

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ
(وَفَوْقَ كُلِّ ذِي عِلْمٍ عِلْمٌ)



Endocrine Physiology | MID L6

Insulin, glucagon & DM

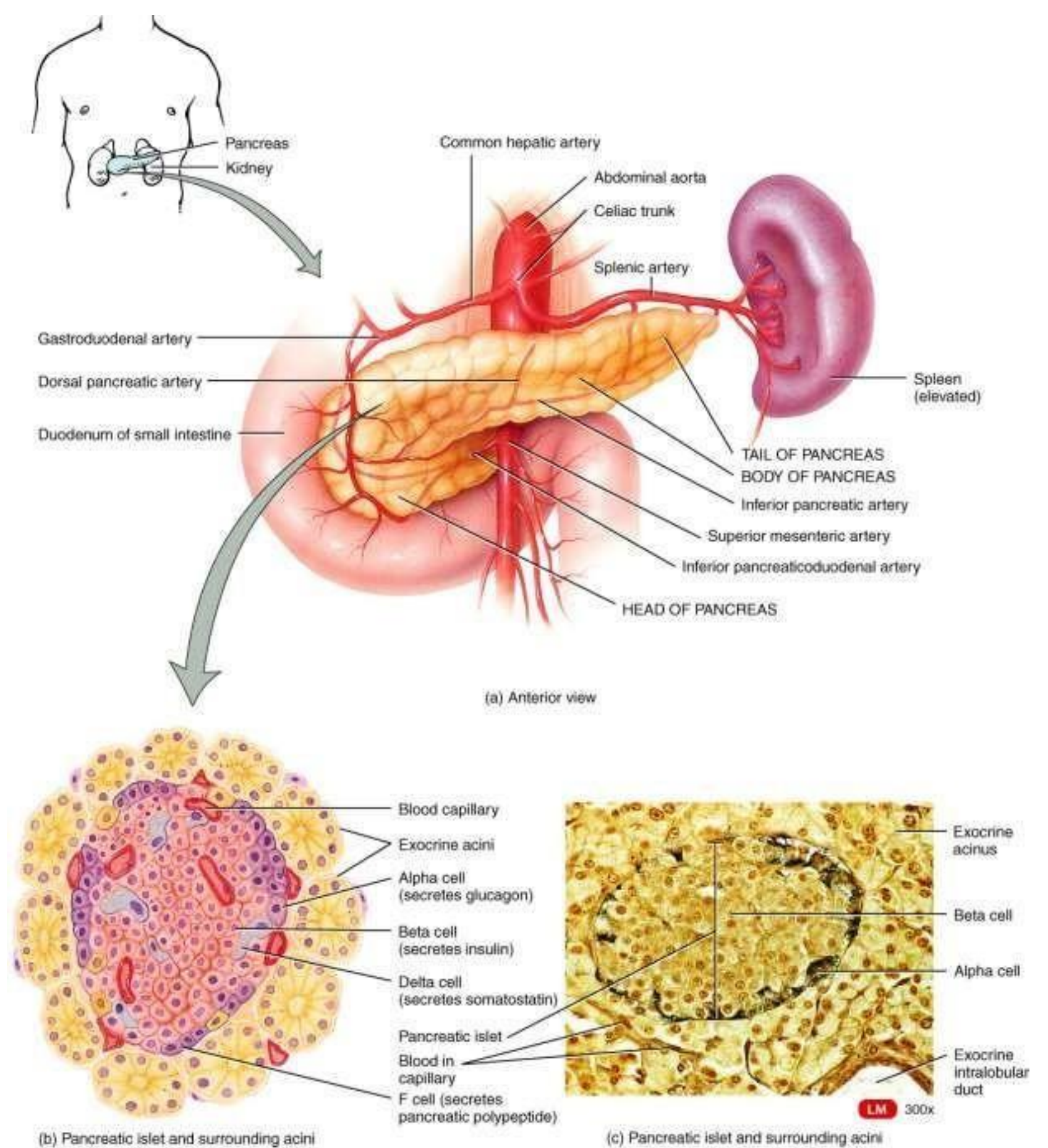


Reviewed by : Bushra Masalha
Abdallah Hindash

Objectives

- Describe structures of insulin and glucagon
- List the actions of insulin and glucagon
- Explain the mechanism of actions of insulin and glucagon
- Describe other hormone that affect glucose homeostasis

Pancreas

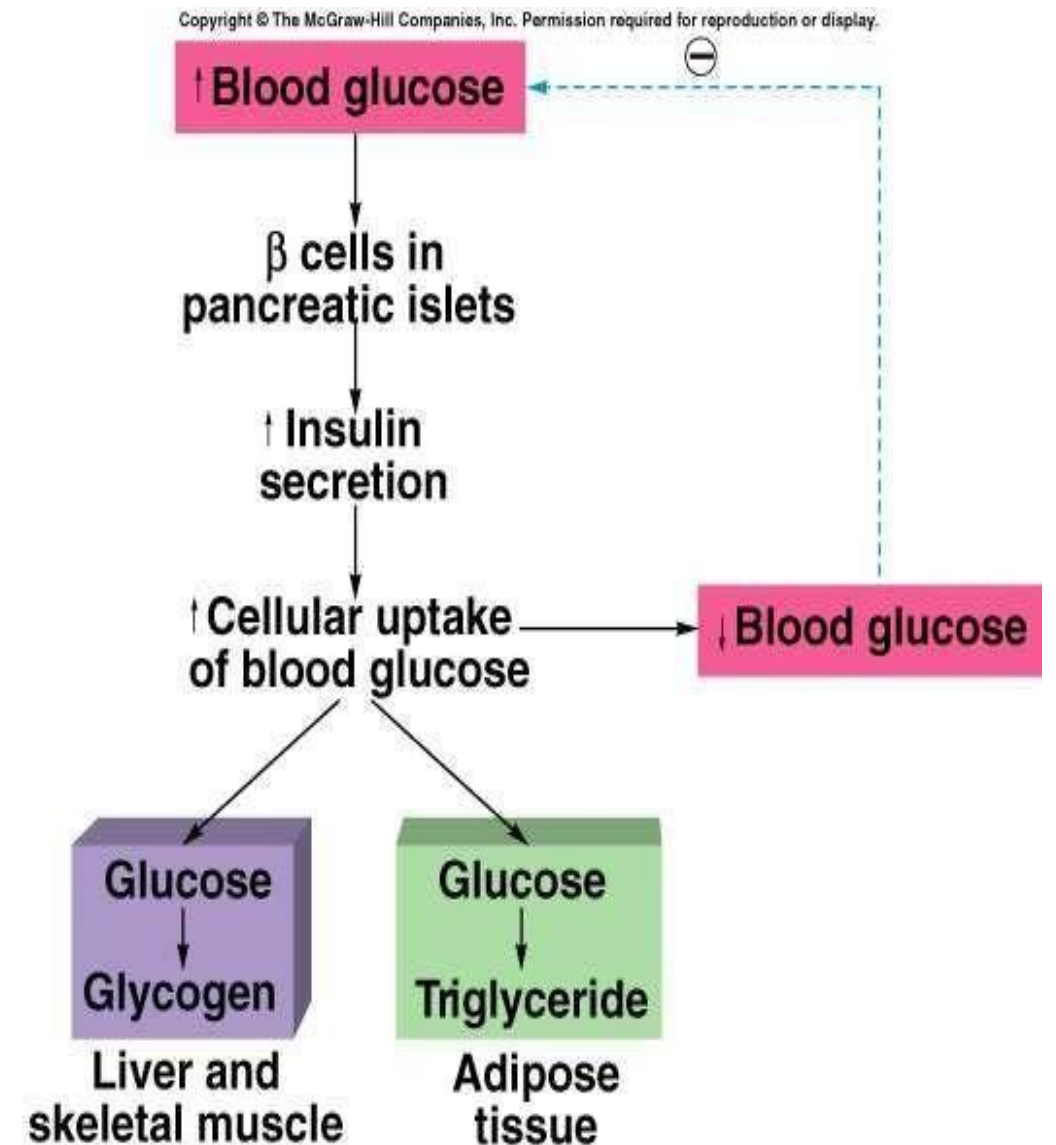


Pancreatic Islets

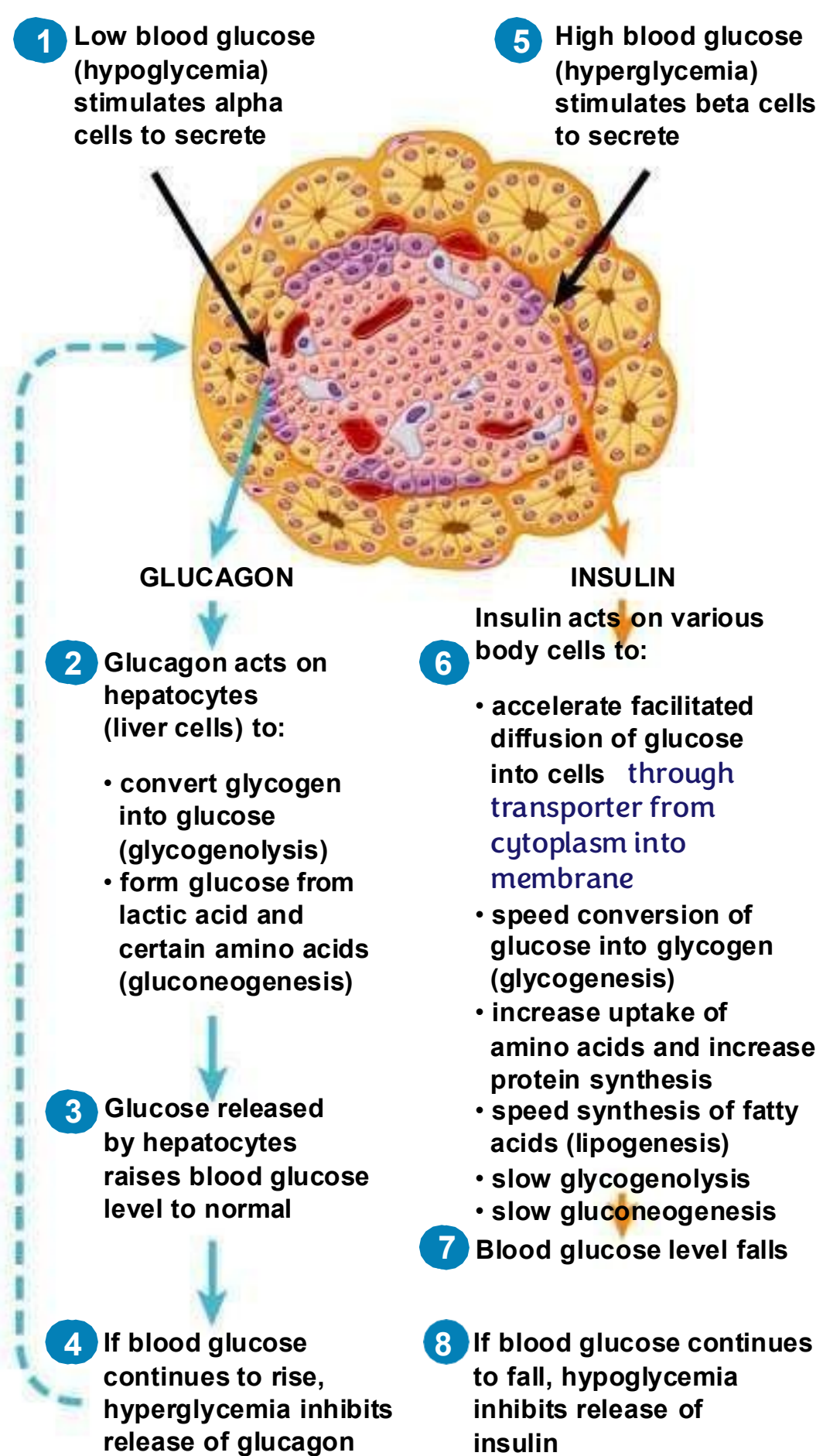
- Both exocrine and endocrine gland
- Roughly 99% of cells produce digestive enzymes
- Pancreatic islets or islets of Langerhans
 - **Alpha** or α (A) cells secrete **glucagon** – raises blood sugar
 - **Beta** or β (B) cells secrete **insulin** – lowers blood sugar
 - **Delta** or δ (D) cells secrete **somatostatin** – inhibits both insulin and glucagon ,**it depends on situations**
 - **F cells** secrete **pancreatic polypeptide** – inhibits somatostatin, gallbladder contraction, and secretion of pancreatic digestive enzymes

Pancreatic Islets (Islets of Langerhans)

- Alpha cells secrete glucagon.
 - Stimulus is **decrease in blood [glucose]**.
 - Stimulates glycogenolysis, **gluconeogenesis** and lipolysis.
 - Stimulates conversion of fatty acids to ketones (ketogenesis).
- Beta cells secrete insulin.
 - Stimulus is **increase in blood [glucose]** .
 - Promotes entry of glucose into cells.
 - Converts glucose to glycogen (**in liver**)and fat (**in adipose tissue**)
 - Aids entry of amino acids into cells.



Negative Feedback Regulation of Glucagon and Insulin



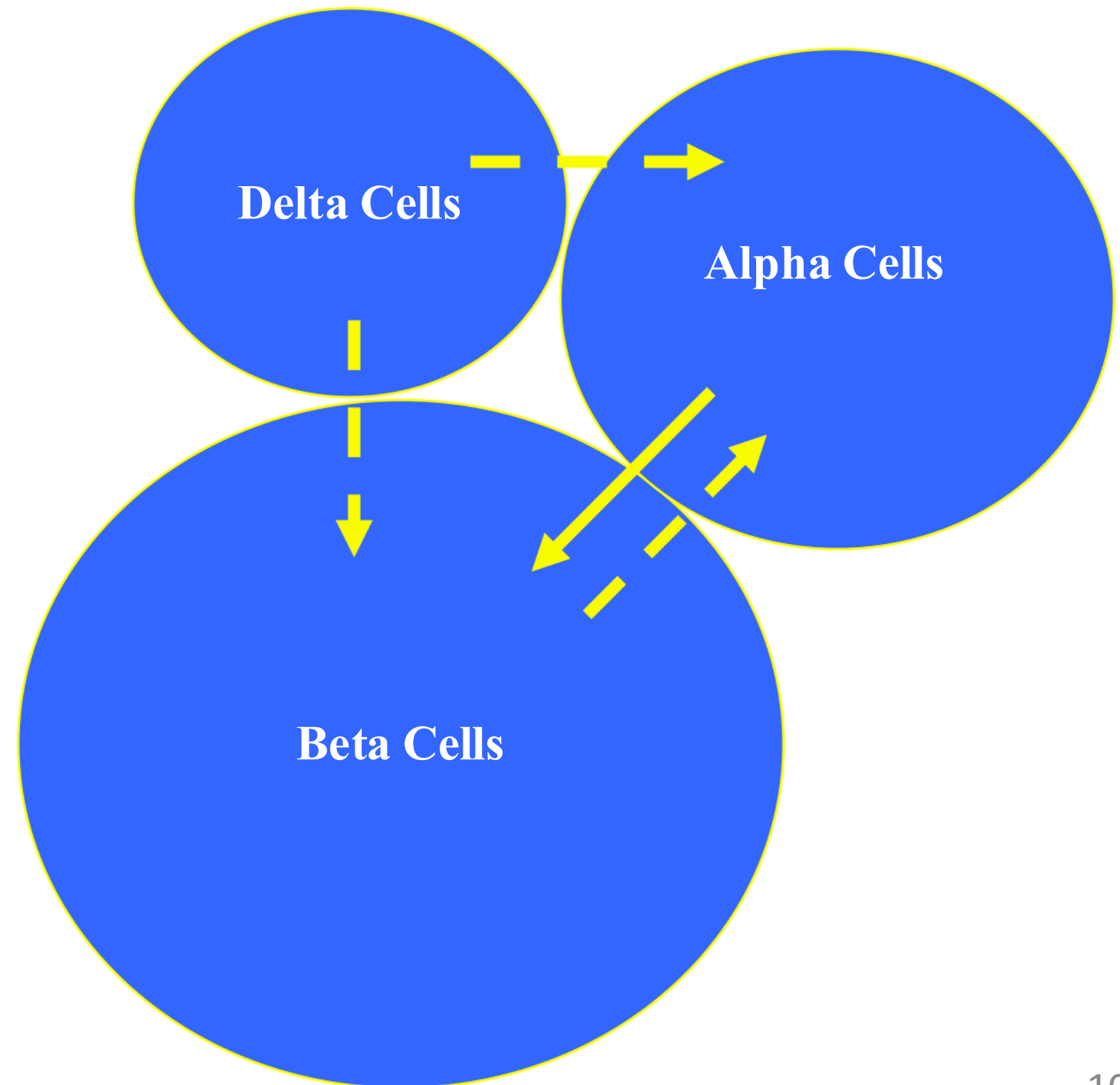
Some patients with insulin deficiency have **reduced** muscle mass because there is **insufficient insulin** to promote the **uptake of amino acids** into cells and to **stimulate protein synthesis**.

Pancreatic Hormones

- The endocrine part of the pancreas is responsible for secreting the following hormones:
 - Insulin
 - Glucagon
 - Somatostatin
 - Pancreatic polypeptide

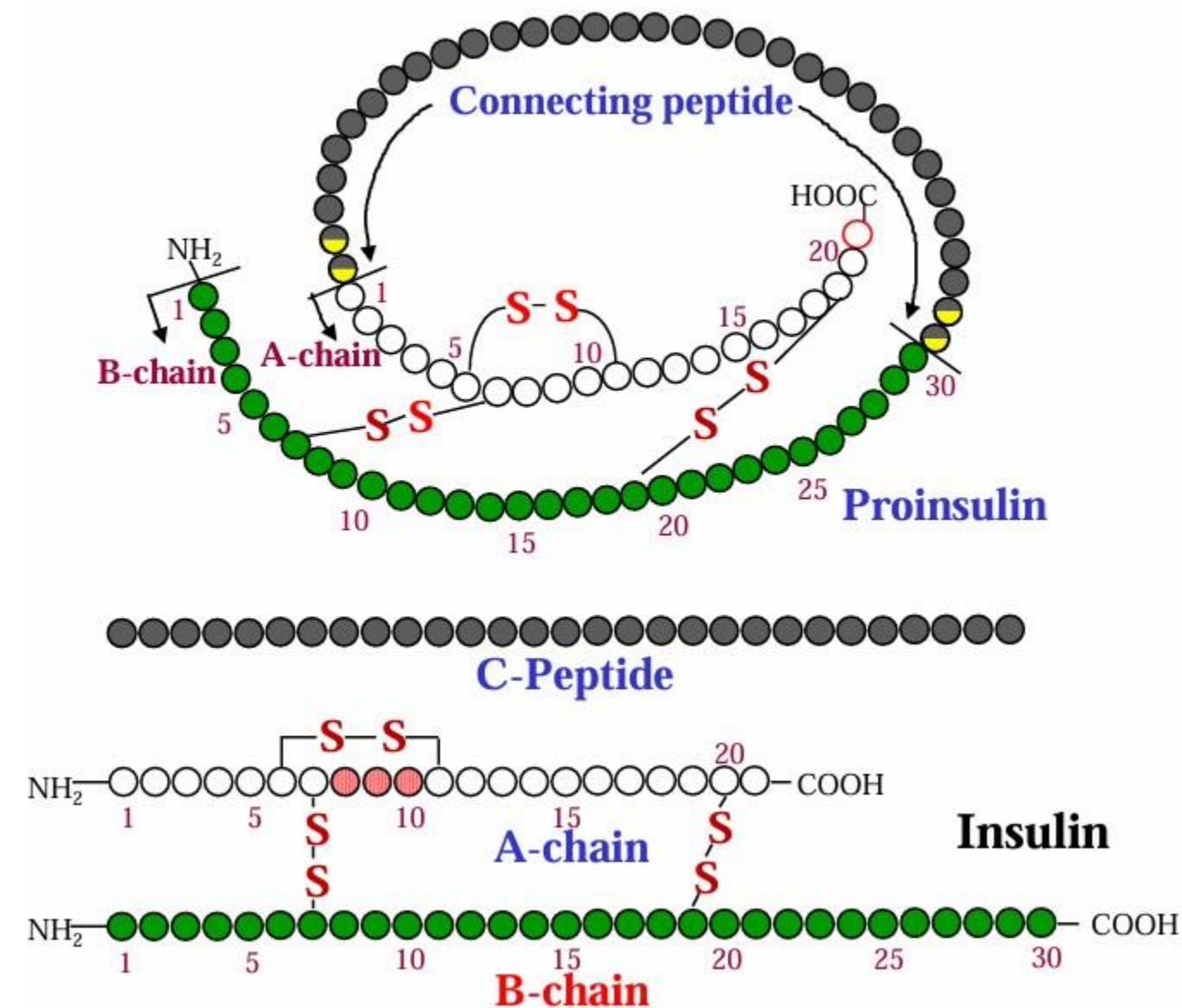
Paracrine Influence of Pancreatic Hormones

- **Delta Cells** (somatostatin-secreting)
 - **Inhibit beta cells** (yellow dashed arrow): Somatostatin **suppresses insulin secretion**.
 - **Inhibit alpha cells** (yellow dashed arrow): Somatostatin **also suppresses glucagon secretion**.
- **Beta Cells** (insulin-secreting)
 - **Inhibit alpha cells** (yellow dashed arrow): Insulin **inhibits glucagon secretion**.
- **Alpha Cells** (glucagon-secreting)
 - **Activate beta cells** (solid arrow): Glucagon **stimulates insulin secretion**.



Processing of Proinsulin

- Insulin is a peptide it form as proinsulin(large protein) break down into insulin and c- peptide has alpha(20AA) and beta subunit (30AA) they connect by disulphide bond.
- After the cleavage of the **connecting (C) peptide**, both insulin and **C-peptide** are secreted in **equal concentrations**.
- This makes it possible to assess **endogenous insulin secretion** by measuring **C-peptide levels**, since **exogenous insulin lacks C-peptide**.

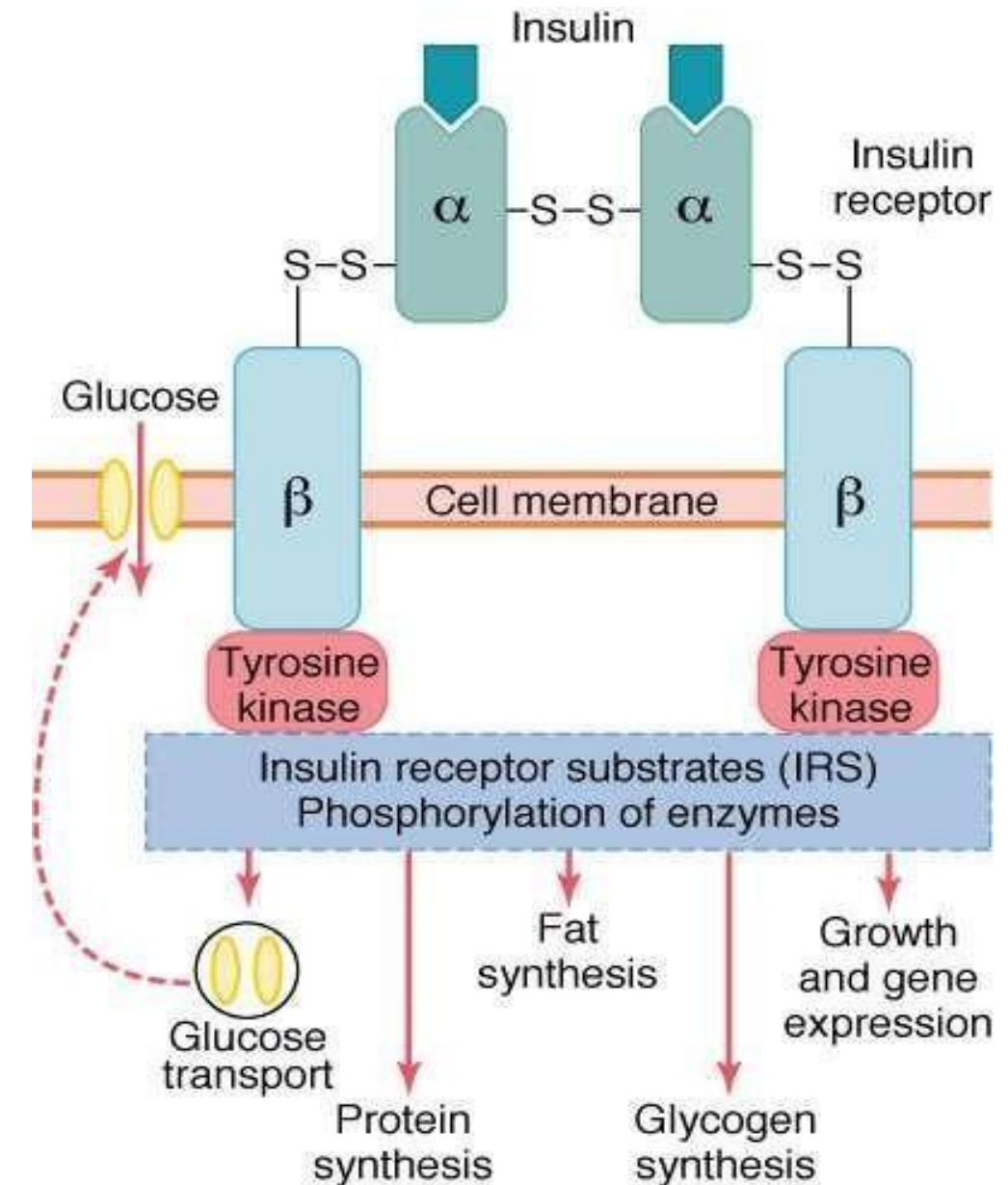


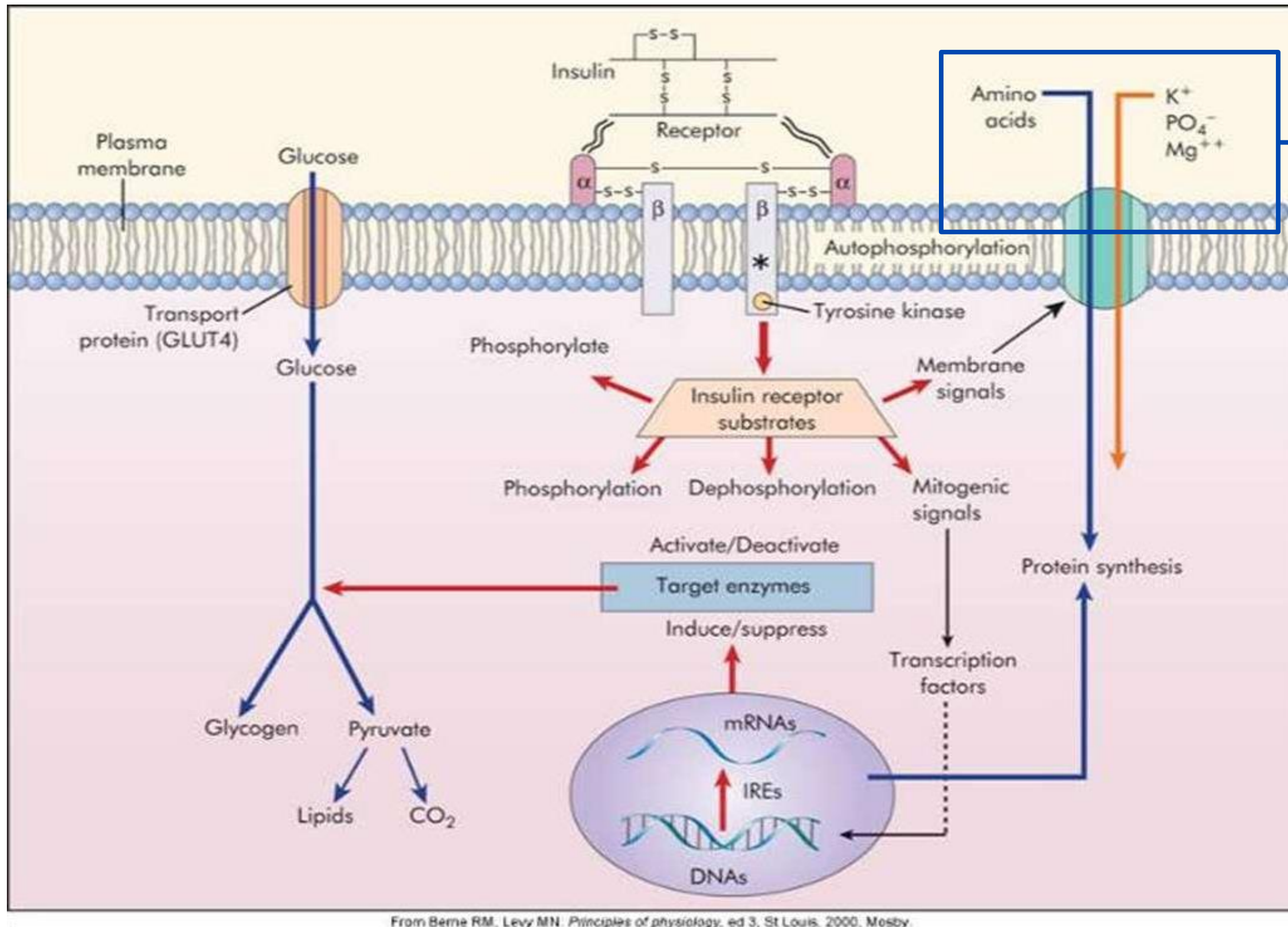
Tyrosine Kinase

- Insulin receptor consists of 2 units that dimerize when they bind with insulin.
 - Insulin binds to ligand–binding site on plasma membrane **on alpha subunit** , activating enzymatic site **beta subunit** in the cytoplasm.
- Autophosphorylation occurs (**Change activity of enzyme (activate,deactivate)**), increasing tyrosine kinase activity.
- Activates signaling molecules.
 - Stimulate glycogen, fat and protein synthesis.
 - Stimulate insertion of GLUT-4 carrier proteins.

The Insulin Receptor & Mechanisms of Insulin Action

- Insulin binds to the α -subunits of the insulin receptor (outside the cell).
- This activates the β -subunits (inside the cell), which have tyrosine kinase activity.
- The receptor autophosphorylates and phosphorylates Insulin Receptor Substrates (IRS).
- This triggers a signaling cascade that leads to:
 - ↑ Glucose transporter insertion into cells (glucose uptake)
 - ↑ Protein synthesis
 - ↑ Fat synthesis
 - ↑ Glycogen synthesis
 - ↑ Growth and gene expression



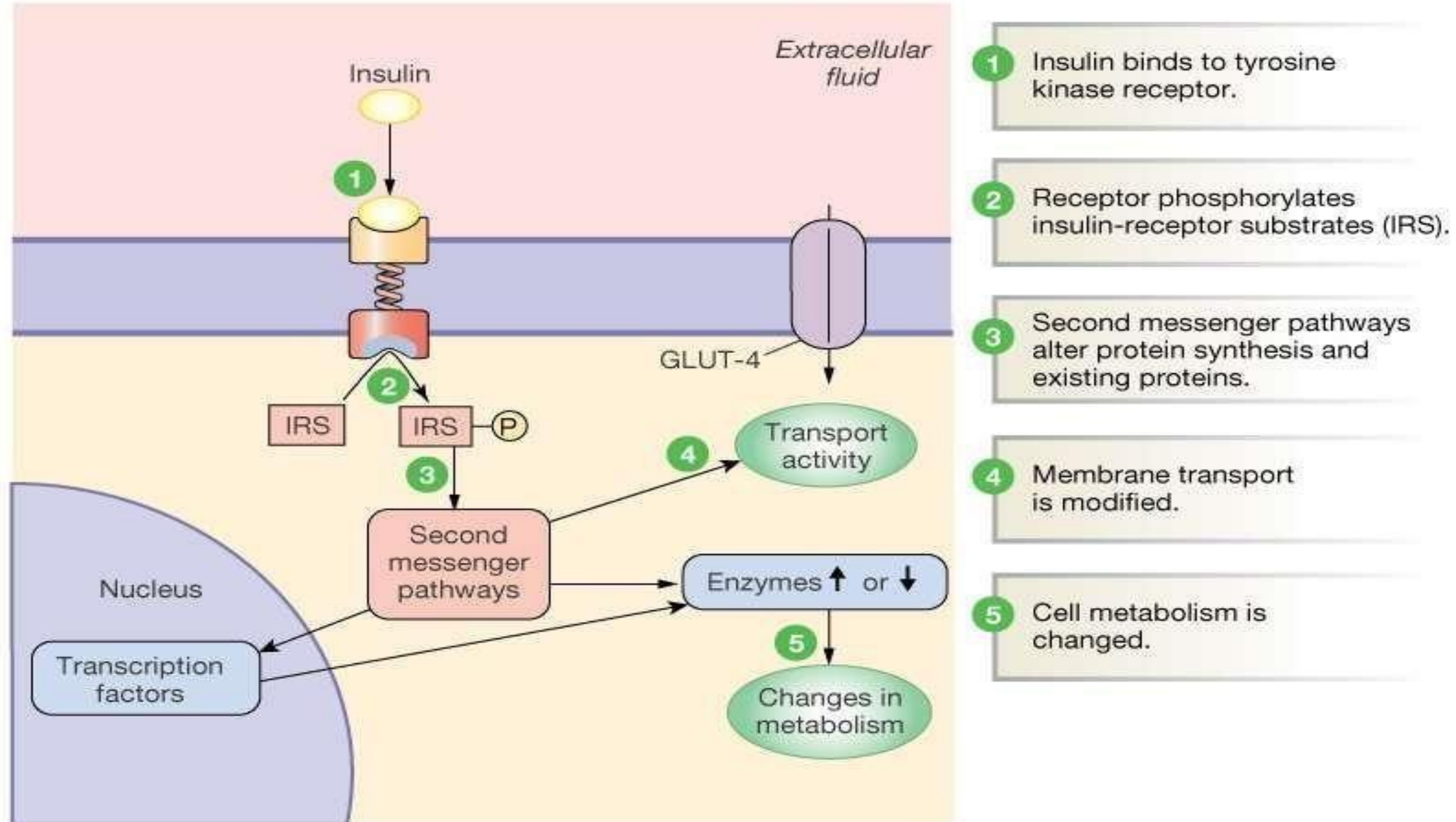


In hyperkalemia, doctors sometimes give insulin (along with glucose) to promote potassium uptake from the blood into cells.

Explanation of the previous figure

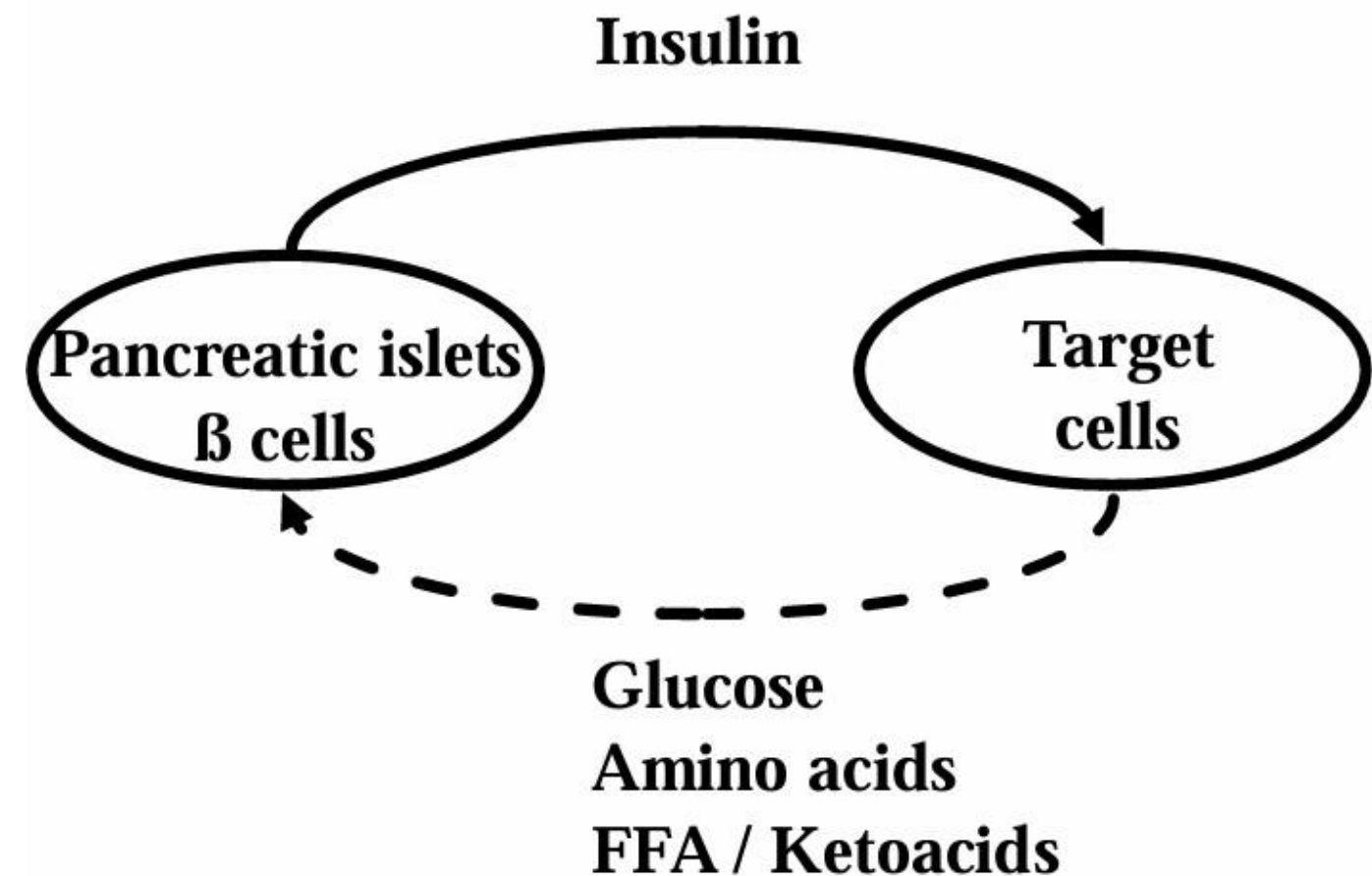
- When **Insulin Receptor Substrates (IRS)** are phosphorylated, they trigger **intracellular signaling** that leads to:
 - **↑ GLUT4 translocation** to the membrane, causing **↑ glucose uptake**
- Glucose is used for:
 - **↑ Glycogen synthesis**
 - **↑ Pyruvate production**, which is either used in **lipid synthesis** or converted to **CO₂**
- **Activation or inhibition of target enzymes** through **phosphorylation** or **dephosphorylation**
- **Activation of transcription factors** that:
 - **↑ or ↓ gene expression**
 - **Bind to Insulin Response Elements (IREs)** on DNA
 - **↑ mRNA synthesis**, leading to **protein synthesis** (e.g. enzymes, receptors)
- **Amino acids** also enter the cell and are used for **protein synthesis**
- **Minerals** (e.g., K^+ , PO_4^{3-} , Mg^{2+}) are transported into cells under **insulin's effect**

Insulin Action on Cells

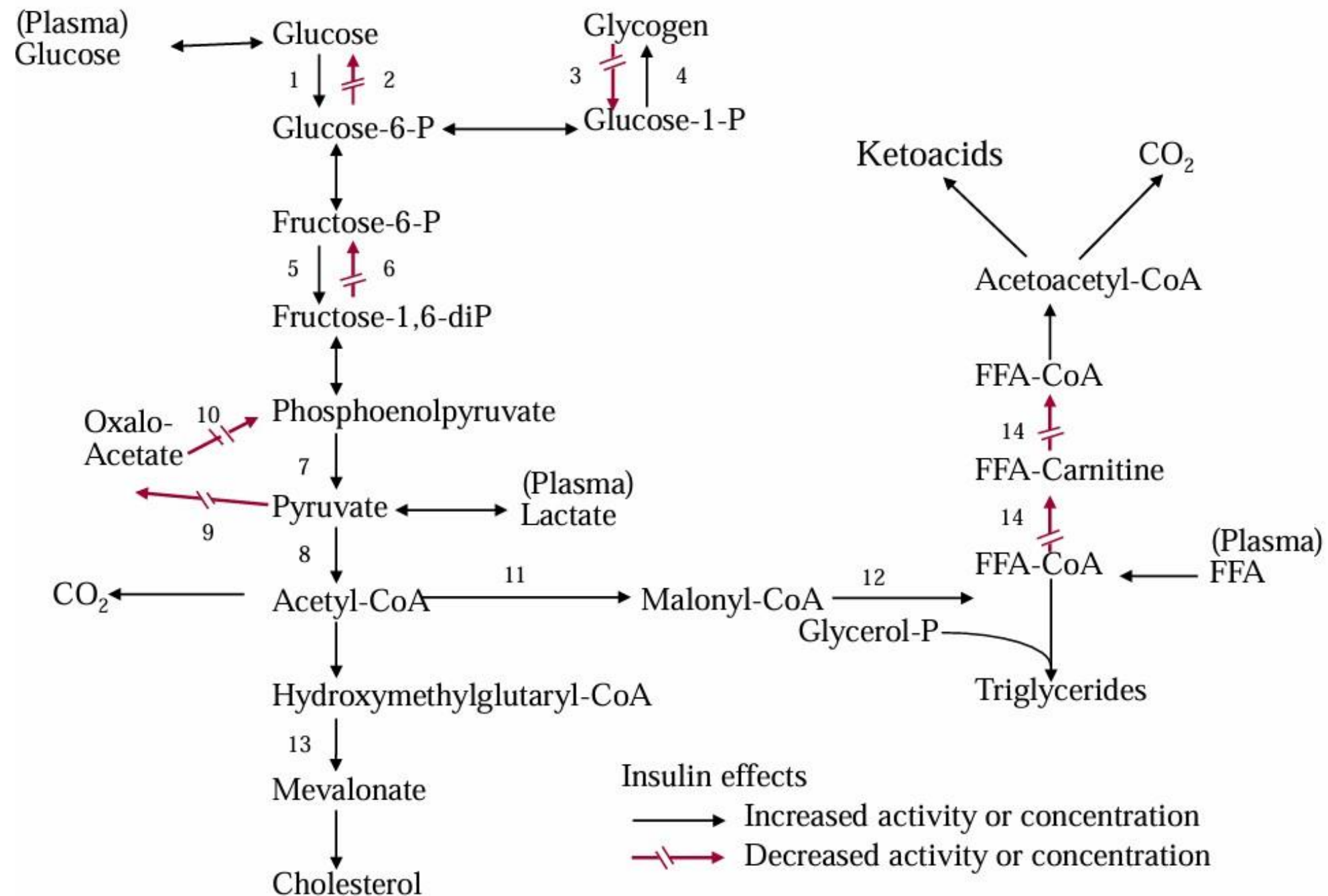


Metabolic Control by Insulin

- Insulin stimulates the cellular uptake of **glucose, amino acids, and free fatty acids**, and **inhibits ketone body production**.
- As the plasma concentrations of these molecules decrease, this provides **negative feedback** that reduces further insulin secretion.
- In diabetic patients, **insulin deficiency** leads to **increased lipolysis and ketogenesis**, which can result in **ketoacidosis**.



Insulin Actions on Glucose and Fatty Acid Metabolism in the Liver



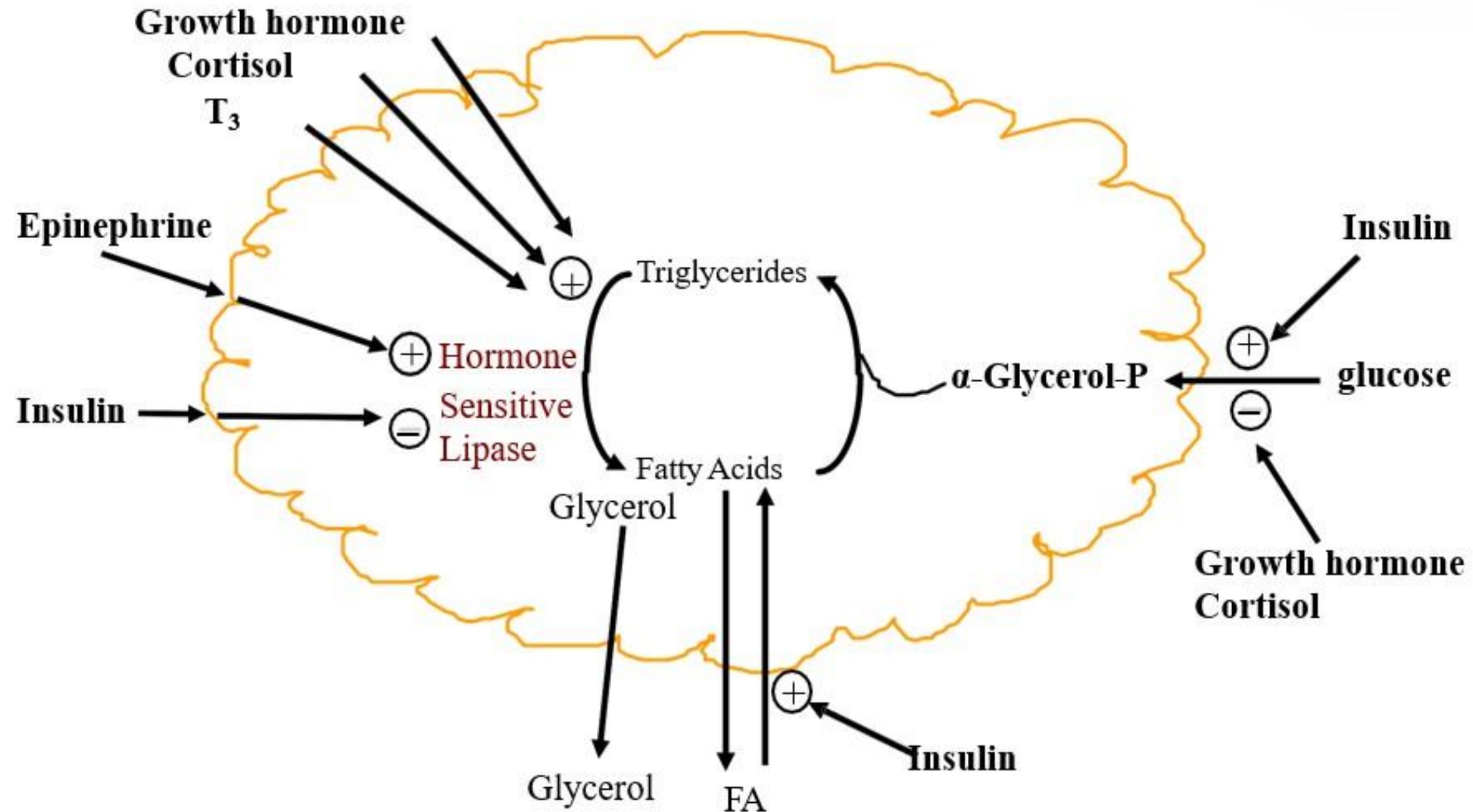
Not For Memorization

Key Enzymes Influenced by Insulin

activated or deactivated

1. Glucokinase
2. Glucose-6-phosphatase
3. Phosphorylase
4. Glycogen synthase
5. Phosphofructokinase
6. Fructose-1,6- diphosphatase
7. Pyruvate kinase
8. Pyruvate dehydrogenase
9. Pyruvate carboxylase
10. Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase
11. Acetyl-CoA carboxylase
12. Fatty acid synthase
13. Hydroxy-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase
14. Carnitine acyltransferase

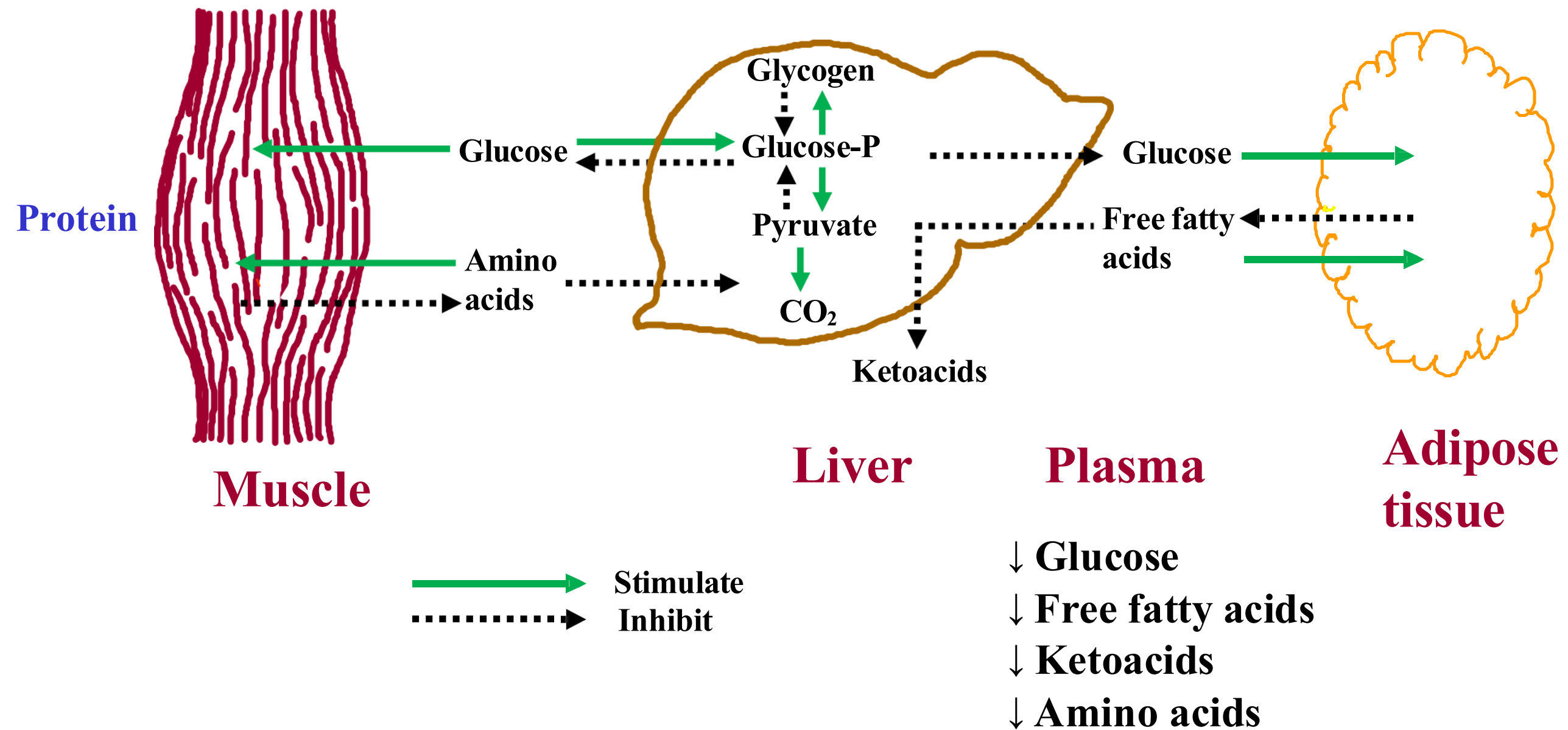
Hormonal Effects on FFA Production in Adipose Tissue



Hormonal Regulation of Triglyceride Metabolism in Adipose Tissue

- Triglycerides are stored in adipose tissue and can be broken down into **fatty acids and glycerol** by **Hormone Sensitive Lipase (HSL)**.
 - HSL is activated by: epinephrine, growth hormone, cortisol, and T_3
 - HSL is inhibited by: insulin
- Insulin promotes fat storage by:
 - Enhancing the uptake of fatty acids and glycerol into adipose tissue
 - Stimulating the conversion of glucose to α -glycerol phosphate (via glycolysis), which is required for triglyceride synthesis
- Growth hormone and cortisol:
 - Inhibit glucose uptake, decreasing α -glycerol phosphate formation, and thereby reducing triglyceride synthesis
 - Stimulate lipolysis through HSL activation
- Note:
 - Glucose-derived dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) is converted to α -glycerol phosphate, which combines with fatty acids to form triglycerides —a process promoted by insulin and inhibited by growth hormone and cortisol.

Metabolic Effects of Insulin



Effects of Insulin on Different Tissues

- **In Muscle Tissue:**
 - Insulin stimulates **glucose uptake**
 - Insulin promotes **amino acid uptake**, leading to **protein synthesis**
 - Result: ↓ **plasma amino acid levels**
- **In the Liver:**
 - Insulin stimulates **glucose uptake & storage as glycogen**
 - Insulin inhibits **fatty acids breakdown**, reducing **ketoacid production**
 - Inhibits **amino acid uptake**
 - Result: ↓ **plasma glucose** and ↓ **ketoacid levels**
- **In Adipose Tissue:**
 - Insulin promotes **glucose uptake**
 - Insulin stimulates **fat storage** and inhibits **fat breakdown**
 - Result: ↓ **plasma free fatty acid levels**
- **Overall Effect of Insulin on Plasma Levels:**
 - ↓ **Glucose**
 - ↓ **Free fatty acids** (because increase uptake of FFA)
 - ↓ **Ketoacids** (because the glucose is low)
 - ↓ **Amino acids**

Insulin -- Liver

- GLUT2 transporters
- ↑ **Glucokinase** (stimulate glucose uptake into liver for glycogen synthesis)
- ↑ Glycogen
- ↓ Glucose release
 - ↓ **G6Pase**
- ↑ Glycolysis
 - ↑ acetyl CoA, ↑ FA synthesis
- ↑ Triglyceride storage & export (VLDLs)
- ↑ Protein synthesis, ↓ protein degradation

Insulin -- Adipocytes

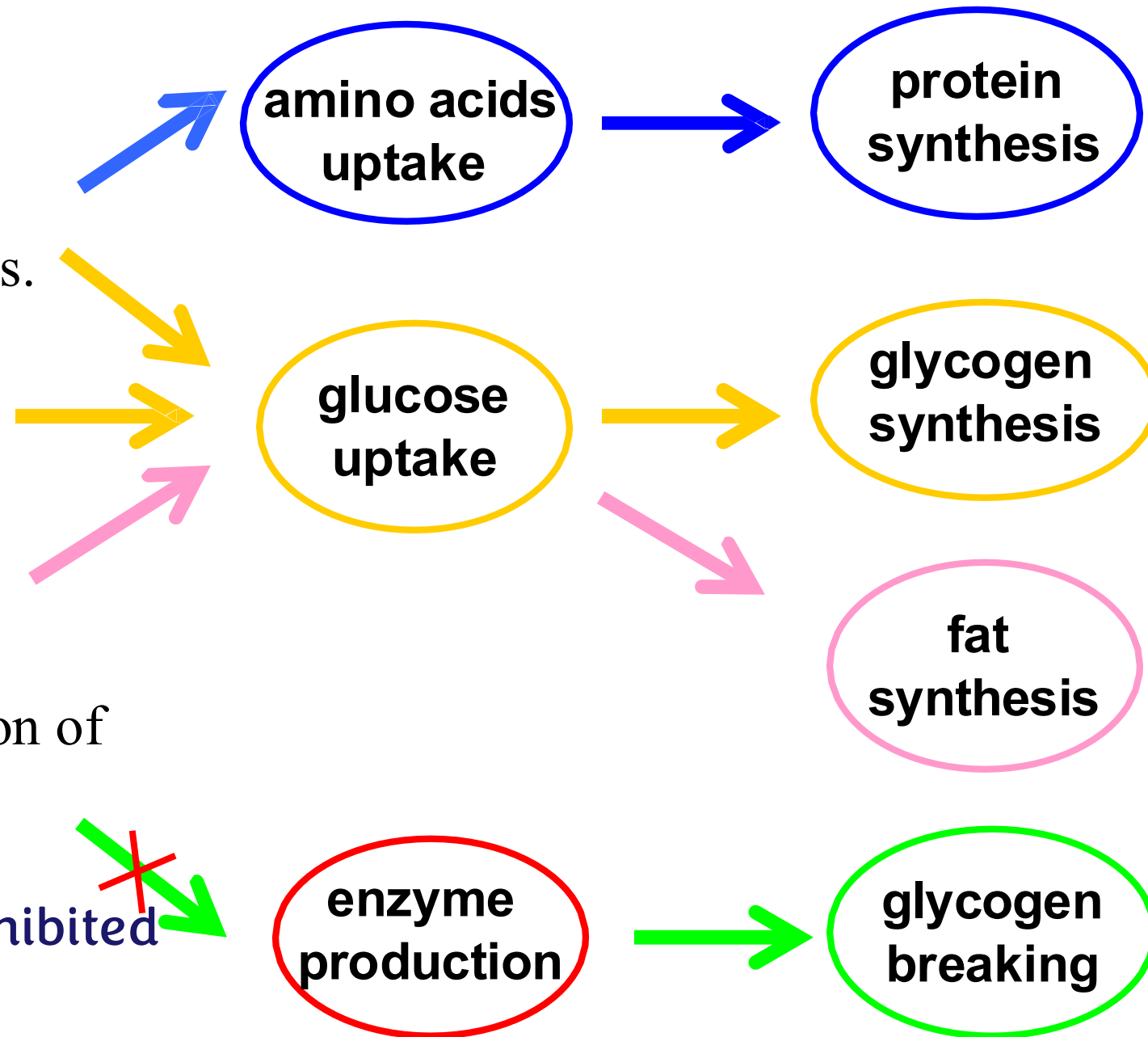
- ↑ GLUT4 transporters
- ↑ Glycolysis
 - ↑ α -glycerol phosphate
 - ↑ acetyl CoA, ↑ FA synthesis
- ↑ Triglycerides
 - ↓ Hormone sensitive lipase **to prevent break down of fat**
 - ↑ Lipoprotein lipase
 - **تفكك** triglycerides in chylomicrons then re enter the adipose tissue and **reform the triglycerides**

Insulin -- Muscle

- ↑ GLUT4 transporters
- ↑ Glycogen **the storage form of energy**
- ↑ Glycolysis
- ↑ Protein synthesis, ↓ protein degradation
- ↑ Triglycerides (FA's from circulation)

Insulin affects many organs:

- It stimulates skeletal muscle fibers.
- It stimulates liver cells.
- It acts on fat cells

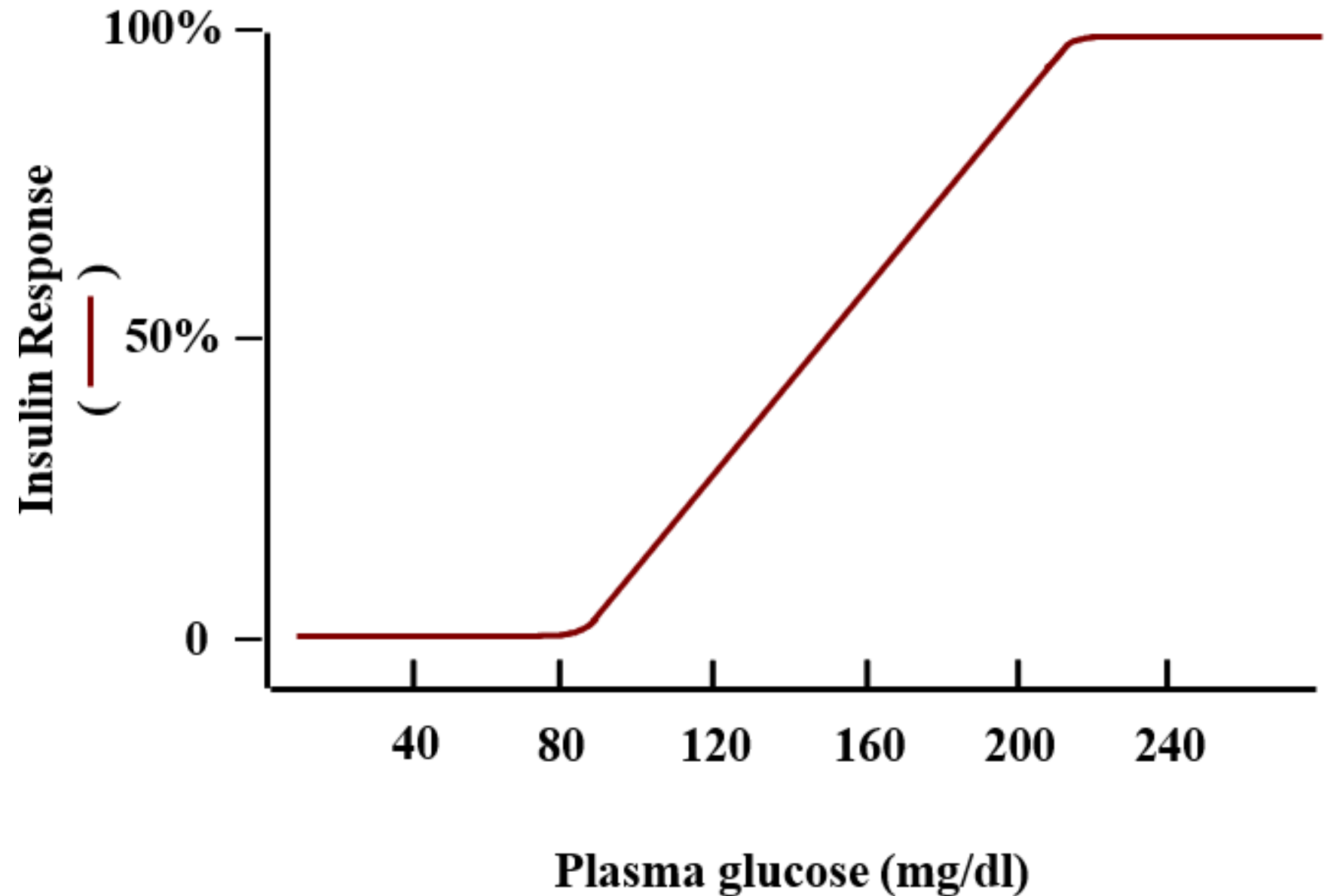


- It inhibits production of certain enzymes.
- **Ex: Glycogen phosphorylase inhibited**

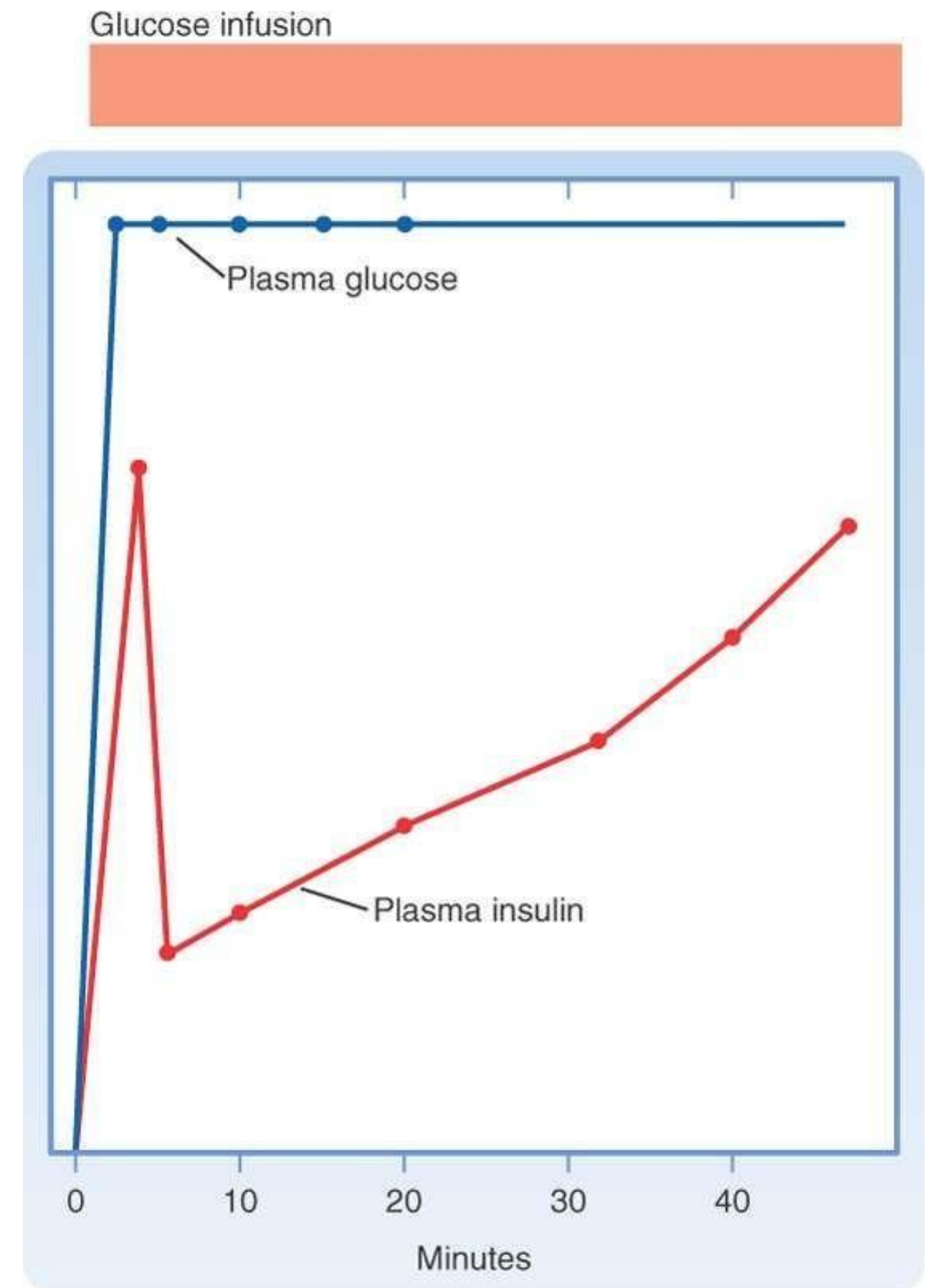
In each case, insulin triggers these effects by binding to the insulin receptor.

Blood [Glucose] & Insulin Secretion

Whenever plasma **glucose increases**
(main stimulus), insulin secretion
increases



- **Insulin** (red line) responds in **two distinct phases**:
 - A **sharp initial spike (first phase)**, representing the release of **pre-stored insulin** synthesized earlier
 - Followed by a **gradual, sustained rise (second phase)**, due to the secretion of **newly synthesized insulin**



Factors Affecting Insulin Secretion

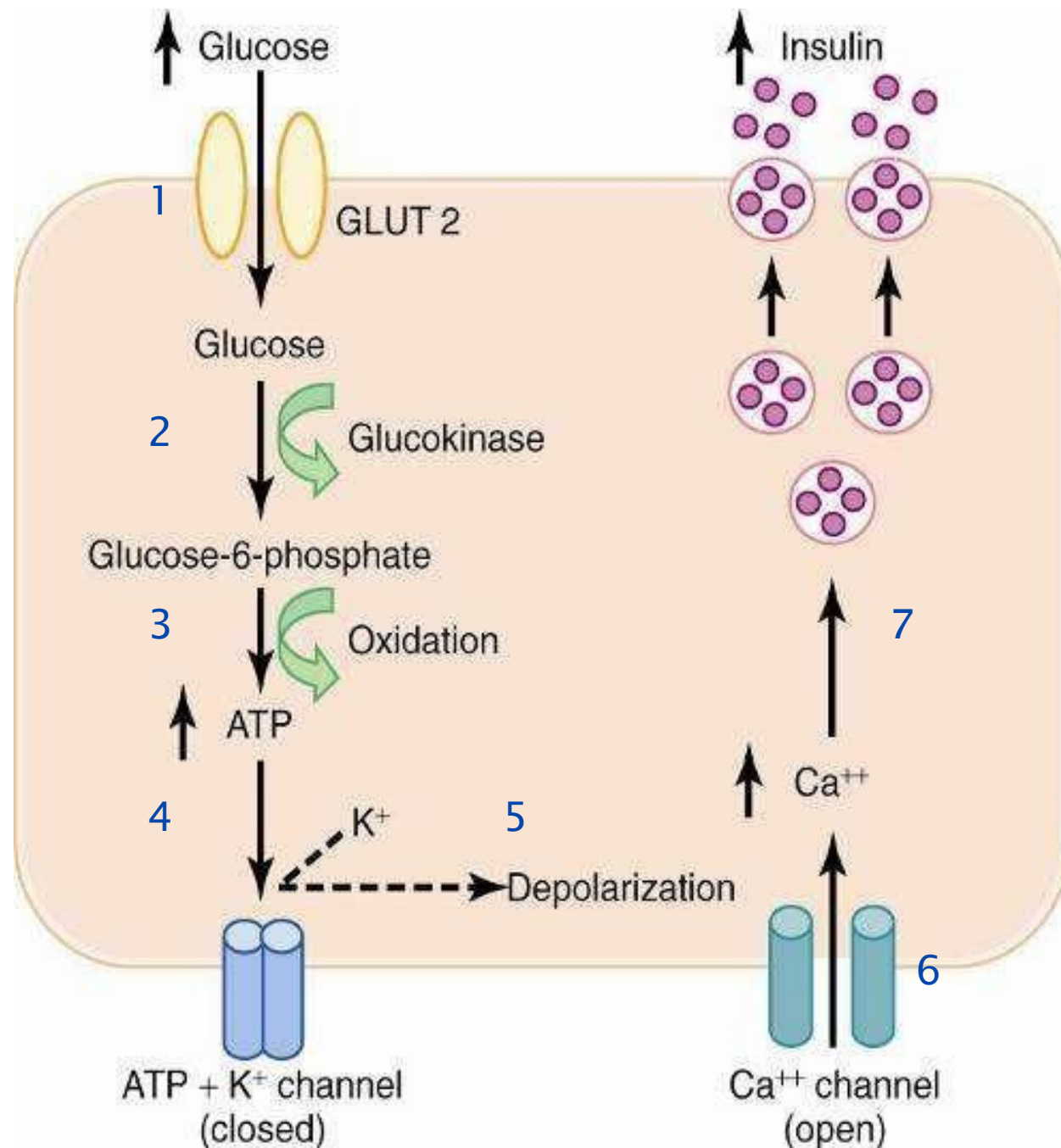
Stimulation		Inhibition
Glucose Main Stimulus		Somatostatin
Mannose	Neural influences	Fasting
Galactose	Vagal activity	Exercise
Amino acids	(acetylcholine)	Neural influences
Arginine	<u>β-adrenergic</u>	Sympathetic activity-
Lysine	stimulation	<u>α-adrenergic stimulation</u>
Leucine	Sulfonylurea drugs	(□ norepinephrine,
Alanine	Oral hyperglycaemic	epinephrine)
Free fatty acids	drug	
Keto acids		
Glucagon (direct and indirect effects : hyperglycaemia-stimulate blood glucose)		
Gastro-intestinal hormones		
Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1)		
Gastric inhibitory polypeptide (GIP)		

Incretin Hormones

Incretin hormones are gastrointestinal hormones that enhance insulin secretion.

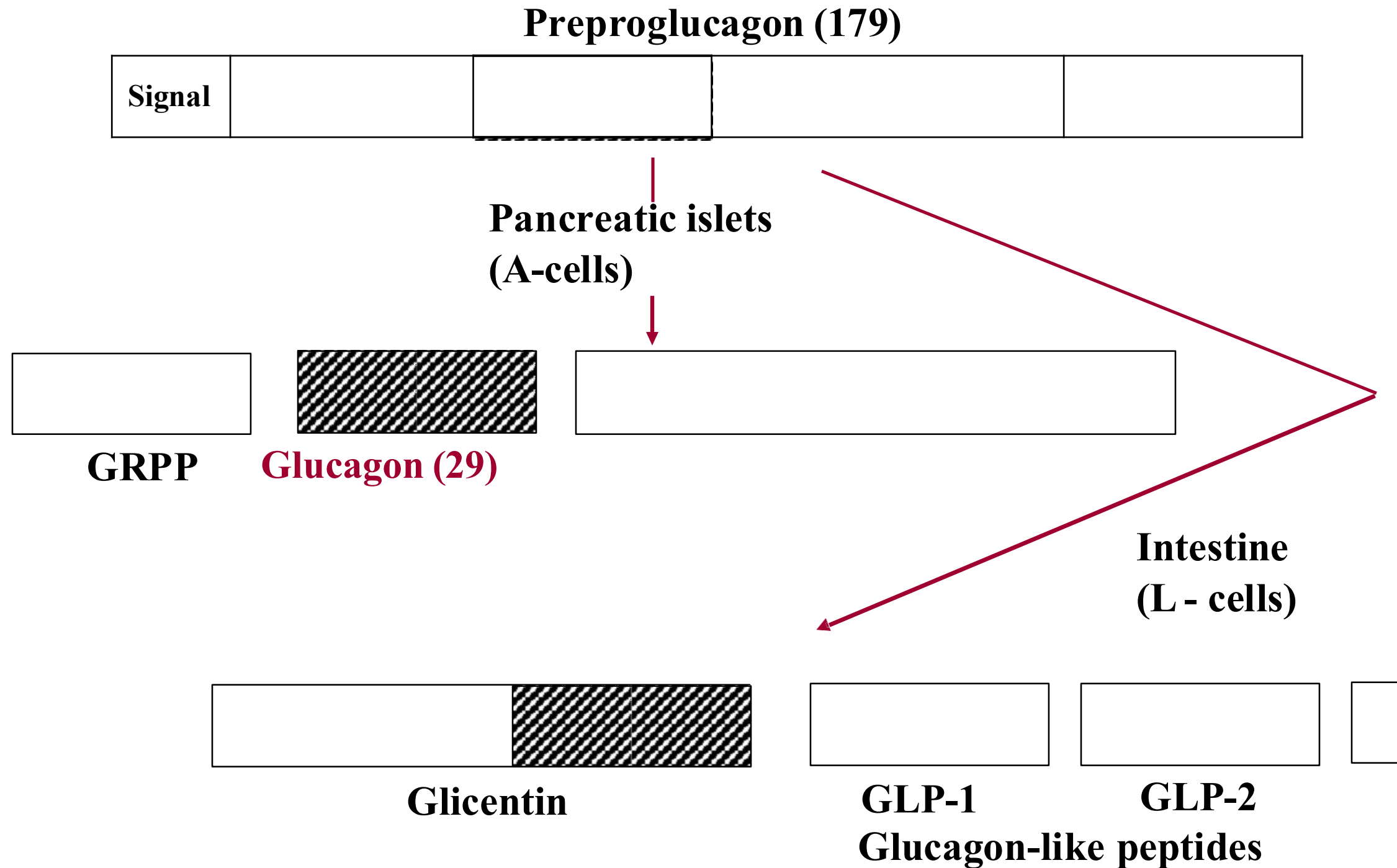
- **Intestine derived hormones**
 - **GLP-1, GIP**
 - **short $T_{1/2}$** ; because they are peptides; not protein bound.
 - **secreted in response to GI glucose & fat**
- **Simulate insulin secretion (glucose dependent)**
- **Inhibit glucagon secretion**
- **Slow gastric emptying**

Mechanism of Glucose Stimulated Insulin Secretion



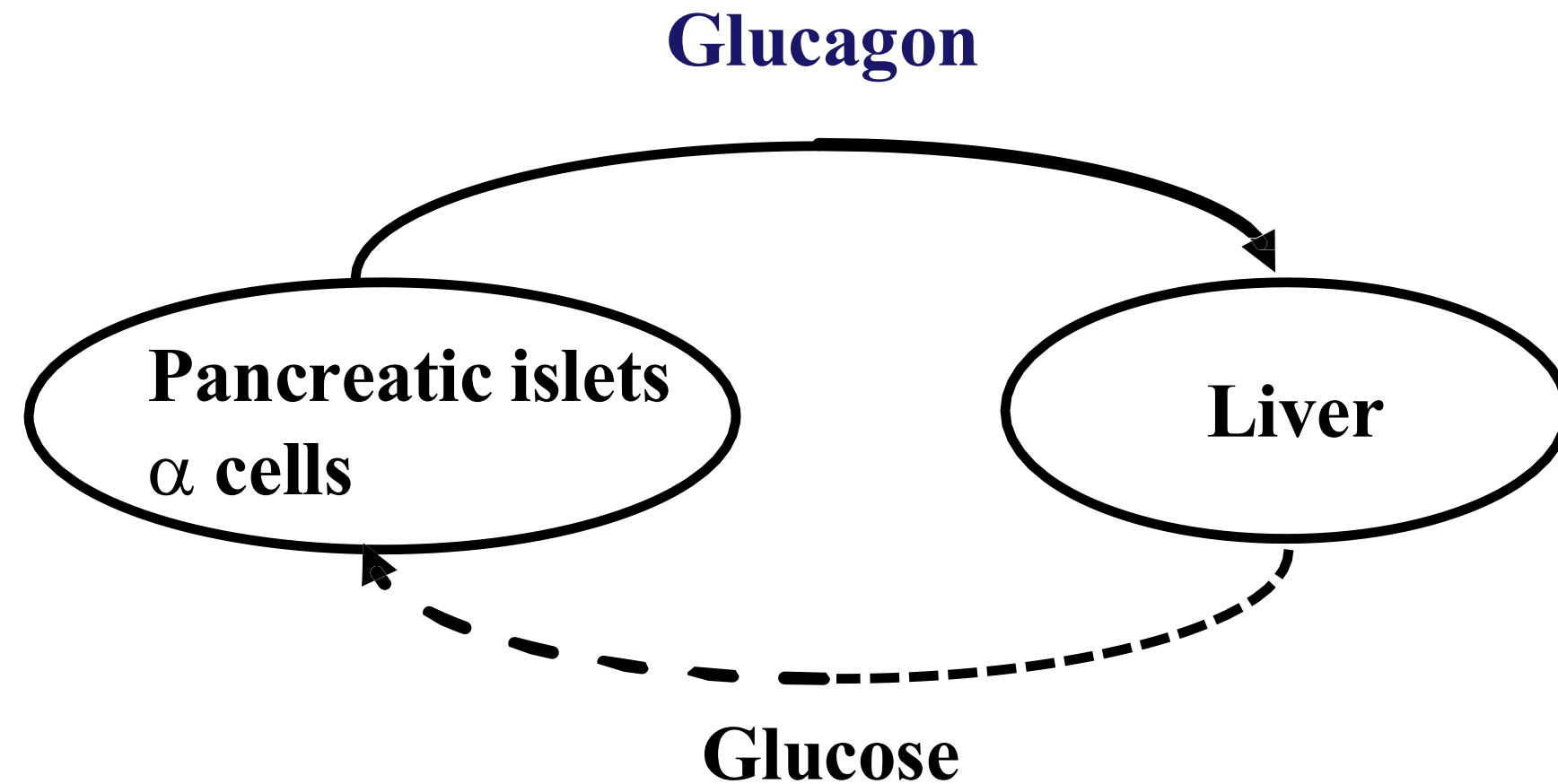
1. **GLUT2** facilitates the entry of glucose into pancreatic β -cells
2. **Glucokinase** converts glucose into glucose-6-phosphate (G6P)
3. **G6P** is oxidized to produce **ATP**
4. A high **ATP/ADP** ratio causes **ATP-sensitive K^+ channels** to close
5. This leads to membrane **depolarization**
6. Voltage-gated **Ca^{2+} channels** open
7. The influx of **Ca^{2+}** triggers the **exocytosis** of insulin-containing granules

Processing of Preproglucagon

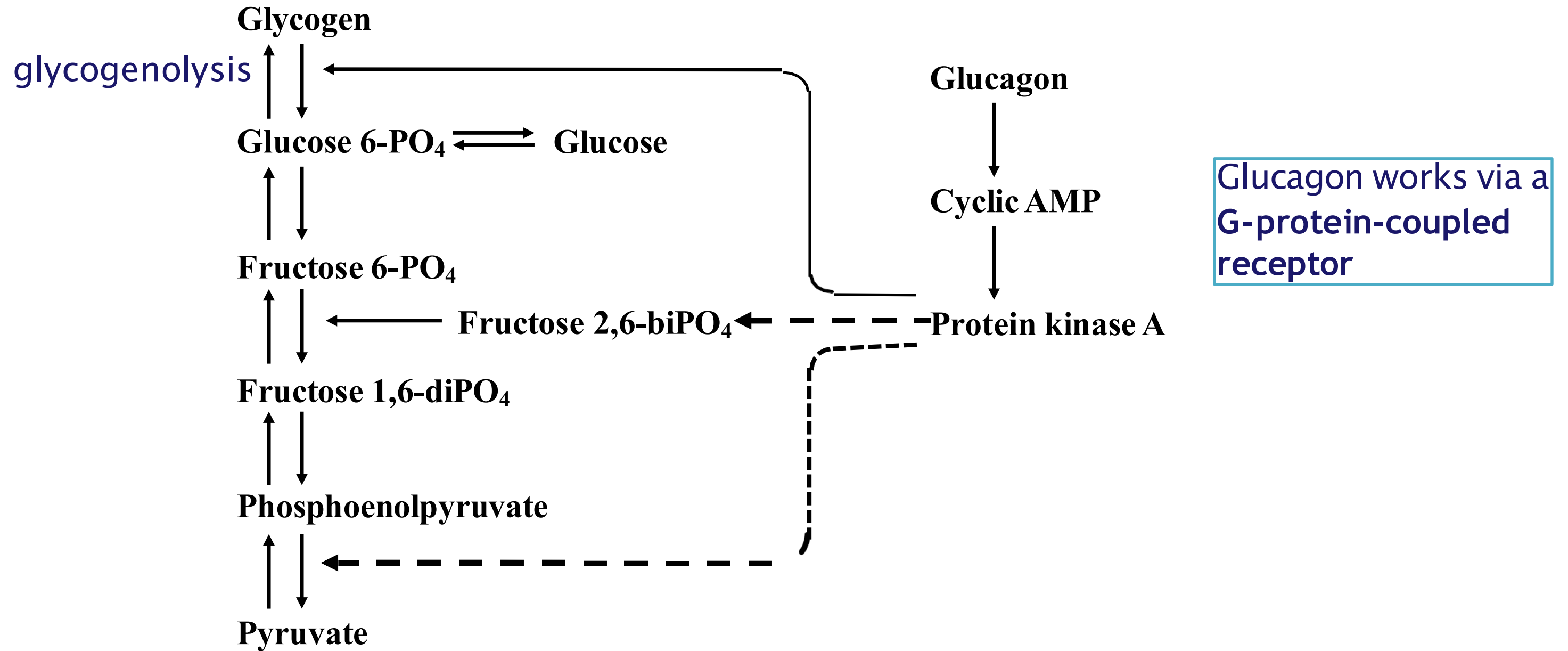


Metabolic Control by Glucagon

Glucagon is a hormone that increases blood glucose levels when blood glucose levels decrease.

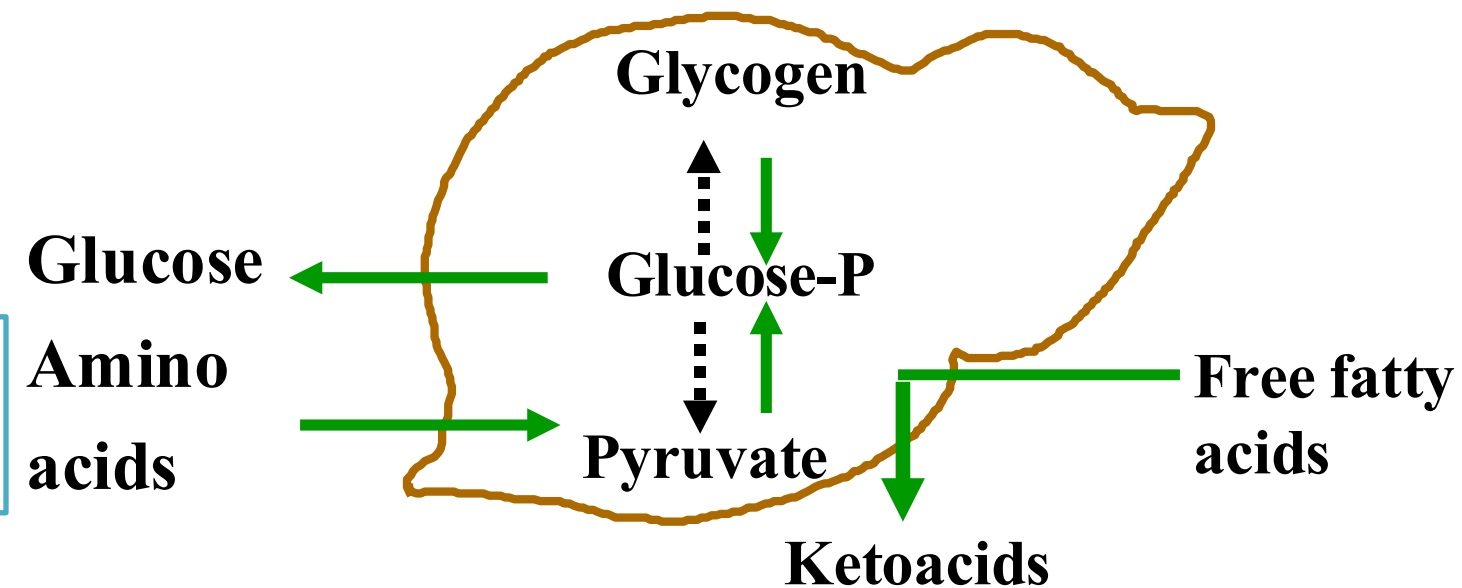


Effects of Glucagon on Glucose Output by Liver



Metabolic Effects of Glucagon

Glucagon increases hepatic amino acid uptake, providing substrates for gluconeogenesis.



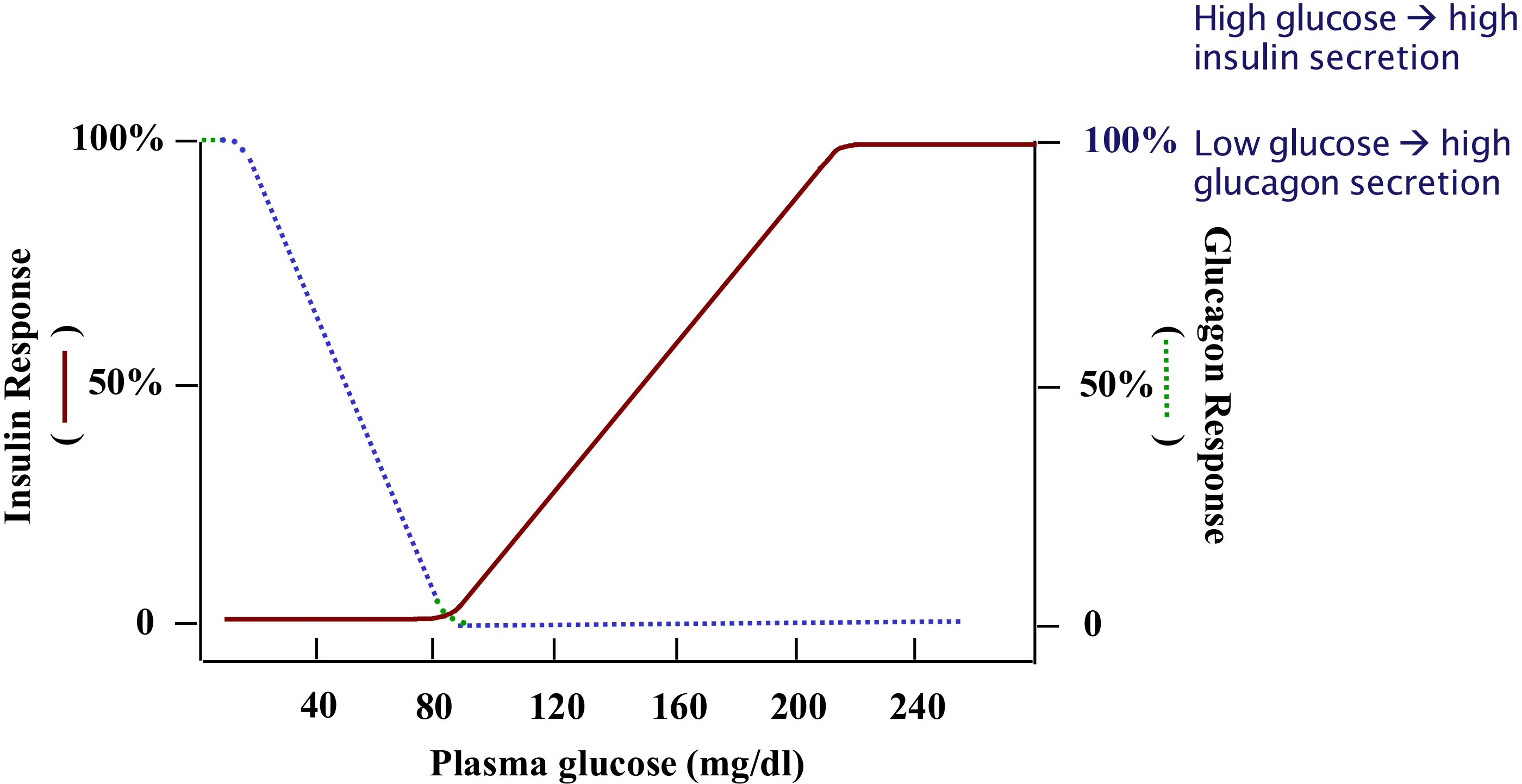
Liver

Plasma

—————▶ Stimulate
.....▶ Inhibit

↑ Glucose
↓ Amino acids
↑ Ketoacids

Blood [Glucose] & Secretion of Insulin & Glucagon



Factors Affecting Glucagon Secretion

Stimulation	Inhibition
Hypoglycemia	
Amino acids	• Glucose
Arginine	• Somatostatin
Alanine	• Insulin (direct effect) Gastrointestinal hormones
Gastrointestinal hormones	
Cholecystikinin (CCK)	• Secretin
Gastrin	• Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1)
Fasting	• Free fatty acids
Exercise	• Ketoacids
Neural influences	• Neural influences
Vagal activity-acetylcholine	
Sympathetic activity-	
β -adrenergic stimulation	• α -adrenergic stimulation
(norepinephrine, epinephrine)	

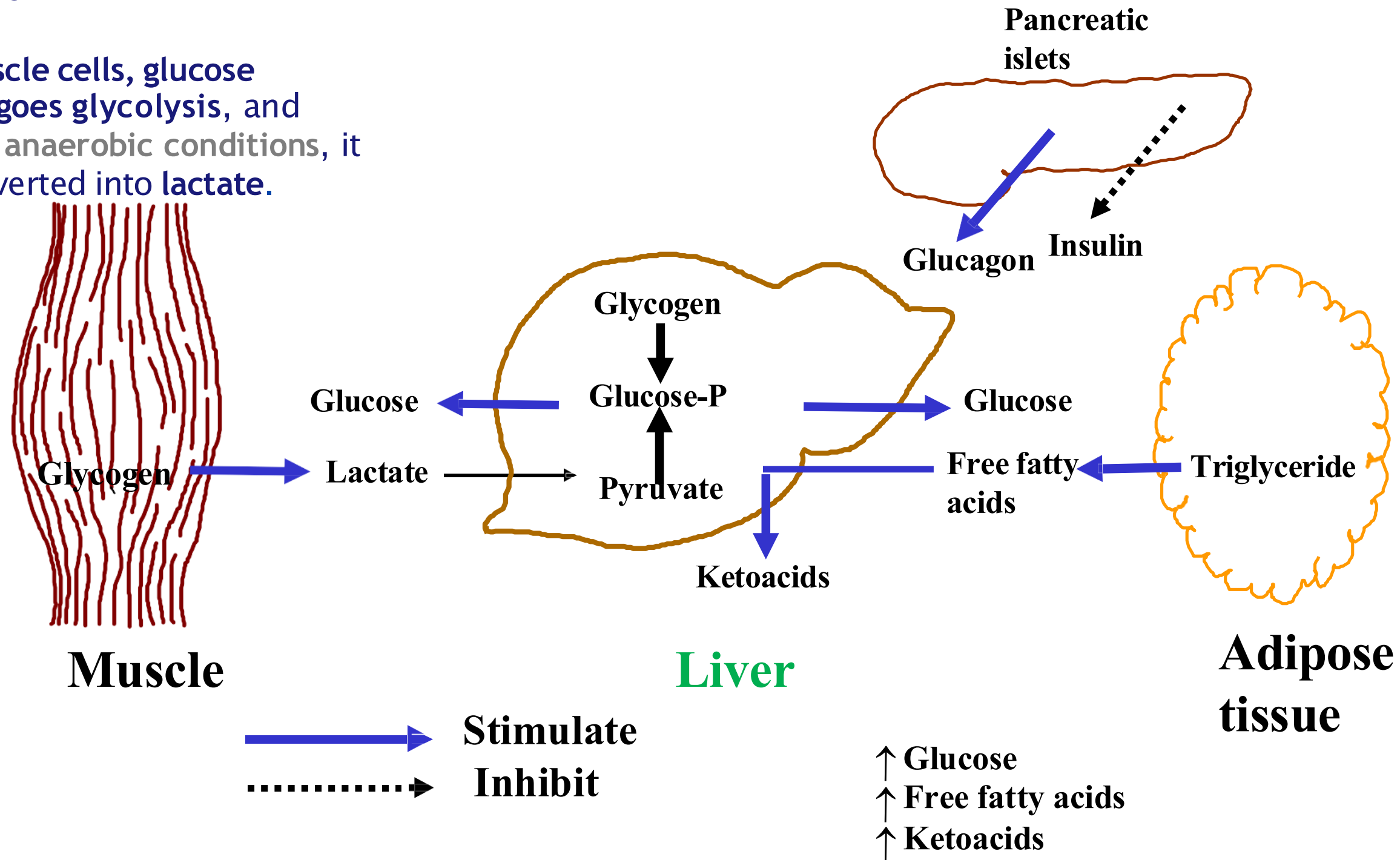
Fuel Metabolism in Anabolic & Catabolic States

State	Hormones	Fuel Source	Process
Anabolism	↑ Insulin ↓ Glucagon	Diet	Glycogen Synthesis Triglyceride Synthesis Protein Synthesis
Catabolism	↓ Insulin ↑ Glucagon	Storage Depots	Glycogenolysis Lipolysis Proteolysis Ketogenesis

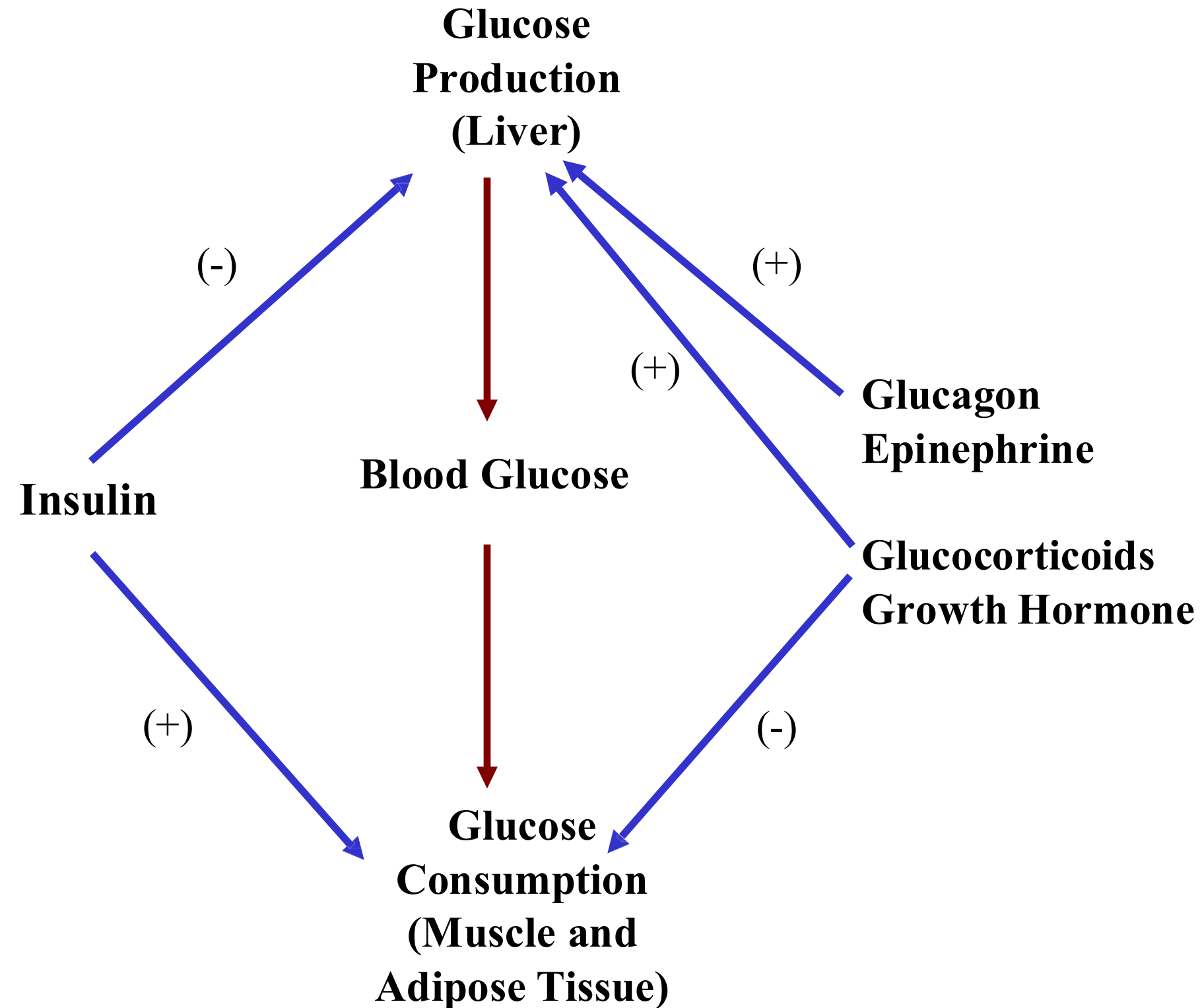
Metabolic Effects of Epinephrine

Epinephrine binds to GPCRs.

In muscle cells, glucose undergoes glycolysis, and under anaerobic conditions, it is converted into lactate.



Hormonal Interactions in the Maintenance of Blood [Glucose]



Hormonal Interactions in the Maintenance of Blood [Glucose]

- **Glucocorticoids and Growth Hormone decrease glucose uptake by muscle and adipose tissue**
- **Insulin, in contrast, increases glucose uptake in these tissues**
- **Glucagon stimulates glycogenolysis (glycogen breakdown)**
- **Insulin stimulates glycogenesis (glycogen formation)**
- **Glucocorticoids:**
 - **Cortisol is a steroid hormone whose receptor is intracellular (in the cytoplasm).**
 - **It works through a different mechanism than glucagon (not via G-protein or cAMP).**
 - **Cortisol increases blood glucose mainly by promoting glycogen breakdown.** Do your own research
 - **It also supports protein catabolism and lipolysis to supply substrates for glucose production.**
- **Hormones Secreted by the Adrenal Cortex:**
 - **Glucocorticoids (e.g., cortisol): regulate blood sugar, metabolism, and immune response**
 - **Mineralocorticoids (e.g., aldosterone): regulate blood pressure by controlling sodium and water balance**
 - **Androgens: small amounts of sex hormones (e.g., testosterone)**

Responses to Decreasing Plasma [Glucose]

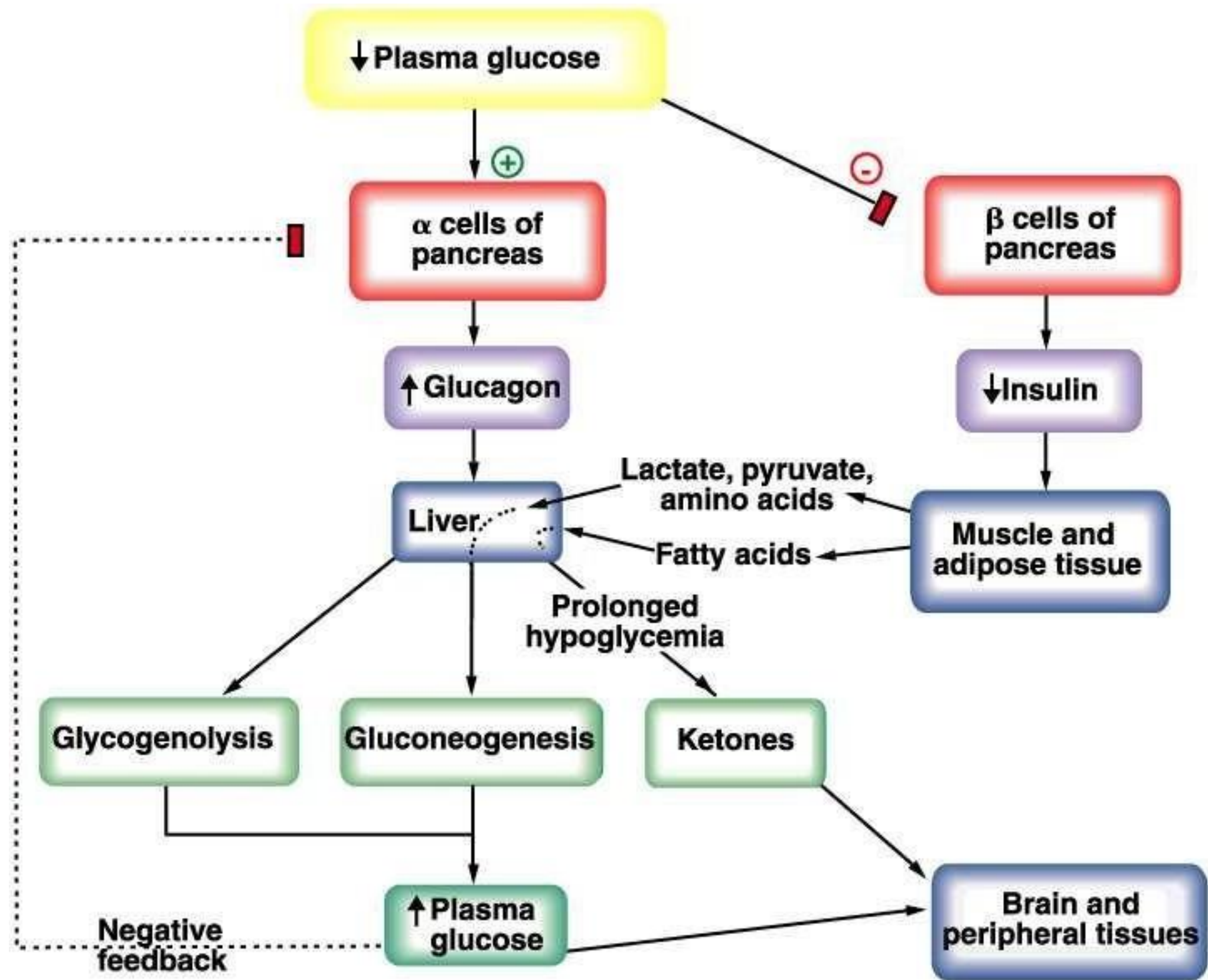
Plasma glucose concentration (mg/dl)	Hormonal responses	CNS responses
90		
80-85	↓ Insulin	
65-70	↑ Glucagon	Brain glucose uptake ↓ Glucose uptake in the brain is insulin-independent
65-70	↑ Epinephrine	
65-70	↑ Cortisol + GH	
50-55		Symptoms
45-50		↓ Cognition
30-35		Coma
20-25		Convulsions
10-15		Permanent brain damage

Plasma Levels of Hormones During Fasting

Sampling time	Glucose mg/dl	Insulin μ U/ml, (pM/L)	Glucagon pg/ml, (pM/L)	Cortisol ng/ml	Growth hormone ng/ml	T3, ng/ml	I/G
Postprandial	150	50 (300)	100 (29)		1.9	1.2	10.5
Postabsorptive	90	15 (90)	100 (29)	120		1.15	2.6
Day 1	80	11 (66)	120 (34)	120	5.4	1.15	1.7
Day 3	70	8 (48)	150 (43)	110		0.70	1.1
Day 5	70	7 (42)	150 (43)	110	6.1	0.60	1.0

Not for memorization

Postprandial: after a meal



- This test is used to evaluate **glucose handling** and diagnose **diabetes mellitus**.
- The patient's **fasting blood glucose** level is measured first.
- The patient then consumes **75 grams of glucose** (oral glucose load).
- **Blood glucose levels are monitored over the next 2 hours.**
- A graph is plotted to show how glucose levels change over time.
- **Interpretation of Results:**
 - **Normal:** Blood glucose rises after ingestion but **returns to normal (<140 mg/dL)** within 2 hours.
 - **Diabetes:** Blood glucose starts high, rises further, and remains high **≥200 mg/dL at 2 hours**. It may take more than 5 hours for blood glucose levels to decrease.
 - **Prediabetes (Impaired Glucose Tolerance):** Blood glucose is **140-199 mg/dL at 2 hours**.

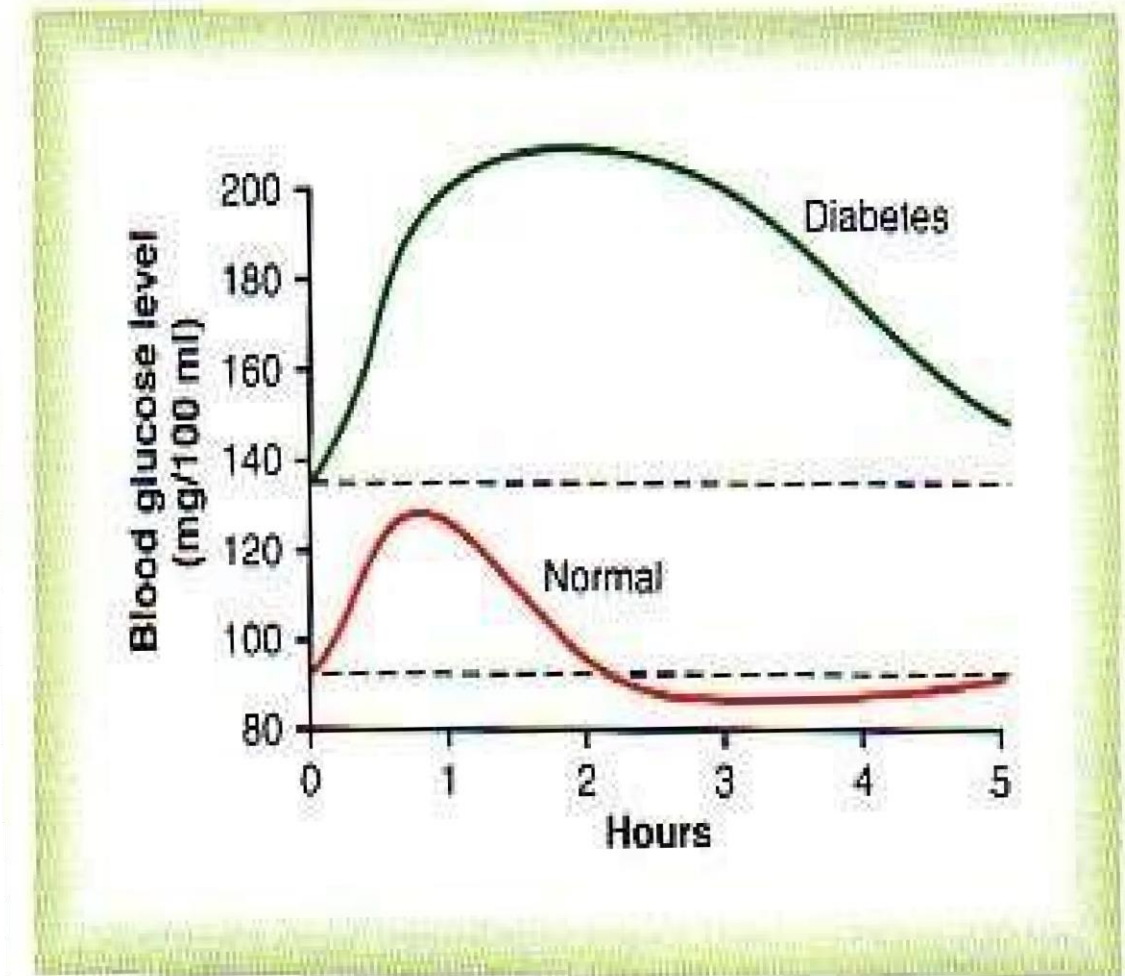


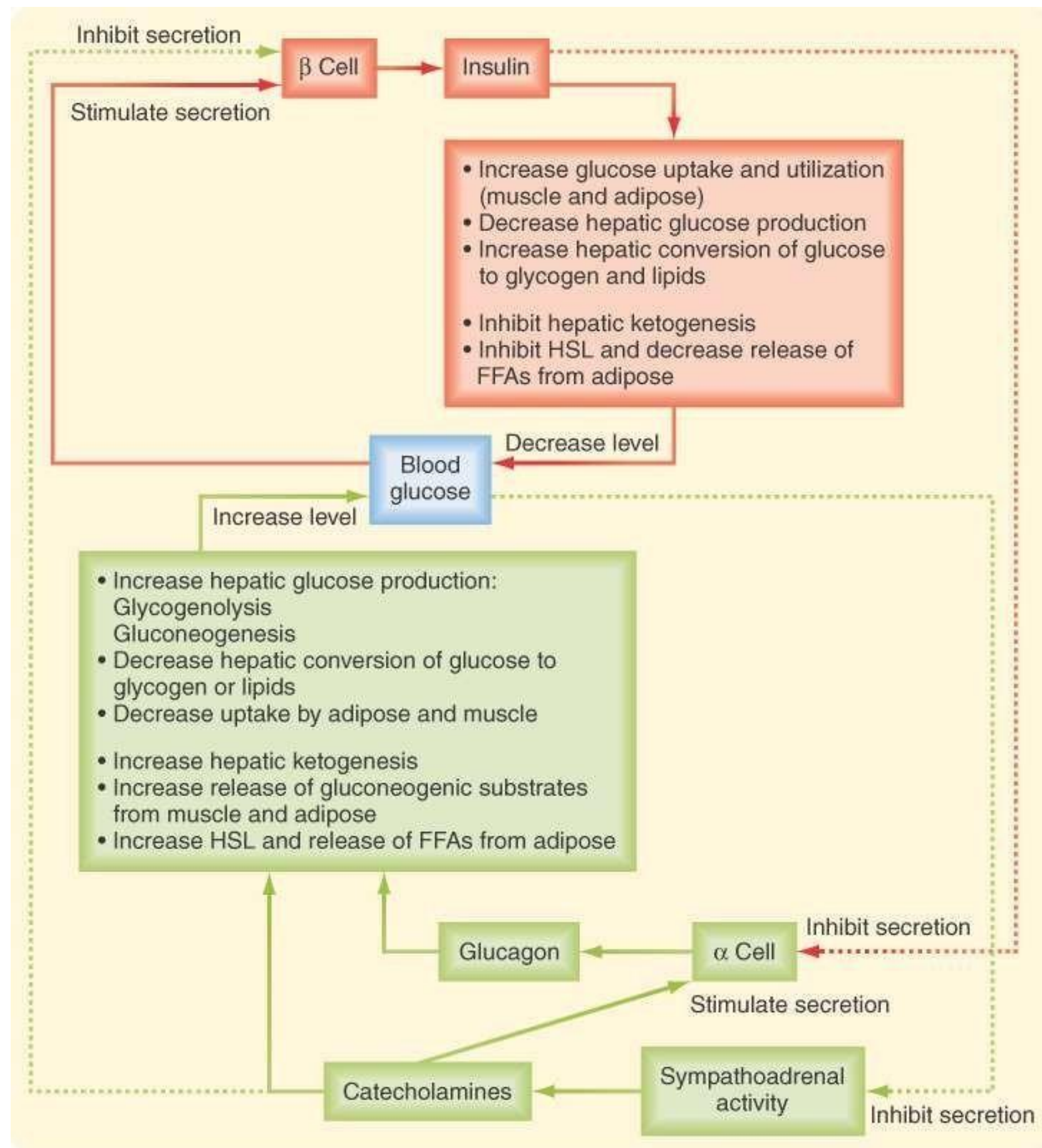
Figure 78-12

Glucose tolerance curve in a normal person and in a person with diabetes.

Comparison of Type I and Type II Diabetes

Formerly known
as juvenile
diabetes

CHARACTERISTIC	TYPE I DIABETES	TYPE II DIABETES
Level of Insulin Secretion	None or almost none	May be normal or exceed normal
Typical Age of Onset	Childhood	Adulthood
Percentage of Diabetics	10–20%	80–90%
Basic Defect	Autoimmune destruction of β cells	Reduced sensitivity of insulin's target cells
Treatment	Insulin injections; dietary management; exercise Type 1 diabetes does not require a family history.	Dietary control and weight reduction; exercise; sometimes oral hypoglycemic drugs Type 2 diabetes has a strong genetic basis and often runs in families.



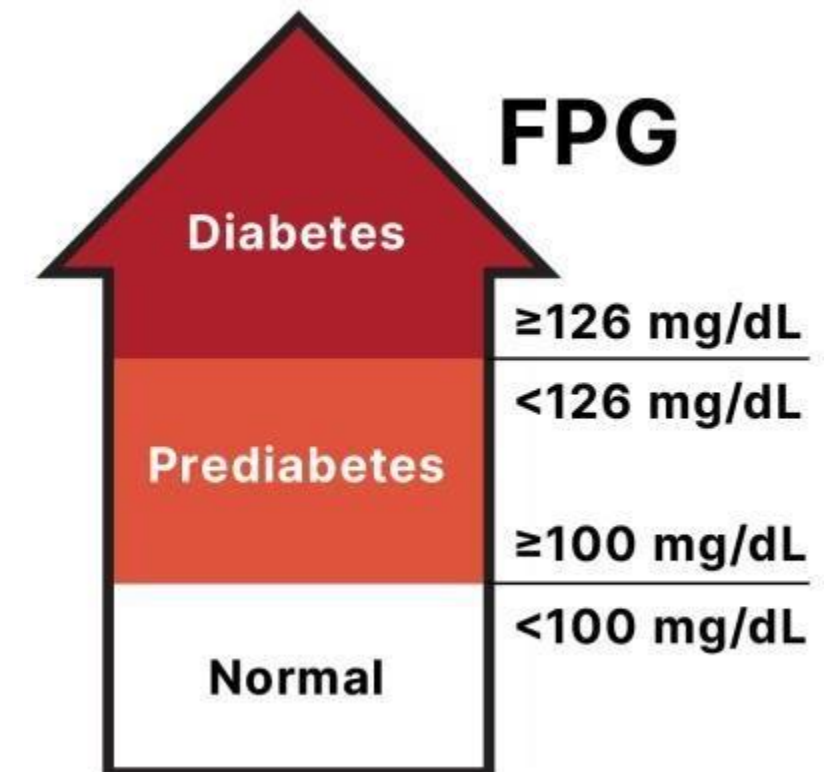
Glucose Homeostasis & Diabetes

	Normal glucose tolerance	Impaired glucose tolerance (prediabetes)	Diabetes
● FPG	<110	110-125	≥126
● 2-h PG (OGTT)	<140	140-199	≥200

FPG (Fasting Blood Glucose)
OGTT (Oral Glucose Tolerance Test)

This is an extra and updated table provided by the ADA, because the previous table is outdated.

	Normal Glucose Tolerance	Pre- Diabetes	Diabetes
Fasting Blood Glucose (mg/dL)	<100	100 to <126	≥ 126
2-hour Blood Glucose (mg/dL) during OGTT	<140	140 to <200	≥ 200
HbA1c (%)	<5.7	5.7 to <6.5	≥ 6.5



Consequences of Insulin Deficiency- Diabetes Mellitus

- **Metabolic**

- Increased blood glucose concentration
- Increased blood FFA and ketoacid concentration - fat depletion
- Increased blood amino acid concentration - protein depletion

- **Fluid and Electrolyte**

- Metabolic acidosis - diabetic ketoacidosis
- Glycosuria and osmotic diuresis
- Increased osmolality
- Hyperphagia
- Polydipsia
- Hypovolemia and hypotension
- Coma and death

Physiology Quiz 6



رسالة من الفريق العلمي:

قانون
هو أنك
تظن
علاكا

For any feedback, scan the code or click on it.



Corrections from previous versions:

Versions	Slide # and Place of Error	Before Correction	After Correction
V0 → V1			
V1 → V2			