

# Chapter 9

## Excretion and the Interaction of Systems



# Goals for This Chapter

1. Describe the function of the kidney in excreting wastes and expelling them into the environment
2. Identify the main structures and functions of the human excretory system
3. Explain the function of the nephron
4. Describe how the kidneys maintain homeostasis with respect to water and ions
5. Relate the design of dialysis technologies to the design of the kidney

# Excretion of Wastes

- Excretion is the process of separating wastes from the body fluids and eliminating them
- The respiratory system (lungs) and the skin (sweat) are both involved in excretion
- Your liver metabolizes (breaks down) toxic blood compounds and prepares them for excretion by the kidneys
- However, the elimination of solid food residue (feces) by the large intestine (colon) is not considered to be excretion

# The Role of the Liver

- Our liver cells break down complex compounds into simpler ones
- Many of the simple compounds can be toxic – therefore must be excreted
- Protein contains nitrogen. The amino group ( $\text{NH}_2$ ) must be excreted from the body.
  - The liver begins this process by converting  $\text{NH}_2$  to ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ). This is referred to as **deamination**.
  - The liver then combines this ammonia (water soluble toxic gas) with carbon dioxide to form urea (much less toxic)
  - Uric acid is another waste product produced in the liver from the breakdown of nucleic acids, like DNA, for example.



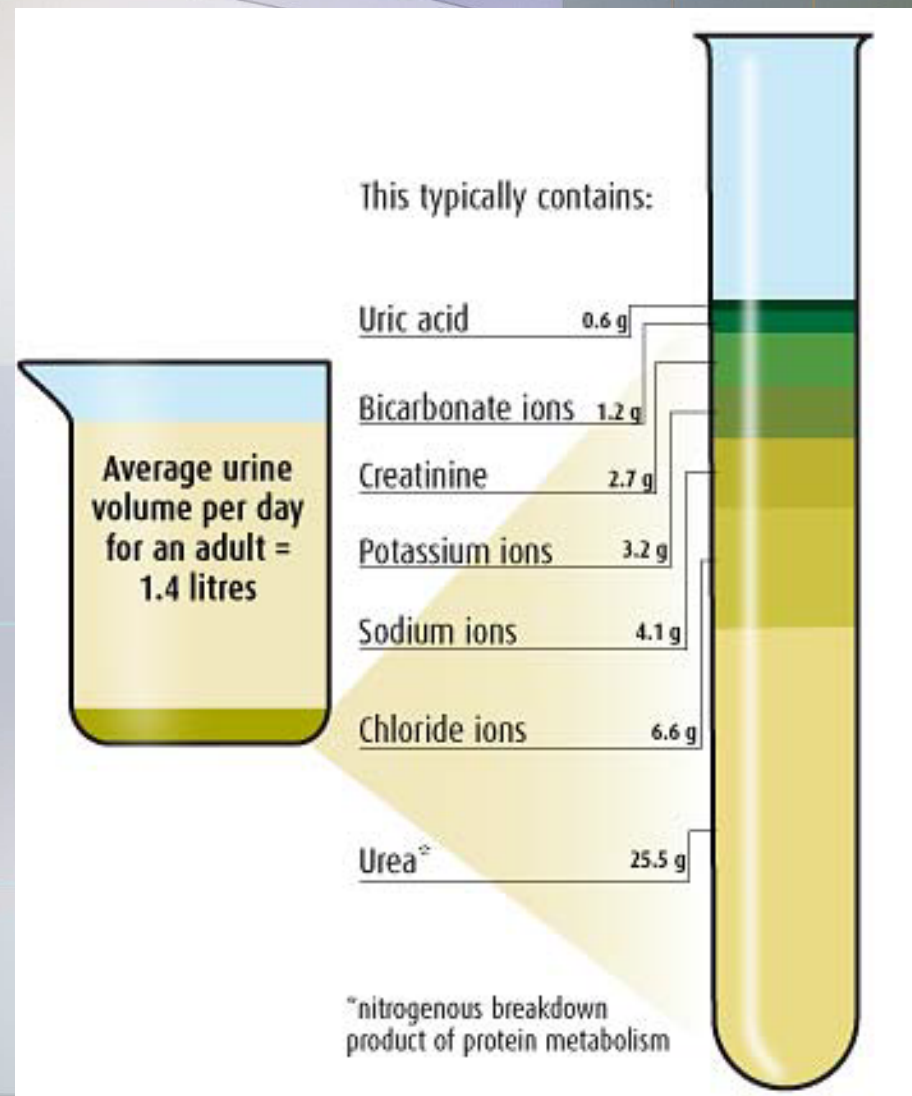
# The Importance of Kidneys

- The kidneys filter out the urea and uric acid from the blood to form urine (stored in the urinary bladder)
- The kidneys play a crucial role in filtering / removing waste
- Kidneys also balance blood pH and maintain water / salt balance.
  - more on this later!!

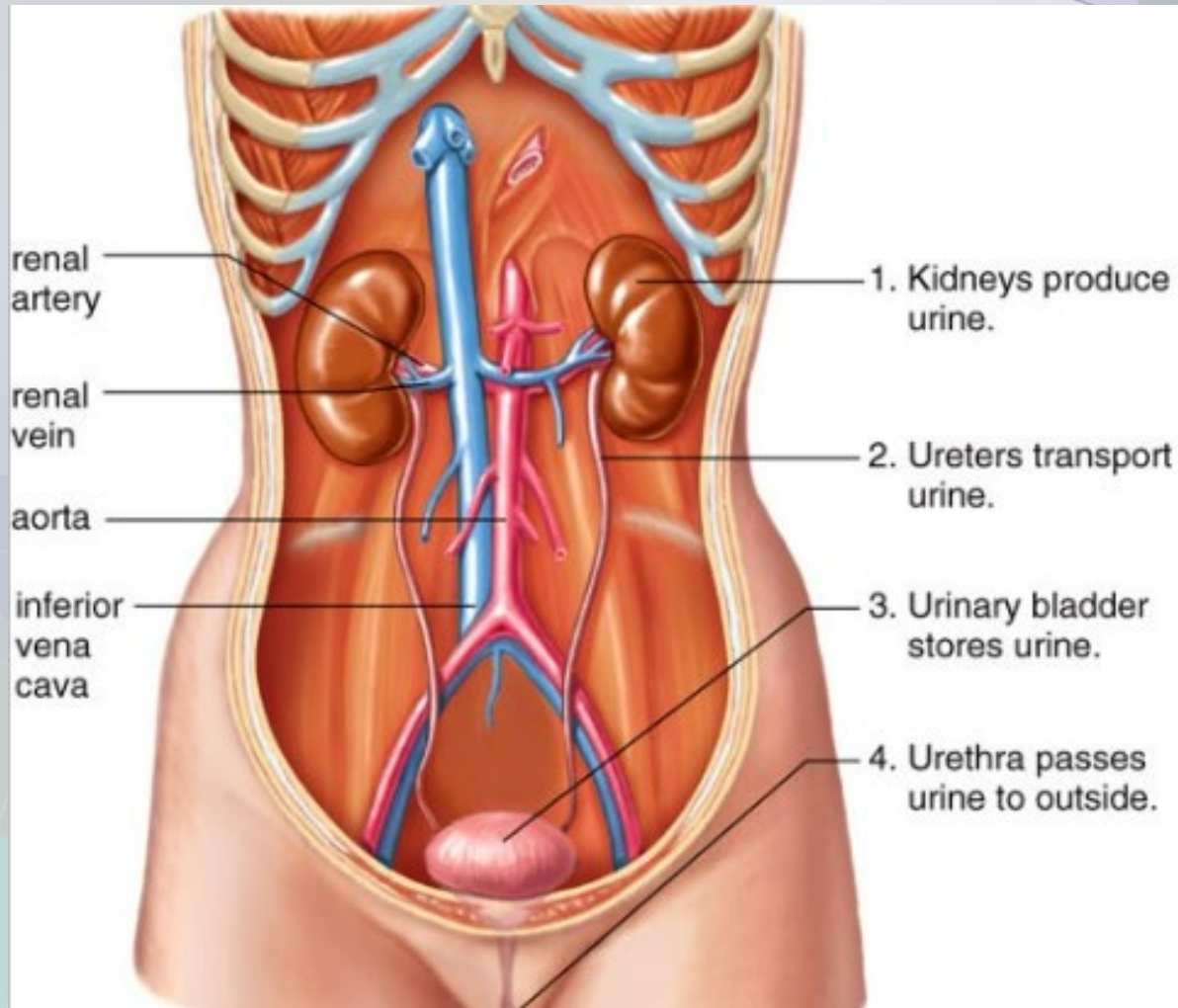
# Composition of Urine

Waste drains out of the kidneys in the form of urine. Urine is about 95% water and 5% urea (from protein breakdown).

Fresh urine has no bacteria in it. It is quite sterile (probably cleaner than your hands).



# The Urinary System



# The Urinary System - Overview

- Renal arteries branch from the aorta and enter the kidneys
- Waste is filtered from the blood in the kidneys and sent to the bladder via ureters
- The urinary sphincter at the base of the bladder releases urine into the urethra, where it leaves the body



# Urinary Organs

## ■ Ureters

- Conduct urine from kidney to bladder
- Conveys urine by peristalsis

## ■ Urinary bladder

- Stores urine
- Expandable
  - Middle layer of circular muscle – can constrict or dilate
- 2 sphincters in bladder neck
  - Internal sphincter – smooth muscle
    - » Involuntary control
  - External sphincter – skeletal muscle
    - » Voluntary control

# Urinary Organs

- Urethra

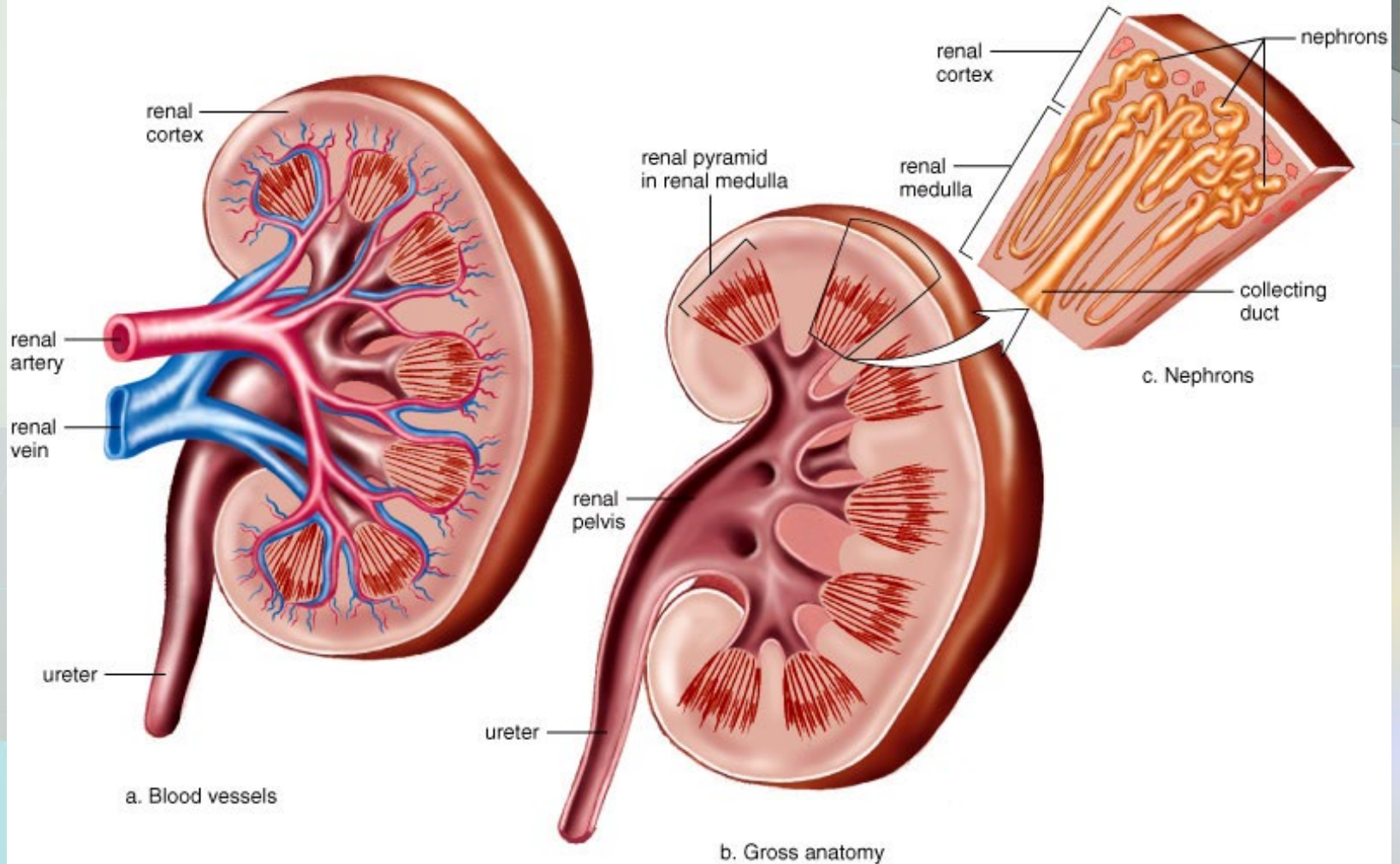
- Conducts urine out of body
- Very short in females
  - Increases likelihood of urinary tract infection
- Longer in males
  - Prostate associated with urethra
  - Common pathway for reproductive and urinary tracts

# The Kidney

- The kidney has three different layers
- An outer layer, the **cortex**, encircles the kidney
- The inner layer, the **medulla**, is found beneath the cortex
- The **renal pelvis** is a hollow chamber which joins the kidney with the ureter

# Gross Anatomy of the Kidney

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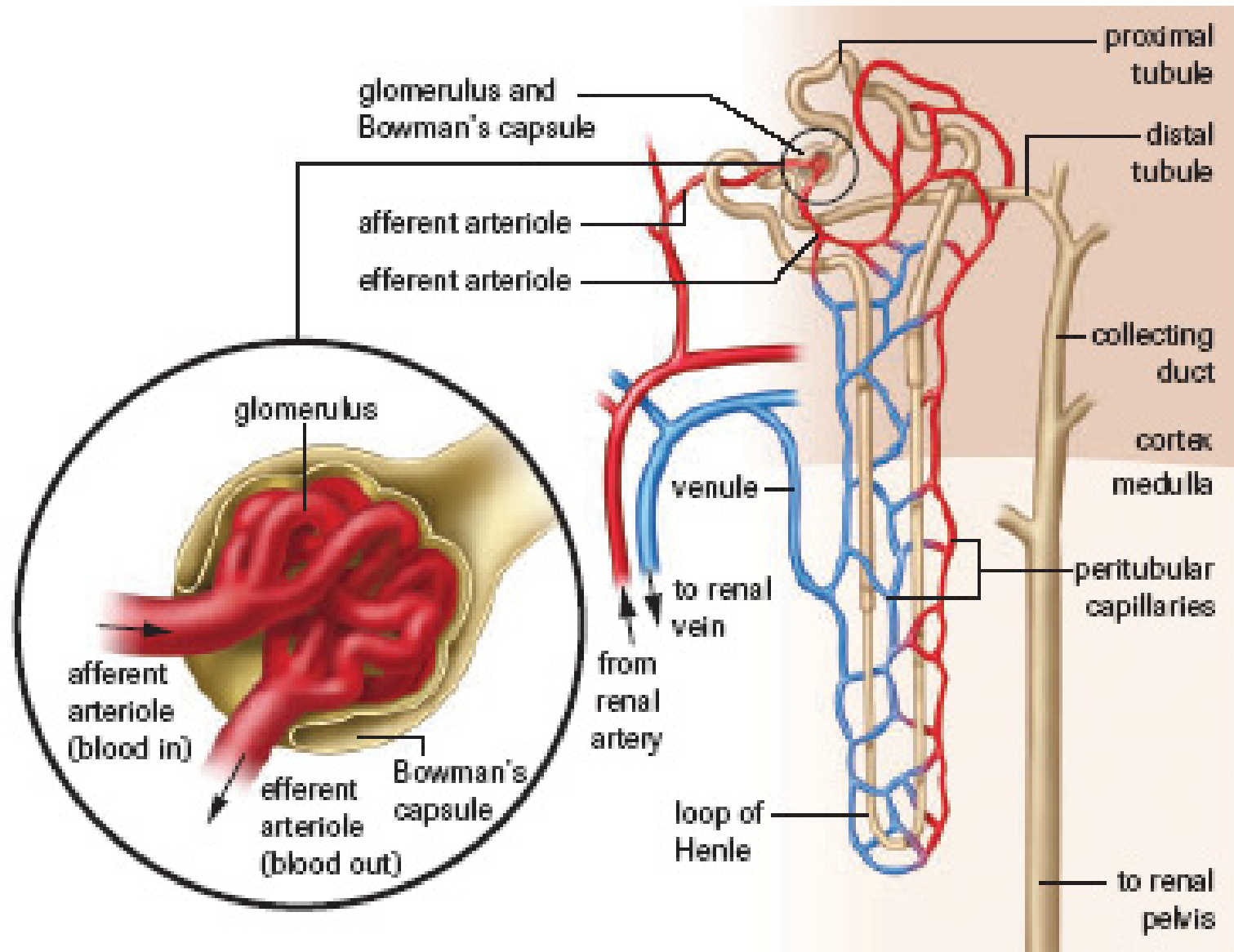




# Anatomy of the Kidney

## ■ Nephron

- Functional unit of kidney – filters blood
- Approximately one million nephrons in each kidney
- Each composed of a system of tubules
- Each has its own blood supply
  - From renal artery, **afferent arteriole** leads into **glomerulus**
    - » Glomerulus – specialized capillaries
    - » Blood leaves glomerulus by **efferent arteriole**
  - Efferent arteriole takes blood to peritubular capillaries
    - » Surround rest of the nephron
    - » Blood then goes to renal vein



# The Nephron

- **Nephron parts**

- **Bowman's capsule** (aka Glomerular capsule)

- Cuplike structure located in kidney cortex
    - Fluids to be processed into urine enter Bowman's capsule from the blood (major site of filtration)

- **Proximal convoluted tubule – PCT**

- located in kidney cortex
    - permeable to water, sodium, urea, and other solutes
    - Contains cells with microvilli
      - » Increased surface area for absorption

# The Nephron

- **Loop of Henle**

- U-shaped tube located in the renal medulla
  - **Descending limb** – permeable to water; NOT sodium
  - **Ascending limb** – lots of mitochondria (provide energy for active transport of wastes); permeable to urea & sodium, but NOT water

- **Distal convoluted tubule – DCT**

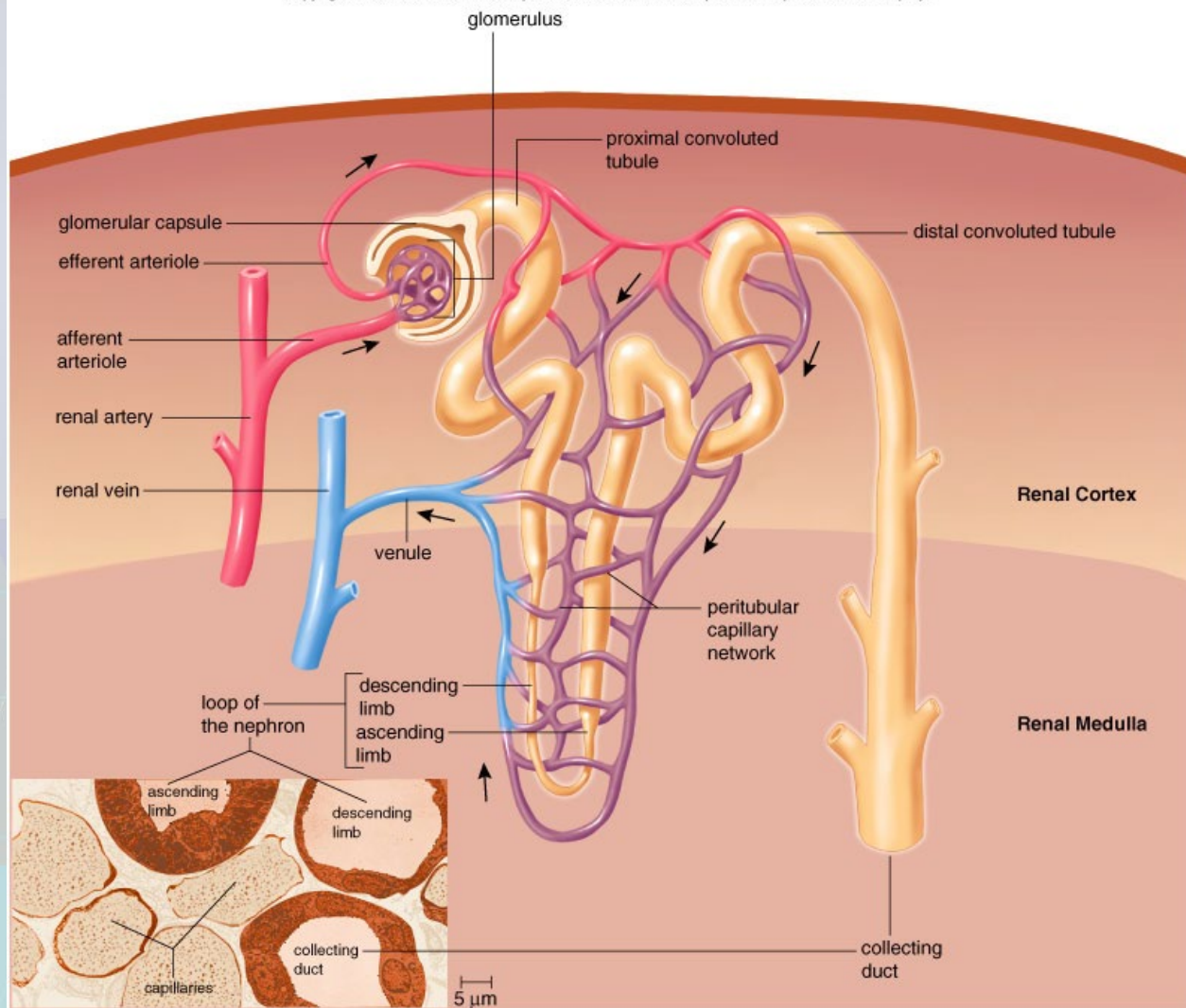
- Located in kidney cortex
- No microvilli – not permeable to water
  - reabsorb sodium and chloride ions
- DCT's of several nephrons enter one collecting duct

- **Collecting ducts** empty into renal pelvis



# Nephron Anatomy

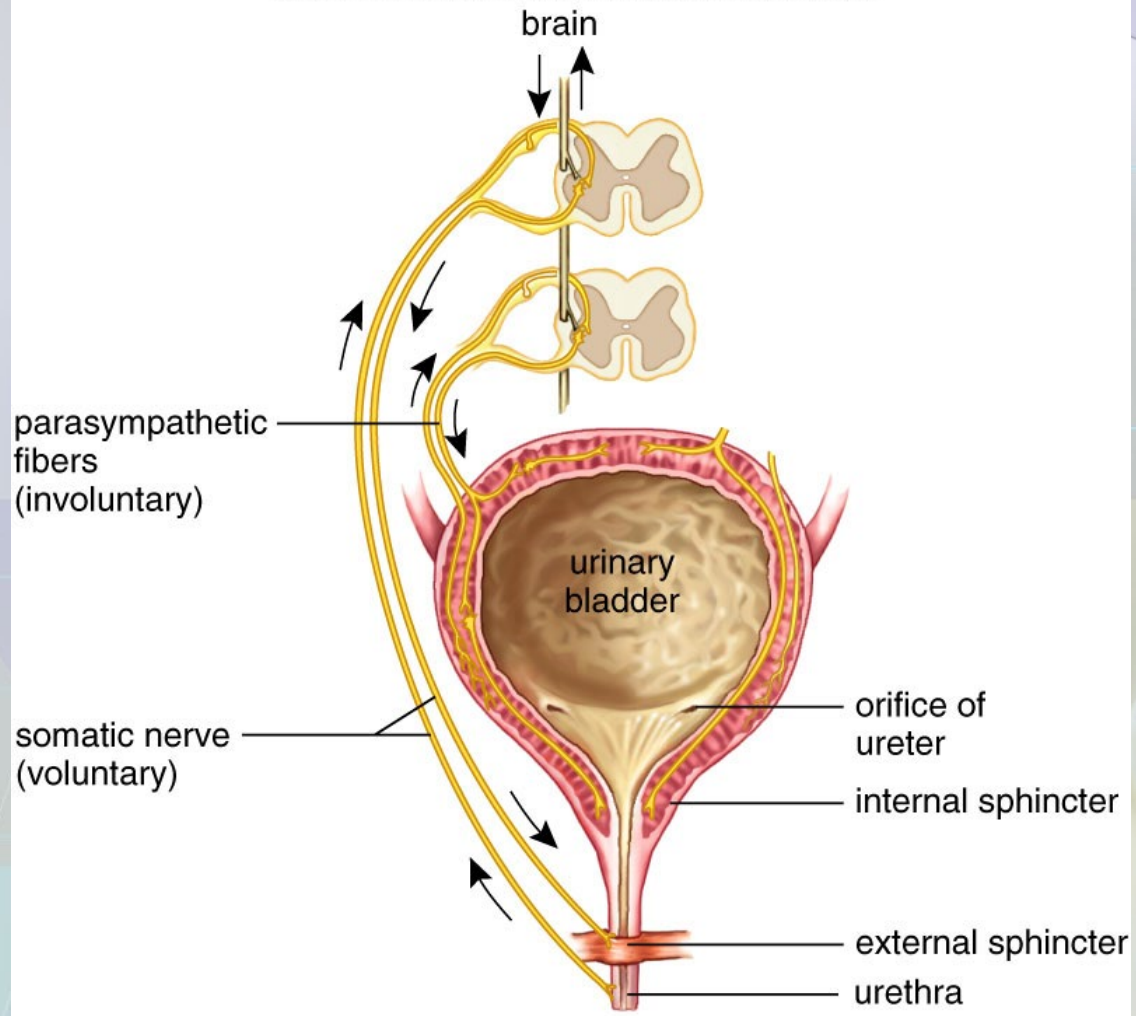
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Kidney Review

# Urination

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# Bladder Volume

- At a urine volume of 200 mL, the bladder stretches and sends a message to the brain indicating that it needs to be emptied
- At 400 mL, a more urgent message is produced
- At a volume of 600 mL, the voluntary control of the bladder is lost, and it empties itself

# Formation of Urine

- Formation of urine involves three functions:
  1. Filtration
  2. Reabsorption
  3. Secretion



# 1. Filtration

- Blood moves into the glomerulus, which acts as a high-pressure filter
- Dissolved solutes pass through the walls of the glomerulus into Bowman's capsule, creating a filtrate similar to blood plasma
- Plasma proteins, platelets and erythrocytes do not pass into Bowman's capsule because they are too large to pass through the membrane

| <b>Solute</b>   | <b>Glomerulus</b> | <b>Bowman's Capsule</b> |
|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| water           | yes               | yes                     |
| sodium chloride | yes               | yes                     |
| glucose         | yes               | yes                     |
| amino acids     | yes               | yes                     |
| hydrogen ions   | yes               | yes                     |
| urea            | yes               | yes                     |
| plasma proteins | yes               | no                      |
| erythrocytes    | yes               | no                      |
| platelets       | yes               | no                      |

## 2. Reabsorption

- About 120 mL of fluid per minute is filtered into the nephron – about 70% is reabsorbed back into the blood via the proximal convoluted tubule
- Reabsorption is required otherwise you would need to continually consume fluids to maintain homeostasis
- This is accomplished by active and passive transport

# Reabsorption From Nephrons

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**TABLE 16.1 REABSORPTION FROM NEPHRONS**

| <b>Substance</b> | <b>Amount<br/>Filtered<br/>(per day)</b> | <b>Amount<br/>Excreted<br/>(per day)</b> | <b>Reabsorption<br/>(%)</b> |
|------------------|--|--|-----------------------------|
| Water, L         | 180                                      | 1.8                                      | 99.0                        |
| Sodium, g        | 630                                      | 3.2                                      | 99.5                        |
| Glucose, g       | 180                                      | 0.0                                      | 100.0                       |
| Urea, g          | 54                                       | 30.0                                     | 44.0                        |

L = liters, g = grams

[Man vs. Wild](#)



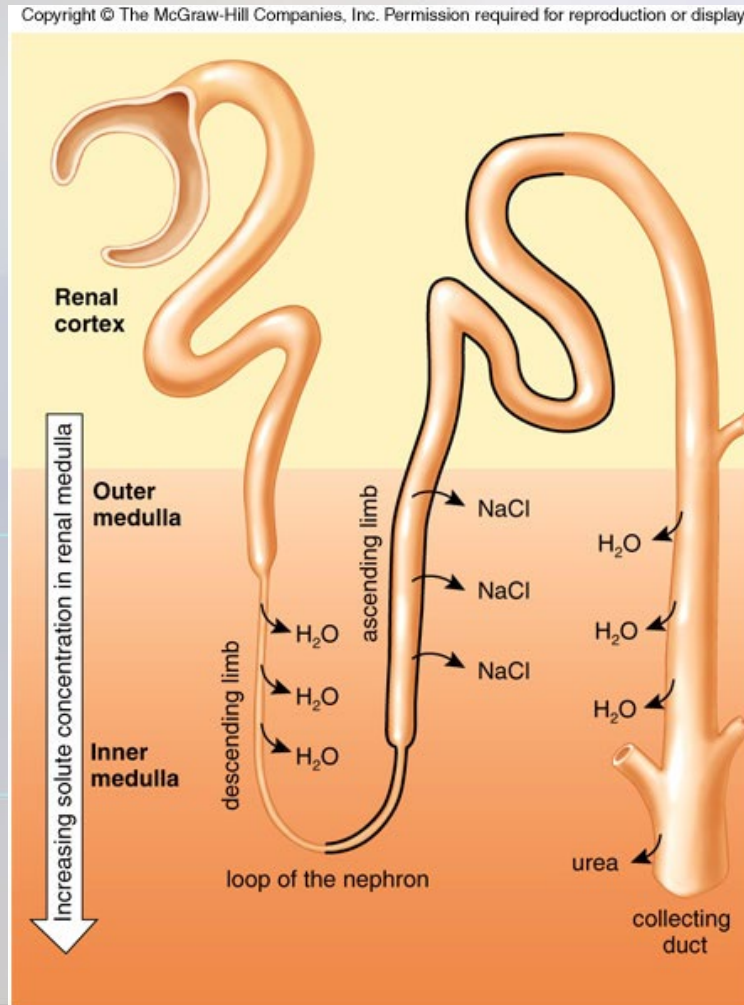
## 2. Reabsorption

- A hormone called aldosterone (released from adrenal glands) stimulates  $\text{Na}^+$  ions to be reabsorbed into the blood – via active transport – mostly in PCT (67%), ascending loop of Henle (25%), and a little in DCT (8%)
- For active transport, these cells have a large number of mitochondria to produce ATP (energy) to help reabsorb  $\text{Na}^+$ 
  - Negative ions, like  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , which are attracted to  $\text{Na}^+$ , then follow into the bloodstream via passive transport
  - The concentrated solutes in the blood create an osmotic pressure (concentration gradient) that pushes water back into the blood
- Glucose and amino acids are also reabsorbed into the blood by attaching themselves to carrier molecules
- This also increases osmotic pressure into the blood (more solutes in blood → water moves to blood)

# Reabsorption of Water

[Amoeba Sisters Review](#)

[CC Urinary System P1](#)



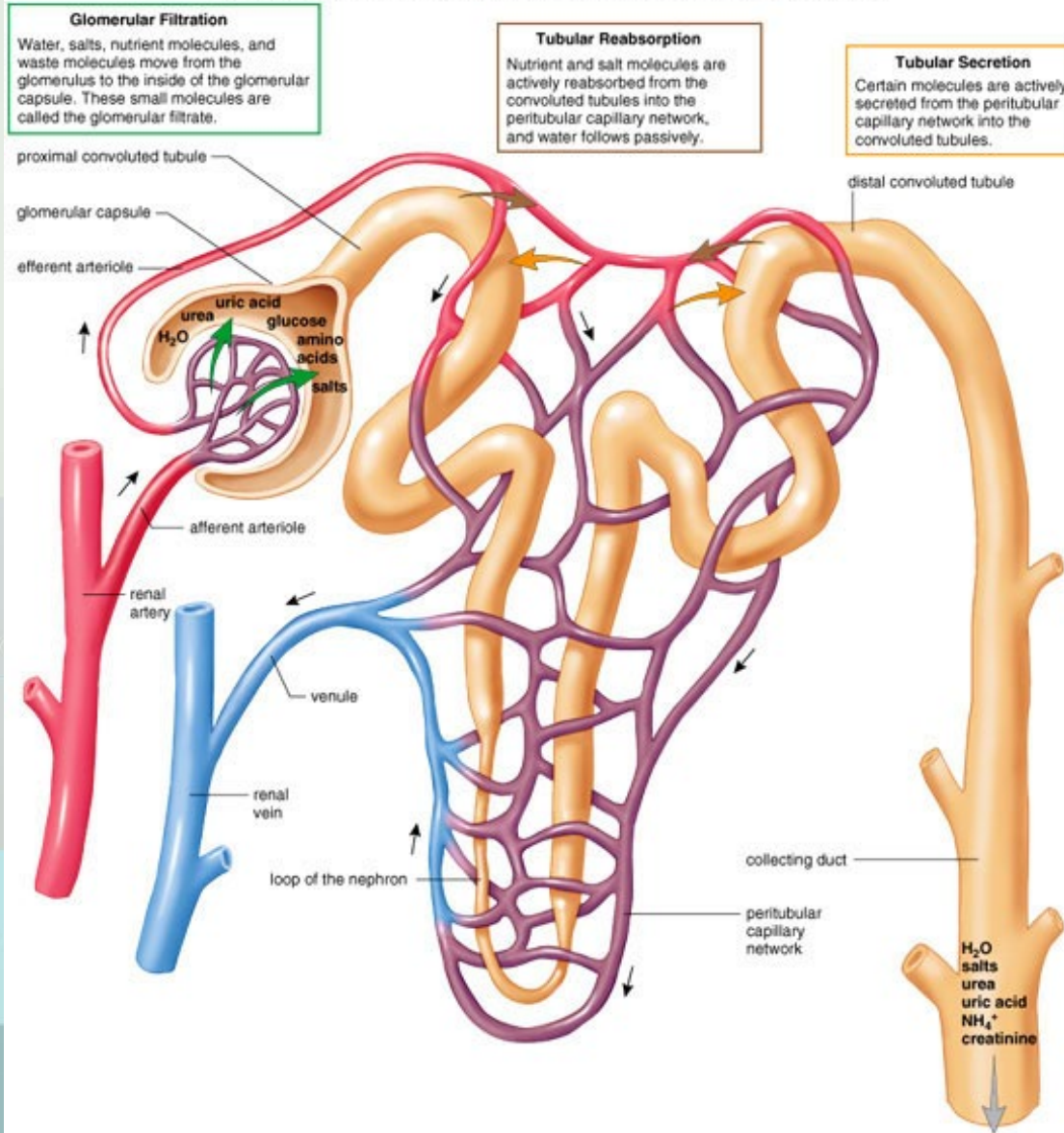
### 3. Secretion

- Secretion is the movement of wastes from the blood into the nephron
- Nitrogen wastes (urea), histamine, excess hydrogen ions, and mineral levels are balanced through secretion
- Secretion involves active transport, but molecules are moved from the blood into the nephron
- Occurs in PCT and DCT primarily (lined with mitochondria for energy)
- After reabsorption, there is some waste (among other materials to be excreted) still in blood.
- Need to get these back into the nephron – secretion
- Urine therefore contains filtered substances that have not been reabsorbed and those that have been actively secreted



# Processes in Urine Formation

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[Urine Formation](#)

[Urinary System Recap](#)

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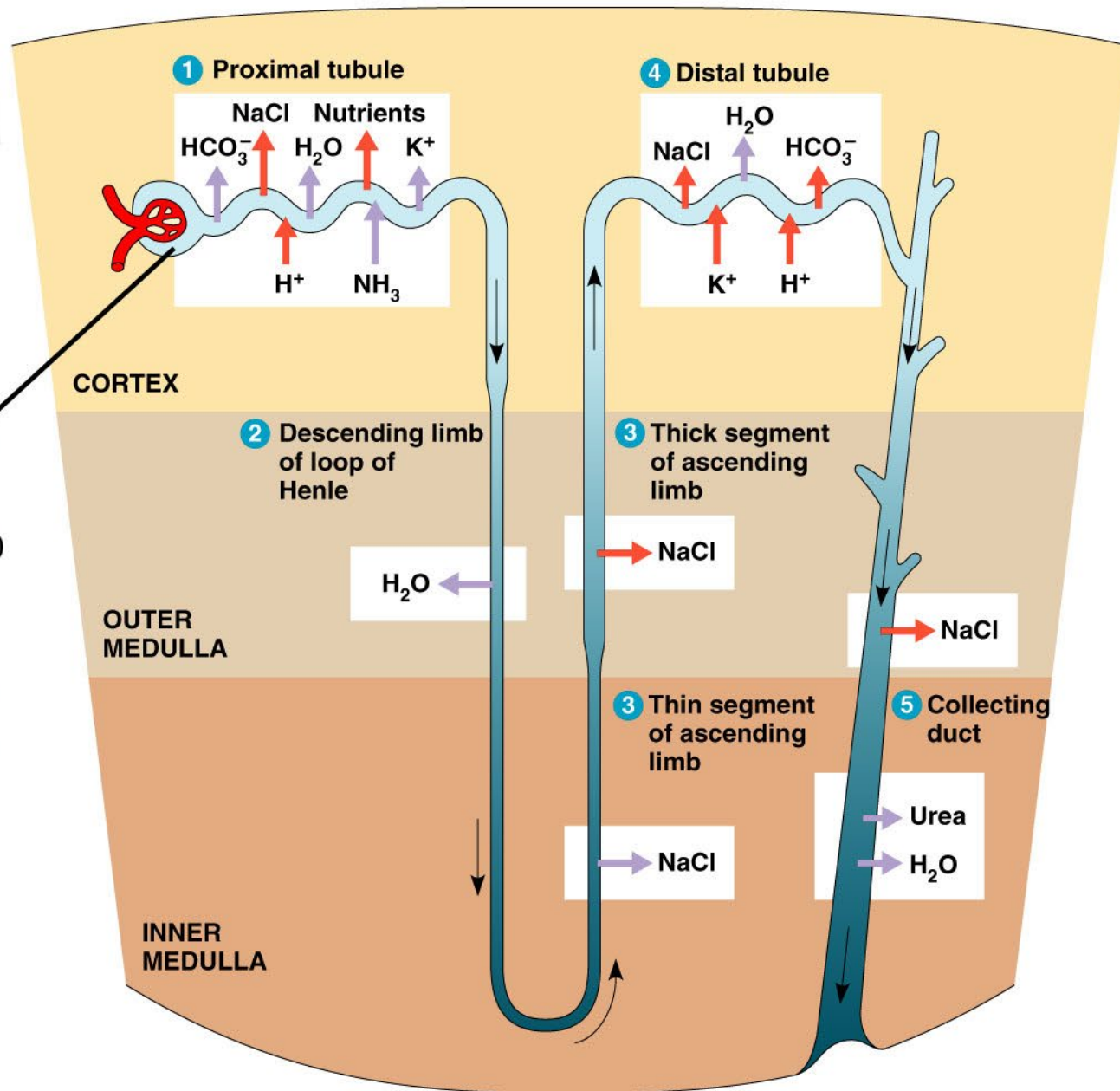


#### Filtrate

$\text{H}_2\text{O}$   
 Salts ( $\text{NaCl}$  and others)  
 $\text{HCO}_3^-$   
 $\text{H}^+$   
 Urea  
 Glucose; amino acids  
 Some drugs

#### Key

Active transport →  
 Passive transport →



# Water Balance

- Increased water intake is adjusted for by increasing urine output
- The kidneys rely on the nervous and endocrine systems to help maintain a balance of water
- Involves two main hormones:
  - aldosterone: increases sodium reabsorption (indirectly increases water reabsorption)
  - ADH: increases water reabsorption (directly)

# Regulating ADH

- ADH (antidiuretic hormone) – released from pituitary gland in brain – regulates the osmotic pressure in the kidneys to increase water absorption
- If ADH is released, more concentrated urine is produced
- ADH is released from the pituitary as the water from the pituitary cells leaves and they shrink (due to increased solute levels in the blood)
- The shrinking of pituitary cells also creates a sensation of thirst

# ADH and the Nephron

- ADH makes the upper part of the distal tubule and collecting duct permeable to water
- This allows NaCl in the intercellular spaces to create an osmotic pressure that draws water from the tubule back into the blood
  - negative feedback loop!



# Kidneys and Blood Pressure

- Kidneys regulate blood pressure by regulating blood volume
- Aldosterone acts on nephrons to increase  $\text{Na}^+$  reabsorption
- If there is a decrease in blood pressure, aldosterone is produced, which increases  $\text{Na}^+$  absorption and therefore brings more water into the blood, increasing its volume (and therefore, pressure)
  - negative feedback loop!

# The Kidney-Heart Connection

- Kidneys can fail due to high blood pressure
- If the blood vessels in the kidneys are damaged due to high blood pressure, they lose their ability to filter wastes effectively
- Unfortunately, the symptoms of high blood pressure and kidney impairment do not appear until the damage has already been done

# Regulating Kidney Output

- Diuretics – increase flow of urine
  - Alcohol
    - Shuts off ADH
    - Dehydration causes hangover
  - Caffeine
    - Increases glomerular filtration rate
    - Decreases reabsorption of sodium
  - Diuretic drugs
    - Many inhibit active transport of sodium at loop of Henle or DCT

# Kidneys Regulating Blood pH

- The blood pH is maintained by acid-base buffer systems
- The most important acid-base buffer system is the following equation:



pH decreases

pH increases



# Kidneys Regulating Blood pH

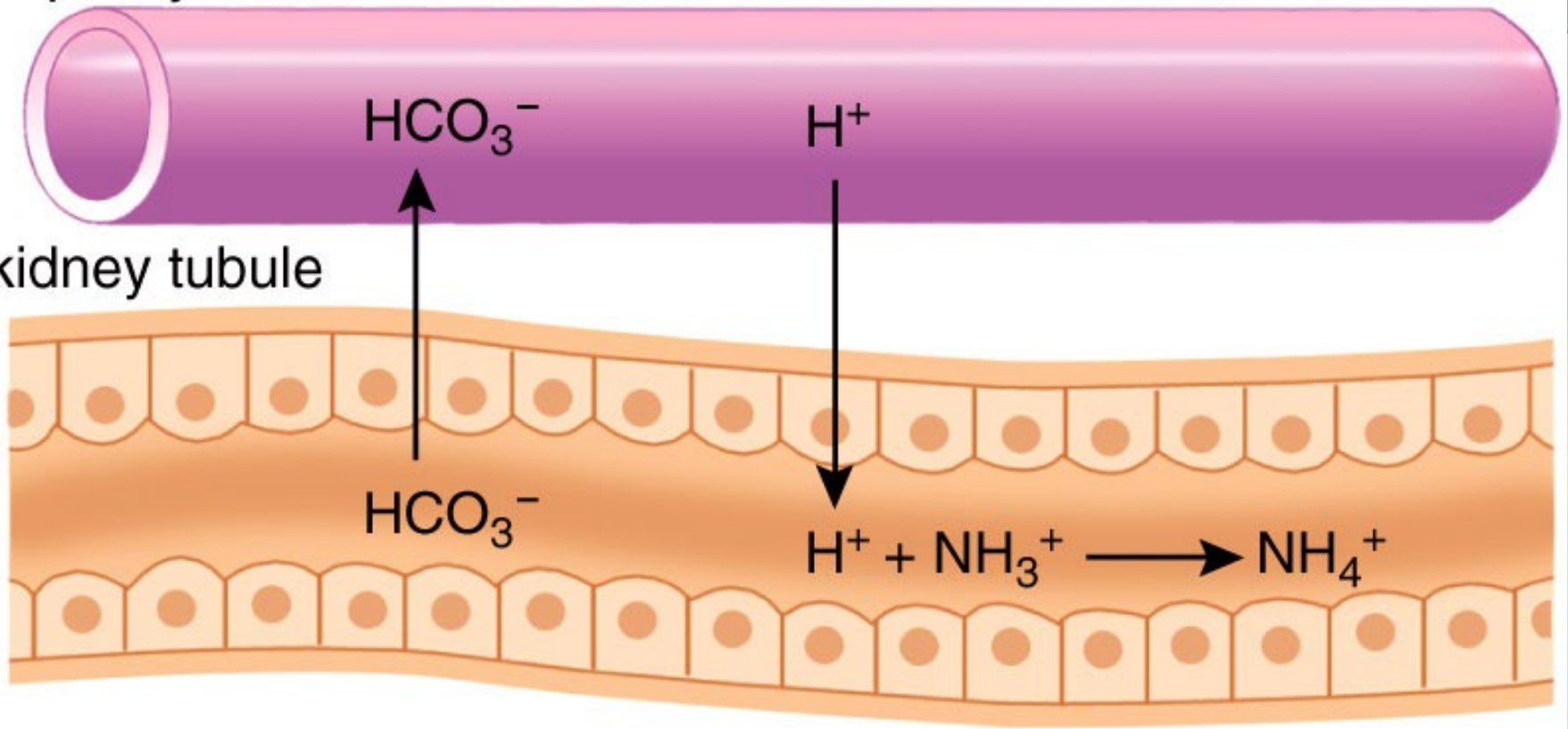
- The kidneys help to maintain this balance by balancing  $\text{H}^+$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$
- If the blood is too acidic,  $\text{H}^+$  is excreted and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is reabsorbed and returned to the blood (and vice versa)
- Buffer system is basically the same as in respiratory system!
  - slower acting but more powerful

# pH Balance

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capillary

kidney tubule



# Kidney Disorders

- Signs of kidney disease
  - Albumin (protein) in urine
  - Glucose in urine
  - Blood in urine
- Kidney stones
  - Caused by precipitation of minerals from blood
  - UTI, enlarged prostate, pH imbalance, ingestion of too much calcium can all cause kidney stones
  - If these stones lodge in the renal pelvis they may block urine from reaching the ureter and being excreted by the body.
  - Stones can move and tear tissue, causing severe pain
  - Treated with ultrasound break up or, if necessary, surgery



# Kidney Stones



Cystine Stones



# Diabetes Mellitus – Type 1 & 2

- Diabetes mellitus is caused by low to zero secretion of insulin from the islet cells in the pancreas
- Without insulin, blood sugar levels rise, so there is a lot of glucose that can't be reabsorbed into the blood. As a result, glucose is excreted in their urine.
- This sets up an osmotic gradient causing a lot of water to be excreted in urine and more frequent urination.
- Therefore, sufferers are often dehydrated and thirsty.



# Type 1 vs. Type 2 Diabetes

- Type 1 is when islet cells get attacked by immune system leading to no insulin production – autoimmune disorder
- Type 2 is when the islet cells either can't produce enough insulin, or the body experiences insulin resistance (doesn't work on cells)
- Both result in too much sugar in the blood (insulin reduces blood sugar) and more in the urine as a result.

# Diabetes Insipidus – Something Different

- This is caused by the undersecretion of ADH from the hypothalamus / pituitary
- ADH causes a direct reabsorption of water from the DCT and collecting ducts, making urine more concentrated
- Insipidus causes a dramatic increase in urine output (up to 20 L of urine per day!)
- People with this disease are often dehydrated and must drink huge volumes of water to maintain fluid balance

# Nephritis

- This collection of diseases is characterized by inflammation of the nephrons
- Capillaries in the nephron break and allow blood cells and other large components of blood to find way into the Bowman's capsule, and eventually, urine.
- These molecules cannot be reabsorbed, creating an osmotic pressure that pulls water into the nephron, increasing urine production
- Can lead to kidney failure or death if not treated

# Kidney Technologies - Dialysis

- If a kidney loses its function, then the patient may be in danger of dying from uric acid poisoning
- One solution for this condition is to perform dialysis – where a person's blood is filtered using a machine
- Two types:
  1. Hemodialysis
  2. Peritoneal Dialysis

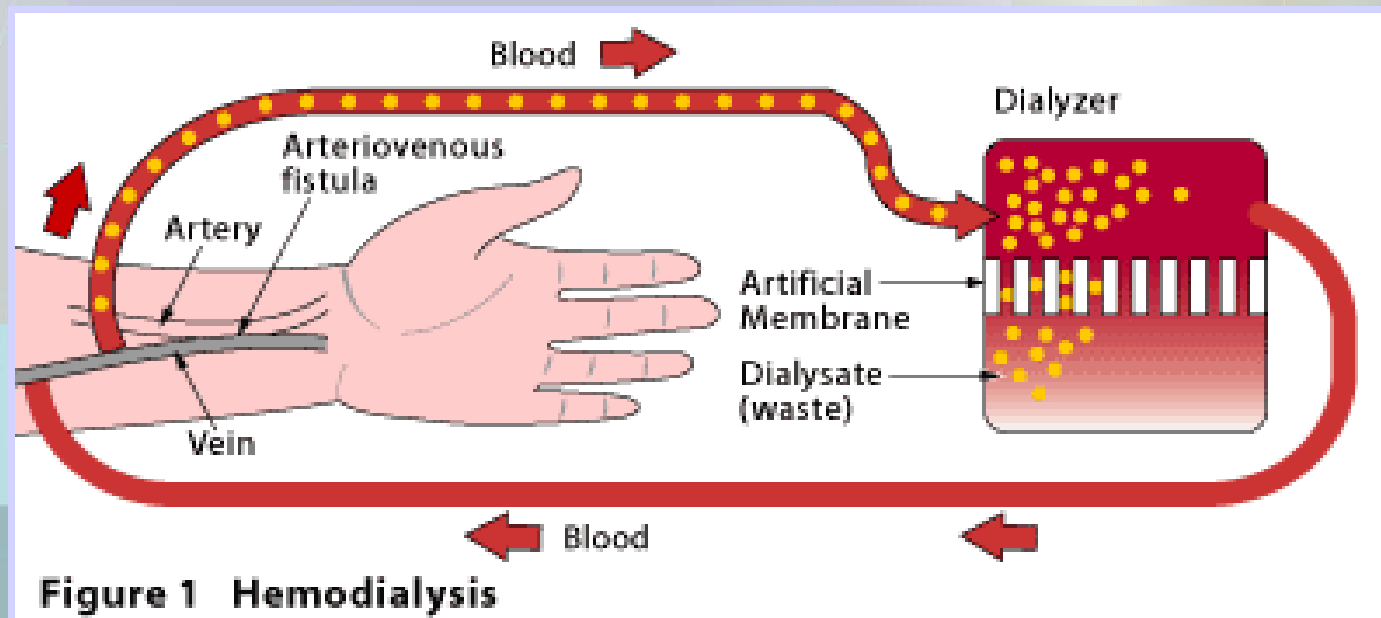


# Dialysis Machines (Hemodialysis)

- A dialysis machine consists of a long tube made from a semipermeable membrane immersed in a solution
- This solution contains the same ingredients as clean blood plasma (called dialysate)
- The patient's blood is passed through this tube and the wastes diffuse into the surrounding dialysate and is filtered

# Kidney Technologies - Dialysis

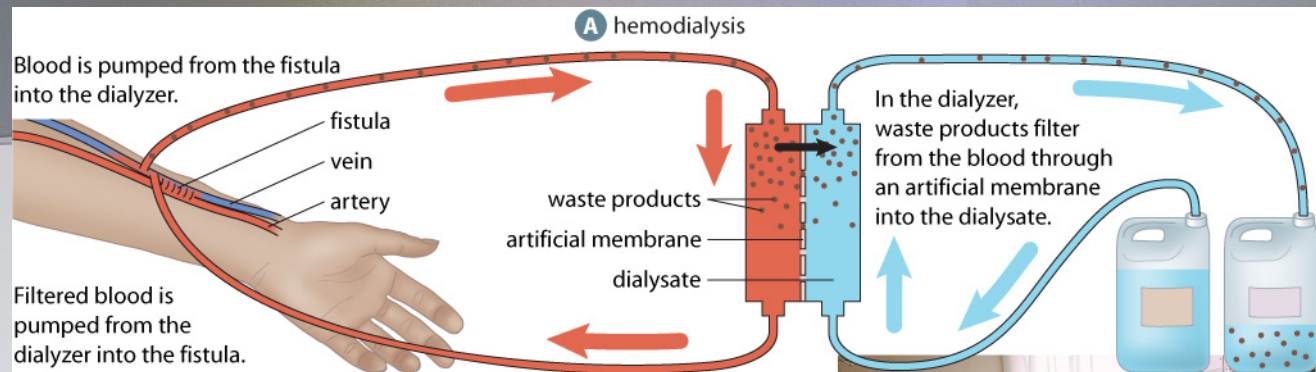
- Dialysis treatments take between 4 and 8 hours, and may be repeated up to three times a week
- As well, patients must have a strictly regulated diet to prevent excess levels of toxins to build up in their systems
- During dialysis, hormones the kidneys normally make (like erythropoietin) get added to the patient's blood



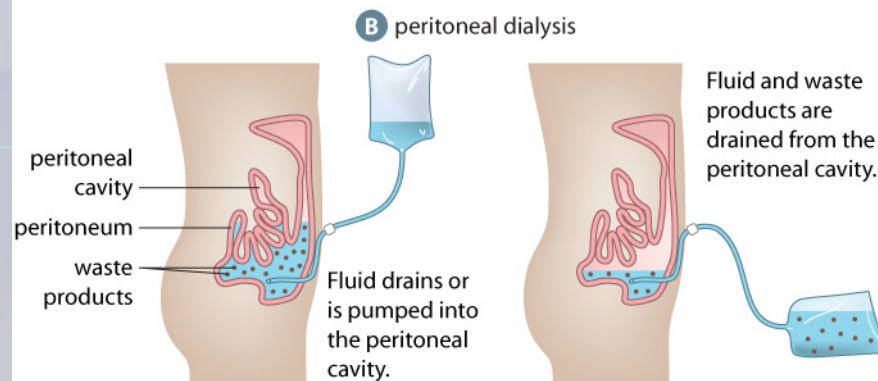
# Peritoneal Dialysis

- Peritoneal dialysis uses the lining of the intestines (the peritoneum) as the dialysis membrane
- The dialysate is introduced into the abdominal cavity, where the large surface area and the rich supply of capillaries slowly filter the blood of urea and other wastes

# Hemodialysis vs. Peritoneal Dialysis



**A** In hemodialysis, blood is pumped from an artery to a dialysis machine and returned to the body by way of a vein. (The artery and vein are surgically joined, forming what is called a fistula, to enable easier long-term access to the person's blood.) Each hemodialysis treatment takes three to five hours and is performed three or four times a week. A person must remain seated or lying down during the procedure.



**B** In peritoneal dialysis, a catheter (flexible tube) is surgically inserted into the abdominal cavity and dialysate may be delivered, removed, and replaced. Because dialysate is always present, the blood is continuously filtered. The full name for this type of dialysis is continual peritoneal dialysis, or CPD. There are several types of CPD. In continuous

ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (CAPD), the procedure can be done at home, work, or school—any place that is clean and convenient. Usually, three to five exchanges of fresh dialysate for used dialysate are needed each day. In automated peritoneal dialysis (APD), a machine performs the exchange, which often is done at night for a period of up to 12 hours.



**Figure 9.10**  
Hemodialysis (A) and  
peritoneal dialysis (B)

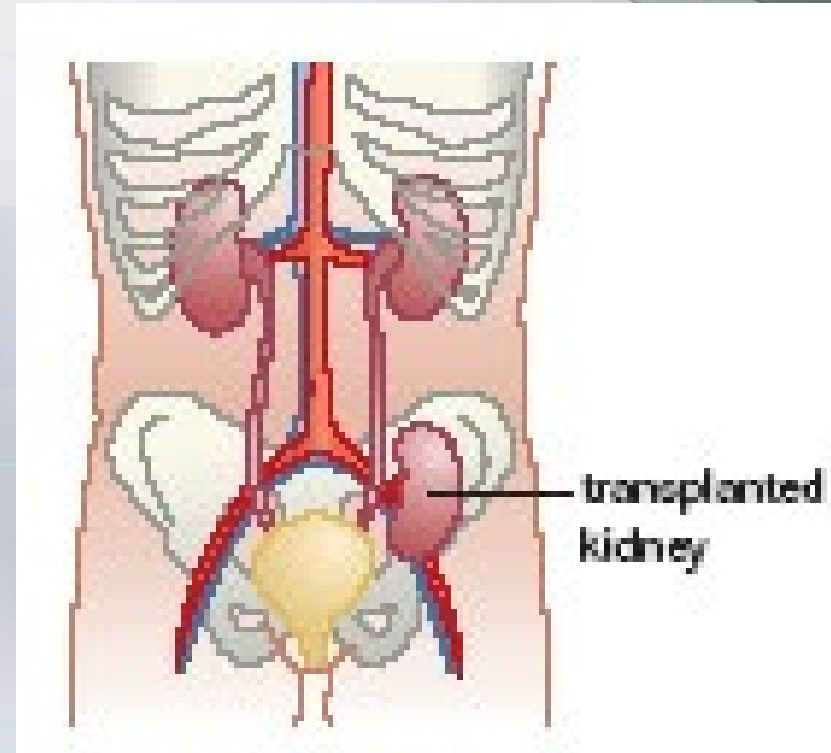


# Kidney Transplant

- One permanent solution to dialysis is to replace the damaged kidney with a fully functional one
- Kidney transplants often involve a close family member donating one of their healthy kidneys to the patient
- As a result, both the donor and recipient will have one fully functional kidney

# Kidney Transplant

- However, kidney transplant patients must take immunosuppressant drugs that have a host of complications. A simple cold becomes a big issue for a transplant patient.
- In a kidney transplant, a new kidney and new ureter are placed in the lower abdomen, near the groin.
- The old kidneys are rarely removed.



**Well Mr. Osborne, it may not be kidney stones after all.**

