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ACIDIFICATION OF THE URINE & BICARBONATE EXCRETION

H⁺ Secretion

- The cells of the proximal and distal tubules, like the cells of the gastric glands, secrete hydrogen ions .
- Acidification also occurs in the collecting ducts.
- The reaction that is primarily responsible for H⁺ secretion in the proximal tubules is <u>Na⁺-H⁺</u> <u>exchange</u>.
- This is an example of secondary active transport; extrusion of Na⁺ from the cells into the interstitium by <u>Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase</u> lowers intracellular Na⁺, and this causes Na⁺ to enter the cell from the tubular lumen, with coupled extrusion of H⁺.

H⁺ Secretion

- +The H⁺ comes from intracellular dissociation of H₂CO₃, and the HCO₃⁻ that is formed diffuses into the interstitial fluid.
- Thus, for each H⁺ ion secreted, one Na⁺ ion and one HCO₃⁻ ion enter the interstitial fluid.
- Carbonic anhydrase catalyzes the formation of H₂CO₃, and drugs that inhibit carbonic anhydrase depress both secretion of acid by the proximal tubules and the reactions which depend on it.



Secretion of acid by proximal tubular cells in the kidney. H⁺ is transported into the tubular lumen by an antiport in exchange for Na⁺. Active transport by Na⁺-K⁺ ATPase is indicated by arrows in the circle. Dashed arrows indicate diffusion.

H⁺ Secretion

- This is in contrast to what occurs in the distal tubules and collecting ducts, where H⁺ secretion is relatively independent of Na⁺ in the tubular lumen.
- In this part of the tubule, most H⁺ is secreted by an ATP-driven proton pump.

H⁺ Secretion

- Aldosterone acts on this pump to increase distal H⁺ secretion.
- The I cells in this part of the renal tubule secrete acid and, like the parietal cells in the stomach, contain abundant carbonic anhydrase and numerous tubulovesicular structures.
- Some of the H⁺ is also secreted by H⁺-K⁺ ATPase.

Fate of H⁺ in the Urine

- The amount of acid secreted depends upon the subsequent events in the tubular urine.
- The maximal H⁺ gradient against which the transport mechanisms can secrete in humans corresponds to a urine pH of about 4.5, ie, an H⁺ concentration in the urine that is 1000 times the concentration in plasma.
- pH 4.5 is thus the limiting pH.
- If there were no buffers that "tied up" H⁺ in the urine, this pH would be reached rapidly, and H⁺ secretion would stop.
- However, three important reactions in the tubular fluid remove free H⁺, permitting more acid to be secreted.
- These are the reactions with HCO₃⁻ to form CO₂ and H₂O, with HPO₄²⁻ to form H₂PO₄⁻, and with NH₃ to form NH₄⁺.



 Fate of H⁺ secreted into a tubule in exchange for Na⁺. Top: Reabsorption of filtered bicarbonate via CO₂. Middle: Formation of monobasic phosphate. Bottom: Ammonium formation. Note that in each instance one Na⁺ ion and one HCO₃⁻ ion enter the bloodstream for each H⁺ ion secreted. A⁻, anion.

Reaction With Buffers

- In the proximal tubule, most of the secreted H⁺ reacts with HCO₃⁻ to form H₂CO₃.
- The H_2CO_3 breaks down to form CO_2 and H_2O .
- In the proximal (but not in the distal) tubule, there is carbonic anhydrase in the brush border of the cells; this facilitates the formation of CO₂ and H₂O in the tubular fluid.
- The CO₂, which diffuses readily across all biological membranes, enters the tubular cells, where it adds to the pool of CO₂ available to form H₂CO₃.
- Since most of the H⁺ is removed from the tubule, the pH of the fluid is changed very little.
- This is the mechanism by which HCO₃⁻ is reabsorbed; for each mole of HCO₃⁻ removed from the tubular fluid, 1 mole of HCO₃⁻ diffuses from the tubular cells into the blood,

Reaction With Buffers

- Secreted H⁺ also reacts with dibasic phosphate (HPO₄²⁻) to form monobasic phosphate (H₂PO₄⁻).
- This happens to the greatest extent in the distal tubules and collecting ducts,
- The reaction with NH₃ occurs in the proximal and distal tubules.
- H⁺ also combines to a minor degree with other buffer anions.

Ammonia Secretion

- Reactions in the renal tubular cells produce NH₄⁺ and HCO₃⁻.
- NH_4^+ is in equilibrium with $NH_3^+ + H^+$ in the cells.
- Since the pK' of this reaction is 9.0, the ratio of NH₃ to NH₄⁺ at pH 7.0 is 1:100.
- However, NH₃ is lipid-soluble and diffuses across the cell membranes down its concentration gradient into the interstitial fluid and tubular urine.
- In the urine it reacts with H⁺ to form NH₄⁺, and the NH₄⁺ remains in the urine.



Subsequent metabolism of α -ketoglutarate utilizes 2H⁺, freeing 2HCO₃⁻.

Major reactions involved in ammonia production in the kidneys.

Ammonia Secretion

- The principal reaction producing NH₄⁺ in cells is conversion of glutamine to glutamate.
- This reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme glutaminase, which is abundant in renal tubular cells.
- Glutamic dehydrogenase catalyzes the conversion of glutamate to α-ketoglutarate, with the production of more NH₄⁺.
- Subsequent metabolism of α-ketoglutarate utilizes 2H⁺, freeing 2HCO₃⁻.

Factors Affecting Acid Secretion

- Renal acid secretion is altered by changes in the intracellular PCO₂, K⁺ concentration, carbonic anhydrase level, and adrenocortical hormone concentration.
- When the PCO₂ is high (respiratory acidosis), more intracellular H₂CO₃ is available to buffer the hydroxyl ions and acid secretion is enhanced, whereas the reverse is true when the PCO₂ falls.
- K⁺ depletion enhances acid secretion, apparently because the loss of K⁺ causes intracellular acidosis even though the plasma pH may be elevated.
- Conversely, K⁺ excess in the cells inhibits acid secretion.
- When carbonic anhydrase is inhibited, acid secretion is inhibited, because the formation of H₂CO₃ is decreased.
- Aldosterone and the other adrenocortical steroids that enhance tubular reabsorption of Na⁺ also increase the secretion of H⁺ and K⁺.

Bicarbonate Excretion

 Although the process of HCO₃⁻ reabsorption does not actually involve transport of this ion into the tubular cells, <u>HCO₃⁻ reabsorption is</u> proportionate to the amount filtered over a relatively wide range.

Bicarbonate Excretion

- When the plasma HCO₃⁻ concentration is low, all the filtered HCO₃⁻ is reabsorbed; but when the plasma HCO₃⁻ concentration is high, ie, above 26-28 meq/L (*the renal threshold for HCO₃⁻*), HCO₃⁻ appears in the urine and the urine becomes alkaline.
- Conversely, when the plasma HCO₃⁻ falls below about 26 meq/L, the value at which all the secreted H⁺ is being used to reabsorb HCO₃⁻, more H⁺ becomes available to combine with other buffer anions.
- Therefore, the lower the plasma HCO₃⁻ concentration drops, the more acidic the urine becomes and the greater its NH₄⁺ content.

Implications of Urinary pH Changes

- Depending upon the rates of the interrelated processes of acid secretion, NH₄⁺ production, and HCO₃⁻ excretion, the pH of the urine in humans varies from 4.5 to 8.0.
- Acids are buffered in the plasma and cells, the overall reaction being HA + NaHCO₃ → NaA + H₂CO₃.
- The H₂CO₃ forms CO₂ and H₂O, and the CO₂ is expired, while the NaA appears in the glomerular filtrate.
- To the extent that the Na⁺ is replaced by H⁺ in the urine, Na⁺ is conserved in the body.
- Furthermore, for each H⁺ ion excreted with phosphate or as NH₄⁺, there is a net gain of one HCO₃⁻ ion in the blood, replenishing the supply of this important buffer anion.

Implications of Urinary pH Changes

- Conversely, when base is added to the body fluids, the OH⁻ ions are buffered, raising the plasma HCO₃⁻.
- When the plasma level exceeds 28 meq/L, the urine becomes alkaline and the extra HCO₃⁻ is excreted in the urine.
- Because the rate of maximal H⁺ secretion by the tubules varies directly with the arterial PCO₂, HCO₃⁻ reabsorption also is affected by the PCO₂.

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Regulation of Extracellular Fluid Composition & Volume

DEFENSE OF H⁺ CONCENTRATION

- The pH notation is a useful means of expressing H⁺ concentrations in the body, because the H⁺ concentrations happen to be low relative to those of other cations.
- Thus, the normal Na⁺ concentration of arterial plasma that has been equilibrated with red blood cells is about 140 meq/L, whereas the H⁺ concentration is 0.00004 meq/L.
- <u>The pH, the negative logarithm of 0.00004, is therefore</u> <u>7.4.</u>
- Of course, a decrease in pH of 1 unit, eg, from 7.0 to 6.0, represents a tenfold increase in H⁺ concentration.
- It is important to remember that the pH of blood is the pH of true plasma—plasma that has been in equilibrium with red cells—because the red cells contain hemoglobin, which is quantitatively one of the most important blood buffers.

H⁺ Balance

- The pH of the arterial plasma is normally 7.40 and that of venous plasma slightly lower.
- Technically, acidosis is present whenever the arterial pH is below 7.40, and alkalosis is present whenever it is above 7.40, although variations of up to 0.05 pH unit occur without untoward effects.

H⁺ Balance

- Amino acids are utilized in the liver for gluconeogenesis, leaving as products NH₄⁺ and HCO₃⁻ from their amino and carboxyl groups.
- The NH₄⁺ is incorporated into urea and the protons that are formed are buffered intracellularly by HCO₃⁻, so little NH₄⁺ and HCO₃⁻ escape into the circulation.
- However, metabolism of sulfur-containing amino acids produces H₂SO₄, and metabolism of phosphorylated amino acids such as phosphoserine produces H₃PO₄.
- These strong acids enter the circulation and present a major H⁺ load to the buffers in the ECF.



• Role of the liver and kidneys in the handling of metabolically produced acid loads. Sites where regulation occurs are indicated by asterisks.

H⁺ Balance

- The H⁺ load from amino acid metabolism is normally about 50 meq/d.
- The CO₂ formed by metabolism in the tissues is in large part hydrated to H₂CO₃, and the total H⁺ load from this source is over 12,500 meq/d.
- However, most of the CO₂ is excreted in the lungs, and only small quantities of the H⁺ remain to be excreted by the kidneys.

H⁺ Balance

- Common sources of extra acid loads are strenuous exercise (lactic acid), diabetic ketosis (*acetoacetic acid and 8-hydroxybutyric acid*), and ingestion of acidifying salts such as NH₄Cl and CaCl₂, which in effect add HCl to the body.
- Failure of diseased kidneys to excrete normal amounts of acid is also a cause of acidosis.
- Fruits are the main dietary source of alkali.
- but a more common cause of alkalosis is loss of acid from the body as a result of vomiting of gastric juice rich in HCl. This is, of course, equivalent to adding alkali to the body.

Buffering

- Intracellular and extracellular pH are generally maintained at very constant levels.
- For example, the pH of the ECF is 7.40, and in health, this value usually varies less than ±0.05 pH unit.
- Body pH is stabilized by the buffering capacity of the body fluids.
- A buffer is a substance that has the ability to bind or release H⁺ in solution, thus keeping the pH of the solution relatively constant despite the addition of considerable quantities of acid or base.

Buffering

- One buffer in the body is carbonic acid. This acid is only partly dissociated into H⁺ and bicarbonate:
 H₂CO₃ ↔ → H⁺ + HCO₃⁻.
- If H⁺ is added to a solution of carbonic acid, the equilibrium shifts to the left and most of the added H⁺ is removed from solution.
- If OH⁻ is added, H⁺ and OH⁻ combine, taking H⁺ out of solution. However, the decrease is countered by more dissociation of H₂CO₃, and the decline in H⁺ concentration is minimized.
- Other buffers include the blood proteins and the proteins in cells .

- The general equation for a buffer system is
- $HA \leftrightarrow H+ + A-$

A⁻ represents any anion and HA the undissociated acid.

- If an acid stronger than HA is added to a solution containing this system, the equilibrium is shifted to the left.
- Hydrogen ions are "tied up" in the formation of more undissociated HA, so the increase in H⁺ concentration is much less than it would otherwise be.
- Conversely, if a base is added to the solution, H⁺ and OH⁻ react to form H₂O; but more HA dissociates, limiting the decrease in H⁺ concentration.

- By the law of <u>mass action</u>, the product of the concentrations of the products in a chemical reaction divided by the product of the concentration of the reactants at equilibrium is a constant:
 - [H] [A-]/[HA] = K

- If this equation is solved for H⁺ and put in pH notation (pH is the negative log of [H⁺]), the resulting equation is that originally derived by Henderson and Hasselbalch to describe the pH changes resulting from addition of H⁺ or OH⁻ to any buffer system (Henderson-Hasselbalch equation):
 - $PH = PK + \log [A-] / [AH]$

- It is apparent from these equations that the buffering capacity of a system is greatest when the amount of free anion is equal to the amount of undissociated HA, ie, when [A⁻]/[HA] = 1, so that log [A⁻]/[HA] = 0 and pH = pK.
- This is why the most effective buffers in the body would be expected to be those with pKs close to the pH in which they operate.

DEFENSE OF TONICITY

- The defense of the tonicity of the ECF is primarily the function of the vasopressin-secreting and thirst mechanisms.
- The total body osmolality is directly proportionate to the <u>total body sodium plus the</u> total body potassium divided by the total body <u>wate</u>r, so that changes in the osmolality of the body fluids occur when there is a disproportion between the amount of these electrolytes and the amount of water ingested or lost from the body.
- When the effective osmotic pressure of the plasma rises, vasopressin secretion is increased and the thirst mechanism is stimulated.

DEFENSE OF TONICITY

- Conversely, when the plasma becomes hypotonic, vasopressin secretion is decreased and "solute-free water" (water in excess of solute) is excreted.
- In this way, the tonicity of the body fluids is maintained within a narrow normal range.
- In health, plasma osmolality ranges from 280 to 295 mosm/kg of H₂O, with vasopressin secretion maximally inhibited at 285 mosm/kg and stimulated at higher values .

DEFENSE OF VOLUME

- The volume of the ECF is determined primarily by the total amount of osmotically active solute in the ECF.
- Since Na⁺ and Cl⁻ are by far the most abundant osmotically active solutes in ECF, and since changes in Cl⁻ are to a great extent secondary to changes in Na⁺, the amount of Na⁺ in the ECF is the most important determinant of ECF volume.
- Therefore, the mechanisms that control Na⁺ balance are the major mechanisms defending ECF volume.
- There is, however, a volume control of water excretion as well; a rise in ECF volume inhibits vasopressin secretion, and a decline in ECF volume produces an increase in the secretion of this hormone.
- Volume stimuli override the osmotic regulation of vasopressin secretion.

DEFENSE OF VOLUME

- Angiotensin II stimulates aldosterone and vasopressin secretion.
- It also causes thirst and constricts blood vessels, which help to maintain blood pressure.
- Thus, angiotensin II plays a key role in the body's response to hypovolemia.
- In addition, expansion of the ECF volume increases the secretion of ANP and BNP by the heart, and this causes natriuresis and diuresis.



 Defense of ECF volume by angiotensin II. ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme.