Glipizide, glyburide		Hypoglycemia (↑ risk in renal insufficiency), weight gain.
Meglitinides "-gliNs" Nateglinide, repaglinide		
Increase glucose-induced insulin secretion		
GLP-1 analogs Exenatide, liraglutide	↓ glucagon release, ↓ gastric emptying, ↑ glucose-dependent insulin release.	Nausea, vomiting, pancreatitis. Weight loss (often desired). ↑ satiety (often desired).
DPP-4 inhibitors "-gliPs" Linagliptin, saxagliptin, sitagliptin	Inhibit DPP-4 enzyme that deactivates GLP-1 → ↓ glucagon release, ↓ gastric emptying. ↑ glucose-dependent insulin release.	Respiratory and urinary infections, weight neutral. ↑ satiety (often desired).
Decrease glucose absorption		
Sodium-glucose co-transporter 2 (SGLT2) inhibitors "-gliFs" Canagliflozin, dapagliflozin, empagliflozin	Block reabsorption of glucose in proximal convoluted tubule.	Glucosuria (UTIs, vulvovaginal candidiasis), dehydration (orthostatic hypotension), hyperkalemia, weight loss. Use with caution in renal insufficiency (↓ efficacy with ↓ GFR).
α-glucosidase inhibitors Acarbose, miglitol	Inhibit intestinal brush-border α-glucosidases → delayed carbohydrate hydrolysis and glucose absorption → ↓ postprandial hyperglycemia.	GI upset, bloating. Not recommended in renal insufficiency.
Others		
Amylin analogs Pramlintide	↓ glucagon release, ↓ gastric emptying.	Hypoglycemia, nausea. ↑ satiety (often desired).

Thionamides

Propylthiouracil, methimazole.

MECHANISM	Block thyroid peroxidase, inhibiting the oxidation of iodide as well as the organification and coupling of iodine → inhibition of thyroid hormone synthesis. **P**TU also blocks 5′-deiodinase → ↓ **P**eripheral conversion of T_4 to T_3.
CLINICAL USE	Hyperthyroidism. PTU used in first trimester of pregnancy (due to methimazole teratogenicity); methimazole used in second and third trimesters of pregnancy (due to risk of PTU-induced hepatotoxicity). Not used to treat Graves ophthalmopathy (treated with corticosteroids).
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Skin rash, agranulocytosis (rare), aplastic anemia, hepatotoxicity. Methimazole is a possible teratogen (can cause aplasia cutis).

Levothyroxine, liothyronine

MECHANISM	Hormone replacement for T_4 (levothyroxine) or T_3 (liothyronine).
CLINICAL USE	Hypothyroidism, myxedema. May be abused for weight loss. Distinguish exogenous hyperthyroidism from endogenous hyperthyroidism by using a combination of TSH receptor antibodies, radioactive iodine uptake, and/or measurement of thyroid blood flow on ultrasound.
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Tachycardia, heat intolerance, tremors, arrhythmias.

Hypothalamic/pituitary drugs

DRUG	CLINICAL USE
Conivaptan, tolvaptan	ADH antagonists SIADH (block action of ADH at V_2-receptor)
Demeclocycline	ADH antagonist, a tetracycline SIADH
Desmopressin	Central DI, von Willebrand disease, sleep enuresis, hemophilia A
GH	GH deficiency, Turner syndrome
Oxytocin	Induction of labor (stimulates uterine contractions), control uterine hemorrhage
Somatostatin (octreotide)	Acromegaly, carcinoid syndrome, gastrinoma, glucagonoma, esophageal varices

Fludrocortisone

MECHANISM	Synthetic analog of aldosterone with little glucocorticoid effects.
CLINICAL USE	Mineralocorticoid replacement in 1° adrenal insufficiency.
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Similar to glucocorticoids; also edema, exacerbation of heart failure, hyperpigmentation.

Cinacalcet

MECHANISM	Sensitizes Ca^{2+}-sensing receptor (CaSR) in parathyroid gland to circulating Ca^{2+} → ↓ PTH.
CLINICAL USE	2° hyperparathyroidism in patients with CKD receiving hemodialysis, hypercalcemia in 1° hyperparathyroidism (if parathyroidectomy fails), or in parathyroid carcinoma.
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Hypocalcemia.

Sevelamer

MECHANISM	Nonabsorbable phosphate binder that prevents phosphate absorption from the GI tract.
CLINICAL USE	Hyperphosphatemia in CKD.
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Hypophosphatemia, GI upset.

▸ NOTES

Gastrointestinal

"A good set of bowels is worth more to a man than any quantity of brains."
—Josh Billings

"Man should strive to have his intestines relaxed all the days of his life."
—Moses Maimonides

"All right, let's not panic. I'll make the money by selling one of my livers. I can get by with one."
—Homer Simpson

When studying the gastrointestinal system, be sure to understand the normal embryology, anatomy, and physiology and how it is affected in the various pathologic diseases. Study not only what a disease entails, but also its specific findings, so that you can differentiate between two similar diseases. For example, what specifically makes ulcerative colitis different than Crohn disease? Also, it is important to understand bile metabolism and which lab values increase or decrease depending on the disease process. Be comfortable with basic interpretation of abdominal x-rays, CT scans, and endoscopic images.