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肾生理学

Renal Physiology

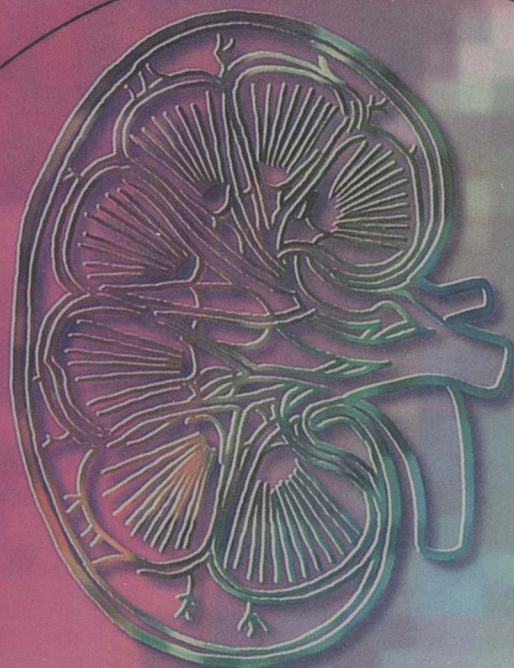
THIRD EDITION



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Renal Physiology

Third Edition

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Preface

IN THIS, THE THIRD EDITION, WE HAVE maintained our original goal to write a textbook that provides the basics of renal physiology for the health professions student studying the kidney for the first time. In addition to updating all chapters, we have added new emphasis to several topics, including genetic diseases of the kidneys. In addition to two multiple-choice examinations, clinical cases were included to assist the student in integrating the material. Answers are provided for student self-evaluation. Finally, we have emphasized the clinical relevance of important physiologic principles in boxes throughout the text. For every addition that we made, we deleted material where appropriate. Thus the third edition is similar to the first in length.

To the instructor: This book is intended to provide students in the biomedical and health sciences with a basic understanding of the workings of the kidneys. We feel it is better for the student at this stage to master a few central

concepts and ideas rather than assimilate a large array of facts. Consequently, this book is designed to teach the important aspects and fundamental concepts of normal renal function. We have emphasized clarity and conciseness in presenting the material. To accomplish this goal, we have been selective in the material included. The broader field of nephrology, with its current and future frontiers, is better learned at a later time and only after the "big picture" has been well established. For clarity and simplicity, we have made statements as assertions of fact, even though we recognize that not all aspects of a particular problem have been resolved.

To the student: As an aid to learning this material, each chapter includes a listing of objectives that reflect the fundamental concepts to be mastered. At the end of each chapter, we have provided a summary and a listing of key words and concepts that should serve as a checklist while working through the chapter. We have also provided a series of self-study questions.

These questions review the central principles to be mastered. Because these questions are learning tools, answers and explanations are provided in an appendix. Two multiple-choice examinations and comprehensive clinical cases are included in another appendix. We recommend working through these tests and clinical cases only after completing the book. In this way, they can serve to indicate where additional work or review is required.

We have provided an updated annotated bibliography of selected books, monographs, and papers. This highly selective bibliography is intended to provide the next step in the study of the kidney; it is a place to begin to add details to the subjects presented here and a resource for exploring other aspects of the kidney not treated in this book.

We encourage all who use this book to send us your comments and suggestions. Please let us know what we've done right, as well as what needs improvement.

Acknowledgments: We thank our students at the University of Connecticut Medical School and Dartmouth Medical School and our colleagues, who made helpful comments and suggestions on the first two editions of this book. Most of their suggestions and comments have been incorporated into this edition. We thank Drs. Nancy Adams, William Arendshorst, Geza Fejes-Toth, Peter Friedman, Dan Henry, Andre Kaplan, John Mills, David Pollock, Brian Remillard, and Cynthia Short, who read early versions of this and previous editions and provided excellent criticism and suggestions. A special thanks is also given to Dr. Jay Bucci for his help in preparing the multiple choice examinations. Finally, we thank William Schmitt and his staff at Mosby for their support and commitment to quality and Karen Majeski for her help in preparing the manuscript.

**Bruce M. Koeppe
Bruce A. Stanton**

Contents

Introduction to the Kidney, xiii

1 Physiology of Body Fluids, 1

- OBJECTIVES, 1
- PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ELECTROLYTE SOLUTIONS, 1
 - Molarity and Equivalence, 1
 - Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure, 2
 - Osmolarity and Osmolality, 3
 - Tonicity, 4
 - Oncotic Pressure, 5
 - Specific Gravity, 5
- VOLUMES OF BODY FLUID COMPARTMENTS, 6
- COMPOSITION OF BODY FLUID COMPARTMENTS, 8
- FLUID EXCHANGE BETWEEN BODY FLUID COMPARTMENTS, 8
 - Capillary Fluid Exchange, 9
 - Cellular Fluid Exchange, 11
- SUMMARY, 13
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 13
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 14

2 Structure and Function of the Kidneys and the Lower Urinary Tract, 17

- OBJECTIVES, 17
- STRUCTURE OF THE KIDNEYS, 17
 - Gross Anatomy, 17
 - Ultrastructure of the Nephron, 19
 - Ultrastructure of the Renal Corpuscle, 22
 - Ultrastructure of the Juxtaglomerular Apparatus, 27
 - Innervation of the Kidneys, 27
- ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY OF THE LOWER URINARY TRACT, 27
 - Gross Anatomy and Histology, 27
 - Innervation of the Bladder, 28
 - Passage of Urine from the Kidneys to the Bladder, 29
 - Micturition, 29
- SUMMARY, 29
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 30
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 30

3 Glomerular Filtration and Renal Blood Flow, 31

- OBJECTIVES, 31
- RENAL CLEARANCE, 31
 - Glomerular Filtration Rate: Clearance of Inulin, 33
- GLOMERULAR FILTRATION, 36
 - Determinants of Ultrafiltrate Composition, 36
 - Dynamics of Ultrafiltration, 38
- RENAL BLOOD FLOW, 39
- REGULATION OF RENAL BLOOD FLOW AND GFR, 43
 - Sympathetic Nerves, 43
 - Angiotensin II, 44
 - Prostaglandins, 44
 - Nitric Oxide, 44
 - Endothelin, 45
 - Bradykinin, 45
 - Adenosine, 45
 - Atrial Natriuretic Peptide, 45
 - Adenosine Triphosphate, 46
 - Glucocorticoids, 46
 - Histamine, 46
 - Dopamine, 47
- SUMMARY, 47
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 47
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 48

4 Renal Transport Mechanisms: NaCl and Water Reabsorption Along the Nephron, 49

- OBJECTIVES, 49
- GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF MEMBRANE TRANSPORT, 50
- GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF TRANSEPITHELIAL SOLUTE AND WATER TRANSPORT, 52
- NaCl, SOLUTE, AND WATER REABSORPTION ALONG THE NEPHRON, 53
 - Proximal Tubule, 53
 - Henle's Loop, 62
 - Distal Tubule and Collecting Duct, 64
- GENETIC DISEASES AND RENAL TRANSPORT PROTEINS, 66
- REGULATION OF NaCl AND WATER REABSORPTION, 68
- SUMMARY, 72
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 72
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 73

5 Regulation of Body Fluid Osmolality: Regulation of Water Balance, 75

- OBJECTIVES, 75
- ANTIDIURETIC HORMONE, 77
 - Osmotic Control of ADH Secretion, 78
 - Hemodynamic Control of ADH Secretion, 79
 - ADH Actions on the Kidneys, 80
- THIRST, 82
- RENAL MECHANISMS FOR DILUTION AND CONCENTRATION OF THE URINE, 83
 - Medullary Interstitium, 87
 - Vasa Recta Function, 88
- QUANTITATING RENAL DILUTING AND CONCENTRATING ABILITY, 89
- SUMMARY, 91
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 92
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 92

6 Regulation of Effective Circulating Volume and NaCl Balance, 93

- OBJECTIVES, 93
- CONCEPT OF EFFECTIVE CIRCULATING VOLUME, 94
- VOLUME-SENSING SYSTEM, 96
 - Vascular Low-Pressure Volume Sensors, 96
 - Vascular High-Pressure Volume Sensors, 96
- VOLUME SENSOR SIGNALS, 97
 - Renal Sympathetic Nerves, 97
 - Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System, 98
 - Atrial Natriuretic Peptide, 101
 - Antidiuretic Hormone, 101
- CONTROL OF Na⁺ EXCRETION WITH NORMAL ECV, 101
 - Mechanisms for Keeping Constant the Rate of Na⁺ Delivery to the Collecting Duct, 103
 - Regulation of Collecting Duct Na⁺ Reabsorption, 104
- CONTROL OF Na⁺ EXCRETION WITH INCREASED ECV, 104
- CONTROL OF Na⁺ EXCRETION WITH DECREASED ECV, 107
- EDEMA AND THE ROLE OF THE KIDNEYS, 110
 - Alterations in Starling Forces, 110
 - The Role of the Kidneys, 112
- SUMMARY, 113
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 114
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 115

Introduction to the Kidney

"The kidney presents in the highest degree the phenomenon of sensibility, the power of reacting to various stimuli in a direction which is appropriate for the survival of the organism; a power of adaptation which almost gives one the idea that its component parts must be endowed with intelligence."

E. Starling - 1909

A S STARLING RECOGNIZED, THE KIDNEYS are viewed more appropriately as regulatory, rather than excretory, organs. However, it is clear that the excretory function of the kidneys is central to their ability to regulate the composition and volume of the body fluids.

In this book, various aspects of renal physiology are explored. Emphasis is placed on providing insight and understanding into the major functions of the kidneys, which are as follows:

- Regulation of body fluid osmolality and volume
- Regulation of electrolyte balance
- Regulation of acid-base balance
- Excretion of metabolic products and foreign substances
- Production and secretion of hormones

In the chapters that follow, these aspects of renal function are considered in detail. However, in order to provide a broad perspective and overview, they are briefly described here.

Regulation of body fluid osmolality and volume (Chapters 1, 5, and 6): The kidneys are critical components of the system involved in the control of both the osmolality and volume of the body fluids. The control of body fluid osmolality is important for the maintenance of normal cell volume in virtually all tissues of the body, and control of the volume of body fluids is necessary for normal function of the cardiovascular system. The kidneys, working in an integrated fashion with components of the cardiovascular and central nervous systems, accomplish these tasks by regulating the excretion of water and NaCl.

Regulation of electrolyte balance (Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9): The kidneys play an essential role in regulating the amount of several important inorganic ions in the body, including sodium (Na^+), potassium (K^+), chloride (Cl^-), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-), hydrogen ion (H^+), calcium (Ca^{++}), and phosphate (Pi). The kidneys also contribute to the maintenance of organic ion balance.

For example, the excretion of many of the intermediates of the Krebs cycle (e.g., citrate, succinate) is controlled by the kidneys. In order to maintain appropriate balance the excretion of any one of these electrolytes must be balanced to the daily intake. If intake exceeds excretion, the amount of a particular electrolyte in the body increases. Conversely, if excretion exceeds intake, the amount decreases. For many of these electrolytes the kidneys are the sole or primary route for excretion from the body. Thus, electrolyte balance is achieved by carefully matching daily excretion by the kidneys with daily intake.

Regulation of acid-base balance (Chapter 8): Many of the metabolic functions of the body are exquisitely sensitive to pH. Thus the pH of the body fluids must be maintained within very narrow limits. This is accomplished by buffers within the body fluids and the coordinated action of the lungs and kidneys. The importance of the kidneys in acid-base balance is underscored by the fact that acid accumulates in the body fluids of individuals with reduced renal function.

Excretion of metabolic products and foreign substances (Chapters 3 and 4): The kidneys excrete a number of end products of metabolism that are no longer needed by the body. These so-called waste products include urea (from amino acids), uric acid (from nucleic acids), creatinine (from muscle creatine), end products of hemoglobin metabolism, and metabolites of hormones. These substances are eliminated from the body by the kidneys at a rate that matches their production. Thus their concentrations within the body fluids are maintained at a constant level. The kidneys also represent an important route for elimination of foreign substances from the body, including drugs, pesticides, and other chemicals ingested in the food. When kidney function is compromised, metabolic waste products and foreign substances accumulate in the body because their excretion in the urine decreases.

Production and secretion of hormones (Chapters 6 and 9): The kidneys are important

endocrine organs, producing and secreting renin, calcitriol (1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃), and erythropoietin. Although renin is a proteolytic enzyme and not a hormone, it activates the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, which is important in regulating blood pressure, as well as sodium and potassium balance. Calcitriol is necessary for normal reabsorption of Ca⁺⁺ by the gastrointestinal tract and for its deposition in bone. With renal disease the ability of the kidneys to produce calcitriol is impaired, and levels of this hormone are reduced. As a result, Ca⁺⁺ reabsorption by the intestine is decreased. This reduced intestinal Ca⁺⁺ reabsorption contributes to the abnormalities in bone formation seen in patients with chronic renal disease. Erythropoietin stimulates red blood cell formation by the bone marrow. With many kidney diseases, erythropoietin production and secretion is reduced, which by decreasing erythrocyte production is a causal factor in the anemia seen in chronic renal failure.

In the following chapters various aspects of these important renal functions are considered. Where information is available, these functions are considered at several levels of organization: whole kidney, single nephron, individual tubular cell, cell membrane, and transport protein.

Adaptation to nephron loss (Chapter 11): An overriding theme of this book is the ability of the kidneys to respond to the homeostatic needs of the individual. The degree to which renal function can be regulated to meet these needs is truly impressive. For example, urine volume can vary from 0.5 to 18 L/day. However, the limits of renal function are infrequently reached in healthy individuals. It is useful to study diseased kidneys to appreciate the extremes to which kidneys can function. Consequently a brief discussion of the physiologic adaptation to nephron loss is presented. This section emphasizes the ability of the kidneys to maintain fluid, electrolyte, and acid-base balance as the number of functioning nephrons is reduced by disease processes.

7 Regulation of Potassium Balance, 117

- OBJECTIVES, 117
- OVERVIEW OF K^+ HOMEOSTASIS, 117
- INTERNAL K^+ DISTRIBUTION, 119
 - Epinephrine, 121
 - Insulin, 121
 - Aldosterone, 121
 - Acid-Base Balance, 121
 - Plasma Osmolality, 122
 - Cell Lysis, 122
 - Exercise, 122
- K^+ EXCRETION BY THE KIDNEYS, 122
- CELLULAR MECHANISMS OF K^+ TRANSPORT BY THE DISTAL TUBULE AND COLLECTING DUCT, 124
- REGULATION OF K^+ SECRETION BY THE DISTAL TUBULE AND COLLECTING DUCT, 125
 - Hormones and Factors That Regulate Urinary K^+ Excretion, 126
 - Factors That Perturb K^+ Excretion, 129
- INTERACTION AMONG HORMONES AND FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE K^+ SECRETION BY THE DISTAL TUBULE AND COLLECTING DUCT, 130
- SUMMARY, 132
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 132
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 132

8 Regulation of Acid-Base Balance, 133

- OBJECTIVES, 133
- THE HCO_3^- BUFFER SYSTEM, 134
- OVERVIEW OF ACID-BASE BALANCE, 134
- METABOLIC PRODUCTION OF ACID AND ALKALI, 135
- RENAL ACID EXCRETION, 136
- HCO_3^- REABSORPTION ALONG THE NEPHRON, 137
- REGULATION OF HCO_3^- REABSORPTION, 140
- FORMATION OF NEW HCO_3^- : THE ROLE OF AMMONIUM, 141
- RESPONSE TO ACID-BASE DISORDERS, 145
 - Extracellular and Intracellular Buffering, 145
 - Respiratory Defense, 147
 - Renal Defense, 147
- SIMPLE ACID-BASE DISORDERS, 148
 - Metabolic Acidosis, 148
 - Metabolic Alkalosis, 148
 - Respiratory Acidosis, 150
 - Respiratory Alkalosis, 150

- ANALYSIS OF ACID-BASE DISORDERS, 150
- SUMMARY, 152
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 153
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 153

9 Regulation of Calcium and Phosphate Balance, 155

- OBJECTIVES, 155
- CALCIUM, 156
 - Overview of Ca^{++} Homeostasis, 156
 - Ca^{++} Transport along the Nephron, 158
 - Cellular Mechanisms of Ca^{++} Reabsorption, 159
 - Regulation of Urinary Ca^{++} Excretion, 160
- PHOSPHATE, 161
 - Overview of Pi Homeostasis, 161
 - Pi Transport along the Nephron, 162
 - Regulation of Urinary Pi Excretion, 163
- INTEGRATIVE REVIEW OF PTH, CALCITRIOL, AND CALCITONIN ON Ca^{++} AND Pi HOMEOSTASIS, 164
 - Calcium-Sensing Receptor, 166
- SUMMARY, 167
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 167
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 167

10 Physiology of Diuretic Action, 169

- OBJECTIVES, 169
- GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF DIURETIC ACTION, 169
 - Sites of Action of Diuretics, 170
 - Response of More Distal Nephron Segments, 170
 - Adequate Delivery of Diuretics to Their Site of Action, 170
 - Volume of the ECF and ECV, 171
- MECHANISMS OF ACTION OF DIURETICS, 172
 - Osmotic Diuretics, 172
 - Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitors, 173
 - Loop Diuretics, 173
 - Thiazide Diuretics, 174
 - K^+ -Sparing Diuretics, 174
- EFFECT OF DIURETICS ON THE EXCRETION OF WATER AND OTHER SOLUTES, 175
 - Solute-Free Water, 175
 - K^+ Handling, 176
 - HCO_3^- Handling, 177
 - Ca^{++} and Pi Handling, 177
- SUMMARY, 179
- KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 179
- SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 179

11 Physiologic Adaptation to Nephron Loss, 181

OBJECTIVES, 181

MAINTENANCE OF STEADY-STATE BALANCE, 182

STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL ADAPTATION TO NEPHRON LOSS, 183

Structural Changes, 184

Functional Changes, 184

SOLUTE AND WATER TRANSPORT BY THE

REMAINING FUNCTIONING NEPHRONS, 185

Sodium, 186

Water, 187

Acid-Base, 188

Potassium, 189

Calcium and Phosphate, 189

SUMMARY, 190

KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS, 190

SELF-STUDY PROBLEMS, 190

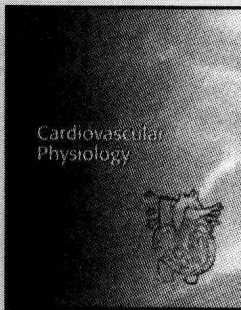
Additional Reading, 193**APPENDIX A Integrative Case Studies, 199****APPENDIX B Normal Laboratory Values, 205****APPENDIX C Nephron Function, 207****APPENDIX D Answers to Self-Study Problems, 213****APPENDIX E Answers to Integrative Case Studies, 227****APPENDIX F Review Examination I, 237****APPENDIX G Review Examination II, 245**

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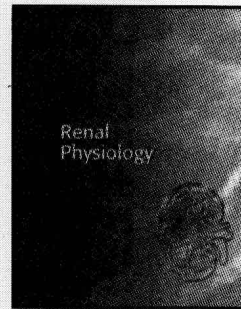
Renal Physiology

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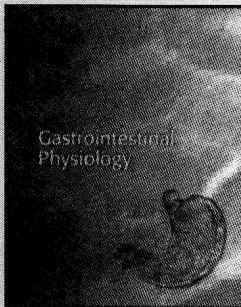
Each book in this series presents normal physiology and selectively includes pathophysiology, with clinical examples highlighted in boxes/tables throughout. Chapters are summarized with key points; key words and concepts are listed; and each book contains a set of self-study questions. Two-color diagrams throughout the books illustrate basic concepts.



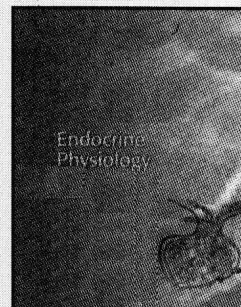
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Physiology of Body Fluids

Objectives

Upon completion of this chapter, the student should be able to answer the following questions:

1. How do the body fluid compartments differ with respect to their volumes and ionic compositions?
2. What are the driving forces responsible for movement of water across cell membranes and the capillary wall?
3. How do the volumes of the intracellular and extracellular fluid compartments change under various pathophysiologic conditions?

ONE OF THE MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF THE kidneys is to maintain the volume and composition of the body fluids constant despite wide variation in the daily intake of water and solutes. This chapter discusses the volume and composition of the body fluids to provide a background for the study of the kidneys as regulatory organs. Some of the basic principles, terminology, and concepts related to the properties of solutes in solution are also reviewed.

In addition, the student should be able to define and understand the following properties of physiologically important solutions and fluids:

1. Molarity and equivalence
2. Osmotic pressure
3. Osmolarity and osmolality
4. Oncotic pressure
5. Tonicity

■ PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ELECTROLYTE SOLUTIONS

Molarity and Equivalence

The amount of a substance dissolved in a solution (i.e., its concentration) is expressed either in terms of **molarity** or **equivalence**. *Molarity* is the amount of a substance relative to its molecular weight. For example, glucose has a molecular weight of 180 g/mol. If 1 L of water contains 1 g of glucose, the molarity of

this glucose solution would be determined as follows:

$$\frac{1 \text{ g/L}}{180 \text{ g/mol}} = 0.0056 \text{ mol/L or } 5.6 \text{ mmol/L} \quad (1-1)$$

For uncharged molecules such as glucose and urea, concentrations in the body fluids are usually expressed in terms of molarity.¹ Because many of the substances of biologic interest are present at very low concentrations, units are more commonly expressed in the millimolar range (mmol/L or mM).

The concentration of solutes, which normally dissociate into more than one particle when dissolved in solution (e.g., NaCl), is usually expressed in terms of equivalence. *Equivalence* refers to the stoichiometry of the interaction between cations and anions and is determined by the valence of these ions. For example, consider a 1-L solution containing 9 g of NaCl (molecular weight = 58.4 g/mol). The molarity of this solution is 154 mmol/L. Because NaCl dissociates into Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions, and assuming complete dissociation, this solution contains 154 mmol/L of Na⁺ and 154 mmol/L of Cl⁻. Because the valence of these ions is 1, these concentrations can also be expressed as milliequivalents (mEq) of the ion per liter (i.e., 154 mEq/L for Na⁺ and Cl⁻, respectively).

For univalent ions, such as Na⁺ and Cl⁻, concentrations expressed in terms of molarity and equivalence are identical. However, this is not

true for ions that have valences greater than 1. Accordingly, the concentration of Ca⁺⁺ (molecular weight = 40.1 g/mol and valence = 2) in a 1-L solution containing 0.1 g of this ion could be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{0.1 \text{ g/L}}{40.1 \text{ g/mol}} &= 2.5 \text{ mmol/L} \\ &= 2.5 \text{ mmol/L} \times 2 \text{ mEq/mmol} = 5 \text{ mEq/L} \end{aligned} \quad (1-2)$$

Although some exceptions exist, it is customary to express concentrations of ions in milliequivalents per liter.

Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure

The movement of water across cell membranes occurs by the process of **osmosis**. The driving force for this movement is the osmotic pressure difference across the cell membrane. Figure 1-1 illustrates the concept of osmosis and the measurement of the osmotic pressure of a solution.

Compartments A and B are separated by a semipermeable membrane (i.e., the membrane is highly permeable to water but impermeable to solute). Compartment A contains a solute, whereas compartment B contains only distilled water. Over time, water will move by osmosis from compartment B to compartment A.² This will raise the level of fluid in compartment A and decrease the level in compartment B. At equilibrium the hydrostatic pressure exerted by the column of water (h) will stop the movement of water from compartment B to A. This pressure will be equal and opposite to the osmotic pressure exerted by the solute particles in compartment A.

¹ The units used to express the concentrations of substances in various body fluids differ among laboratories. The system of international units (SI) is used in most countries and in most scientific and medical journals in the United States. Despite this convention, traditional units are still widely used. For urea and glucose, the traditional units of concentration are mg/dl (i.e., milligrams per deciliter or 100 ml), whereas the SI units are mmol/L. Similarly, electrolyte concentrations are traditionally expressed as mEq/L, whereas the SI units are mmol/L (see Appendix B).

² This water movement is driven by the concentration gradient for water. Because of the presence of solute particles in compartment A, its concentration of water is less than that in compartment B. Consequently, water moves across the semipermeable membrane from compartment B to compartment A down its gradient.

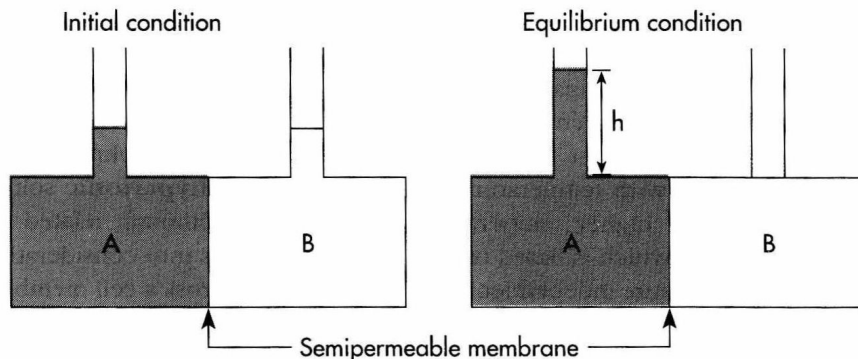


Figure 1-1 ■ Schematic representation of osmotic water movement and the generation of an osmotic pressure. The solute particles in compartment A cause water to move by osmosis from compartment B across the semipermeable membrane into compartment A. The water column in compartment A will rise until the hydrostatic pressure generated by the water column (*h*) stops the flow of water from compartment B into compartment A. This hydrostatic pressure is equal to the osmotic pressure generated by the solution in compartment A.

Osmotic pressure is determined solely by the number of solute particles in that solution. It is not dependent on such factors as the size of the solute particles, their mass, or their chemical nature (e.g., valence). Osmotic pressure (π), measured in atmospheres (atm), is calculated by van't Hoff's law as follows:

$$\pi = nCRT \tag{1-3}$$

where:

n = Number of dissociable particles per molecule

C = Total solute concentration

R = Gas constant

T = Temperature in degrees Kelvin (°K)

For a molecule that does not dissociate in water, such as glucose or urea, a solution containing 1 mmol/L of this solute at 37° C can exert an osmotic pressure of 2.54×10^{-2} atm as calculated by equation 1-3 using the following values:

n = 1

C = 0.001 mol/L

R = 0.082 atm L/mol °K

T = 310 °K

Because 1 atm equals 760 mm Hg at sea level, π for this solution can also be expressed as 19.3 mm Hg.

Alternatively, osmotic pressure is expressed in terms of osmolarity (see the following). Thus a solution containing 1 mmol/L of solute particles exerts an osmotic pressure of 1 mOsm/L.

For substances that dissociate in a solution, *n* of equation 1-3 will have a value other than 1. For example, a 150 mmol/L solution of NaCl has an osmolarity of 300 mOsm/L because each molecule of NaCl dissociates into a Na⁺ and a Cl⁻ ion (i.e., *n* = 2). If dissociation of a substance into its component ions is not complete, *n* will not be an integer. Accordingly, osmolarity for any solution can be calculated as follows:

$$\tag{1-4}$$

$$\text{Osmolarity} = \text{Concentration} \times \# \text{ Dissociable particles}$$

$$\text{mOsm/L} = \text{mmol/L} \times \# \text{ Particles/molecule}$$

Osmolarity and Osmolality

Osmolarity and osmolality are often confused and incorrectly interchanged. Osmolarity refers to the number of solute particles per 1 L of sol-