1.) <u>ROLE OF KIDNEY IN GLUCOSE HOMEOSTASIS</u>

The human kidney is involved in the regulation of glucose homeostasis and in abnormalities found in diabetes mellitus via three different mechanisms: (i) release of glucose into the circulation via gluconeogenesis. ii) uptake of glucose from the circulation to satisfy its energy needs; and (iii) reabsorption into the circulation of glucose from glomerular filtrate to conserve glucose carbon.

Renal release of glucose into the circulation is the result of glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis, respectively involving the breaking down and formation of glucose-6-phosphate from precursors (eg, lactate, glycerol, amino acids). With regard to renal reabsorption of glucose, the kidneys normally retrieve as much glucose as possible, rendering the urine virtually glucose free. The glomeruli filter from plasma approximately 180 grams of D-glucose per day, all of which is reabsorbed through glucose transporter proteins that are present in cell membranes within the proximal tubules. If the capacity of these transporters is exceeded, glucose appears in the urine.

The process of renal glucose reabsorption is mediated by active (sodium-coupled glucose cotransporters) and passive (glucose transporters) transporters. In hyperglycemia, the kidneys may play an exacerbating role by reabsorbing excess glucose, ultimately contributing to chronic hyperglycemia, which in turn contributes to chronic glycemic burden and the risk of microvascular consequences.

2.) PROCESS OF MICTURITION

Micturition or urination is the process of expelling urine from the bladder. This act is also known as voiding of the bladder. The excretory system in humans includes a pair of kidneys, two ureters, a urinary bladder and a urethra. The kidneys filter the urine and it is transported to the urinary bladder via the ureters where it is stored till its expulsion. The process of micturition is regulated by the nervous system and the muscles of the bladder and urethra. The urinary bladder can store around 350-400ml of urine before it expels it out. In healthy humans (and many other animals) the process of urination is under voluntary control. In infants, some elderly individuals, and those with neurological injury, urination may occur as a reflex. It is normal for adult humans to urinate up to seven times during the day.

Micturition is fundamentally a spinobulbospinal reflex facilitated and inhibited by higher brain centers such as the pontine micturition center and, like defecation, subject to voluntary facilitation and inhibition. In healthy individuals, the lower urinary tract has two discrete phases of activity: the storage (or guarding) phase, when urine is stored in the bladder; and the voiding phase, when urine is released through the urethra. The state of the reflex system is dependent on both a conscious signal from the brain and the firing rate of sensory fibers from the bladder and urethra.[6] At low bladder volumes, afferent firing is low, resulting in excitation of the outlet (the sphincter and urethra), and relaxation of the bladder.[7] At high bladder volumes, afferent firing increases, causing a conscious sensation of urinary urge. When the individual is ready to urinate, he or she consciously initiates voiding, causing the bladder to contract and the outlet to relax. Voiding continues until the bladder empties completely, at which point the bladder relaxes and the outlet contracts to re-initiate storage.[6] The muscles controlling micturition are controlled by the autonomic and somatic nervous systems.

During the storage phase the internal urethral sphincter remains tense and the detrusor muscle relaxed by sympathetic stimulation. During micturition, parasympathetic stimulation causes the detrusor muscle to contract and the internal urethral sphincter to relax. The external urethral sphincter (sphincter urethrae) is under somatic control and is consciously relaxed during micturition. In infants, voiding occurs involuntarily (as a reflex). The ability to voluntarily inhibit micturition develops by the age of 2–3 years, as control at higher levels of the central nervous system develops. In the adult, the volume of urine in the bladder that normally initiates a reflex contraction is about 300–400 millilitres (11–14 imp fl oz; 10–14 US fl oz).

3.) JUXTAGLOMERULAR APPARATUS

The juxtaglomerular apparatus (also known as the juxtaglomerular complex) is a structure in the kidney that regulates the function of each nephron, the functional units of the kidney. The juxtaglomerular apparatus is named because it is next to (juxta-[1]) the glomerulus. It consists of (3) types of cells:

- 1.) The macula densa, a part of the distal convoluted tubule of the same nephron
- 2.) juxtaglomerular cells, (also known as granular cells) which secrete renin
- 3.) Extraglomerular mesangial cells.

The juxtaglomerular apparatus is part of the kidney nephron, next to the glomerulus. It is found between afferent arteriole and the distal convoluted tubule of the same nephron. This location is critical to its function in regulating renal blood flow and glomerular filtration rate. Excess secretion of renin by the juxtaglomerular cells can lead to excess activity of the renin–angiotensin system, hypertension and an increase in blood volume. This is not responsive to the usual treatment for essential hypertension, namely medications and lifestyle modification. They help in maintaining the blood pressure and glomerular filtration rate through renin angiotensin system. Juxta glomerular cells secrete renin based on the stimulation of stretch receptors in the walls of arterioles. They result in aldosterone production and thus regulate the salt absorption from the filtrate and regulate the blood pressure.

4.) ROLE OF KIDNEY IN REGULATING BLOOD PRESSUR

The renin-angiotensin system or RAS regulates blood pressure and fluid balance in the body. When blood volume or sodium levels in the body are low, or blood potassium is high, **cells in the kidney release the enzyme, renin.** Renin converts angiotensinogen, which is produced in the liver, to the hormone angiotensin I.

An enzyme known as ACE or angiotensin-converting enzyme found in the lungs metabolizes angiotensin I into angiotensin II. Angiotensin II causes blood vessels to constrict and blood pressure to increase. Angiotensin II stimulates the release of the hormone aldosterone in the adrenal glands, which causes the renal tubules to retain sodium and water and excrete potassium. Together, angiotensin II and aldosterone work to raise blood volume, blood pressure and sodium levels in the blood to restore the balance of sodium, potassium, and fluids. If the renin-angiotensin system becomes overactive, consistently high blood pressure results.

5.) ROLE OF KIDNEY IN CALCIUM HOMEOSTASIS

Calcium metabolism or calcium homeostasis is the mechanism by which the body maintains adequate calcium levels. The kidney is critically important in calcium homeostasis. Under normal blood calcium concentrations, almost all of the calcium that enters glomerular filtrate is reabsorbed from the tubular system back into blood, which preserves blood calcium levels. If tubular reabsorption of calcium decreases, calcium is lost by excretion into urine.

The maintenance of calcium homeostasis is very important because calcium is the main component of bony skeleton and serves as the intracellular and extracellular messenger in numerous essential cellular events such as neuronal network, immune response, muscle contraction, and hormone secretion. Total body calcium in the adult human is about 1-2 kg and 99% of total calcium exists in bone. Even though only less than 1% of body calcium is in the extracellular space, maintaining the extracellular calcium concentration within a narrow range (8.5-10.5 mg/dL) is very important for calcium homeostasis. The kidney, intestine, and bone are the main target organs of these regulators, and the kidney plays a key role in the fine regulation of calcium and phosphorus in the blood and helps maintain a healthy skeletal system.