HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY (normal) LECTURE 13. Physiology of the Blood Vessels

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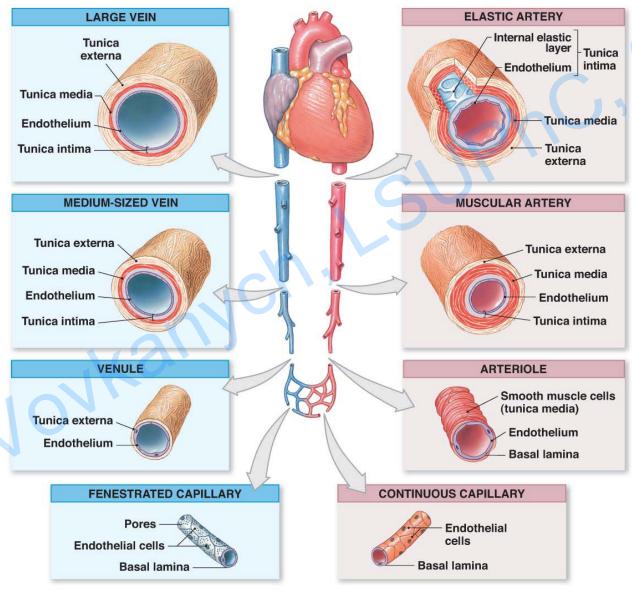
Classes of Blood Vessels

- Arteries carry blood away from heart
- Arterioles are smallest branches of arteries
- Capillaries are smallest blood vessels, exchanger vessels
- Venules collect blood from capillaries
- Veins return blood to heart

The Structure of Vessel Walls

- Walls have three layers:
- Tunica intima
 - the endothelial lining
 - connective tissue layer
 - internal elastic membrane
- Tunica media
 - concentric smooth muscles
 - elastic and collagen fibers
- Tunica externa
 - contains *connective* tissue sheath
 - contains nerve fibers, vasa vasorum ("vessels of vessels")

Structure and Function of Vessels



The Organization of a Capillary Bed

Collaterals

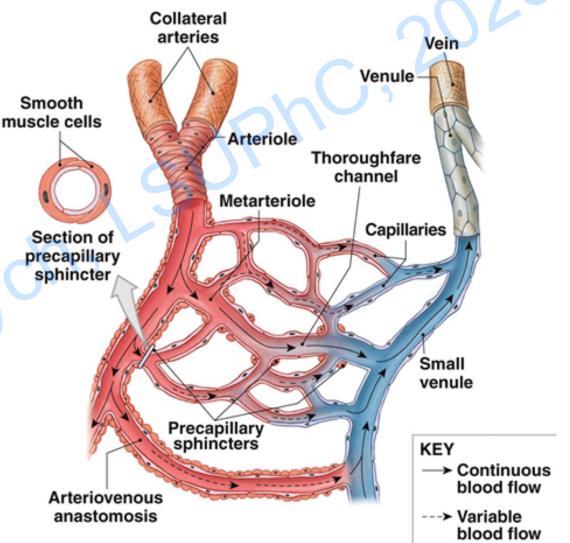
 Multiple arteries that contribute to one capillary bed

Arteriovenous anastomoses

 Direct connections between arterioles and venules

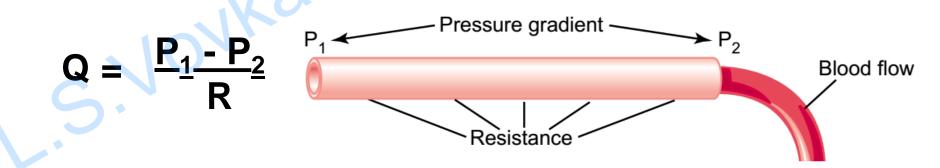
Capillary Sphincter

 Opens and closes, causing capillary blood to flow in pulses



Hemodynamics

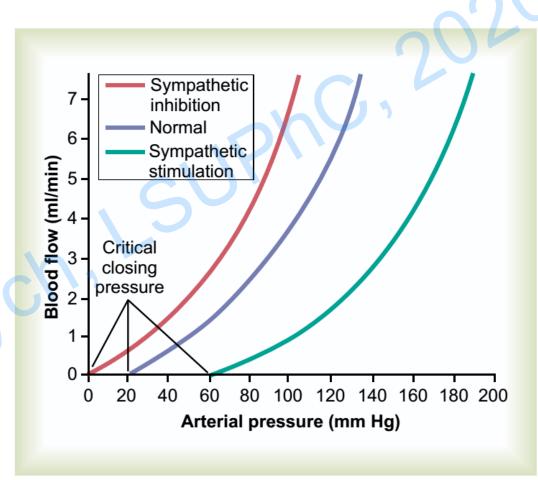
- Hemodynamics refers to the study of movement of blood (blood flow) through circulatory system.
- Blood flow (BF) means the quantity (volume) of blood that passes a given point in the circulation in a given period
- According to Hagen-Poiseuille equation, volume (Q) of any fluid flowing through a tube (vessel) is:
 - *Directly* proportional to **pressure gradient** $(P_1 P_2)$
 - Inversely proportional to the resistance of blood vessels (R)



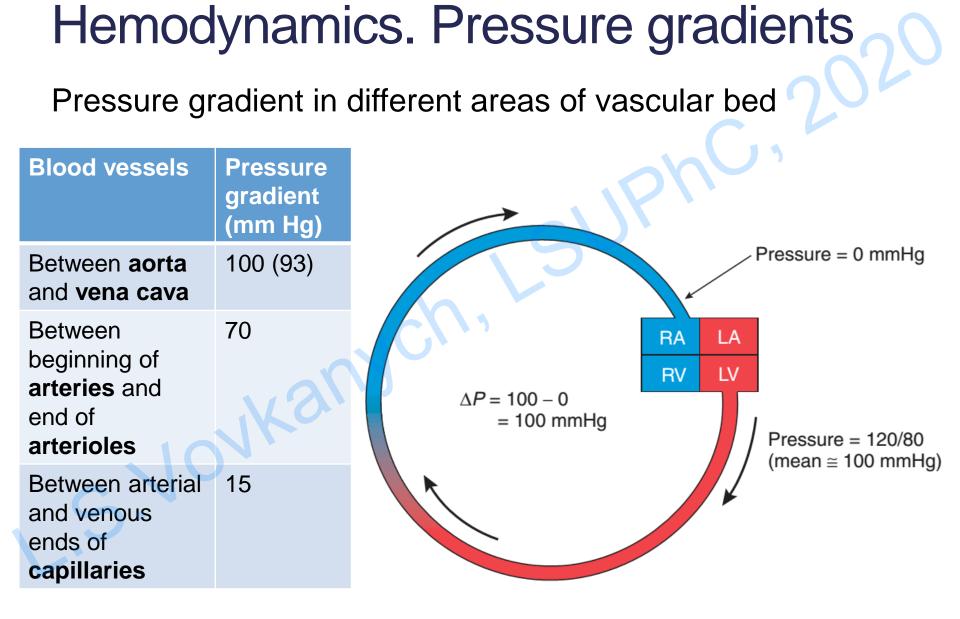
Hemodynamics. Role of Blood Pressure

Increase in arterial pressure:

- increases the force that pushes blood through the vessels
- Increase the diameter of the vessels and decreases vascular resistance
- greater pressure increases the blood flow in both of these ways



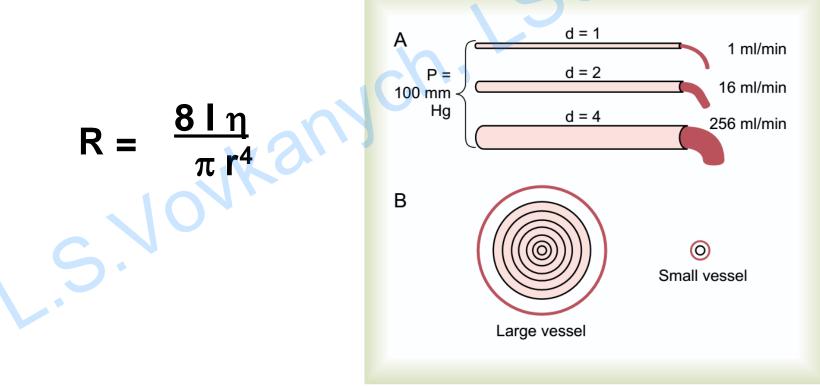
Large changes in **blood flow** that can be caused by either increased or decreased **sympathetic nerve stimulation** of the peripheral blood vessels



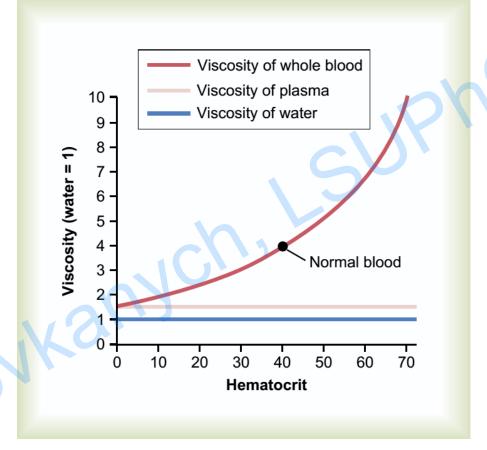
Hemodynamics. Role of Vascular Resistance

The resistance (peripheral resistance) of blood vessels (R) is:

- Directly proportional to length of the tube (I)
- Directly proportional to viscosity (η) of the blood
- Inversely proportional to the fourth power of radius (r⁴) of the vessel



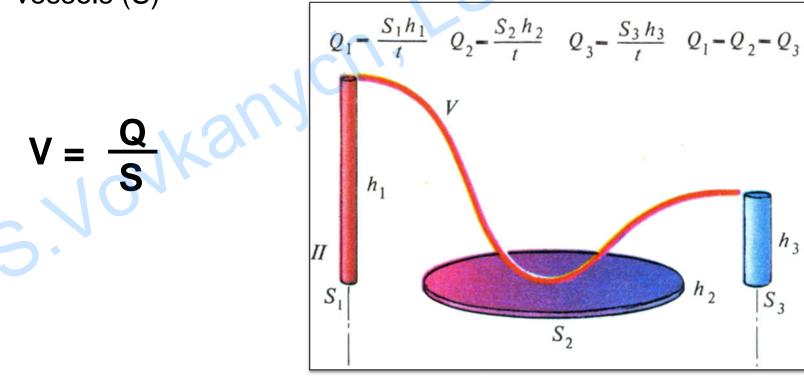
Hemodynamics. Role of Blood Viscosity



The viscosity of blood increases drastically as the hematocrit increases

Hemodynamics. Velocity of Blood Flow

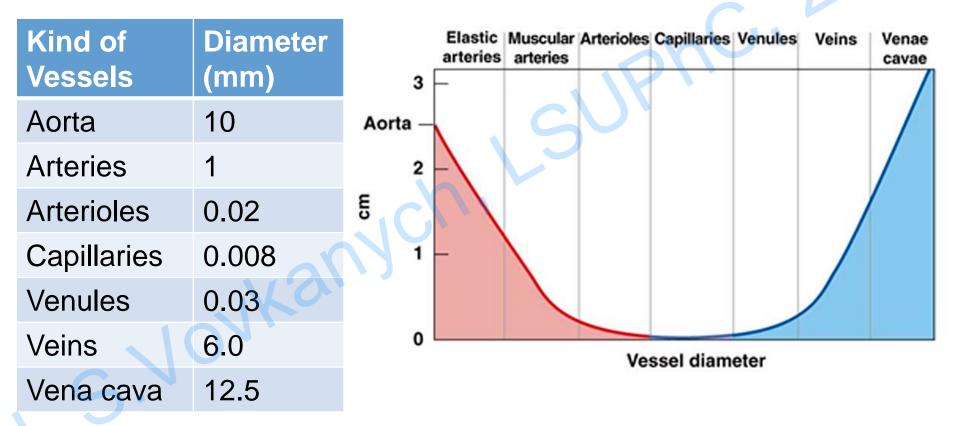
- Velocity (V) of blood flow is the rate at which blood flows through a particular region of the body
- Velocity (V) of blood flow is:
 - Directly proportional to blood flow (Q)
 - Inversely proportional to total cross-sectional area of the vessels (S)



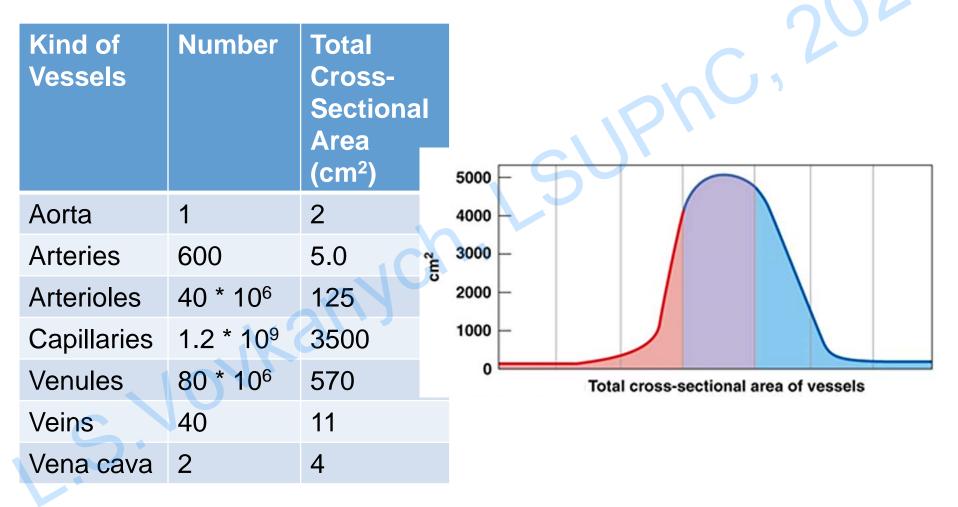
Hemodynamics. Circulation Time

- Circulation time is the time taken by blood to travel the whole of the circulatory system (total circulation time) or its part (circulation time)
- Circulation time is decreased when the velocity of blood flow is increased
- Total circulation time is about the time of 30 heartbeat
- The total circulation time (from arm vein to arm vein) at rest 25 seconds (22 to 28 seconds)
- Shortest circulation time (arm vein to heart): 4 seconds
- Pulmonary circulatory time (arm vein to lung): 6 seconds (4 to 6 seconds)
- Arm vein to carotid artery: 14 seconds (12 to 15 seconds)

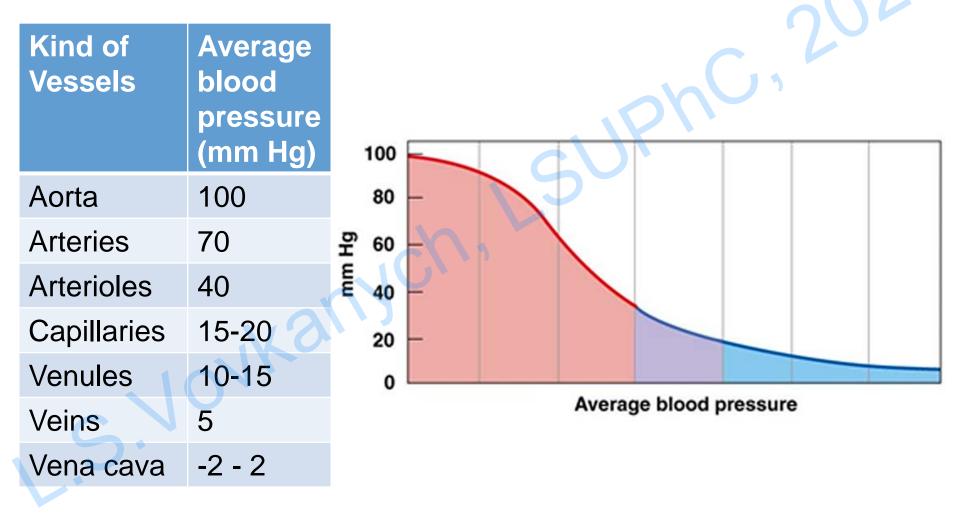
Hemodynamics and Vessels Diameter



Hemodynamics and Cross-sectional area



Hemodynamics. Average Blood Pressure



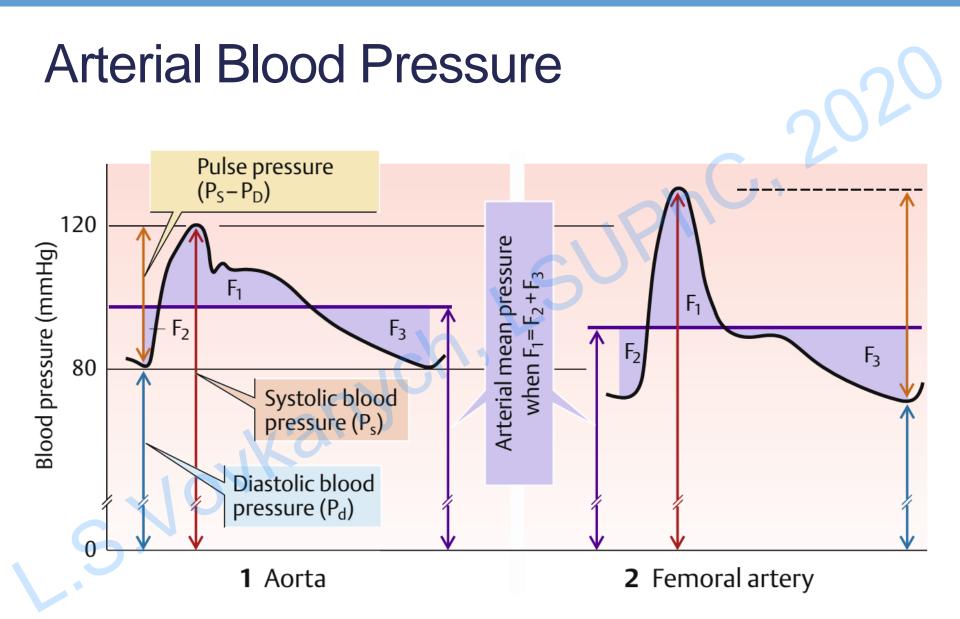
Hemodynamics. Blood Flow Velocity Kind of **Average** Vessels blood flow velocity (cm/sec) 70-40 Aorta 35 **Arteries** 20 28 **Arterioles** 1.5 cm/sec 21 0.05 Capillaries 14 Venules 1.0 7 Veins 5 0 Velocity of blood flow Vena cava 20

Arterial Blood Pressure

- The hydrostatic pressure in the arterial system, that pushes the blood through vessels
- Arterial blood pressure is expressed in four different terms:
 - Systolic blood pressure
 - Diastolic blood pressure
 - Pulse pressure
 - Mean arterial blood pressure (MAP)

Arterial Blood Pressure

- Systolic blood pressure (systolic pressure) the maximum pressure exerted in the arteries during systole of heart
 - Normal value: 120 mm Hg (110 130 mm Hg)
- Diastolic blood pressure (diastolic pressure) minimum pressure exerted in the arteries during diastole of heart
 - Normal value: 80 mm Hg (70 90 mm Hg)
- Pulse pressure is the difference between the systolic pressure and diastolic pressure
 - Normal value: 40 mm Hg (120 80 = 40)
- Mean arterial blood pressure is the average pressure existing in the arteries. It is the diastolic pressure plus one third of pulse pressure
 - Normal value: 93 mm Hg (80 + 1/3 * 40 = 93)



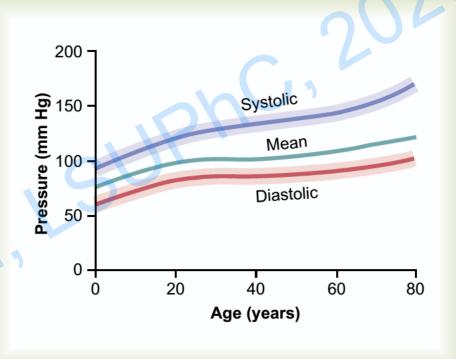
Physiological Variations in Arterial Blood Pressure

Influence of Age

- Newborn : 40/70 mm Hg
- After 6 month : 50/90 mm Hg
- After 1 year : 55/95 mm Hg
- At puberty : 80/120 mm Hg
- At 50 years : 85/140 mm Hg
- At 70 years : 90/160 mm Hg
- At 80 years : 95/180 mm Hg

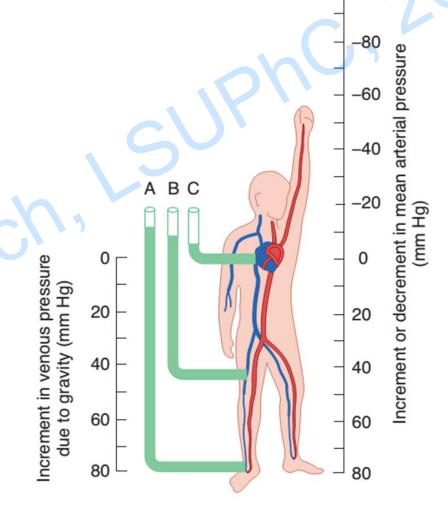
Influence of other factors:

- Pressure in obese persons is higher
- Pressure decreases at rest (sleep, absence of activity) and increases during activity (emotion, exercises etc.). During the physical exercises diastolic pressure may decrease



Physiological variations in Arterial Blood Pressure

Effects of gravity on the arterial and venous blood pressure



Factors Determining Arterial Blood Pressure

Arterial blood pressure	Factors
Directly proportional to	Cardiac output
	Heart rate
	Peripheral resistance
	Blood volume
	 Venous return
	 Velocity of blood flow
G.VOVIC	 Viscosity of blood
Inversely proportional to	 Elasticity of blood vessel
	 Diameter of blood vessel

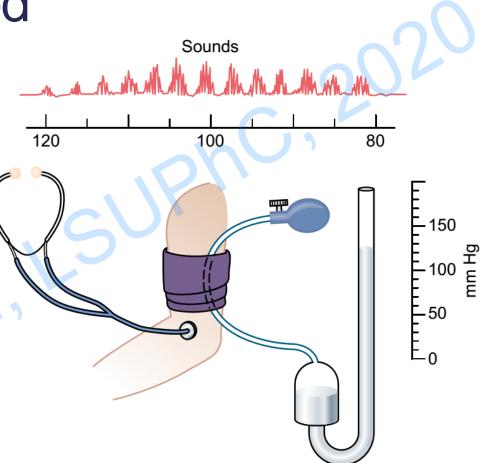
Measurement of arterial blood pressure

Blood pressure is measured by **two methods**:

- Direct method employed only in animals
 The artery (usually carotid) is cannulated and connected to
 a manometer, the blood pressure can be recorded
 continuously in the form of graph
- Indirect method apparatus that are used to measure blood pressure in human is called sphygmomanometer
- There are three indirect methods:
 - Palpatory method
 - Auscultatory method
 - Oscillatory method

Auscultatory Method

- The arm cuff of sphygmomanometer is tied around upper arm
- Pressure is increased in the cuff
- Brachial artery is compressed and blood flow is obstructed
- Chest piece of the stethoscope is placed over the antecubital fossa
- The pressure in the cuff is slowly reduced
- Series of sounds (Korotkoff sounds) are heard through the stethoscope
- Appearance of sounds indicates systolic pressure
- **Disappearance** of sounds indicates **diastolic** pressure



Pathological variations of arterial blood pressure

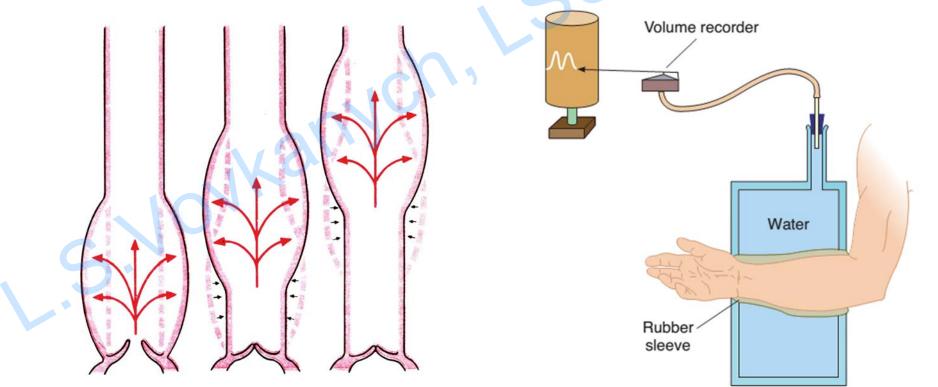
- Hypertension is defined as the persistent high blood pressure
 - systolic pressure > 150 mm Hg
 - diastolic pressure > 90 mm Hg
- Hypotension is the low blood pressure.
 - systolic pressure < 100 mm Hg
 - diastolic pressure < 70 mm Hg

Arterial Pulse

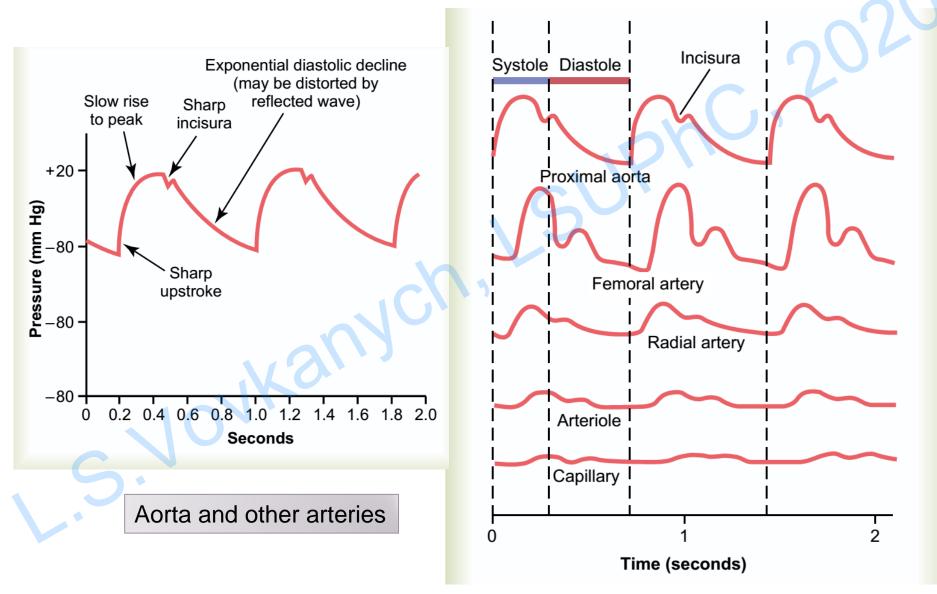
Pressure changes transmitted in the **form of waves** through arterial wall and blood column from heart to periphery

Is caused by the ejection of blood into aorta.

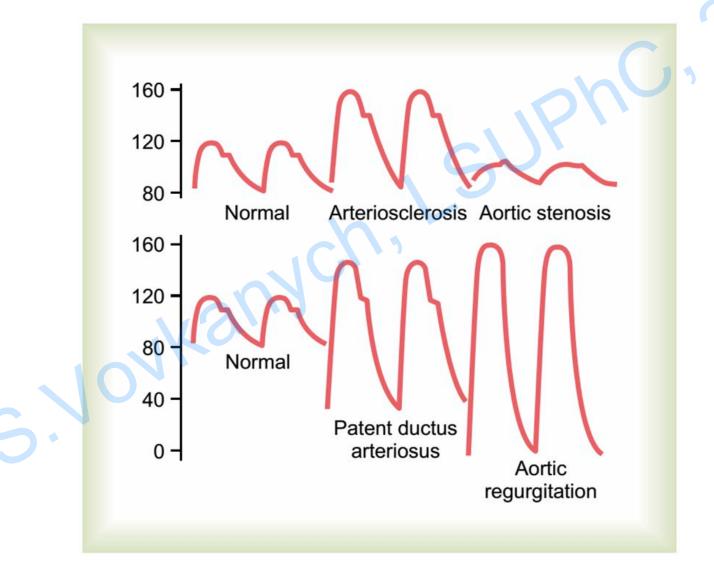
Average velocity of pulse wave transmitting varies between 7 and 9 meter/second



The Pulse Wave in Different Arteries



The Pathological Changes in Pulse Wave



Features of Capillaries

- Total number of capillaries 10 billion
- Average length 0.5 to 1 mm
- Average diameter 8 μm
- Surface area of all capillaries 500 to 700 sq m
- Velocity of blood flow 0.05 cm/second
- It facilitates exchange of substances between capillaries and tissues
- Function of capillaries exchange of substances between blood and tissues by the following processes:
 - Diffusion
 - Filtration
 - Reabsorption

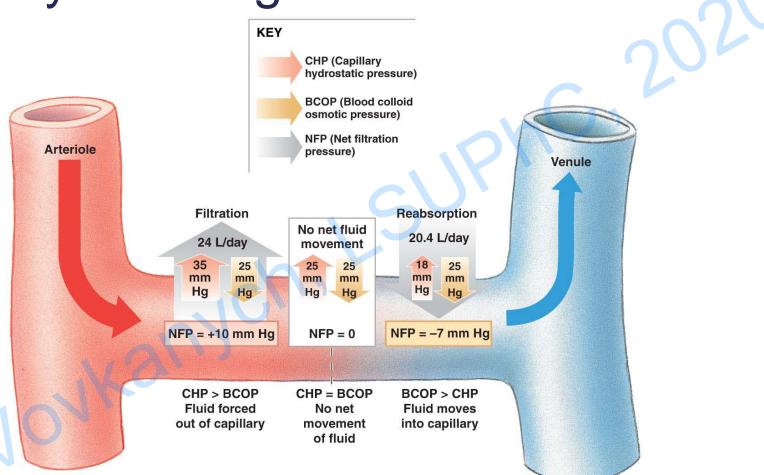
Exchange Processes in Capillaries

- Diffusion movement of ions or molecules along the concentration gradient. Diffusion routes:
 - Water, ions, and small molecules such as glucose diffuse between adjacent endothelial cells
 - Some ions (Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Cl⁻) diffuse through channels in plasma membranes
 - Large, water-soluble compounds pass through fenestrated capillaries
 - Lipids and lipid-soluble materials (such as O₂ and CO₂) diffuse through endothelial plasma membranes
- Filtration movement of water and small solutes by the hydrostatic pressure gradient (net filtration pressure)
- **Reabsorption** movement of water and small solutes by **colloid osmotic pressure** (oncotic pressure of plasma proteins)

Capillary Pressures and Capillary Exchange

- Capillary pressure is the pressure exerted by the blood contained in capillary
- It is responsible for the exchange of various substances between blood and interstitial fluid through capillary wall
- Generally, the pressure in the arterial end of the capillary is about 30 to 32 mm Hg and in venous end it is 15 mm Hg.
- In kidneys, the glomerular capillary pressure is high
- In **lungs**, the pulmonary capillary pressure is low
- Capillary oncotic pressure the osmotic pressure, exerted by the plasma proteins, staying within the capillaries
- Normal oncotic pressure is about 25 mm Hg
- It plays an important role in **reabsorption** across capillary membrane

Capillary Exchange



• At arterial end of capillary fluid moves out of capillary

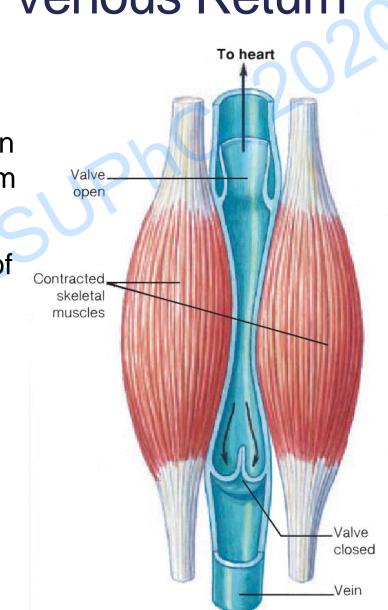
- At venous end of capillary fluid moves into capillary
- Capillaries filter more than they reabsorb, excess to lymphatic vessels

Venous Pressure and Venous Return

Venous pressure determines the amount of blood returned to atrium Central venous pressure - pressure in vena cava (4.6 mm Hg) and right atrium (0 mm Hg)

Additional mechanisms of increase of the venous blood return

- The muscular pump: compression of peripheral veins by the skeletal muscles pushes blood toward heart (one-way valves)
- The **respiratory pump**: inhaling decreases thoracic pressure, exhaling raises thoracic pressure



Venous Pressure and Venous Return

Venous pressure

- directly proportional to the volume of blood in the venous system
- inversely proportional to peripheral resistance

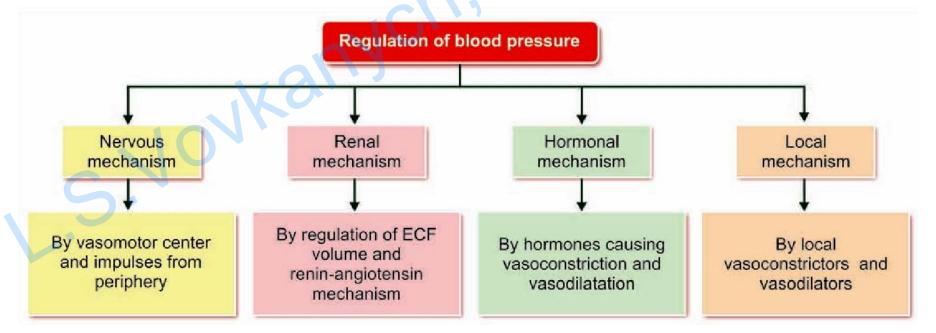
Venous pressure increases in:

- Changing from standing to supine position
- Forced expiration (Valsalva maneuver). During inspiration, the central venous pressure decreases because of decreased intrathoracic pressure. During expiration, it increases because of increased intrathoracic pressure.
- Contraction of abdominal and limb muscles
- Effect of gravity during prolonged travelling or standing. Weight of the column of blood in veins influences the venous pressure. During prolonged standing, the pressure in lower extremities is more (90 cm H₂O)

Changes in Blood Flow to Organs 15–25 L/min, ./(min•kg organ) depending on fitness Maximum Relative to blood flow organ weight L/min 6 **Blood flow** Relative to organ weight at rest 5 Blood flow 4 3 2 Liver (hepaticatery only) Castrointestinal Skeletal muscle Cardiac muscle ticheys Brain Skin

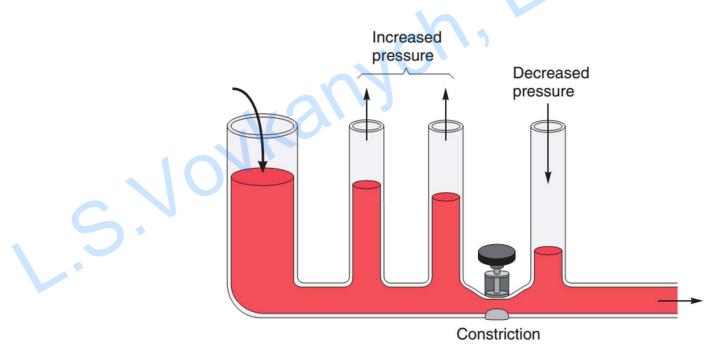
Regulation of Arterial Blood Pressure

- There are four main regulatory mechanisms to maintain the blood pressure within normal limits:
 - Nervous mechanism (short-term)
 - Renal mechanism (long-term)
 - Hormonal mechanism
 - Local mechanisms

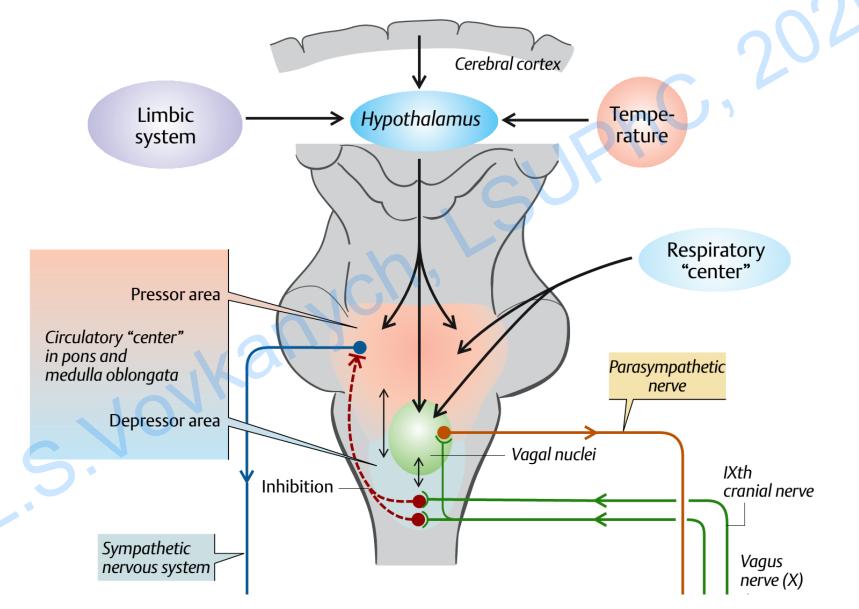


Nervous Mechanism

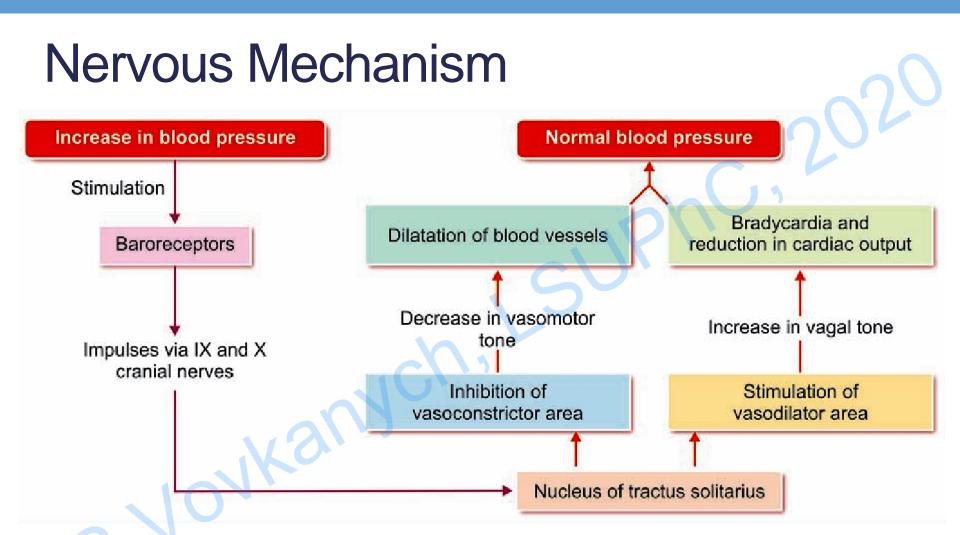
- Operates through the vasomotor center, bilaterally situated in medulla oblongata and the lower part of the pons
- Vasoconstrictor (pressor) area causes vasoconstriction (decrease of vessels diameter) and rise in arterial blood pressure
- Vasodilator (depressor) area causes vasodilatation (increase of vessels diameter) and is also concerned with cardioinhibition



Structure of Vasomotor Center



Efferent Influence of Vasomotor Center Sympathetic Vagus trunk nerve (X) 2 Spinal cord Inhibits cardiac action Carotid sinus SP Increases Common cardiac action carotid artery Aorta Veins S_P Vasoconstriction $(\alpha_1 \text{ adrenoceptors})$ S_A S_B AV node Arterioles SA node Heart S_V

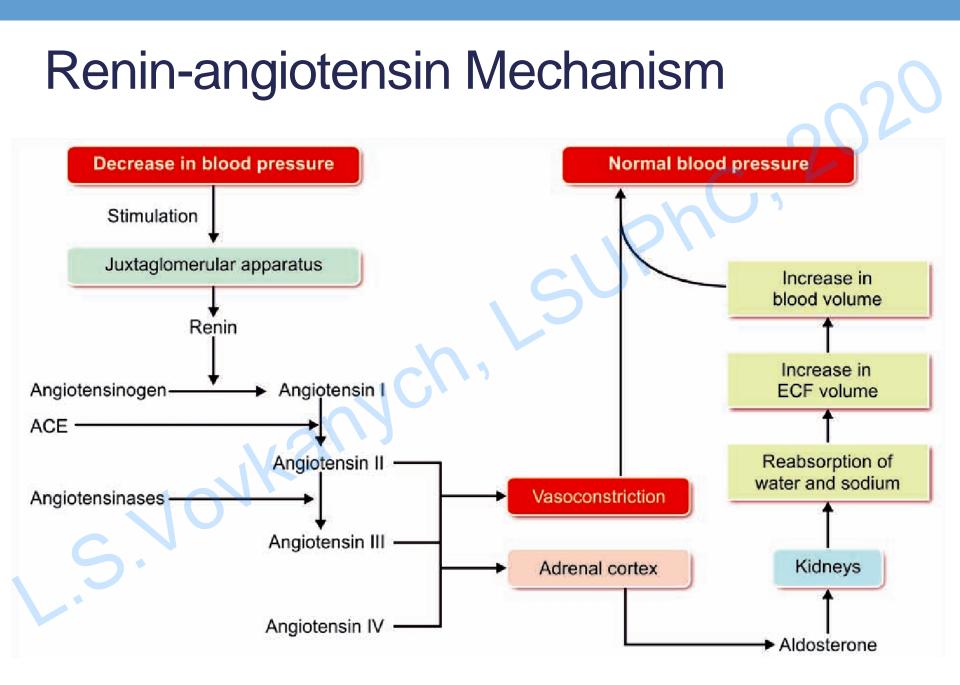


Baroreceptors are situated in the carotid sinus and wall of the aorta Vasomotor center is also sensitive to the **chemoreceptor** impulses Vasomotor center is controlled by the impulses from **the higher centers** in the brain and influenced by activity of respiratory center

Renal Mechanism

Kidneys regulate arterial blood pressure by two ways:

- By regulation of extracellular fluid (ECF) volume
 - even a slight increase in blood pressure increases the water excretion
 - it causes the decrease in ECF volume and blood volume
 - that brings the arterial blood pressure back to normal level
- Through renin-angiotensin mechanism



Hormonal Mechanism

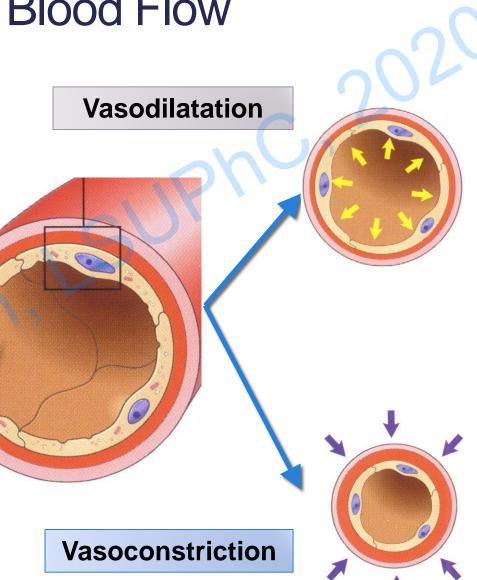
Increase Decrease arterial blood pressure arterial blood pressure **Hormones** Adrenaline Vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP) Thyroxine Atrial natriuretic peptide Aldosterone Vasopressin Brain natriuretic peptide Angiotensin C-type natriuretic peptide Serotonin Bradykinin Prostaglandin

Histamine

Local Regulation of Blood Flow (Autoregulation)

Autoregulation has two functions:

- help to maintain a constant blood flow to certain organs when the blood pressure changes
- adjust the blood flow according to changes in metabolic activity of an organ (metabolic autoregulation)



Theories of Autoregulation

Myogenic theory

- The intrinsic contractile property of the smooth muscle fibers present in the blood vessels is responsible for autoregulation
- Sudden stretching of blood vessels causes contraction of smooth muscle fibers present in the wall of the vessels
- Increase of arterial blood pressure causes vasoconstriction and decrease – causes vasodilatation

Metabolic theory

Normal blood flow is maintained by the metabolic end products

Autoregulation mechanisms are **well developed** in the kidneys, but it has also been observed in the mesentery, skeletal muscle, brain, liver, and myocardium

Local Mechanism. Metabolic theory

Local vasoconstrictor substances are derived from vascular endothelium, are called **endothelium-derived constricting** factors (EDCF)

Local **vasodilators** are of two types:

- 1. Vasodilators of **metabolic origin**, accumulation of which (due to the reduced blood flow) dilate the blood vessels
- 2. Vasodilators of **endothelial origin** Nitric oxide (NO)

Vasoconstrictors	Vasodilators
Endothelium-derived constricting factors	Carbon dioxide Lactate Hydrogen Adenosine Nitric oxide
Local temperature decrease	local temperature increase

Cardiovascular Changes during Exercise

Exercise is generally **classified** into two types depending upon the type of muscular contraction:

Dynamic exercise

- In this type of exercise, the heart rate, force of heart contraction, cardiac output and systolic blood pressure increase
- The diastolic blood pressure is unaltered or decreased (no changes or decrease in peripheral resistance)

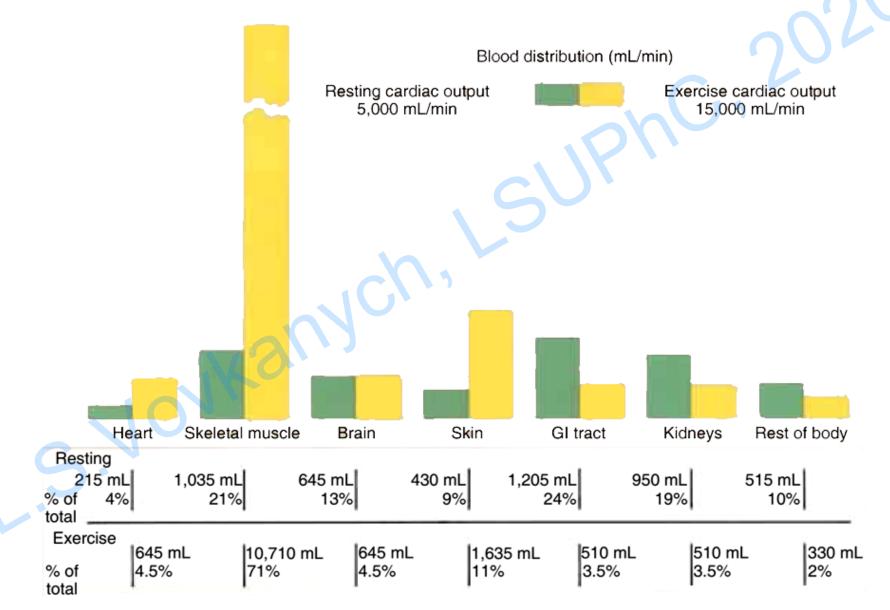
Static exercise (isometric muscular contraction)

- Smaller increase in heart rate, force of contraction, much smaller increase in cardiac output
- Large increase in systolic blood pressure, the diastolic blood pressure also increases
- Large increase in peripheral resistance, decrease (even stoppage) in blood flow through active muscles

Cardiovascular Changes during Exercise

- Heart rate increases up to 180 beats/minute
- Cardiac output increases up to 20-35 L/minute (because of increase in heart rate and stroke volume)
- Venous return increases remarkably (because of muscle pump, respiratory pump and splanchnic vasoconstriction)
- Amount of blood flowing to skeletal muscles great increase (in rest - 3 to 4 mL/100 g of the muscle/minute; moderate exercise - 60 to 80 mL; severe exercise - up to 90 to 120 mL)
- The factors, that are responsible for the increase vasodilatation in muscles, induced by sympathetic cholinergic fibers, and local mechanisms (hypercapnia, hypoxia, accumulation of lactic acid, rise in temperature etc.)

Cardiovascular Changes during Exercise



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