
Renal physiology

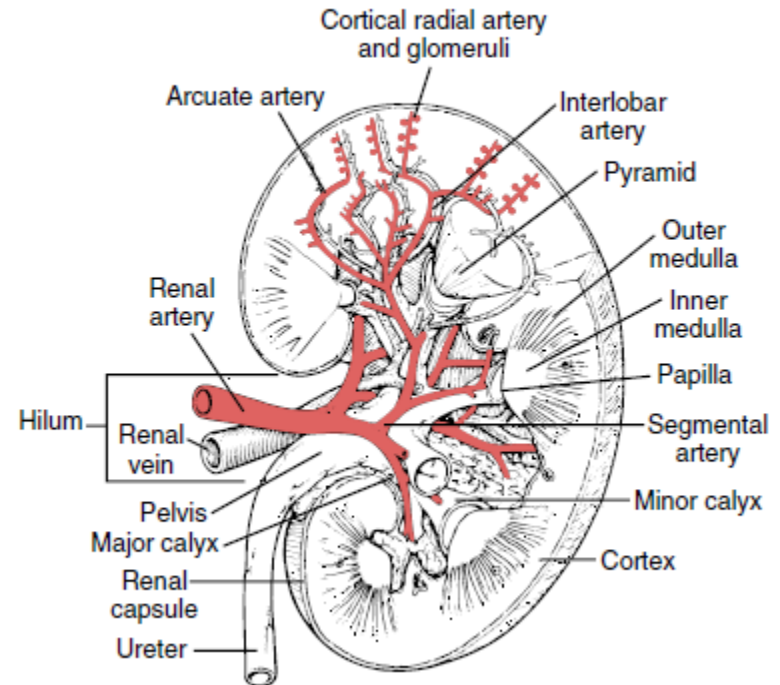
Jana Radošinská

Contents of the lectures

1. renal system - kidneys, ureters, urinary bladder, urethra
 2. water and electrolyte homeostasis
 3. acid-base balance
-

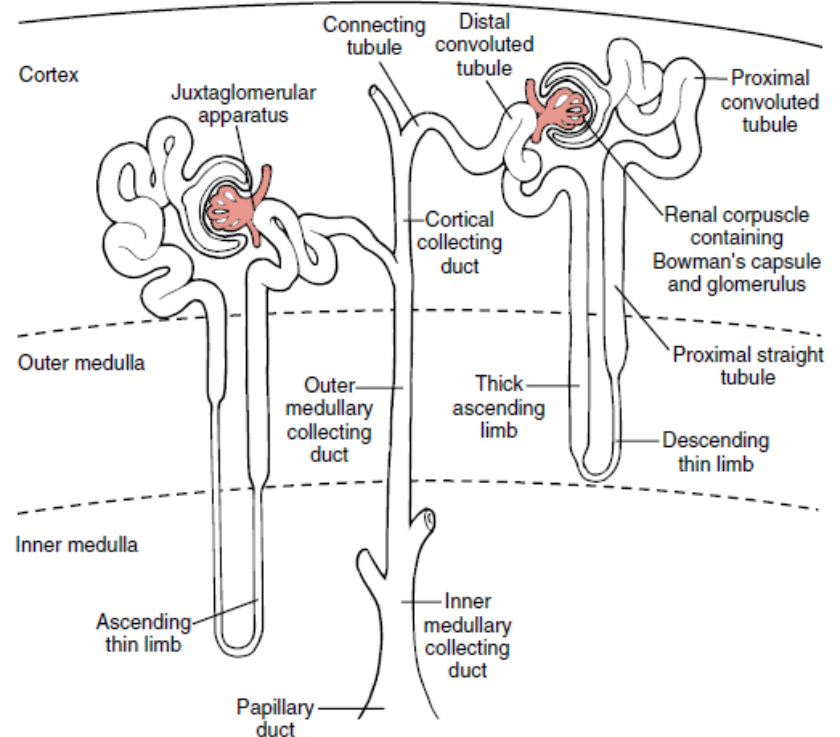
FUNCTIONAL RENAL ANATOMY

1. cortex – renal corpuscles, convoluted tubules, cortical parts of collecting ducts
 - **isotonic tissue**
2. medulla – loops of Henle, medullar parts of collecting ducts
 - **hypertonic tissue**
 - outer, inner medulla



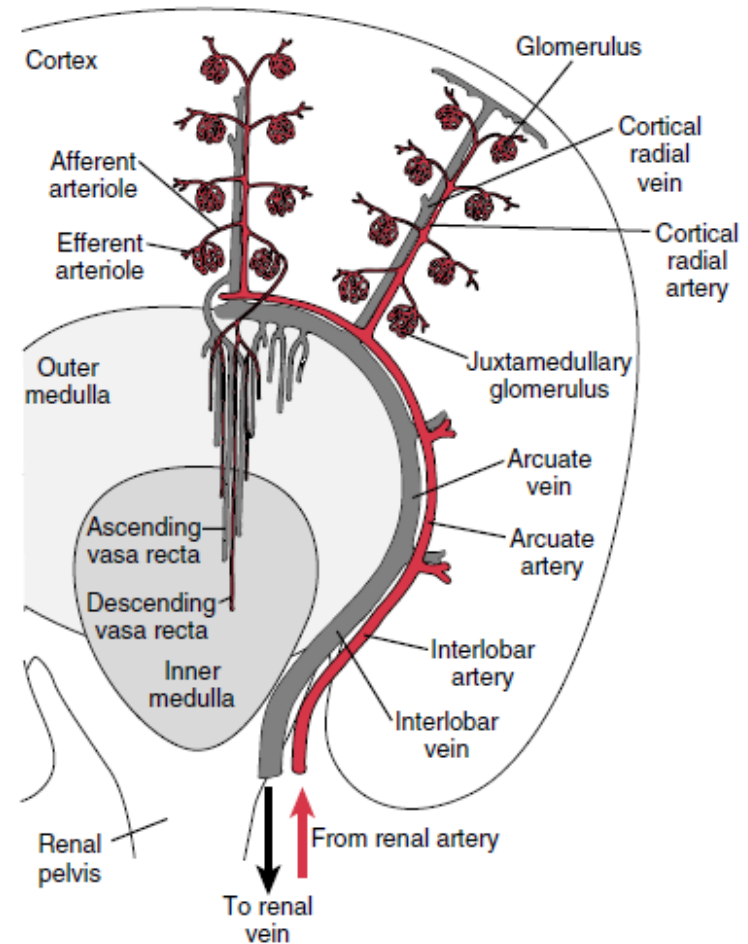
Nephrons

- superficial
- juxtamedullary – 1/8 of nephrons
 - longer loop of Henle
 - longer both thin limbs
 - larger glomerulus
 - different type of postglomerular blood supply



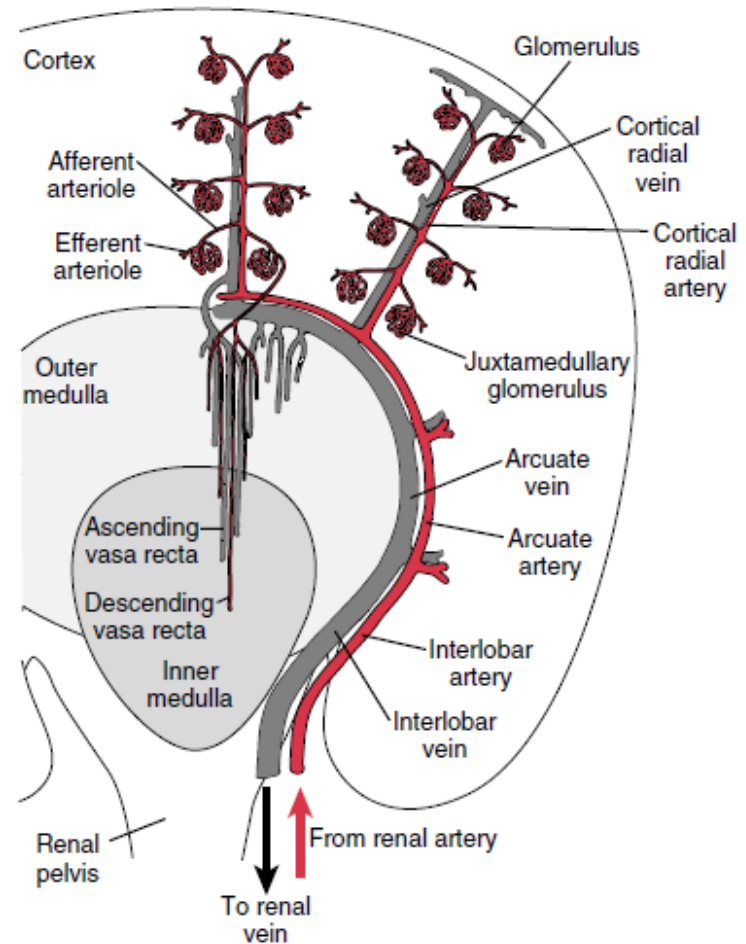
Kidneys – blood supply

- renal artery – anterior + posterior divisions
- segmental arteries
- interlobar arteries – toward the cortex
- arcuate arteries – between the cortex and medulla
- cortical radial arteries – toward the surface
- afferent arterioles, glomerulus, efferent arterioles
- peritubular capillaries



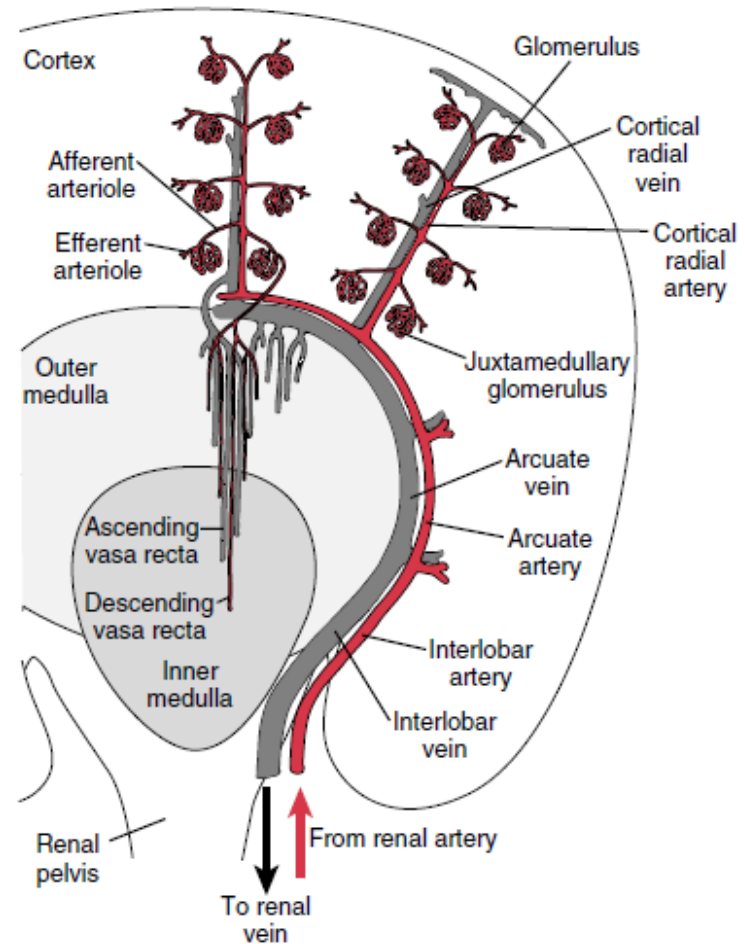
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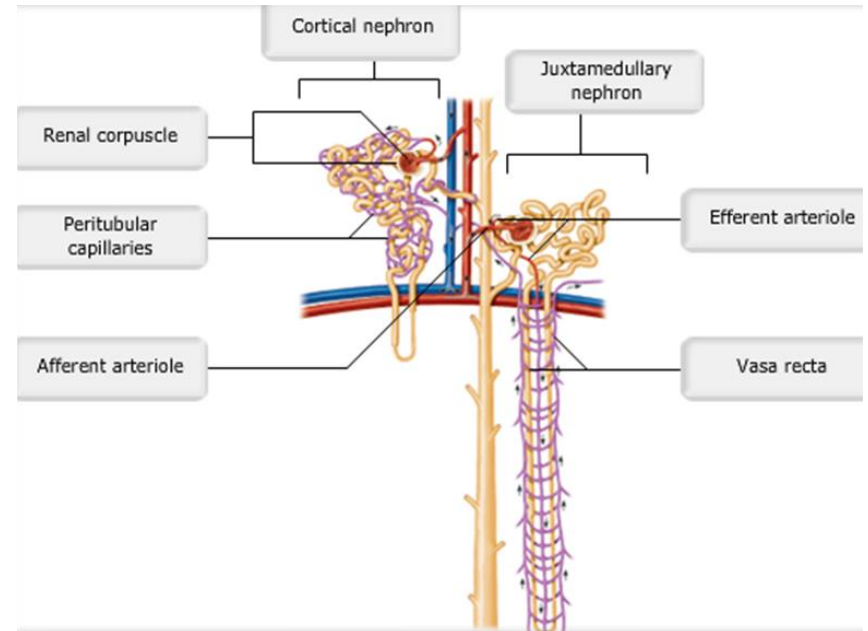


Kidneys – blood supply

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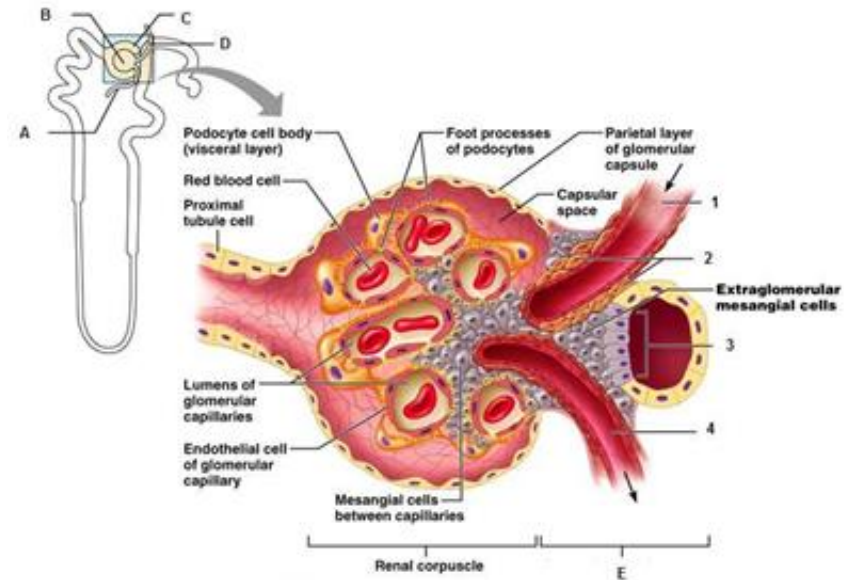


- blood supply to the medulla – derived from efferent arterioles of juxtamedullary glomeruli – vasa recta = long straight capillaries



Juxtaglomerular apparatus

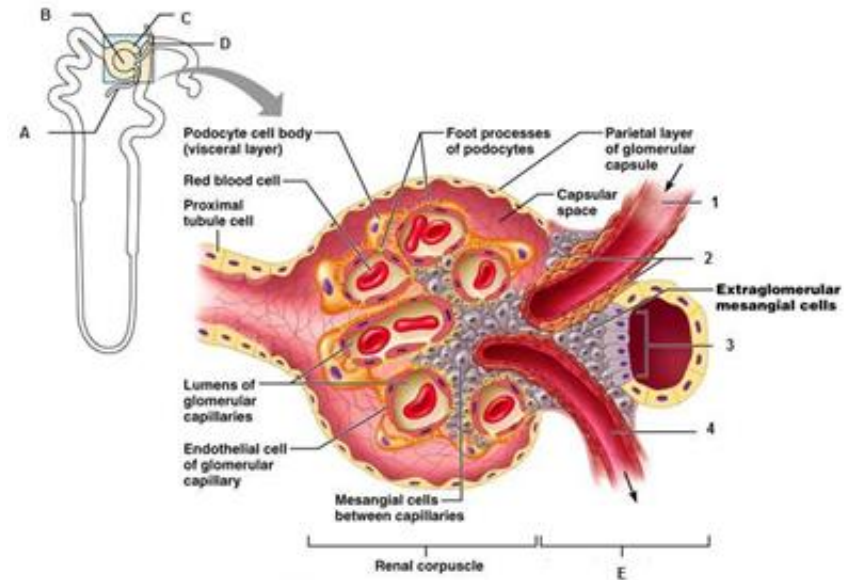
- located near the vascular pole of the glomerulus → thick ascending limb of distal tubule touches the vascular pole of glomerulus
- its main function - regulation of the BP and the filtration rate of the glomerulus



2 - granular cells
3 - macula densa

Juxtaglomerular apparatus

1. **macula densa** – modified epithelial cells in the distal tubule – monitor the composition of the tubular fluid
2. **extraglomerular mesangial cells** – continuous with glomerular mesangial cells – transmit information from 1 to 3
3. **granular cells** – modified vascular smooth muscle (myoepithelial) cells in the afferent arterioles – synthesize and release renin



2 - granular cells
3 - macula densa

Renal blood flow

- in resting - 20% of CO
 - 4 ml/min/g of tissue (higher perfusion rate - neurohypophysis, carotid bodies)
 - blood flow - the highest in cortex, the lowest in inner medulla
 - low extraction of oxygen ↔ the lowest AV O₂ content difference
-

Renal blood flow

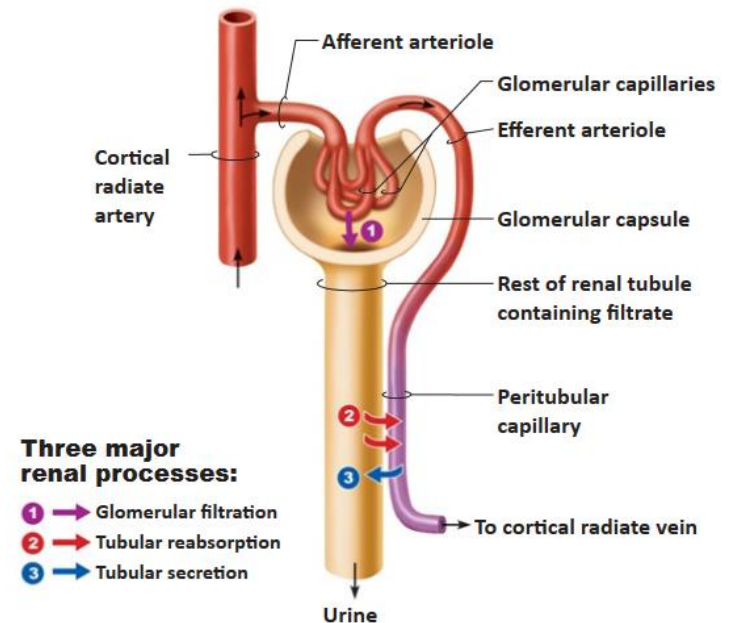
2 capillary beds:

1. glomerular

- high hydrostatic pressure - about 50 mmHg

2. peritubular

- low hydrostatic pressure - about 10 mmHg



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Renal blood flow - regulation

1. Autoregulation

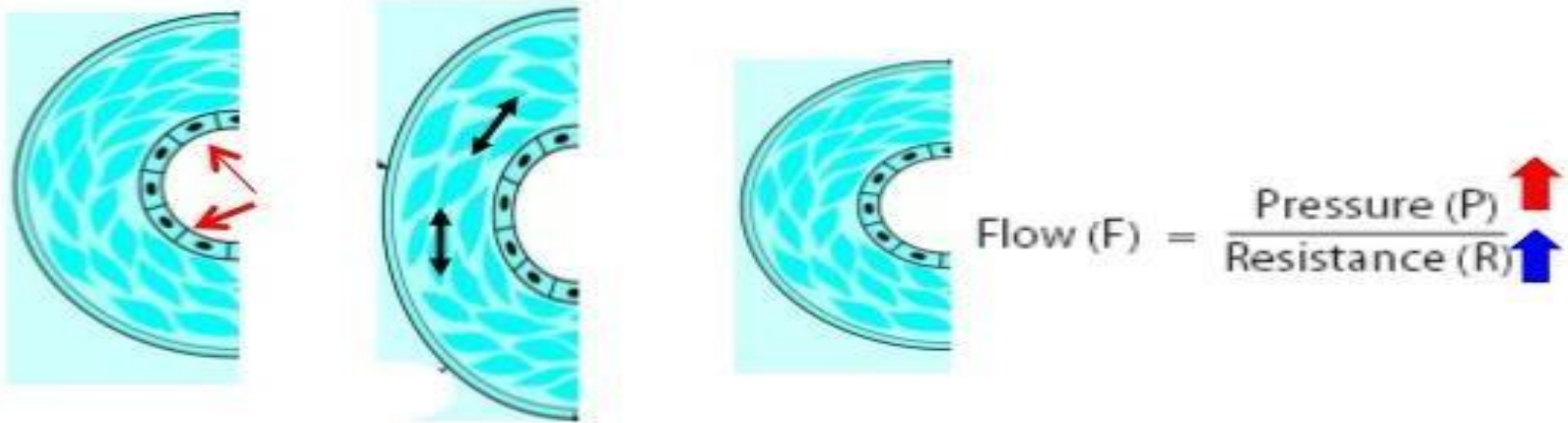
- present also in denervated kidney
- constant blood flow in wide range of systemic arterial BP values (80-180 mmHg)
- 2 mechanisms:
 - myogenic autoregulation
 - tubuloglomerular feedback

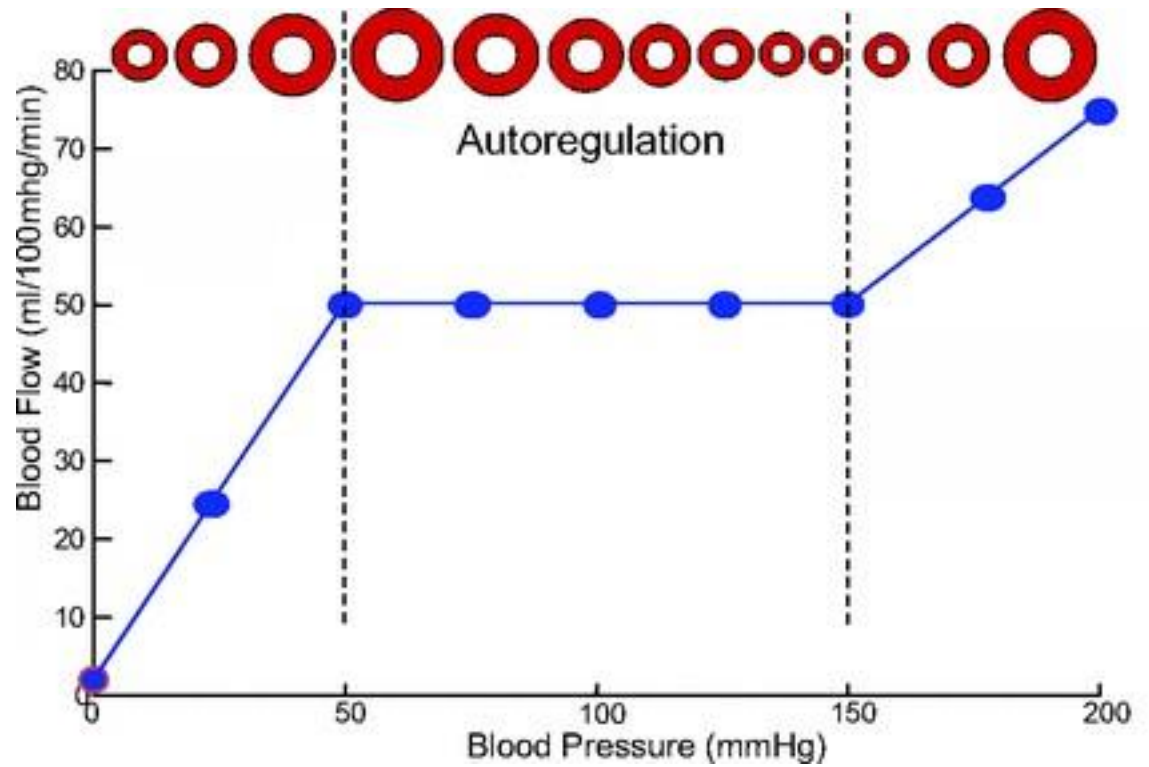
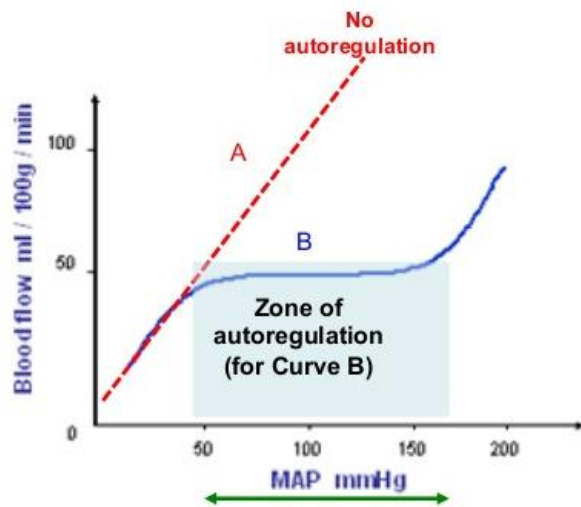
2. Nervous

3. Hormonal

Myogenic autoregulation

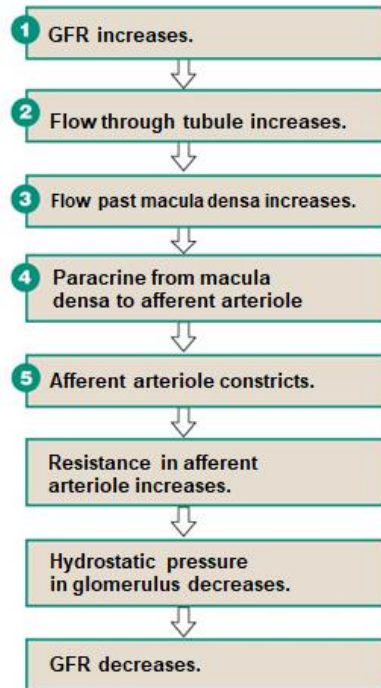
- vascular tone - continuous partially contracted state of vascular smooth muscle in the wall of the vessels
- \uparrow BP \rightarrow \uparrow stretch \rightarrow vasoconstriction \rightarrow \uparrow resistance \rightarrow stable blood flow



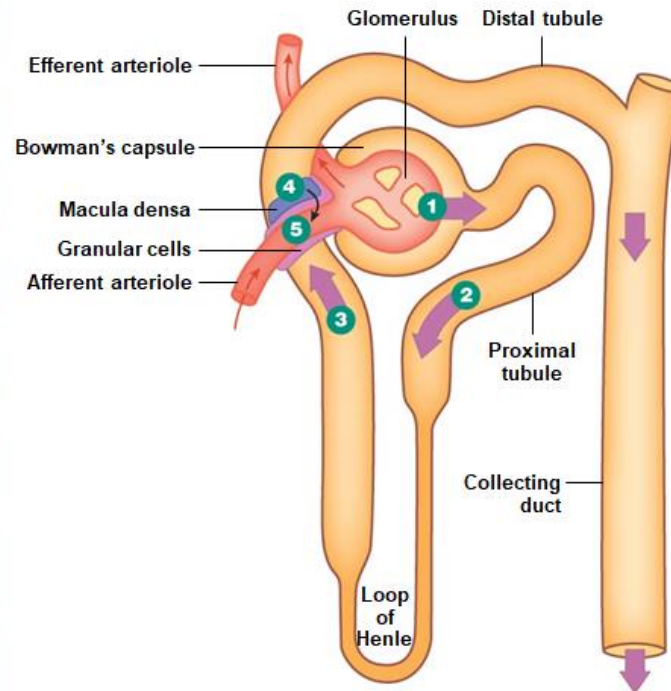


Tubuloglomerular feedback

- tubular flow sensing mechanism = macula densa – chemoreceptor - sensitive to NaCl concentration



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Nervous regulation

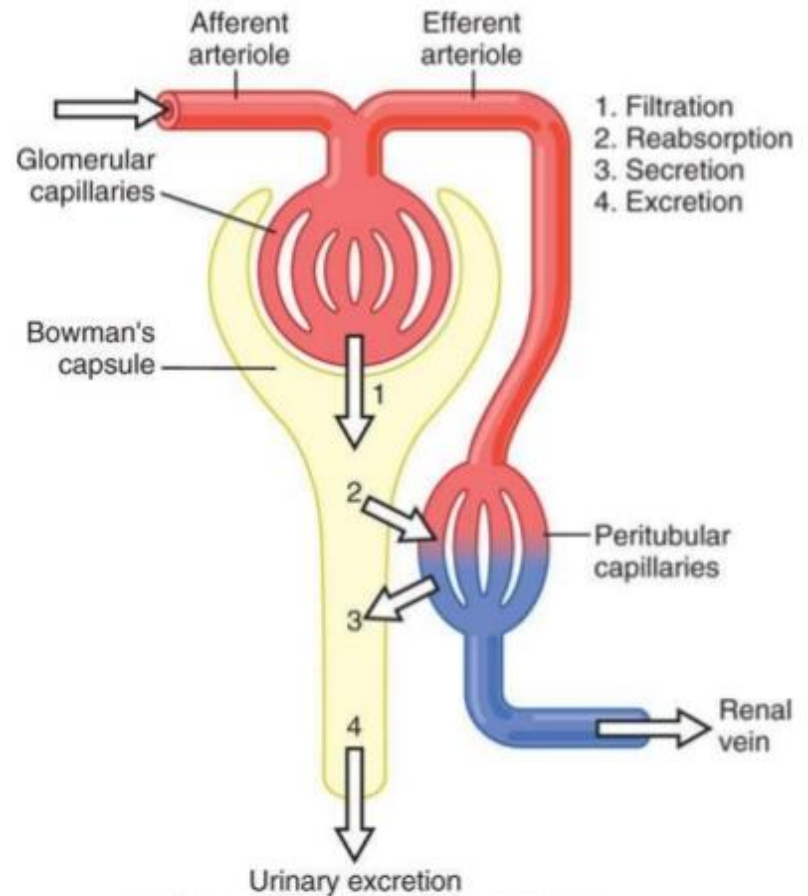
- sympathetic nerve fibers (T10 – L1)
 - stimulation → vasoconstriction → ↓renal blood flow
 - in tubular cells - ↑Na⁺ reabsorption
 - release of renin
 - afferent sensory nerves
 - mechanical stretch
 - chemical
-

Hormonal regulation

- angiotensin II - vasoconstrictor of both arterioles
 - efferent arteriole - more sensitive
 - low angiotensin II - \uparrow blood flow in glomerulus
 - high levels - \downarrow blood flow in glomerulus
 - prostaglandins - vasodilation of both arterioles - compensatory mechanism
-

Processes in forming urine:

1. glomerular filtration
 - ultrafiltration of plasma → primary urine
2. tubular reabsorption
 - transport out of the tubular fluid
3. tubular secretion, (excretion)
 - secretion - transport into the tubular fluid
 - (excretion = elimination from collecting duct)

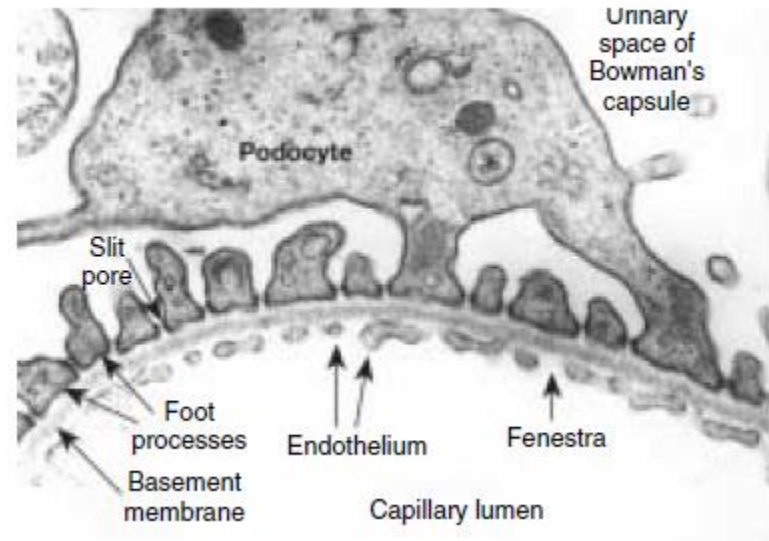


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Glomerular filtration

Glomerular filtration barrier:

1. capillary endothelium
2. basement membrane
3. podocytes



Endothelium

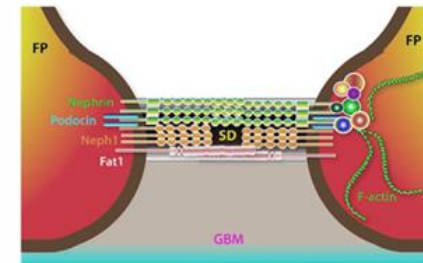
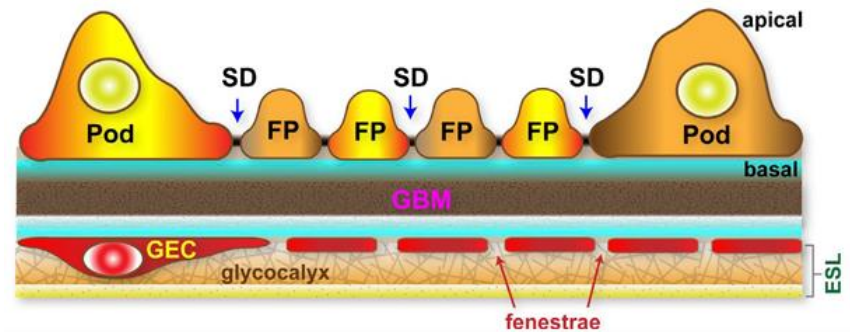
- pores are about 50-100 nm in diameter (~20% of surface area) - barrier for blood elements
- endothelial cells - negatively charged surface (glycocalyx)

Basement membrane

- contains negatively charged molecules (sialic acid, sialoproteins, heparan sulfate)

Podocytes

- epithelial cells with extensions - support the glomerular capillary loop
- between the cells - slits with podocyte slit diaphragm → including cell surface proteins → slit pore - 4-14 nm
- negatively charged surface (glycocalyx)



Endothelium

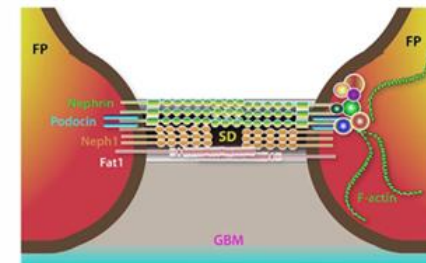
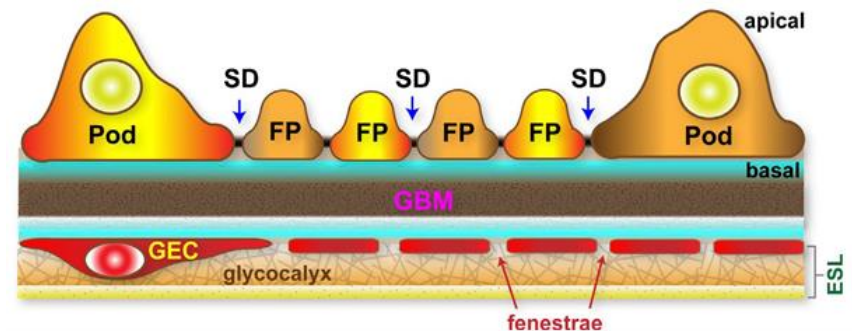
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- contains **negatively** charged molecules (sialic acid, sialoproteins, heparan sulfate)

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Filterability:

Size and charge:

- small molecules – can freely pass
- large molecules - cannot pass
- in between - positively charged pass only

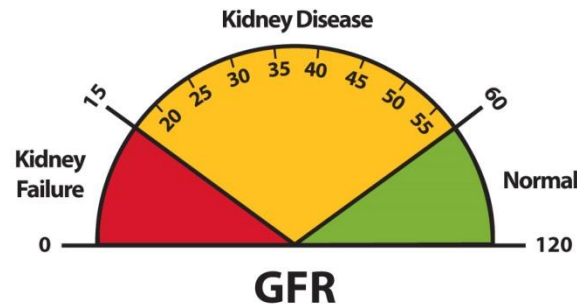
Shape:

- narrow and flexible vs. spherical and non-deformable
-

Glomerular filtration rate

GFR

- amount of blood (plasma) filtered by the glomerulus per unit of time
 - volume/time ... mL/min
- one way to evaluate kidney function
- normal value ranges may vary among different laboratories



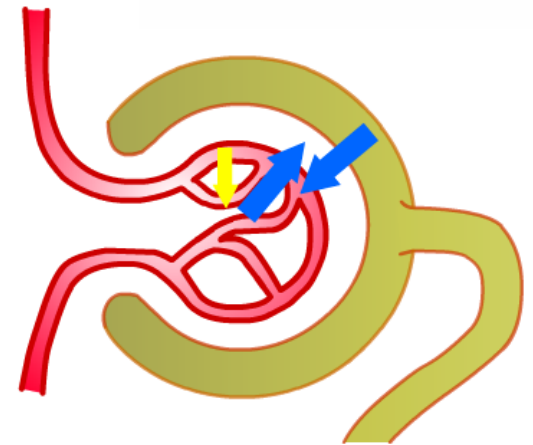
- plasma volume in 70-kg young man - about 3L → the kidneys filter the plasma almost 60 times/day (GFR 120 mL/min = 172,8 L/day)

Glomerular filtration rate

Like the Starling's forces in every capillary in the body

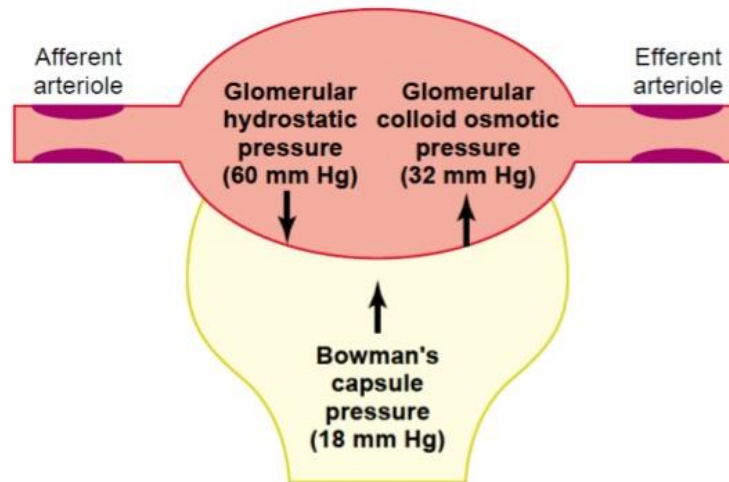
- depends on hydrostatic and oncotic pressures across the GFB
 - hydrostatic pressure in glomerular capillary - pro-filtration
 - hydrostatic pressure in the Bowman's capsule - against

 - oncotic pressure in glomerular capillary - against
 - oncotic pressure in the Bowman's capsule - can be ignored (physiological conditions - no proteins should be filtered by the glomerulus)



Effective filtration pressure

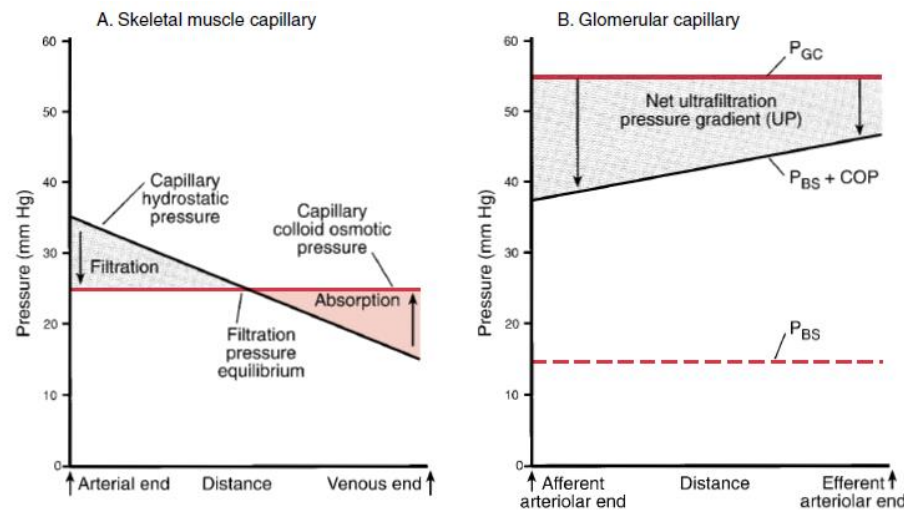
effective filtration pressure = glomerular hydrostatic pressure -
[glomerular oncotic pressure + Bowman's capsule hydrostatic pressure]



$$\text{Net filtration pressure (10 mm Hg)} = \text{Glomerular hydrostatic pressure (60 mm Hg)} - \text{Bowman's capsule pressure (18 mm Hg)} - \text{Glomerular oncotic pressure (32 mm Hg)}$$

Ultrafiltration in glomerulus

- high filtration coefficient (high permeability + large surface area)
- the hydrostatic pressure in the capillaries is high (+ does not decrease much along the length of the capillary)
- the large loss of fluid + the impermeability to proteins → the oncotic pressure in the glomerular capillary increases along its length → important in the reabsorption from the proximal tubule into the peritubular capillaries
- a **net outward filtration pressure** along the whole length of the capillary

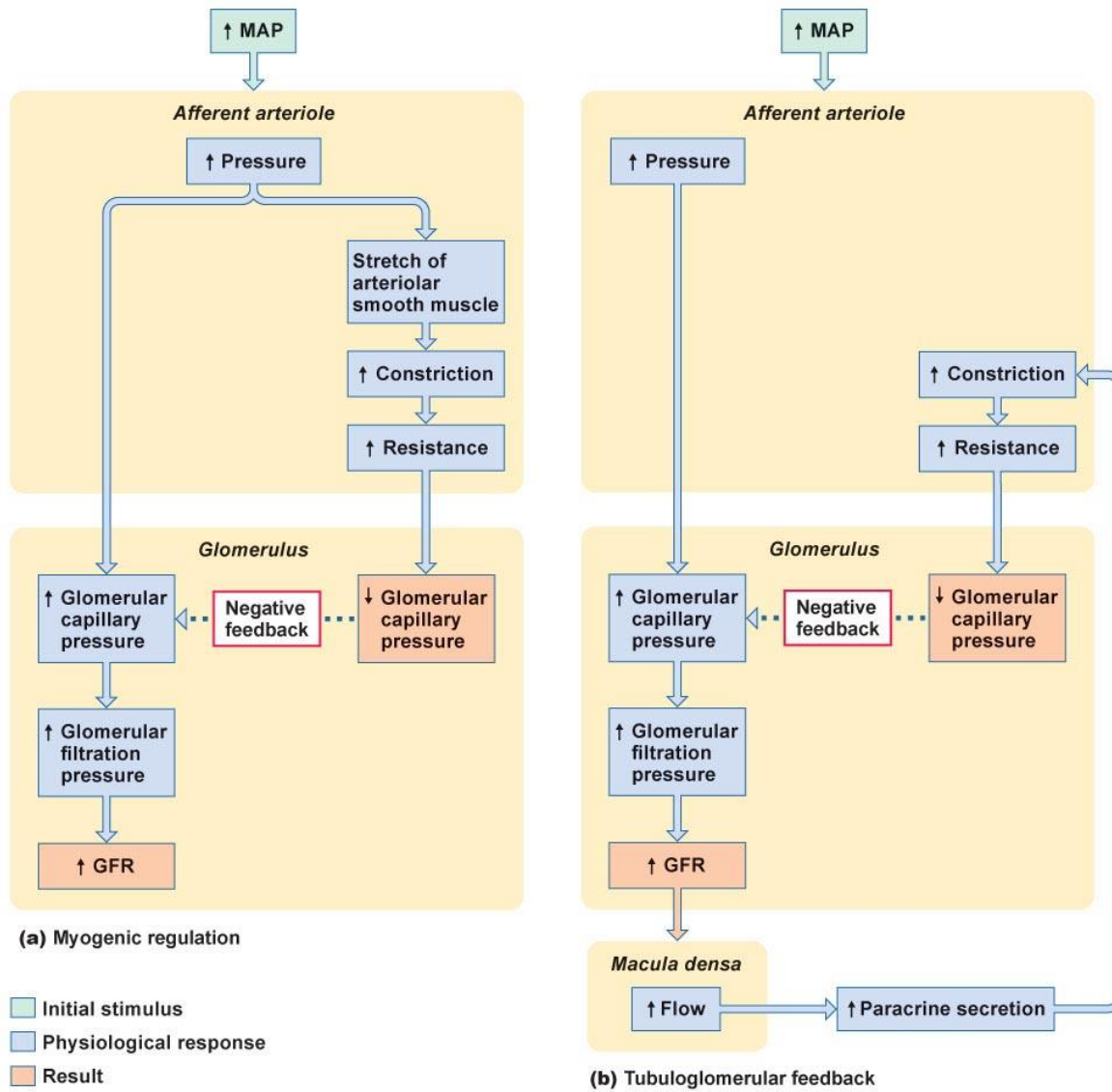


Factors affecting GFR

- glomerular filtration coefficient
 - fluid permeability, surface area, structure and charge of glomerular filter
 - BP
 - below 50 mmHg → ↓GF - absence of urine
 - nervous and hormonal regulation - afferent and efferent arterioles
 - hydrostatic pressure in Bowman's capsule
 - opposes filtration + driving force for fluid movement to the tubular system
 - glomerular oncotic pressure
-

Regulation of glomerular filtration

- intrinsic = autoregulation of blood flow in the kidney
 - pressure-sensitive mechanism
 - tubulo-glomerular feedback
 - extrinsic = regulation of systemic BP
 - neural
 - hormonal
-



Function of proximal tubule

- fluid entering = primary urine (composition similar to plasma, but without the proteins)

Main functions:

- reabsorption of
 - water
 - glucose
 - aminoacids
 - ions – sodium, bicarbonates, chloride, potassium
- secretion of
 - hydrogen cations

→ modulates volume and composition of urine

Reabsorption of water in proximal tubule

3 characteristics:

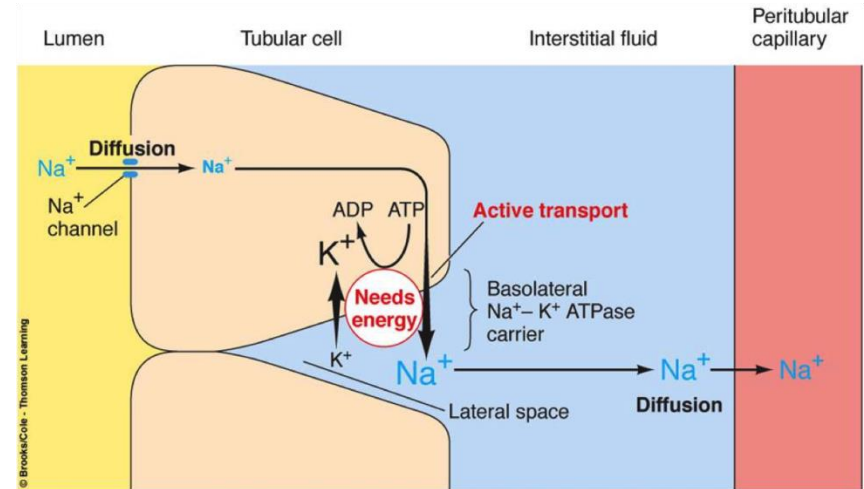
- high – 70-80%
- isosmotic – adequate to reabsorption of solutes
- obligatory – not influenced by hydration of the organism

Driving force:

- sodium concentration gradient
-

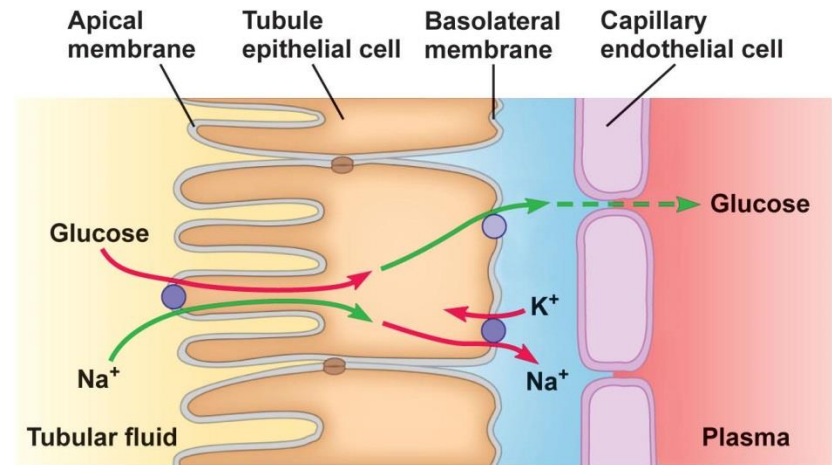
Absorption of sodium

- inside the cell - passive transport
- outside the cells - active transport = against concentration gradient
- Na,K-ATPase in the basolateral cell membrane – low sodium in tubular cell → maintenance of sodium concentration gradient
- crucial for reabsorption of water, glucose, aminoacids and other solutes



Reabsorption of glucose

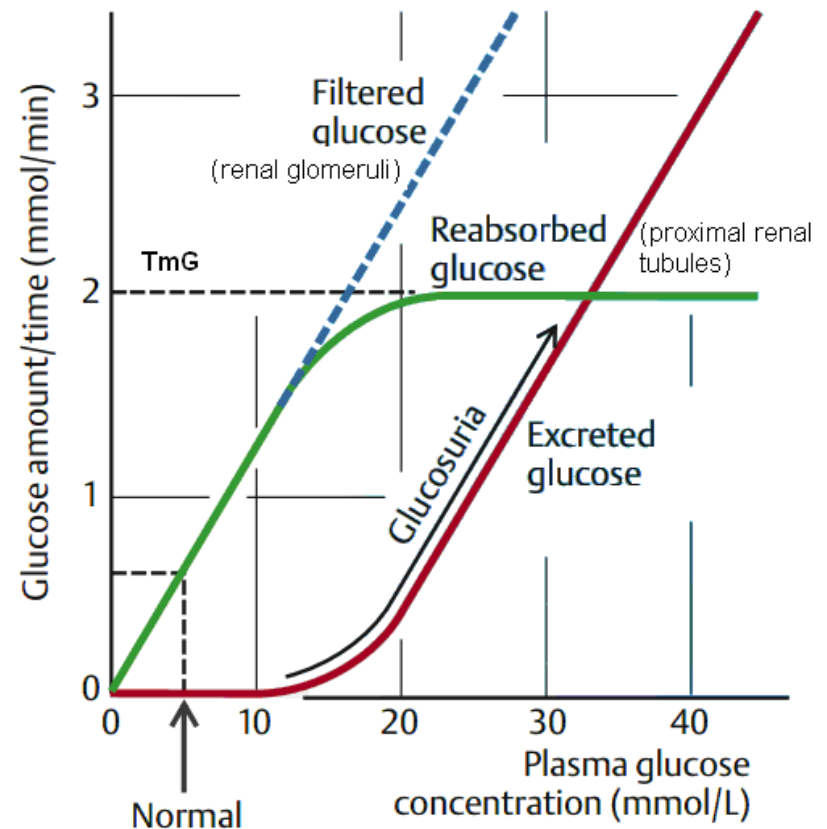
- co-transport mechanism
 - uses energy of sodium concentration gradient



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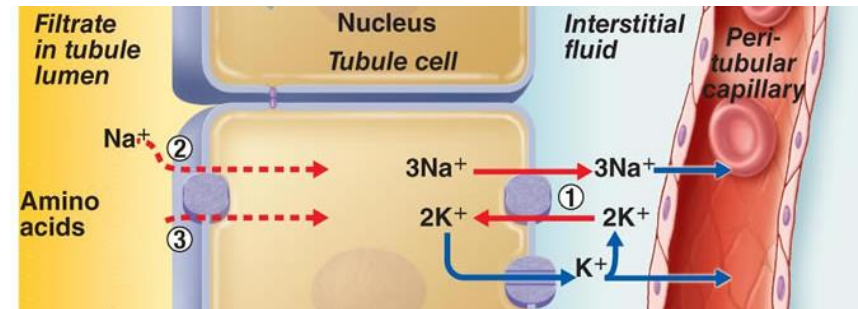
Reabsorption of glucose

- count of transporters – limited
→ transport maximum
- plasma glucose higher than 10 - 15 mmol/L → all transporters saturated → presence of glucose in the final urine
- renal threshold for glucose (...and other substances)



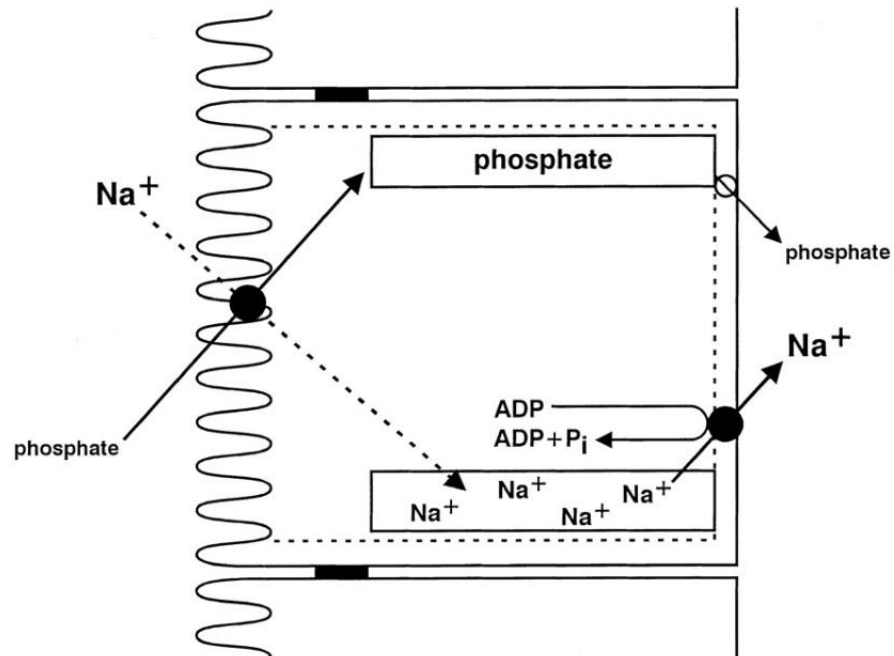
Reabsorption of amino acids

- co-transport mechanism
 - uses energy of sodium concentration gradient
- 7 different transporters:
 - acidic amino acids (Glu, Asp)
 - basic amino acids (Arg, Lys, Orn)
 - five other systems for neutral amino acids



Reabsorption of phosphate

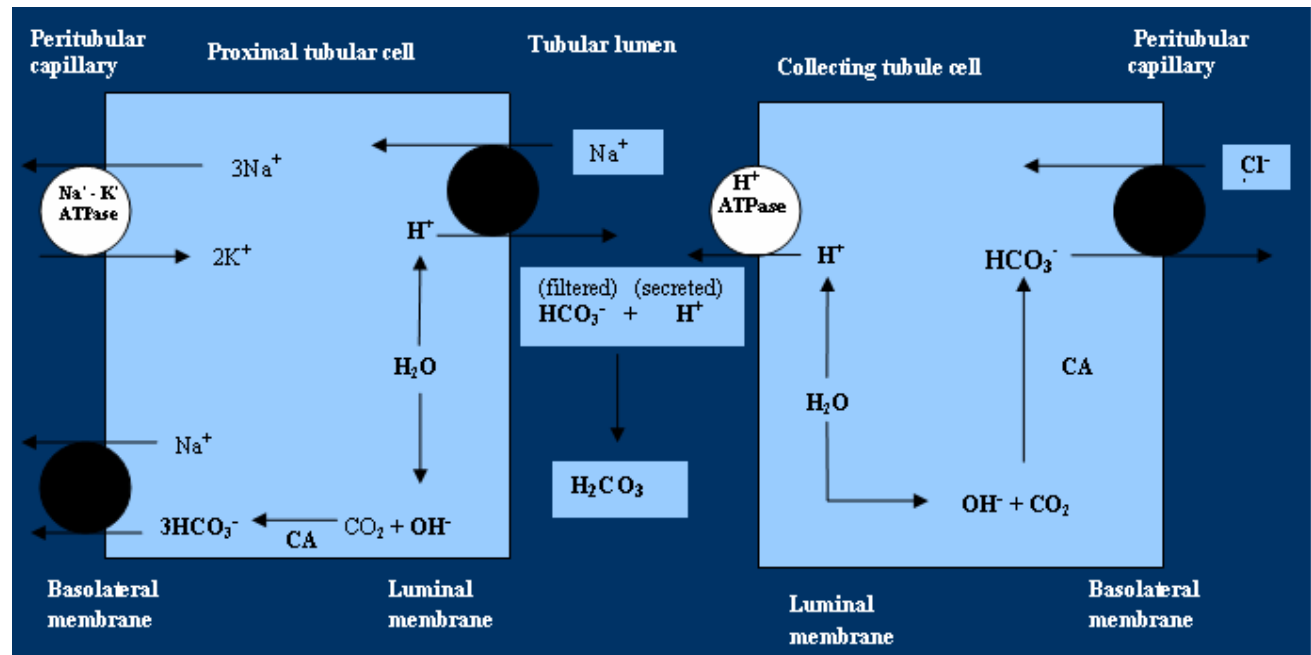
- co-transport mechanism
 - uses energy of sodium concentration gradient



Secretion of hydrogen ions

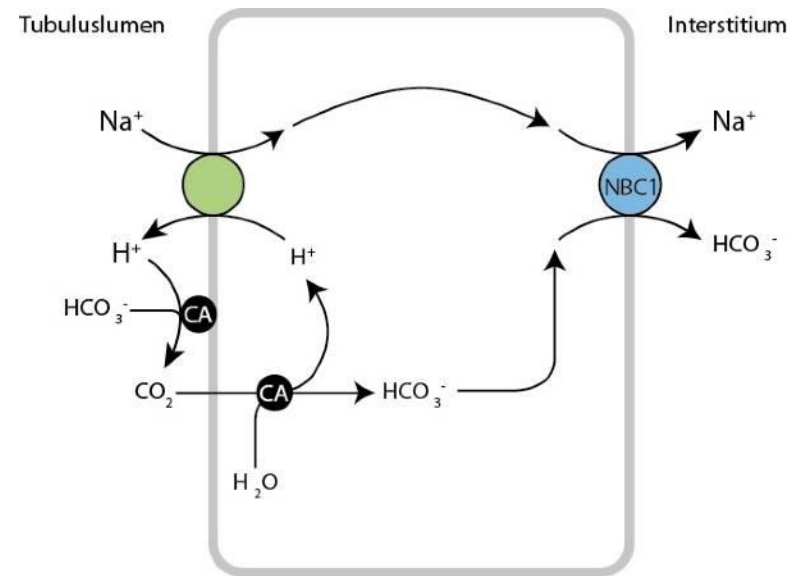
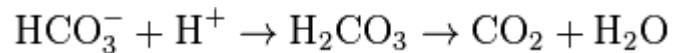
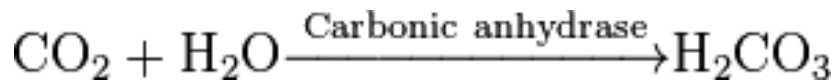
2 main mechanisms:

- Na/H-antiporter (exchanger)
 - proton pump (H-ATPase)
- result = acidification of urine



Reabsorption of bicarbonates

- absorption of CO_2 from tubular fluid
- CA - carbonic anhydrase
- transport of 3HCO_3^- and 1Na^+ in to the interstitium



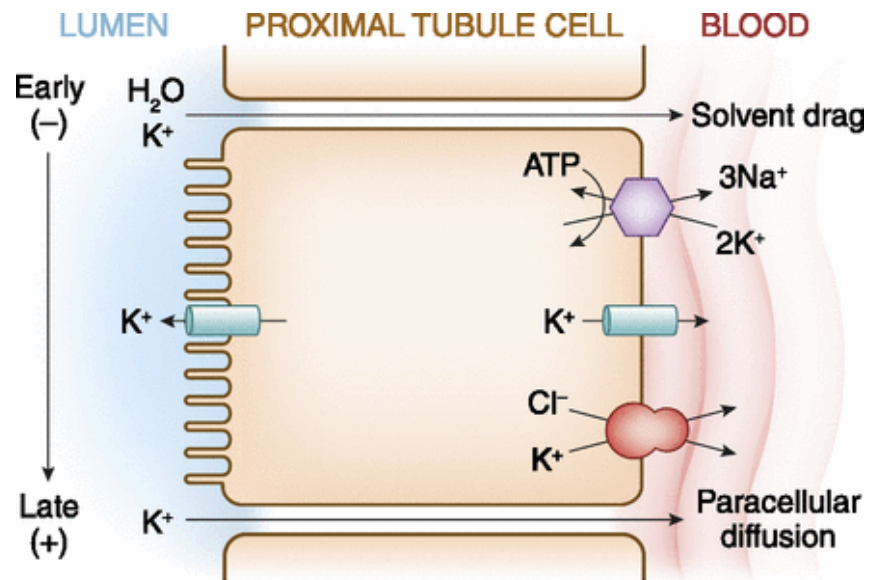
Reabsorption of chloride anions

- enter the cell via:
 - Na/Cl co-transport
 - Cl/base antiporter (Cl/formate, Cl/oxalate)

 - leave the cell via:
 - K/Cl co-transport
 - Cl channels
-

Reabsorption of potassium

- paracellular pathway - more important
- transcellular pathway



Secretion

2 mechanisms:

1. transcellular – crossing the cells – urate, glucuronides, penicillin, diuretics
 2. cellular – synthesis in tubular cells and then leaving the cells - ammonia
-

Functions of the loop of Henle

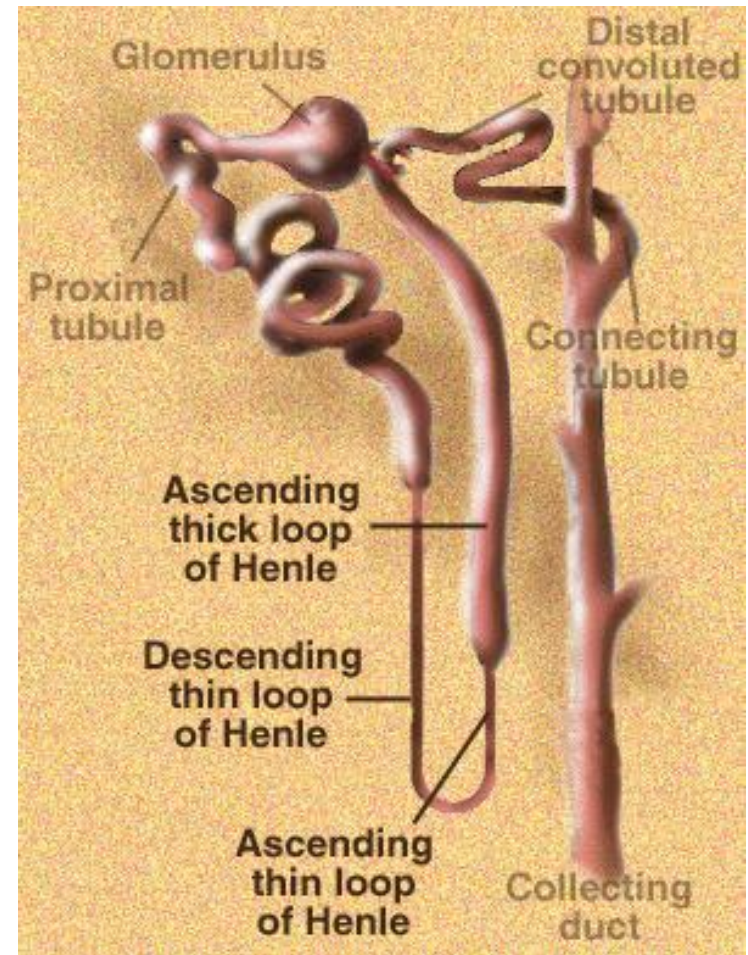
- in the medulla

Functions:

1. reabsorption of water and solutes
2. maintenance of hyperosmotic interstitium
3. production of hypoosmotic urine

3 functional units:

1. thin descending segment
2. thin ascending segment
3. thick ascending segment

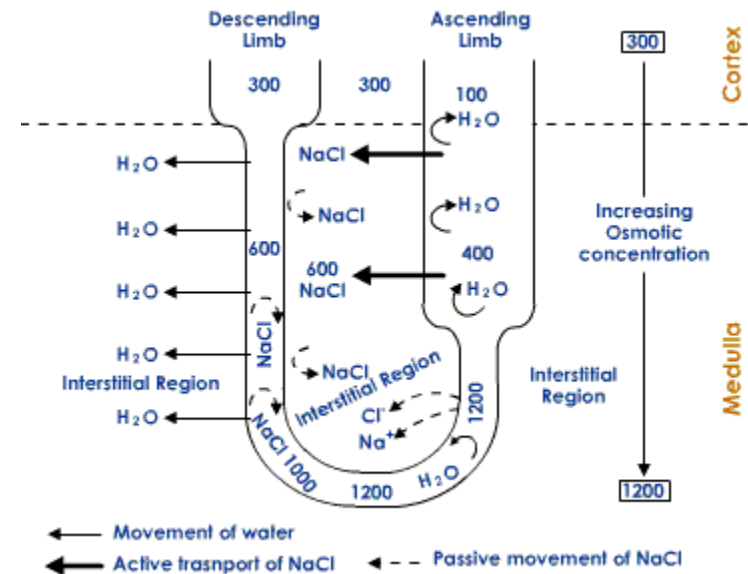


Reabsorption of water and solutes

- 25% of filtered Na, Cl, K
- 10% of filtered water
- Ca, Mg, bicarbonates

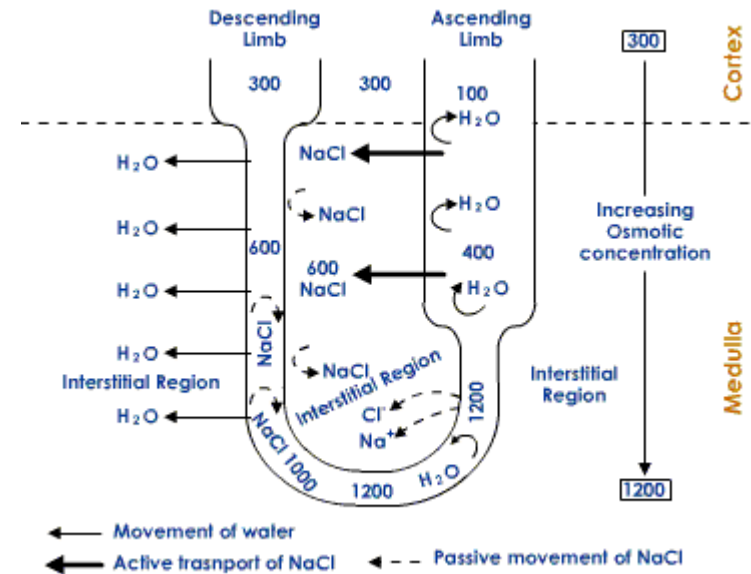
Water – in the descending limb only

- isoosmotic fluid → hypertonic
- hypertonicity increases with the increasing depth of descending segment (maximum at the bend of the loop)

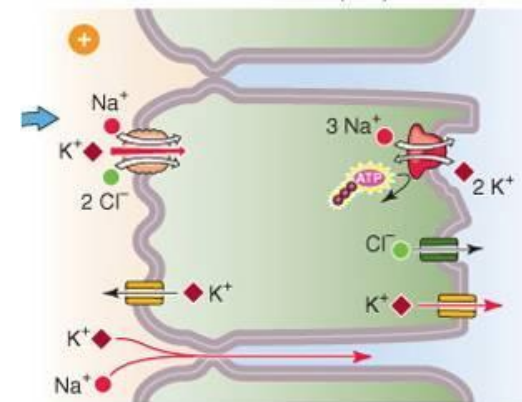


Ascending limb

- impermeable for water
- permeable for solutes (especially thick segment)
- transporters:
 - basolateral membrane: Na,K-ATPase
 - luminal membrane: Na,Cl,K-cotransporter (all the ions in the cell)
- hypotonic tubular fluid at the end

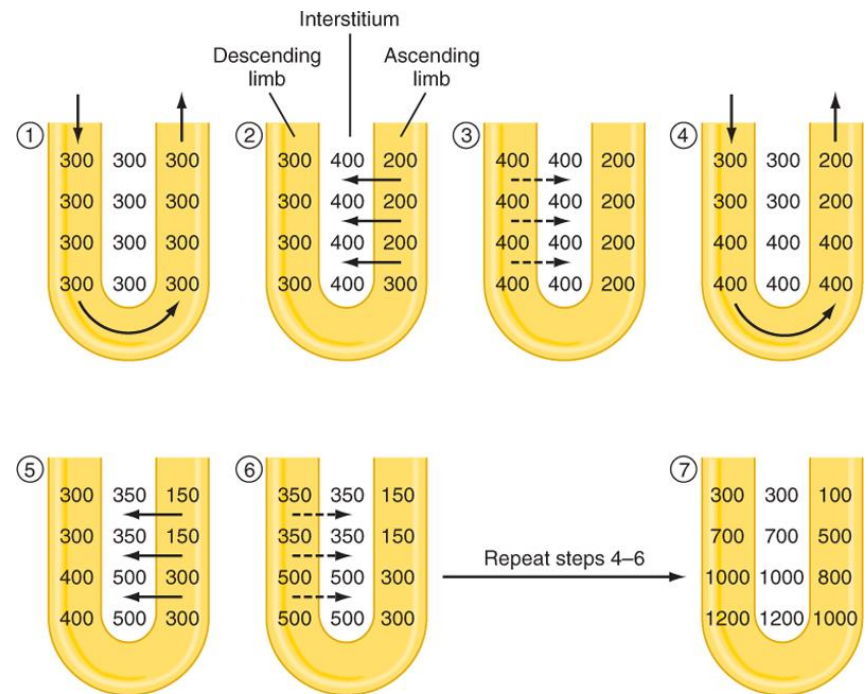


B THICK ASCENDING LIMB (TAL)



Countercurrent multiplication

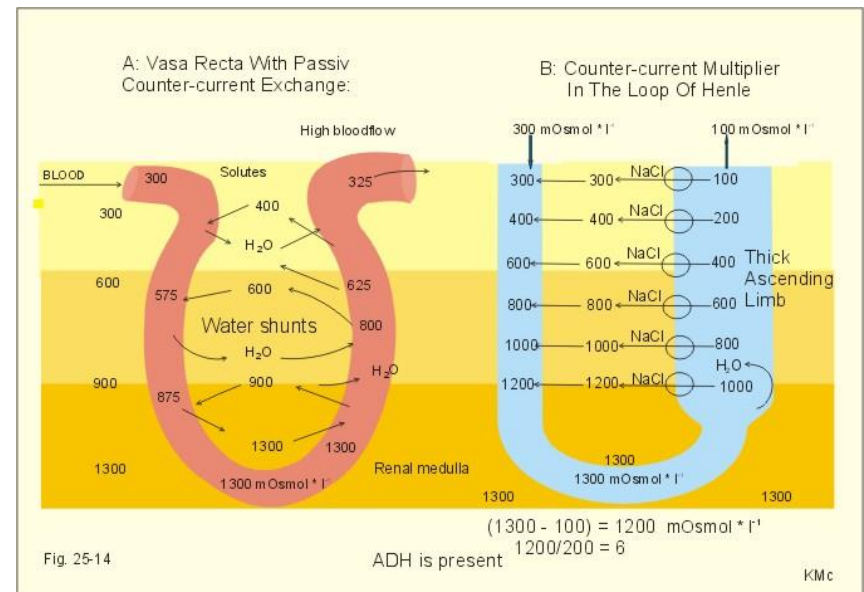
- maintenance of hyperosmotic medullar interstitium
- osmotic stratification – progressive increase of interstitial osmotic pressure toward the depth of medulla
- loop of Henle = countercurrent multiplier



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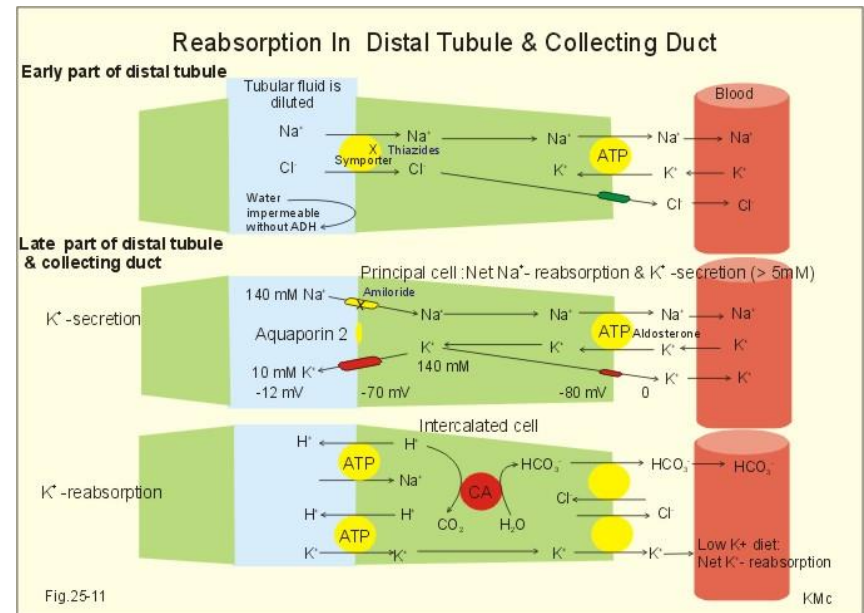
Vasa recta

- countercurrent exchangers
- blood entering the renal medulla in the descending limb - close to the outgoing blood in the ascending limb
- descending limb - Na^+ and Cl^- into the blood, water out
- ascending limb - Na^+ and Cl^- into the interstitial fluid
- the hypertonicity of the medulla is maintained



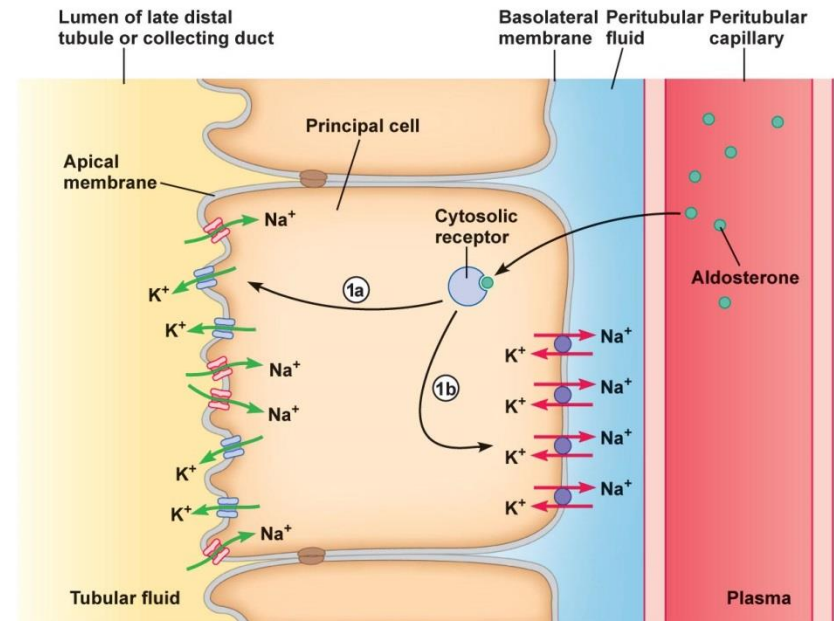
Functions of the distal tubule

- first part – as thick ascending segment of the Henle's loop
- second part
 - principal cells – reabsorption of sodium and water, secretion of potassium
 - intercalated cells – secretion of H^+ , reabsorption of bicarbonate, reabsorption of potassium



Principal cells

- Na,K-ATPase in the basolateral membrane sensitive to aldosterone
- water – aquaporins sensitive to ADH

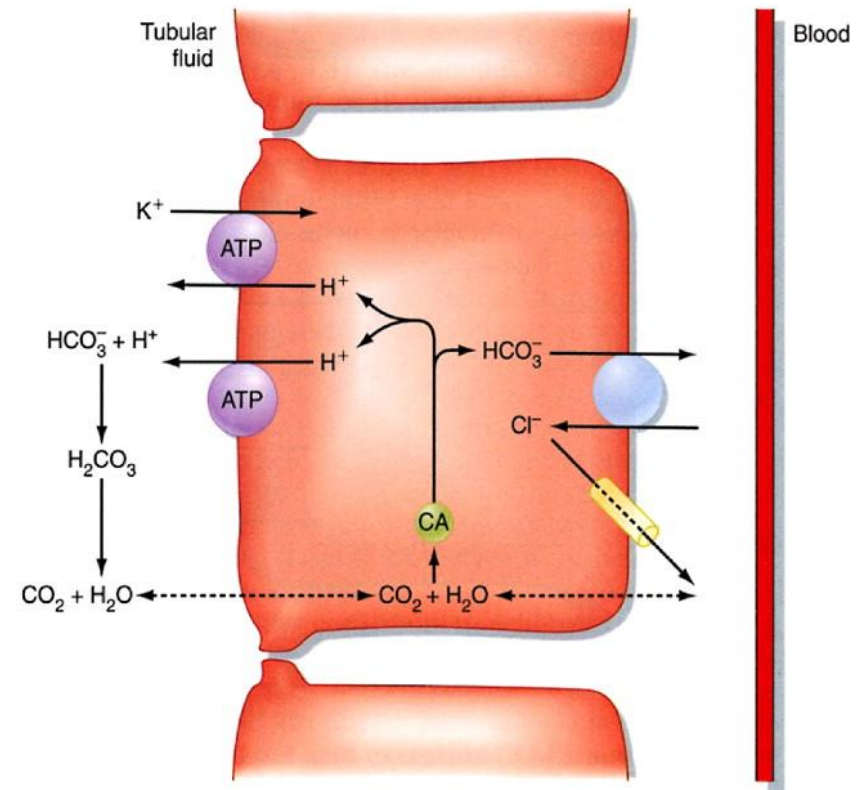


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Intercalated cells

Regulation of ABB (2 types of cells - in opposed mode)

- reaction in the cell
 $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$
- secretion of H^+ out to tubular fluid - H^+ -ATPase, H^+/K^+ -ATPase
- bicarbonate out to interstitial fluid and blood
- carbonic anhydrase
- + reabsorption of potassium

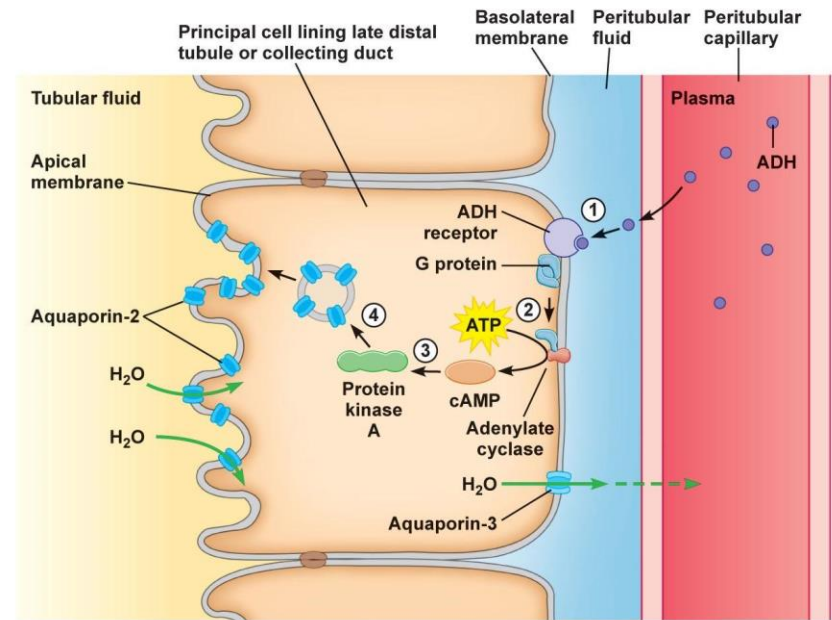


Comparison distal vs. proximal tubule

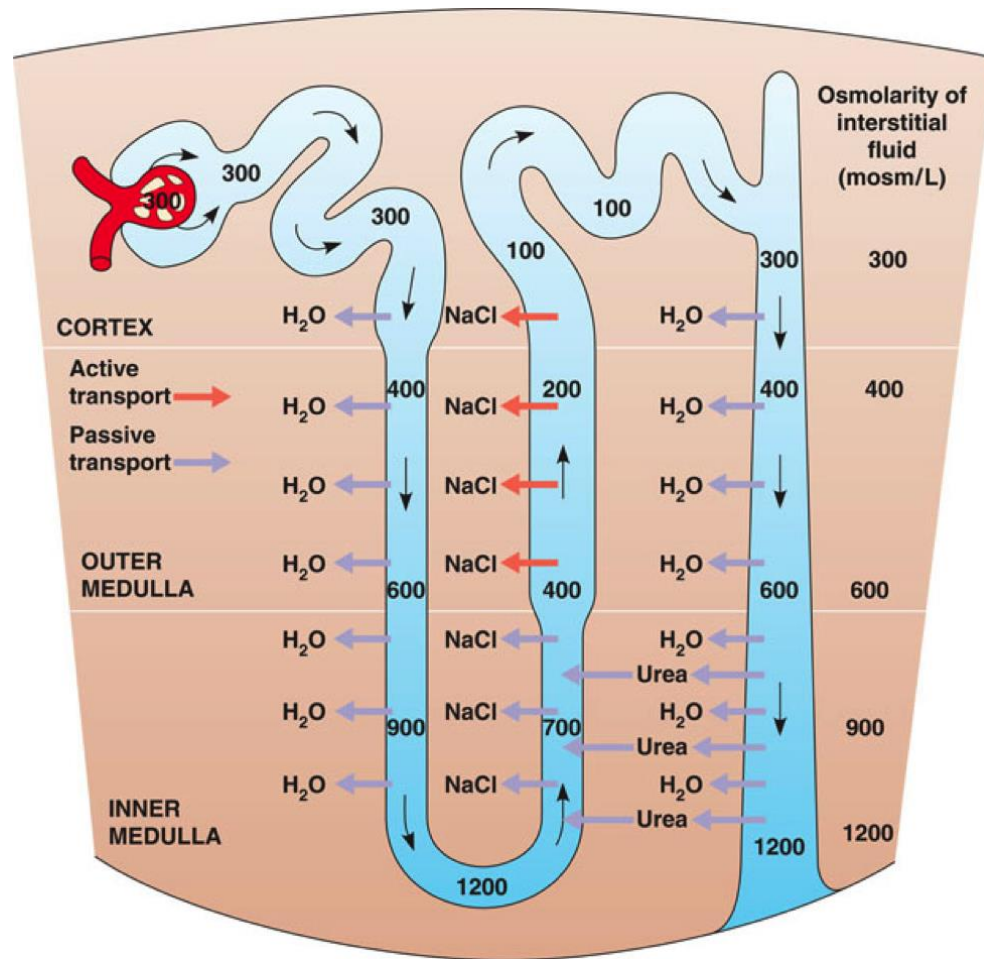
1. lower reabsorption of salt (9%) and water (19%)
 - proximal – 70-80%
2. less leaky epithelium – can establish big gradient for Na⁺ and water
 - proximal – reabsorption of large quantities of salt and water along small gradients
3. water and Na⁺ reabsorption can be independent

Function of collecting duct

- regulation of osmolarity of final urine
- reabsorption of water according to the body needs = facultative
- channels = aquaporins sensitive to ADH
- movement of water (all !) – passive - in osmotic gradient

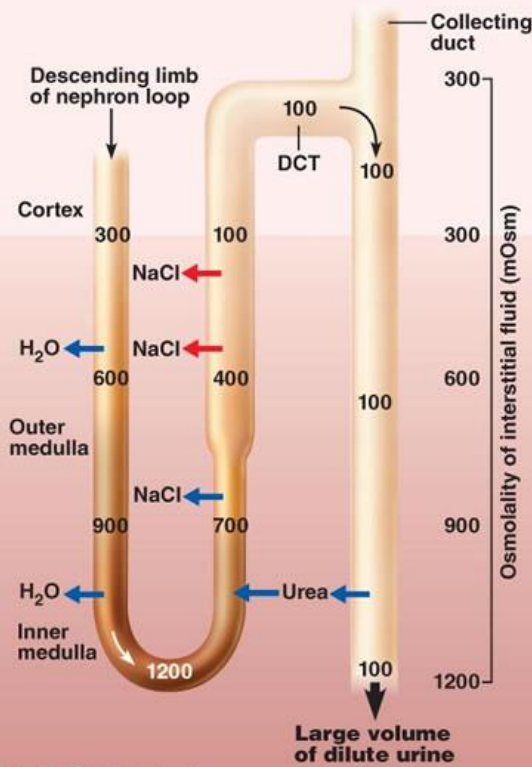


Summary of osmolarities of tubular fluid in renal tubular system



(a) If we were so overhydrated we had no ADH...

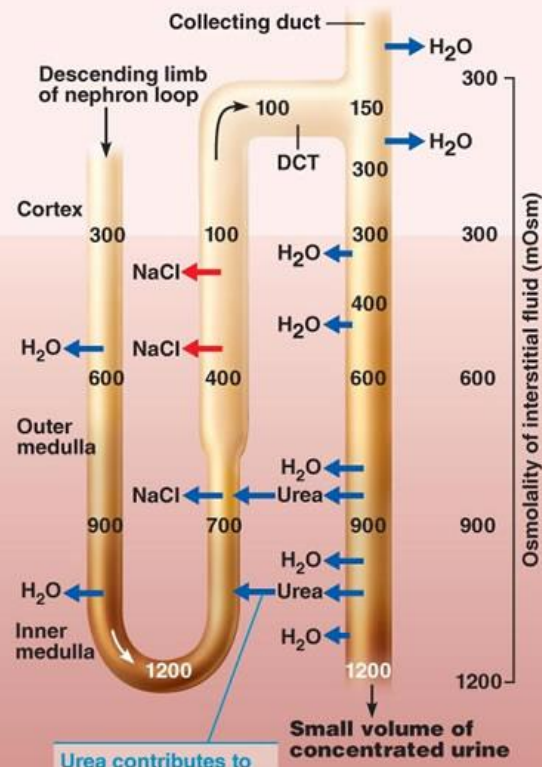
↓ Osmolality of extracellular fluids
 ↓ ADH release from posterior pituitary
 ↓ Number of aquaporins (H₂O channels) in collecting duct
 ↓ H₂O reabsorption from collecting duct
 Large volume of dilute urine



→ Active transport
 → Passive transport

(b) If we were so dehydrated we had maximal ADH...

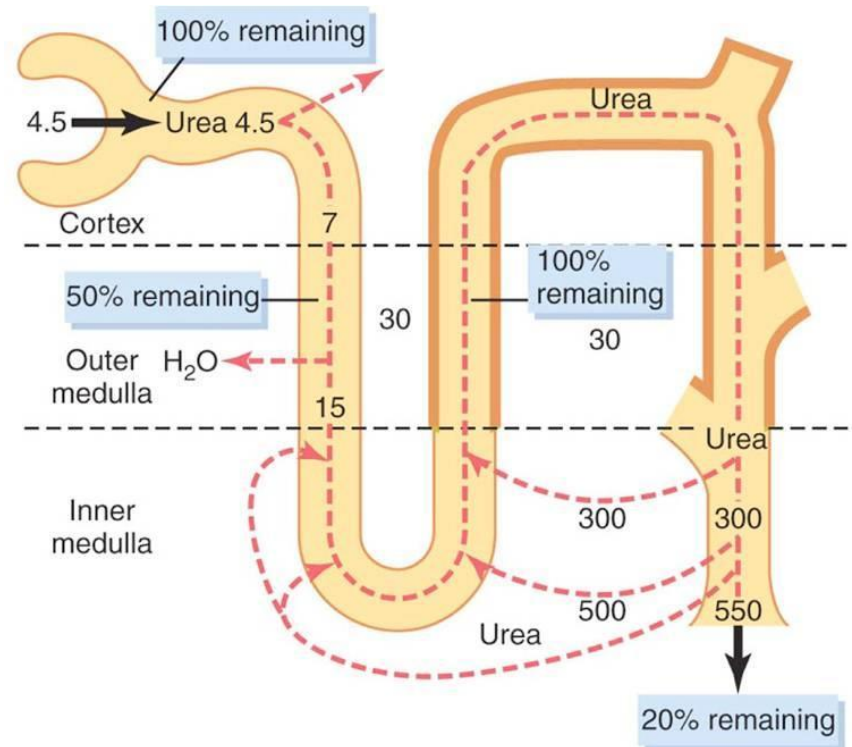
↑ Osmolality of extracellular fluids
 ↑ ADH release from posterior pituitary
 ↑ Number of aquaporins (H₂O channels) in collecting duct
 ↑ H₂O reabsorption from collecting duct
 Small volume of concentrated urine



Urea contributes to the osmotic gradient. ADH increases its recycling.

Urea

- osmotically active waste product of protein metabolism
- **contributes about 40% to medullary hyperosmolarity**
- reabsorption and secretion of urea - important role in the concentration of urine
- the amount of urea resorption in medullary collecting duct - regulated by ADH
- thick ascending limb, distal tubule, cortical collecting duct – impermeable for urea



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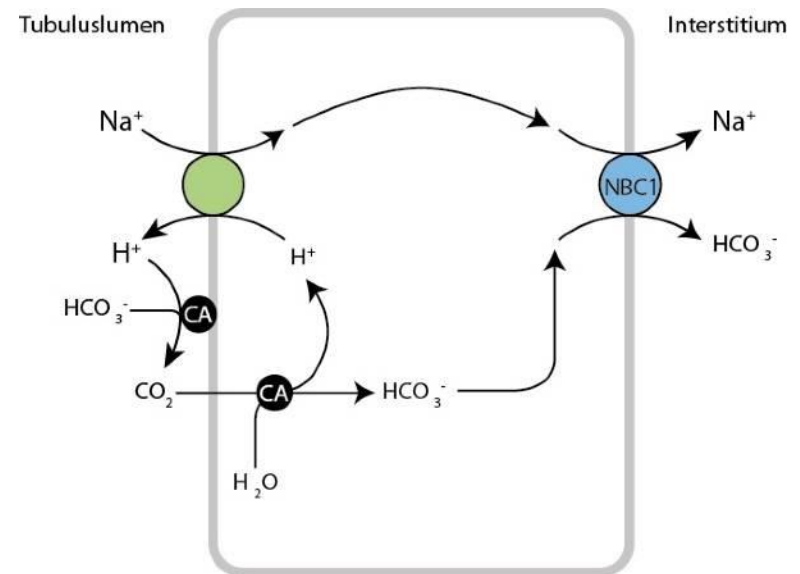
The role of kidneys in ABB

1. secretion of H^+
 2. reabsorption of bicarbonates
 - reverse mode - secretion of bicarbonates
 3. generation of new bicarbonates
-

H⁺ ions – secretion

Reabsorption of bicarbonates

- in glomerulus – all H⁺-ions filtered
- in tubular system (proximal and distal tubule, cortical collecting duct) – secretion via 2 mechanisms
- removal of H⁺ - important for reabsorption of bicarbonate from tubular fluid



Generation of new bicarbonates

- via excretion of buffered H^+ = when H^+ is being secreted - new bicarbonate is added to the blood → mechanism dependent on the urinary buffer systems

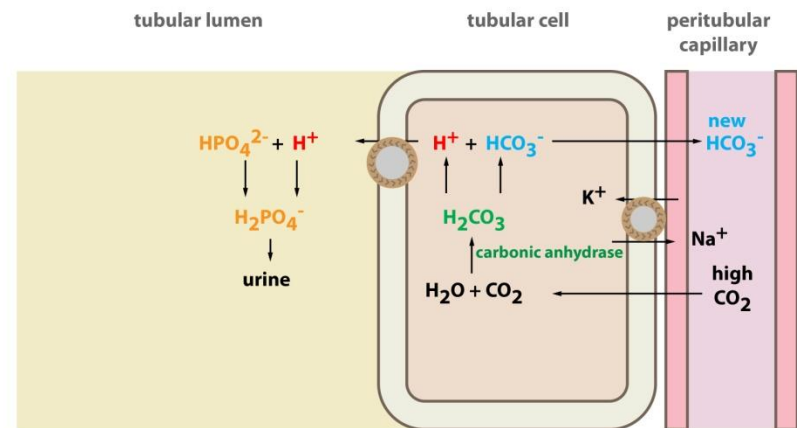
Urinary buffers:

- excretion of acids - allow higher amount of H^+ to be excreted
 - regeneration of bicarbonate lost in ECF buffering
 - 2 main: ammonia and phosphate
-

Phosphate buffer

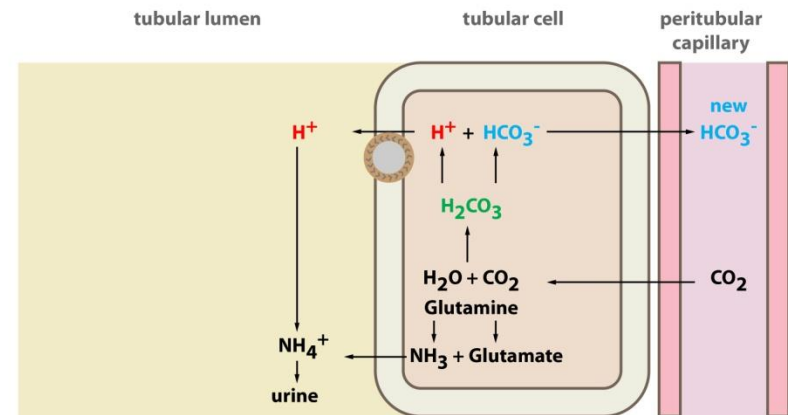
Limitation:

- no production of phosphates in the kidney
- phosphates are derived from diet only, filtration and following reabsorption of phosphate - ↓ availability of phosphates



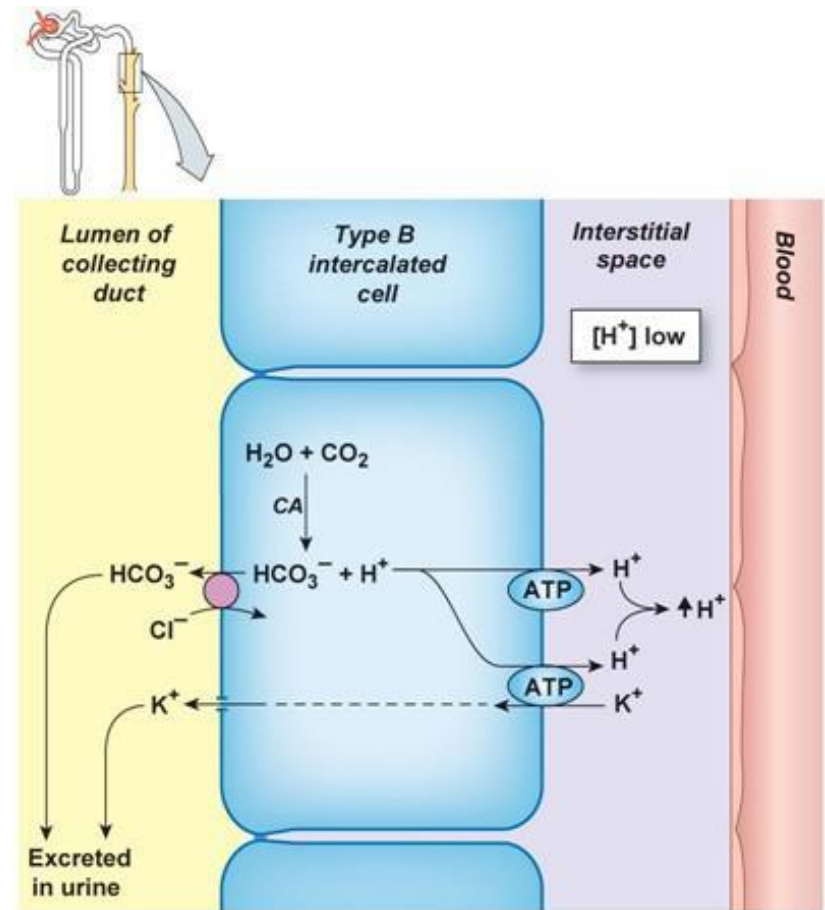
Ammonia buffer

- ammonia – can be produced from glutamine if it is necessary
- 1 glutamine → deamination, oxidation, acidification → $2\text{NH}_4^+ + 2\text{HCO}_3^-$ in tubular cell
- $\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow$ blood
 - $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ - antiporter
- $\text{NH}_4^+ \rightarrow$ tubular fluid
 - Na/NH_4 -antiporter (proximal tubule)
 - as diffusion of NH_3 (collecting duct)



Bicarbonate secretion

- in alkalosis
- type B intercalated cells
 - secrete bicarbonate
 - gain H^+



(b) Type B intercalated cell function in alkalosis.

REGULATION OF THE VOLUME AND OSMOLARITY OF URINE

Extracellular fluid volume

- regulation of ECF volume ↔ regulation of Na^+ ↔ regulation of BP
 - receptors:
 - baroreceptors, volumoreceptors
 - effectors:
 - RAAS
 - renal sympathetic nerve
 - hormones - natriuretic peptides (ANP, BNP), ADH
 - response:
 - changes in renal Na^+ excretion, water reabsorption
-

Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system

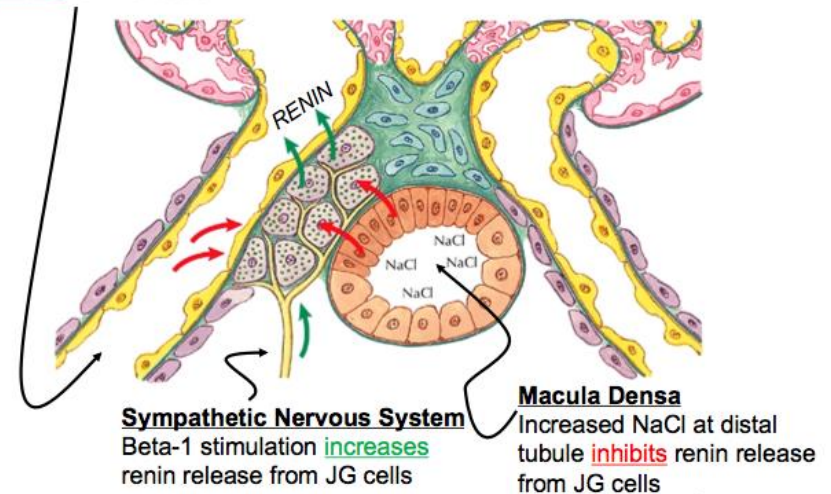
Renin - myoendocrine
(myoepithelial, granular) cells of
vas afferens

Stimuli for renin release:

- macula densa mechanism -
reduced NaCl in the distal
tubule
- sympathetic stimulation - β -
adrenergic stimulation
mediated via the formation of
cAMP
- hormones, neurotransmitters
that can increase cAMP level
- lower BP in the afferent
arterioles

Intrarenal Baroreceptor of Afferent Arteriole

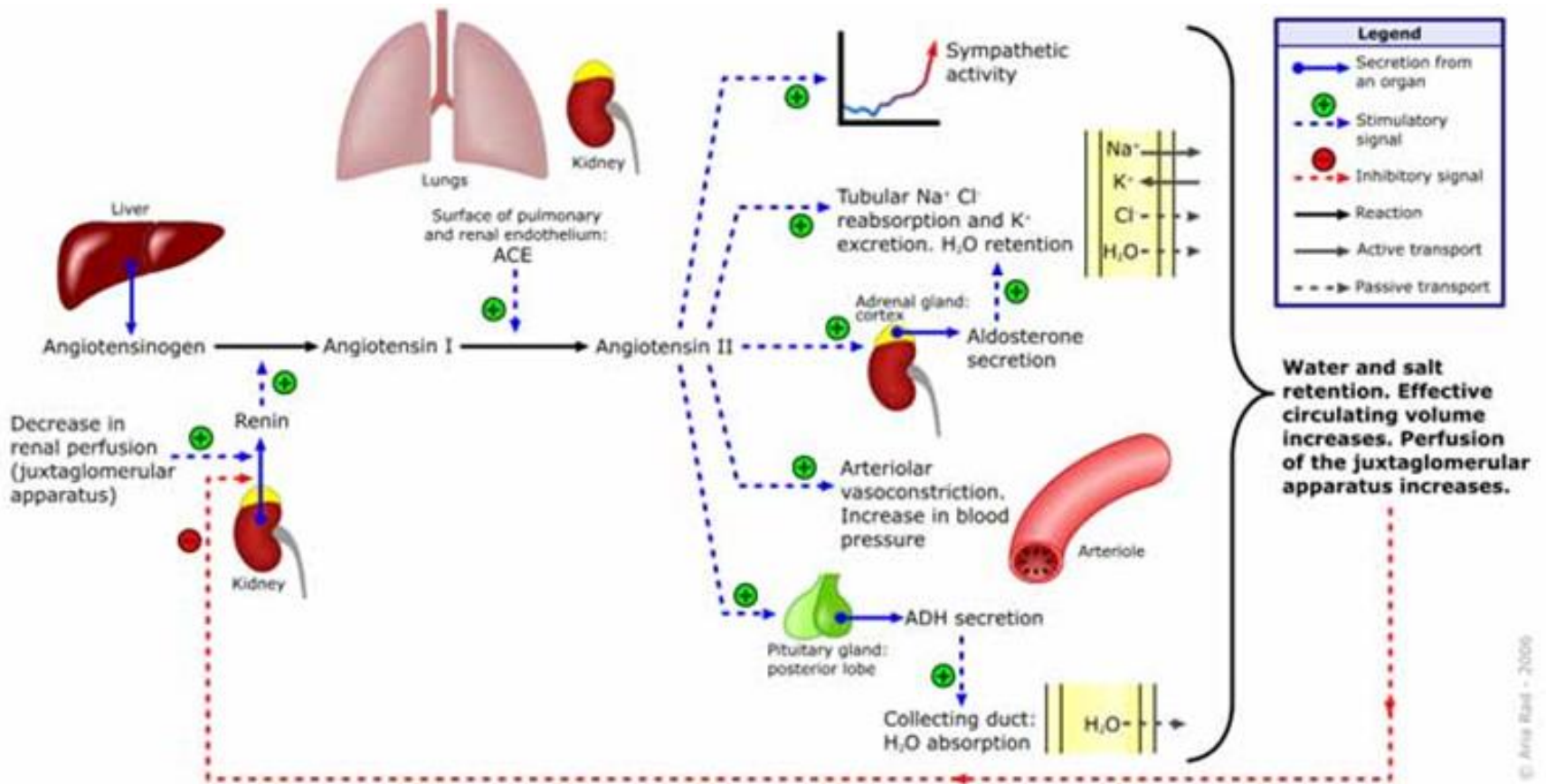
Increased pressure (stretch) in afferent arteriole
inhibits renin release



Sympathetic Nervous System
Beta-1 stimulation **increases**
renin release from JG cells

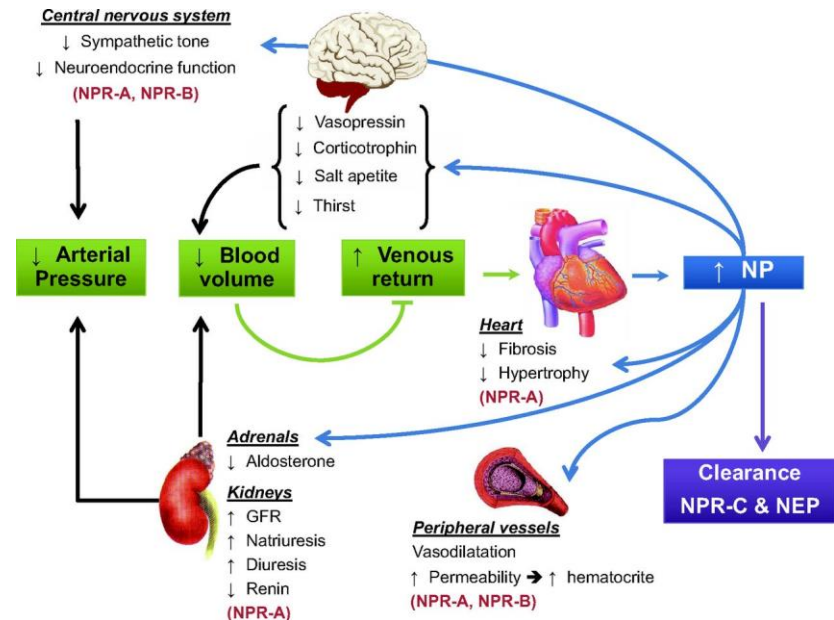
Macula Densa
Increased NaCl at distal
tubule **inhibits** renin release
from JG cells

RAAS



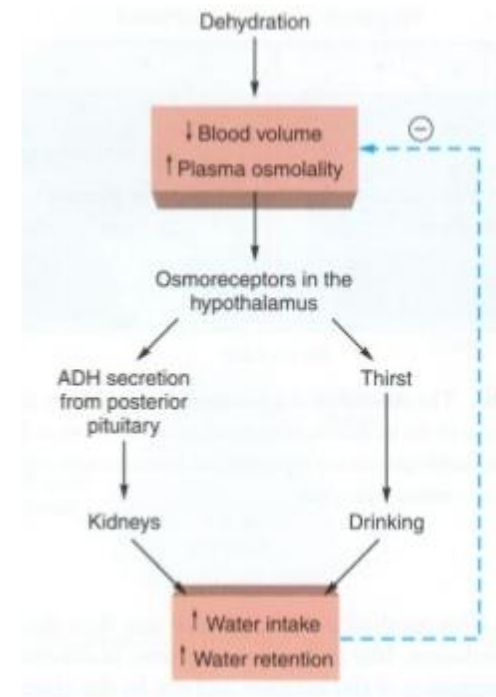
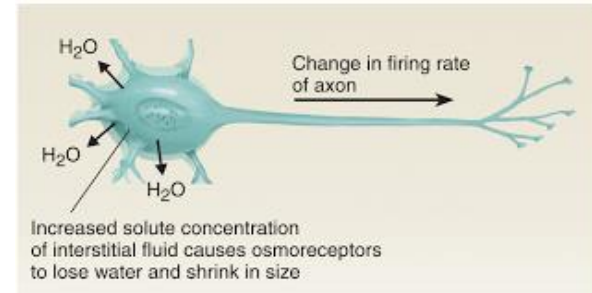
Natriuretic peptides

- ANP, BNP, ...
- inhibit Na⁺ reabsorption
- ↑vascular permeability
- vasodilation of arterioles and venules
- inhibition of renin and aldosterone secretion

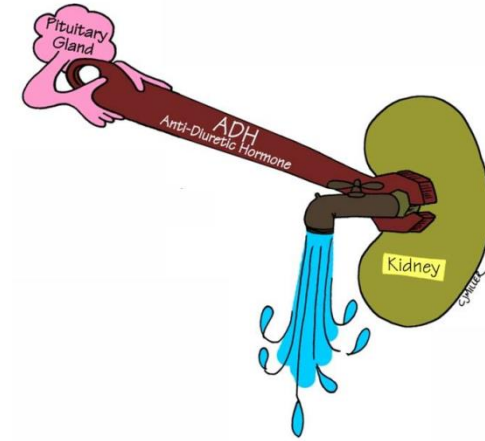


Renal regulation of blood osmolarity

- receptors:
 - osmoreceptors in hypothalamus - respond to 1 to 2% changes in tonicity
- centre - hypothalamus
- responses:
 - ADH → water output
 - thirst → voluntary activity → water input
- response:
 - urine osmolarity
 - water intake



Antidiuretic hormone



Stimuli:

- increase of ADH release
 - \uparrow osmolarity, \downarrow blood volume, \downarrow blood pressure (osmoreceptors, volumoreceptors, baroreceptors)
- decrease of ADH
 - \downarrow osmolarity, \uparrow blood volume, \uparrow blood pressure

Responses:

- absence of ADH \rightarrow large volumes of hypotonic urine = up to 20 liters/day (diabetes insipidus)
- presence of ADH
- vessels

-
- primary urine – 180 L
 - almost 90% - obligatory reabsorption = 162 L
 - about 10% = 18 L – facultative – requires ADH
 - obligatory final urine volume – about 0.5 L
-
- necessary excretion - 600 mOsm of solutes/day
 - isotonic urine – excretion of 2L H₂O/day
 - ability to concentrate urine 4x
-

Sodium handling

reabsorption - 99% of filtered sodium

Apical membranes:

1. proximal tubule:

- sodium co-transporters - glucose, phosphate, aminoacids
- sodium antiporter - hydrogen ion

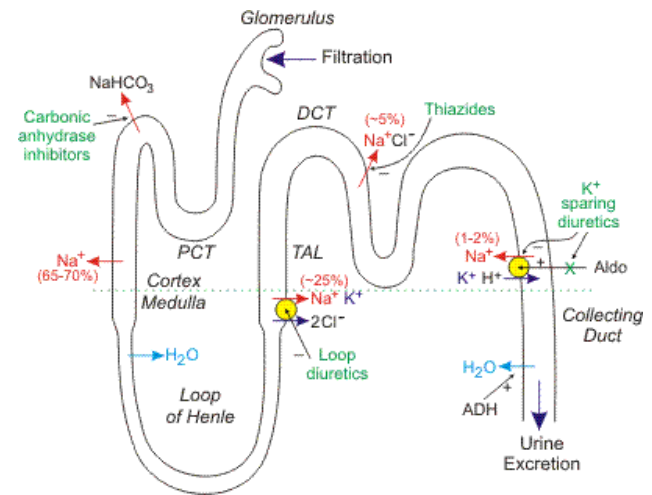
2. ascending limb of Henle's loop

- Na, 2 Cl, K – co-transporter

■ distal tubule:

- Na, Cl – co-transporter
- reabsorption of Na in exchange for H and K (aldosterone sensitive)

Basolateral membranes: Na,K-ATPases



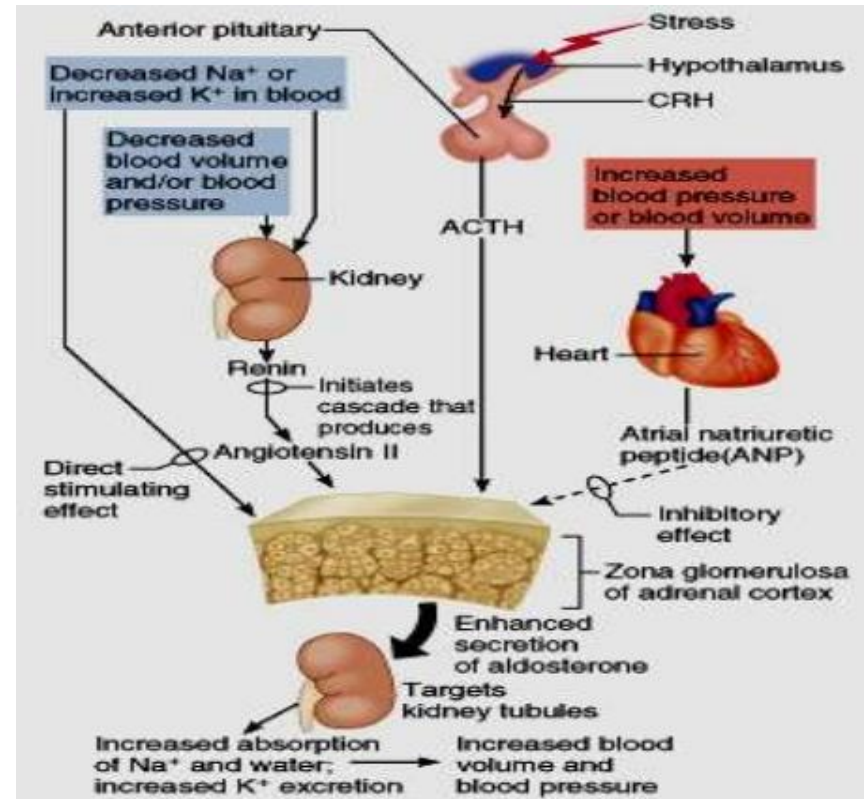
Aldosterone

secretion stimulated by:

- angiotensin II, adrenocorticotrophic hormone, high potassium, sodium deficiency

inhibited by:

- ANP, high sodium concentration, potassium deficiency

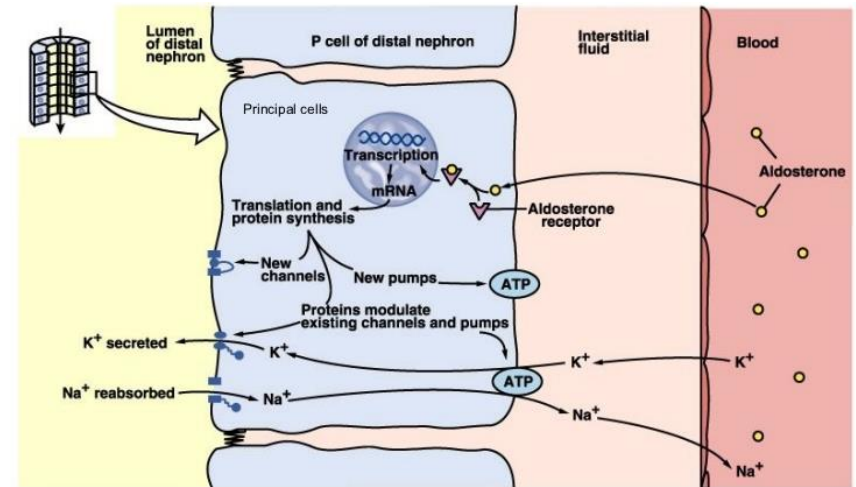


Aldosterone

Effects:

1. increase the luminal plasma membrane Na and K permeability
2. increase the number and activity of basolateral plasma membrane Na/K-ATPase pumps
3. increase cell metabolism

all of these changes → increased K secretion



Potassium handling

Proximal tubule:

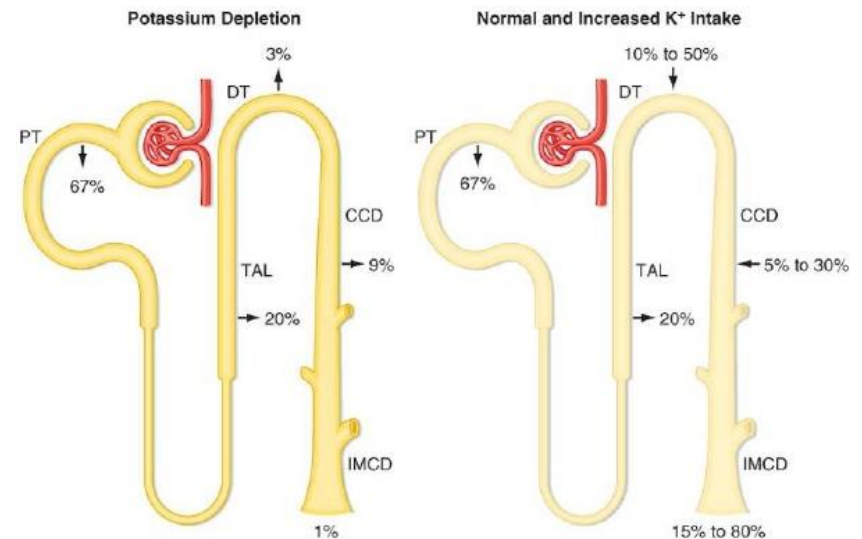
- passive paracellular (and transcellular)

Thick ascending limb of Henle

- $\text{Na}^+\text{-K}^+\text{-2Cl}^-$ co-transporter
- K^+ exit through a conductive pathway or in cotransport with Cl^-

Distal tubule + cortical collecting duct

- aldosterone \rightarrow changes in K^+ secretion
- α -intercalated cell - $\text{H}^+\text{-K}^+\text{-ATPase}$ - reabsorption of K^+



Calcium handling

- ultrafiltrate - ionized and complexed Ca (phosphates, citrates)

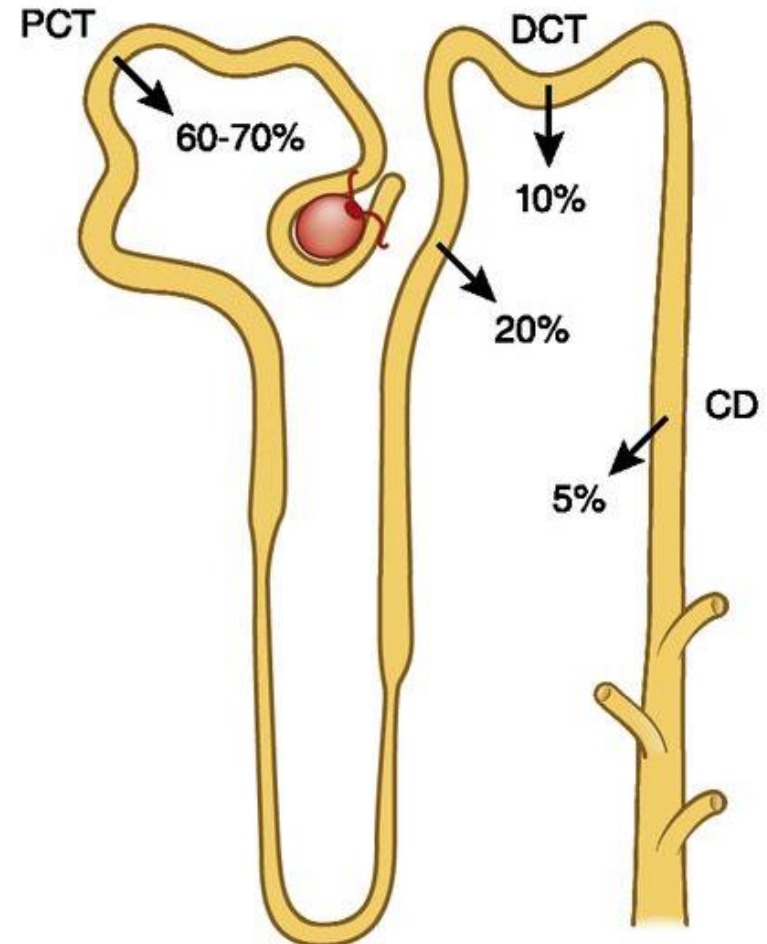
- 98-99% - reabsorption

Proximal tubule + thick ascending limb of the loop of Henle

- passive paracellular transport in concentration gradient
- active - small amounts

Distal tubule + cortical collecting duct

- transcellular
- parathyroid hormone dependent calcium resorption



The final urine

- final waste product secreted by the kidneys
 - composition:
 - water: 91 - 96%
 - urea: 2%
 - creatinine
 - uric acid
 - inorganic salts - chloride, sodium, potassium,...ions
 - ammonia
 - other substances (urochrome,...)
-

The final urine

- transparent liquid
- sterile
- pH about 6 (4.5 - 8)
- volume 1 - 2 L/day
 - polyuria: > 2.5 L/day
 - oliguria: < 400 mL/day
 - anuria: < 100 mL/day
- specific gravity 1001 - 1035 kg/m³



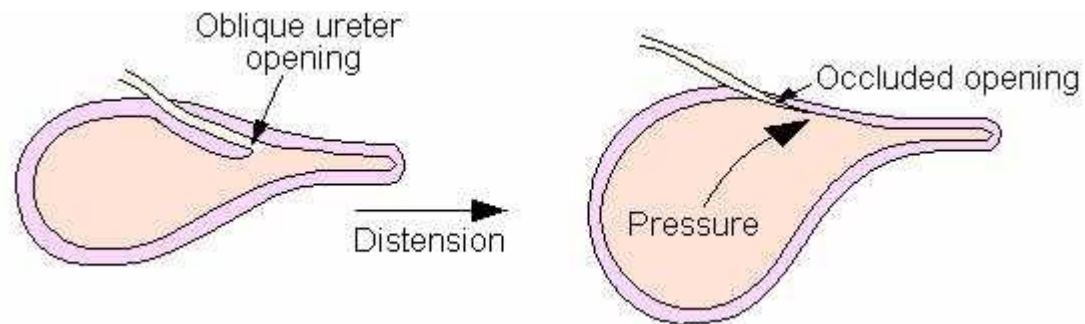
Ureters

- unidirectional transport of urine from the renal pelvis toward the bladder
 - protection of the renal parenchyma from distally generated backflow and back pressure
 - 20 - 25 cm long
 - smooth muscle in the walls
-

Peristalsis in ureters

- initiation by spontaneous activity of renal pelvis pacemaker cells → conduction of electrical and mechanical activities to inactive distal regions
 - contraction wave propelling urine distally in boluses = urinary spindles → small amount of urine are transported into the bladder every 1 – 5 times per minute
 - regulated by the myogenic mechanisms + neurogenic factors
 - increase of cytoplasmic free calcium concentration = the principal mechanism in smooth muscle contraction
 - efferent and afferent innervation - cholinergic, adrenergic and non-adrenergic non-cholinergic components – especially in the lower ureter
-

- oblique passage through the urinary bladder wall = prevention of the urine backflow into the ureter when the bladder contracts
- anti-reflux mechanism
- the intravesical portion length
 - at birth - 0.5 cm
 - in adulthood - 1.5 to 2.6 cm



Urinary bladder

2 main functions:

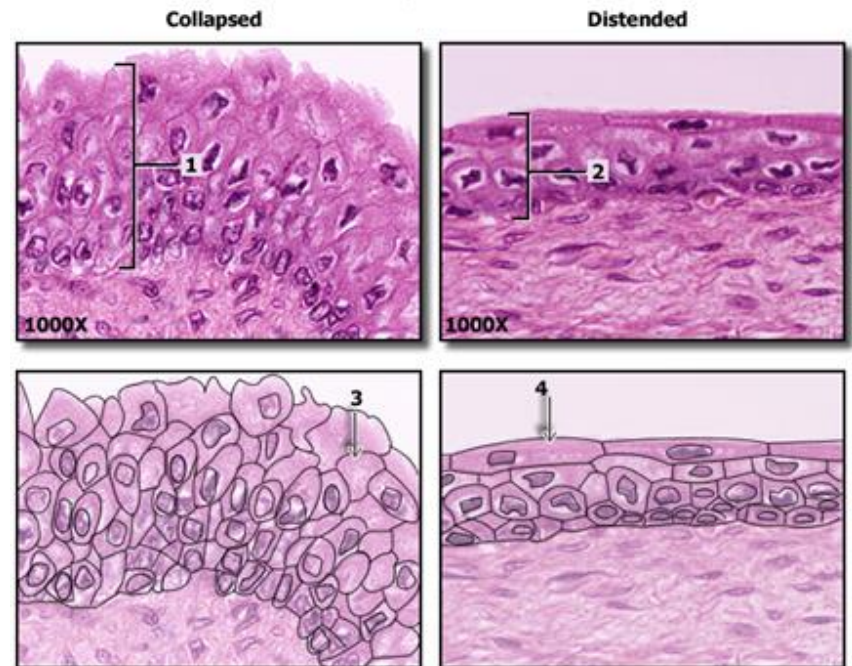
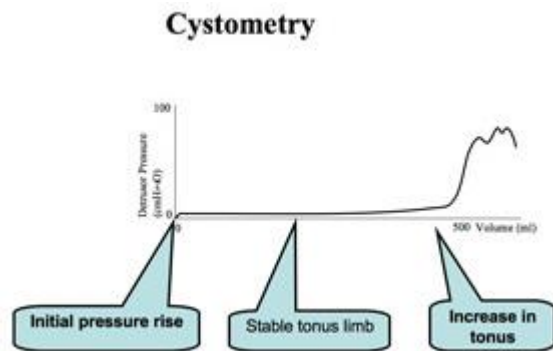
1. reservoir for urine
 2. emptying - removal of urine
- in adult - 300-500 ml
 - expected capacity = $[30 + (\text{age in years} \times 30)]$ ml

Muscles:

- smooth - in the walls – m.detrusor + involuntary internal sphincter
 - innervation by parasympathetic pelvic nerves + sympathetic hypogastric nerves
 - skeletal – voluntary external sphincter
 - innervation by somatic nerves via pudendal nerves
-

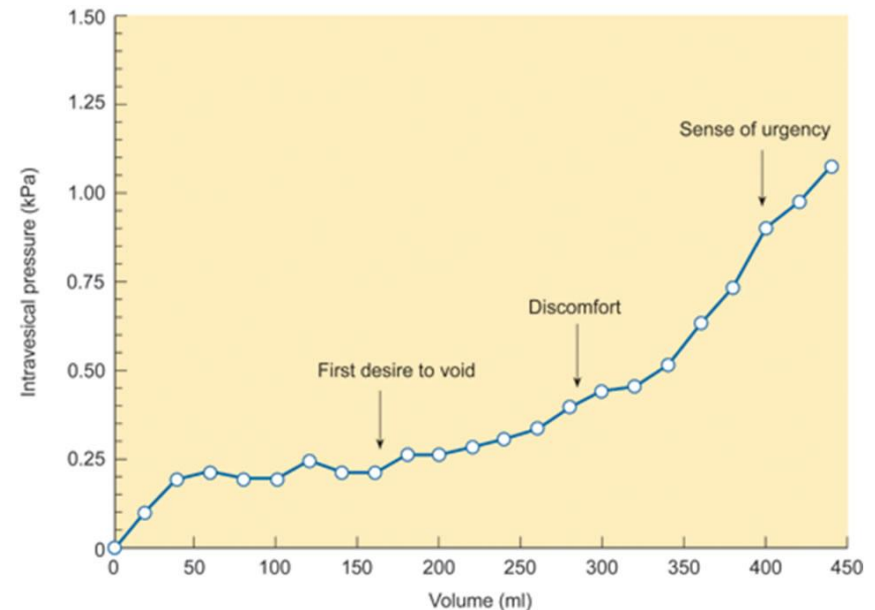
Filling of the urinary bladder

- tone is adjusted to its capacity (transitional epithelium = urothelium)



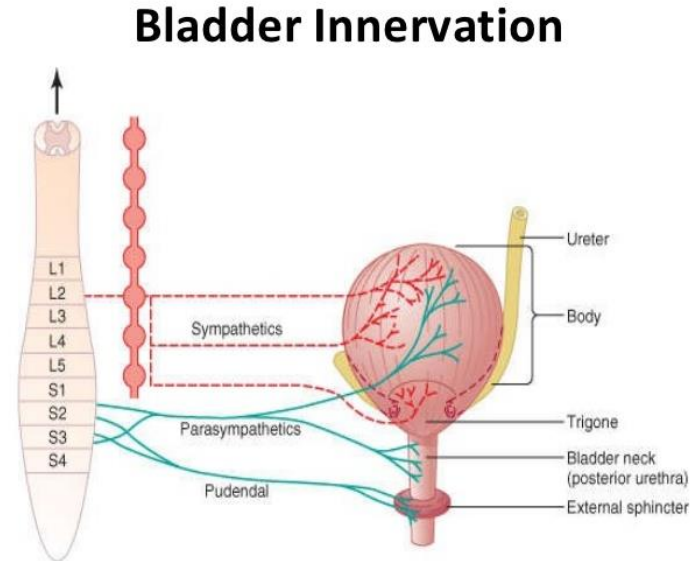
Filling of the urinary bladder

- sensation at about 100 - 150 mL
- desire to void – 150 - 250 mL
- sensation of full bladder – 350 - 400 mL – corresponds to 10 cm H₂O
- further increase of volume – steep increase of pressure (reflex contraction of detrusor)
- 600 - 700 mL – pain + loss of control



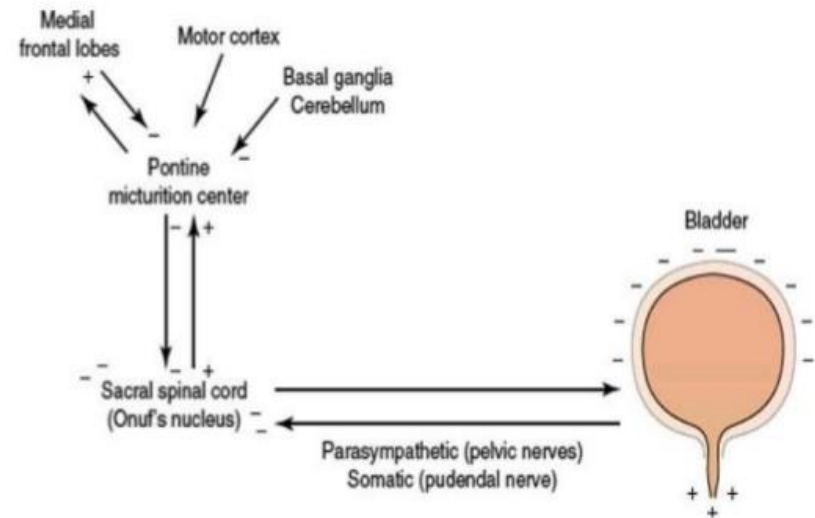
Urination (micturition)

- periodic emptying of the urinary bladder
- cooperation of autonomic and somatic nerve pathways + higher centers
- basic reflex
 - receptors – mechano = stretch receptors in the wall
 - centre – sacral spinal cord (in infants) + modification by centres in the pons and cortex (in adults - facilitation, inhibition)
 - response – contraction of detrusor + relaxation of sphincters



Higher centres

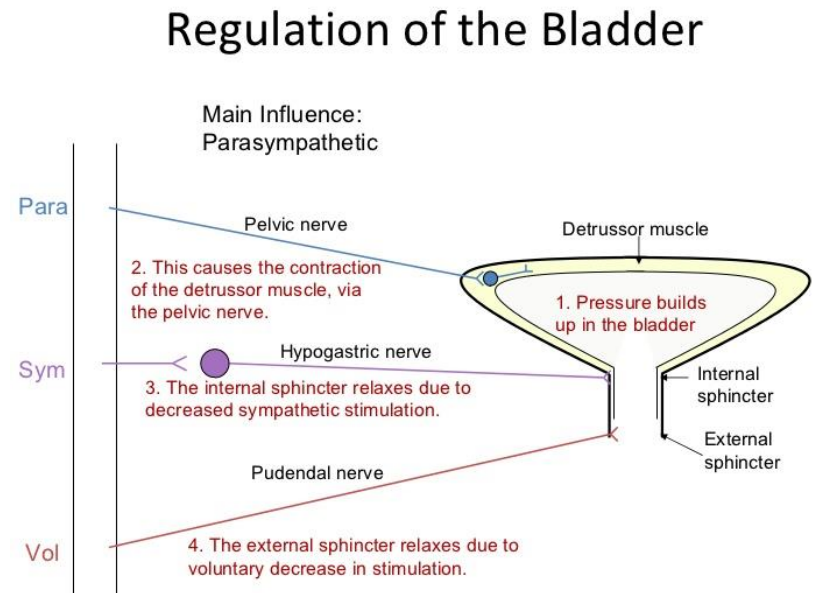
- cortical (medial frontal lobe, motor cortex) – sends inhibitory signals to the pons
- pontine – coordinates the urethral sphincter relaxation and detrusor contraction



Neural pathway for storage of urine (+ = excitatory; - = inhibitory).

Urination (micturition)

- other mechanisms
 - urine flow through the urethra – further contraction of detrusor
 - increased parasympathetic activity – stimulation of muscle responses
 - sympathetic activity – not essential (prevent reflux of semen into the bladder during ejaculation)
 - relaxation of perineal and levator ani muscles
 - inspiration + contraction of abdominal muscles → increase of intraabdominal pressure



Urethra

- tube conveying urine from the urinary bladder to the outside of the body
 - in males – passageway for cells and secretions from reproductive organs
-

Regulation of acid-base balance

- acid-base balance = inputs and outputs of acids and bases are equal → isohydria
- alkalemia, acidemia – about H^+ concentration
- acidosis, alkalosis – about pH value
- commonly – ECF (arterial blood): pH = 7.36-7.44
- IC pH – about 7 (2.5 fold higher H^+ concentration in the cells + concentration gradient directed out of the cells → lower venous and interstitial pH – about 7.35)
- acid-base balance parameters are calculated for plasma which pH is alkaline (alkaline pH - 7.2 = acidosis)

-
- sources of H⁺ ions – food (diet generates an excess of protons), metabolism
 - acids – 2 groups:
 - carbonic acid – H₂CO₃ – in equilibrium with volatile gas CO₂ – concentration set by respiratory activity
 - non-carbonic (nonvolatile, fixed) acids – buffered + excreted by the kidneys
 - metabolism
 - source of CO₂
 - incomplete (C, F) – produces nonvolatile acids (lactic, acetoacetic, β-hydroxybutyric acids)
 - protein metabolism – H₂SO₄, HCl, and H₃PO₄
-

Diet – acid gain

- overall effect – depends on metabolism
 - meat – protein oxidation – production of acids
 - basic anions – citrate, lactate, acetate – oxidized to CO₂ and H₂O
 - orange juice (pH = 3-4) – final alkalinizing effect
 - cranberry juice – contains benzoic acid - acidifying effect
-

Buffering mechanisms

1. chemical buffers – blood, kidneys – minimize change in pH without removal acid or base from the body
 2. respiratory response – begins in min, maximum about 12 – 24 hours
 - expiration of CO₂
 - powerful – adjusting ventilation
 - BUT – works only with volatile acids
 3. renal response – slower: full renal compensation may take 1 – 3 days
-

Chemical buffers

- bind or release H^+ (pairs of weak acid and its salt)
 - rapid in ECF – in minutes, in cells or bones – in hours
 - HCO_3^-/H_2CO_3 – main in ECF (ratio 20:1)
 - $H_2PO_4^-/HPO_4^{2-}$ – important in ICF and bones (phosphates – low in ECF, lower pH in the cells – closer to pK_a of phosphate)
 - proteins – amphoteric (blood – albumins and globulins, intracellular proteins, hemoglobin)
 - amino group accepts H^+ , carboxyl group gives H^+
-

Renal regulation of pH

- the most effective regulator
- excess acid – remove H^+ (more common)
- excess base – remove HCO_3^-
- the lowest pH of urine – 4.5
- daily urine output – 1-2 L → most of H^+ ions combine with urinary buffers
- ammonia NH_3/NH_4^+ (high pK_A – mainly NH_4^+ form)
- titratable bases – phosphate, creatinine and other bases
 - measured by amount of strong base needed to get urine pH to 7.4

Urinary acidification

- glomerular ultrafiltrate – same pH as plasma

Proximal tubule

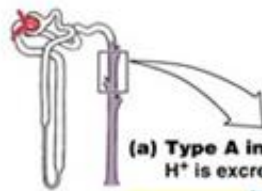
- 2/3 – Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter
- 1/3 – H⁺-ATPase
- at the end pH about 6.7 – H⁺ buffering + ↑permeability of the epithelium
- reabsorption of bicarbonates

Distal tubule – less extensive secretion

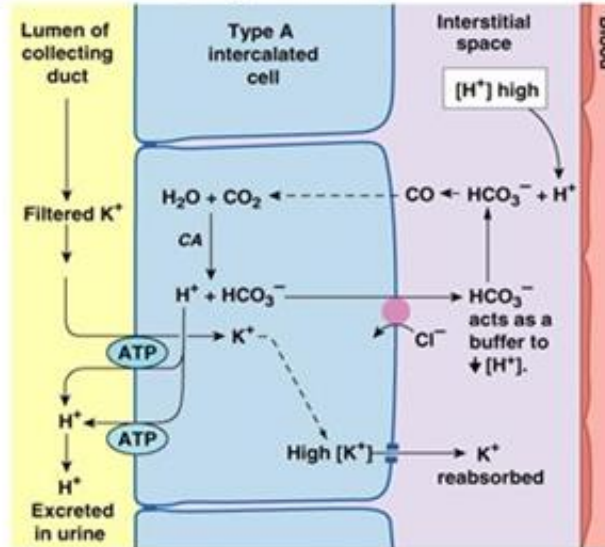
- electrogenic - H⁺-ATPase
 - electroneutral - H⁺/K⁺- ATPase
 - tight epithelium – steeper urine-to-blood H⁺ gradient
 - reabsorption of small amounts of bicarbonates
-

Cortical parts of collecting ducts

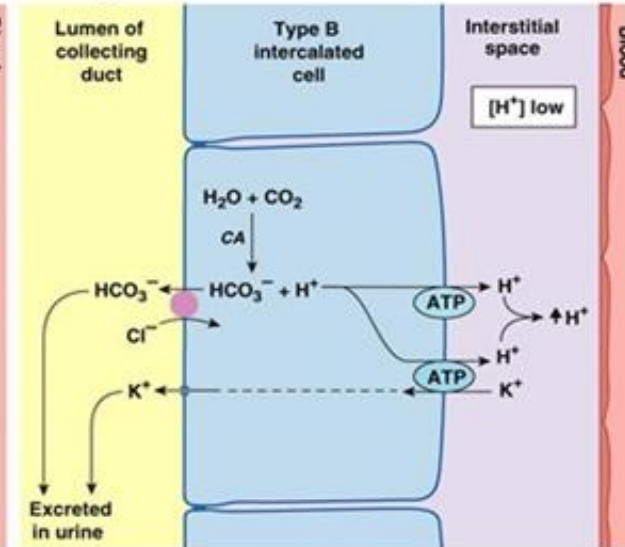
- acid-secreting α -intercalated cells (type A)
 - luminal – H^+ -ATPase, H^+/K^+ -ATPase
 - basolateral – Cl^-/HCO_3^- exchanger
- bicarbonate-secreting β -intercalated cells (type B) – has opposite polarity



(a) Type A intercalated cells function in acidosis. H^+ is excreted; HCO_3^- and K^+ are reabsorbed.



(b) Type B intercalated cells function in alkalosis. HCO_3^- and K^+ are excreted; H^+ is reabsorbed.



Factors influencing urine acidification

1. intracellular pH - tubular cells

- $\downarrow\text{pH} \rightarrow \uparrow\text{H}^+$ secretion

2. arterial pCO_2

- increased $\rightarrow \uparrow\text{H}^+$ formation $\rightarrow \uparrow\text{H}^+$ secretion
- decreased $\rightarrow \downarrow\text{H}^+$ secretion $\rightarrow \downarrow$ reabsorption of filtered bicarbonates

3. carbonic anhydrase activity

- CA – responsible for hydration of CO_2 in the cells and dehydration of H_2CO_3 in proximal tubule lumen
- inhibition of activity – loss of filtered bicarbonates $\rightarrow \downarrow\text{pH}$

4. sodium reabsorption

- higher – more negative intraluminal potential – higher excretion of H^+

5. plasma potassium concentration

- lower – movement of K^+ out the cells followed by inflow of H^+ $\rightarrow \downarrow\text{pH}$ in tubular cell $\rightarrow \uparrow\text{H}^+$ secretion
- $\downarrow\text{K}$ in the tubular cell $\rightarrow \uparrow$ ammonia synthesis $\rightarrow \uparrow$ reabsorption of bicarbonates $\rightarrow \uparrow$ generation of new bicarbonates \rightarrow metabolic alkalosis

6. aldosterone – stimulation of H⁺ secretion

- ❑ direct stimulation of proton pump in cells
- ❑ via increasing of Na⁺ reabsorption → more negative intraluminal potential → ↑H⁺ secretion by electrogenic H⁺-ATPase
- ❑ via promotion of K⁺ secretion → hypokalemia → ↑H⁺ secretion
- ❑ hyperaldosteronism → alkalosis

7. pH gradient

- ❑ H⁺ secretion – gradient limited (plasma pH=7.4 – urine pH=4.5)
-

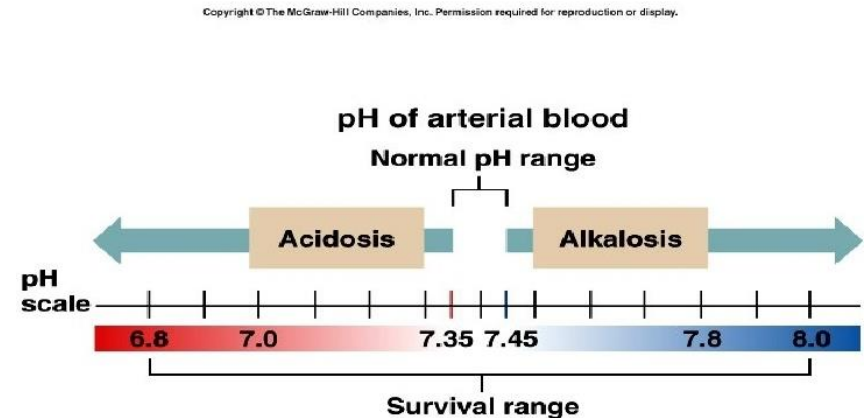
Regulation of intracellular pH

- via maintenance of ECF pH
 - almost all the cells - Na^+/H^+ antiporter (several isoforms – tissue dependent)
 - in some cells – bicarbonate transport systems
 - protein and phosphate buffers
-

Disturbances of acid-base balance

- Normal pH – 7.4 ± 0.4 (0.5)
- lower – acidosis, higher – alkalosis
 - too much or too little bicarbonates – metabolic
 - too much or too little CO_2 – respiratory
 - pH range for survival – 6.8-8

The Body and pH



Respiratory acidosis

- abnormal CO₂ accumulation
- hypoventilation, breathing of CO₂-enriched air

Compensation:

- bicarbonate level do not fall
 - chemical buffering – intracellular buffers
 - renal responses
 - acute respiratory acidosis - excess CO₂ – CA reaction toward HCO₃⁻ production
 - chronic respiratory acidosis - increase of HCO₃⁻ reabsorption
 - proximal - ↑ apical Na⁺/H⁺ exchange + basolateral Na⁺/3HCO₃⁻ co-transport
 - distal – more H⁺-ATPases and HCO₃⁻/Cl⁻ exchangers
-

Metabolic acidosis

Cause:

- direct – loss of HCO_3^- (via GIT, kidneys)
- indirect - accumulation of acid (lactic, ketones)

Respiratory response – increase of ventilation

Renal response:

- low concentration of bicarbonates in plasma → in ultrafiltrate
- direct stimulation of glutamine metabolism in proximal tubule
 - NH_4 for urinary secretion
 - bicarbonate generation
- increase of H^+ secretion and HCO_3^- reabsorption
 - proximal - ↑ apical Na^+/H^+ exchange + basolateral $\text{Na}^+/\text{HCO}_3^-$ co-transport
 - distal – more H^+ -ATPases and $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ exchangers
- direct stimulation of renin release → angiotensin II → aldosterone → increase of H^+ -ATPase activity in type A intercalated cells

Respiratory alkalosis

Cause:

- increase of ventilation (fever, hypoxemia, brain disease, side drug effects, high altitudes...)

Compensation:

- buffering - intracellular
 - renal – decreased acid secretion + decreased bicarbonate reabsorption
-

Metabolic alkalosis

Cause:

- loss of acid (via GIT, kidney)
- addition of bicarbonates (lactate, citrate, acetate)

Consequence: high bicarbonate → inhibition of ammoniagenesis

Renal response:

- depend on chloride ions: low chlorides → promotion of metabolic alkalosis
 - collecting duct – active H^+ secretion is associated with passive co-transport of Cl^-
 - type B intercalated cell – secretion of bicarbonate in exchange for chloride
- chloride responsive vs. chloride resistant

Respiratory response

- limited by hypoxia
-











Tests of renal function

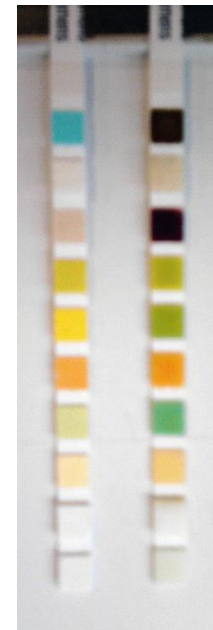
1. urinalysis
 - 24-hour urine sample
 - concentration, dilution tests
 2. blood, serum - creatinine, blood urea nitrogen
 3. GFR - creatinine clearance
 4. imaging techniques
 5. biopsy
-

Urinalysis

- semiquantitative - using dipsticks (diagnostic strips)

Urine Dipstick

	glucose
	bilirubin
	ketones
	hemoglobin
	specific gravity
	pH
	protein
	urobilinogen
	nitrite
	leukocytes



glucose (+++)
bilirubin (+)
ketones (++++)
hemoglobin (+)
specific gravity (1.025)
pH (5)
proteins (+)
urobilinogen (-)
nitrites (-)
leukocytes (-)

Urinalysis

- appearance (blood, leucocytes)
- volume - normal, oliguria, anuria, polyuria
- determination of specific gravity or osmolality
- microscopic examination of the urine sediment for cells, casts and crystals

Test	Normal Results			
appearance	clear and straw colored or yellow			
volume	0.8 - 1.8 L/24 hours			
protein	undetectable (< 150 mg/24 hours)			
hemoglobin	undetectable			
microscopic examination	few leukocytes absence of red cells presence of hyaline casts is normal			
	random	24 hr.	after 12 hr. fluid fast	after fluid load
specific gravity (or osmolality)	1.002 - 1.03	1.015 - 1.025	> 1.025 900 - 1250 mOsM	< 1.005 < 100 mOsM

Creatinine clearance

- the volume of blood plasma that is cleared of creatinine per unit time (usually 1 min)
- creatinine - only filtered (the same - inulin)
- clinically useful estimation of GFR (amount of plasma filtered by the glomerulus per unit of time)
- is calculated from measurements of serum creatinine concentration (C_{rs}), urine creatinine concentration (C_{ru}), and the urine volume (V) collected over a time period (t , in minutes)

$$\text{Creatinine Clearance} = (C_{ru} \times V/t) / C_{rs}$$
