

## Body Water Content

- Infants: 73% or more water (low body fat, low bone mass)
- Adult males: ~60% water
- Adult females: ~50% water (higher fat content, less skeletal muscle mass)
  - Adipose tissue least hydrated of all
- Water content declines to ~45% in old age

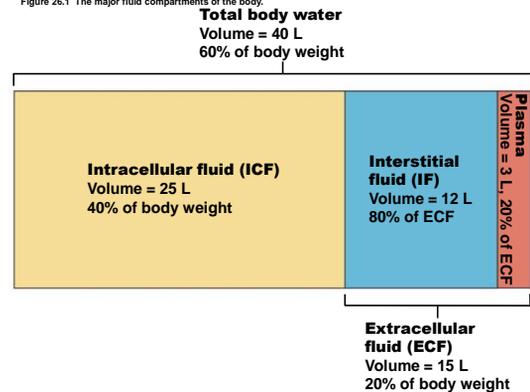
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## Fluid Compartments

- Total body water = 40 L
- Two main fluid compartments
  - **Intracellular fluid (ICF) compartment:** 2/3 in cells
  - **Extracellular fluid (ECF) compartment:** 1/3 outside cells
    - **Plasma:** 3 L
    - **Interstitial fluid (IF):** 12 L in spaces between cells
      - Usually considered part of IF: lymph, CSF, humors of the eye, synovial fluid, serous fluid, and gastrointestinal secretions

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Figure 26.1 The major fluid compartments of the body.



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## Electrolyte Concentration

- Expressed in milliequivalents per liter (mEq/L), measure of number of electrical charges per liter of solution

$$\text{mEq/L} = \frac{\text{ion concentration (mg/L)}}{\text{atomic weight of ion (mg/mmol)}} \times \text{no. of electrical charges on one ion}$$

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## Electrolyte Concentration

- For single charged ions (e.g. Na<sup>+</sup>), 1 mEq = 1 mOsm
- For bivalent ions (e.g. Ca<sup>2+</sup>), 1 mEq = 1/2 mOsm
- 1 mEq of either provides same amount of charge

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### Extracellular and Intracellular Fluids

- Each fluid compartment has distinctive pattern of electrolytes
- ECF
  - All similar
    - Major cation: Na<sup>+</sup>
    - Major anion: Cl<sup>-</sup>
  - Except: higher protein, lower Cl<sup>-</sup> content of plasma

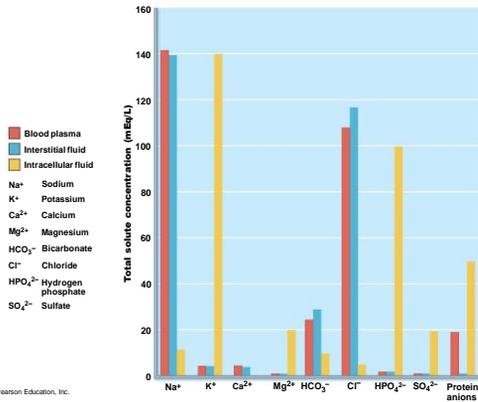
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### Extracellular and Intracellular Fluids

- ICF:
  - Low Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>
  - Major cation: K<sup>+</sup>
  - Major anion HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>
  - More soluble proteins than in plasma

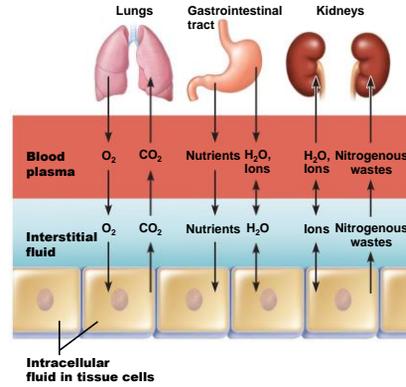
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Figure 26.2 Electrolyte composition of blood plasma, interstitial fluid, and intracellular fluid.



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Figure 26.3 Exchange of gases, nutrients, water, and wastes between the three fluid compartments of the body.



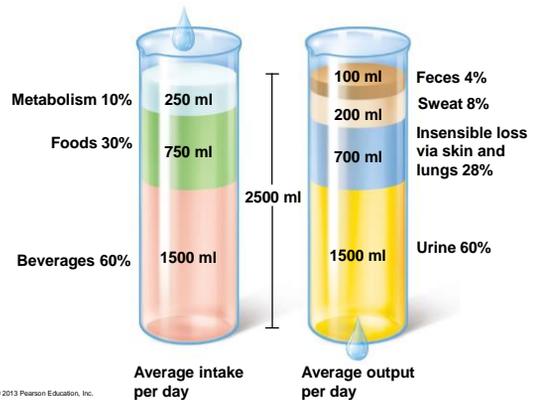
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### Water Balance and ECF Osmolality

- Water intake must = water output = ~ 2500 ml/day
- Water intake: beverages, food, and metabolic water
- Water output: urine (60%), **insensible water loss** (lost through skin and lungs), perspiration, and feces

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Figure 26.4 Major sources of water intake and output.



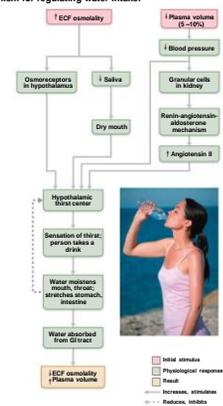
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## Maintenance of Body fluid Osmolality

- Osmolality maintained at ~ 280 – 300 mOsm
- Rise in osmolality →
  - Stimulates thirst
  - ADH release
- Decrease in osmolality →
  - Thirst inhibition
  - ADH inhibition

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Figure 26.5 The thirst mechanism for regulating water intake.



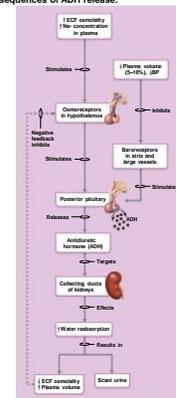
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## Regulation of Water Output: Influence of ADH

- Other factors may trigger ADH release
  - Large changes in blood volume or pressure
    - E.g.,  $\downarrow$  BP  $\rightarrow$   $\uparrow$  ADH release due to blood vessel baroreceptors and renin-angiotensin-aldosterone mechanism
    - Factors lowering blood volume: intense sweating, vomiting, or diarrhea; severe blood loss; traumatic burns; and prolonged fever

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Figure 26.6 Mechanisms and consequences of ADH release.



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## Disorders of Water Balance

- Principal abnormalities of water balance
  - Dehydration
  - Hypotonic hydration
  - Edema

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## Disorders of Water Balance: Hypotonic Hydration

- Cellular overhydration, or water intoxication
- Occurs with renal insufficiency or rapid excess water ingestion
- ECF osmolality  $\downarrow$   $\rightarrow$  hyponatremia  $\rightarrow$  net osmosis into tissue cells  $\rightarrow$  swelling of cells  $\rightarrow$  severe metabolic disturbances (nausea, vomiting, muscular cramping, cerebral edema)  $\rightarrow$  possible death
- Treated with hypertonic saline

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Figure 26.7b Disturbances in water balance.

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**(b) Consequences of hypotonic hydration (water gain).**  
If more water than solutes is gained, cells swell.

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## Disorders of Water Balance: Edema

- Atypical accumulation of IF → tissue swelling (not cell swelling)
- Result of ↑ fluid out of blood or ↓ fluid into blood
- ↑ fluid out of blood caused by
  - Increased capillary hydrostatic pressure or permeability
    - Capillary hydrostatic pressure increased by incompetent venous valves, localized blood vessel blockage, congestive heart failure, ↑ blood volume
    - Capillary permeability increased by ongoing inflammatory response

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## Edema

- ↓ fluid returning to blood result of
  - Imbalance in colloid osmotic pressures, e.g., **hypoproteinemia** (↓ plasma protein levels → low colloid osmotic pressure)
    - Fluids fail to return at venous ends of capillary beds
    - Results from protein malnutrition, liver disease, or glomerulonephritis

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## Electrolyte Balance

- Electrolytes are salts, acids, bases, some proteins
- **Electrolyte balance** usually refers only to salt balance
- Salts control fluid movements; provide minerals for excitability, secretory activity, membrane permeability
- Salts enter body by ingestion and metabolism; lost via perspiration, feces, urine, vomit

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## Central Role of Sodium

- Most abundant cation in ECF
  - Sodium salts in ECF contribute 280 mOsm of total 300 mOsm ECF solute concentration
- Only cation exerting *significant* osmotic pressure
  - **Controls ECF volume and water distribution**
  - Changes in Na<sup>+</sup> levels affects plasma volume, blood pressure, and ECF and IF volumes

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Table 26.2 Sodium Concentration and Sodium Content

Table 26.2 Sodium Concentration and Sodium Content		
	ECF Na <sup>+</sup> CONCENTRATION	BODY Na <sup>+</sup> CONTENT
<b>Homeostatic Importance</b>	ECF osmolality	Blood volume and blood pressure
<b>Sensors</b>	Osmoreceptors	Baroreceptors
<b>Regulation</b>	ADH and thirst mechanisms	Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone and ANP hormone mechanisms*

\*ADH and thirst are also required to maintain blood volume and for long-term control of blood pressure.

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### Regulation of Sodium Balance: Aldosterone

- Regardless of aldosterone presence
  - 65% Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorbed in proximal tubules; 25% reclaimed in nephron loops
  - Na<sup>+</sup> *never* secreted into filtrate
- Water in filtrate follows Na<sup>+</sup> *if ADH is present*
  - ↑ Na<sup>+</sup> in urine → ↑ water loss

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### Aldosterone

- **Aldosterone** → decreased urinary output; increased blood volume
  - By active reabsorption of remaining Na<sup>+</sup> in distal convoluted tubule and collecting duct
- Also causes increased K<sup>+</sup> secretion

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### Regulation of Sodium Balance: Aldosterone

- Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone mechanism main trigger for aldosterone release
  - Granular cells of JGC secrete renin in response to
    - Sympathetic nervous system stimulation
    - ↓ filtrate NaCl concentration
    - ↓ stretch (due to ↓ blood pressure) of granular cells

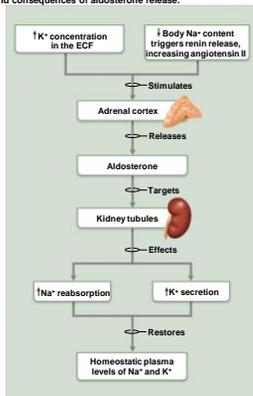
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### Regulation of Sodium Balance: Aldosterone

- Renin catalyzes production of **angiotensin II**
  - Prompts aldosterone release from adrenal cortex
  - ↑ Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorption by kidney tubules
- Aldosterone release also triggered by elevated K<sup>+</sup> levels in ECF
- Aldosterone brings about its effects slowly (hours to days)

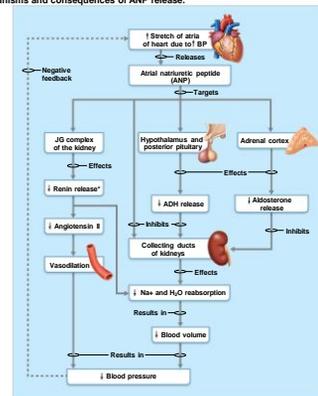
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Figure 26.8 Mechanisms and consequences of aldosterone release.



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Figure 26.9 Mechanisms and consequences of ANP release.



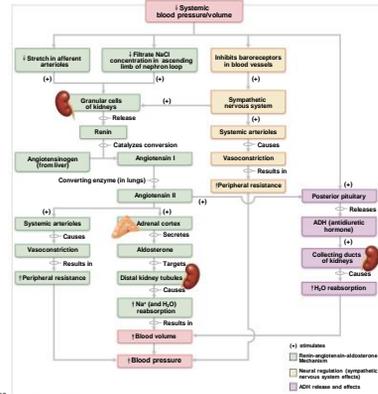
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## Influence of other Hormones

- Female sex hormones
  - Estrogens:  $\uparrow$  NaCl reabsorption (like aldosterone)
    - $\rightarrow$  H<sub>2</sub>O retention during menstrual cycles and pregnancy
  - Progesterone:  $\downarrow$  Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorption (blocks aldosterone)
    - Promotes Na<sup>+</sup> and H<sub>2</sub>O loss
- Glucocorticoids:  $\uparrow$  Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorption and promote edema

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Figure 26.10 Mechanisms regulating sodium and water balance help maintain blood pressure homeostasis.



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## Regulation of Potassium Balance

- Importance of potassium
  - Affects RMP in neurons and muscle cells (especially cardiac muscle)
    - $\uparrow$  ECF [K<sup>+</sup>]  $\rightarrow$   $\downarrow$  RMP  $\rightarrow$  depolarization  $\rightarrow$  reduced excitability
    - $\downarrow$  ECF [K<sup>+</sup>]  $\rightarrow$  hyperpolarization and nonresponsiveness

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## Regulation of Potassium Balance

- **Hyperkalemia** - too much K<sup>+</sup>
- **Hypokalemia** - too little K<sup>+</sup>
- Both disrupt electrical conduction in heart  $\rightarrow$ 
  - Sudden death

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## Regulation of Potassium Balance

- K<sup>+</sup> part of body's buffer system
- H<sup>+</sup> shifts in and out of cells in opposite direction of K<sup>+</sup> to maintain cation balance, so
  - ECF K<sup>+</sup> levels rise with acidosis
  - ECF K<sup>+</sup> levels fall with alkalosis
    - Interferes with activity of excitable cells

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## Influence of Plasma Potassium Concentration

- Most important factor affecting K<sup>+</sup> secretion is its concentration in ECF
- High K<sup>+</sup> diet  $\rightarrow$   $\uparrow$  K<sup>+</sup> content of ECF  $\rightarrow$  K<sup>+</sup> entry into principal cells  $\rightarrow$  K<sup>+</sup> secretion
- Low K<sup>+</sup> diet or accelerated K<sup>+</sup> loss reduces its secretion

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## Regulation of Potassium Balance

- Influence of aldosterone
  - Stimulates  $K^+$  secretion (and  $Na^+$  reabsorption) by principal cells
  - Adrenal cortical cells directly sensitive to  $K^+$  content of ECF
    - Increased  $K^+$  in adrenal cortex causes
      - Release of aldosterone →  $K^+$  secretion
- Abnormal aldosterone levels severely influence  $K^+$  levels

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## Regulation of Calcium

- 99% of body's calcium in bones
  - Calcium phosphate salts
- $Ca^{2+}$  in ECF important for
  - Blood clotting
  - Cell membrane permeability
  - Secretory activities
  - Neuromuscular excitability - most important

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## Regulation of Calcium

- **Hypocalcemia** → ↑ excitability and muscle tetany
- **Hypercalcemia** → inhibits neurons and muscle cells, may cause heart arrhythmias
- Calcium balance controlled by parathyroid hormone (PTH) from parathyroid gland
  - Rarely deviates from normal limits

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## Influence of PTH

- PTH promotes increase in calcium levels by targeting
  - Bones – osteoclasts break down matrix, releasing calcium and phosphate to blood
  - Kidneys – increases calcium reabsorption; decreases phosphate ion reabsorption
  - Small intestine – increases calcium absorption (indirectly through stimulation of kidney to activate vitamin D precursor)

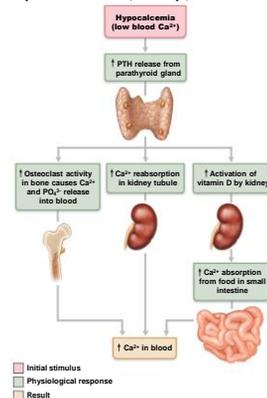
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## Influence of PTH

- 98% filtered calcium reabsorbed due to PTH
- If ECF calcium levels normal PTH secretion inhibited
- 75% of filtered phosphates reabsorbed in PCT
  - PTH inhibits this by decreasing the  $T_m$
- Phosphate reabsorption also affected by insulin (increases it) and glucagon (decreases it)

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Figure 16.13 Effects of parathyroid hormone on bone, the kidneys, and the intestine.



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## Regulation of Anions

- $\text{Cl}^-$  is major anion in ECF
  - Helps maintain osmotic pressure of blood
  - 99% of  $\text{Cl}^-$  is reabsorbed under normal pH conditions
- When acidosis occurs, fewer chloride ions are reabsorbed
- Other anions have transport maximums and excesses are excreted in urine

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## Acid-base Balance

- pH affects all functional proteins and biochemical reactions, so closely regulated
- Normal pH of body fluids
  - Arterial blood: pH 7.4
  - Venous blood and IF fluid: pH 7.35
  - ICF: pH 7.0
- **Alkalosis** or alkalemia: arterial pH >7.45
- **Acidosis** or acidemia: arterial pH <7.35

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## Acid-base Balance

- Most  $\text{H}^+$  produced by metabolism
  - Phosphorus-containing protein breakdown releases *phosphoric acid* into ECF
  - *Lactic acid* from anaerobic respiration of glucose
  - *Fatty acids* and *ketone bodies* from fat metabolism
  - $\text{H}^+$  liberated when  $\text{CO}_2$  converted to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in blood

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## Acid-base Balance

- Concentration of hydrogen ions regulated sequentially by
  - Chemical buffer systems: rapid; first line of defense
  - Brain stem respiratory centers: act within 1–3 min
  - Renal mechanisms: most potent, but require hours to days to effect pH changes

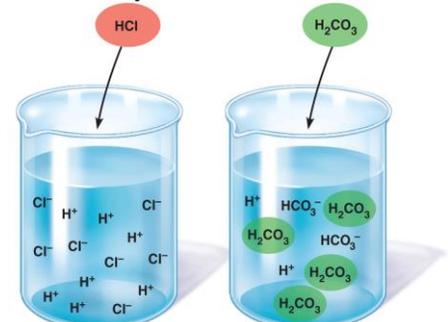
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## Acid-base Balance: Chemical Buffer Systems

- Strong acids dissociate completely in water; can dramatically affect pH
- Weak acids dissociate partially in water; are efficient at preventing pH changes
- Strong bases dissociate easily in water; quickly tie up  $\text{H}^+$
- Weak bases accept  $\text{H}^+$  more slowly

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Figure 26.11 Dissociation of strong and weak acids in water.



(a) A strong acid such as HCl dissociates completely into its ions.

(b) A weak acid such as  $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$  does not dissociate completely.

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## Chemical Buffer Systems

- Chemical buffer: system of one or more compounds that act to resist pH changes when strong acid or base is added
  - Bind  $H^+$  if pH drops; release  $H^+$  if pH rises
- 1. **Bicarbonate buffer system**
- 2. **Phosphate buffer system**
- 3. **Protein buffer system**

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## Phosphate Buffer System

- Action nearly identical to bicarbonate buffer
- Components are sodium salts of:
  - Dihydrogen phosphate ( $H_2PO_4^-$ ), a weak acid
  - Monohydrogen phosphate ( $HPO_4^{2-}$ ), a weak base
- Unimportant in buffering plasma
- Effective buffer in urine and ICF, where phosphate concentrations are high

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## Respiratory Regulation of $H^+$

- **Hypercapnia** activates medullary chemoreceptors
  - → Increased respiratory rate and depth
- Rising plasma  $H^+$  activates peripheral chemoreceptors
  - → Increased respiratory rate and depth
  - More  $CO_2$  is removed from the blood
  - $H^+$  concentration is reduced

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## Respiratory Regulation of $H^+$

- Alkalosis depresses respiratory center
  - Respiratory rate and depth decrease
  - $H^+$  concentration increases
- Respiratory system impairment causes acid-base imbalances
  - **Hypoventilation** → **respiratory acidosis**
  - **Hyperventilation** → **respiratory alkalosis**

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## Renal Mechanisms of Acid-Base Balance

- Most important renal mechanisms
  - Conserving (reabsorbing) or generating new  $HCO_3^-$
  - Excreting  $HCO_3^-$
- Generating or reabsorbing one  $HCO_3^-$  same as losing one  $H^+$
- Excreting one  $HCO_3^-$  same as gaining one  $H^+$

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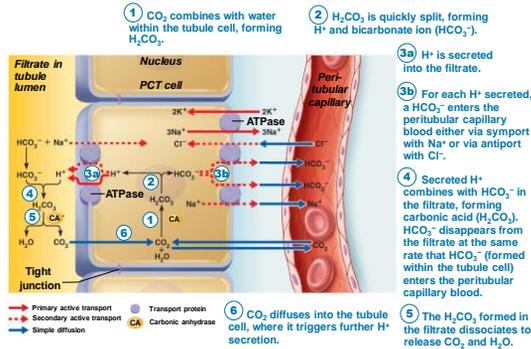
## Renal Mechanisms of Acid-base Balance

- Renal regulation of acid-base balance depends on kidney's ability to secrete  $H^+$
- $H^+$  secretion occurs in PCT and collecting duct type A intercalated cells:
  - The  $H^+$  comes from  $H_2CO_3$  produced in reactions catalyzed by carbonic anhydrase inside cells
  - As  $H^+$  secreted,  $Na^+$  reabsorbed
  - See Steps 1 and 2 of following figure

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Figure 26.12 Reabsorption of filtered  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is coupled to  $\text{H}^+$  secretion.

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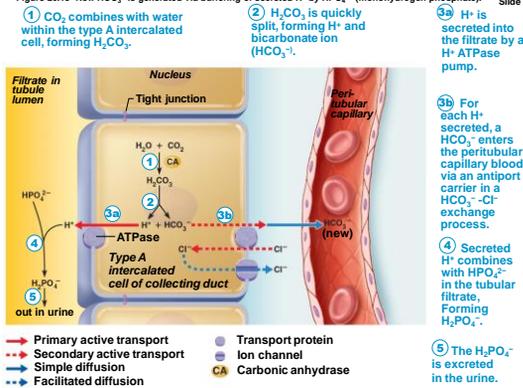
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## Renal Mechanisms of Acid-base Balance

- Rate of  $\text{H}^+$  secretion changes with ECF  $\text{CO}_2$  levels
  - $\uparrow \text{CO}_2$  in peritubular capillary blood  $\rightarrow \uparrow$  rate of  $\text{H}^+$  secretion
  - System responds to both rising and falling  $\text{H}^+$  concentrations

Figure 26.13 New  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is generated via buffering of secreted  $\text{H}^+$  by  $\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$  (monohydrogen phosphate).

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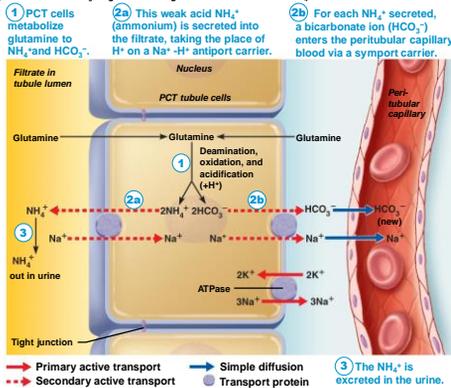
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## Ammonium Ion Excretion

- More important mechanism for excreting acid
- Involves metabolism of glutamine in PCT cells
- Each glutamine produces 2  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and 2 "new"  $\text{HCO}_3^-$
- $\text{HCO}_3^-$  moves to blood and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is excreted in urine
- Replenishes alkaline reserve of blood

Figure 26.14 New  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is generated via glutamine metabolism and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  secretion.

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## Bicarbonate Ion Secretion

- When body in alkalosis, type B intercalated cells
  - Secrete  $\text{HCO}_3^-$
  - Reclaim  $\text{H}^+$  to acidify blood

## Bicarbonate Ion Secretion

- Mechanism is opposite of bicarbonate ion reabsorption process by type A intercalated cells
- Even during alkalosis, nephrons and collecting ducts conserve more  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  than they excrete

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## Respiratory Acidosis and Alkalosis

- Most important indicator of adequacy of respiratory function is  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  level (normally 35–45 mm Hg)
  - $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  above 45 mm Hg → respiratory acidosis
    - Common cause of acid-base imbalances
    - Due to decrease in ventilation or gas exchange
    - $\text{CO}_2$  accumulates in blood
    - Characterized by falling blood pH and rising  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$

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## Respiratory Acidosis and Alkalosis

- $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  below 35 mm Hg → respiratory alkalosis
  - Common result of **hyperventilation** often due to stress or pain
    - $\text{CO}_2$  eliminated faster than produced

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## Metabolic Acidosis and Alkalosis

- Metabolic acidosis – low blood pH and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ 
  - Causes
    - Ingestion of too much alcohol (→ acetic acid)
    - Excessive loss of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  (e.g., persistent diarrhea)
    - Accumulation of lactic acid (exercise or shock), ketosis in diabetic crisis, starvation, and kidney failure

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## Metabolic Acidosis and Alkalosis

- Metabolic alkalosis much less common than metabolic acidosis
  - Indicated by rising blood pH and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$
  - Causes include vomiting of acid contents of stomach or by intake of excess base (e.g., antacids)

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## Respiratory Compensation

- Changes in respiratory rate and depth
- In metabolic acidosis
  - High  $\text{H}^+$  levels stimulate respiratory centers
  - Rate and depth of breathing elevated
  - Blood pH is below 7.35 and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  level is low
  - As  $\text{CO}_2$  eliminated by respiratory system,  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  falls below normal

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