HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY (normal) LECTURE 14. The Physiology of Respiration

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Types and Phases of the Respiration

- Respiration is the process by which oxygen is taken in and carbon dioxide is given out of the organism
- External Respiration all processes involved in exchanging O₂ and CO₂ with the environment
- Internal Respiration the utilization of O₂ and production of CO₂ by cells and exchange of gases between blood and tissues
- Phases of the Respiration:
 - pulmonary ventilation inflow and outflow of air between the atmosphere and the lung alveoli
 - diffusion of gases between the alveoli and the blood
 - transport of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the blood
 - diffusion of gases in the tissues
 - utilization of O₂ and production of CO₂ by cells

Pulmonary Ventilation

- Is the physical movement of air in and out of respiratory tract
- Provides alveolar ventilation
- Air flows from area of higher pressure to area of lower pressure
- Volume of thoracic cavity changes create changes in pressure with accordance of **Boyle's Law**
- Defines the relationship between gas pressure and volume:

• P = 1/V

- Respiratory Cycle consists of
 - Inspiration (inhalation)
 - Expiration (exhalation)



Pressure Changes in Respiratory Cycle

- The Intrapulmonary Pressure (Intra-alveolar pressure)
 - In relaxed breathing, the difference between atmospheric and intrapulmonary pressure is small:
 - About -1 mm Hg on inhalation or +1 mm Hg on exhalation
 - In case of maximal activity can increase:
 - From -30 mm Hg to +50 mm Hg (+100 mm Hg in case of forced expiration with closed glottis)

The Intrapleural Pressure

- Pressure in space between parietal and visceral pleura
- Averages -4 mm Hg (normal inspiration: –6 mm Hg; normal expiration: –2 mm Hg)
- Maximum of -18 mm Hg (forced inspiration: –30 mm Hg)
- Remains below atmospheric pressire throughout respiratory cycle

Respiratory Cycle. Volume of Thoracic Cavity





Inspiration (volume at expiration is marked by dashed lines)

Respiratory Cycle. Inspiration



Respiratory Cycle. Expiration



3

2

Time (sec)

Resting Exhalation – passive (**relaxation** of inspiration muscles)

Forced Exhalation – active, with main muscles:

- Internal intercostal and transversus thoracis muscles
- Abdominal muscles

Pulmonary Ventilation

Quiet Breathing (eupnea)

- Involves active inhalation and passive exhalation
 - Elastic rebound
 - When inhalation muscles relax
 - Elastic components of muscles and lungs recoil
 - Returning lungs and alveoli to original position

Forced Breathing (hyperpnea) Involves active inhalation and exhalation

Assisted by accessory muscles

Age 🦳	Resting
	respiratory rate
	(per minute)
Newborn	30-60
Early childhood	20-30
Late childhood	15-25
Adult	12-16

Work of Breathing and Compliance

- Compliance is the ability of the lungs and thorax to expand or it is the expansibility of lungs and thorax
- Compliance increases due to loss of elastic property of lung tissues, which occurs both in physiological and pathological conditions:
 - Physiological condition: Old age
 - Pathological condition: Emphysema
- Work of breathing is the work done by respiratory muscles during breathing to overcome the resistance in thorax and respiratory tract
- Takes up to the 3% of total energy demands even during exercise

Pulmonary Ventilation

Respiratory system adapts to changing oxygen demands by varying

- Respiratory Rate number of breaths per minute
- Tidal Volume volume of air moved per breath (at rest 0,5 L)
- Pulmonary ventilation is measured by the Respiratory Minute
 Volume amount of air moved per minute
 RMV = respiratory rate x tidal volume (at rest 5-6 L/min)
- But only a part of respiratory minute volume reaches alveolar exchange surfaces
- Volume of air remaining in conducting passages is anatomic dead space
- Alveolar Ventilation amount of air reaching alveoli each minute AV = (tidal volume - anatomic dead space) x respiratory rate

Pulmonary Volumes and Capacities Maximum inspiration Inspiratory reserve volume (ca. 3L) Normal inspiration **Fotal lung capacity** Tidal volume (ca. 0.5L) Vital capacity Baseline (resting) value Expiratory FRC reserve volume (ca. 1.7L) Maximum expiration Residual volume (ca. 1.3 L) (not measurable by spirometry)

Pulmonary Volumes

Resting tidal volume (V_T)

volume of air breathed in and out of lungs in a normal respiratory cycle

Expiratory reserve volume (ERV)

 additional volume of air that can be expired out forcefully, after normal expiration

Inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)

 additional volume of air that can be inspired forcefully after the end of normal inspiration

Residual volume (RV)

volume of air remaining in lungs even after forced expiration

Dead space

- part of the respiratory tract, where gaseous exchange does
- not take place.

Respiratory Capacities

Inspiratory capacity

Tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume

Functional residual capacity (FRC)

Expiratory reserve volume + residual volume

Vital capacity

Expiratory reserve volume + tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume

Total lung capacity

•Vital capacity + residual volume

Volumes and Capacities

Normal values depends on:

- Age (increase up to adulthood, then gradual decrease)
- Sex (larger in males)
- Height (directly proportional)

Value (for adults)	Males	Females
Tidal volume (V_T), mL	500	300
IRV, mL	2500	1900
ERV, mL	1500	1000
VC, mL	4500	3200
RV, mL	1200	1100
Total lung capacity	5700	4300



Spirography



Method of the graphical registration and analysis of breathing

Forced Expiratory Volume

Forced expiratory volume (FEV) is the volume of air, which can be expired forcefully in a given unit of time

- **FEV₁** volume of air expired forcefully in 1 second (83%)
- **FEV₂** volume of air expired forcefully in 2 seconds (94%)
- **FEV**₃ volume of air expired forcefully in 3 seconds (97%)

FEV is decreased significantly in some respiratory diseases

Peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR) is the maximum rate at which the air can be expired after a deep inspiration

PEFR rate is useful for assessing the respiratory diseases especially to differentiate the

- obstructive (difficulty in expiration) and
- **restrictive** (difficulty in inspiration) diseases



Gas Exchange

Diffusion is the passive transport along the concentration gradient and is described by **Fick law** of diffusion

- Amount of a substance crossing a given area is directly proportional to the
- area available for diffusion,
- gradient of the partial pressure
- diffusion coefficient
- Partial pressure is the pressure of particular gas in the gas mixture. It is proportional to its number of molecules (Dalton's law) or to the percent of gas and total pressure.
- The total pressure of the atmospheric air is 760 mm Hg, and the Composition of Air (percent and partial pressure)
 - Nitrogen (N_2) is about 78.6% (597 mm Hg)
 - Oxygen (O_2) is about 20.9% (159 mm Hg)
 - Water vapor (H_2O) is about 0.5% (3.7 mm Hg)
 - Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is about 0.04% (0.3 mm Hg)

Partial Pressures and Gas Concentration

Sample	N ₂ , mm Hg/%	O ₂ , mm Hg/%	CO ₂ , mm Hg/%	Water vapour, mm Hg/%
Inhailed air	597 (78,6%)	159 (20,9%)	0,3 (0,04%)	3,7 (0,5%)
Alveolar air	573 (75,4%)	100 (13,2%)	40 (5,2%)	47 (6,2%)
Exhailed air	569 (74,8%)	116 (15,3%)	28 (3,7%)	47 (6,2%)

Diffusion and the Respiratory Membrane

- Direction and rate of diffusion is determined by gradient of partial pressures
- Rate of diffusion is determined by
 - **solubility** of gases
 - **distances** of diffusion
 - total surface area

Gas Exchange

- Each gas in the mixture dissolves in the liquid to an extent determined by its partial pressure and its solubility in the fluid
- The actual amount of a gas in solution (at given partial pressure and temperature) depends on the solubility of that gas in that particular liquid
- Solubility in Body Fluids
 - CO₂ is very soluble
 - O₂ is less soluble
 - N₂ has very low solubility
- Normal Partial Pressures in pulmonary vein plasma
 - $pCO_2 = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$
 - $pO_2 = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$
 - pN₂ = 573 mm Hg

Gas Exchange



Gas Exchange in the Lungs



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The gradient of partial pressure causes

- O₂ to enter blood
- CO₂ to leave blood

Gas Exchange in the Tissues



Concentration gradient in peripheral capillaries is opposite of lungs

- CO₂ diffuses into blood
- O₂ diffuses out of blood

Pulmonary Circulation

- Lungs receive the whole amount of blood that is pumped out from right ventricle (the same in both right and left ventricle)
- The blood pressure is less in pulmonary blood vessels
 - Systolic Arterial pressure : 25 mm Hg
 - Diastolic Arterial pressure : 10 mm Hg
 - Pulmonary capillary pressure is about 7 mm Hg
- Pulmonary blood flow is regulated by the following factors:
 - Cardiac output (directly proportional)
 - Vascular resistance (low resistance, inversely proportional)
 - **Chemical factors** (excess of carbon dioxide or lack of oxygen causes vasoconstriction)
 - Gravity and hydrostatic pressure



Pulmonary Circulation

Pulmonary vascular pressure and blood flow varies in different parts of the lungs:

- area of zero blood flow in the apical portion of lungs, if pulmonary arterial pressure decreases or if alveolar pressure increases, the capillaries are collapsed
- area of intermittent flow in the midportion of lungs, the ressure in alveoli is less than pulmonary systolic pressure and more than the pulmonary diastolic pressure, blood flow depends on the stage of cardiac cycle
- area of continuous blood flow in the lower portion of lungs, the pulmonary arterial pressure is high and it is more than alveolar pressure both during systole and diastole

Ventilation-perfusion ratio

Ventilation-perfusion ratio is the ratio of alveolar ventilation and the amount of blood that perfuse the alveoli



Limitations of Alveolar Gas Exchange



Gas Transport by Blood. Oxygen

- O₂ binds to iron ions in hemoglobin (Hb) molecules (98% of transport)
- Oxygen–Hemoglobin Saturation Curve graph relating the saturation of hemoglobin to partial pressure of oxygen
- Higher pO₂ results in greater Hb saturation
- Hb changes shape each time a molecule of O₂ is bound, each O₂ bound makes next O₂ binding easier
- Allows Hb to bind O_2 when O_2 levels are low
- Carbon Monoxide
 - CO generates from burning fuels
 - Binds strongly to hemoglobin
 - Takes the place of O₂
 - Can result in carbon monoxide poisoning

The Oxygen–Hemoglobin Saturation Curve



When pH drops or temperature rises curve shifts to right and more oxygen is released The Bohr Effect Is the effect of pH on hemoglobin-saturation curve, caused by CO_2



Gas Transport by Blood. Carbon Dioxide

- 70% is transported as carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) which dissociates into H⁺ and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻)
- 23% is bound to amino groups of globular proteins in Hb molecule forming carbaminohemoglobin
- 7% is transported as CO₂ dissolved in plasma
- Stages of transport:
 - CO₂ diffuses into RBC and carbonic anhydrase catalyzes reaction with H₂O produces carbonic acid (H₂CO₃)
 - Carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) dissociates into hydrogen ion (H⁺) and bicarbonate ion (HCO₃⁻)
 - Bicarbonate lons move into plasma by an exchange mechanism (the chloride shift) that takes in Cl⁻ ions without using ATP



A Summary of Carbon Dioxide Transport





Control of Respiration by CNS The Respiratory Centers of the Brain Quiet Forced Respiratory centers of pons and **Breathing Breathing** medulla oblongata **Brief DRG** Increased Motor neurons that control activity activity in DRG respiratory muscles (stimulating stimulation of inspiratory VRG Respiratory **Rhythmicity Centers** of muscles) (activation of the Medulla Oblongata set the pace of accessory respiration inspiratory muscles) Can be divided into two groups DRG Expiratory Dorsal respiratory group (DRG) – inactivates center neurons the **Inspiratory** center, functions in in VRG (inspiratory

muscles relax)

stimulate

exhalation

active

- quiet and forced breathing
- Ventral respiratory group (VRG) -Inspiratory and expiratory center, functions only in forced breathing



Control of Respiration by CNS

The **Apneustic** and **Pneumotaxic Centers** of the **Pons**

- Paired nuclei that adjust output of respiratory rhythmicity centers
- Regulating respiratory rate and depth of respiration

Respiratory Reflexes

 Changes in patterns of respiration induced by sensory input



Control of Respiration

Sensory inputs that Modifiers of Respiratory Center Activities

- Chemoreceptors are sensitive to pCO₂, pO₂, or pH of blood or cerebrospinal fluid
- Baroreceptors in aortic or carotid sinuses are sensitive to changes in blood pressure
- Stretch receptors respond to changes in lung volume
- Irritating physical or chemical stimuli in nasal cavity, larynx, or bronchial tree
- Other sensations including pain, changes in body temperature, abnormal visceral sensations

Chemoreceptors Localization

Carotid bodies

Stimulated by changes in blood **pH** or **pO**₂ Sends output by **glossopharyngeal** (IX) nerve

Aortic bodies

Stimulated by changes in blood **pH** or **pO**₂ Sends output by **vagus** (X) nerve



Chemoreceptors Localization



Chemoreceptors Reflexes

- Respiratory centers are strongly influenced by chemoreceptor input
- Chemoreceptor stimulation leads to increased depth and rate of respiration

Hypercapnia	Acidosis	Hypoxemia
An increase in arterial pCO ₂	The decrease in arterial pH	The decrease in arterial pO ₂
Stimulates chemoreceptors in the medulla oblongata	Stimulates all chemoreceptors	Stimulates chemoreceptors in aortic bodies and carotid bodies
Stimulate respiration	Stimulate respiration	Stimulate respiration
* Hypocapnia – causes or rate		

Mechanoreceptors Reflexes

Baroreceptor of blood vessels

- When blood pressure falls respiration increases
- When blood pressure increases respiration decreases

Stretch receptors of lungs

- Hering-Breuer Reflexes
- Inflation reflex: prevents overexpansion of lungs
- Deflation reflex: inhibits expiratory centers, stimulates inspiratory centers during lung deflation

Protective Reflexes

- Triggered by receptors in epithelium of respiratory tract when lungs are exposed to
- Toxic vapors
- Chemical irritants
- Mechanical stimulation
- Cause sneezing, coughing, and laryngeal spasm

Other Reflexes

- Temperature receptors of skin stimulation (in cold)
- Mechanoreceptors of muscles stimulation
- Pain receptors stimulation
- Strong emotions: can stimulate respiratory centers in hypothalamus
- Emotional stress: can activate sympathetic division of ANS causing bronchodilation and increase in respiration rate
- Anticipation of physical exercise: can increase respiratory rate and cardiac output by sympathetic stimulation

Control by Dissolved Substances (Autoregulation in Tissues and Lungs)

Oxygen delivery in tissues and pickup at lungs are regulated by rising pCO₂ levels:

- relaxes smooth muscle in arterioles
- increases blood flow

Coordination of lung perfusion and alveolar ventilation, caused shifting of **blood flow** and **air flow** in **lungs**:

 pCO₂ levels: control bronchoconstriction and bronchodilation

 pO_2 levels: control vasodilation and vasoconstriction in lungs, increase blood flow to the alveoli with high pO_2

Effects of Exercise on Respiration

During exercise **hyperventilation** occurs (due to increase in rate and force of respiration) and **diffusing capacity** of lungs increase

- In moderate exercise, respiratory rate increases to about 30/minute and tidal volume increases to about 2,000 mL, the pulmonary ventilation increases to about 60 L/minute
- Diffusing capacity for oxygen is about 21 mL/minute at resting condition. It rises to 45 to 50 mL/minute during moderate exercise

Factors increasing pulmonary ventilation during exercise

- Higher centers
- Chemoreceptors (hypoxia and hypercapnea)
- Proprioceptors (from contracted muscles)
- Acidosis (lactate and other acids accumilation)

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