

23

The Respiratory System

PowerPoint® Lecture Presentations prepared by Jason LaPres

Lone Star College—North Harris

- Learning Outcomes
 - 23-1 Describe the primary functions of the respiratory system, and explain how the delicate respiratory exchange surfaces are protected from pathogens, debris, and other hazards.
 - 23-2 Identify the organs of the upper respiratory system, and describe their functions.
 - 23-3 Describe the structure of the larynx, and discuss its roles in normal breathing and in the production of sound.

- Learning Outcomes
 - 23-4 Discuss the structure of the extrapulmonary airways.
 - 23-5 Describe the superficial anatomy of the lungs, the structure of a pulmonary lobule, and the functional anatomy of alveoli.
 - 23-6 Define and compare the processes of external respiration and internal respiration.

- Learning Outcomes
 - 23-7 Summarize the physical principles governing the movement of air into the lungs, and describe the origins and actions of the muscles responsible for respiratory movements.
 - 23-8 Summarize the physical principles governing the diffusion of gases into and out of the blood and body tissues.
 - 23-9 Describe the structure and function of hemoglobin, and the transport of oxygen and carbon dioxide in the blood.

- Learning Outcomes
 - 23-10 List the factors that influence respiration rate, and discuss reflex respiratory activity and the brain centers involved in the control of respiration.
 - 23-11 Describe age-related changes in the respiratory system.
 - 23-12 Give examples of interactions between the respiratory system and other organ systems studied so far.

- The Respiratory System
 - Cells produce energy
 - For maintenance, growth, defense, and division
 - Through mechanisms that use oxygen and produce carbon dioxide

- Oxygen
 - Is obtained from the air by diffusion across delicate exchange surfaces of lungs
 - Is carried to cells by the cardiovascular system,
 which also returns carbon dioxide to the lungs

- Five Functions of the Respiratory System
 - 1. Provides extensive gas exchange surface area between air and circulating blood
 - 2. Moves air to and from exchange surfaces of lungs
 - 3. Protects respiratory surfaces from outside environment
 - 4. Produces sounds
 - 5. Participates in olfactory sense

- Organization of the Respiratory System
 - The respiratory system is divided into:
 - Upper respiratory system above the larynx
 - Lower respiratory system below the larynx

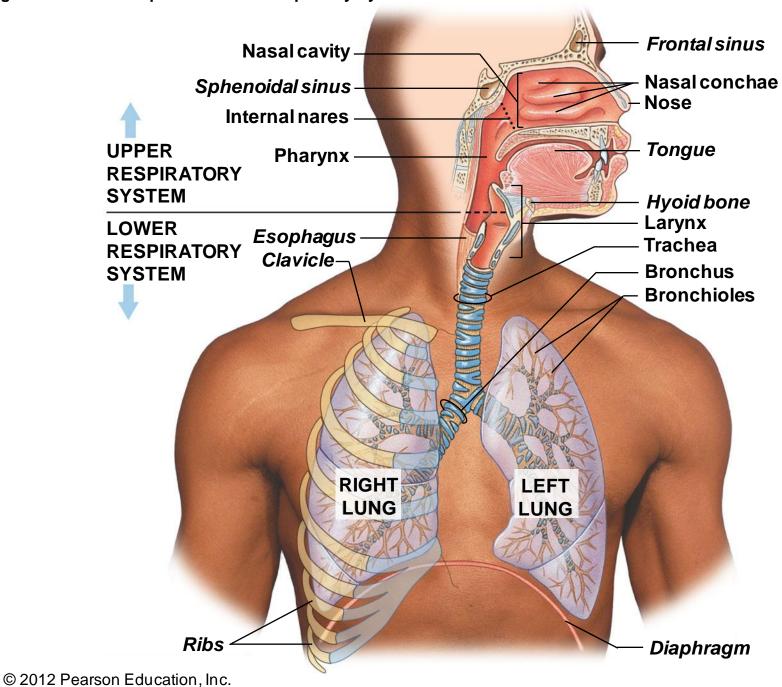
The Respiratory Tract

- Consists of a conducting portion
 - From nasal cavity to terminal bronchioles
- Consists of a respiratory portion
 - The respiratory bronchioles and alveoli

Alveoli

- Are air-filled pockets within the lungs
 - Where all gas exchange takes place

Figure 23-1 The Components of the Respiratory System



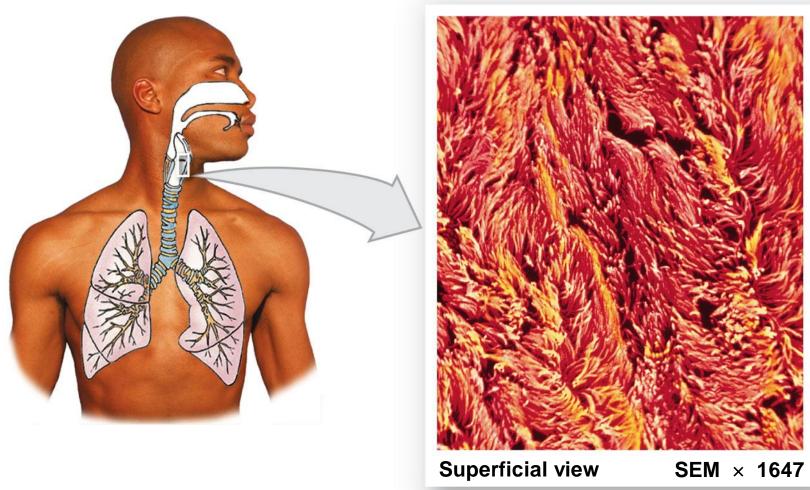
- The Respiratory Epithelium
 - For gases to exchange efficiently:
 - Alveoli walls must be very thin (<1 μm)
 - Surface area must be very great (about 35 times the surface area of the body)

- The Respiratory Mucosa
 - Consists of:
 - An epithelial layer
 - An areolar layer called the lamina propria
 - Lines the conducting portion of respiratory system

The Lamina Propria

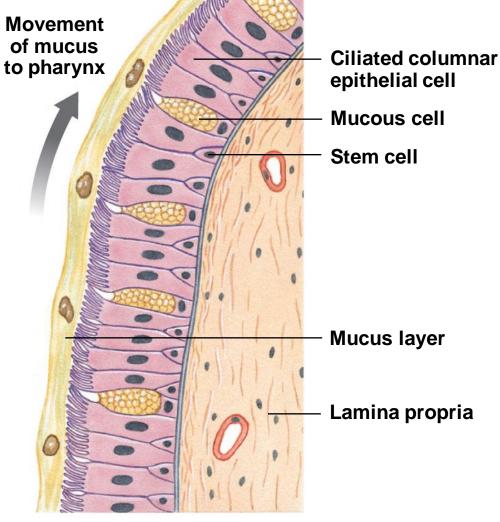
- Underlying layer of areolar tissue that supports the respiratory epithelium
- In the upper respiratory system, trachea, and bronchi
 - It contains mucous glands that secrete onto epithelial surface
- In the conducting portion of lower respiratory system
 - It contains smooth muscle cells that encircle lumen of bronchioles

Figure 23-2a The Respiratory Epithelium of the Nasal Cavity and Conducting System



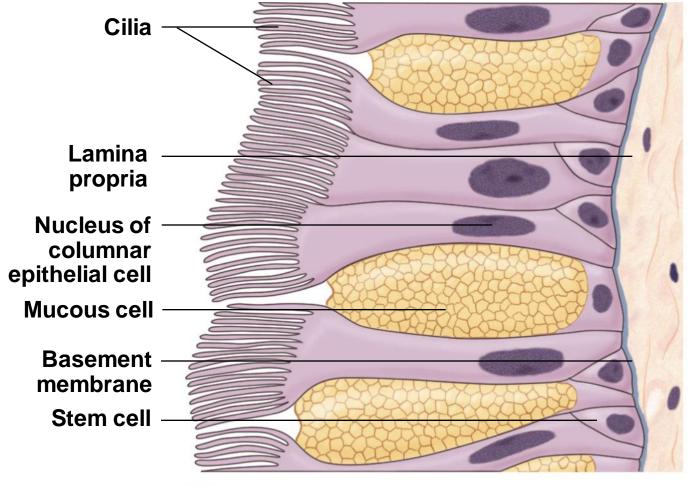
A surface view of the epithelium.
The cilia of the epithelial cells
form a dense layer that resembles
a shag carpet. The movement of
these cilia propels mucus across
the epithelial surface.

Figure 23-2b The Respiratory Epithelium of the Nasal Cavity and Conducting System



A diagrammatic view of the respiratory epithelium of the trachea, indicating the direction of mucus transport inferior to the pharynx.

Figure 23-2c The Respiratory Epithelium of the Nasal Cavity and Conducting System



The sectional appearance of the respiratory epithelium, a pseudostratified ciliated columnar epithelium.

- Structure of Respiratory Epithelium
 - Pseudostratified ciliated columnar epithelium with numerous mucous cells
 - Nasal cavity and superior portion of the pharynx
 - Stratified squamous epithelium
 - Inferior portions of the pharynx
 - Pseudostratified ciliated columnar epithelium
 - Superior portion of the lower respiratory system
 - Cuboidal epithelium with scattered cilia
 - Smaller bronchioles

- Alveolar Epithelium
 - Is a very delicate, simple squamous epithelium
 - Contains scattered and specialized cells
 - Lines exchange surfaces of alveoli

- The Respiratory Defense System
 - Consists of a series of filtration mechanisms
 - Removes particles and pathogens

- Components of the Respiratory Defense System
 - Mucous cells and mucous glands
 - Produce mucus that bathes exposed surfaces
 - Cilia
 - Sweep debris trapped in mucus toward the pharynx (mucus escalator)
 - Filtration in nasal cavity removes large particles
 - Alveolar macrophages engulf small particles that reach lungs

- The Nose
 - Air enters the respiratory system
 - Through nostrils or external nares
 - Into nasal vestibule
 - Nasal hairs
 - Are in nasal vestibule
 - Are the first particle filtration system

- The Nasal Cavity
 - The nasal septum
 - Divides nasal cavity into left and right
 - Superior portion of nasal cavity is the olfactory region
 - Provides sense of smell
 - Mucous secretions from paranasal sinus and tears
 - Clean and moisten the nasal cavity

- Air Flow
 - From vestibule to internal nares
 - Through superior, middle, and inferior meatuses
 - Meatuses are constricted passageways that produce air turbulence
 - Warm and humidify incoming air
 - Trap particles

The Palates

Hard palate

- Forms floor of nasal cavity
- Separates nasal and oral cavities

Soft palate

- Extends posterior to hard palate
- Divides superior nasopharynx from lower pharynx

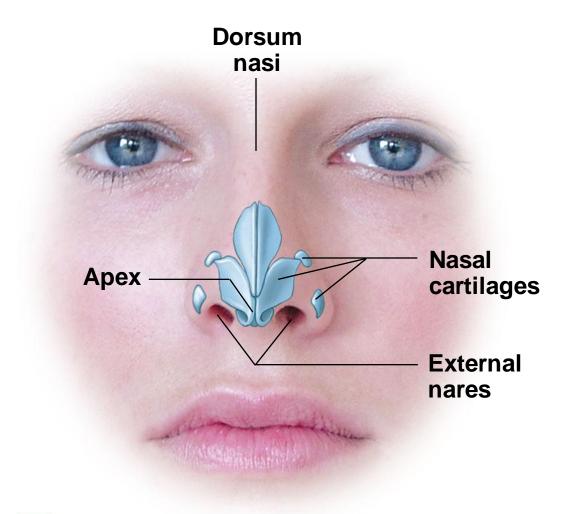
Air Flow

Nasal cavity opens into nasopharynx through internal nares

The Nasal Mucosa

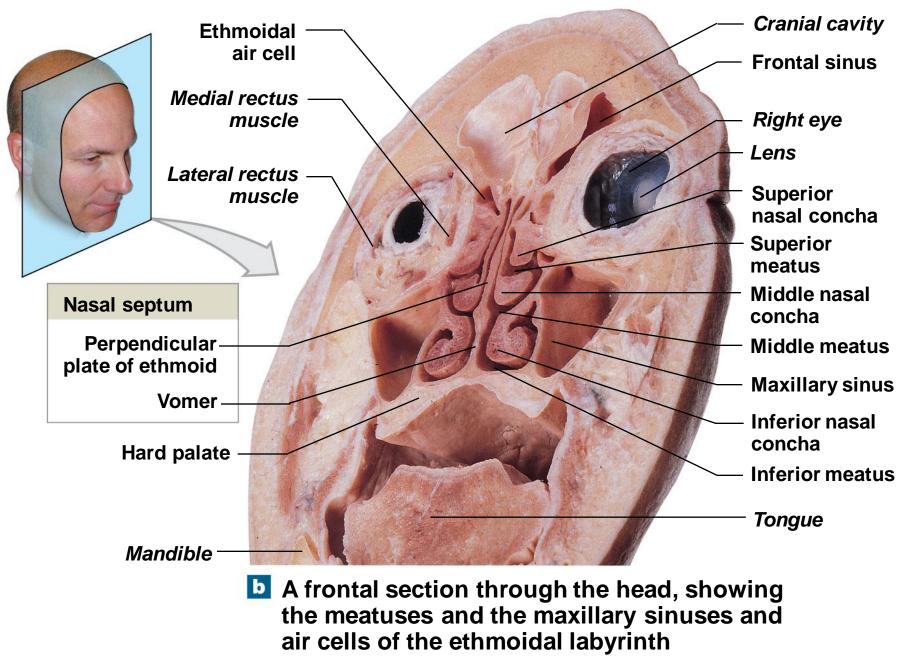
- Warms and humidifies inhaled air for arrival at lower respiratory organs
- Breathing through mouth bypasses this important step

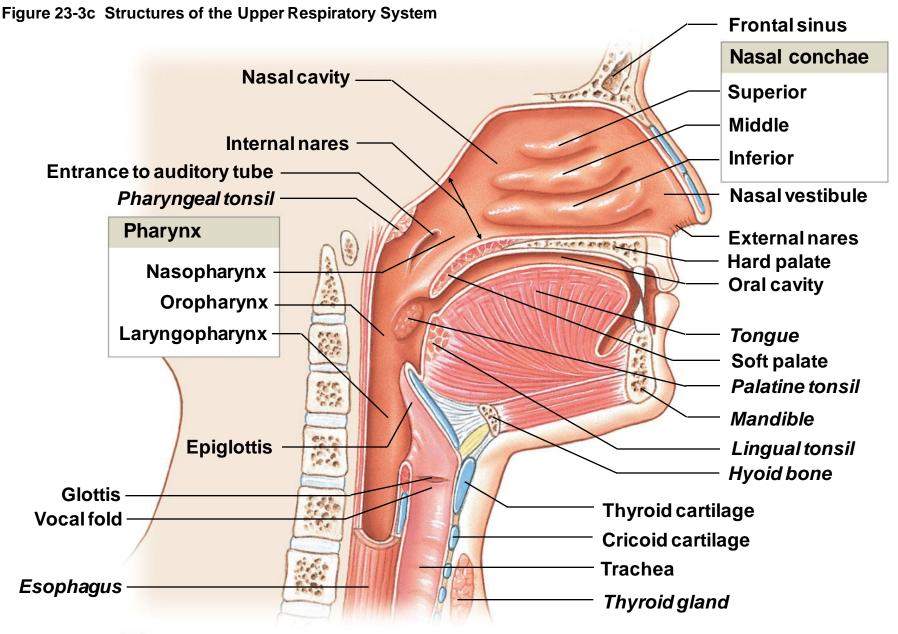
Figure 23-3a Structures of the Upper Respiratory System



The nasal cartilages and external landmarks on the nose

Figure 23-3b Structures of the Upper Respiratory System





The nasal cavity and pharynx, as seen in sagittal section with the nasal septum removed

The Pharynx

- A chamber shared by digestive and respiratory systems
- Extends from internal nares to entrances to larynx and esophagus
- Divided into three parts
 - 1. The nasopharynx
 - 2. The oropharynx
 - 3. The laryngopharynx

The Nasopharynx

- Superior portion of pharynx
- Contains pharyngeal tonsils and openings to left and right auditory tubes

The Oropharynx

- Middle portion of pharynx
- Communicates with oral cavity

The Laryngopharynx

- Inferior portion of pharynx
- Extends from hyoid bone to entrance of larynx and esophagus

- Air Flow
 - From the pharynx enters the larynx
 - A cartilaginous structure that surrounds the glottis, which is a narrow opening

- Cartilages of the Larynx
 - Three large, unpaired cartilages form the larynx
 - 1. Thyroid cartilage
 - 2. Cricoid cartilage
 - 3. Epiglottis

The Thyroid Cartilage

- Is hyaline cartilage
- Forms anterior and lateral walls of larynx
- Anterior surface called laryngeal prominence, or Adam's apple
- Ligaments attach to hyoid bone, epiglottis, and laryngeal cartilages

- The Cricoid Cartilage
 - Is hyaline cartilage
 - Forms posterior portion of larynx
 - Ligaments attach to first tracheal cartilage
 - Articulates with arytenoid cartilages

- The Epiglottis
 - Composed of elastic cartilage
 - Ligaments attach to thyroid cartilage and hyoid bone

- Cartilage Functions
 - Thyroid and cricoid cartilages support and protect:
 - The glottis
 - The entrance to trachea
 - During swallowing:
 - The larynx is elevated
 - The epiglottis folds back over glottis
 - Prevents entry of food and liquids into respiratory tract

- The Larynx Contains Three Pairs of Smaller Hyaline Cartilages
 - 1. Arytenoid cartilages
 - 2. Corniculate cartilages
 - 3. Cuneiform cartilages

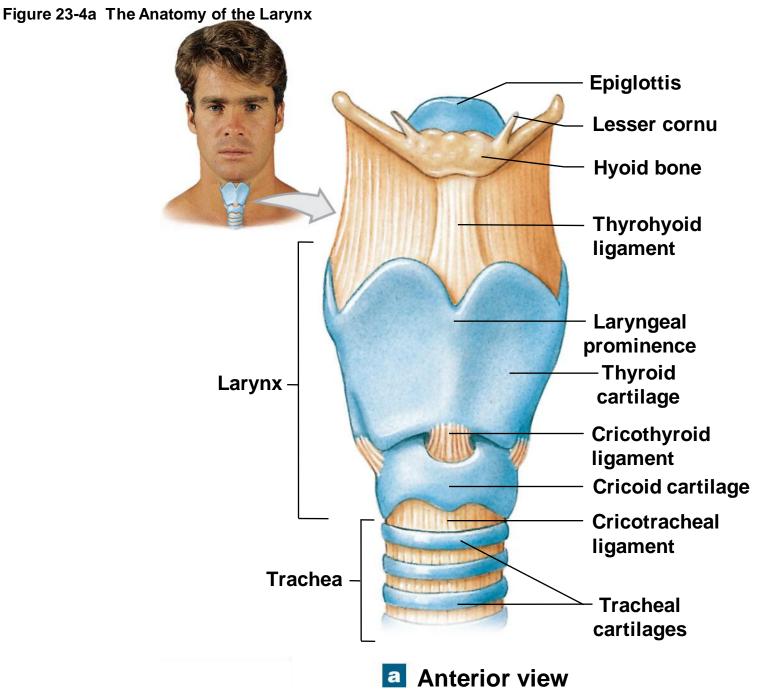


Figure 23-4b The Anatomy of the Larynx

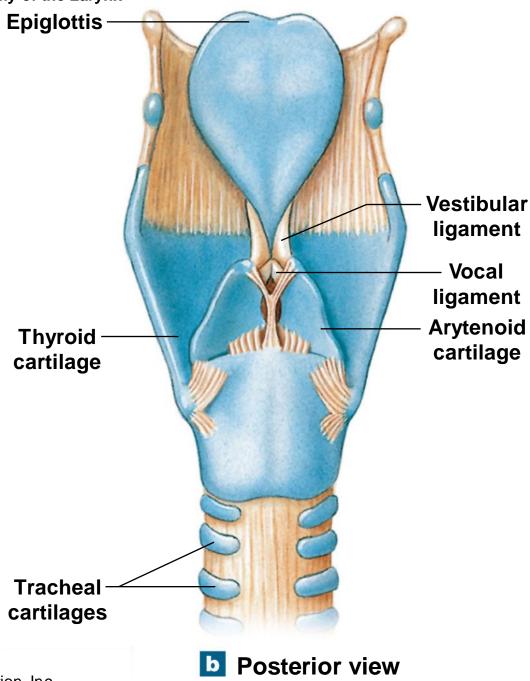
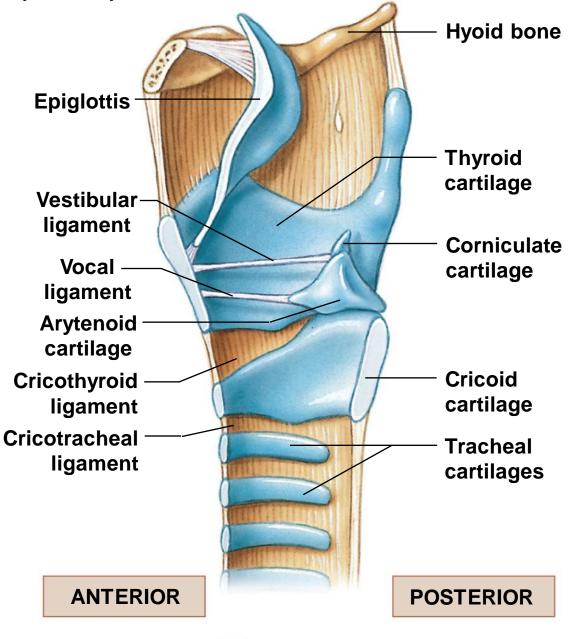


Figure 23-4c The Anatomy of the Larynx



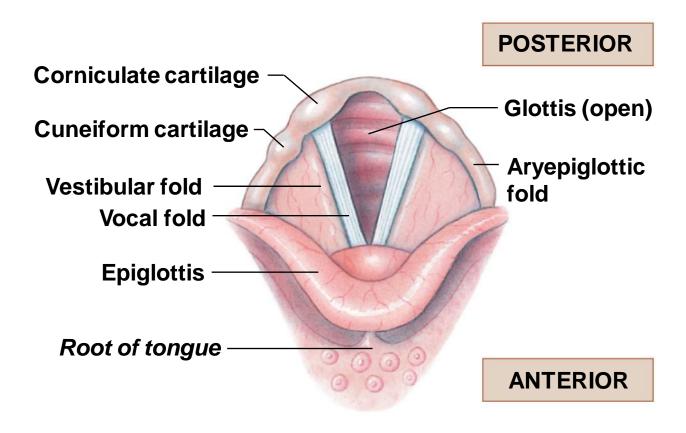
Sagittal section

- Cartilage Functions
 - Corniculate and arytenoid cartilages function in:
 - Opening and closing of glottis
 - Production of sound

- Ligaments of the Larynx
 - Vestibular ligaments and vocal ligaments
 - Extend between thyroid cartilage and arytenoid cartilages
 - Are covered by folds of laryngeal epithelium that project into glottis

- The Vestibular Ligaments
 - Lie within vestibular folds
 - Which protect delicate vocal folds
- Sound Production
 - Air passing through glottis
 - Vibrates vocal folds
 - Produces sound waves

- Sound Production
 - Sound is varied by:
 - Tension on vocal folds
 - Vocal folds involved with sound are known as vocal cords
 - Voluntary muscles (position arytenoid cartilage relative to thyroid cartilage)
 - Speech is produced by:
 - Phonation
 - Sound production at the larynx
 - Articulation
 - Modification of sound by other structures



a Glottis in the open position.

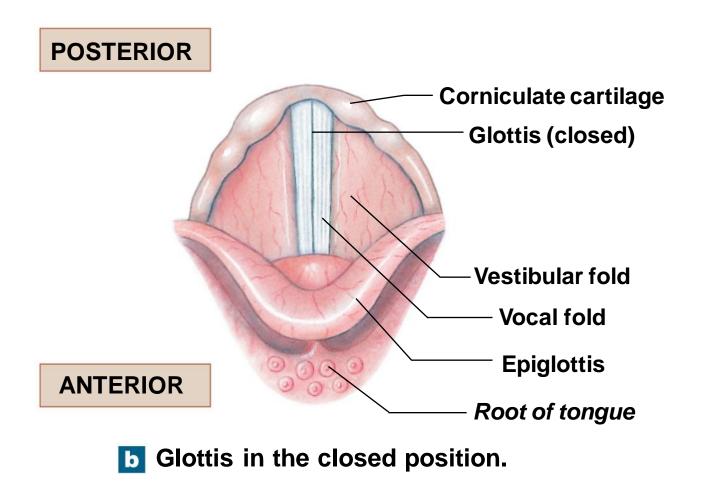
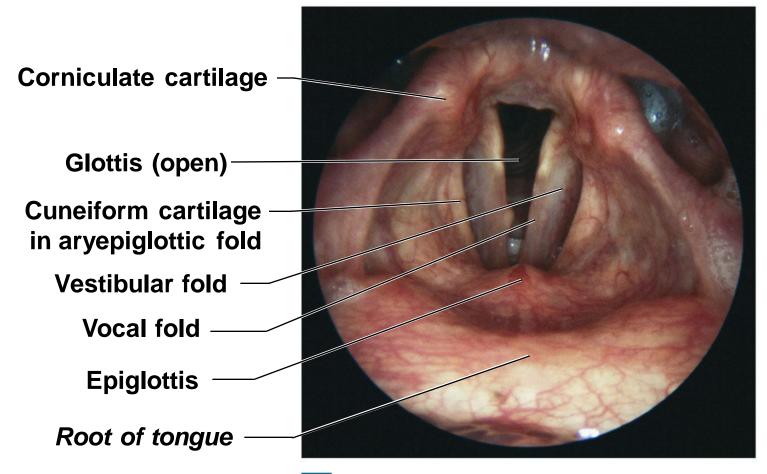


Figure 23-5c The Glottis and Surrounding Structures



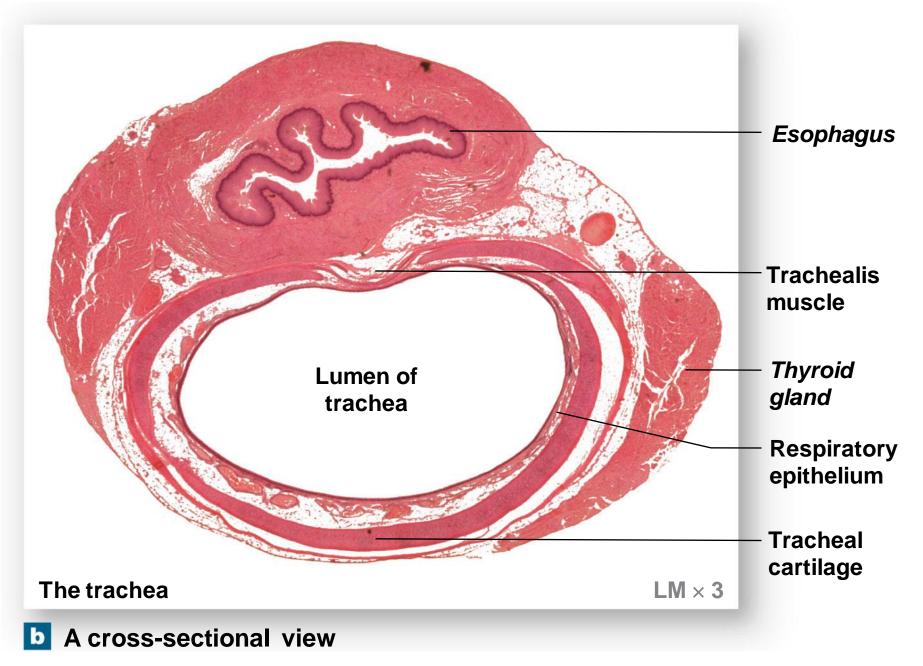
This photograph is a representative laryngoscopic view. For this view the camera is positioned within the oropharynx, just superior to the larynx.

- The Laryngeal Musculature
 - The larynx is associated with:
 - 1. Muscles of neck and pharynx
 - 2. Intrinsic muscles
 - Control vocal folds
 - Open and close glottis

The Trachea

- Also called the windpipe
- Extends from the cricoid cartilage into mediastinum
 - Where it branches into right and left pulmonary bronchi
- The submucosa
 - Beneath mucosa of trachea
 - Contains mucous glands

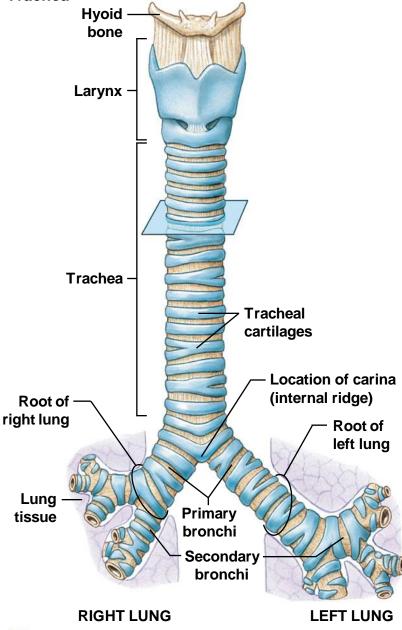
Figure 23-6b The Anatomy of the Trachea



- The Tracheal Cartilages
 - 15–20 tracheal cartilages
 - Strengthen and protect airway
 - Discontinuous where trachea contacts esophagus
 - Ends of each tracheal cartilage are connected by:
 - An elastic ligament and trachealis muscle

- The Primary Bronchi
 - Right and Left Primary Bronchi
 - Separated by an internal ridge (the carina)
 - The Right Primary Bronchus
 - Is larger in diameter than the left
 - Descends at a steeper angle

Figure 23-6a The Anatomy of the Trachea



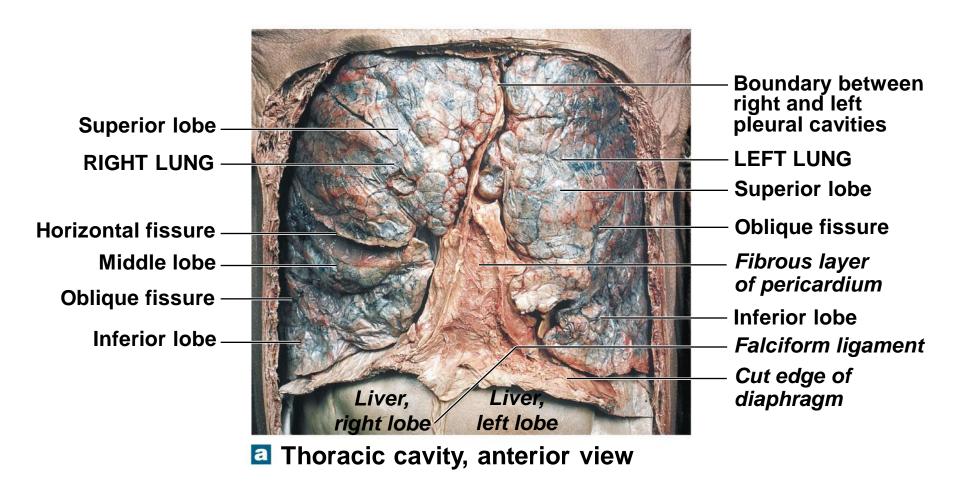
 A diagrammatic anterior view showing the plane of section for part (b)

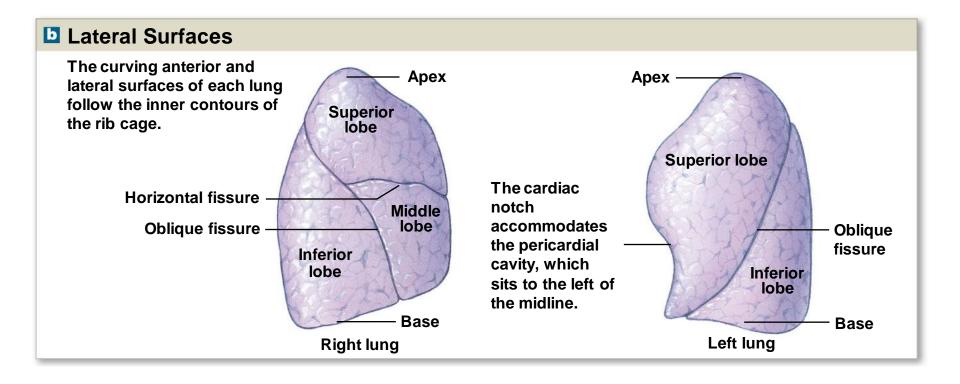
- The Primary Bronchi
 - Hilum
 - Where pulmonary nerves, blood vessels, lymphatics enter lung
 - Anchored in meshwork of connective tissue
 - The root of the lung
 - Complex of connective tissues, nerves, and vessels in hilum
 - Anchored to the mediastinum

- The Lungs
 - Left and right lungs
 - Are in left and right pleural cavities
 - The base
 - Inferior portion of each lung rests on superior surface of diaphragm
 - Lobes of the lungs
 - Lungs have lobes separated by deep fissures

- Lobes and Surfaces of the Lungs
 - The right lung has three lobes
 - Superior, middle, and inferior
 - Separated by horizontal and oblique fissures
 - The left lung has two lobes
 - Superior and inferior
 - Separated by an oblique fissure

- Lung Shape
 - Right lung
 - Is wider
 - Is displaced upward by liver
 - Left lung
 - Is longer
 - Is displaced leftward by the heart forming the cardiac notch





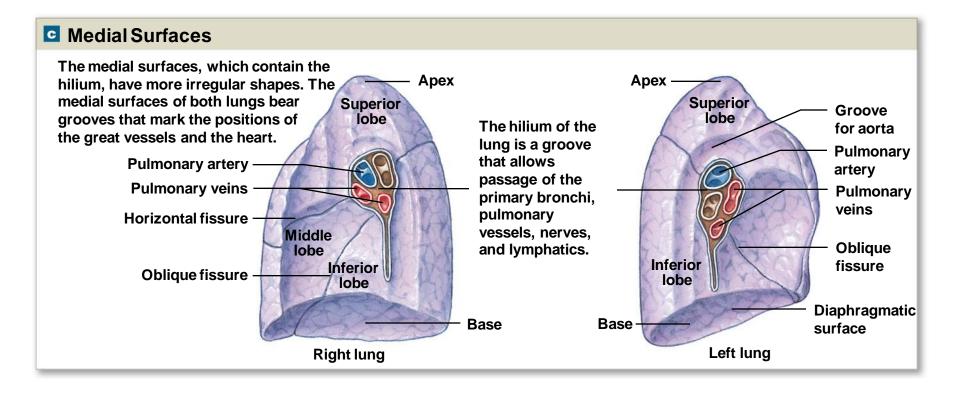
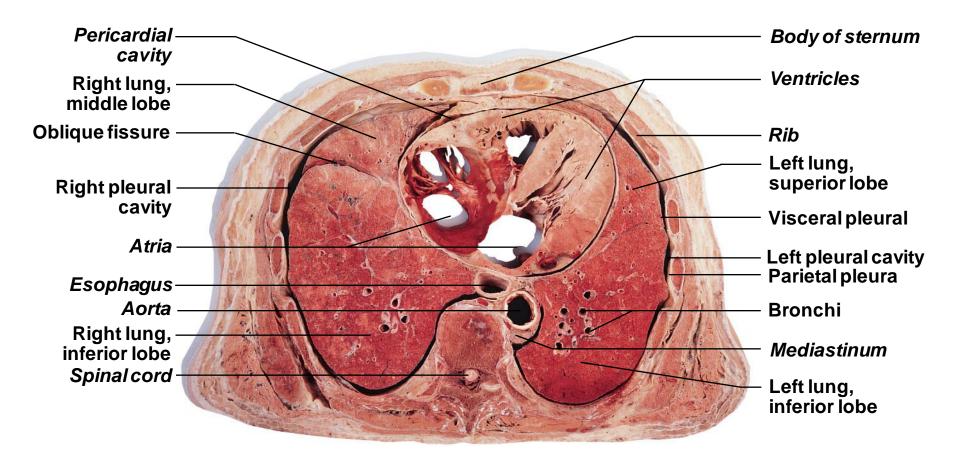


Figure 23-8 The Relationship between the Lungs and Heart



- The Bronchi
 - The Bronchial Tree
 - Is formed by the primary bronchi and their branches
 - Extrapulmonary Bronchi
 - The left and right bronchi branches outside the lungs
 - Intrapulmonary Bronchi
 - Branches within the lungs

- A Primary Bronchus
 - Branches to form secondary bronchi (lobar bronchi)
 - One secondary bronchus goes to each lobe
- Secondary Bronchi
 - Branch to form tertiary bronchi (segmental bronchi)
 - Each segmental bronchus
 - Supplies air to a single bronchopulmonary segment

- Bronchopulmonary Segments
 - The right lung has 10
 - The left lung has 8 or 9
- Bronchial Structure
 - The walls of primary, secondary, and tertiary bronchi
 - Contain progressively less cartilage and more smooth muscle
 - Increased smooth muscle tension affects airway constriction and resistance

Bronchitis

- Inflammation of bronchial walls
 - Causes constriction and breathing difficulty

The Bronchioles

- Each tertiary bronchus branches into multiple bronchioles
- Bronchioles branch into terminal bronchioles
 - One tertiary bronchus forms about 6500 terminal bronchioles
- Bronchiole Structure
 - Bronchioles
 - Have no cartilage
 - Are dominated by smooth muscle

- Autonomic Control
 - Regulates smooth muscle
 - Controls diameter of bronchioles
 - Controls airflow and resistance in lungs

Bronchodilation

- Dilation of bronchial airways
- Caused by sympathetic ANS activation
- Reduces resistance

Bronchoconstriction

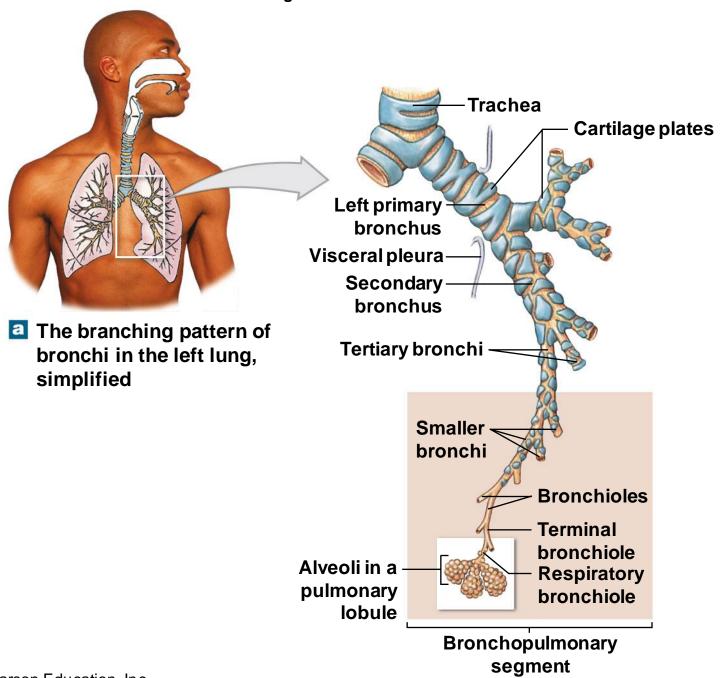
- Constricts bronchi
 - Caused by:
 - Parasympathetic ANS activation
 - Histamine release (allergic reactions)

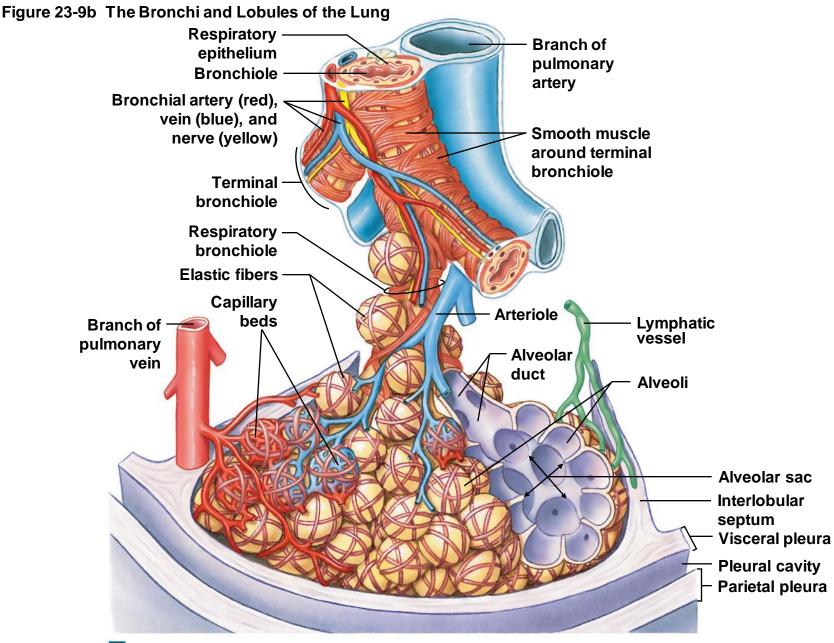
Asthma

- Excessive stimulation and bronchoconstriction
- Stimulation severely restricts airflow

- Pulmonary Lobules
 - Trabeculae
 - Fibrous connective tissue partitions from root of lung
 - Contain supportive tissues and lymphatic vessels
 - Branch repeatedly
 - Divide lobes into increasingly smaller compartments
 - Pulmonary lobules are divided by the smallest trabecular partitions (interlobular septa)

Figure 23-9a The Bronchi and Lobules of the Lung



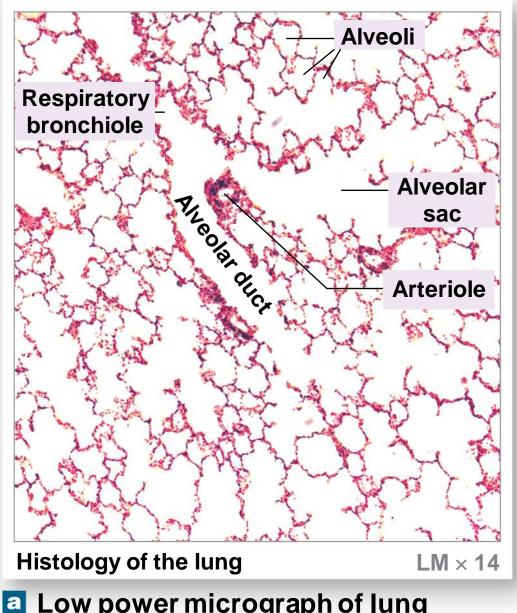


The structure of a single pulmonary lobule, part of a bronchopulmonary segment

- Pulmonary Lobules
 - Each terminal bronchiole delivers air to a single pulmonary lobule
 - Each pulmonary lobule is supplied by pulmonary arteries and veins
 - Each terminal bronchiole branches to form several respiratory bronchioles, where gas exchange takes place

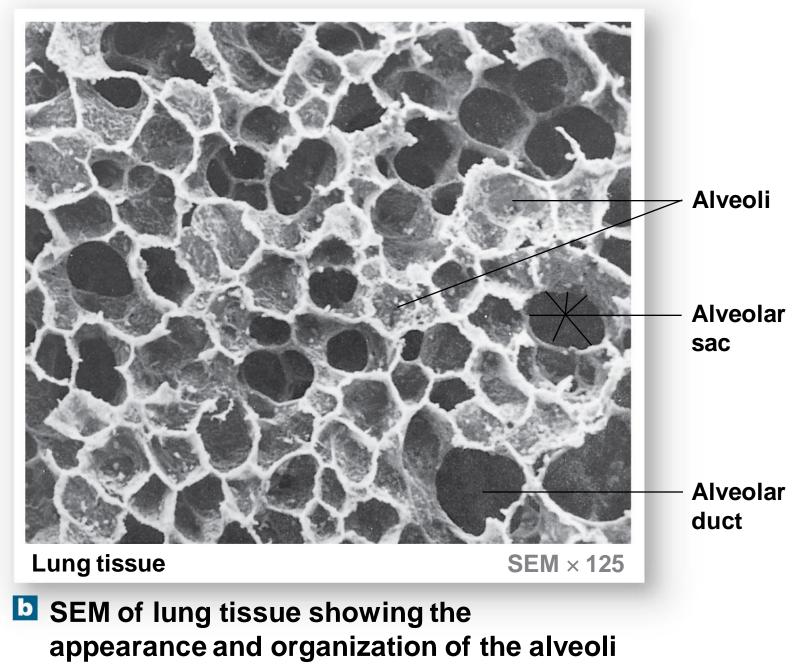
- Alveolar Ducts and Alveoli
 - Respiratory bronchioles are connected to alveoli along alveolar ducts
 - Alveolar ducts end at alveolar sacs
 - Common chambers connected to many individual alveoli
 - Each alveolus has an extensive network of capillaries
 - Surrounded by elastic fibers

Figure 23-10a Respiratory Tissue



Low power micrograph of lung tissue

Figure 23-10b Respiratory Tissue



© 2012 Pearson Education, Inc.

- Alveolar Epithelium
 - Consists of simple squamous epithelium
 - Consists of thin, delicate pneumocytes type I
 - Patrolled by alveolar macrophages (dust cells)
 - Contains pneumocytes type II (septal cells) that produce surfactant

Surfactant

- Is an oily secretion
- Contains phospholipids and proteins
- Coats alveolar surfaces and reduces surface tension

Figure 23-11a Alveolar Organization

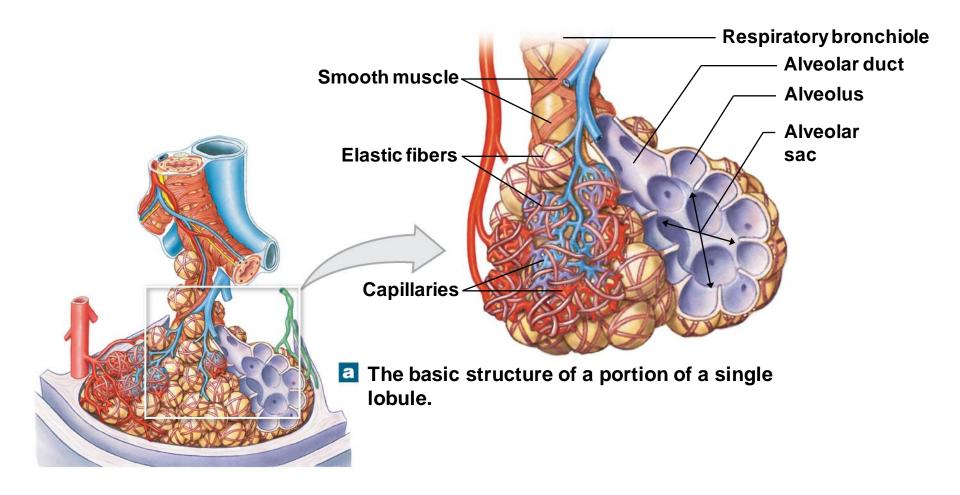
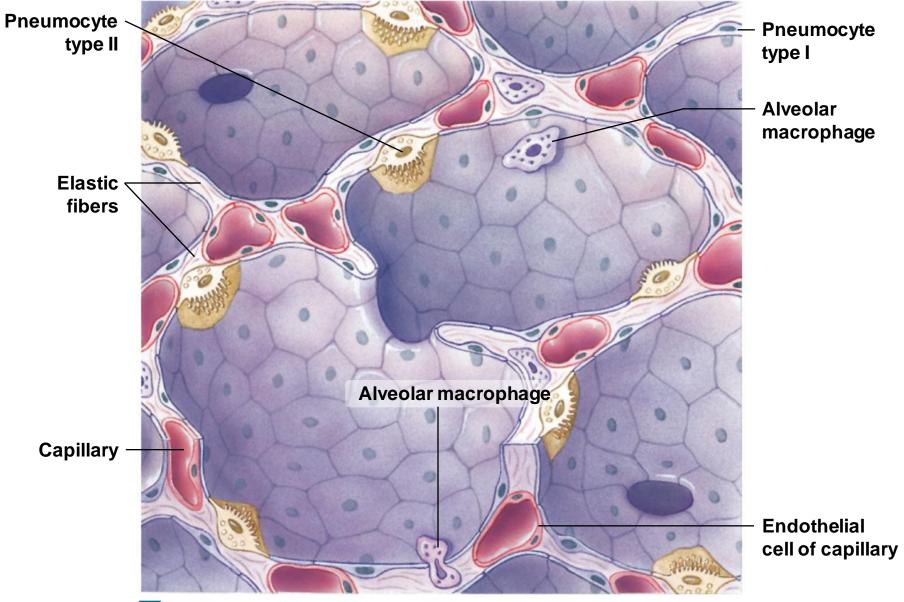


Figure 23-11b Alveolar Organization



b A diagrammatic view of alveolar structure. A single capillary may be involved in gas exchange with several alveoli simultaneously.

- Respiratory Distress Syndrome
 - Difficult respiration
 - Due to alveolar collapse
 - Caused when pneumocytes type II do not produce enough surfactant
- Respiratory Membrane
 - The thin membrane of alveoli where gas exchange takes place

- Three Layers of the Respiratory Membrane
 - 1. Squamous epithelial cells lining the alveolus
 - 2. Endothelial cells lining an adjacent capillary
 - 3. Fused basement membranes between the alveolar and endothelial cells

Figure 23-11c Alveolar Organization Red blood cell Capillary lumen Capillary **Nucleus of** endothelium endothelial cell $0.5~\mu \mathrm{m}$ **Fused Alveolar Surfactant** epithelium basement membrane Alveolar air space

The respiratory membrane, which consists of an alveolar epithelial cell, a capillary endothelial cell, and their fused basement membranes.

- Diffusion
 - Across respiratory membrane is very rapid
 - Because distance is short
 - Gases (O₂ and CO₂) are lipid soluble
- Inflammation of Lobules
 - Also called pneumonia
 - Causes fluid to leak into alveoli
 - Compromises function of respiratory membrane

- Blood Supply to the Lungs
 - Respiratory exchange surfaces receive blood
 - From arteries of pulmonary circuit
 - A capillary network surrounds each alveolus
 - As part of the respiratory membrane
 - Blood from alveolar capillaries
 - Passes through pulmonary venules and veins
 - Returns to left atrium
 - Also site of angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE)

- Blood Supply to the Lungs
 - Capillaries supplied by bronchial arteries
 - Provide oxygen and nutrients to tissues of conducting passageways of lung
 - Venous blood bypasses the systemic circuit and flows into pulmonary veins

- Blood Pressure
 - In pulmonary circuit is low (30 mm Hg)
 - Pulmonary vessels are easily blocked by blood clots, fat, or air bubbles
 - Causing pulmonary embolism

- The Pleural Cavities and Pleural Membranes
 - Two pleural cavities
 - Are separated by the mediastinum
 - Each pleural cavity:
 - Holds a lung
 - Is lined with a serous membrane (the pleura)

- The Pleura
 - Consists of two layers
 - 1. Parietal pleura
 - 2. Visceral pleura
 - Pleural fluid
 - Lubricates space between two layers

23-6 Introduction to Gas Exchange

Respiration

Refers to two integrated processes

1. External respiration

Includes all processes involved in exchanging O₂
 and CO₂ with the environment

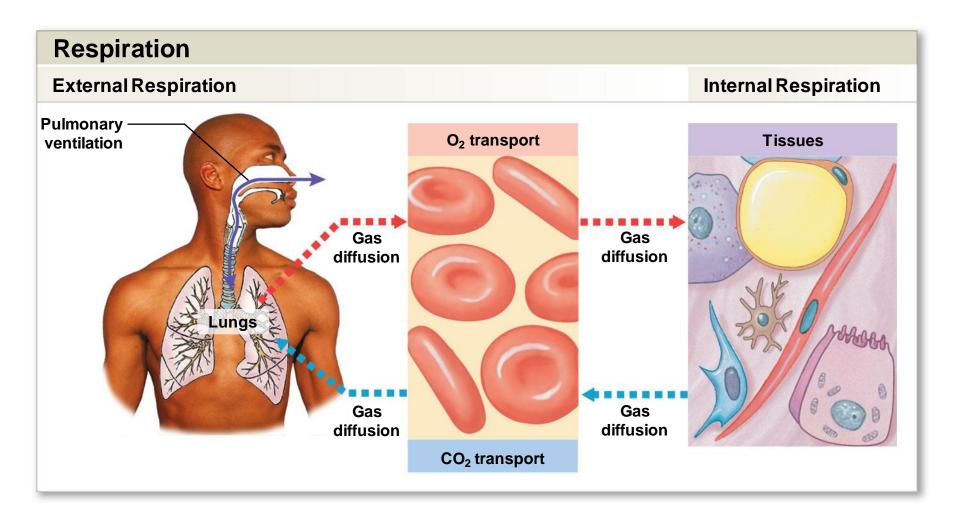
2. Internal respiration

- Result of cellular respiration
- Involves the uptake of O₂ and production of CO₂
 within individual cells

23-6 Introduction to Gas Exchange

- Three Processes of External Respiration
 - 1. Pulmonary ventilation (breathing)
 - 2. Gas diffusion
 - Across membranes and capillaries
 - 3. Transport of O_2 and CO_2
 - Between alveolar capillaries
 - Between capillary beds in other tissues

Figure 23-12 An Overview of the Key Steps in Respiration



23-6 Introduction to Gas Exchange

- Abnormal External Respiration Is Dangerous
 - Hypoxia
 - Low tissue oxygen levels
 - Anoxia
 - Complete lack of oxygen

Pulmonary Ventilation

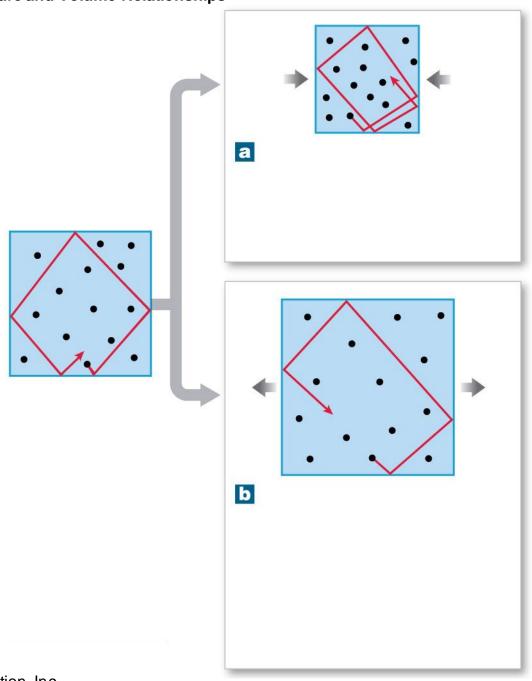
- Is the physical movement of air in and out of respiratory tract
- Provides alveolar ventilation
- The Movement of Air
 - Atmospheric pressure
 - The weight of air
 - Has several important physiological effects

- Gas Pressure and Volume
 - Boyle's Law
 - Defines the relationship between gas pressure and volume

$$P = 1/V$$

- In a contained gas:
 - External pressure forces molecules closer together
 - Movement of gas molecules exerts pressure on container

Figure 23-13 Gas Pressure and Volume Relationships



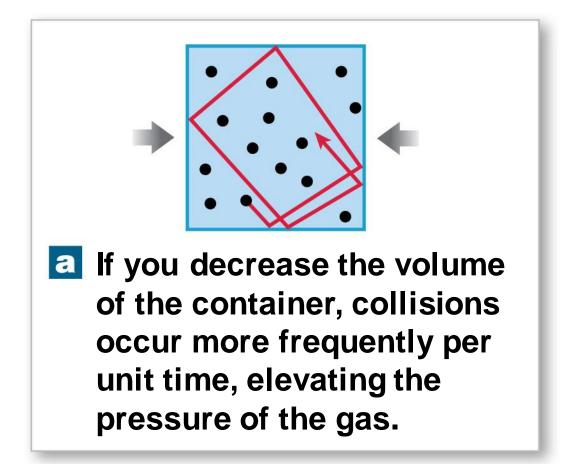
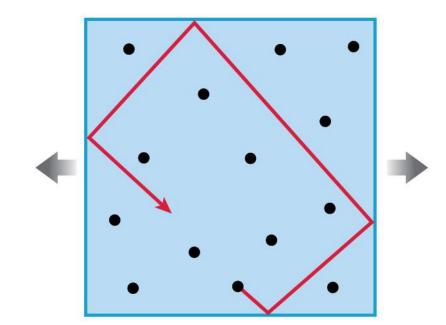


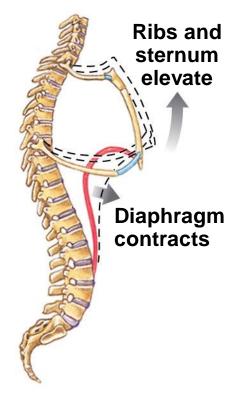
Figure 23-13b Gas Pressure and Volume Relationships



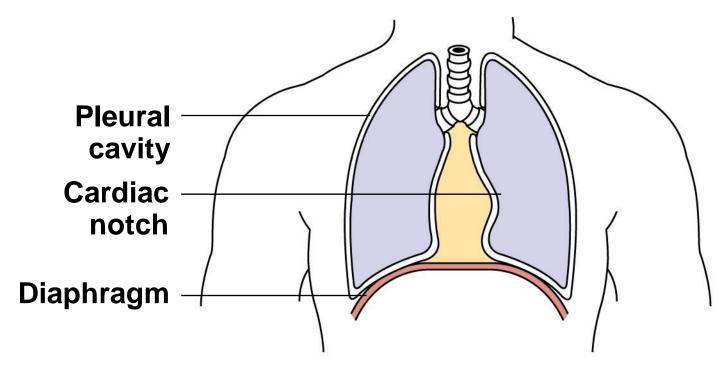
If you increase the volume, fewer collisions occur per unit time, because it takes longer for a gas molecule to travel from one wall to another. As a result, the gas pressure inside the container declines.

- Pressure and Airflow to the Lungs
 - Air flows from area of higher pressure to area of lower pressure
 - A Respiratory Cycle
 - Consists of:
 - An inspiration (inhalation)
 - An expiration (exhalation)

- Pulmonary Ventilation
 - Causes volume changes that create changes in pressure
 - Volume of thoracic cavity changes
 - With expansion or contraction of diaphragm or rib cage



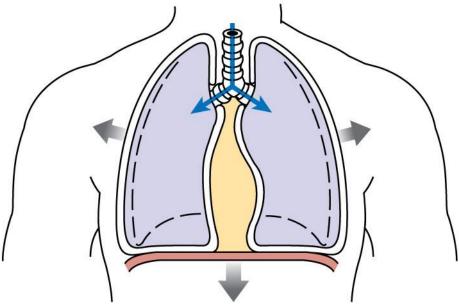
As the rib cage is elevated or the diaphragm is depressed, the volume of the thoracic cavity increases.



Poutside = Pinside
Pressure outside and inside are
equal, so no air movement occurs

b At rest.

Figure 23-14c Mechanisms of Pulmonary Ventilation

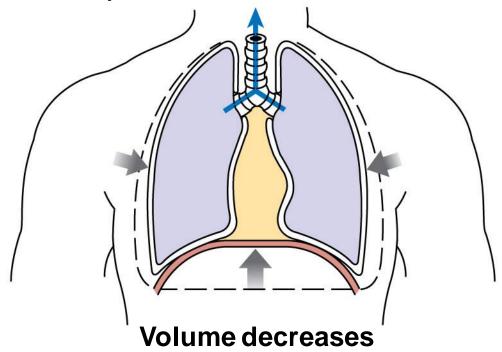


Volume increases

Poutside > Pinside Pressure inside falls, so air flows in

Inhalation. Elevation of the rib cage and contraction of the diaphragm increase the size of the thoracic cavity. Pressure within the thoracic cavity decreases, and air flows into the lungs.

Figure 23-14d Mechanisms of Pulmonary Ventilation



P_{outside} < P_{inside}
Pressure inside rises, so air flows out

Exhalation. When the rib cage returns to its original position and the diaphragm relaxes, the volume of the thoracic cavity decreases. Pressure rises, and air moves out of the lungs.

Compliance

- An indicator of expandability
- Low compliance requires greater force
- High compliance requires less force
- Factors That Affect Compliance
 - Connective tissue structure of the lungs
 - Level of surfactant production
 - Mobility of the thoracic cage

- Pressure Changes during Inhalation and Exhalation
 - Can be measured inside or outside the lungs
 - Normal atmospheric pressure
 - 1 atm = 760 mm Hg

- The Intrapulmonary Pressure
 - Also called intra-alveolar pressure
 - Is relative to atmospheric pressure
 - In relaxed breathing, the difference between atmospheric pressure and intrapulmonary pressure is small
 - About –1 mm Hg on inhalation or +1 mm Hg on exhalation

- Maximum Intrapulmonary Pressure
 - Maximum straining, a dangerous activity, can increase range
 - From –30 mm Hg to +100 mm Hg

- The Intrapleural Pressure
 - Pressure in space between parietal and visceral pleura
 - Averages –4 mm Hg
 - Maximum of –18 mm Hg
 - Remains below atmospheric pressure throughout respiratory cycle

Table 23–1

The Four Most Common Methods of Reporting Gas Pressures

millimeters of mercury (mm Hg): This is the most common method of reporting blood pressure and gas pressures. Normal atmospheric pressure is approximately 760 mm Hg.

torr: This unit of measurement is preferred by many respiratory therapists; it is also commonly used in Europe and in some technical journals. One torr is equivalent to 1 mm Hg; in other words, normal atmospheric pressure is equal to 760 torr.

centimeters of water (cm H_2O): In a hospital setting, anesthetic gas pressures and oxygen pressures are commonly measured in centimeters of water. One cm H_2O is equivalent to 0.735 mm H_3 ; normal atmospheric pressure is 1033.6 cm H_2O .

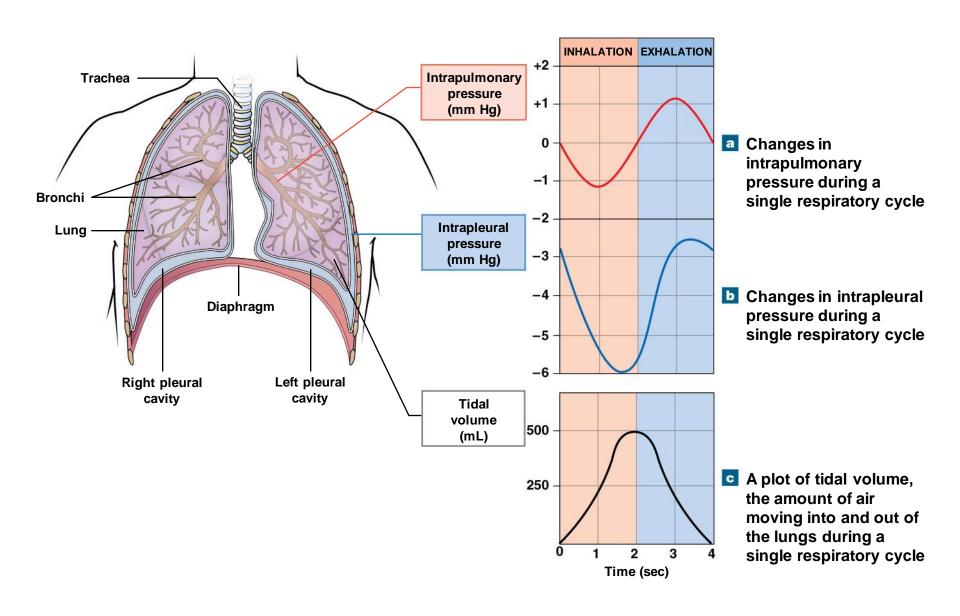
pounds per square inch (psi): Pressures in compressed gas cylinders and other industrial applications are generally reported in psi. Normal atmospheric pressure at sea level is approximately 15 psi.

The Respiratory Cycle

- Cyclical changes in intrapleural pressure operate the respiratory pump
 - Which aids in venous return to heart
- Tidal Volume (V_T)
 - Amount of air moved in and out of lungs in a single respiratory cycle

- Injury to the Chest Wall
 - Pneumothorax allows air into pleural cavity
 - Atelectasis (also called a collapsed lung) is a result of pneumothorax

Figure 23-15 Pressure and Volume Changes during Inhalation and Exhalation

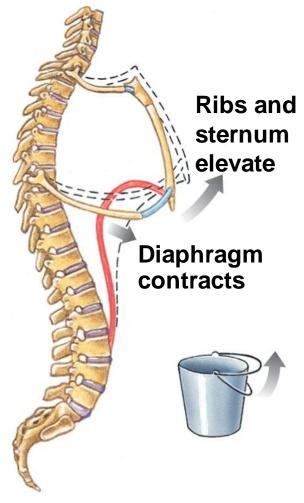


- The Respiratory Muscles
 - Most important are:
 - The diaphragm
 - External intercostal muscles of the ribs
 - Accessory respiratory muscles
 - Activated when respiration increases significantly

- The Mechanics of Breathing
 - Inhalation
 - Always active
 - Exhalation
 - Active or passive

- Muscles Used in Inhalation
 - Diaphragm
 - Contraction draws air into lungs
 - 75% of normal air movement
 - External intercostal muscles
 - Assist inhalation
 - 25% of normal air movement
 - Accessory muscles assist in elevating ribs
 - Sternocleidomastoid
 - Serratus anterior
 - Pectoralis minor
 - Scalene muscles

Figure 23-16a The Respiratory Muscles



Movements of the ribs and diaphragm that increase the volume of the thoracic cavity. Diaphragmatic movements were also illustrated in *Figure 23–14*.

Figure 23-16b The Respiratory Muscles

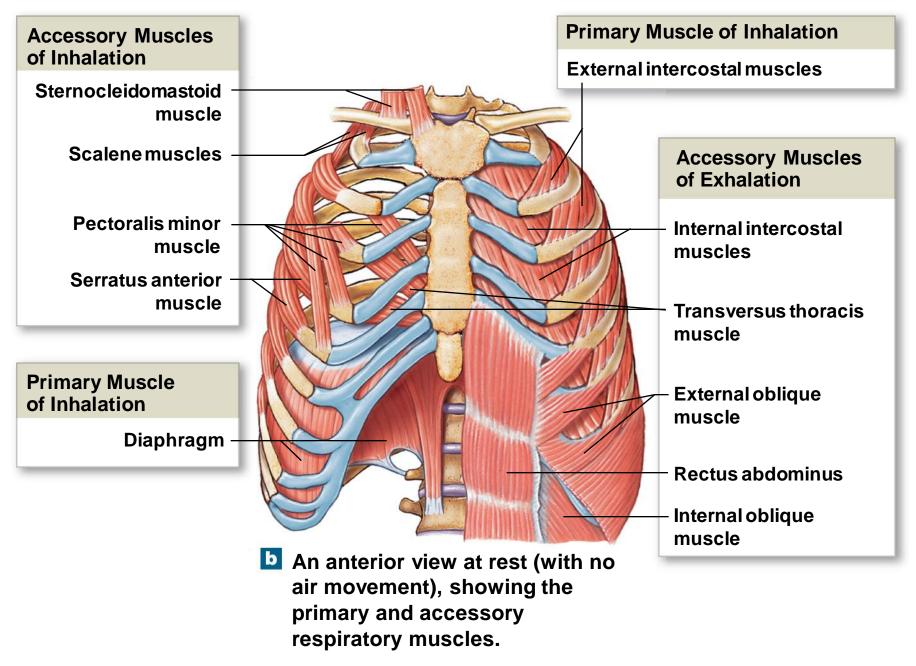
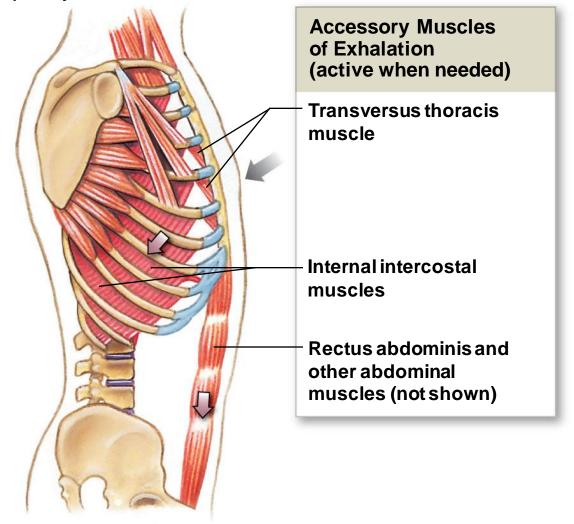


Figure 23-16c The Respiratory Muscles **Accessory Muscle** of Inhalation (active when needed) **Sternocleidomastoid** muscle Scalene muscles **Pectoralis minor muscle** Serratus anterior muscle **Primary Muscle** of Inhalation **External intercostal muscles** Diaphragm

Inhalation. A lateral view during inhalation, showing the muscles that elevate the ribs.

- Muscles Used in Exhalation
 - Internal intercostal and transversus thoracis muscles
 - Depress the ribs
 - Abdominal muscles
 - Compress the abdomen
 - Force diaphragm upward

Figure 23-16d The Respiratory Muscles



Exhalation. A lateral view during exhalation, showing the muscles that depress the ribs. The abdominal muscles that assist in exhalation are represented by a single muscle (the rectus abdominis).

- Modes of Breathing
 - Respiratory movements are classified
 - By pattern of muscle activity
 - Quiet breathing
 - Forced breathing

- Quiet Breathing (Eupnea)
 - Involves active inhalation and passive exhalation
 - Diaphragmatic breathing or deep breathing
 - Is dominated by diaphragm
 - Costal breathing or shallow breathing
 - Is dominated by rib cage movements

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
 - Maximum levels occur in exhaustion

- Respiratory Rates and Volumes
 - Respiratory system adapts to changing oxygen demands by varying:
 - The number of breaths per minute (respiratory rate)
 - The volume of air moved per breath (tidal volume)

- The Respiratory Minute Volume (V_E)
 - Amount of air moved per minute
 - Is calculated by:

respiratory rate × tidal volume

Measures pulmonary ventilation

- Alveolar Ventilation (V_A)
 - Only a part of respiratory minute volume reaches alveolar exchange surfaces
 - Volume of air remaining in conducting passages is anatomic dead space
 - Alveolar ventilation is the amount of air reaching alveoli each minute
 - Calculated as:

(tidal volume – anatomic dead space) × respiratory rate

- Alveolar Gas Content
 - Alveoli contain less O₂, more CO₂ than atmospheric air
 - Because air mixes with exhaled air

- Relationships among V_T, V_E, and V_A
 - Determined by respiratory rate and tidal volume
 - For a given respiratory rate:
 - Increasing tidal volume increases alveolar ventilation rate
 - For a given tidal volume:
 - Increasing respiratory rate increases alveolar ventilation

- Respiratory Performance and Volume Relationships
 - Total lung volume is divided into a series of volumes and capacities useful in diagnosing problems
 - Four Pulmonary Volumes
 - 1. Resting tidal volume (V_t)
 - Expiratory reserve volume (ERV)
 - 3. Residual volume
 - 4. Inspiratory reserve volume (IRV)

- Resting Tidal Volume (V_t)
 - In a normal respiratory cycle
- Expiratory Reserve Volume (ERV)
 - After a normal exhalation
- Residual Volume
 - After maximal exhalation
 - Minimal volume (in a collapsed lung)
- Inspiratory Reserve Volume (IRV)
 - After a normal inspiration

Four Calculated Respiratory Capacities

1. Inspiratory capacity

Tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume

2. Functional residual capacity (FRC)

Expiratory reserve volume + residual volume

3. Vital capacity

Expiratory reserve volume + tidal volume + inspiratory reserve volume

- Four Calculated Respiratory Capacities
 - 4. Total lung capacity
 - Vital capacity + residual volume
- Pulmonary Function Tests
 - Measure rates and volumes of air movements

Figure 23-17 Pulmonary Volumes and Capacities

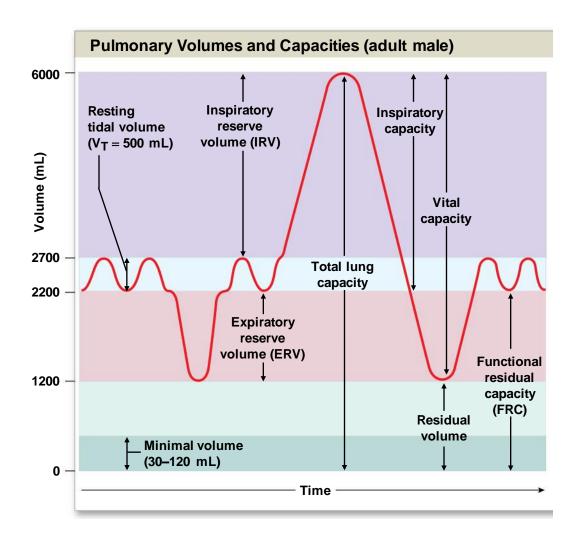
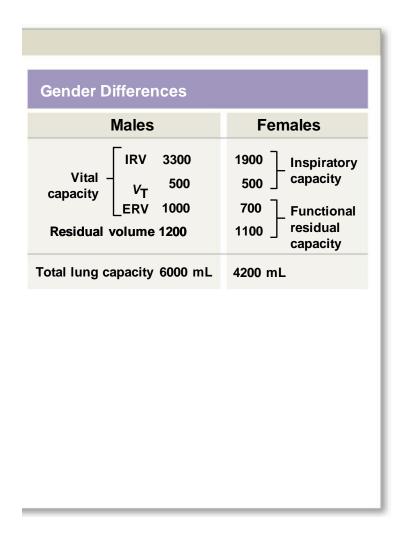


Figure 23-17 Pulmonary Volumes and Capacities



- Gas Exchange
 - Occurs between blood and alveolar air
 - Across the respiratory membrane
- Depends on:
 - 1. Partial pressures of the gases
 - 2. Diffusion of molecules between gas and liquid

- The Gas Laws
 - Diffusion occurs in response to concentration gradients
 - Rate of diffusion depends on physical principles, or gas laws
 - For example, Boyle's law

Dalton's Law and Partial Pressures

- Composition of Air
 - Nitrogen (N₂) is about 78.6%
 - Oxygen (O₂) is about 20.9%
 - Water vapor (H₂O) is about 0.5%
 - Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is about 0.04%

- Dalton's Law and Partial Pressures
 - Atmospheric pressure (760 mm Hg)
 - Produced by air molecules bumping into each other
 - Each gas contributes to the total pressure
 - In proportion to its number of molecules (Dalton's law)

- Partial Pressure
 - The pressure contributed by each gas in the atmosphere
 - All partial pressures together add up to 760 mm Hg

- Diffusion between Liquids and Gases
 - Henry's Law
 - When gas under pressure comes in contact with liquid
 - Gas dissolves in liquid until equilibrium is reached
 - At a given temperature
 - Amount of a gas in solution is proportional to partial pressure of that gas
 - 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

Figure 23-18 Henry's Law and the Relationship between Solubility and Pressure

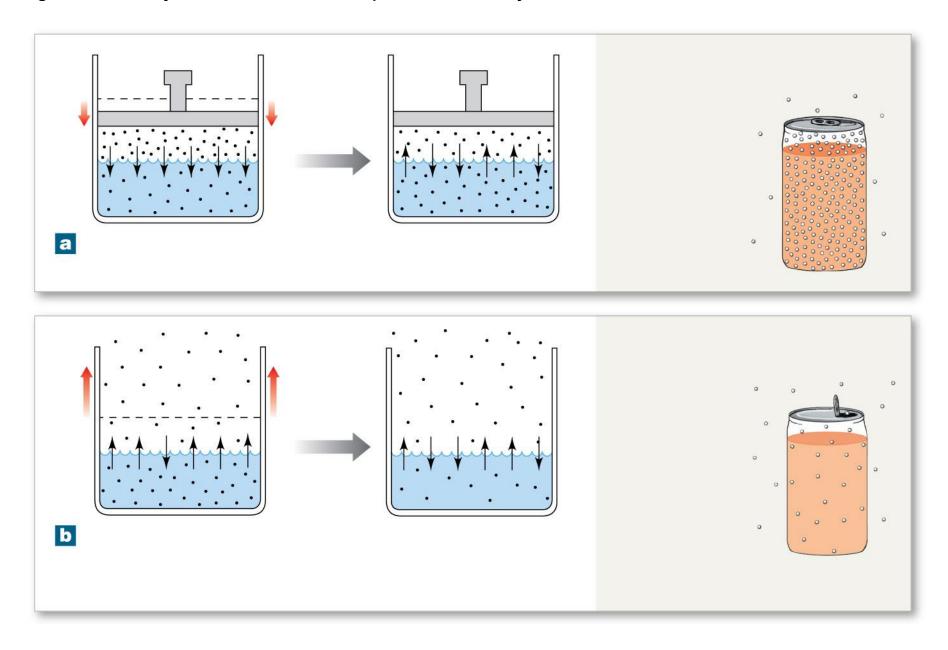
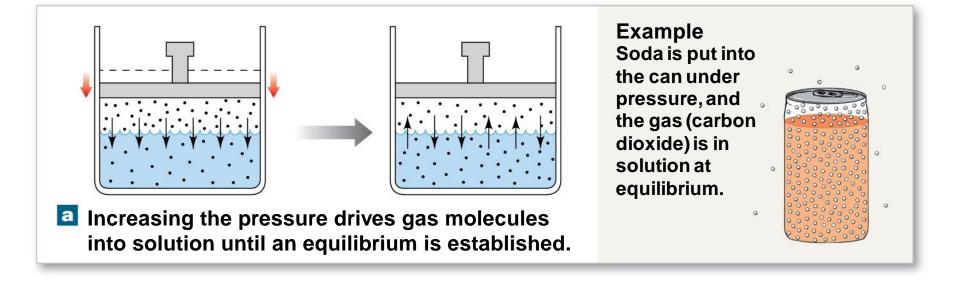
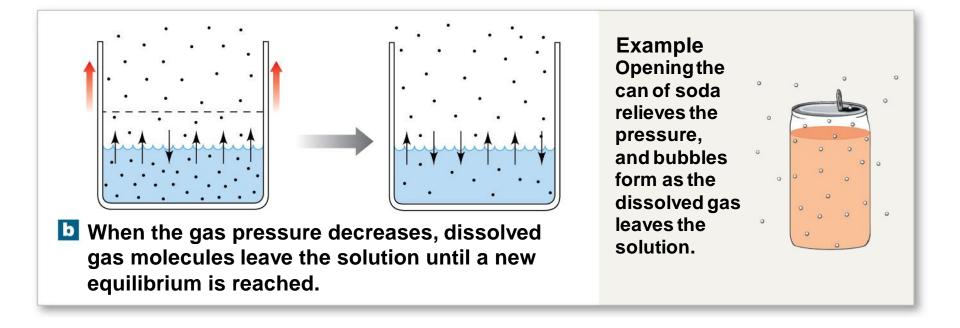


Figure 23-18a Henry's Law and the Relationship between Solubility and Pressure





- Solubility in Body Fluids
 - CO₂ is very soluble
 - O₂ is less soluble
 - N₂ has very low solubility

- Normal Partial Pressures
 - In pulmonary vein plasma
 - $P_{CO_2} = 40 \text{ mm Hg}$
 - $P_{O_2} = 100 \text{ mm Hg}$
 - $P_{N_2} = 573 \text{ mm Hg}$

Table 23–1

The Four Most Common Methods of Reporting Gas Pressures

millimeters of mercury (mm Hg): This is the most common method of reporting blood pressure and gas pressures. Normal atmospheric pressure is approximately 760 mm Hg.

torr: This unit of measurement is preferred by many respiratory therapists; it is also commonly used in Europe and in some technical journals. One torr is equivalent to 1 mm Hg; in other words, normal atmospheric pressure is equal to 760 torr.

centimeters of water (cm H_2O): In a hospital setting, anesthetic gas pressures and oxygen pressures are commonly measured in centimeters of water. One cm H_2O is equivalent to 0.735 mm H_3 ; normal atmospheric pressure is 1033.6 cm H_2O .

pounds per square inch (psi): Pressures in compressed gas cylinders and other industrial applications are generally reported in psi. Normal atmospheric pressure at sea level is approximately 15 psi.

- Diffusion and Respiratory Function
 - Direction and rate of diffusion of gases across the respiratory membrane
 - Determine different partial pressures and solubilities

- Five Reasons for Efficiency of Gas Exchange
 - Substantial differences in partial pressure across the respiratory membrane
 - 2. Distances involved in gas exchange are short
 - 3. O₂ and CO₂ are lipid soluble
 - 4. Total surface area is large
 - 5. Blood flow and airflow are coordinated

- Partial Pressures in Alveolar Air and Alveolar Capillaries
 - Blood arriving in pulmonary arteries has:
 - Low P_{O2}
 - High P_{CO₂}
 - The concentration gradient causes:
 - O₂ to enter blood
 - CO₂ to leave blood
 - Rapid exchange allows blood and alveolar air to reach equilibrium

- Partial Pressures in the Systemic Circuit
 - Oxygenated blood mixes with deoxygenated blood from conducting passageways
 - Lowers the P_{O_2} of blood entering systemic circuit (drops to about 95 mm Hg)

- Partial Pressures in the Systemic Circuit
 - Interstitial Fluid
 - P_{O2} 40 mm Hg
 - P_{CO₂} 45 mm Hg
 - Concentration gradient in peripheral capillaries is opposite of lungs
 - CO₂ diffuses into blood
 - O₂ diffuses out of blood

Figure 23-19a An Overview of Respiratory Processes and Partial Pressures in Respiration External Respiration **Systemic Pulmonary Alveolus** $P_{O2} = 40$ circuit circuit $R_{CO_2} = 45$ Respiratory membrane $P_{O_2} = 100$ $P_{CO_2} = 40$ 02 COS **Pulmonary** $P_{02} = 100$ capillary $PCO_2 = 40$ **Systemic** circuit

Figure 23-19b An Overview of Respiratory Processes and Partial Pressures in Respiration **Systemic Pulmonary Internal Respiration** circuit circuit Interstitial fluid $P_{O2} = 95$ $P_{CO2} = 40$ $P_{O_2} = 40$ $P_{CO_2} = 45$ COS **Systemic** circuit $P_{O_2} = 40$ $P_{CO_2} = 45$ **Systemic** capillary

- Gas Pickup and Delivery
 - Blood plasma cannot transport enough O₂ or CO₂
 to meet physiological needs
 - Red Blood Cells (RBCs)
 - Transport O₂ to, and CO₂ from, peripheral tissues
 - Remove O₂ and CO₂ from plasma, allowing gases to diffuse into blood

- Oxygen Transport
 - O₂ binds to iron ions in hemoglobin (Hb) molecules
 - In a reversible reaction
 - New molecule is called oxyhemoglobin (HbO₂)
 - Each RBC has about 280 million Hb molecules
 - Each binds four oxygen molecules

Hemoglobin Saturation

- The percentage of heme units in a hemoglobin molecule that contain bound oxygen
- Environmental Factors Affecting Hemoglobin
 - P_{O₂} of blood
 - Blood pH
 - Temperature
 - Metabolic activity within RBCs

Oxygen–Hemoglobin Saturation Curve

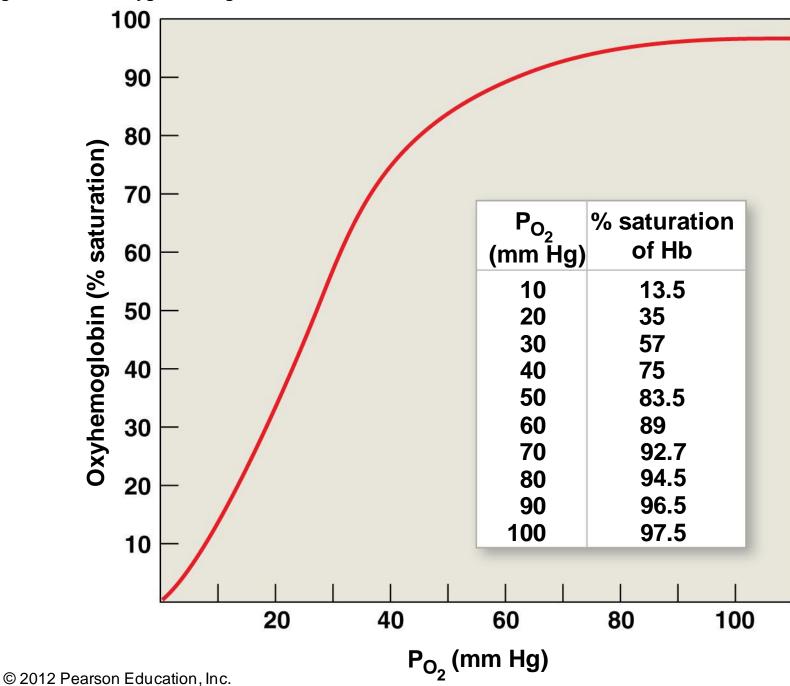
- A graph relating the saturation of hemoglobin to partial pressure of oxygen
 - Higher P_{O₂} results in greater Hb saturation
- Curve rather than a straight line because Hb changes shape each time a molecule of O₂ is bound
 - Each O₂ bound makes next O₂ binding easier
 - Allows Hb to bind O₂ when O₂ levels are low

- Oxygen Reserves
 - O₂ diffuses
 - From peripheral capillaries (high P_{O₂})
 - Into interstitial fluid (low P_{O₂})
 - Amount of O₂ released depends on interstitial P_{O₂}
 - Up to 3/4 may be reserved by RBCs

- Carbon Monoxide
 - CO from burning fuels
 - Binds strongly to hemoglobin
 - Takes the place of O₂
 - Can result in carbon monoxide poisoning

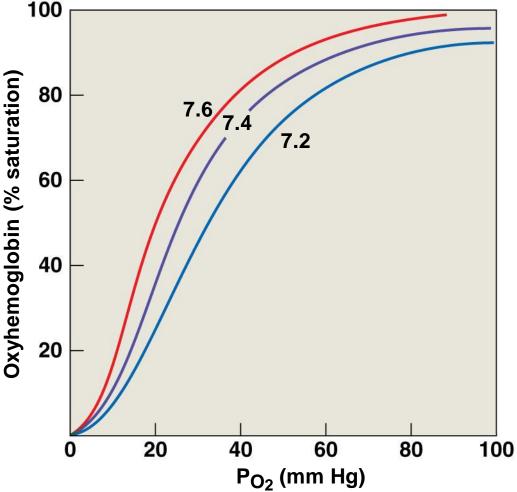
- The Oxygen–Hemoglobin Saturation Curve
 - Is standardized for normal blood (pH 7.4, 37°C)
 - When pH drops or temperature rises:
 - More oxygen is released
 - Curve shifts to right
 - When pH rises or temperature drops:
 - Less oxygen is released
 - Curve shifts to left

Figure 23-20 An Oxygen-Hemoglobin Saturation Curve



- Hemoglobin and pH
 - Bohr effect is the result of pH on hemoglobin-saturation curve
 - Caused by CO₂
 - CO₂ diffuses into RBC
 - An enzyme, called carbonic anhydrase, catalyzes reaction with H₂O
 - Produces carbonic acid (H₂CO₃)
 - Dissociates into hydrogen ion (H⁺) and bicarbonate ion (HCO₃⁻)
 - Hydrogen ions diffuse out of RBC, lowering pH

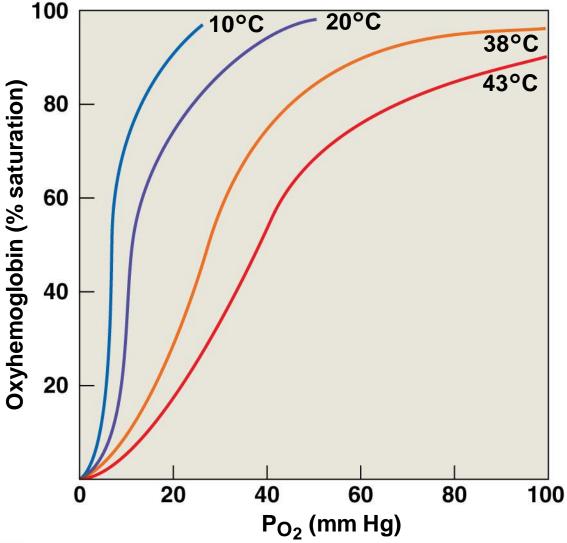
Figure 23-21a The Effects of pH and Temperature on Hemoglobin Saturation



Effect of pH. When the pH drops below normal levels, more oxygen is released; the oxygen-hemoglobin saturation curve shifts to the right. When the pH increases, less oxygen is released; the curve shifts to the left.

- Hemoglobin and Temperature
 - Temperature increase = hemoglobin releases more oxygen
 - Temperature decrease = hemoglobin holds oxygen more tightly
 - Temperature effects are significant only in active tissues that are generating large amounts of heat
 - For example, active skeletal muscles

Figure 23-21b The Effects of pH and Temperature on Hemoglobin Saturation



Effect of temperature. When the temperature rises, more oxygen is released; the oxygen-hemoglobin saturation curve shifts to the right.

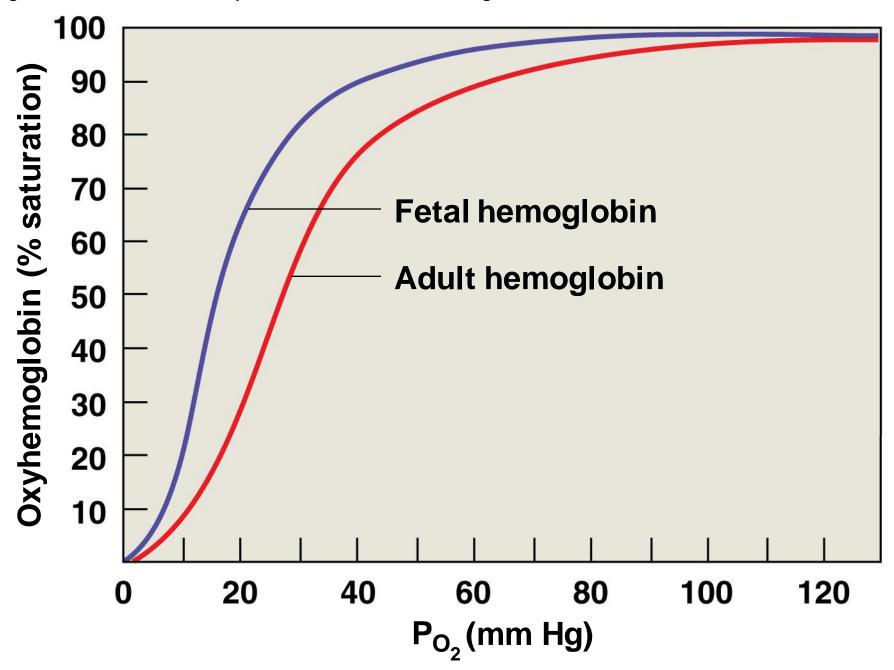
- Hemoglobin and BPG
 - 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate (BPG)
 - RBCs generate ATP by glycolysis
 - Forming lactic acid and BPG
 - BPG directly affects O₂ binding and release
 - More BPG, more oxygen released

- BPG Levels
 - BPG levels rise:
 - When pH increases
 - When stimulated by certain hormones
 - If BPG levels are too low:
 - Hemoglobin will not release oxygen

Fetal Hemoglobin

- The structure of fetal hemoglobin
 - Differs from that of adult Hb
- At the same P_{O2}:
 - Fetal Hb binds more O₂ than adult Hb
 - Which allows fetus to take O₂ from maternal blood

Figure 23-22 A Functional Comparison of Fetal and Adult Hemoglobin



- Carbon Dioxide Transport (CO₂)
 - Is generated as a by-product of aerobic metabolism (cellular respiration)
 - CO₂ in the bloodstream can be carried three ways
 - Converted to carbonic acid
 - 2. Bound to hemoglobin within red blood cells
 - 3. Dissolved in plasma

- Carbonic Acid Formation
 - 70% is transported as carbonic acid (H₂CO₃)
 - Which dissociates into H⁺ and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻)
 - Hydrogen ions bind to hemoglobin
 - Bicarbonate Ions
 - Move into plasma by an exchange mechanism (the chloride shift) that takes in Cl⁻ ions without using ATP

- CO₂ Binding to Hemoglobin
 - 23% is bound to amino groups of globular proteins in Hb molecule
 - Forming carbaminohemoglobin
- Transport in Plasma
 - 7% is transported as CO₂ dissolved in plasma

Figure 23-23 Carbon Dioxide Transport in Blood

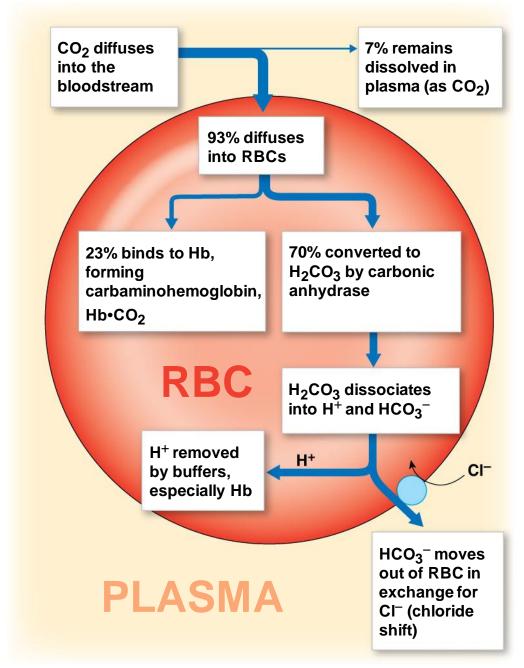


Figure 23-24 A Summary of the Primary Gas Transport Mechanisms O₂ pickup O₂ delivery **Pulmonary Systemic** capillary capillary **Plasma** Red blood cell Red blood cell Hb Hb O₂ Hb O2 02 02 02 Cells in 02 **Alveolar** peripheral tissues air space HCO₃ CI-Chloride **Alveolar** shift air space HCO3 Hb H+ + HCO3-CI-Hb H+ + HCO3 (Hb)•H H₂CO H₂CO₃ Hb H+ CO₂ CO₂ CO₂ H₂O H₂O CO2 Hb CO₂ Hb Hb CO2 Hb CO2 Cells in peripheral **Pulmonary Systemic** tissues capillary capillary CO₂ delivery CO₂ pickup

Figure 23-24 A Summary of the Primary Gas Transport Mechanisms

O₂ pickup

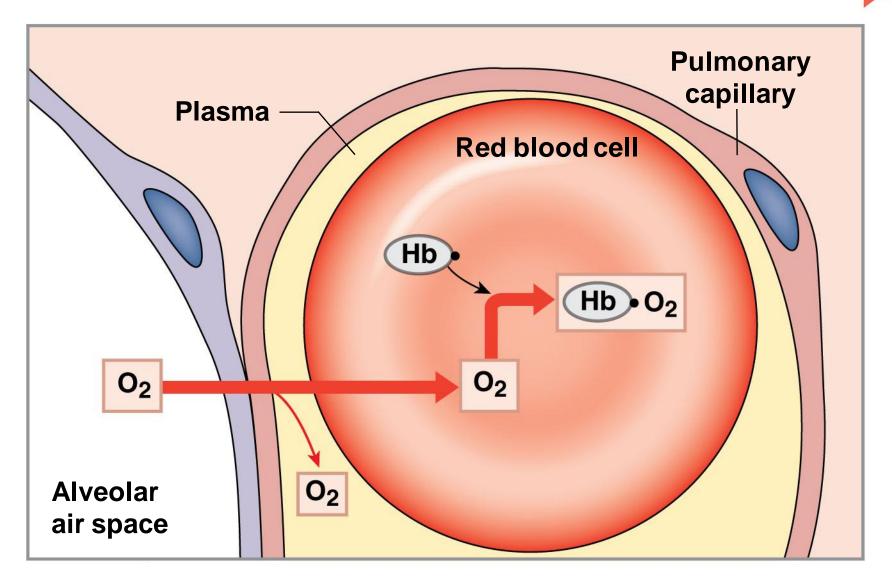


Figure 23-24 A Summary of the Primary Gas Transport Mechanisms



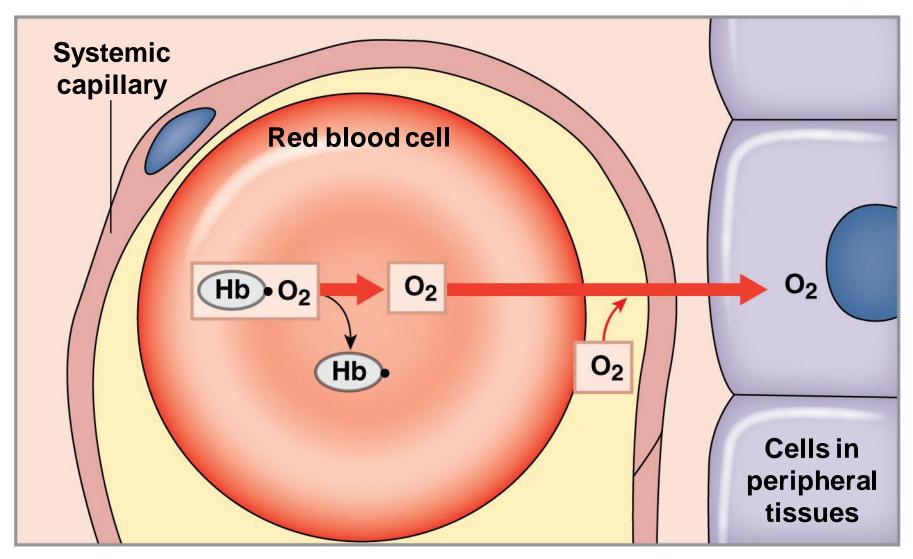


Figure 23-24 A Summary of the Primary Gas Transport Mechanisms

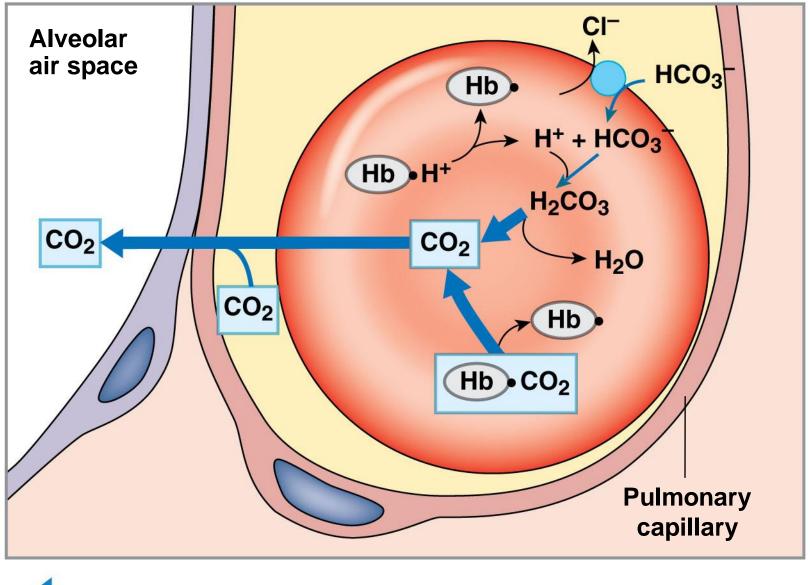
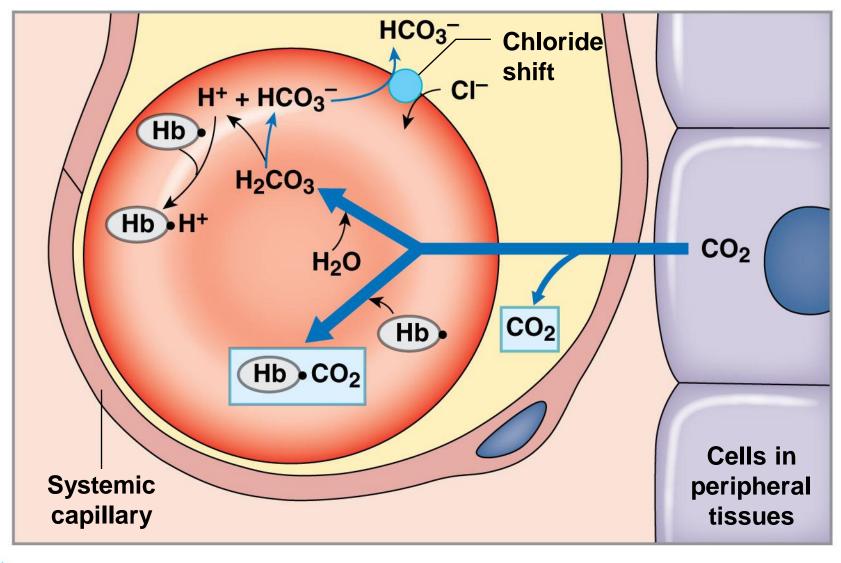




Figure 23-24 A Summary of the Primary Gas Transport Mechanisms





- Peripheral and Alveolar Capillaries
 - Maintain balance during gas diffusion by:
 - 1. Changes in blood flow and oxygen delivery
 - 2. Changes in depth and rate of respiration

- Local Regulation of Gas Transport and Alveolar Function
 - Rising P_{CO₂} levels
 - Relax smooth muscle in arterioles and capillaries
 - Increase blood flow
 - Coordination of lung perfusion and alveolar ventilation
 - Shifting blood flow
 - P_{CO₂} levels
 - Control bronchoconstriction and bronchodilation

- The Respiratory Centers of the Brain
 - When oxygen demand rises:
 - Cardiac output and respiratory rates increase under neural control
 - Have both voluntary and involuntary components

- The Respiratory Centers of the Brain
 - Voluntary centers in cerebral cortex affect:
 - Respiratory centers of pons and medulla oblongata
 - Motor neurons that control respiratory muscles
 - The Respiratory Centers
 - Three pairs of nuclei in the reticular formation of medulla oblongata and pons
 - Regulate respiratory muscles
 - In response to sensory information via respiratory reflexes

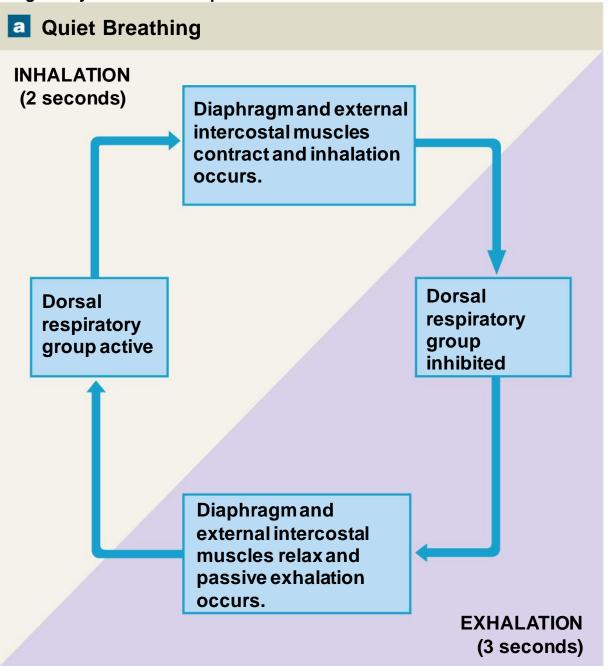
- Respiratory Centers of the Medulla Oblongata
 - Set the pace of respiration
 - Can be divided into two groups
 - 1. Dorsal respiratory group (DRG)
 - 2. Ventral respiratory group (VRG)

- Dorsal Respiratory Group (DRG)
 - Inspiratory center
 - Functions in quiet and forced breathing

- Ventral Respiratory Group (VRG)
 - Inspiratory and expiratory center
 - Functions only in forced breathing

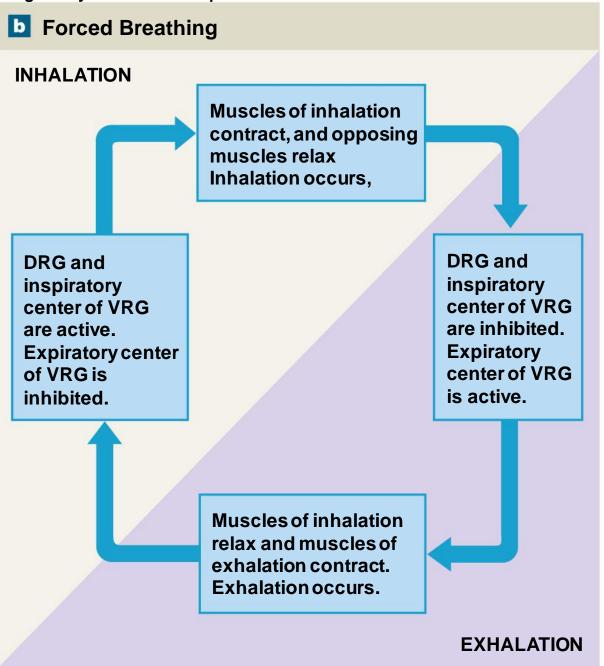
- Quiet Breathing
 - Brief activity in the DRG
 - Stimulates inspiratory muscles
 - DRG neurons become inactive
 - Allowing passive exhalation

Figure 23-25a Basic Regulatory Patterns of Respiration



- Forced Breathing
 - Increased activity in DRG
 - Stimulates VRG
 - Which activates accessory inspiratory muscles
 - After inhalation
 - Expiratory center neurons stimulate active exhalation

Figure 23-25b Basic Regulatory Patterns of Respiration



- The Apneustic and Pneumotaxic Centers of the Pons
 - Paired nuclei that adjust output of respiratory rhythmicity centers
 - Regulating respiratory rate and depth of respiration
 - Apneustic Center
 - Provides continuous stimulation to its DRG center
 - Pneumotaxic Centers
 - Inhibit the apneustic centers
 - Promote passive or active exhalation

- Respiratory Centers and Reflex Controls
 - Interactions between VRG and DRG
 - Establish basic pace and depth of respiration
 - The pneumotaxic center
 - Modifies the pace

Respiratory Centers and Reflex Controls

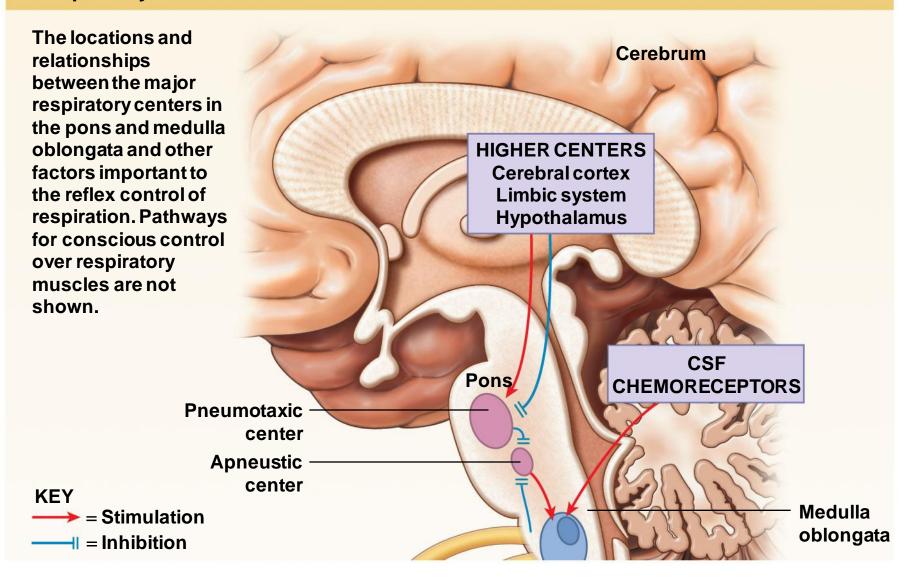
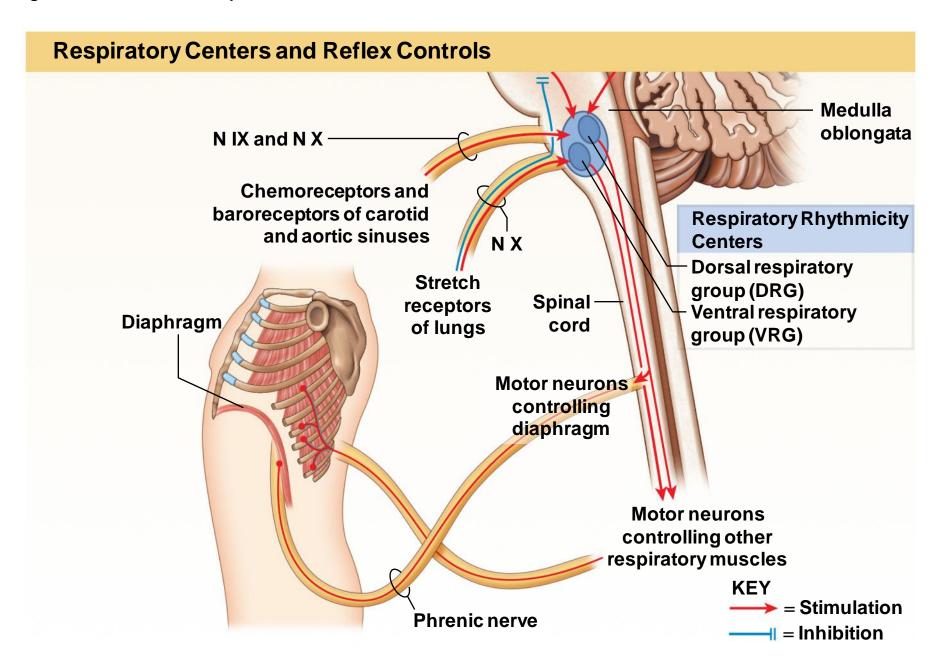


Figure 23-26 Control of Respiration



- Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS)
 - Disrupts normal respiratory reflex pattern
 - May result from connection problems between pacemaker complex and respiratory centers

- Respiratory Reflexes
 - Chemoreceptors are sensitive to P_{CO2}, P_{O2}, 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

- The Chemoreceptor Reflexes
 - Respiratory centers are strongly influenced by chemoreceptor input from:
 - Glossopharyngeal nerve (N IX)
 - Vagus nerve (N X)
 - Central chemoreceptors that monitor cerebrospinal fluid

- The Chemoreceptor Reflexes
 - The glossopharyngeal nerve
 - From carotid bodies
 - Stimulated by changes in blood pH or P_{O₂}
 - The vagus nerve
 - From aortic bodies
 - Stimulated by changes in blood pH or P_{O2}

- The Chemoreceptor Reflexes
 - Central chemoreceptors that monitor cerebrospinal fluid
 - Are on ventrolateral surface of medulla oblongata
 - Respond to P_{CO₂} and pH of CSF

- Chemoreceptor Stimulation
 - Leads to increased depth and rate of respiration
 - Is subject to adaptation
 - Decreased sensitivity due to chronic stimulation

Hypercapnia

- An increase in arterial P_{CO₂}
- Stimulates chemoreceptors in the medulla oblongata
 - To restore homeostasis

- Hypercapnia and Hypocapnia
 - Hypoventilation is a common cause of hypercapnia
 - Abnormally low respiration rate
 - Allows CO₂ buildup in blood
 - Excessive ventilation, hyperventilation, results in abnormally low P_{CO₂} (hypocapnia)
 - Stimulates chemoreceptors to decrease respiratory rate

Figure 23-27a The Chemoreceptor Response to Changes in P_{CO2}

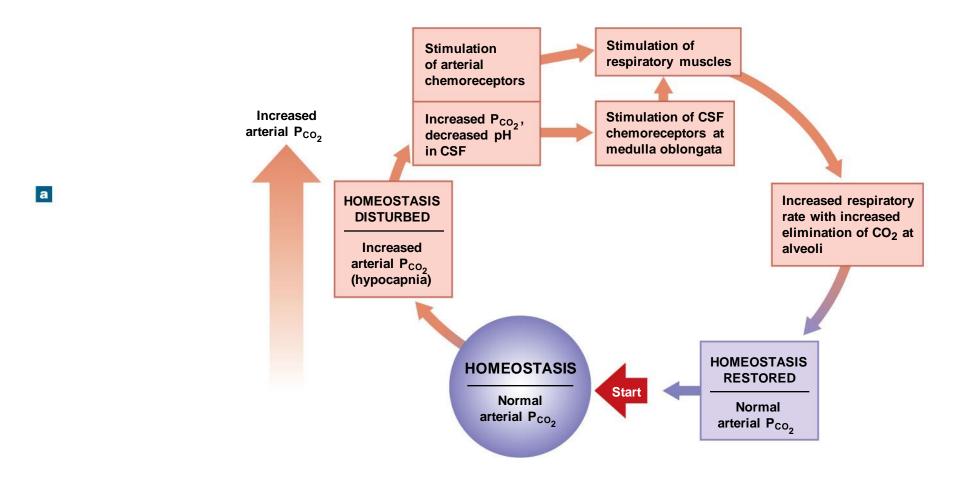
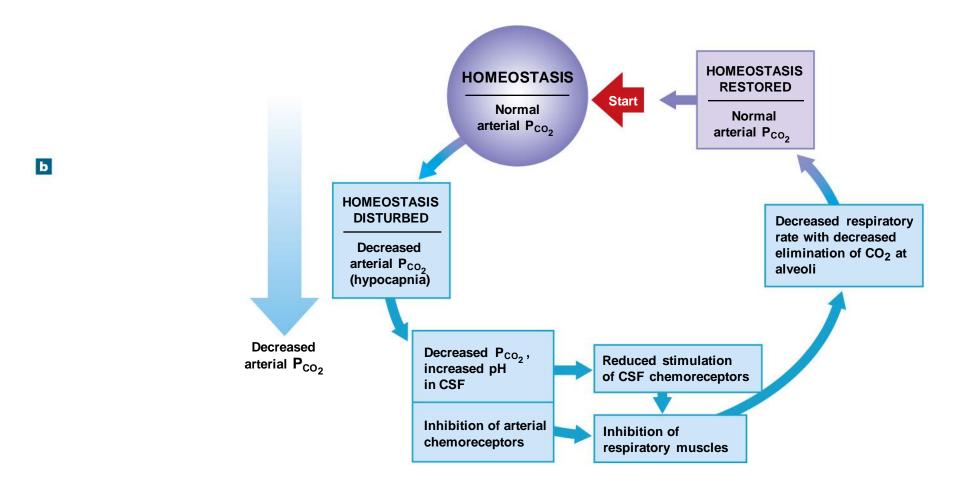


Figure 23-27b The Chemoreceptor Response to Changes in P_{CO2}



- The Baroreceptor Reflexes
 - Carotid and aortic baroreceptor stimulation
 - Affects blood pressure and respiratory centers
 - When blood pressure falls:
 - Respiration increases
 - When blood pressure increases:
 - Respiration decreases

The Hering–Breuer Reflexes

Two baroreceptor reflexes involved in forced breathing

1. Inflation reflex

Prevents overexpansion of lungs

2. 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

Apnea

- A period of suspended respiration
- Normally followed by explosive exhalation to clear airways
 - Sneezing and coughing
- Laryngeal Spasm
 - Temporarily closes airway
 - To prevent foreign substances from entering

- Voluntary Control of Respiration
 - Strong emotions can stimulate respiratory centers in hypothalamus
 - Emotional stress can activate sympathetic or parasympathetic division of ANS
 - Causing bronchodilation or bronchoconstriction
 - Anticipation of strenuous exercise can increase respiratory rate and cardiac output by sympathetic stimulation

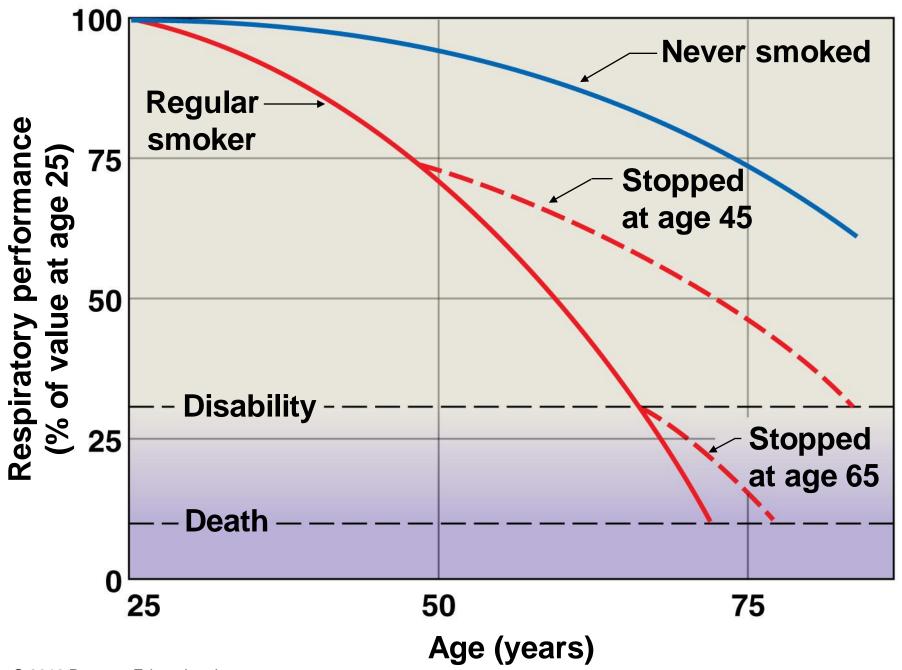
- Changes in the Respiratory System at Birth
 - Before birth
 - Pulmonary vessels are collapsed
 - Lungs contain no air
 - During delivery
 - Placental connection is lost
 - Blood P_{O2} falls
 - P_{CO2} rises

- Changes in the Respiratory System at Birth
 - At birth
 - Newborn overcomes force of surface tension to inflate bronchial tree and alveoli and take first breath
 - Large drop in pressure at first breath
 - Pulls blood into pulmonary circulation
 - Closing foramen ovale and ductus arteriosus
 - Redirecting fetal blood circulation patterns
 - Subsequent breaths fully inflate alveoli

23-11 Effects of Aging on the Respiratory System

- Three Effects of Aging on the Respiratory System
 - 1. Elastic tissues deteriorate
 - Altering lung compliance and lowering vital capacity
 - 2. Arthritic changes
 - Restrict chest movements
 - Limit respiratory minute volume
 - 3. Emphysema
 - Affects individuals over age 50
 - Depending on exposure to respiratory irritants (e.g., cigarette smoke)

Figure 23-28 Decline in Respiratory Performance with Age and Smoking



23-12 Respiratory System Integration

- Respiratory Activity
 - Maintaining homeostatic O₂ and CO₂ levels in peripheral tissues requires coordination between several systems
 - Particularly the respiratory and cardiovascular systems

23-12 Respiratory System Integration

- Coordination of Respiratory and Cardiovascular Systems
 - Improves efficiency of gas exchange by controlling lung perfusion
 - Increases respiratory drive through chemoreceptor stimulation
 - Raises cardiac output and blood flow through baroreceptor stimulation

Figure 23-29 System Integrator: The Respiratory System

