The Urinary System

Urine production and elimination are one of the most important mechanisms of body homeostasis

all body systems are directly or indirectly affected by kidney function

eg. composition of blood is determined more by kidney function than by diet

main function of kidneys is to get rid of metabolic wastes

→typically referred to as "excretory system"

excretory wastes = metabolic wastes

→ chemicals & toxins produced by cells during metabolism

General Functions of Urinary System:

1. removal of metabolic wastes & toxins

but we have several organs that serve an **excretory function** other than kidneys:

- 1. kidneys
- 2. skin

sweat glands rid body of water, minerals, some nitrogenous wastes (ammonia)

3. lungs

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rid body of CO₂ from energy metabolism of cells

4 liver

liver excretes bile pigments, salts, calcium, some toxins

- 2. elimination of excess nutrients & excess hormones
- 3. helps to regulate blood volume & pressure

blood pressure is directly affected by the volume of fluids retained or removed from body:

eg. excessive salts promote water retention greater volume → increases BP

eg. dehydration lower volume → decreases BP

- 4. regulation of electrolytes & body pH
- 5. regulates erythropoiesis

kidneys produce hormone = **erythropoietin** that regulates erythropoiesis:

hypoxic \rightarrow secretes more erythropoietin excessive O_2 inhibits hormone production

6. aids in calcium absorption

affects the absorption of Calcium from intestine by helping to activate Vitamin D circulating in blood

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Anatomy of Urinary System

Organs:

kidneys - clean and filter blood

ureters – tubes that take urine to bladderbladder – stores urine until eliminatedurethra – removes urine from body

1. kidneys

dorsal body wall

retroperitoneal → behind parietal peritoneum

just above waist

surrounded by renal capsule

→ barrier against trauma and spread of infections

hilum = indentation where vessels and ureter attach

Frontal Section of Kidney

cortex

outer zone of kidney

medulla

interior of kidney

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extensions of the cortex = **renal columns** divides the medulla into 6-10 **renal pyramids**

papilla of each pyramid nestled in cup shaped calyces

calyces converge to form renal pelvis

2. ureters

the rest of urinary system is "plumbing"

renal pelvis funnels urine to paired **ureters**→tubular extensions of renal pelvis

peristalsis moves urine along to bladder

3. bladder

small, size of walnut when empty

can hold up to 800 ml (24 oz) voluntarily up to 2000 ml (60 oz) when obstructed

wall consists of 4 layers (same as GI tract)

mucosa -innermost layer

secretes mucous for protection from corrosive effects of urine

submucosa -fibrous connective tissue

muscularis -several smooth muscle layers

serosa -visceral peritoneum

involuntary internal & voluntary external urethral sphincters

as bladder expands to hold urine

- → activates stretch receptors in wall that monitor volume
- → when volume exceeds 200 ml the receptor signals enter our conscious perception = desire to urinate

4. urethra

male:

dual function:

- → rid body of urine
- → release of seminal fluid during orgasm

female:

single function: rids body of urine

shorter

→ more prone to UTI's

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Histology of Kidney

nephron = functional units of kidneys

each kidney is composed of over 1 million nephrons

two basic parts:

1. nephric tubule

= microscopic, highly convoluted tubule

2. associated blood supply

can find various parts of the nephron and its blood supply in the **cortex** and **medulla** of kidney

Nephric Tubule

the nephric tubule is organized into several discrete structures:

Bowman's Capsule

cup shaped mouth of nephron usually in cortex

Proximal Convoluted Tubule

attached to Bowman's Capsule highly coiled (convoluted) inner surface contains microvilli

Loop of Henle

large loop consisting of: descending limb & ascending limb extends down into medulla

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Distal Convoluted Tubule

appears similar to PCT

Collecting Tubule

many DCT's drain into one collecting tubule bundles of collecting tubules = **pyramids**

Pyramids drain into **Calyces** (sing. = **calyx**)

Calyces coalesce to form pelvis

Blood Supply

kidneys are highly vascularized

every minute, 1200 ml/min of blood flows through kidneys

 \rightarrow =1/5th of cardiac output

45 gallons/day; all blood ~60x's/day

more blood perfuses the kidney per weight than any other organ

(much more than eg. brain, heart, liver, etc)

within the kidney, bloodflow is greatest in the cortex where glomeruli are located; flow decreases with depth in the medulla

Renal Artery

brings blood to kidney

ightarrowbranches eventually into afferent arterioles

Afferent Arteriole

bring blood to individual nephrons

Glomerulus

dense capillary bed formed by afferent arteriole inside Bowman's capsule

Bowman's Capsule + Glomerulus = Renal Corpuscle

Efferent Arteriole

blood leaves glomerulus via efferent arteriole
[→ artery→capillary bed→ artery]

Peritubular Capillaries

efferent arteriole divides into another capillary bed surrounds the rest of the nephric tubule (PCT-LH-DCT-CT)

Renal Vein

returns blood to vena cava

Urinary Physiology

urine formation in nephrons occurs by:

- 1. filtration
- 2. reabsorption
- 3. secretion

1. Filtration

occurs in renal corpuscle:

Glomerulus → Bowmans Capsule

water, salts, small molecules and wastes are filtered out of blood

capillaries of glomerulus:

fenestrated capillaries

→ act like sieve molecules less than 10,000MW

have **higher filtration pressure** than other capillaries of body

afferent arteriole is larger than efferent arteriole

→ increases pressure in glomerulus pressure ~55mmHg

(vs 35mmHg in most capillaries)

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kidneys can maintain a fairly constant filtration rate

→ changes in arterial pressure from 80 to 180 mmHg produce little change in blood flow and filtration rate in glomerulus

if blood pressure is reduced below this urine formation slows down

filtrate is essentially the same composition as **plasma** without formed elements or proteins

solutes (filtrate) enter Bowmans capsule

2. Tubular Reabsorption

urine is not the same composition as this filtrate

Composition of Plasma, Filtrate & Urine (solids in grams/24hrs; water in liters/24 hrs)					
			Reabsorbed		
	Plasma	Filtrate	Amount	%	Urine
Proteins	8,000	15	15	100.0%	0
Glucose	180	180	180	100.0%	0
Salts	1,498	1,498	1,486	99.1%	12
Water	180	180	178	99.2%	1.5
Urea	50	50	25	50.0%	25
Uric Acid	8	8	7.2	90.0%	0.8
Creatinine	1.5	1.5	0	0.0%	1.8

most of the filtrate is reabsorbed

overall, ~99% of glomerular filtrate gets reabsorbed →only ~1% of original filtrate actually leaves the body as urine

→reabsorption is more selective

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needed nutrients are conserved wastes and toxins are eliminated blood levels of fluids, salts, acidity etc are actively regulated

main metabolic wastes removed by kidneys are "nitrogen wastes":

- 1. urea
- 2. uric acid
- 3. creatinine

1. urea

main nitrogen containing waste produced during metabolism formed in liver as result of protein breakdown

concentration in urine mainly determined by dietary intake\

uric acid
 end product of nucleic acid metabolism
 some is also secreted by PCT

 creatinine normal end product of muscle metabolism

occurs all along nephric tubule

but different substances are reabsorbed back into blood from different parts of tubule:

Proximal Convoluted Tubule

~80% of materials to be reabsorbed are reabsorbed in PCT

cells lining PCT have microvilli

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all small proteins, glucose, amino acids are reabsorbed

most water, most salts are reabsorbed

Loop of Henle

additional Cl^+ and Na^+ ions are reabsorbed by active transport

under the control of **aldosterone** (mineralocorticoids)

secretion controlled by salt concentrations in tissue fluids

also affects reabsorption of water (water follows salt)

Distal Convoluted Tubule & Collecting Tubule

additional water is reabsorbed

under control of ADH (antidiuretic hormone)

No ADH → tubules are practically impermeable to water

with ADH → tubules are permeable to water

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3. Tubular Secretion

cells of DCT and CT can also actively **secrete** some substances

```
esp K^+ and H^+ HCO_3^- NH_4 some drugs (eg. penecillin)
```

usually urine is slightly acidic

→ normal diet produces more acid than alkaline waste products

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Urine Analysis

the kidneys perform their homeostatic functions of controlling the composition of internal fluids of body

the by-product of these activities is Urine

urine contains a high concentration of solutes

in a healthy person, its volume, pH and solute concentration vary with the needs of body

during certain pathologies, the characteristics of urine may change dramatically

an analysis of urine volume, physical and chemical properties can provide valuable information on the internal conditions of the body

Physical Characteristics

eg. Volume

```
normal = 1000 - 1800ml/day (2-3.5 pints)
influenced by:
blood pressure
blood volume
temperature
diuretics
mental state
```

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general health

eg. Color

```
normal = yellow-amber (from hemoglobin breakdown)
```

eg. pH

```
normal urine is slightly acidic: 5.0 - 7.8 influenced by:
```

```
diet

eg. high protein → acidic
vegetables → alkaline
metabolic disorders:
eg. lungs, kidneys, digestive system, etc
```

eg. Cells and Castings

normally find epithelial cells and some bacterial cells

Bacteria

```
< 100-1000/ml = contamination by normal flora
>100,000/ml = indicates active colonization of urinary
system
```

RBC's & WBC's

presence is almost always pathological inflammation of urinary organs

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pus from infections

Chemical Characteristics

eg. proteins

```
normally too large to filter out
presence indicates increased permeability of glomerular
membrane due to:
injury
high blood pressure
irritation
toxins
```

eg. glucose

normally, all is filtered and all reabsorbed body reabsorbs as much as is needed

when it appears in urine indicates high blood sugar concentrations

→ symptom of diabetes mellitis

eg. ketones

produced when excessive quantities of fats are being catabolized

```
high quantities may be caused by:
diabetes
starvation
dieting
→too little carbohydrates in diet
```

The Aging Urinary System

kidneys show lots of atrophy in old age

- → from ages 25 to 85; number of nephrons declines by 30 – 40%
- → up to 1/3rd of remaining glomeruli become atherosclerotic, bloodless and nonfunctional

kidneys of 90 yr old man are 20 – 40% smaller than those of a 30 yr old and receive only half as much blood

proportionately less efficient at clearing wastes

→ while renal function remains adequate there is little reserve capacity

reduced renal function is a significant factor in overmedication of the aged
→drug doses often have to be reduced

water balance is more difficult

→ kidneys become less responsive to ADH and sense of thirst is blunted

voiding and bladder control become problematic: ~80% of men over 80 are affected by benign prostatic hyperplasia that compresses the urethra

- → reduces force of urine stream
- → makes it harder to empty bladder

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Disorders of Urinary System

Acute or Chronic Renal Failure (or renal insufficiency)

most serious disorder of urinary system

nephrons can regenerate and restore kidney function after shortterm injuries or individual nephrons can enlarge to compensate

 \Rightarrow a person can survive with as little as $1/3^{\text{rd}}$ of one kidney

when 75% are lost the remaining cannot maintain homeostasis

result is azotemia and acidosis

may also lead to anemia

Cystitis (=bladder infection)

most are ascending infections→ move up urethra from outside

especially common in women

if untreated bacteria can spread up ureters to cause pyelitis or infection of pelvis

if infection reaches renal cortex and nephrons = pyelonephritis

kidney infections can also result from invasion by blood borne pathogens (=descending infection)

Kidney Stones

=Renal Calculus is a hard granule of calcium, phosphate, uric acid and protein

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form in renal pelvis

usually small enough to pass into urine flow

older women become increasingly subject to

incontinence can also result from senescence of

→ esp if pelvic wall muscles have been

weakened by pregnancy and childbearing

incontinence

sympathetic NS

sometimes are up to several centimeters $\,$ and block pelvis or \backslash ureter

ightarrow leads to destruction of nephrons as pressure builds in kidney

a large, jagged stone passing down ureter can stimulate strong contractions that can be excruciatingly painful

can also damage ureter and cause hematuria

causes:

hypercalcemia dehydration pH imbalances frequent UTI's enlarged prostate causing urine retention

(largest stone on record: 3 lbs 16" x14" in body cavity)

Fluid & Electrolyte Balance

body is ~2/3^{rds} water (males=63%; women=52%)

balance means: **input = output**

Inputs

digestive tract: food and drink

food ~1200ml/d; beverages ~1000ml/d

metabolism: each cell produces water in catabolism of glucose

250-300ml/d

Outputs

1. urine (kidneys)

main loss, ~1500ml/d

2. lungs: water vapor expired with air

at rest skin and lungs loose ~900ml/d

3. sweat (skin)

in hot environment with vigorous exercise can lose up to

4. feces (intestines)

normally small losses, ~100ml

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output is crucial element in control of fluids and electrolytes

most important output organ is kidney

major control of urine volume is reabsorption of water

reabsorption can be controlled to make output match input

controlled by two major hormones:

ADH Aldosterone

additional factors that can affect fluid loss:

- urine volume can also be affected by amount of solutes in urine
 - → the more solutes the more urine

Diabetes mellitis
excess glucose spills over into urine
causes excess water to enter nephric tubule by
osmosis
results in excessive water loss & dehydration

2. hyperventilation

over extended time can lose significant water from lungs

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may result in dehydration

- 3. excessive **sweating** up to 4L/hour
- 4. prolonged vomiting or diarrhea

Electrolyte Composition of Fluids

fluids in the body contain critical electrolytes and other solutes:

cations: Na⁺; Ca⁺⁺; K⁺; Mg⁺⁺ anions: Cl⁻; CHO3⁻; HPO4⁻⁻; Proteins

These electrolytes function:

- 1. essential nutrients or building blocks
- serve critical role in regulation of various metabolic pathways
- 3. affecting membrane potentials of muscle and nerve cells
- control water movement between compartments by affecting osmotic pressures
- 5. help to regulate pH of body fluids

Water Balance Disorders

eg. dehydration

output > input

caused by:

excessive sweating water deprivation chronic diarrhea excessive vomiting

eg. athletes can lose up to 4l of water/hour but can only safely take in ~2l/hr

Blood loses water \rightarrow ECF loses water \rightarrow cells lose water

infants & elderly more likely to suffer dehydration since their kidneys are less able to conserve water

treatment: replace water and lost electrolytes

eg. water intoxication

input > output

often happens after dehydration

→ water is taken in too quickly without electrolytes

input \rightarrow to blood \rightarrow to tissue spaces \rightarrow to cells

can cause edema as water collects in ISF

causes cells to swell as it moves from tissue spaces into cells

especially affects cells sensitive to ion concentrations: muscle and nerve cells

can result in: heat cramps convulsions confusion coma

eg. edema

=abnormal accumulation of water in ECF

caused by:

decreases in plasma proteins due to liver disease kidney disease starvation obstruction of lymphatic vessels increased venous pressure increased capillary permeability eg. inflammation sunburn

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Acid/Base Balance

some of most critical ions in body fluids are H⁺ (hydrogen) and OH⁻ (hydroxyl) ions

the concentrations of these two ions affect the acidity or alkalinity of body fluids

acidity/alkalinity is measured on pH scale

1pH unit = 10 fold change in [H⁺] pH of 7 is neutral pH < 7: more H⁺, fewer OH⁻ pH > 7: fewer H⁺, more OH⁻

large organic molecules, especially proteins, are extremely sensitive to changes in pH

→ easily denatured

since proteins serve a wide variety of roles in the body (enzymes, fibers, carriers, hormones, oxygen transport, immunity, etc)

variations in pH affect almost every aspect of physiology and cell metabolism

even slight changes in pH can be fatal blood = 7.35 - 7.45 ≤7 or ≥7.8 is fatal

various acids and bases continually enter and leave body:

in foods and drink gastric secretions bicarbonates from pancreas

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etc

acids and bases are also made as a normal part of metabolism:

breakdown of proteins, carbohydrates lipids and nucleic acids produce acids: amino acids, fatty acids, pyruvic acid, etc

waste products like CO_2 and ammonia are turned into acids in the blood

need some mechanism to neutralize them:

body is protected against large changes in pH in two step process:

 buffers – absorb excess hydrogen or hydroxyl ions to prevent drastic changes in pH

2. elimination – acids (or bases) are removed

from body by: **kidneys**

- can secrete H⁺ and HCO₃-

lungs

– as CO₂ is eliminated H⁺ are converted

to water

skin

- can excrete some acids in sweat

Buffers

a buffer is a substance that prevents marked changes in pH of a solution when acids or bases are added

eg. 1 drop of HCl in pure water $pH = 7 \longrightarrow 3.5$

1 drop of HCl in plasma

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pH = 7.41 → 7.27

→ blood is buffered

buffers act by combining with strong acids or bases and taking them out of solution

→ "absorbs" the H or OH ions

major buffers in body fluids:

bicarbonate phosphate hemoglobin plasma proteins

all buffers have limited capacity

→buffering alone cannot maintain homeostasis indefinitely

at some point the acids and bases must actually be removed from the body

two main removal systems:

- 1. Respiratory Mechanisms
- 2. Excretory Mechanisms

Respiratory Mechanisms

respiration plays vital role in removing excess acids

with each expiration, CO_2 and therefore H^+ are

removed

$$CO_2 + H_2O$$
 $\xrightarrow{\text{carbonic anhydrase}} H_2CO_3 \longrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^-$

pH receptors in arteries can increase or decrease respiratory rate based on buildup of acids in blood

acidosis → stimulates hyperventilation

Excretory Mechanisms

cells of DCT and CT can secrete H+ & HCO3-

if blood pH decreases below normal levels tubules will increase secretion of H⁺

more efficient mechanism than respiratory system

usually urine is slightly acidic

→ normal diet produces more acid than alkaline waste products

Acid/Base Imbalances

1. Acidosis

- → accumulation of excess acids
- → excessive loss of bases

a. Respiratory Acidosis

hypoventilation; factors that cause buildup of CO₂ in blood

generally due to factors that hinder pulmonary ventilation

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may also be caused by strokes, meningitis and brain tumors

symptoms:

labored breathing
cyanosis
depression of CNS → drowsiness,
disorientation
coma → death

can be compensated for by kidneys

b. Metabolic Acidosis

accumulation of non-respiratory acids or excessive loss of bases

eg. poor kidney function prolonged diarrhea severe vomiting → loss of duodenal fluids diabetes mellitis → ketone bodies are acidic

2. Alkalosis

→accumulation of excess bases

→excessive loss of acids

a. Respiratory Alkalosis caused by hyperventilation

hyperventilation causes too much CO₂ to be ventilated causing an increase in pH

anxiety

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fever, inflammation and severe liver disease

some poisonings

hyperventilation sometimes accompanies pulmonary diseases such as asthma, pulmonary edema, and pulmonary embolism

maternal hyperventilation often occurs throughout pregnancy possibly caused by effects of hormones on CNS

many underwater swimmers have died when they hyperventilated to try to prolong their time underwater

symptoms:

light headedness agitation tingling dizziness

b. Metabolic Alkalosis

caused by:

gastric drainage (lavage) prolonged vomiting of stomach contents too many antacids

