

## **5. Oxygen transport**

### **Partial Pressures of Alveolar Gases**

In the alveoli, the partial pressures of oxygen and carbon dioxide vary during the respiratory cycle. As gas exchange occurs, the alveolar partial pressure of carbon dioxide will rise and the alveolar partial pressure of oxygen will fall. Because these fluctuations are small (a few mm Hg) as compared with the 3000 ml present at the end of tidal exhalation, they are generally ignored and only **mean values PO<sub>2</sub> and PCO<sub>2</sub> are considered**.

The relationship between PO<sub>2</sub> and PCO<sub>2</sub> in the alveoli is described by the **alveolar gas equation**:

$$PAO_2 = (P_{atm} - P_{H_2O}) \times FiO_2 - PACO_2/RQ$$

Because diffusion is so rapid and complete in the lung, the PACO<sub>2</sub> and PAO<sub>2</sub> in the alveoli normally determine these gas pressures in arterial blood (PaCO<sub>2</sub> and PaO<sub>2</sub>). But there is a slight difference between alveolar and arterial gas pressures even in normal subjects such that PAO<sub>2</sub> and PaO<sub>2</sub> differ by 5-15 mm Hg. This difference is due to anatomical shunting of blood (reduced perfusion) and to the mismatch between ventilation and perfusion that exists even in normal lungs. Both of these conditions will be discussed later in detail.

Normal values for **arterial PaO<sub>2</sub> and PaCO<sub>2</sub>** are:

**PaO<sub>2</sub> = 100 mm Hg**

**PaCO<sub>2</sub> = 40 mm Hg.**

The PaO<sub>2</sub> and PaCO<sub>2</sub> can be measured directly from arterial blood draws. PAO<sub>2</sub> is calculated by the alveolar gas equation. For a patient breathing room air at sea level, this equation simplifies to:

$$PAO_2 = 150 - PaCO_2/0.8$$

Notice that alveolar PO<sub>2</sub> is determined by three factors:

1. PO<sub>2</sub> of atmospheric air
2. Alveolar ventilation rate
3. Rate of tissue O<sub>2</sub> consumption (RQ).

Each of these factors can change independent of another. For example, a decrease in either PO<sub>2</sub> of the atmospheric air (changes with altitude) or in alveolar ventilation (hypoventilation) will decrease the amount of fresh air entering the alveoli per unit time. Likewise, an increase in the rate of total body O<sub>2</sub> consumption will decrease PO<sub>2</sub> in the alveoli.

Because there is essentially no  $\text{PCO}_2$  in inspired air, only the rate of ventilation and the rate of tissue metabolism affect the  $\text{PCO}_2$  levels in the alveoli. In this instance, hypoventilation and/or increased cellular metabolism will increase  $\text{PCO}_2$  in the alveoli.

**Hypoventilation** exists when there is an **increase in the ratio of  $\text{CO}_2$  production to alveolar ventilation**. That is the alveolar ventilation cannot keep up with  $\text{CO}_2$  production resulting in a rise in alveolar  **$\text{PACO}_2 > 40 \text{ mm Hg}$** . Hypoventilation can be caused by drugs such as barbiturates that depress the part of the central nervous system that drives breathing, or by damage to the chest wall, lungs, or respiratory muscles and when the movement of the chest wall is limited (e.g., caused by arthritis or deformation of the thoracic cavity).

**Hyperventilation** exists when there is a **decrease in the ratio of  $\text{CO}_2$  production to alveolar ventilation**. That is the alveolar ventilation is too great for the  $\text{CO}_2$  produced resulting in  **$\text{PACO}_2 < 40 \text{ mmHg}$** . Hyperventilation will occur in response to hypoxia, high altitude, or some drugs such as cocaine which can cause anxiety attacks.

\*\*\*Notice that **hyperventilation is not "increased ventilation"** that accompanies mild to moderate aerobic exercise. In aerobic *exercise the increase in production of  $\text{CO}_2$  is matched to increased alveolar ventilation (depth and rate of breathing)*.

### Transport of Oxygen and Carbon Dioxide

To enhance delivery and transport of  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  to and from tissues, specialized mechanisms ( $\text{O}_2$ -hemoglobin and bicarbonate transport of  $\text{CO}_2$ ) have evolved.

### OXYGEN TRANSPORT

Oxygen is not very soluble in water and therefore requires the carrier, hemoglobin (Hb), for transport in blood. Blood normally contains about 15 g of Hb per 100 ml. This effectively raises the solubility of  $\text{O}_2$  from 3ml/L of plasma (blood minus the red blood cells) to 200 ml/L plasma. Since oxygen consumption ranges from 250 to 1500 L/min, this extra  $\text{O}_2$  carrying capacity of Hb enables the heart and lungs to provide for the  $\text{O}_2$  needs of the body.

Hemoglobin binds up to 4 molecules of  $\text{O}_2$  tightly, cooperatively, and reversibly. Normally Hb is almost completely saturated (96%) when exposed to room air ( $\text{FiO}_2 = 21\%$ ). This occurs because of the transit time (0.75 seconds) for the red blood cell through the alveolus-capillary unit and the rapid equilibration (0.3 seconds) for both carbon dioxide and oxygen within this region of the lung.

This rapid equilibration reflects the driving pressure for diffusion and the solubility of the gas. The driving pressure for diffusion of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the alveolus-capillary unit is lower ( $\text{PMVCO}_2 - \text{PaCO}_2 = 46 \text{ mm Hg} - 40 \text{ mm Hg} = 6 \text{ mm Hg}$ ) than that for  $\text{O}_2$  ( $\text{PaO}_2 - \text{PMVO}_2 = 100 - 40 = 60 \text{ mm Hg}$ ), but the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in plasma is much greater. The net result is that the rates of diffusion for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  are approximately equal in the alveolus-capillary unit. This means that **there is ALWAYS adequate time to saturate Hb with  $\text{O}_2$  regardless of ventilatory rate**.

Oxygen concentration in the blood is dependent on the **Hb concentration** in the red blood cells, the number of red blood cells (**hematocrit**), and on the adequacy of **perfusion** of the lungs rather than on diffusion rate itself.

Not all of the O<sub>2</sub> bound to Hb is released in the tissues. At rest only about 25% of the O<sub>2</sub> in blood is released. This provides a large driving force for diffusion and a large reservoir of O<sub>2</sub> to be called upon when needed as in exercise.

The Hb-O<sub>2</sub> dissociation curve is **S-shaped** because the interaction of oxygen with hemoglobin is **cooperative**. That is, when one oxygen molecule binds, it increases the affinity of the hemoglobin for the next oxygen molecule. Each hemoglobin molecule can bind four oxygen molecules.

The plateau of the Hb-O<sub>2</sub> dissociation curve is called the “**association part**” of the curve, because oxygen is loaded in the lungs at relatively high partial pressures. Increasing the partial pressure above 100 or down to about 80 mm Hg, **does not result** in a large change in the % saturation. This tends to stabilize arterial O<sub>2</sub> content, making it relatively insensitive to moderate changes in breathing or altitude.

The “**dissociation part**” of the curve is the steep part of the curve. In this region a small change in PO<sub>2</sub> results in a large change in % saturation which allows for large quantities of oxygen to be dumped in the tissues.

The P50 is the partial pressure of oxygen required to saturate 50% of the hemoglobin. A normal P50 is about 26-27 mm Hg. This value is a useful measure of the affinity of hemoglobin for O<sub>2</sub>.

Oxygen-Hb binding and association is affected by a number of parameters including temperature, the red blood cell metabolite 2,3 diphosphoglycerate (DPG), and pH. Elevated temperature, low pH and increased 2,3 DPG shift the curve to the right (**decrease affinity**) which **enhances unloading of O<sub>2</sub> from Hb**. Note that these are conditions found within the interstitial tissue surrounding actively contracting muscle. Hypoxic conditions also result in increased formation of 2,3-DPG by the red blood cells.

Conversely, a decrease in temperature, high pH and a decrease in 2,3, DPG shifts the O<sub>2</sub>-Hb dissociation curve to the left (**increase affinity**) which **promotes loading of O<sub>2</sub> onto Hb**.