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第 20 版

William F. Ganong

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Review of **Medical Physiology**

twentieth edition

William F. Ganong, MD

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Preface

This book is designed to provide a concise summary of mammalian and, particularly, of human physiology that medical students and others can use by itself or can supplement with readings in current texts, monographs, and reviews. Pertinent aspects of general and comparative physiology are also included. Summaries of relevant anatomic considerations will be found in each section, but this book is written primarily for those who have some knowledge of anatomy, chemistry, and biochemistry. Examples from clinical medicine are given where pertinent to illustrate physiologic points. In many of the chapters, physicians desiring to use this book as a review will find short discussions of important symptoms produced by disordered function.

Review of Medical Physiology also includes a self-study section to help students review for Board and other examinations and an appendix that contains general references, a discussion of statistical methods, a glossary of abbreviations, acronyms, and symbols commonly used in physiology, and several useful tables. The index is comprehensive and specifically designed for ease in locating important terms, topics, and concepts.

In writing this book, the author has not been able to be complete and concise without also being dogmatic. I believe, however, that the conclusions presented without detailed discussion of the experimental data on which they are based are supported by the bulk of the currently available evidence. Much of this evidence can be found in the papers cited in the credit lines accompanying the illustrations. Further discussions of particular subjects and information on subjects not considered in detail can be found in the references listed at the end of each section. Information about serial review publications that provide up-to-date discussions of various physiologic subjects is included in the note on general references in the appendix. In the interest of brevity and clarity, I have in most instances omitted the names of the many investigators whose work made possible the views of physiology presented here. This omission is in no way intended to slight their contributions, but including their names and specific references to original papers would greatly increase the length of the book.

In this twentieth edition, as in previous editions, the entire book has been thoroughly revised, with a view to eliminating errors, incorporating suggestions of readers, updating concepts, and discarding material that is no longer relevant. In this way, the book has been kept as up-to-date and accurate as possible. Since the last edition, there has continued to be rapid expansion of knowledge about how extracellular signals initiate changes in gene expression and about the genetic basis of disease. Material on these topics has been updated. The section on immunology has been rewritten again for clarity and to expand consideration of the relation between innate and acquired immunity. The sections on the cerebral cortex in relation to vision, audition, and olfaction have been revised, and the chapter on sleep and waking states has been rewritten to emphasize the importance of thalamo-cortical oscillations. New information has been provided on many topics, including molecular motors, hormones of the heart, motilin and gastrointestinal motility, acute phase proteins, sleep apnea, and addiction.

The self-study section has been updated, and more emphasis has been placed on physiology in relation to disease, in keeping with the current trend in the United States Medical Licensing Examinations (USMLE).

I am greatly indebted to the many individuals who helped with the preparation of this book. Those to whom I express special thanks for their help with the twentieth edition include Dr. Walter Miller, Dr. Melvin Grumbach, Dr. Stephen McPhee, and Dr. Dolores Shoback. Jesse Loesberg provided invaluable secretarial assistance, and, as always, my wife made numerous contributions. Jim Ransom, who edited the first edition of this book 40 years ago, came back again and did an excellent job of editing this edition. Many associates and friends provided unpublished illustrative materials, and numerous authors and publishers generously granted permission to reproduce illustrations from other books and journals. I also thank all the students and others who took the time to write to me offering helpful criticisms and suggestions. Such comments are always welcome, and I solicit additional corrections and criticisms, which may be addressed to me at

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Since this book was first published in 1963, the following translations have been published: Bulgarian, Chinese (two independent translations), Czech (two editions), French, German (four editions), Greek (two editions), Hungarian, Indonesian (three editions), Italian (seven editions), Japanese (fifteen editions), Korean, Malaysian, Polish (two editions), Portuguese (seven editions), Serbo-Croatian, Spanish (sixteen editions), and Turkish (two editions). Various foreign English language editions have been published, and the book has been recorded in English on tape for use by the blind. The tape recording is available from Recording for the Blind, Inc., 20 Rozsel Road, Princeton, NJ 08540, USA. For computer users, the book is now available, along with several other titles in the Lange Medical Books series, in STAT!-Ref, a searchable CD-ROM, from Teton Data Systems, 211 East Broadway, Jackson, WY 83001, USA. More information about this and other Lange and McGraw-Hill books, including addresses of the publisher's international offices, is available on McGraw-Hill's Web site, www.mghmedical.com.

William F. Ganong

San Francisco
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Contents

Preface	ix
SECTION I. INTRODUCTION	1
1. The General & Cellular Basis of Medical Physiology	1
Introduction 1	
General Principles 1	
Functional Morphology of the Cell 8	
Structure & Function of DNA & RNA 17	
Transport Across Cell Membranes 27	
The Capillary Wall 35	
Intercellular Communication 35	
Homeostasis 46	
Aging 46	
Section I References: 47	
SECTION II. PHYSIOLOGY OF NERVE & MUSCLE CELLS	49
2. Excitable Tissue: Nerve	49
Introduction 49	
Nerve Cells 49	
Excitation & Conduction 51	
Ionic Basis of Excitation & Conduction 56	
Properties of Mixed Nerves 58	
Nerve Fiber Types & Function 58	
Neurotrophins 58	
Glia 61	
3. Excitable Tissue: Muscle	62
Introduction 62	
Skeletal Muscle 62	
Morphology 62	
Electrical Phenomena & Ionic Fluxes 65	
Contractile Responses 65	
Energy Sources & Metabolism 70	
Properties of Muscles in the Intact Organism 72	
Cardiac Muscle 74	
Morphology 74	
Electrical Properties 74	
Mechanical Properties 75	
Metabolism 77	
Pacemaker Tissue 78	
Smooth Muscle 78	
Morphology 78	
Visceral Smooth Muscle 78	
Multi-unit Smooth Muscle 80	
4. Synaptic & Junctional Transmission	81
Introduction 81	
Synaptic Transmission 81	
Functional Anatomy 81	
Electrical Events in Postsynaptic Neurons 84	
Inhibition & Facilitation at Synapses 88	
Chemical Transmission of Synaptic Activity 90	
Principal Neurotransmitter Systems 93	
Synaptic Plasticity & Learning 110	
Neuromuscular Transmission 110	
Neuromuscular Junction 110	
Nerve Endings in Smooth & Cardiac Muscle 112	
Denervation Hypersensitivity 113	
5. Initiation of Impulses in Sense Organs	115
Introduction 115	
Sense Organs & Receptors 115	
The Senses 115	
Electrical & Chemical Events in Receptors 117	
Ionic Basis of Excitation 118	
"Coding" of Sensory Information 119	
Section II References: 121	

SECTION III. FUNCTIONS OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

123

6. Reflexes	123
Introduction	123
Monosynaptic Reflexes: The Stretch Reflex	123
Polysynaptic Reflexes: The Withdrawal Reflex	129
General Properties of Reflexes	130
7. Cutaneous, Deep, & Visceral Sensation	132
Introduction	132
Pathways	132
Touch	135
Proprioception	136
Temperature	136
Pain	136
Other Sensations	142
8. Vision	144
Introduction	144
Anatomic Considerations	144
The Image-Forming Mechanism	149
The Photoreceptor Mechanism	152
Responses in the Visual Pathways & Cortex	155
Color Vision	159
Other Aspects of Visual Function	161
Eye Movements	163
9. Hearing & Equilibrium	166
Introduction	166
Anatomic Considerations	166
Hair Cells	170
Hearing	172
Vestibular Function	178
10. Smell & Taste	180
Introduction	180
Smell	180
Taste	183
Receptor Organs & Pathways	183
11. Alert Behavior, Sleep, & the Electrical Activity of the Brain	187
Introduction	187
The Thalamus & the Cerebral Cortex	187
The Reticular Formation & the Reticular Activating System	187
Evoked Cortical Potentials	188
The Electroencephalogram	189
Physiologic Basis of the EEG, Consciousness, & Sleep	191
12. Control of Posture & Movement	197
Introduction	197
General Principles	197
Corticospinal & Corticobulbar System	198
Anatomy & Function	198
Posture-Regulating Systems	201
Spinal Integration	203
Medullary Components	204
Midbrain Components	206
Cortical Components	207
Basal Ganglia	207
Cerebellum	211
13. The Autonomic Nervous System	217
Introduction	217
Anatomic Organization of Autonomic Outflow	217
Chemical Transmission at Autonomic Junctions	219
Responses of Effector Organs to Autonomic Nerve Impulses	221
14. Central Regulation of Visceral Function	224
Introduction	224
Medulla Oblongata	224
Hypothalamus	225
Anatomic Considerations	225
Hypothalamic Function	226
Relation to Autonomic Function	226
Relation to Sleep	227
Relation to Cyclic Phenomena	227
Hunger	228
Thirst	232
Control of Posterior Pituitary Secretion	233
Control of Anterior Pituitary Secretion	239
Temperature Regulation	242
15. Neural Basis of Instinctual Behavior & Emotions	248
Introduction	248
Anatomic Considerations	248
Limbic Functions	249
Sexual Behavior	249
Fear & Rage	252
Motivation & Addiction	253
Brain Chemistry & Behavior	254

16. "Higher Functions of the Nervous System": Conditioned Reflexes, Learning, & Related Phenomena	259
Introduction 259	Learning & Memory 259
Methods 259	Functions of the Neocortex 264
Section III References: 269	
 SECTION IV. ENDOCRINOLOGY, METABOLISM, & REPRODUCTIVE FUNCTION	271
 17. Energy Balance, Metabolism, & Nutrition	271
Introduction 271	Protein Metabolism 284
Energy Metabolism 271	Fat Metabolism 290
Intermediary Metabolism 274	Nutrition 302
Carbohydrate Metabolism 278	
 18. The Thyroid Gland	307
Introduction 307	Effects of Thyroid Hormones 313
Anatomic Consideration 307	Regulation of Thyroid Secretion 316
Formation & Secretion of Thyroid Hormones 308	Clinical Correlates 317
Transport & Metabolism of Thyroid Hormones 311	
 19. Endocrine Functions of the Pancreas & Regulation of Carbohydrate Metabolism	322
Introduction 322	Insulin Excess 333
Islet Cell Structure 322	Regulation of Insulin Secretion 334
Structure, Biosynthesis, & Secretion of Insulin 323	Glucagon 337
Fate of Secreted Insulin 324	Other Islet Cell Hormones 339
Effects of Insulin 324	Effects of Other Hormones
Mechanism of Action 327	& Exercise on Carbohydrate Metabolism 340
Consequences of Insulin Deficiency 328	Hypoglycemia & Diabetes Mellitus in Humans 341
 20. The Adrenal Medulla & Adrenal Cortex	344
Introduction 344	Physiologic Effects of Glucocorticoids 356
Adrenal Morphology 344	Pharmacologic & Pathologic Effects
Adrenal Medulla 346	of Glucocorticoids 358
Structure & Function of Medullary Hormones 346	Regulation of Glucocorticoid Secretion 359
Regulation of Adrenal Medullary Secretion 348	Effects of Mineralocorticoids 362
Adrenal Cortex 349	Regulation of Aldosterone Secretion 364
Structure & Biosynthesis of Adrenocortical	Role of Mineralocorticoids in the Regulation
Hormones 349	of Salt Balance 366
Transport, Metabolism, & Excretion	Summary of the Effects of Adrenocortical Hyper-
of Adrenocortical Hormones 354	& Hypofunction in Humans 366
Effects of Adrenal Androgens & Estrogens 356	
 21. Hormonal Control of Calcium Metabolism & the Physiology of Bone	369
Introduction 369	The Parathyroid Glands 377
Calcium & Phosphorus Metabolism 369	Calcitonin 380
Bone Physiology 370	Effects of Other Hormones & Humoral Agents
Vitamin D & the Hydroxycholecalciferols 375	on Calcium Metabolism 382
 22. The Pituitary Gland	383
Introduction 383	Physiology of Growth 392
Morphology 384	Pituitary Insufficiency 395
Intermediate-Lobe Hormones 384	Pituitary Hyperfunction in Humans 396
Growth Hormone 386	
 23. The Gonads: Development & Function of the Reproductive System	398
Introduction 398	Embryology of the Human Reproductive
Sex Differentiation & Development 398	System 400
Chromosomal Sex 398	Aberrant Sexual Differentiation 401

Puberty	405	
Precocious & Delayed Puberty	407	
Menopause	408	
Pituitary Gonadotropins & Prolactin	408	
The Male Reproductive System	410	
Structure	410	
Gametogenesis & Ejaculation	411	
Endocrine Function of the Testes	415	
Control of Testicular Function	418	
Abnormalities of Testicular Function	419	
The Female Reproductive System	419	
The Menstrual Cycle	419	
Ovarian Hormones	425	
Control of Ovarian Function	430	
Abnormalities of Ovarian Function	433	
Pregnancy	433	
Lactation	436	
24. Endocrine Functions of the Kidneys, Heart, & Pineal Gland		439
Introduction	439	
The Renin-Angiotensin System	439	
Erythropoietin	444	
Hormones of the Heart & Other		
Natriuretic Factors	445	
Pineal Gland	447	
Section IV References:	449	
 SECTION V. GASTROINTESTINAL FUNCTION		453
 25. Digestion & Absorption		453
Introduction	453	
Carbohydrates	453	
Lipids	458	
Proteins & Nucleic Acids	456	
Absorption of Water & Electrolytes	459	
Absorption of Vitamins & Minerals	462	
26. Regulation of Gastrointestinal Function		464
Introduction	464	
General Considerations	464	
Gastrointestinal Hormones	466	
Exocrine Portion of the Pancreas	481	
Liver & Biliary System	483	
Mouth & Esophagus	472	
Small Intestine	489	
Stomach	475	
Colon	492	
Section V References:	496	
 SECTION VI. CIRCULATION		499
 27. Circulating Body Fluids		499
Introduction	499	
Blood	499	
Bone Marrow	499	
White Blood Cells	500	
Immunity	504	
Platelets	514	
Red Blood Cells	515	
Blood Types	519	
Plasma	522	
Hemostasis	524	
Lymph	527	
28. Origin of the Heartbeat & the Electrical Activity of the Heart		528
Introduction	528	
Origin & Spread of Cardiac Excitation	528	
Cardiac Arrhythmias	535	
The Electrocardiogram	530	
Electrocardiographic Findings in Other Cardiac		
& Systemic Diseases	541	
29. The Heart as a Pump		545
Introduction	545	
Mechanical Events of the Cardiac Cycle	545	
Cardiac Output	550	
30. Dynamics of Blood & Lymph Flow		556
Introduction	556	
Anatomic Considerations	556	
Biophysical Considerations	560	
Capillary Circulation	568	
Arterial & Arteriolar Circulation	565	
Lymphatic Circulation & Interstitial		
Fluid Volume	570	
Venous Circulation	572	

31. Cardiovascular Regulatory Mechanisms	574
Introduction 574	
Local Regulatory Mechanisms 574	
Substances Secreted by the Endothelium 575	
Systemic Regulation by Hormones 577	
Systemic Regulation by the Nervous System 579	
32. Circulation Through Special Regions	588
Introduction 588	
Cerebral Circulation 588	
Anatomic Considerations 588	
Cerebrospinal Fluid 589	
The Blood-Brain Barrier 591	
Cerebral Blood Flow 593	
Regulation of Cerebral Circulation 595	
Brain Metabolism & Oxygen Requirements 596	
Coronary Circulation 597	
Splanchnic Circulation 601	
Circulation of the Skin 602	
Placental & Fetal Circulation 603	
33. Cardiovascular Homeostasis in Health & Disease	607
Introduction 607	
Compensations for Gravitational Effects 607	
Exercise 609	
Inflammation & Wound Healing 612	
Shock 613	
Hypertension 618	
Heart Failure 620	
Section VI References:	622

SECTION VII. RESPIRATION 625

34. Pulmonary Function	625
Introduction 625	
Properties of Gases 625	
Anatomy of the Lungs 626	
Mechanics of Respiration 627	
Gas Exchange in the Lungs 637	
Pulmonary Circulation 639	
Other Functions of the Respiratory System 642	
35. Gas Transport Between the Lungs & the Tissues	644
Introduction 644	
Oxygen Transport 644	
Carbon Dioxide Transport 647	
36. Regulation of Respiration	649
Introduction 649	
Neural Control of Breathing 649	
Regulation of Respiratory Activity 650	
Chemical Control of Breathing 651	
Nonchemical Influences on Respiration 656	
37. Respiratory Adjustments in Health & Disease	658
Introduction 658	
Effects of Exercise 658	
Hypoxia 660	
Hypoxic Hypoxia 661	
Other Forms of Hypoxia 667	
Oxygen Treatment 668	
Hypercapnia & Hypocapnia 668	
Other Respiratory Abnormalities 669	
Effects of Increased Barometric Pressure 670	
Artificial Respiration 672	
Section VII References:	673

SECTION VIII. FORMATION & EXCRETION OF URINE 675

38. Renal Function & Micturition	675
Introduction 675	
Functional Anatomy 675	
Renal Circulation 679	
Glomerular Filtration 681	
Tubular Function 684	
Water Excretion 689	
Acidification of the Urine & Bicarbonate Excretion 694	
Regulation of Na ⁺ & Cl ⁻ Excretion 697	
Regulation of K ⁺ Excretion 699	
Diuretics 699	
Effects of Disordered Renal Function 700	
Filling of the Bladder 701	
Emptying of the Bladder 701	

39. Regulation of Extracellular Fluid Composition & Volume	704
Introduction	704
Defense of Tonicity	704
Defense of Volume	704
Defense of Specific Ionic Composition	705
Defense of H ⁺ Concentration	705
Section VIII References:	713
Appendix	714
General References	714
Normal Values & the Statistical Evaluation of Data	714
Abbreviations & Symbols Commonly Used in Physiology	716
Some Standard Respiratory Symbols	722
Equivalents of Metric, United States, & English Measures	723
Greek Alphabet	723
Self-Study: Objectives, Essay Questions, & Multiple-Choice Questions	725
Answers to Quantitative & Multiple-Choice Questions	775
Index	781
Tables	
Standard Atomic Weights (1995)	Inside Front Cover
Ranges of Normal Values in Human Whole Blood, Plasma, or Serum	Inside Back Cover

Section I. Introduction

The General & Cellular Basis of Medical Physiology

1

INTRODUCTION

In unicellular organisms, all vital processes occur in a single cell. As the evolution of multicellular organisms has progressed, various cell groups have taken over particular functions. In humans and other vertebrate animals, the specialized cell groups include a gastrointestinal system to digest and absorb food; a respiratory system to take up O_2 and eliminate CO_2 ; a urinary system to remove wastes; a cardiovascular system to distribute food, O_2 , and the products of metabolism; a reproductive system to perpetuate the species; and nervous and endocrine systems to coordinate and integrate the functions of the other systems. This book is concerned with the way these systems function and the way each contributes to the functions of the body as a whole.

This chapter presents general concepts and principles that are basic to the function of all the systems. It also includes a short review of fundamental aspects of cell physiology. Additional aspects of cellular and molecular biology are considered in the relevant chapters on the various organs.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Organization of the Body

The cells that make up the bodies of all but the simplest multicellular animals, both aquatic and terrestrial, exist in an "internal sea" of **extracellular fluid (ECF)** enclosed within the integument of the animal. From this fluid, the cells take up O_2 and nutrients; into it, they discharge metabolic waste products. The ECF is more dilute than present-day seawater, but its composition closely resembles that of the primordial oceans in which, presumably, all life originated.

In animals with a closed vascular system, the ECF is divided into two components: the **interstitial fluid**

and the circulating **blood plasma**. The plasma and the cellular elements of the blood, principally red blood cells, fill the vascular system, and together they constitute the **total blood volume**. The interstitial fluid is that part of the ECF that is outside the vascular system, bathing the cells. The special fluids lumped together as transcellular fluids are discussed below. About a third of the **total body water (TBW)** is extracellular; the remaining two-thirds are intracellular (**intracellular fluid**).

Body Composition

In the average young adult male, 18% of the body weight is protein and related substances, 7% is mineral, and 15% is fat. The remaining 60% is water. The distribution of this water is shown in Figure 1-1.

The intracellular component of the body water accounts for about 40% of body weight and the extracellular component for about 20%. Approximately 25% of the extracellular component is in the vascular system (plasma = 5% of body weight) and 75% outside the blood vessels (interstitial fluid = 15% of body weight). The total blood volume is about 8% of body weight.

Measurement of Body Fluid Volumes

It is theoretically possible to measure the size of each of the body fluid compartments by injecting substances that will stay in only one compartment and then calculating the volume of fluid in which the test substance is distributed (the **volume of distribution** of the injected material). The volume of distribution is equal to the amount injected (minus any that has been removed from the body by metabolism or excretion during the time allowed for mixing) divided by the concentration of the substance in the sample. *Example:* 150 mg of sucrose is injected into a 70 kg man. The plasma sucrose level after mixing is 0.01 mg/mL, and 10 mg has been excreted or me-

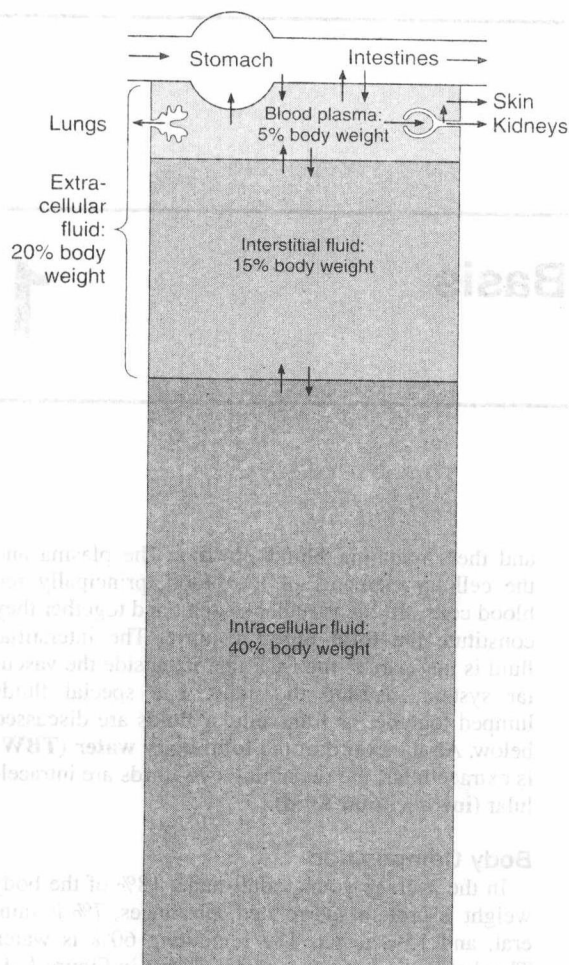


Figure 1-1. Body fluid compartments. Arrows represent fluid movement. Transcellular fluids, which constitute a very small percentage of total body fluids, are not shown.

tabolized during the mixing period. The volume of distribution of the sucrose is

$$\frac{150 \text{ mg} - 10 \text{ mg}}{0.01 \text{ mg/mL}} = 14,000 \text{ mL}$$

Since 14,000 mL is the space in which the sucrose was distributed, it is also called the **sucrose space**.

Volumes of distribution can be calculated for any substance that can be injected into the body provided the concentration in the body fluids and the amount removed by excretion and metabolism can be accurately measured.

Although the principle involved in such measurements is simple, a number of complicating factors must be considered. The material injected must be

nontoxic, must mix evenly throughout the compartment being measured, and must have no effect of its own on the distribution of water or other substances in the body. In addition, either it must be unchanged by the body during the mixing period, or the amount changed must be known. The material also should be relatively easy to measure.

Plasma Volume, Total Blood Volume, & Red Cell Volume

Plasma volume has been measured by using dyes that become bound to plasma protein—particularly Evans blue (T-1824). Plasma volume can also be measured by injecting serum albumin labeled with radioactive iodine. Suitable aliquots of the injected solution and plasma samples obtained after injection are counted in a scintillation counter. An average value is 3500 mL (5% of the body weight of a 70 kg man, assuming unit density).

If one knows the plasma volume and the hematocrit (ie, the percentage of the blood volume that is made up of cells), the **total blood volume** can be calculated by multiplying the plasma volume by

$$\frac{100}{100 - \text{hematocrit}}$$

Example: The hematocrit is 38 and the plasma volume 3500 mL. The total blood volume is

$$3500 \times \frac{100}{100 - 38} = 5645 \text{ mL}$$

The **red cell volume** (volume occupied by all the circulating red cells in the body) can be determined by subtracting the plasma volume from the total blood volume. It may also be measured independently by injecting tagged red blood cells and, after mixing has occurred, measuring the fraction of the red cells that is tagged. A commonly used tag is ^{51}Cr , a radioactive isotope of chromium that is attached to the cells by incubating them in a suitable chromium solution. Isotopes of iron and phosphorus (^{59}Fe and ^{32}P) and antigenic tagging have also been employed.

Extracellular Fluid Volume

The ECF volume is difficult to measure because the limits of this space are ill defined and because few substances mix rapidly in all parts of the space while remaining exclusively extracellular. The lymph cannot be separated from the ECF and is measured with it. Many substances enter the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) slowly because of the blood-brain barrier (see Chapter 32). Equilibration is slow with joint fluid and aqueous humor and with the ECF in relatively avascular tissues such as dense connective tissue, cartilage, and some parts of bone. Substances that distribute in ECF appear in glandular secretions and in the contents of the gastrointestinal tract. Because they

are separated from the rest of the ECF, these fluids—as well as CSF, the fluids in the eye, and a few other special fluids—are called **transcellular fluids**. Their volume is relatively small.

Perhaps the most accurate measurement of ECF volume is that obtained by using inulin, a polysaccharide with a molecular weight of 5200. Mannitol and sucrose have also been used to measure ECF volume. A generally accepted value for ECF volume is 20% of the body weight, or about 14 L in a 70 kg man (3.5 L = plasma; 10.5 L = interstitial fluid).

Interstitial Fluid Volume

The interstitial fluid space cannot be measured directly, since it is difficult to sample interstitial fluid and since substances that equilibrate in interstitial fluid also equilibrate in plasma. The volume of the interstitial fluid can be calculated by subtracting the plasma volume from the ECF volume. The ECF volume/intracellular fluid volume ratio is larger in infants and children than it is in adults, but the absolute volume of ECF in children is, of course, smaller than in adults. Therefore, dehydration develops more rapidly and is frequently more severe in children than in adults.

Intracellular Fluid Volume

The intracellular fluid volume cannot be measured directly, but it can be calculated by subtracting the ECF volume from the TBW. TBW can be measured by the same dilution principle used to measure the other body spaces. Deuterium oxide (D_2O heavy water) is most frequently used. D_2O has slightly different properties from those of H_2O , but in equilibration experiments for measuring body water it gives accurate results. Tritium oxide and aminopyrine have also been used for this purpose.

The water content of lean body tissue is constant at 71–72 mL/100 g of tissue, but since fat is relatively free of water, the ratio of TBW to body weight varies with the amount of fat present. TBW is somewhat lower in women than men, and in both sexes, the values tend to decrease with age (Table 1–1).

Units for Measuring Concentration of Solutes

In considering the effects of various physiologically important substances and the interactions between them, the number of molecules, electrical

charges, or particles of a substance per unit volume of a particular body fluid are often more meaningful than simply the weight of the substance per unit volume. For this reason, concentrations are frequently expressed in moles, equivalents, or osmoles.

Moles

A mole is the gram-molecular weight of a substance, ie, the molecular weight of the substance in grams. Each mole (mol) consists of approximately 6×10^{23} molecules. The millimole (mmol) is 1/1000 of a mole, and the micromole (μ mol) is 1/1,000,000 of a mole. Thus, 1 mol of NaCl = 23 + 35.5 g = 58.5 g, and 1 mmol = 58.5 mg. The mole is the standard unit for expressing the amount of substances in the SI unit system (see Appendix).

The molecular weight of a substance is the ratio of the mass of one molecule of the substance to the mass of one-twelfth the mass of an atom of carbon-12. Since molecular weight is a ratio, it is dimensionless. The dalton (Da) is a unit of mass equal to one-twelfth the mass of an atom of carbon-12, and 1000 Da = 1 kilodalton (kDa). The kilodalton, which is sometimes expressed simply as K, is a useful unit for expressing the molecular mass of proteins. Thus, for example, one can speak of a 64 K protein or state that the molecular mass of the protein is 64,000 Da. However, since molecular weight is a dimensionless ratio, it is incorrect to say that the molecular weight of the protein is 64 kDa.

Equivalents

The concept of electrical equivalence is important in physiology because many of the important solutes in the body are in the form of charged particles. One equivalent (eq) is 1 mol of an ionized substance divided by its valence. One mole of NaCl dissociates into 1 eq of Na^+ and 1 eq of Cl^- . One equivalent of Na^+ = 23 g/L = 23 g; but 1 eq of Ca^{2+} = 40 g/2 = 20 g. The milliequivalent (meq) is 1/1000 of 1 eq.

Electrical equivalence is not necessarily the same as chemical equivalence. A gram equivalent is the weight of a substance that is chemically equivalent to 8.000 g of oxygen. The normality (N) of a solution is the number of gram equivalents in 1 liter. A 1 N solution of hydrochloric acid contains 1 + 35.5 g/L = 36.5 g/L.

pH

The maintenance of a stable hydrogen ion concentration in the body fluids is essential to life. The pH of a solution is the logarithm to the base 10 of the reciprocal of the H^+ concentration ($[H^+]$), ie, the negative logarithm of the $[H^+]$. The pH of water at 25 °C, in which H^+ and OH^- ions are present in equal numbers, is 7.0 (Figure 1–2). For each pH unit less than 7.0, the $[H^+]$ is increased tenfold; for each pH unit above 7.0, it is decreased tenfold.

Table 1–1. Total body water (as percentage of body weight) in relation to age and sex.

Age	Male	Female
10–18	59%	57%
18–40	61%	51%
40–60	55%	47%
Over 60	52%	46%

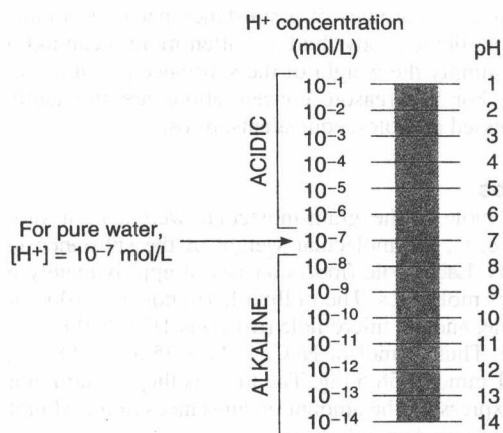


Figure 1-2. pH. (Reproduced, with permission, from Alberts B et al: *Molecular Biology of the Cell*. Garland, 1983.)

Buffers

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. One buffer in the body is carbonic acid. This acid is only partly dissociated into H^+ and bicarbonate: $H_2CO_3 \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCO_3^-$. 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 H_2CO_3 , and the decline in H^+ concentration is minimized. Other buffers include the blood proteins and the proteins in cells. The quantitative aspects of buffering and the respiratory and renal adjustments that operate with buffers to maintain a stable ECF pH of 7.40 are discussed in Chapter 39.

Diffusion

Diffusion is the process by which a gas or a substance in solution expands, because of the motion of its particles, to fill all of the available volume. The particles (molecules or atoms) of a substance dissolved in a solvent are in continuous random movement. A given particle is equally likely to move into or out of an area in which it is present in high concentration. However, since there are more particles in the area of high concentration, the total number of particles moving to areas of lower concentration is greater; ie, there is a **net flux** of solute particles from

areas of high to areas of low concentration. The time required for equilibrium by diffusion is proportionate to the square of the diffusion distance. The magnitude of the diffusing tendency from one region to another is directly proportionate to the cross-sectional area across which diffusion is taking place and the **concentration gradient**, or **chemical gradient**, which is the difference in concentration of the diffusing substance divided by the thickness of the boundary (**Fick's law of diffusion**). Thus,

$$J = -DA \frac{\Delta c}{\Delta x}$$

where J is the net rate of diffusion, D is the diffusion coefficient, A is the area, and $\Delta c/\Delta x$ is the concentration gradient. The minus sign indicates the direction of diffusion. When considering movement of molecules from a higher to a lower concentration, $\Delta c/\Delta x$ is negative, so multiplying by $-DA$ gives a positive value. The permeabilities of the boundaries across which diffusion occurs in the body vary, but diffusion is still a major force affecting the distribution of water and solutes.

Osmosis

When a substance is dissolved in water, the concentration of water molecules in the solution is less than that in pure water, since the addition of solute to water results in a solution that occupies a greater volume than does the water alone. If the solution is placed on one side of a membrane that is permeable to water but not to the solute and an equal volume of water is placed on the other, water molecules diffuse down their concentration gradient into the solution (Figure 1-3). This process—the diffusion of **solvent** molecules into a region in which there is a higher concentration of a **solute** to which the membrane is impermeable—is called **osmosis**. It is an important factor in physiologic processes. The tendency for movement of solvent molecules to a region of greater solute concentration can be prevented by applying pressure to the more concentrated solution. The pressure necessary to prevent solvent migration is the **osmotic pressure** of the solution.

Osmotic pressure, like vapor pressure lowering, freezing-point depression, and boiling-point elevation, depends upon the number rather than the type of particles in a solution; ie, it is a fundamental colligative property of solutions. In an **ideal solution**, osmotic pressure (P) is related to temperature and volume in the same way as the pressure of a gas:

$$P = \frac{nRT}{V}$$

where n is the number of particles, R is the gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, and V is the volume. If T is held constant, it is clear that the osmotic pressure is proportionate to the number of particles in

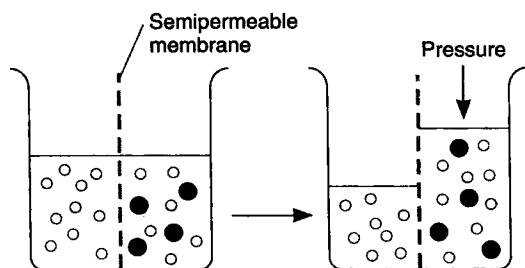


Figure 1–3. Diagrammatic representation of osmosis. Water molecules are represented by small open circles, solute molecules by large solid circles. In the diagram on the left, water is placed on one side of a membrane permeable to water but not to solute, and an equal volume of a solution of the solute is placed on the other. Water molecules move down their concentration gradient into the solution, and, as shown in the diagram on the right, the volume of the solution increases. As indicated by the arrow on the right, the osmotic pressure is the pressure that would have to be applied to prevent the movement of the water molecules.

solution per unit volume of solution. For this reason, the concentration of osmotically active particles is usually expressed in **osmoles**. One osmole (osm) equals the gram-molecular weight of a substance divided by the number of freely moving particles that each molecule liberates in solution. The milliosmole (mosm) is 1/1000 of 1 osm.

If a solute is a nonionizing compound such as glucose, the osmotic pressure is a function of the number of glucose molecules present. If the solute ionizes and forms an ideal solution, each ion is an osmotically active particle. For example, NaCl would dissociate into Na^+ and Cl^- ions, so that each mole in solution would supply 2 osm. One mole of Na_2SO_4 would dissociate into Na^+ , Na^+ , and SO_4^{2-} , supplying 3 osm. However, the body fluids are not ideal solutions, and although the dissociation of strong electrolytes is complete, the number of particles free to exert an osmotic effect is reduced owing to interactions between the ions. Thus, it is actually the effective concentration (**activity**) in the body fluids rather than the number of equivalents of an electrolyte in solution that determines its osmotic effect. This is why, for example, 1 mmol of NaCl per liter in the body fluids contributes somewhat less than 2 mosm of osmotically active particles per liter. The more concentrated the solution, the greater the deviation from an ideal solution.

The osmolal concentration of a substance in a fluid is measured by the degree to which it depresses the freezing point, with 1 mol of an ideal solution depressing the freezing point 1.86 Celsius degrees. The number of milliosmoles per liter in a solution equals the freezing point depression divided by 0.00186.

The **osmolarity** is the number of osmoles per liter of solution—eg, plasma—whereas the **osmolality** is the number of osmoles per kilogram of solvent. Therefore, osmolarity is affected by the volume of the various solutes in the solution and the temperature, while the osmolality is not. Osmotically active substances in the body are dissolved in water, and the density of water is 1, so osmolal concentrations can be expressed as osmoles per liter (osm/L) of water. In this book, osmolal (rather than osmolar) concentrations are considered, and osmolality is expressed in milliosmoles per liter (of water).

Note that although a homogeneous solution contains osmotically active particles and can be said to have an osmotic pressure, it can exert an osmotic pressure only when it is in contact with another solution across a membrane permeable to the solvent but not to the solute.

Osmolal Concentration of Plasma: Tonicity

The freezing point of normal human plasma averages -0.54°C , which corresponds to an osmolal concentration in plasma of 290 mosm/L. This is equivalent to an osmotic pressure against pure water of 7.3 atmospheres. The osmolality might be expected to be higher than this, because the sum of all the cation and anion equivalents in plasma is over 300. It is not this high because plasma is not an ideal solution and ionic interactions reduce the number of particles free to exert an osmotic effect. Except when there has been insufficient time after a sudden change in composition for equilibrium to occur, all fluid compartments of the body are in or nearly in osmotic equilibrium. The term **tonicity** is used to describe the osmolality of a solution relative to plasma. Solutions that have the same osmolality as plasma are said to be **isotonic**; those with greater osmolality are **hypertonic**; and those with lesser osmolality are **hypotonic**. All solutions that are initially isosmotic with plasma—ie, that have the same actual osmotic pressure or freezing-point depression as plasma—would remain isotonic if it were not for the fact that some solutes diffuse into cells and others are metabolized. Thus, a 0.9% saline solution remains isotonic because there is no net movement of the osmotically active particles in the solution into cells and the particles are not metabolized. On the other hand, a 5% glucose solution is isotonic when initially infused intravenously, but glucose is metabolized, so the net effect is that of infusing a hypotonic solution.

It is important to note the relative contributions of the various plasma components to the total osmolal concentration of plasma. All but about 20 of the 290 mosm in each liter of normal plasma are contributed by Na^+ and its accompanying anions, principally Cl^- and HCO_3^- . Other cations and anions make a relatively small contribution. Although the concentration of the plasma proteins is large when expressed in

grams per liter, they normally contribute less than 2 mosm/L because of their very high molecular weights. The major nonelectrolytes of plasma are glucose and urea, which in the steady state are in equilibrium with cells. Their contributions to osmolality are normally about 5 mosm/L each but can become quite large in hyperglycemia or uremia. The total plasma osmolality is important in assessing dehydration, overhydration, and other fluid and electrolyte abnormalities. Hyperosmolality can cause coma (hyperosmolar coma; see Chapter 19). Because of the predominant role of the major solutes and the deviation of plasma from an ideal solution, one can ordinarily approximate the plasma osmolality within a few milliosmoles per liter by using the following formula, in which the constants convert the clinical units to millimoles of solute per liter:

$$\text{Osmolality} = 2[\text{Na}^+] + 0.055[\text{Glucose}] + 0.36[\text{BUN}]$$

(mosm/L) (meq/L) (mg/dL) (mg/dL)

BUN is the blood urea nitrogen. The formula is also useful in calling attention to abnormally high concentrations of other solutes. An observed plasma osmolality (measured by freezing-point depression) that greatly exceeds the value predicted by this formula probably indicates the presence of a foreign substance such as ethanol, mannitol (sometimes injected to shrink swollen cells osmotically), or poisons such as ethylene glycol or methanol (components of antifreeze).

Regulation of Cell Volume

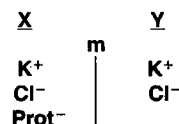
Unlike plant cells, which have rigid walls, animal cell membranes are flexible. Therefore, animal cells swell when exposed to extracellular hypotonicity and shrink when exposed to extracellular hypertonicity. However, cell swelling activates channels in the cell membrane that permit increased efflux of K^+ , Cl^- , organic anions, and small organic solutes referred to collectively as **organic osmolytes**. Water follows these osmotically active particles out of the cell, and the cell volume returns to normal. Ion channels and other membrane transport proteins are discussed in detail in a later section of this chapter.

Nonionic Diffusion

Some weak acids and bases are quite soluble in cell membranes in the undissociated form, whereas they cross membranes with difficulty in the ionic form. Consequently, if molecules of the undissociated substance diffuse from one side of the membrane to the other and then dissociate, there is appreciable net movement of the undissociated substance from one side of the membrane to another. This phenomenon, which occurs in the gastrointestinal tract (see Chapter 25) and kidneys (see Chapter 38), is called **nonionic diffusion**.

Donnan Effect

When there is an ion on one side of a membrane that cannot diffuse through the membrane, the distribution of other ions to which the membrane is permeable is affected in a predictable way. For example, the negative charge of a nondiffusible anion hinders diffusion of the diffusible cations and favors diffusion of the diffusible anions. Consider the following situation,



in which the membrane (m) between compartments X and Y is impermeable to Prot^- but freely permeable to K^+ and Cl^- . Assume that the concentrations of the anions and of the cations on the two sides are initially equal. Cl^- diffuses down its concentration gradient from Y to X, and K^+ moves with the negatively charged Cl^- , maintaining electroneutrality on side Y. Therefore, at equilibrium,

$$[\text{K}^+]_X > [\text{K}^+]_Y$$

Furthermore,

$$[\text{K}^+]_X + [\text{Cl}^-]_X + [\text{Prot}^-]_X > [\text{K}^+]_Y + [\text{Cl}^-]_Y$$

ie, there are more osmotically active particles on side X than on side Y.

Donnan and Gibbs showed that in the presence of a nondiffusible ion, the diffusible ions distribute themselves so that at equilibrium, their concentration ratios are equal:

$$\frac{[\text{K}^+]_X}{[\text{K}^+]_Y} = \frac{[\text{Cl}^-]_Y}{[\text{Cl}^-]_X}$$

Cross-multiplying,

$$[\text{K}^+]_X [\text{Cl}^-]_X = [\text{K}^+]_Y [\text{Cl}^-]_Y$$

This is the **Gibbs-Donnan equation**. It holds for any pair of cations and anions of the same valence.

The Donnan effect on the distribution of ions has three effects in the body. First, because of proteins (Prot^-) in cells, there are more osmotically active particles in cells than in interstitial fluid, and since animal cells have flexible walls, osmosis would make them swell and eventually rupture if it were not for Na^+ - K^+ ATPase pumping ions back out of cells (see below). Thus, normal cell volume and pressure depend on Na^+ - K^+ ATPase. Second, because at equilibrium there is an asymmetric distribution of permeant ions across the membrane (m in the example used here), there will be an electrical difference across the membrane whose magnitude can be determined by the Nernst equation (see below). In the example used