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# **Body Fluids & Electrolytes**

#### <u>objectives</u>

#### At the end of this session, the students should be able to:

- Identify and describe daily intake and output of water and maintenance of water balance.
- List and describe of body fluid compartments as intra-cellular fluid (ICF) Extra-cellular fluid (ECF), interstitial fluid, trans-cellular fluid and total body water (TBW).
- Describe the composition of each fluid compartment, in terms of volume and ions and represent them in graphic forms.
- Physiology factor influencing body fluid: age, sex, adipose tissue, etc. Pathological factors: Dehydration, fluid infusion.



• E.g.

- 70 kg man has 42 L of water.

– (Kg of water = L of water)

#### PERCENTAGE OF WATER IN THE BODY



## **FACTORS AFFECTING**

Infant: 73%

Male adult: 60%

Female adult: 40-50%

**Obesity** 

Old age 45%

# **Body Water Content**

- Infants have low body fat, low bone mass, and are 73% or more water.
- Total water content declines throughout life.
- Healthy males are about 60% water; healthy females are around 50%
  - This difference reflects females':
    - Higher body fat
    - Smaller amount of skeletal muscle
- In old age, only about 45% of body weight is water.

# Daily intake of water

TABLE 20-1 DAILY INTAKE AND OUTPUT OF WATER (in ml/day)			
	Normal	Prolonged, Hoavy Exercise	
Intake			
Fluids ingested	2100	2	
From metabolism	200	200	
Total intake	2300	?	
Output	ALL SALE		
Insensible-Skin	350	350	
Insensible-Lungs	350	650	
Sweat	100	5000	
Feces	100	100	
Urine	1400	500	
Total output	2300	6600	

#### **Water Intake and Output**



#### WATER TANK ANALOGY

Maintaining water homeostasis is a balancing act. The amount of water taken in must equal the amount of water lost.







# **Regulation of Water Intake**

## Climate

## **Habits**

# Level of physical activity.

# **Regulation of Water Intake**

• The hypothalamic **<u>thirst center</u>** is stimulated:

By a decline in plasma volume of 10%–15%
By increases in plasma osmolality of 1–2%

#### In steady state water intake = water loss

## Factors that affect the TBW

#### **Physiological factors:**

- Age
- Sex
- Body fat
- Climate
- Physical activity

#### **Pathological factors:**

- Vomiting
- Diarrhea
- Diseases with excessive loss of water (DM, excessive sweating,....
- Blood loss



# **Regulation of Fluid Balance**

#### Water deficit

- Leads to:
  - Hypovolemia
  - Dehydration
- Physiologic regulation:
- 1. Activates hypothalamic thirst centre  $\rightarrow \uparrow fluid$  intake

2.  $\uparrow$  ADH secretion by posterior pituitary  $\rightarrow$   $\uparrow$  water reabsorption by the kidney.

#### Water excess

- Leads to:
  - Hypervolemia.
  - Edema.
- **Physiologic regulation:**
- ↓ ADH secretion → ↓
   water reabsorption →
   ↑ water excretion by
   kidney.
- 2. Decrease thirst

## Fluid Compartments

• Water occupies two main fluid compartments:

- -Intracellular fluid (ICF)
- -Extracellular fluid (ECF)
  - Plasma
  - Interstitial fluid (IF)



#### **Fluid Compartments**





Guyton and Hall Textbook of Medical Physiology. 13th ed. Ch-25)



# **Intracellular fluid (ICF)**

• Inside the cell.

• 2/3 of TBW.

• High concentration of protein.

# Extracellular fluid (ECF)

Out side the cell.
 1/3 of <u>TBW</u>.

1- Plasma:

Fluid circulating in the blood vessels. 1/4 of <u>ECF</u>

**2- Interstitial fluid:** 

Fluid bathing the cell. Ultra filtration of plasma. 3/4 of <u>ECF</u>  Plasma and interstitial fluid are almost having the same composition except for high protein concentration in plasma. Calculate the total body water content of a 40-year-old 70kg man?

• TBW = 42 litres

INC. ATOM

- How many litres lie intracellularly?
  - > 42 X ⅔ = 28L OR 70 X 40/100 = 28L.
- How many litres lie extracellularly?
  - > 42 X ⅓ = 14L OR 70 X 20/100 = 14L.
- How many litres constitute the interstitial fluid?
- How many litres are plasma?

## **Composition of Body Fluids**

• Water is the universal solvent.

- Solutes are broadly classified into:
  - *Electrolytes* inorganic salts, all acids and bases, and some proteins
  - Nonelectrolytes examples include glucose, lipids, creatinine, and urea
  - Amount = in moles, osmoles.

## **concentration**

1- Molarity = moles/liter

(M/L)

#### 2- Osmolarity = osmoles/liter

#### (osm/L)

#### 3- Osmolality = osmoles/kg

(osm/kg)

# **In biological solutions:**

- Millimoles per liter (mM/L)
- Milliosmoles per (mOsm/L)
- 1mM=1/1000 M
- 1mOsm=1/1000 Osm

#### TABLE 20-2 OSMOLAR SUBSTANCES IN EXTRACELLULAR AND INTRACELLULAR FLUIDS

	Plasma (m0sm/liter of H <sub>2</sub> D)	Interstitial	Introcellular
Na*	142	139	14
K*	4.2	4.0	140
Ca <sup>++</sup>	1.3	1.2	0
Mg*	0.8	0.7	20
CI-	108	108	4
HCO,	24	28.3	10
HPO,, H,PO,-	2	2	11
SO,	0.5	0.5	1
Phosphocreatine			45
Carnosine			14
Amino acids	2	2	8
Creatine	0.2	0.2	9
Lactate	1.2	1.2	15
Adenosine triphosphate			5
Hexose monophosphate			37
Glucose	5.6	5.6	Gur
Protein	1.2	0.2	4
Urea	4	4	4
Others	4.8	3.9	10
Total mOsm/liter	301.8	300.8	301.2
Corrected osmolar activity (mOsm/liter)	282.0	281.0	281.0
Total osmotic pressure at 37° C (mm Hg)	5443	5423	5423

## **Constituents of ECF and ICF**



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## **Extracellular and Intracellular Fluids**

- Each fluid compartment of the body has a distinctive pattern of electrolytes.
- Extracellular fluids are similar (except for the high protein content of plasma)
  - Sodium is the chief cation
  - Chloride is the major anion

Intracellular fluid has low sodium and chloride

- Potassium is the chief cation
- Phosphate is the chief anion

 Each compartment must have almost the same concentration of positive charge (cations) as of negative charge (anion).

(Electroneutrality)



- Hypokalemia: decrease in K concentration in the ECF.
- 1-2 mEq/L

• Hyperkalemia: increase in K 60-100% above normal.

#### Hypernatremia:

*increase* in Na concentration in ECF.

Hyponatremia:

*decrease* in Na concentration in the ECF.

# osmosis

 Net diffusion of water from a region of high water concentration to region of low water concentration.

# Osmotic equilibrium is maintained between intracellular and extracellular fluids:

- Small changes in concentration of solutes in the extracellular fluid can cause tremendous change in cell volume.
- Intracellular osmolarity = extracellular osmolarity.
- ≈ 300 mosm/L

# What is Tonicity?

- **Osmolarity** describes the concentration of <u>one</u> solution.
- Tonicity is used to compare between the osmolarities of two or more solutions separated by a semi-permeable membrane.

#### Which solution is hypertonic to B?



# Osmosis


### Osmosis



## Osmosis

- If <u>environment</u> is:
  - -<u>Hypertonic</u>:
    - MORE SOLUTES outside cell
    - MORE WATER IN CELL
    - over time, cell loses water

### - <u>Isotonic</u>:

- same
- No change in cell volume

### -<u>Hypotonic</u>:

- LESS SOLUTES outside cell
- LESS WATER IN CELL, more solutes in cell.
- over time, cell gains water

### Isotonic solution :

- (not swell or shrink)
- 0.9% solution of sodium chloride or 5% glucose
- same in and out .

### Hypotonic solution :

- (swelling) 0.9%
- in is higher than out .

### **\*** Hypertonic solution :

- (shrink) **1**0.9%
- out is higher than in

## Glucose and other solutions administered for nutritive purposes

- People who can not take adequate amount of food.
- Slowly.
- Prepared in isotonic solution.

<u>Changes in The Body Fluid</u> <u>Compartments (ECF & ICF) and</u> <u>Edema</u>

### Osmosis



**Volumes And Osmolarities of ECF and ICF In Abnormal States.** 

- Some factors can cause the change:
  - dehydration

- intravenous infusion (IV)

- abnormal sweating.
- etc..

• Changes in volume :

### **1. Volume contraction.**

### 2. Volume expansion.

## **Changes in volume**

**Volume contraction** 

## removing

1- *isotonic* solution.

2- hypertonic solution.

3- *hypotonic* solution.

**Volume expansion** 

Adding

1- *isotonic* solution.

2- hypertonic solution.

3- *hypotonic* solution.

## What is Tonicity?

- **Osmolarity** describes the concentration of <u>one</u> solution.
- Tonicity is used to compare between the osmolarities of two or more solutions separated by a semi-permeable membrane.

### Which solution is hypertonic to B?



### 1- Loss of iso-osmotic fluid e.g. Diarrhea





## **Volume contraction:**

- 1. Diarrhea.
  - osmolarity of fluid lost ≈ osmolarity of ECF

(loss of isosmotic fluid).

- volume in ECF.
- larterial pressure.

## 2. Loss of hypotonic solution e.g. Water deprivation

NORMAL STATE





## 2. Water deprivation :

- Osmolarity and volume will change .

- Osmolarity in both ECF and ICF.

- Volume in both ECF and ICF.

### 3- Loss of hypertonic sol. e.g. Adrenal insufficiency

NORMAL STATE







# 3. Loss of hypertonic solution e.g. Adrenal insufficiency:

i.e. Aldosterone deficiency.

- Na<sup>+</sup> in the ECF.
- osmolarity in both .
- in ECF volume.
- in ICF volume.

#### NORMAL STATE



VOLUME CONTRACTION



### Adrenal insufficiency





Diarrhea



Liters

## **Volume Expansion**



### 1. Adding of isotonic NaCl.

## **Volume Expansion**

- 1. Infusion of isotonic NaCl.
- in ECF volume.

- No change in osmolarity.

- Isomotic expansion .



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### 2. High NaCl intake.

- teating salt.
- tosmolarity in both.
- volume of ICF .
- volume of ECF .
- hyperosmotic volume expansion.

## 3- Adding hypotonic solution e.g. Syndrome of inappropriate antidiurtic hormone (SIADH)





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• Edema occurs mainly in the ECF compartment

# **Objectives**

- Define edema and describe its different types.
- Discuss and describe the Starling forces governing fluid exchange across capillary walls.
- Link changes in hydrostatic and osmotic pressures to the pathogenesis of edema.

Study source for this lecture:

(Guyton & Hall Textbook of Medical Physiology, 13th ed, pages: 316-320 & 191-201)

## Edema





- What is "edema"?
  - Edema = swelling
  - The presence of abnormally large amounts of fluid in the intercellular tissue spaces of the body.







# **Types of Edema**

Edema occurs mainly in the ECF compartment, but it can involve the ICF compartment as well.



## Intracellular Edema:



## **Extracellular Edema**

- Extracellular edema = the abnormal accumulation of fluid in intercellular tissue space (i.e. interstitial space).
- Normally, fluid is constantly moving in & out of the interstitial space to allow ECF to distribute between plasma and IF.
- This process happens without fluid accumulating between the cells.
- What happens to cause fluid to accumulate between the cells leading to edema?
- To understand EC edema one must first understand how fluid exchange occurs between capillaries and tissue cells.

## **Extracellular Edema**

# common clinical cause is excessive capillary fluid filtration.



## Fluid Exchange Between Blood & Interstitial Fluid

- Fluid exchange between blood and tissue cells occurs at the level of the capillaries.
- Capillaries are the smallest blood vessels in our vascular tree.
- They are very small and have a very thin wall allowing easy exchange of fluid across the walls.





### **Fluid Filtration Across Capillaries**

### As blood passes through capillaries


## Factors Controlling Fluid Filtration Across Capillary Walls

Movement of fluids across capillary walls depends on the balance of *starling forces* acting across the capillary wall.

#### **Starling Forces**



## Starling Forces Acting Across Capillary Membrane



- <u>4 primary forces determine whether fluid moves in or out</u> of blood "Starling forces":
  - Capillary "*hydrostatic*" pressure  $\rightarrow$  out of blood.
  - IF "*hydrostatic*" pressure  $\rightarrow$  into blood if +ve and out of blood if -ve.
  - − Plasma *colloid osmotic* pressure  $\rightarrow$  into blood.
  - − IF *colloid osmotic* pressure  $\rightarrow$  out of blood.

## Starling Forces Acting Across Capillary Membrane

- Capillary *hydrostatic pressure (Pc)*:
  - Arterial end = 30 mmHg
  - Venous end = 10 mmHg (usually 15-25 mmHg less than arterial end).
- IF hydrostatic pressure (Pif) is usually subatmospheric in loose connective tissue (≈ -3 mmHg). Because Pif is negative it will actually favour filtration rather than oppose it.
- Plasma *colloid osmotic pressure* ( $\pi_p$ ) = 28 mmHg.
- IF *colloid osmotic pressure* ( $\pi$ *if*) = 8 mmHg.

#### Forces that Determine Fluid Movement through Capillary Membrane



## **The Lymphatic System**

The reabsorption pressure causes 9/10 of the filtered fluid to be reabsorbed while 1/10<sup>th</sup> remains in the IF.. What happens to this 1/10<sup>th</sup>?

The total quantity of lymph ≈ 2-3L/day.



# Edema

#### • Two main reasons:

- 1. Abnormal leakage of fluid from plasma to interstitial space.
- 2. Failure of lymphatic uptake.



# Edema

#### **Increase capillary filtration**

- 1. Increased capillary pressure
  - Kidney failure
  - Heart failure.
  - Venous obstruction

### 2. Decreased plasma oncotic pressure

- Loss of proteins (nephrotic syndrome, burns).
- Inability to synthesize proteins (liver failure, malnutrition).

### 3. Increased capillary permeability

- Inflammation
- Infection.
- Immune reactions.

#### **Decrease lymph uptake**

#### Lymphatic obstruction

- Infection (filaria).
- Surgery.
- Congenital absence.
- Cancer.

# Edema





Cell membrane structure & transport across cell membrane

## objectives

- Describe the fluid mosaic model of membrane structure and function.
- Define permeability and list factors influencing permeability.
- Identify and describe carried-mediated transport processes: Primary active transport, secondary active transport, facilitates diffusion.
- Differentiate between passive and active transport mechanisms and give examples on each.

**#Study source for this lecture: (Guyton & Hall Textbook of Medical Physiology,** 13<sup>th</sup> edition) **#** 

## **Cell Membran**

- Envelops the cell.
- Thin, pliable and elastic.
- 7 10 nanometer thick.
- Also, referred to as the plasma membrane .



### Composition

#### Lipoprotein

protein 55%

phospholipids 25% cholesterol 13% glycolipid 4%

carbohydrates 3%

## The Cell Membrane Phospholipids Consist Of :

- Glycerol head (hydrophilic).
- Two fatty acid "tails" (hydrophobic).



ICF

ECF

## **The Cell Membrane Proteins**





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## **The Cell Membrane Proteins.**

- 1. Integral proteins span the membrane .
- Proteins provide structural <u>channels</u> or <u>pores</u>.
- <u>Carrier</u> proteins.

#### 2. Peripheral proteins

- -Present in one side.
- Hormone receptors .
- Cell surface antigens .







#### **The Cell Membrane Carbohydrates:**

- **Glycoproteins** (most of it).
- **Glycolipids** (1/10)
- Proteoglycans (mainly carbohydrate substance bound together by protein)
- "glyco" part is in the surface forming.
- Glycocalyx (Carbohydrate molecules protrude to the outside of the cell forming a loose carbohydrate coat "glycocalyx"



# **Function Of Carbohydrates:**

- Attaches cell to each others.
- Act as receptors substances (help ligend to recognize its receptor).
- Some enter in to **immune reactions**.
- Give most of cells overall -ve surface.

## **Transport Through The Cell Membrane**

• Cell membrane is *selectively permeable*.

- Through the **proteins**.
  - Water-soluble substances e.g. ions, glucose ..
- Directly through the **bilayer**.
  - Fat-soluble substance (O2, CO2, N2, alcohol..



#### **Types Of Membrane Transport**

#### **1- Diffusion**

a) simple diffusion.b) facilitated diffusion.

#### 2- Active transport.

- a) primary active transport.
- b) secondary active transport.

#### 3- Osmosis.



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## Diffusion

Random movement of substance either through the membrane directly or in combination with carrier protein <u>down</u> an electrochemical gradient.

- 1- Simple diffusion.
- 2- facilitated diffusion.

- Simple and facilitated diffusion Do NOT require input of energy = powered by concentration gradient or electrical gradient.

- Active transport = uses ATP.

### Diffusion Through the Plasma



(a) Simple diffusion directly through the phospholipid bilayer



in transport protein

(c) Channel-mediated facilitated diffusion through a channel protein: mostly ions selected on basis of size and charge

Small lipid-

(d) Osmosis, diffusion through a specific channel protein (aquaporin) or through the lipid bilayer

Q<sup>1</sup>

Water

molecules

# **Simple Diffusion**

- Non-carrier mediated transport down an electrochemical gradient.
- Diffusion of non-electrolytes (uncharged) from high concentration to low concentration.
- Diffusion of electrolytes (charged) depend on both chemical, as will as, electrical potential difference.

#### **Rate Of Simple Diffusion Depend On:**

- **1- Amount of substance available.**
- 2- The number of opening in the cell membrane for the substance (pores).

selective gating system

- **3- Chemical concentration difference.**
- 4- Electrical potential difference.
- 5- Molecular size of the substance.
- 6- Lipid solubility.

Rate of diffusion = P X A (C1-C2)

 P = Permeability coefficient.
a.Temperature. b. Size of molecule. c. Solubility in lipids. d. Thickness of membrane.

**2.** A = surface area.

- **3. C1-C2 = gradient difference:**
- a. Concentration difference
- b. b. Electrical difference.
- c. Pressure difference.

## **Facilitated Diffusion**

• <u>Carrier mediated</u> transport down an electrochemical gradient.

• E.g. glucose & amino acids.

**Facilitated diffusion**—the process that allows selective movement in and out of the **cell membrane**.



Cytoplasm

BiologyWise.com

### **Features Of Carrier Mediated Transport**

### (Facilitated diffusion)

#### 1- saturation:

f concentration —→f binding of protein If all protein is occupied we achieve full saturation.

i.e. The rate of diffusion reaches a maximum (Vmax) when all the carriers are functioning as rapidly as possible.

#### 2- stereopecificity:

The binding site recognize a specific substance D-glucose but not L-glucose.






## What limits maximum rate (Vmax) of facilitated diffusion? Number of carriers

### **3- Competition:**

# Chemically similar substance can compete for the same binding site.

D-galactose / D-glucose.

Substance → binding site → substance protein complex → conformational changes → release of substance

### **Active Transport:**

- Transport (<u>uphill</u>) \_\_\_\_ against electrochemical gradient.
  Required energy\_\_\_\_ direct. indirect.
- Required carrier protein.

## **1- Primary Active Transport:**

- -Energy is supplied directly from ATP. ATP  $\longrightarrow$  ADP +P+ energy.
- A. Sodium-Potassium pump (Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup> pump).
  - its present in all cell membranes.
  - 3 Na<sup>+</sup> in  $\longrightarrow$  out.
  - 2 K<sup>+</sup> out  $\longrightarrow$  in.

Discovery

Na+/K+-ATPase was discovered by <u>Jens Christian</u>
 <u>Skou</u> in 1957.

 In 1997, he received one-half of the <u>Nobel Prize</u> in <u>Chemistry</u>.





## **Characteristic Of The Pump:**

- 1. Carrier protein is formed from  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits.
- 2. Binding site for Na inside the cell.
- 3. Binding site for K outside the cell.
- 4. It has ATPase activity.
- 5. 3 Na out.
- 6. 2 K in.

## **Function:**

- Maintaining Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> concentration difference .
- 2. It's the basis of nerve signal transmtion .
- 3. Maintaining –ve potential inside the cell.
- 4. Maintains a normal cell volume.

# B. primary active transport of calcium (Ca<sup>2</sup>+ ATPase).

- sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR).
- mitochondria.
- in some cell membranes.

#### **Function:**

Maintaining a low Ca<sup>2</sup>+ concentration inside the cell.

#### C. primary active transport of hydrogen ions H<sup>+</sup>-K ATPase.

- stomach.
- kidneys.
- pump to the lumen.
- H<sup>+</sup>-K ATPase inhibitors (treat ulcer disease). (omeprazol)

## 2) Secondary Active Transport:

#### • Co- transport and countertransport:

is transport of one or more solutes against an electrochemical gradient ,coupled to the transport of another solute down an electrochemical gradient

- "downhill" solute is Na.
- Energy is supplied indirectly form primary transport.

#### • Co-transport:

- All solutes move in the same direction

" inside cell".

- e.g. Na<sup>+</sup> glucose Co-transport.
  - Na<sup>+</sup> amino acid Co-transport.
  - in the intestinal tract kidney.





#### • Countertransport:

- Na<sup>+</sup> is moving to the interior causing other substance to move out.
- Ca<sup>2</sup>+ Na<sup>+</sup> exchange.
   (present in many cell membranes)
- Na<sup>+</sup> H<sup>+</sup> exchange in the kidney.



# **Electrolyte Concentration**

- Expressed in milliequivalents per liter (mEq/L), a measure of the number of electrical charges in one liter of solution.
- mEq/L = (concentration of ion in [mg/L]/the atomic weight of ion) × number of electrical charges on one ion.
- For single charged ions, 1 mEq = 1 mOsm
- For bivalent ions, 1 mEq = 1/2 mOsm