



Last Minute!

REVISION

RENAL PHYSIOLOGY

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Lecture 1: Renal Functions and Glomerular Filtration

★ What are the functions of the kidney?

- **Regulation:** Water, electrolytes, body fluid osmolarity, ABP and acid-base.
- **Excretion :** Waste products (urea & Creatinine) and drugs.
- **Synthetic :** Activation of vit.D, Erythropoietin and Renin.

Primary function of the kidney is to CLEAR unneeded substances from blood to be excreted in urine

★ What is the functional and structural unit of the kidney? THE NEPHRON.

★ Types of a nephrons:

| Cortical (85%) | Juxtamedullary (15%) |
|---------------------------|----------------------|
| Glomeruli in outer cortex | Extend to medulla |
| Short loop of Henle | Long loop of Henle |

★ **Renal blood vessels:** Afferent > Glomeruli (capillaries) > Efferent > Peritubular (capillaries)

★ **How much from cardiac output goes to the kidneys? 20%** (1200 ml/min)

★ **Features of renal circulation:** 1) High blood flow 2) Two capillary beds

★ What are the steps of urine formation?

- Glomerular Filtration
- Tubular Reabsorption
- Tubular Secretion
- Excretion

● **Step 1: Glomerular Filtration:** Filtration of fluid from glomerular capillaries into renal tubules.

Which need to go through a barrier: **Glomerular Membrane, consists of three layers:**

- **Capillary Endothelium.**
- **Basement Membrane** (-ve charge).
- **Bowman's Epithelium** (podocytes).

★ **Glomerular Filtration Rate (GFR):** The rate of production of filtrate at the glomeruli from plasma per minute.

★ What are the factors determining GFR?

- **Net Filtration Pressure (NFP)**
- **Filtration coefficient (Kf)**

★ Thus GFR can be measured as : **GFR = NFP x Kf**

★ Factors Affecting GFR:

| ↑Increase GFR | ↓Decrease GFR |
|---|---|
| Afferent dilation, Efferent constriction, Angiotensin II, fever, hyperglycemia and High protein diet, | Afferent constriction, Efferent dilation, sympathetic stimulation (norepinephrine) and aging. |

Lecture 2: Regulation of Glomerular Filtration

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Definition of GFR | The volume of filtrate produced by both kidneys per min (125 ml/min) |
| Changes according to | According to the ABP -NFP (net force pressure) |
| Importance of regulation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To prevent loss of substances if it is high To prevent accumulation of substances (Azotemia develops) |
| How it is regulated? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autoregulation (within systolic pressure of 75-160 mmHg) Hormonal regulation Sympathetic |

✧ Autoregulation

Myogenic Regulation

- High BP** (GFR) pressure is going to the kidneys.
- blood will cause stretching of the arteriolar wall.
- Baroreceptors are stimulated causing.
- vasoconstriction of the Afferent arteriole
- GFR back to normal.
- Low BP** decreases the myogenic mechanism . (dilation)

Tubuloglomerular Feedback

-When the ABP is low :

macula densa cells will sense a drop of NaCl concentration and activation of paracrine secretions and renin release from juxtaglomerular cells

Afferent arteriolar dilation (so more blood coming in) effect of paracrine

Efferent arteriolar constriction. By renin

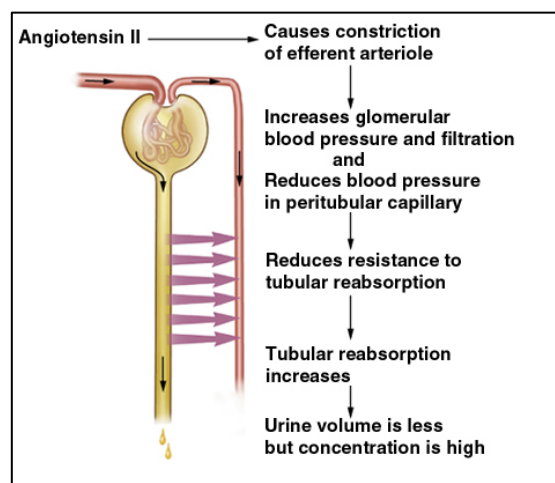
- When ABP is high :

Macula densa will sense the high concentration of NaCl .

Paracrine secretions cause **Afferent** arteriolar constriction

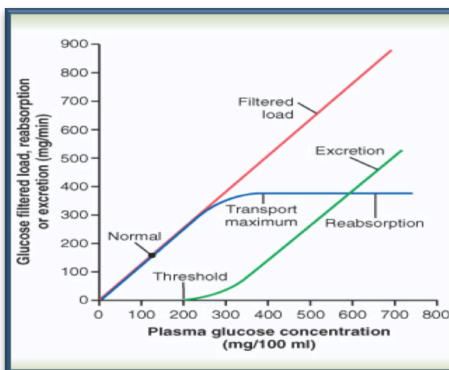
✧ Sympathetic Regulation:

When it is stimulated epinephrine cause vasoconstriction of the afferent arteriole
sympathetic also stimulates Angiotensin which cause vasoconstriction of the efferent



Lecture 3: Renal Clearance

| | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| Renal Clearance | Clearance is the volume of plasma that is completely cleared of a substance each minute | |
| Clearance Equation | $C_x = (U_x \times V) / P_x$ <p>C_x = renal clearance of a substance $(U_x \times V)$ = Excretion rate U_x = urinary concentration of a substance V = urine volume</p> | |
| Importance | 1-Measure GFR | 2-Measure RPF |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Creatinine (endogenous) •Inulin (exogenous) <p>These substances are freely filtered and NOT reabsorbed neither secreted.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Paraminohippuric acid (PAH) <p>Is rapidly and completely secreted by the renal tubular cells.</p> |
| | 3-Determine renal handling of a substance | Notes: |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • = inulin clearance; Only filtered not reabsorbed or secreted • < inulin clearance; Reabsorbed by nephron tubules • > inulin clearance; Secreted by nephron tubules | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Filtration fraction : It is the ratio of GFR to renal plasma flow •If excretion rate of a substance is greater than the filtered load, then the rate at which it appears in the urine represents the sum of the rate of glomerular filtration + tubular secretion |



- **TUBULAR TRANSPORT MAXIMUM** : molecules such as glucose and amino acids are reabsorbed via transporters which makes them susceptible to saturation (TM)
- Exceeding the threshold means some of the nephrons do not completely reabsorb (little glucose in the urine)
- Exceeding the tubular transport maximum means All the nephrons do not complete glucose reabsorption (glucose in urine)

Lecture 4: Physiology of Micturation

❖ Definition:

A complete autonomic spinal reflex to get urine out side the body, that is facilitated or inhibited by higher brain centers

URINE NEEDS TO GO THROUGH:

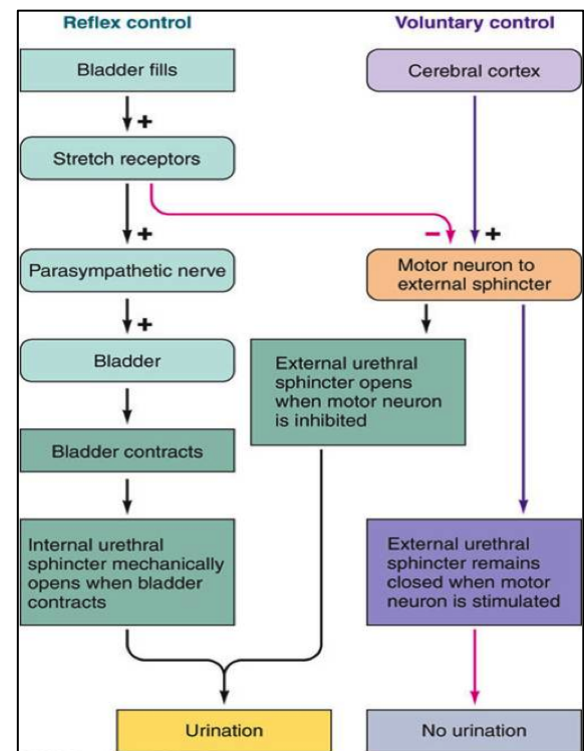
- Pelvis: Collect urine from collecting ducts.
- Ureter: Peristaltic contraction.*
- Bladder: Holds urine.
- Urethra: Get urine to the outside.

*Peristaltic waves: are initiated by pacemakers in renal pelvis.

- ❖ Interruption of the flow of urine by obstruction (eg: stones) > ↑Pressure (Back up) > to Pelvis > ↑Hydrostatic pressure of Bowmans' > Hydronephrosis
- ❖ The autonomic pain fibers in ureter accounts for pain in kidney stones.

❖ How micturation take place?

- ↑ intravesical pressure up to 300 ml > ↑ Bladder tone (stretch receptors in trigone very sensitive) > Signals get to pelvis nerves > Central S2, S3 & S4 > Parasympathetic:
 - ✓ Relax the sphincters
 - ✓ Contract the bladder
- Higher Control:
 - Facilitatory area: Pontine.
 - Inhibitory area: Midbrain



❖ Abnormality of micturition:

- **Effect of spinal cord transection:**
 - ✓ 1st Stage: Spinal shock: Unresponsive bladder.
 - ✓ 2nd Stage: No voluntary control.

Lecture 5&6: Tubular Reabsorption & Secretion

✧ Introduction:

Excreted urine = $GF^1 - TR^2 + TS^3$ - Water conservation

Transport within tubules occur through:

- **Active transport: Movement of substances against gradient.**
 - 1ary active transport: **need ATP** e.g $Na^{2+} - K^+$ ATPase & $H - K^+$ ATPase
 - 2ary active
- **Co-transport:** uses the ATP of 1ary active transport. down gradient of one substance mostly Na^{2+} both substances on same direction into the cell > يعني يتمصلح مع الصوديوم عشان يدخل للخلية
- E.g SGLT1/2 & $Na^{2+} - K^+ - 2Cl^-$.
- **Counter-transport:** same as co-transport but both substances on different direction
E.g $Na^{2+} - H^+$.
 - **Passive transport: Novement of substances with gradient.**
 - **Simple diffusion** : Cl^- & HCO_3^- , urea simple diffusion
 - **Facilitated diffusion:** glucose at basal border by GLUTs
 - **Osmosis:** either through ion channels or pinocytosis/exocytosis water mostly coupled with Na^{2+} . or **paracellular**

✧ Transport through tubules:

- **PCT⁴: "coarse adjustment"**

*Reabsorption:

- 65-70% of water and Na^{2+}
- 90% of HCO_3^- , Ca^{2+} , K^+ through passive diffusion
- 100% of glucose and amino acids through Na^{2+} -glucose co-transport / Na^{2+} -amino acids co-transport.

***Secretion:** Organic acids & bases (bile salts, oxalate, urate, catecholamines, some drugs)

● Why most of transport is in PCT?

- ✓ Many proteins = transport channels
- ✓ Rich in mitochondria → more receptors / ATP
- ✓ Brush border → wider surface area
 - **Loop of Henle:**
 - **Descending limb:** water permeable $Na - Cl$ impermeable 25% of water reabsorbed
 - **Ascending limb:** water impermeable $Na - Cl$ permeable (passive absorption)
 - **Thick ascending limb:** impermeable to water $Na^{2+} - K^+ - 2Cl^-$ cotransport

Results in hypo-osmolar filtrates

¹ Glomerular filtration

² Tubular reabsorption

³ Tubular secretion

⁴ Proximal convoluted tubules

- **Distal convoluted tubules: “fine adjustment”** It has 2 portions:
 - **Early:** same as thick ascending but have macula densa cells→ sense change in NaCl.
 - **Late:** here fine adjustment depending on what body needs “ hormonal control”:
 - ✓ **Aldosterone:** control reabsorption of NaCl and secret K (in late portion of DCT⁵ by)
 - ✓ **ADH(vasopressin):** absorb H₂O (in the late portion).
 - ✓ **Parathyroid hormone:** absorb Ca²⁺

Note: impermeable to urea

- **Medullary collecting ducts:** same as the late DCT but **highly permeable to urea.**

❖ **RECAP!! Solute handling:**

| Solute | PCT | Loop of Henle | DCT | Collecting ducts |
|------------------------|--|--|--|------------------|
| K⁺ | Passive absorption | Thin descending: non Thin ascending: passive Thick ascending :Na-K-2Cl | Aldosterone present secretion by principal cells | Same as DCT |
| HCO₃ | Only absorbed in PCT: HCO ₃ +H ⁺ = H ₂ CO ₃ +CA ⁶ =H ₂ O+ {CO ₂ }→Into the cell CO ₂ +H ₂ O +CA=H ₂ CO ₃ → HCO ₃ +H ⁺ into interstitium → vasa recta | | | |
| Na⁺ | Coupled with other solute co-transport | Thin descending: non Thin ascending: passive Thick ascending :Na ² -K ⁺ -2Cl | Aldosterone present active transport | Same as DCT |
| Glucose | Only absorbed in PCT : from tubular lumen to cell through Na-Glucose co-transport. from cell to interstitium GLUTs. 100% if not >375 mg/min | | | |
| H₂O | 65% reabsorption passive with Na | 25% thin descending: passive thin ascending: non thick ascending : non | Reabsorption Under ADH ⁷ control | Same as DCT |

❖ **Regulation of tubular reabsorption and secretion :**

- **Hormonal:**
 - ✓ Aldosterone: Na⁺ reabsorption and K⁺ , H⁺ excretion
 - ✓ PTH⁸: ↑ Ca²⁺ reabsorption and ↓PO₄ reabsorption
 - ✓ ADH: ↑water reabsorption in DCT and collecting tubules
 - ✓ ANP⁹: ↑ Na⁺ secretion and ↑ diuresis
- **Nervous:**
 - ✓ Sympathetic: ↑Na⁺ reabsorption
- **Other:**
 - ✓ Atrial pressure (hyprostatic): ↑ in it ↓reabsorption
 - ✓ Atrial oncotic pressure: ↑ in it ↑ reabsorption.

⁵ Distal convoluted tubules

⁶ Carbonic anhydrase

⁷ Antidiuretic hormone

⁸ Parathyroid hormone

⁹ Atrial natriuretic peptide

Lecture 7: Renal Regulation of Body Fluids

✧ Fluid Compartment:

- Fluid compartment is approximately 60% of the body weight.
- ICF = $\frac{2}{3}$ of TBW
- ECF = $\frac{1}{3}$ of TBW
- Plasma = $\frac{1}{4}$ of ECF
- Interstitial fluid = $\frac{3}{4}$ of ECF

✧ ECF :

- Osmolality of ECF is determined by the amount of extracellular NaCl and water, which depends upon balance between intake and excretion of these substances.
- Normal plasma Na⁺ = 140-145 mEq/L
- Osmolarity = 300 mOsm/L
- To stay in a state of fluid balance: Fluid intake = Fluid output

✧ Control of ECF osmolarity and sodium concentration :

- Is controlled by:
 - osmoreceptor-ADH feedback system
 - Thirst center
- Factors increase the thirst:
 - High osmolarity
 - Low ECF volume
 - Low blood pressure
 - Angiotensin II
- Gastric distention decrease the sensation of thirst

✧ Osmoreceptor mechanism:

High ECF osmolarity → Shrinkage of osmoreceptors (in anterior hypothalamus) → firing and send signal through supraoptic nuclei to posterior pituitary gland → release of ADH → enters the bloodstream → increase water reabsorption

- ADH synthesis is happening in supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei of the hypothalamus.
- ADH is released from posterior pituitary gland.
 - Non-osmotic stimuli; effect on ADH :
 - ✓ Low arterial blood volume → increase ADH
 - ✓ Drinking cooler fluid → decrease ADH
 - ✓ Hypoxia and hypercapnia → increase ADH
- Ang II & aldosterone don't have a major role in controlling the osmolarity of ECF.

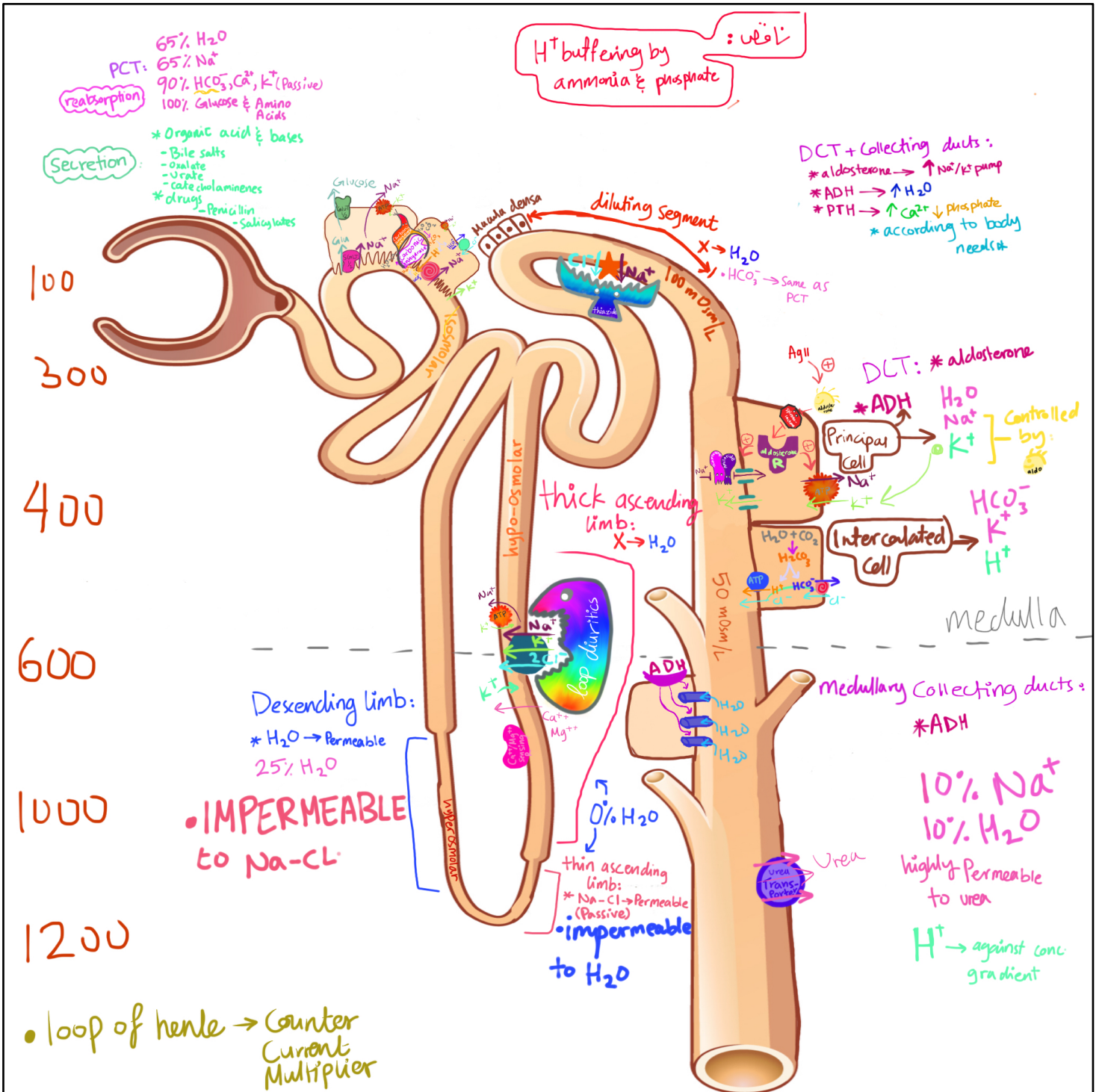
Lecture 8: Urine Concentration & Dilution

- **Diluting and concentrating mechanisms of the kidney**
 - Urine osmolality varies widely in response to changes in water intake.
 - Human urine osmolality may reach up to **1200 mOsm/L as concentrated urine** and may decrease to **50 mOsm/L as a diluted urine**.

- **Production of dilute urine:**
 - Produced when circulating ADH is low { e.g: water intake, [central diabetes insipidus](#) } or when ADH is ineffective { [nephrogenic diabetes insipidus](#) }
 - Mechanism **(NO ADH)**:
 - **PCT** → Solutes & H₂O absorbed in equal proportion (isosmotic with the plasma)
 - **Thick ascending loop of henle and early distal tubule** → tubular fluid diluted due to 1Na-1K-2Cl and impermeable to water even in the presence of ADH, tubular fluid osmolality = 100 mOsm/L .
 - **Late Distal tubule & collecting tubule** → tubular fluid becomes further diluted due to absence of ADH, tubular fluid osmolality = 50 mOsm/ L.

- **Production of concentrated urine:**
 - Two requirements is needed to form a concentrated urine :
 - ✓ High levels of ADH {water deprivation}
 - ✓ High osmolality of the renal medullary interstitial fluid
 - The High osmolality of the renal medullary interstitial fluid:
 - ✓ Is **established** by [countercurrent multiplication](#) and urea recycling.
 - ✓ is **maintained** by [countercurrent exchange](#) in the vasa recta.
 - The major factors creating hyperosmolar medulla:
 - ✓ Passive reabsorption of **NaCl** by the thin ascending limb of Henle.
 - ✓ Reabsorption of **Na⁺, 2Cl⁻, K⁺** by the thick ascending loop of henle.
 - ✓ Facilitated diffusion of large amounts of **urea** from the inner medullary collecting ducts.
 - Maintenance of hyperosmolar medulla:
 - The medullary blood flow is very small {removal of solutes is minimized}
 - [Countercurrent exchange](#) (vasa recta mechanism)

- **Any conditions increase medullary blood flow {[osmotic diuresis](#)} → decrease urine concentrating ability.**
- **Any conditions decrease medullary blood flow {[volume depletion](#)} → increase urine concentrating ability.**



Lecture 9&10: Basics of Acid Base & Buffer Systems

$\text{pH}\uparrow = \text{H}^+\downarrow = \text{Alkalosis}$

$\text{pH}\downarrow = \text{H}^+\uparrow = \text{Acidosis}$

✧ **pH=7.35 - 7.45**

- 6.8 - 8 more or less death occurs
- **Why important?** 1- Enzymes function 2- Effect electrolytes
3- Effect hormones 4- Maintain normal synapse

✧ **Sources of acids?** Food, Metabolism of protein and lipid and cellular metabolism.

✧ **Body defense:**

○ **1st line = Chemical buffer system**

✓ **Bicarbonate:**

Components: Sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO_3) and weak acid (carbonic acid)

Acts: in both extracellular (most important) and intracellular.

Concentration in blood = 22-27 mEq/L

✓ **Phosphate:** Major intracellular

○ **Why important in renal tubules?**

- 1- Concentrated (low permibility cannot be reabsorbed easily)
- 2- $\text{Pka}=6.8$ (close to PH in tubular fluid)
- ✓ **Protein:** most abundant (Hb, plasma protein, intracellular protein)

○ **2nd line = Physiological buffers**

✓ **Respiratory Mechanism**

- Only volatile Gas ,not Fixed gases like Lactic acid
- Sense the changes by chemoreceptors
- Central chemoreceptor sense CO_2 ,Prepheral sense H_2, CO_2
- Buffers by hyperventilation > wash CO_2 (in acidosis)
- Hypoventilation > accumulates CO_2 (in alkalosis)

✓ **Renal mechanism** *most effective buffer*

● **Action by 3 main process:**

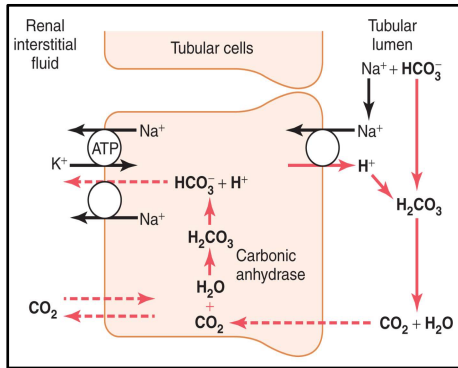
- 1-Reabsorb HCO_3
- 2-Generate new HCO_3
- 3-Excrete H^+

● **To excrete H^+ it has to be buffered:**

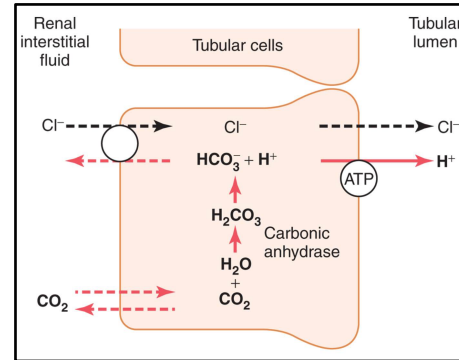
- **Ammonia forming ammonium $\text{NH}_3 > \text{NH}_4$**
- **Phosphate forming di-hydrogen phosphate**
- In PCT H^+ secreted & **New** one molecule of HCO_3 is formed (doesn't affect PH)
- In DCT & Collecting tubules gets rid of 80 mEq of H^+ per day ,most of H^+ combine with buffers but still it affect urine acidity (and also for each H^+ there is **New** HCO_3 formed).

Lecture 9&10: Basics of Acid Base & Buffer Systems *cont.*

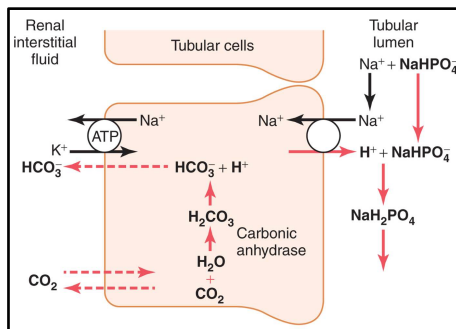
Reabsorption of HCO_3^- & secretion of H^+
In PCT



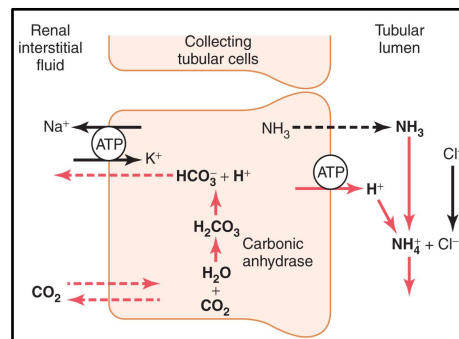
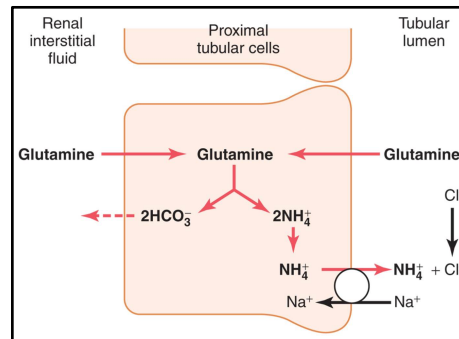
Generation of new HCO_3^- & secretion of H^+
In DCT & Collecting tubules



Secretion of H^+ & Phosphate Buffer



Secretion of H^+ & Ammonium formation
and Buffer



Lecture 11: Disorders of Acid Base

❖ What is Respiratory Acidosis?

↑ in PCO₂ (above 45 mmHg)

❖ What are the possible causes ?

- Depression of respiratory centres
- Paralysis of respiratory or chest muscles.
- Emphysema/COPD.
- Pulmonary edema.

❖ How will the body compensate?

- 1- Renal: reabsorption & forming new HCO₃ (↑ plasma HCO₃)
- 2- Buffers

❖ What is Respiratory Alkalosis?

An ↓ in PCO₂ (below 45 mmHg)

❖ What are the possible causes?

- Oxygen deficiency at high altitudes.
- »stimulate respiratory centres lead to decrease in plasma PCO₂(caused by hyperventilation)

❖ Compensation:

By renal increased renal excretion of HCO₃

❖ What is Metabolic Acidosis?

↓ in HCO₃ (below 22 mEq/L)

❖ Causes:

- Loss of bicarbonate e.g. severe diarrhea.
- Hypoaldosteronism.
- Accumulation of acids e.g. Diabetic ketosis

❖ Compensation:

- 1- Respiratory: By Increased ventilation rate
- 2- Renal : By adding new HCO₃ to the ECF

❖ Metabolic Alkalosis

↑ in HCO₃ (above 27 mEq/L)

❖ Causes:

- Excess vomiting = loss of stomach acid.
- Excessive use of alkaline drugs.
- Certain diuretics.
- Endocrine disorders: Hyperaldosteronism.
- Severe dehydration

❖ Compensation:

- 1- Respiratory: By Decreased ventilation rate, which raises PCO₂.
- 2- Renal: By increasing HCO₃ renal excretion

Lecture 11: Disorders of Acid Base cont.

RESPIRATORY ALKALOSIS

- Seizures
- Deep, Rapid Breathing
- Hyperventilation
- Tachycardia
- ↓ or Normal BP
- Hypokalemia
- Numbness & Tingling of Extremities
- Lethargy & Confusion
- Light Headedness
- Nausea, Vomiting
- Causes: Hyperventilation (Anxiety, PE, Fear) Mechanical Ventilation

RESPIRATORY ACIDOSIS

- Hypoventilation → Hypoxia
- Rapid, Shallow Respirations
- ↓ BP with Vasodilation
- Dyspnea
- Headache
- Hyperkalemia
- Dysrhythmias (↑K)
- Drowsiness, Dizziness, Disorientation
- Muscle Weakness, Hyperreflexia
- Causes: ↓ Respiratory Stimuli (Anesthesia, Drug Overdose) COPD Pneumonia Atelectasis

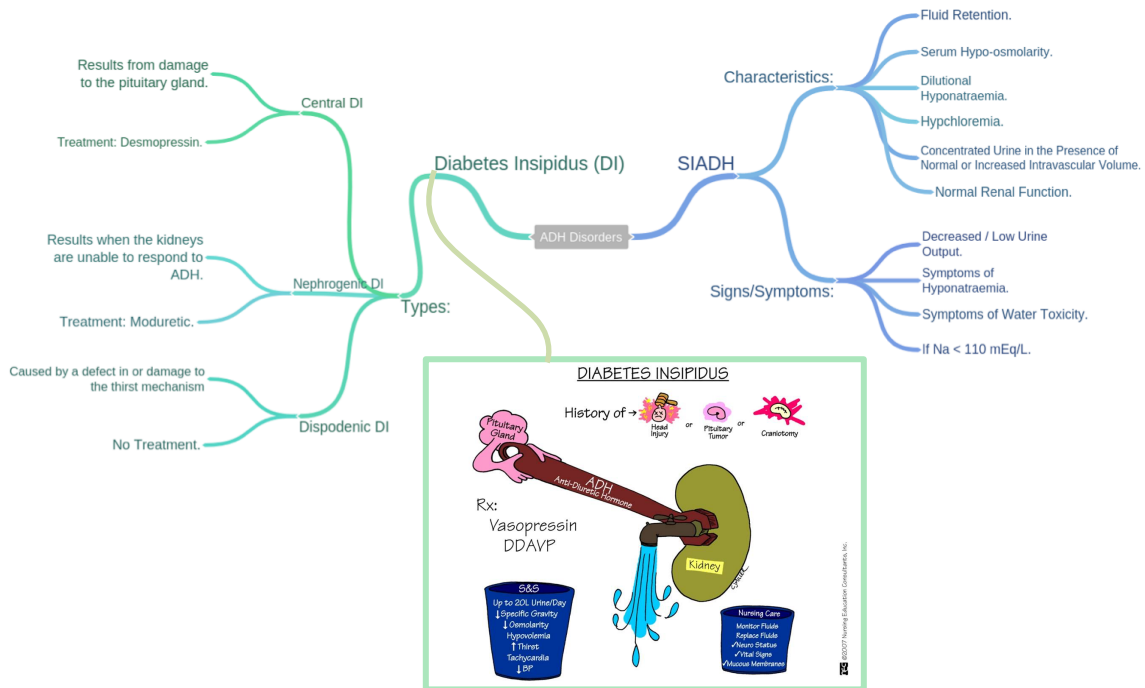
METABOLIC ALKALOSIS

- Restlessness Followed by Lethargy
- Dyarrhythmias (Tachycardia)
- Compensatory Hypoventilation
- Causes: Severe Vomiting Excessive GI Suctioning Diuretics Excessive NaHCO3
- Confusion (↓ LOC, Dizzy, Irritable)
- Nausea, Vomiting, Diarrhea
- Tremors, Muscle Cramps, Tingling of Fingers & Toes
- Hypokalemia

METABOLIC ACIDOSIS

- Headache
- ↓ BP
- Hyperkalemia
- Muscle Twitching
- Warm, Flushed Skin (Vasodilation)
- Nausea, Vomiting
- ↓ Muscle Tone, ↓ Reflexes (Confusion, Drowsiness)
- Kussmaul Respirations (Compensatory Hyperventilation)
- Causes: ↑ H+ Production (DKA, hypermetabolism) ↓ H+ Elimination (renal failure) ↓ HCO3- Production (ganglionection, liver failure) ↑ HCO3- Elimination (diarrhea, fistulae)

◇ Disorders of ADH secretion:



BEST OF LUCK