

# **RESPIRATION**

**A.-M. Lauzon, Ph.D.**

**Reference textbooks:**

**“Vander’s Human Physiology” by Widmaier, Raff, Strang**

**“Respiratory Physiology- the essentials” by West**

**"The Normal Lung" by Murray**

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**TUTORIALS:**

**JANUARY 24<sup>TH</sup>:** 5H30 TO 6H30 PM MCMED 522

**FEBRUARY 2<sup>ND</sup>:** 5H30 TO 6H30 PM MCMED 522

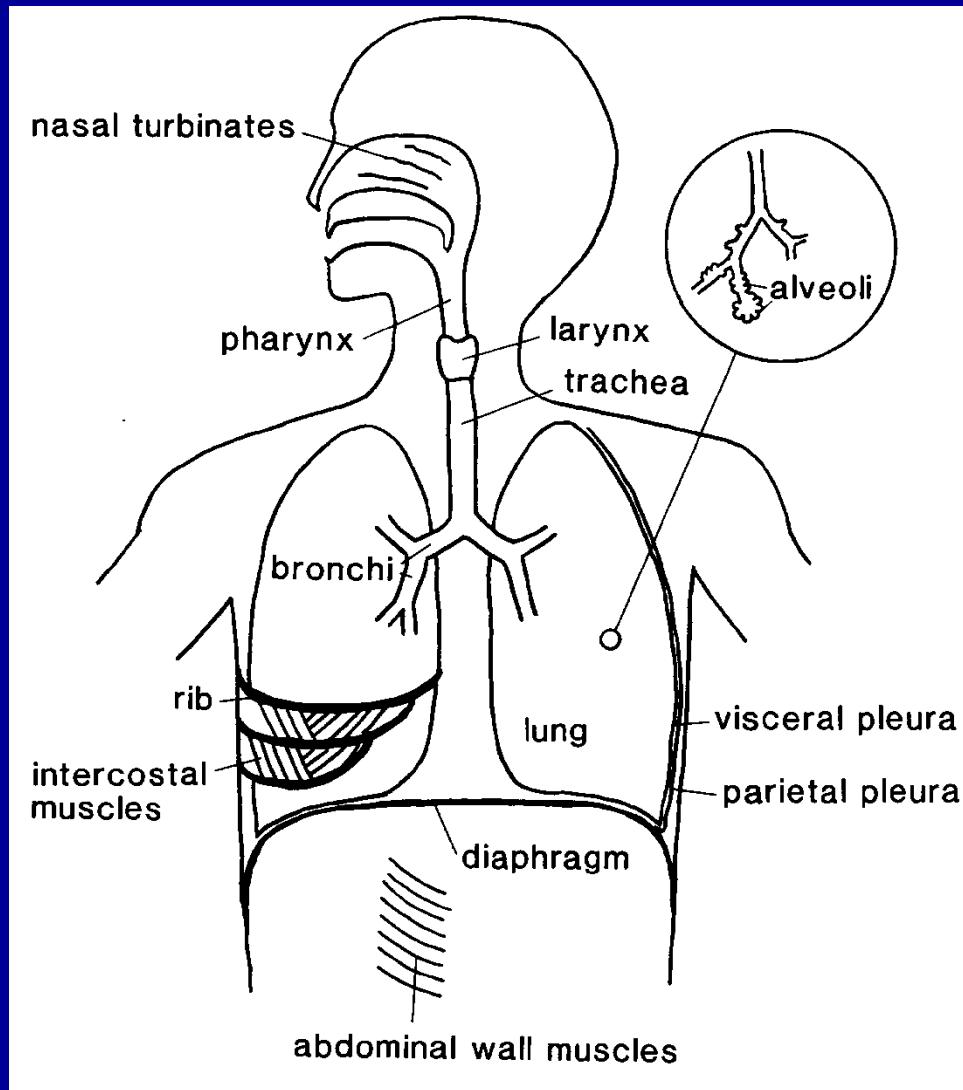
# Lecture 1

# STRUCTURE OF THE LUNGS AND CHEST WALL

## Function of Respiration

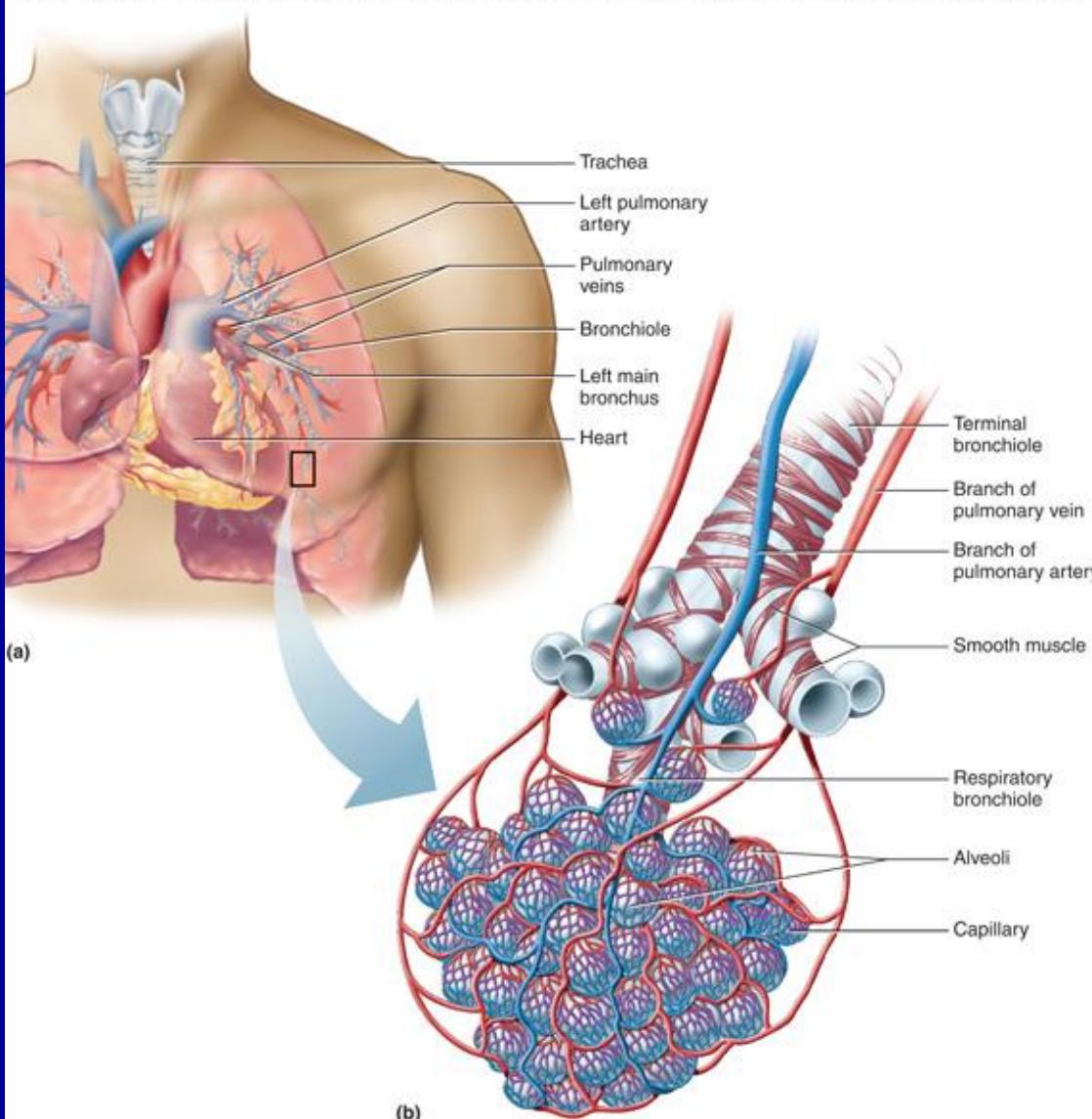
- The primary function of respiration is: **Gas exchange.**
- Inspiration: air rich in O<sub>2</sub> is inhaled into the lungs.
- Expiration: CO<sub>2</sub> produced during oxidative processes of the body is exhaled from the lungs.
- Both gases are transported by the blood. Thus, both the cardiovascular system and the respiratory system are involved.

# The respiratory tract



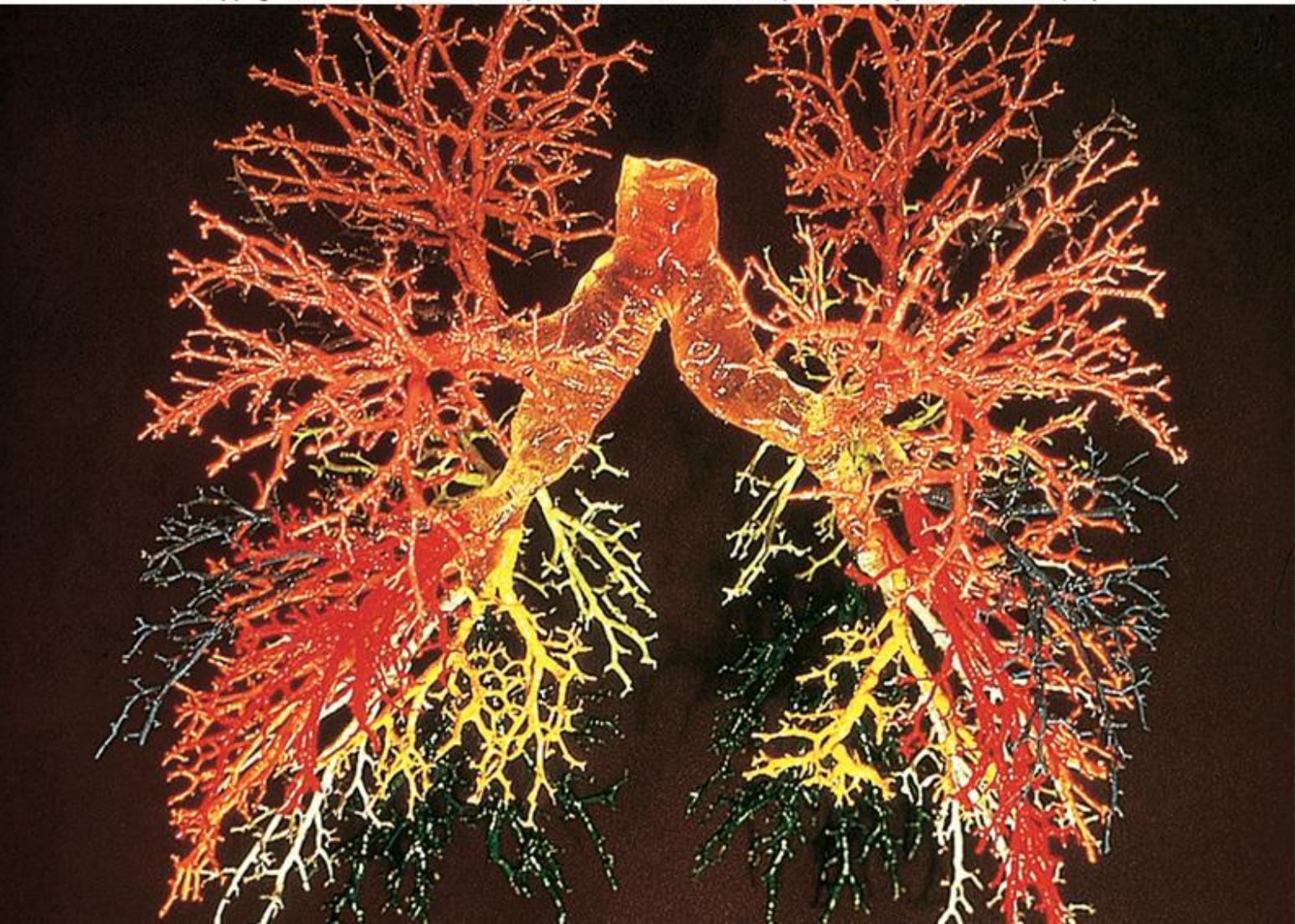
# The respiratory tract

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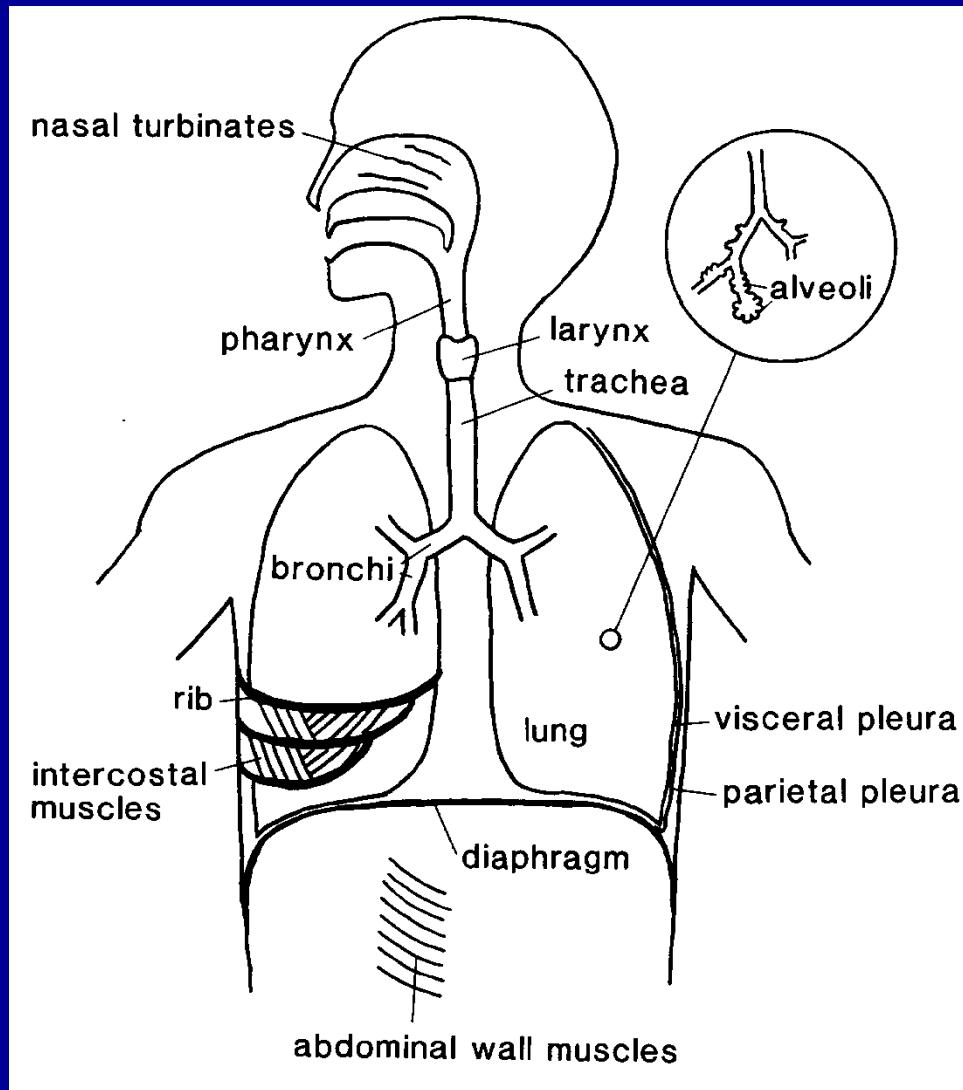


# The respiratory tract

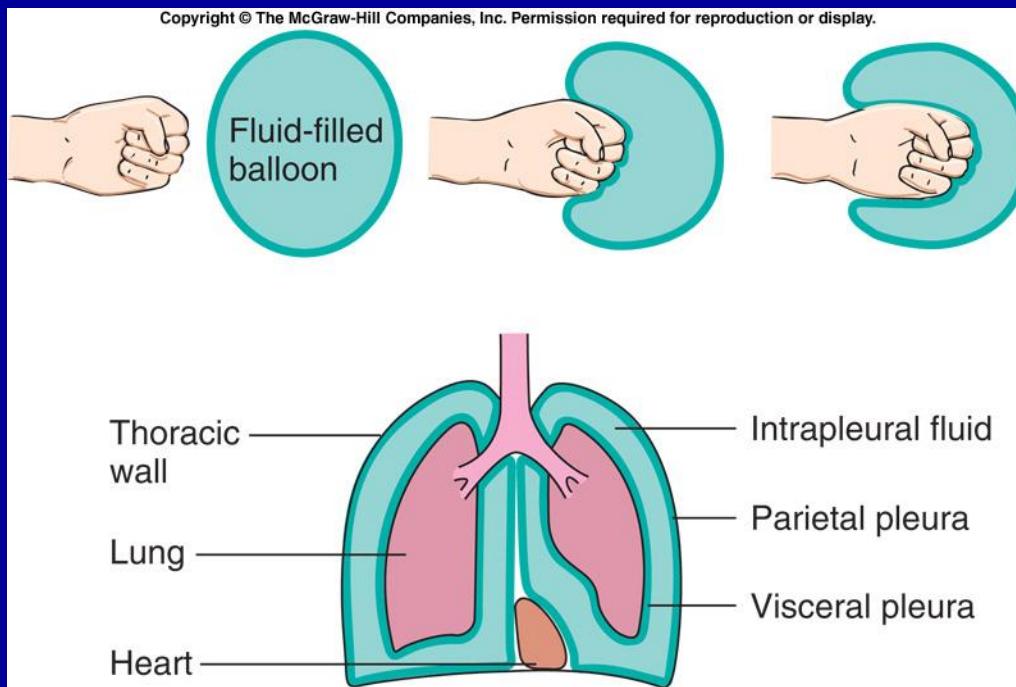
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# The respiratory tract



# Pleural space



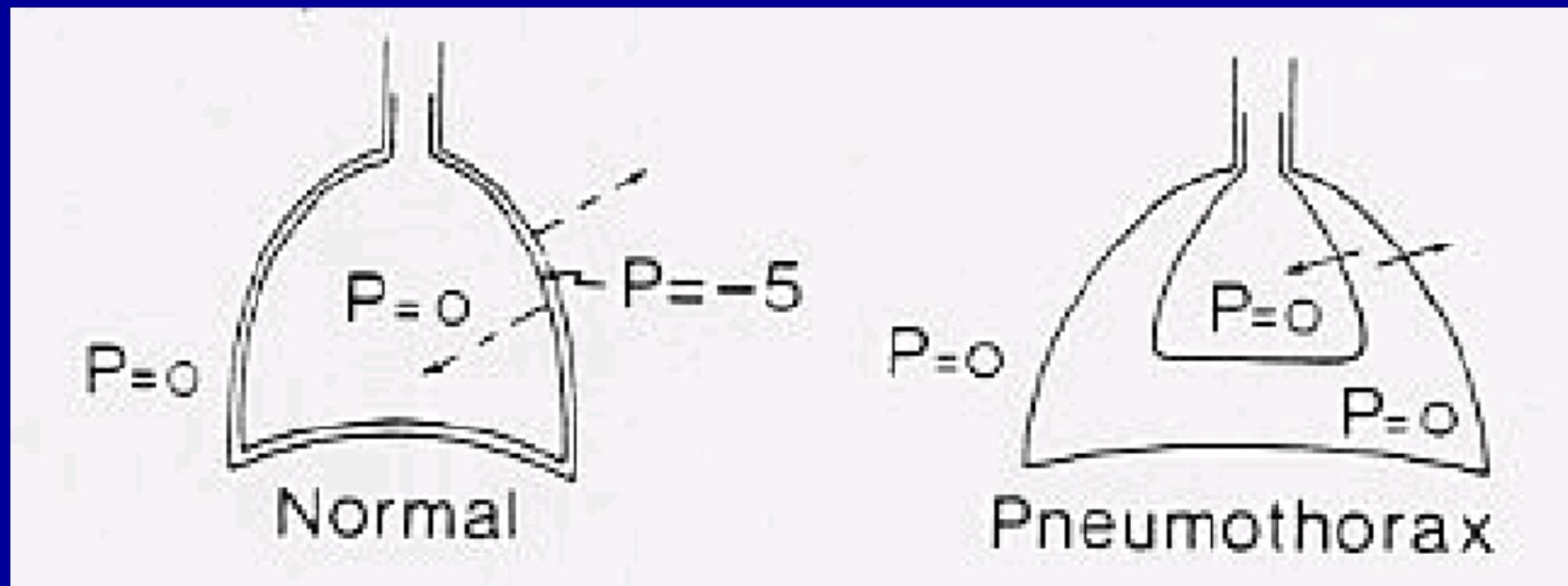
## Pleural surfaces

- A way to visualize the apposition of the two pleural surfaces is to put a drop of water between two glass microscope slides. The two slides can easily slide over each other but are very difficult to pull apart.

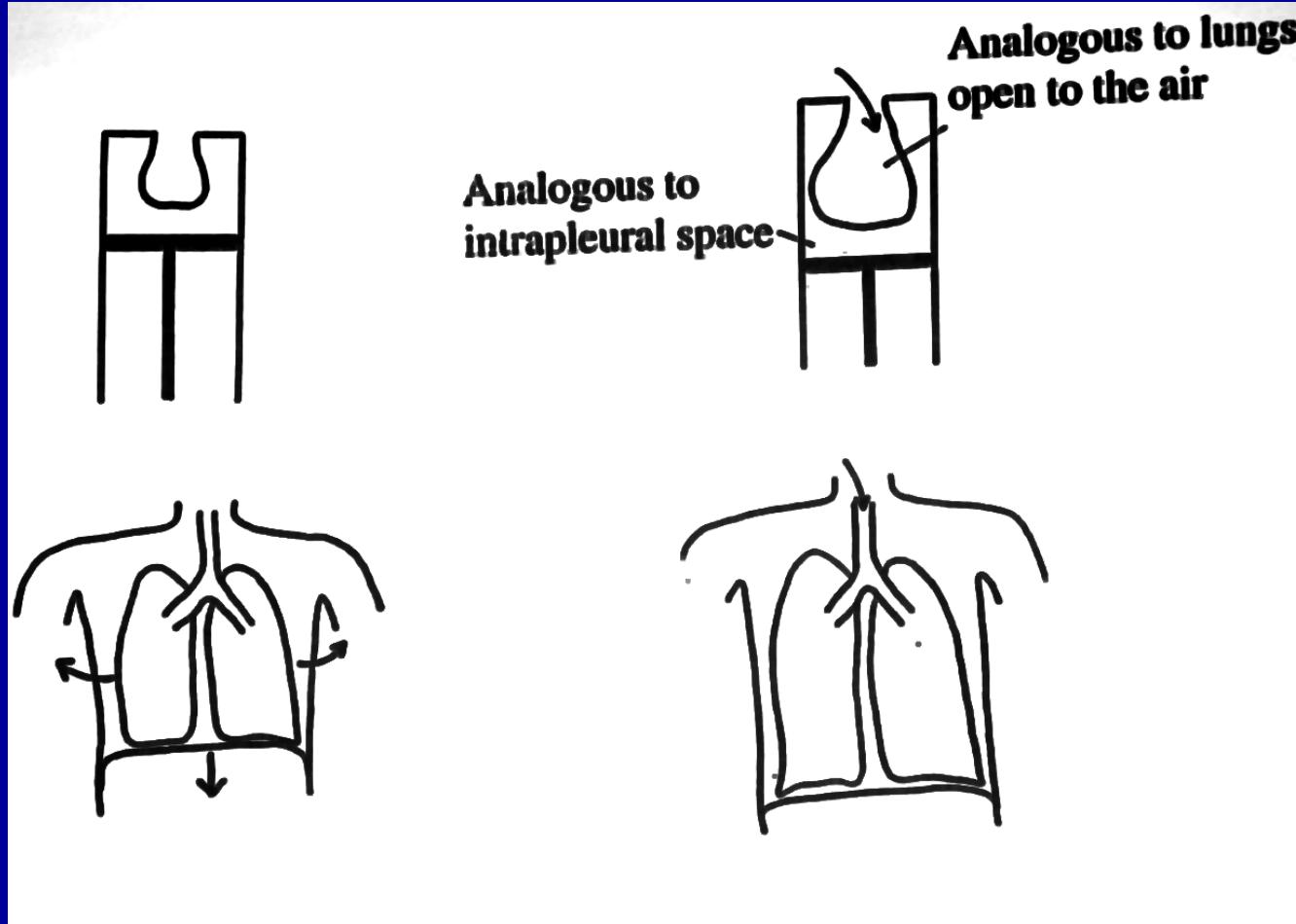
(“Human Physiology” by Widmaier, Raff, Strang)

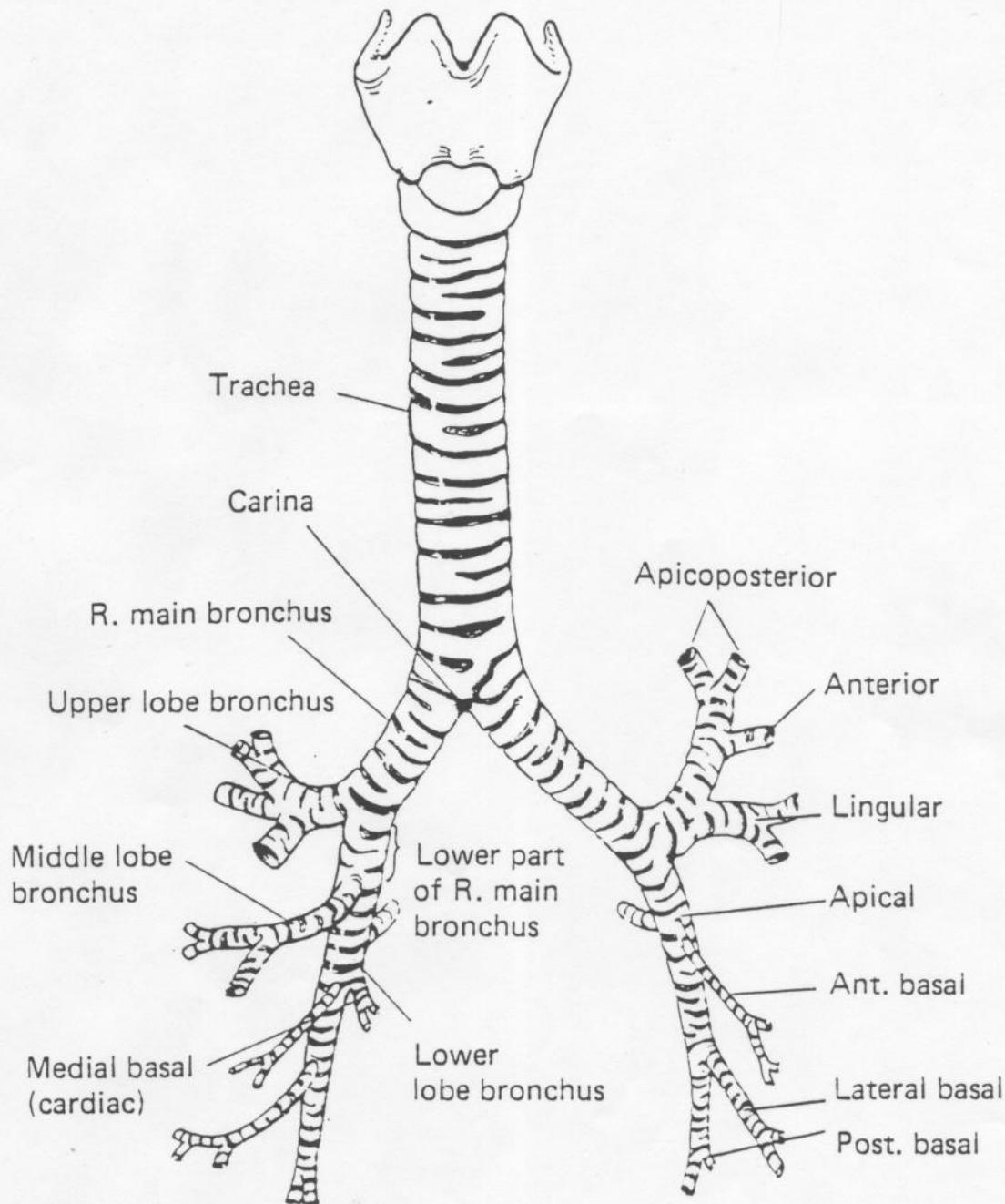
## Pleural Space

### Pneumothorax



# Mechanical pump





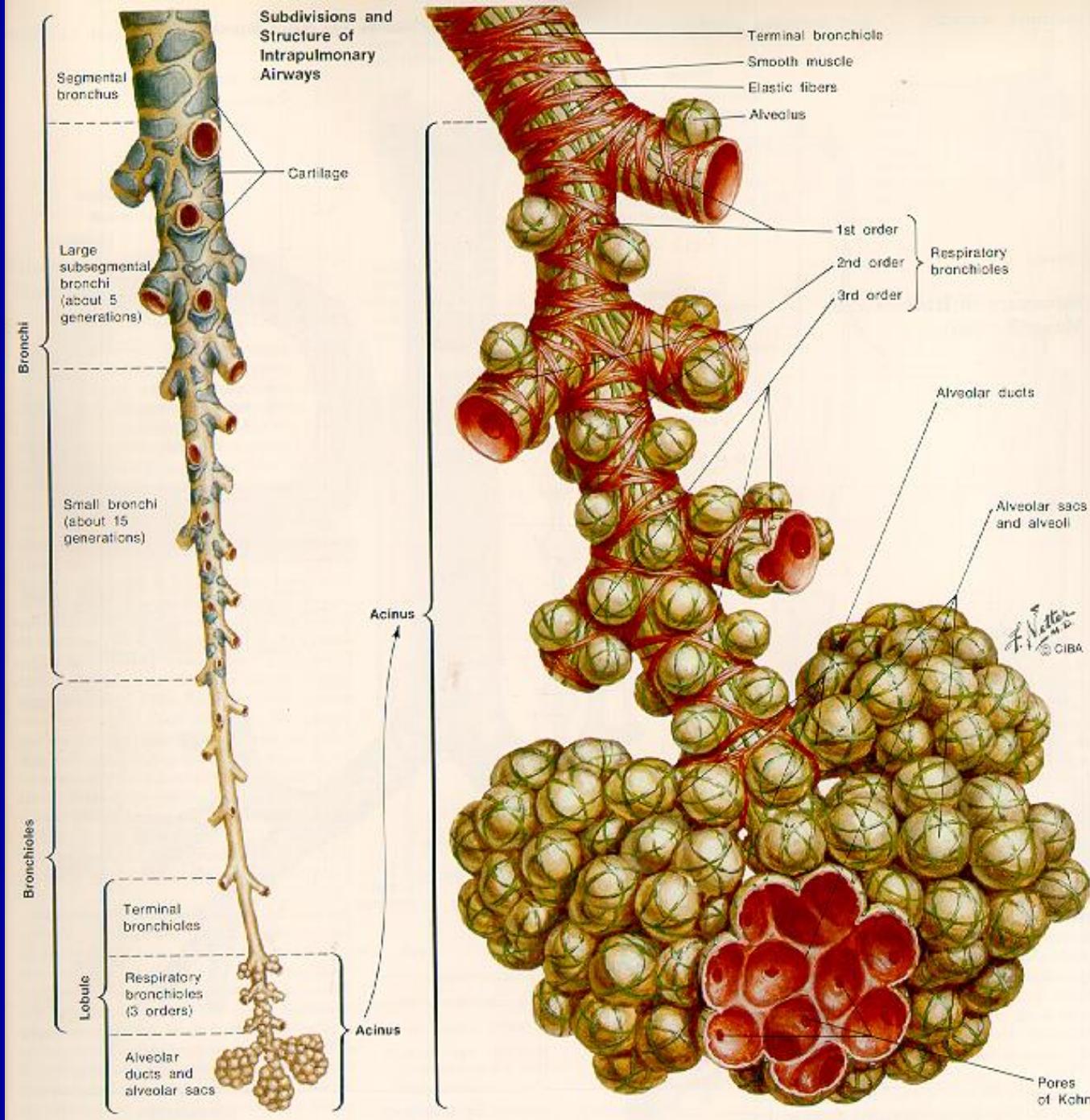
# Subdivisions of the conducting airways and terminal respiratory units

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|                  | Name of branches        | Number of tubes in branch |
|------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| Conducting zone  | Trachea                 | 1                         |
|                  | Bronchi                 | 2                         |
|                  | Bronchioles             | 4                         |
|                  | Terminal bronchioles    | 8                         |
|                  |                         | 16                        |
| Respiratory zone | Respiratory bronchioles | 32                        |
|                  | Alveolar ducts          | $6 \times 10^4$           |
|                  | Alveolar sacs           | $5 \times 10^5$           |

The diagram illustrates the branching structure of the respiratory system. It starts with the Trachea at the top, which branches into two Bronchi. Each Bronchus further divides into Bronchioles, which then lead to Terminal bronchioles. From there, the structure branches into Respiratory bronchioles, then Alveolar ducts, and finally Alveolar sacs at the bottom. Arrows point downwards along the main bronchial path, indicating the direction of air flow through the conducting zone and into the respiratory zone.

# Acinus



(Reproduced from Netter, F.H.: The CIBA Collection of Medical Illustrations, vol. 7).

## The conducting airways have 4 main functions:

### **1. Defense against bacterial infection and foreign particles:**

The epithelial lining of the bronchi has hair-like projections called cilia. The epithelial glands secrete a thick substance, mucous, which lines the respiratory passages as far down as the bronchioles. Foreign particles stick to the mucous and the cilia constantly sweep the mucous up into the pharynx;

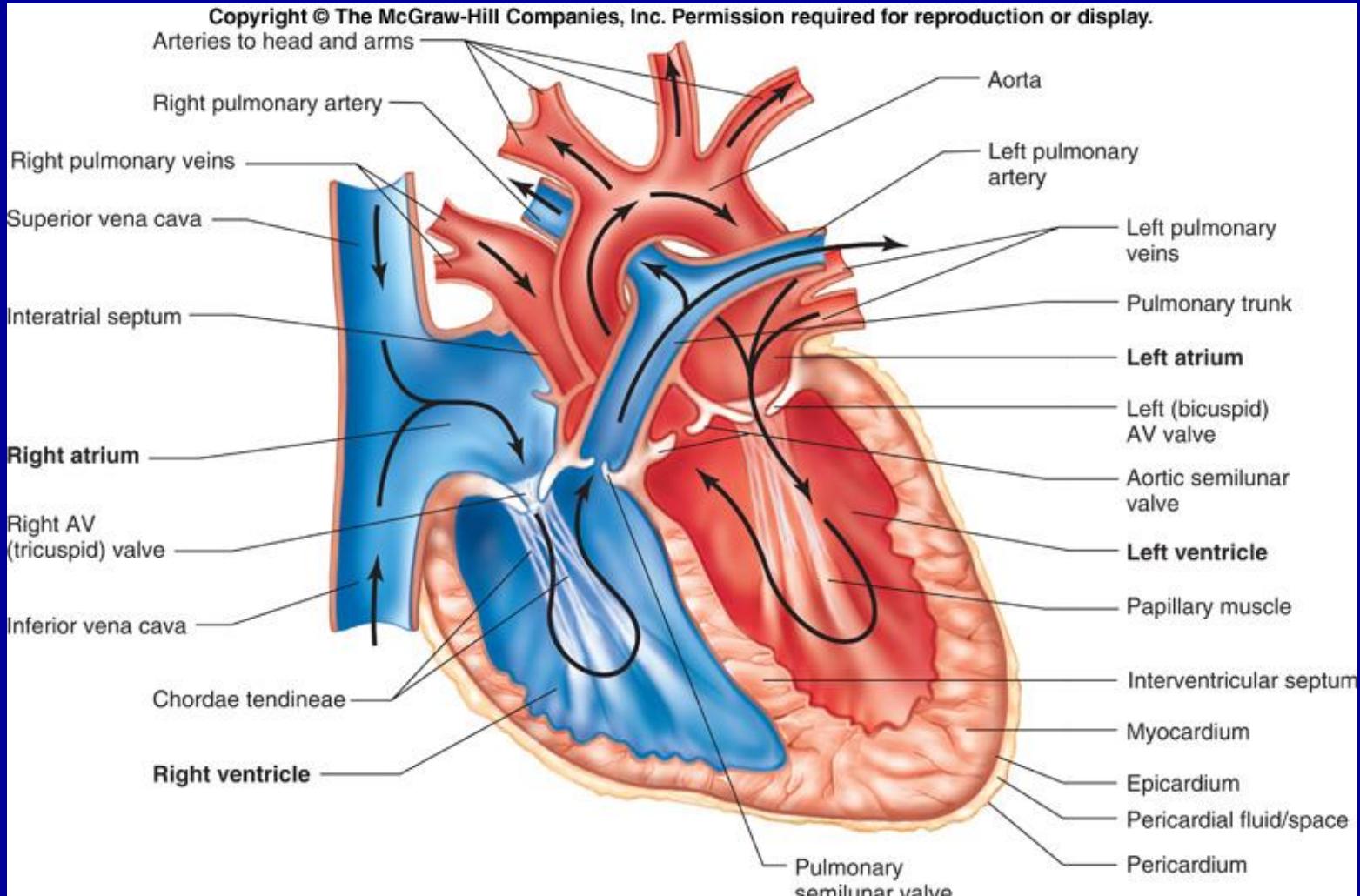
### **2. Warm and moisten inhaled air;**

### **3. Sound and speech** are produced by the movement of air passing over the vocal cords;

### **4. Regulation of air flow:** smooth muscle around the airways may contract or relax to alter resistance to air flow.

## Function of the Respiratory Zone

The respiratory zone is the site of gas exchange between the air in the alveoli and the blood in the pulmonary capillaries. There are roughly 300 million alveoli in the human lungs, and each alveolus may be associated with as many as 1000 capillaries.

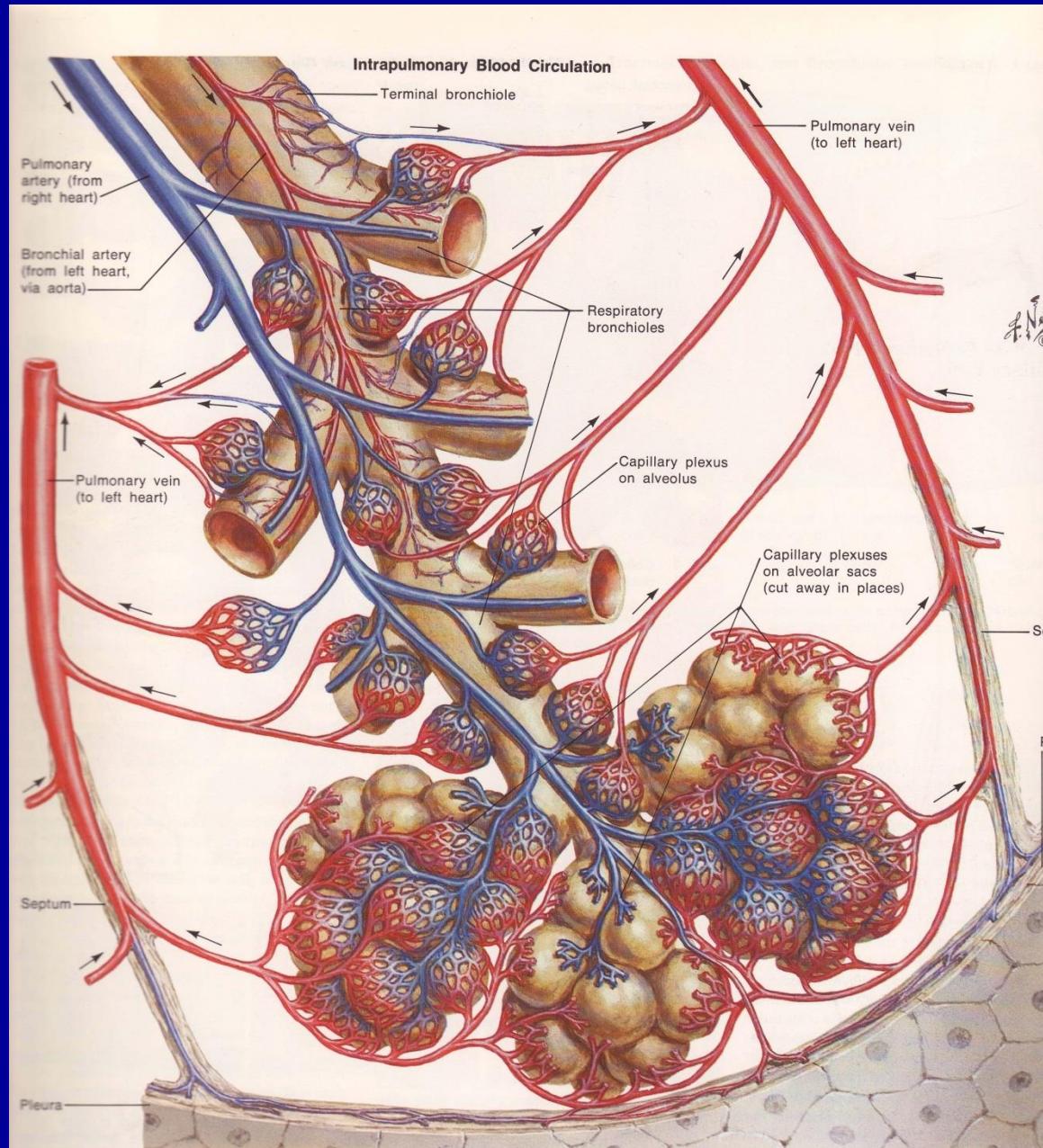


# Blood Supply

**The lungs have two circulations:**

- 1) **Pulmonary circulation:** bringing mixed venous blood to the lungs, allowing for the blood to get oxygenated, and to then be taken back to the left heart;
- 2) **Bronchial circulation:** supplying oxygenated blood from the systemic circulation to the tracheobronchial tree (this circulation allows for the airways to get oxygenated).

# The pulmonary and bronchial circulations



Reproduced from Netter, F.H.: The CIBA Collection of Medical Illustrations, vol. 7).

## Alveolar Cell Types

There are three alveolar cell types:

1. Epithelial type I and II cells:

Alveoli are lined by epithelial type I and II cells. Little is known about the specific metabolic activities of type I cells. Type II cells produce pulmonary surfactant, a substance that decreases the surface tension of the alveoli.

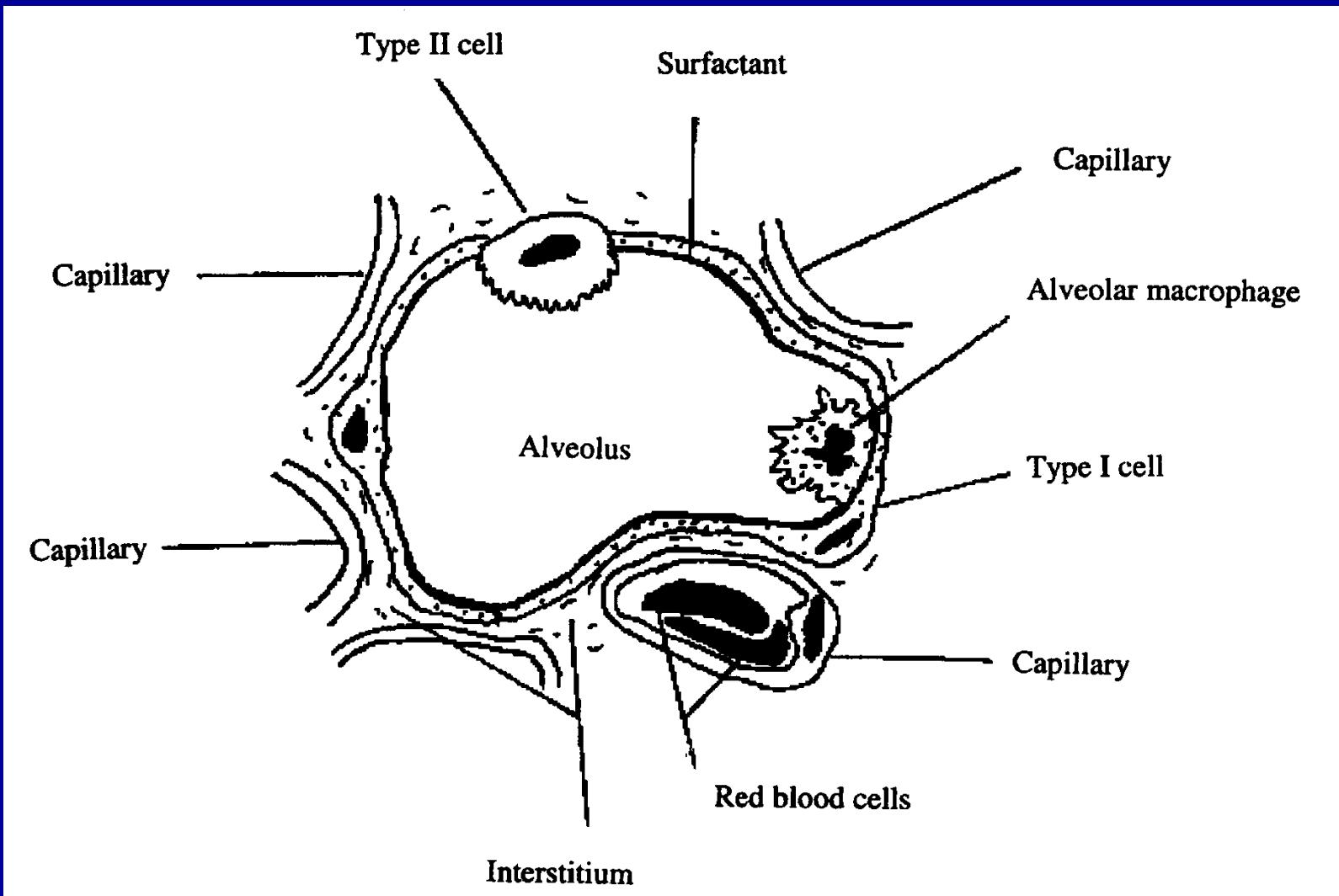
2. Endothelial cells:

Endothelial cells constitute the walls of the pulmonary capillaries. These cells may be as thin as 0.1 micron.

3. Alveolar macrophages:

They remove foreign particles that may have escaped the mucociliary defense system of the airways and found their way into the alveoli.

## Alveolar-capillary membrane



## Respiratory Muscles

The lung tissue is elastic, but it is unable to expand or contract by itself. Air has to be sucked into the lungs. This function is powered by the respiratory muscles of the chest wall. There are 2 types of respiratory muscles: inspiratory and expiratory.

## Muscles of Inspiration

### Principal

### Accessory

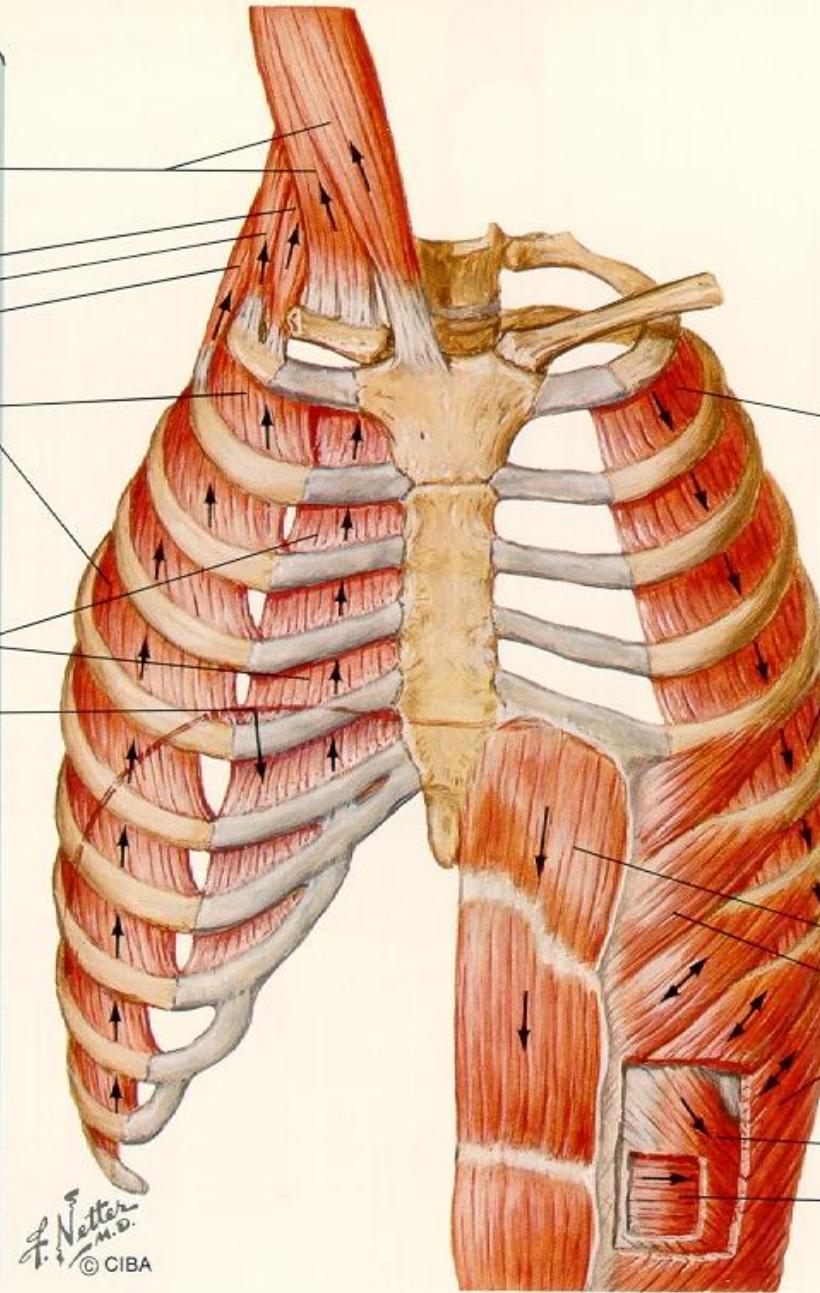
Sternocleido-mastoid  
(elevates sternum)

Scalenus  
anterior  
middle  
posterior  
(elevate and  
fix upper ribs)

External  
intercostals  
(elevate ribs)

Parasternal  
intercartilaginous  
muscles  
(elevate ribs)

Diaphragm  
(domes descend,  
increasing  
longitudinal  
dimension of  
chest and  
elevating  
lower ribs)



## Muscles of Expiration

### Quiet breathing

Expiration  
results from  
passive recoil  
of lungs

### Active breathing

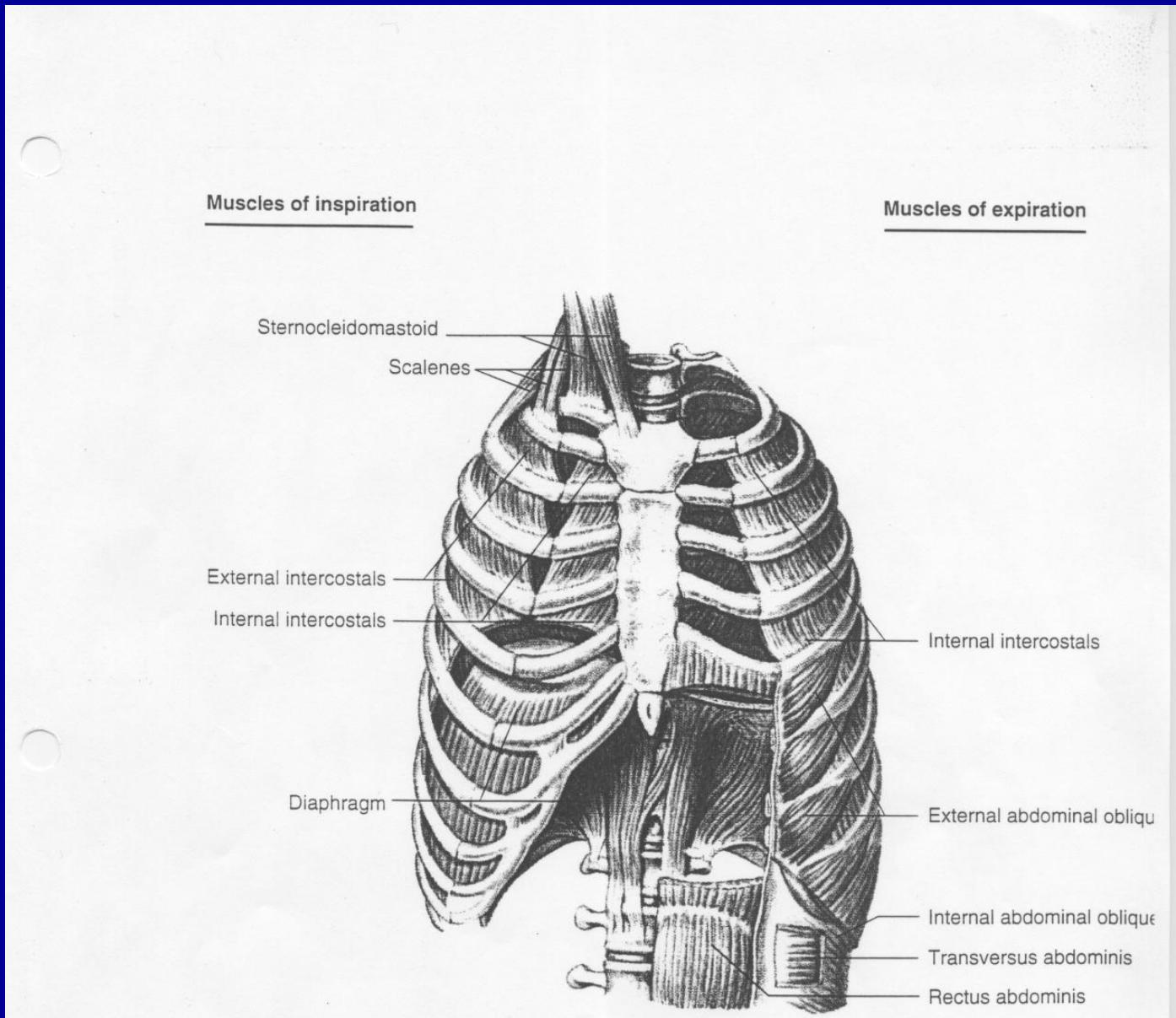
Internal  
intercostals,  
except  
parasternal  
inter-  
cartilaginous  
muscles  
(depress ribs)

Abdominal  
muscles  
(depress lower  
ribs, compress  
abdominal  
contents)

rectus  
abdominis  
external  
oblique

internal oblique  
transversus  
abdominis

The diaphragm is innervated by the phrenic nerves from cervical segments 3, 4 and 5.



# Summary of events during inspiration:

## Inspiration:

Diaphragm and intercostal muscles contract



Thoracic cage expands



Intrapleural pressure becomes more negative



Transpulmonary pressure increases



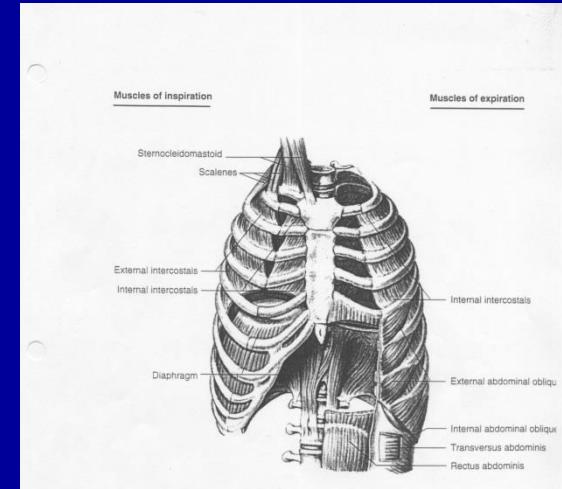
Lungs expands

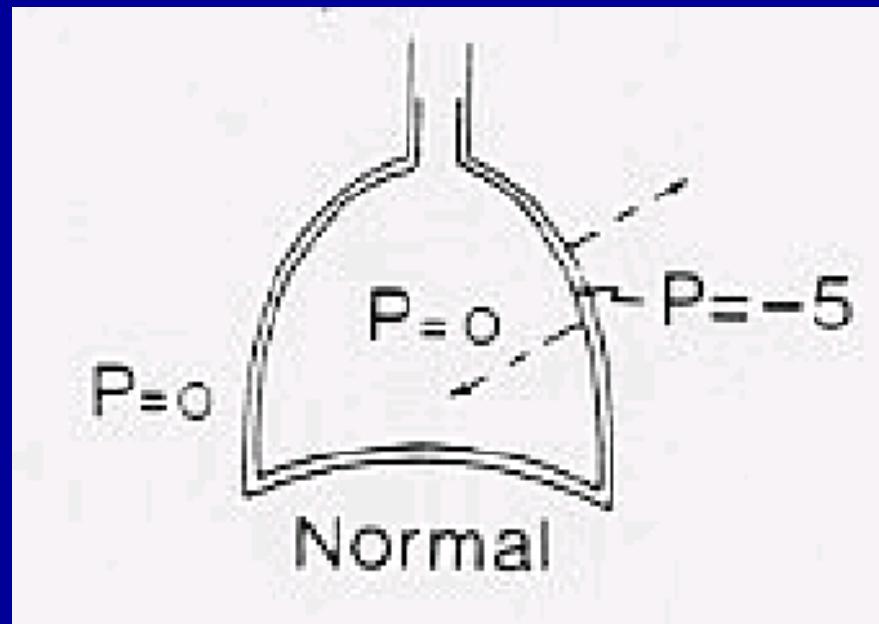


Alveolar pressure becomes subatmospheric



Air flows into alveoli





*Reproduced from West: Respiratory Physiology- the essentials.*

## Summary of events during inspiration:

### Inspiration:

Diaphragm and intercostal muscles contract



Thoracic cage expands



Intrapleural pressure becomes more negative (subatmospheric)



Transpulmonary pressure increases



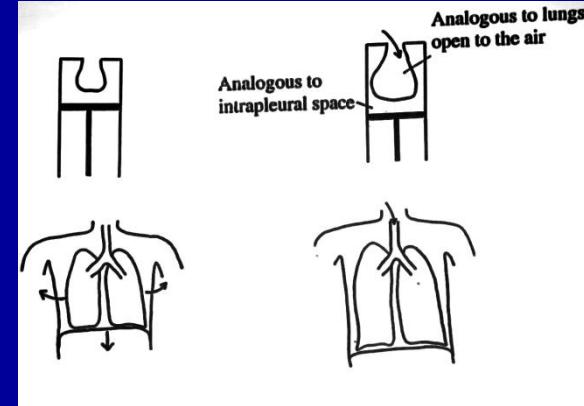
Lungs expand



Alveolar pressure becomes subatmospheric



Air flows into alveoli



## Summary of events during expiration:

### **Expiration:**

Diaphragm and external intercostal muscles stop contracting



Chest wall moves inwards



Intrapleural pressure goes back towards preinspiratory value



Transpulmonary pressure goes back towards preinspiratory value



Lung recoil towards preinspiratory volume



Air in lungs is compressed



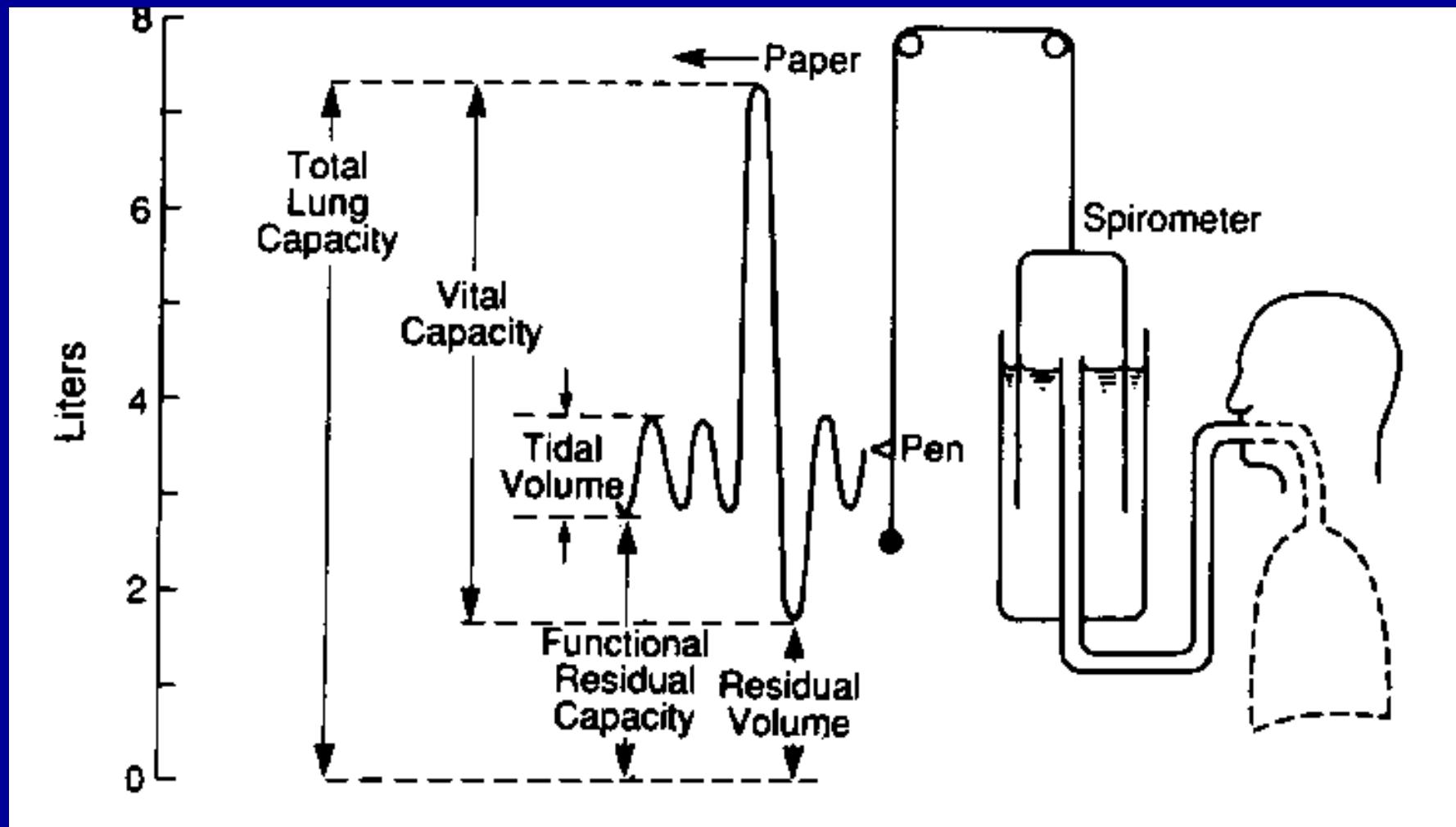
Alveolar pressure becomes greater than atmospheric pressure



Air flows out of the lungs

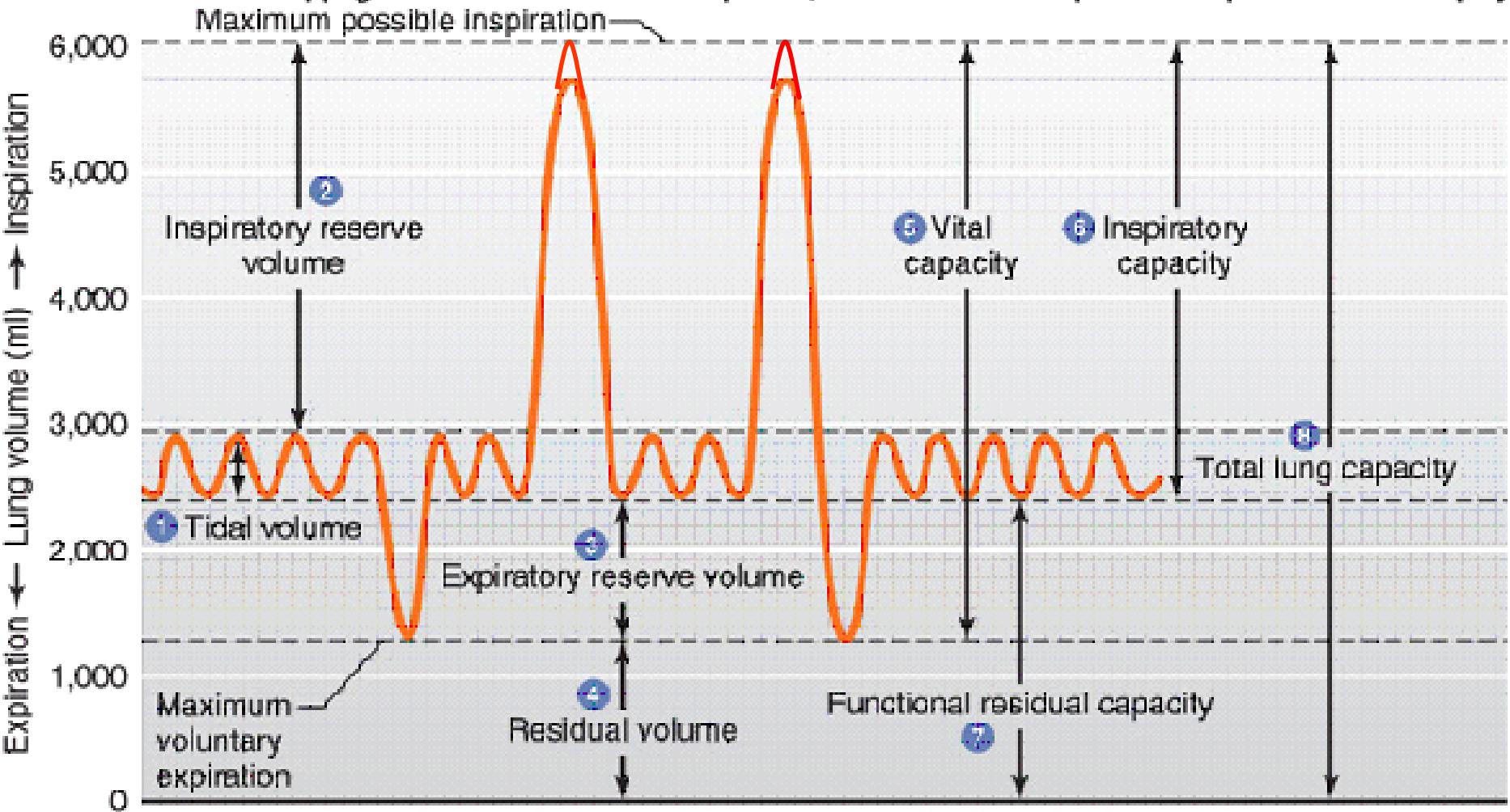
# Lecture 2

# Spirometry: Measuring lung volumes

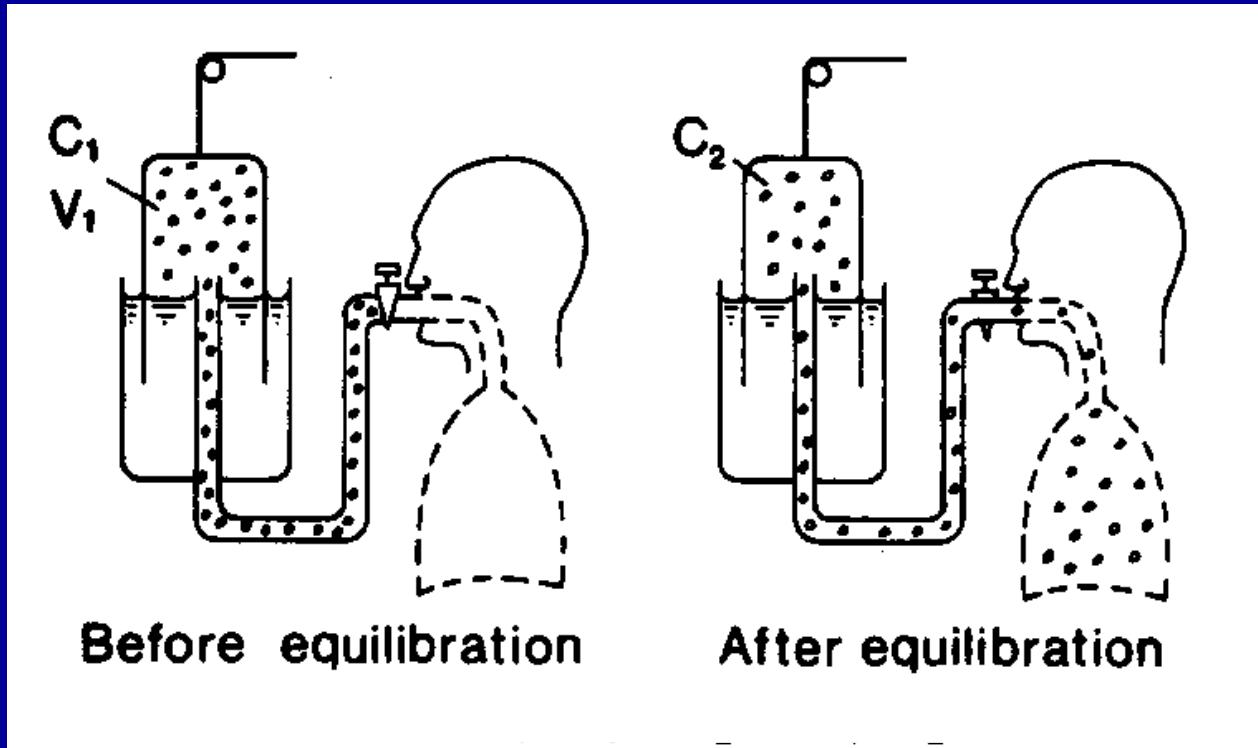


Lung volumes. (Reproduced from West, J.B.: Respiratory Physiology- the essentials).

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## Measurement of FRC



$$C_1 \times V_1 = C_2 \times (V_1 + FRC)$$

so that:

$$FRC = (C_1 \times V_1 / C_2) - V_1$$

Note: Think of the lung as a balloon not as a jar.

# VENTILATION

## Minute ventilation

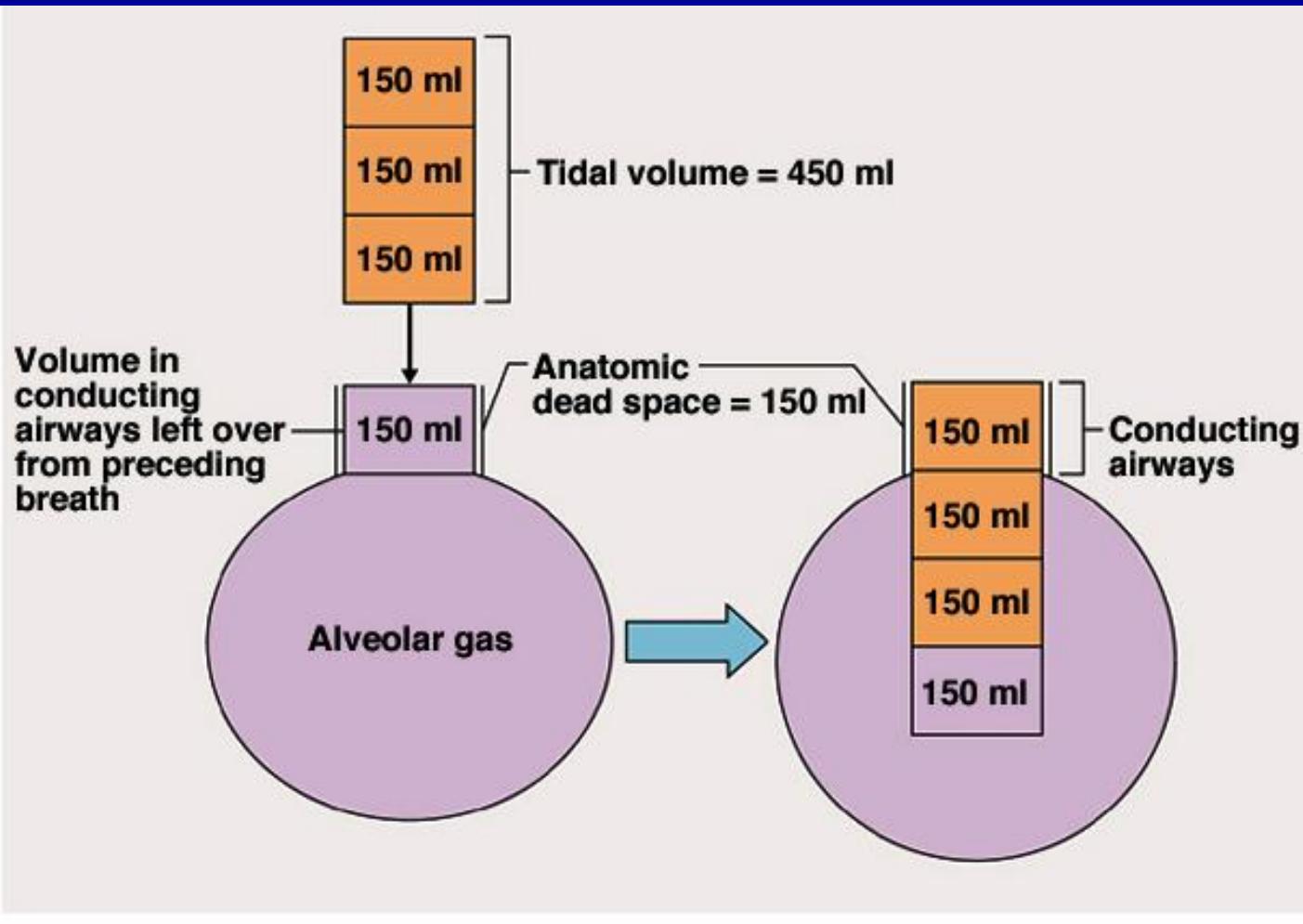
The amount of air inspired (or expired) over one minute ( $V_E$ ).

$$V_E = V_T \times f$$

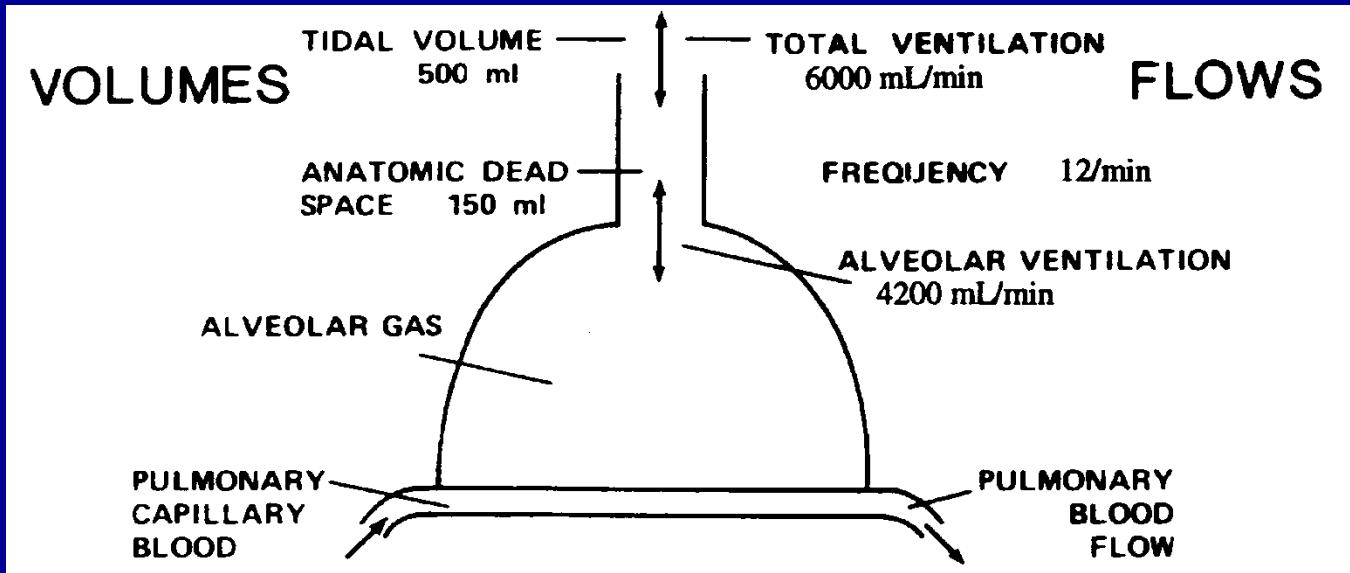
where  $V_T$  is the tidal volume, and  $f$  is the number of breaths per minute.

## Alveolar ventilation

Not all the air inhaled into the lungs reaches the gas exchanging area. Some of the air remains in the conducting airways (**anatomical dead space**).



The volume of the anatomical dead space in the adult subject is about 150mL (**anatomical dead space** is difficult to measure, but a close approximation is a subject's weight in pounds).

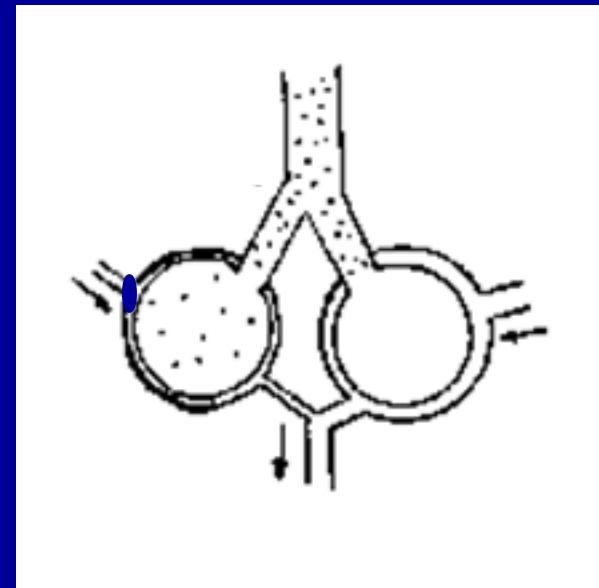
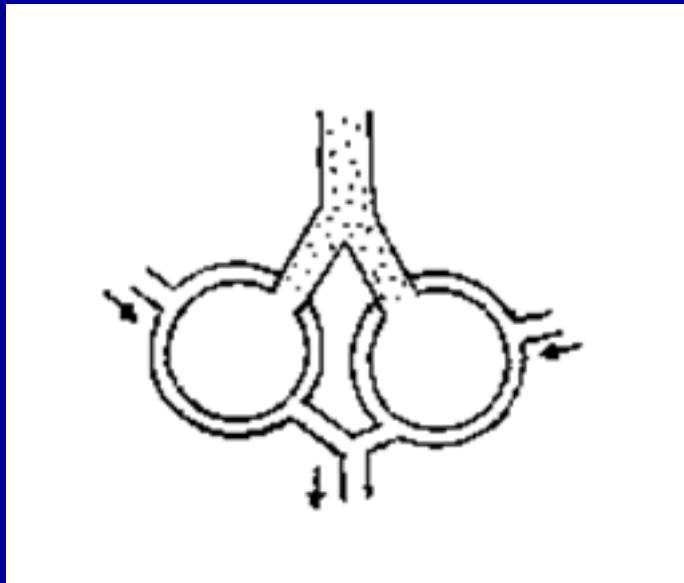


In a normal adult male,  $V_T = 500\text{ml}$ , and  $f = 12 \text{ breaths/minute}$ . Therefore,  $\dot{V}_E = 6000\text{ml/min}$ . The volume of the anatomical dead space in the adult subject is about 150ml. Thus, the amount of air that reaches the respiratory zone per minute and available for gas exchange, the alveolar ventilation ( $\dot{V}_A$ ), is:

- $\dot{V}_A = (500 - 150 \text{ ml}) \times 12 = 4200 \text{ ml/min}$ .

## Alveolar and Physiological dead-space

**Alveolar dead-space:** under some pathological conditions, a certain amount of inspired air, although reaching the respiratory zone, does not take part in gas exchange. This situation can be due to a decreased blood supply or no blood supply at all. These alveoli represent alveolar dead space.



# Alveolar and Physiological dead-space

## Physiological dead-space:

Physiological dead-space ( $V_D$ ): (Alveolar + Anatomical) dead-space

## APPENDIX 1

P = total pressure

F<sub>x</sub> = fractional concentration in dry gas

P<sub>x</sub> = partial pressure of gas x

$$P_x = P \cdot F_x$$

Example:

Barometric P = 760mmHg

F<sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> = 21% \*

F<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> = 0.03% \*

P<sub>x</sub> = (P - 47mmHg) · F<sub>x</sub> (water vapor pressure of 47mmHg)

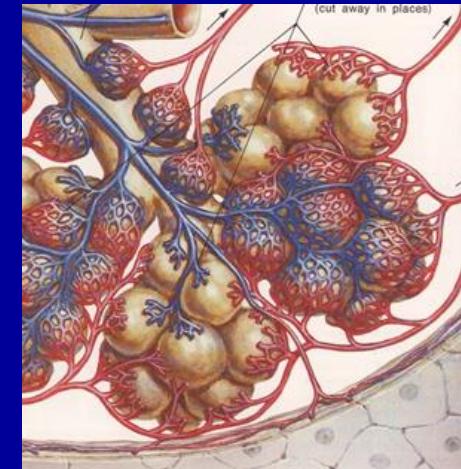
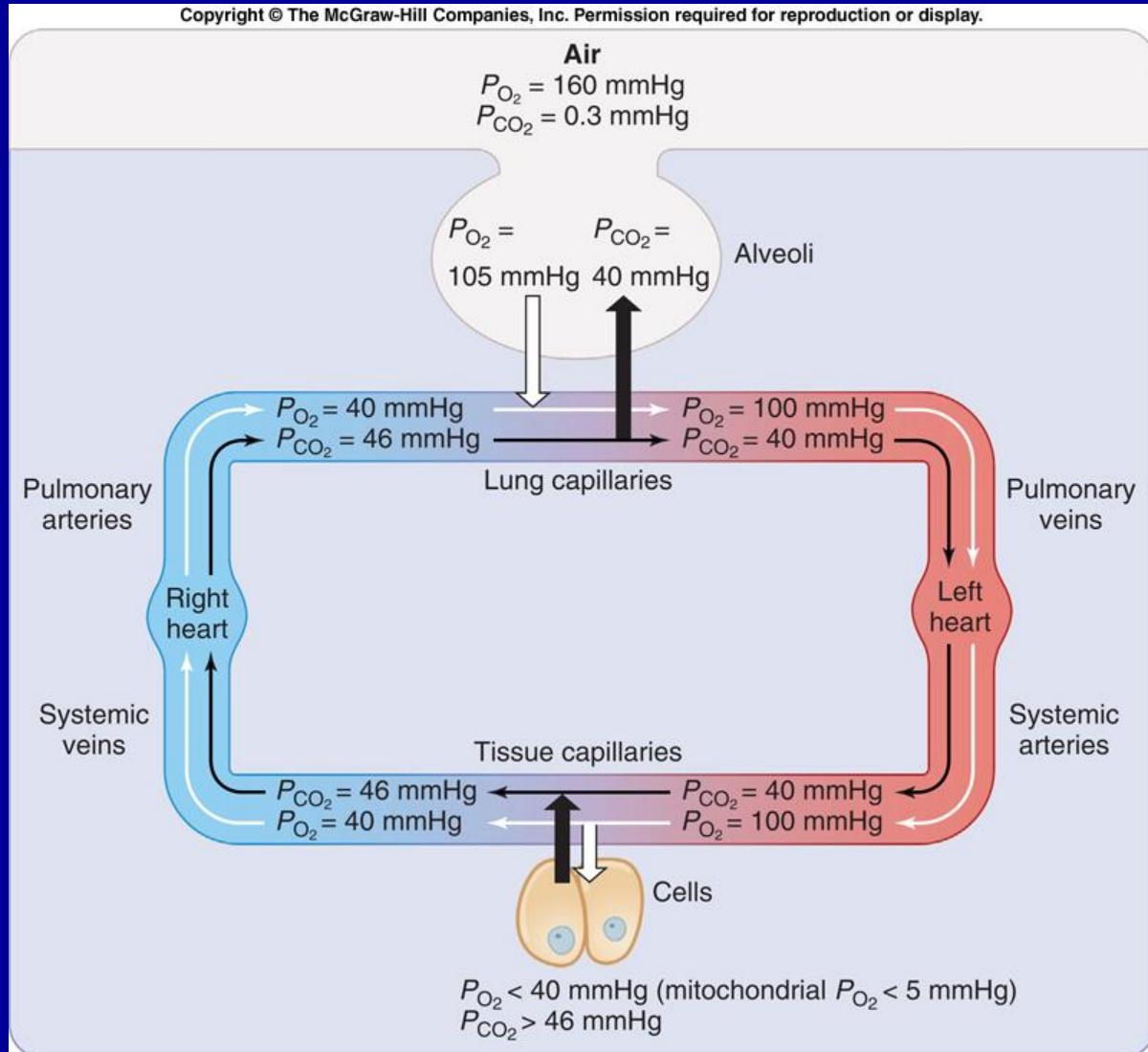
$$P_{O_2} = (760\text{mmHg} - 47\text{mmHg}) \cdot 21/100 = 150\text{mmHg}$$

$$P_{CO_2} = (760\text{mmHg} - 47\text{mmHg}) \cdot 0.03/100 = 0.2\text{mmHg}$$

\* Fractional concentrations are generally given as the fraction of dry gas volume that is occupied by the gas in question. Because of that convention, barometric pressure has to be corrected for the contribution from water vapor.

# Types of Alveolar Ventilation

Normal Alveolar Ventilation: VA matches CO<sub>2</sub> and keeps PaCO<sub>2</sub> at a constant level.



## Types of Alveolar Ventilation (Cont'ed)

**Alveolar hyperventilation:** This occurs when more O<sub>2</sub> is supplied and more CO<sub>2</sub> removed than the metabolic rate requires ( $\dot{V}E$  exceeds the needs of the body). As a consequence, alveolar and arterial partial pressures of O<sub>2</sub> rise and those of CO<sub>2</sub> decrease.

Note: This is with respect to metabolism so not as during exercise.

## Types of Alveolar Ventilation (Cont'd)

**Alveolar hypoventilation:** A fall in ventilation can reduce alveolar ventilation below that required by the metabolic activity of the body.

Under such conditions, the rate at which O<sub>2</sub> is added to alveolar gas, and the rate at which CO<sub>2</sub> is eliminated, is lowered, so that the alveolar partial pressure of O<sub>2</sub> (PaO<sub>2</sub>) falls and PaCO<sub>2</sub> rises.

Therefore, PaO<sub>2</sub> falls below normal values and PaCO<sub>2</sub> rises above the normal value.

Alveolar hypoventilation may occur during severe disorders of the lungs (e.g. chronic obstructive lung disease), or when there is damage to the respiratory muscles. It can also occur when the chest cage is injured and the lungs collapse, or when the central nervous system is depressed.

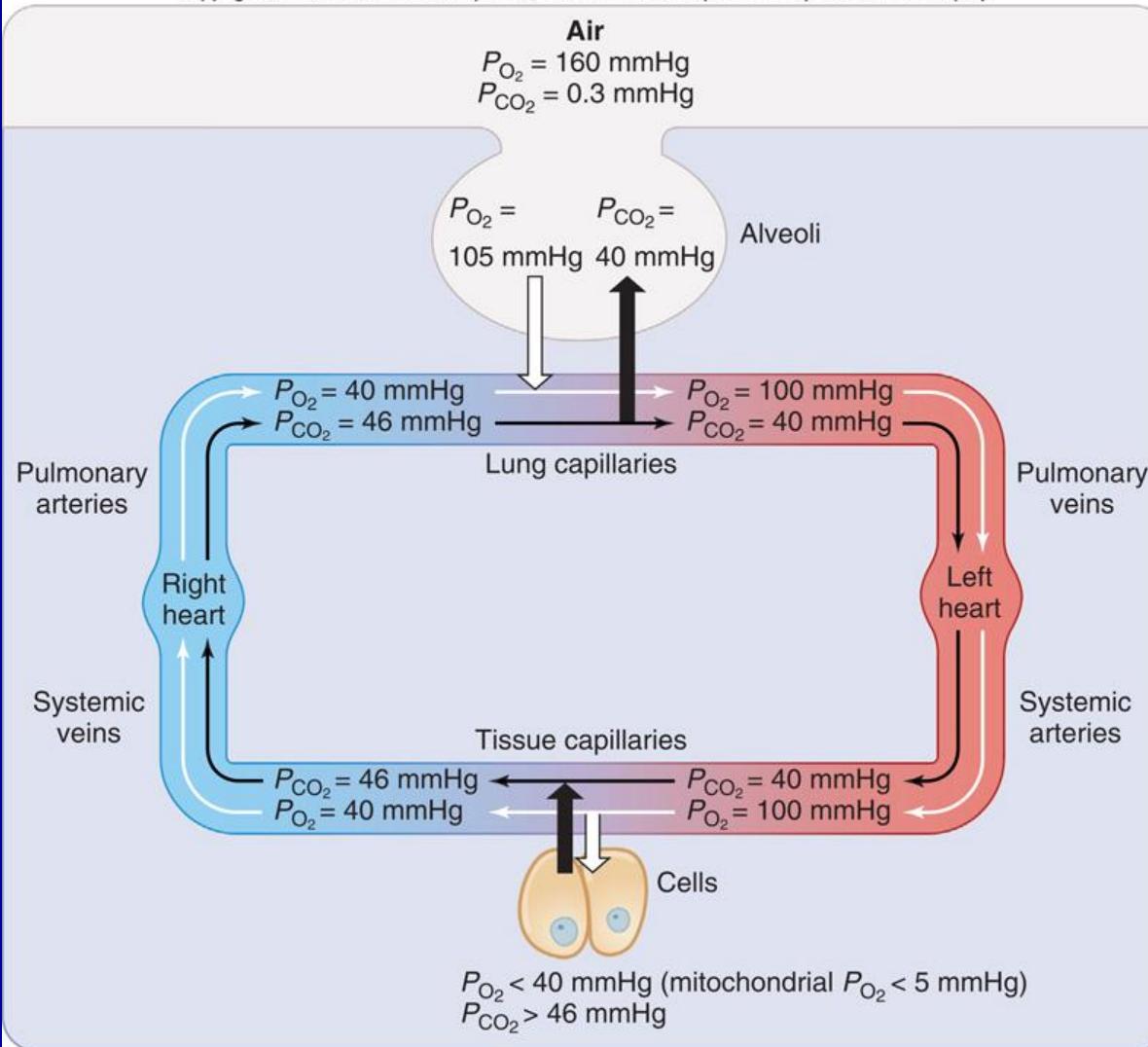
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TABLE 13-6 *Effects of Various Conditions on Alveolar Gas Pressures*

| CONDITION   | ALVEOLAR $P_{O_2}$ | ALVEOLAR $P_{CO_2}$ |
|---|--------------------|---------------------|
| Breathing air with low $P_{O_2}$                              | Decreases          | No change*          |
| ↑Alveolar ventilation and unchanged metabolism                | Increases          | Decreases           |
| ↓Alveolar ventilation and unchanged metabolism                | Decreases          | Increases           |
| ↑Metabolism and unchanged alveolar ventilation                | Decreases          | Increases           |
| ↓Metabolism and unchanged alveolar ventilation                | Increases          | Decreases           |
| Proportional increases in metabolism and alveolar ventilation | No change          | No change           |

# Types of Alveolar Ventilation

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# Lecture 3

# GAS DIFFUSION

## Diffusion Rate

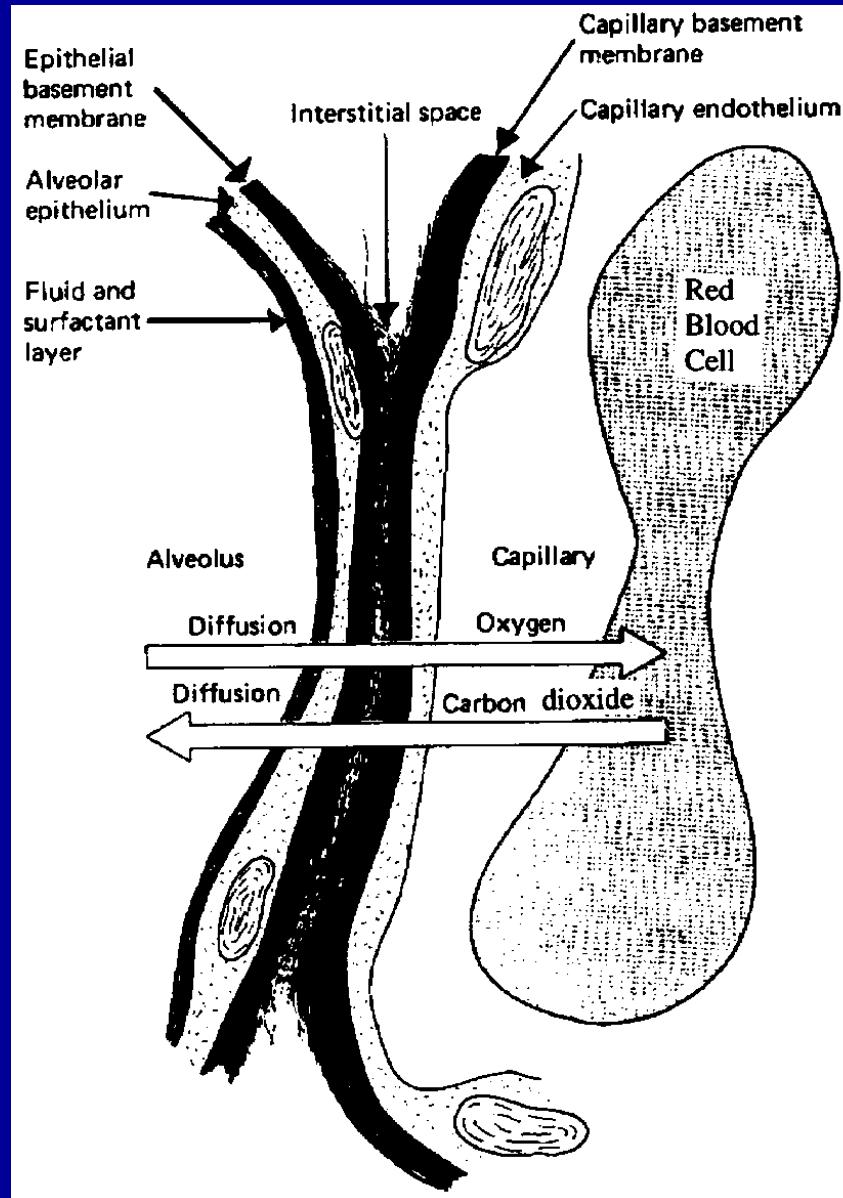
The transfer of gases across the alveolar-capillary membrane occurs by passive diffusion. This diffusion is very efficient in the lungs because of the huge surface area of the membrane and its extreme thinness.

Diffusion is governed by Fick's Law:

Diffusion rate is  $\propto$  surface area ( $50-100 \text{ m}^2$ )

$\propto$  partial pressure gradient

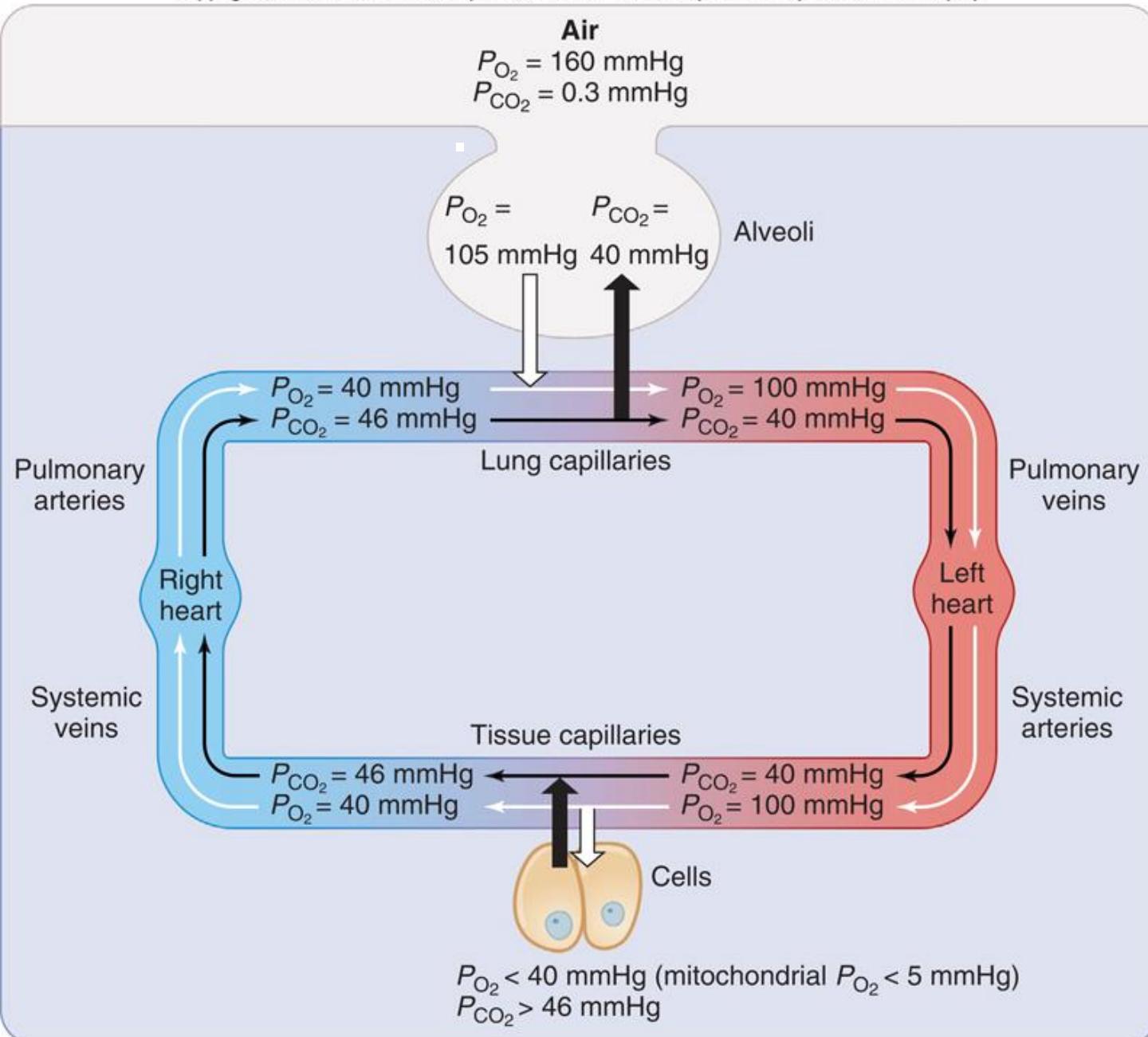
$\propto$  1/thickness ( $\sim 0.2 \text{ mm}$ )



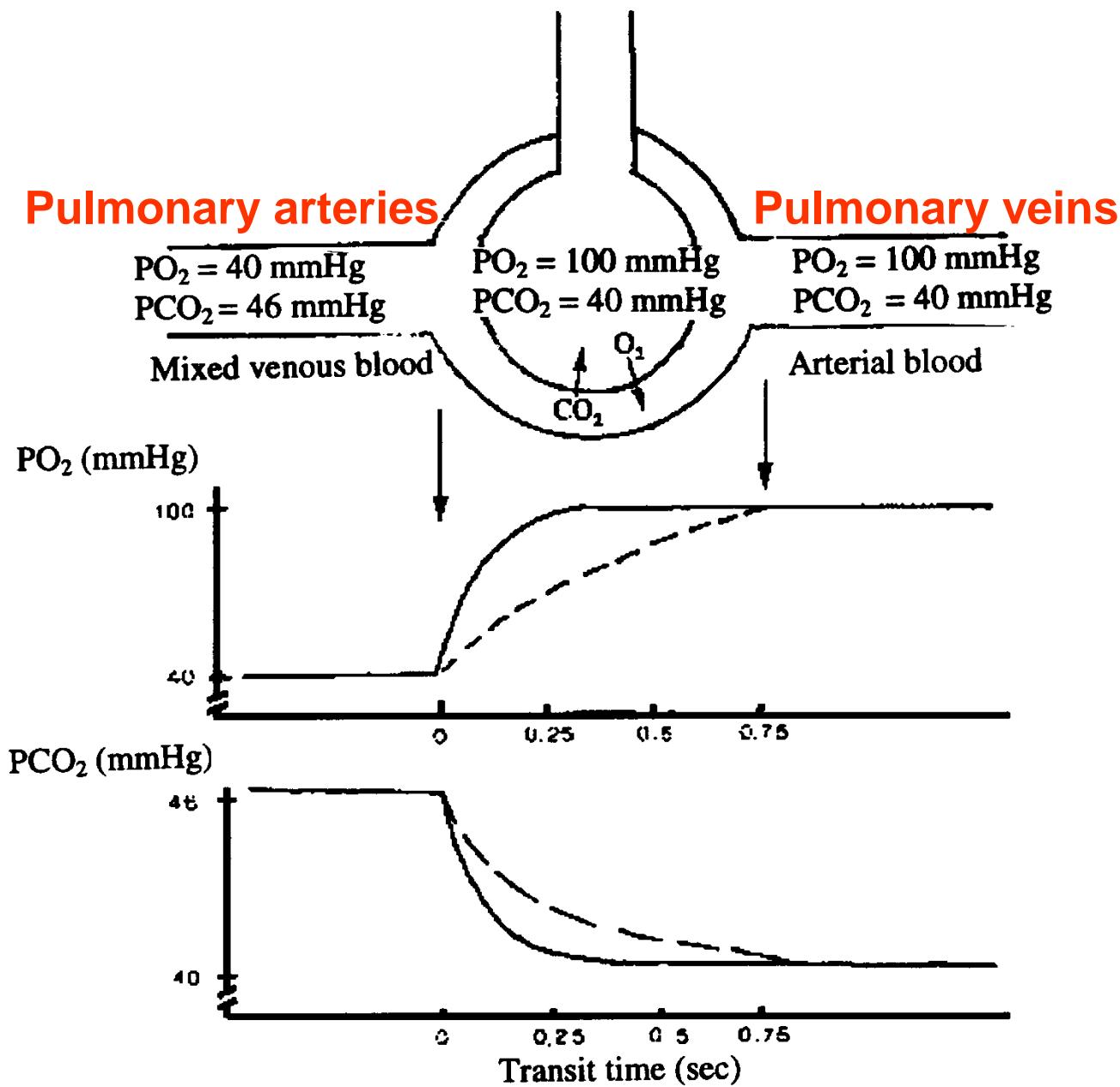
Ultrastructure of the respiratory membrane as shown in cross-section.  
(Reproduced from Guyton: *Textbook of Medical Physiology*).

## Diffusion Rate (Cont'ned)

- To diffuse through a liquid, a gas must be soluble in the liquid. The amount of gas dissolved is proportional to its partial pressure (Henry's law).
- Because CO<sub>2</sub> is considerably more soluble than O<sub>2</sub> in water, it diffuses ~20 times more rapidly than O<sub>2</sub>.
- However, the difference in PCO<sub>2</sub> between the 2 sides of the alveolar-capillary membrane is 10 times smaller than that for PO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the time required for equilibrium between alveolar air and capillary blood is ~ the same for the two gases.



# Transit Time

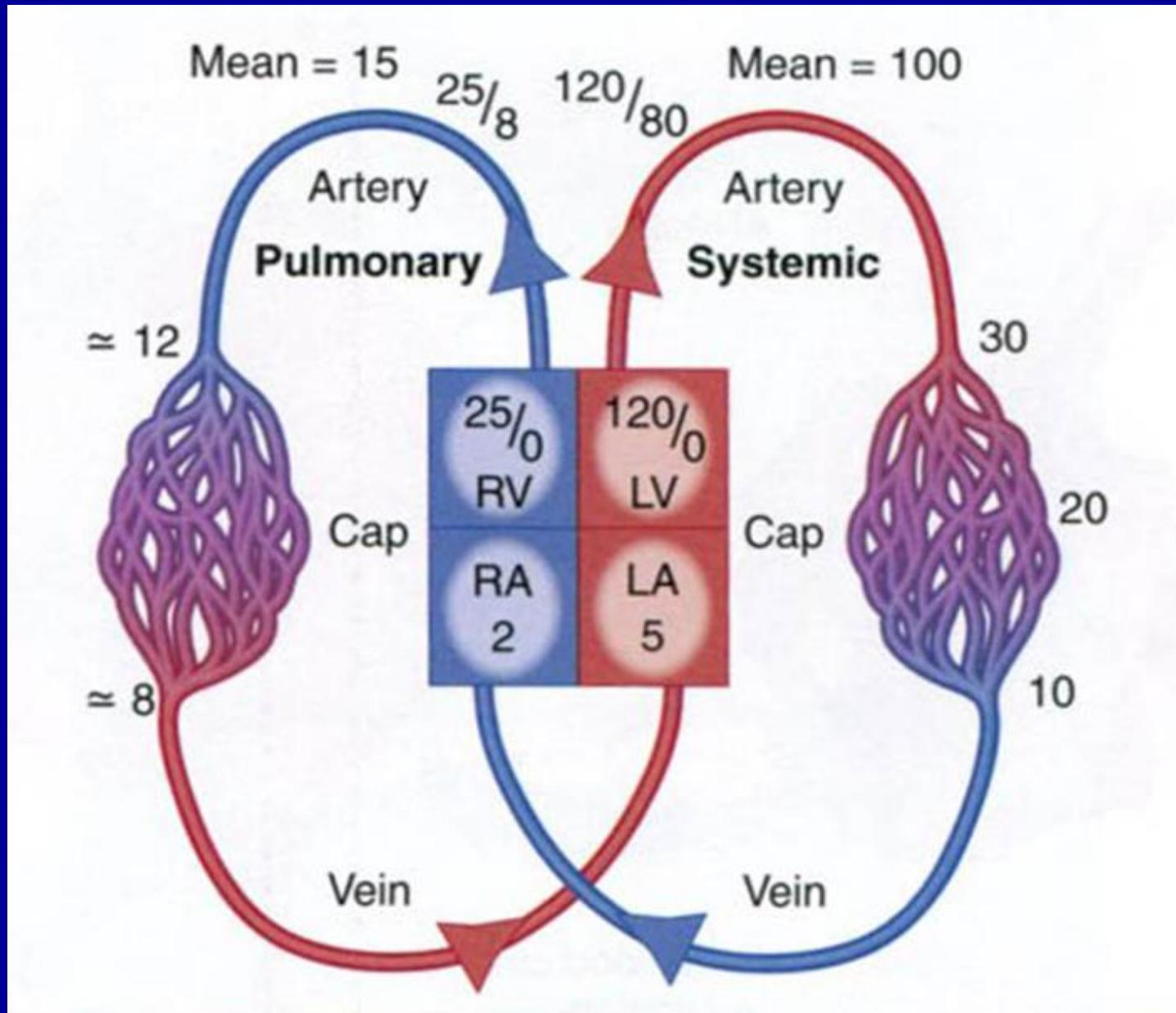


## IV Pulmonary blood flow

### A. Pulmonary Circulation and Blood Pressure

The pulmonary circulation differs in many ways from the systemic one:

- 1) The right ventricle develops a pressure of ~25 mmHg during its systole (compared to 120mmHg in the left ventricle);
- 2) Blood pressure in the pulmonary circulation is lower than in the systemic circulation;
- 3) The pulmonary capillaries are thinner and contain less smooth muscle than comparable vessels in the systemic circulation.



*From West: Respiratory Physiology-the essentials).*

## B. Vascular Resistance

**Flow = pressure / resistance**

- Total pressure drop from pulmonary artery to left atrium of about 10 mm Hg.
- The pulmonary resistance is ~1/10 that of the systemic circulation.
- The low vascular resistance in the pulmonary circulation relies on the thin walls of the vascular system.
- The low vascular resistance and high compliance of the pulmonary circulation allows the lung to accept the whole cardiac output at all times.

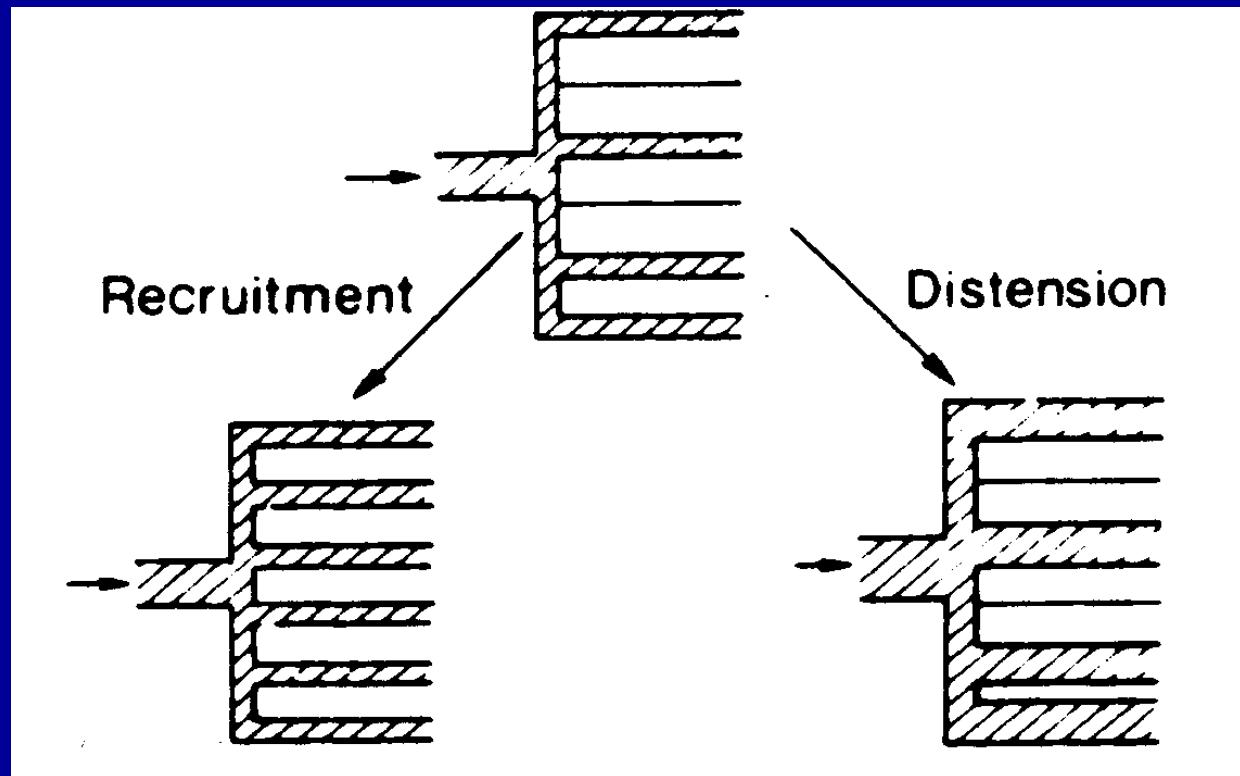
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- The low vascular resistance in the pulmonary circulation relies on the thin walls of the vascular system.
- The low vascular resistance and high compliance of the pulmonary circulation allows the lung to accept the whole cardiac output at all times.

## C. Accommodation of Pulmonary Blood Vessels

The pulmonary circulation has the capacity to accommodate two- to three-fold increases in cardiac output with little change in pulmonary arterial pressure.



*Reproduced from West: Respiratory Physiology-the essentials.*

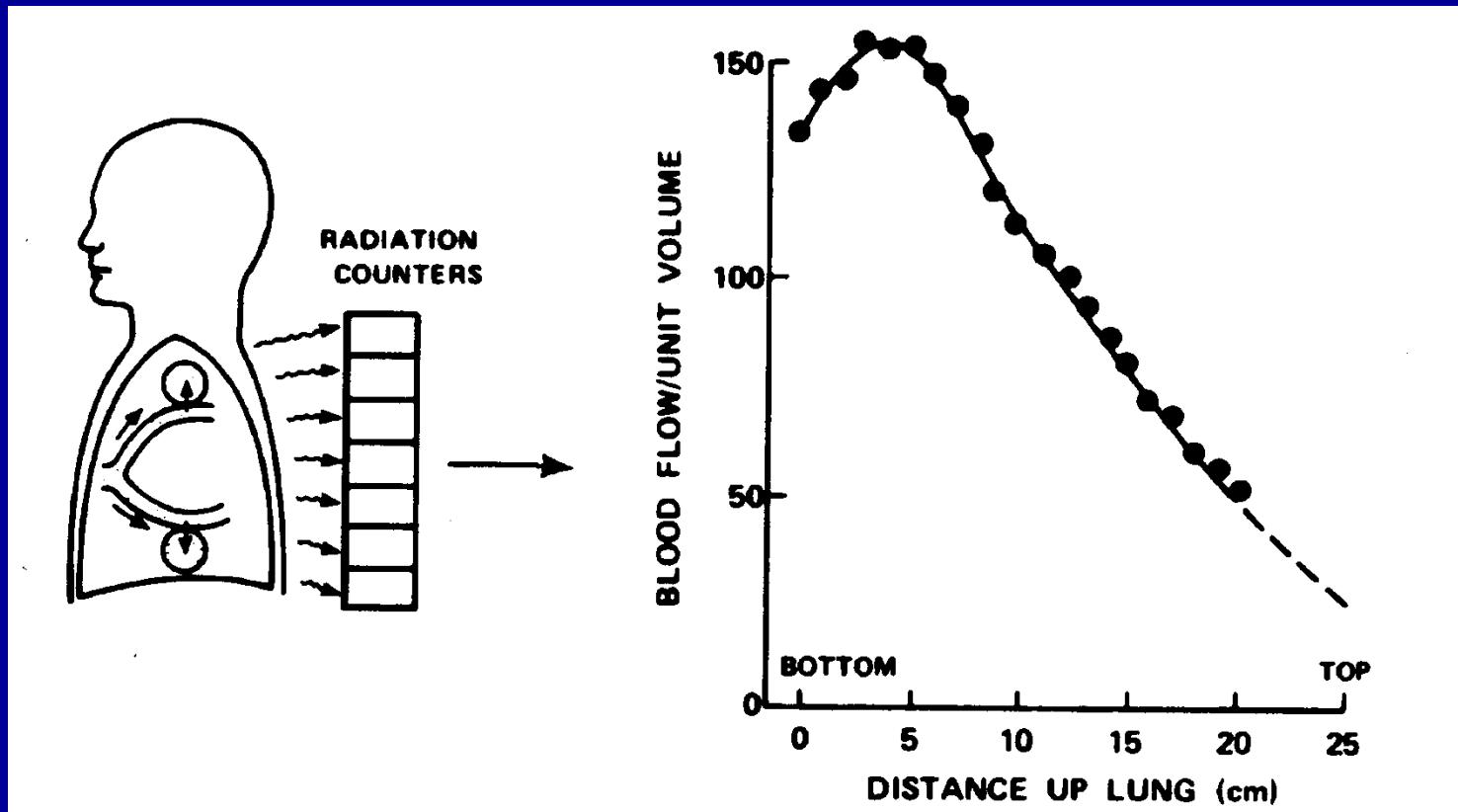
### C. Accommodation of Pulmonary Blood Vessels (Cont'd)

- Drugs (serotonin, histamine, norepinephrine) which cause the contraction of smooth muscle increase pulmonary vascular resistance in the larger pulmonary arteries.
- Drugs (acetylcholine, isoproteranol) which can relax smooth muscle may decrease pulmonary vascular resistance.
- There is a reflex vasoconstriction in regions of the lungs that are poorly oxygenated.
- Nitric oxide produced by endothelial cells relaxes vascular smooth muscle leading to vasodilation.

## D. Effects of Gravity on pulmonary blood flow

Pulmonary blood flow is affected by gravity.

Test performed by injecting radioactive Xenon in a peripheral vein.



Note that the somewhat lower blood flow observed at the bottom of the lung is due to extra-alveolar vessels being less expanded at low lung volumes. (*Reproduced from West: Respiratory Physiology-the essentials*).

## D. Effects of Gravity on pulmonary blood flow (Cont'ed)

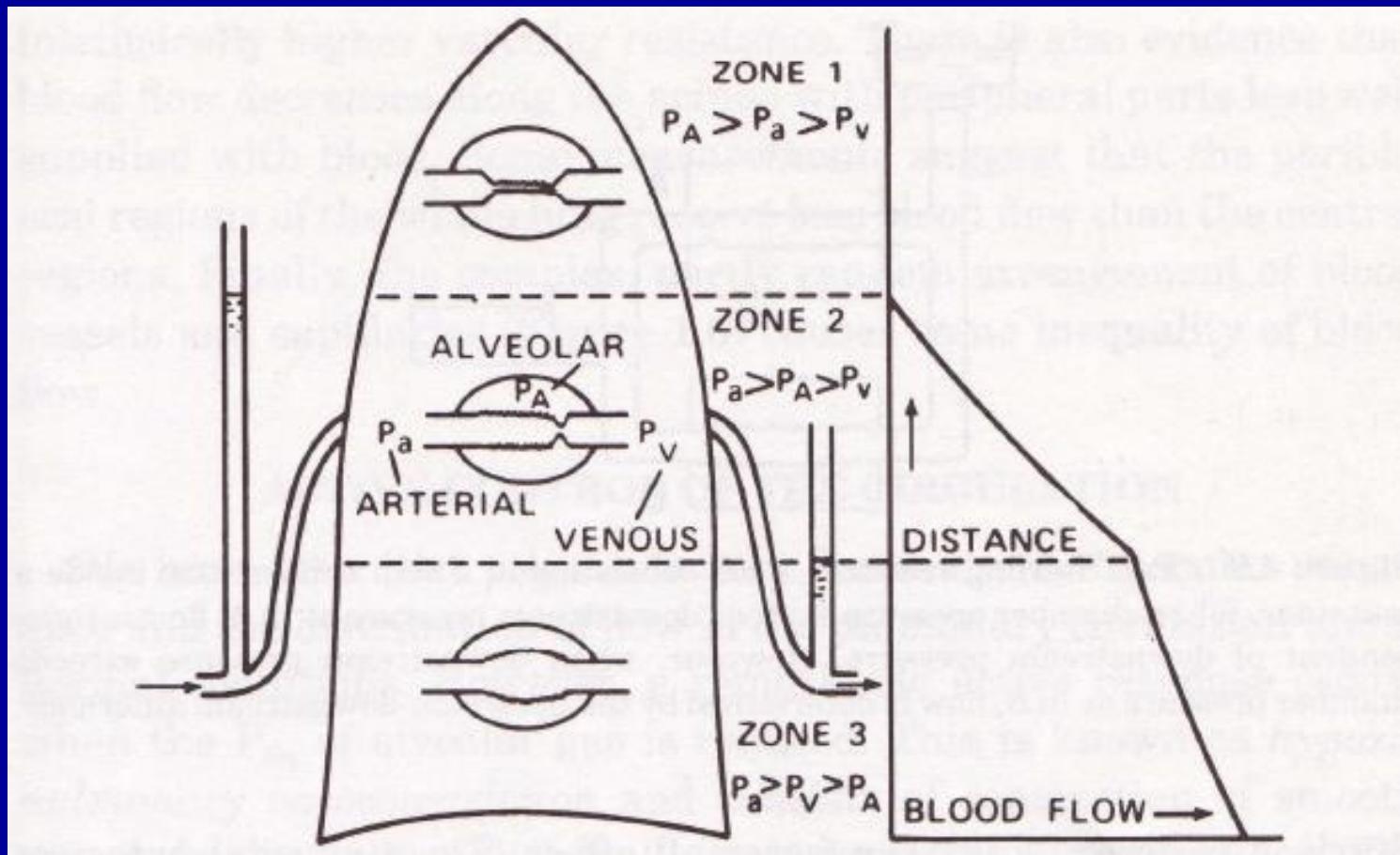
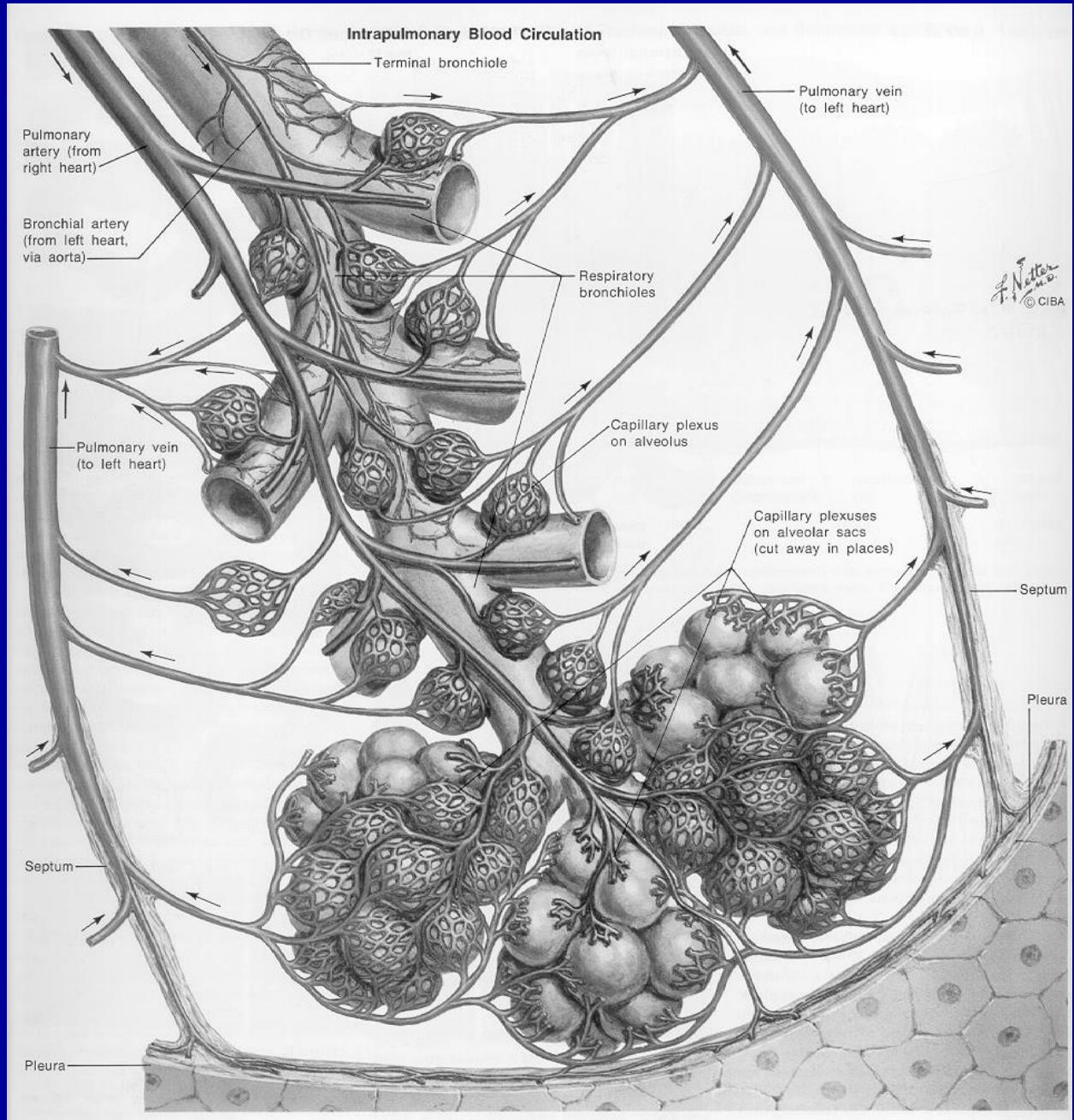


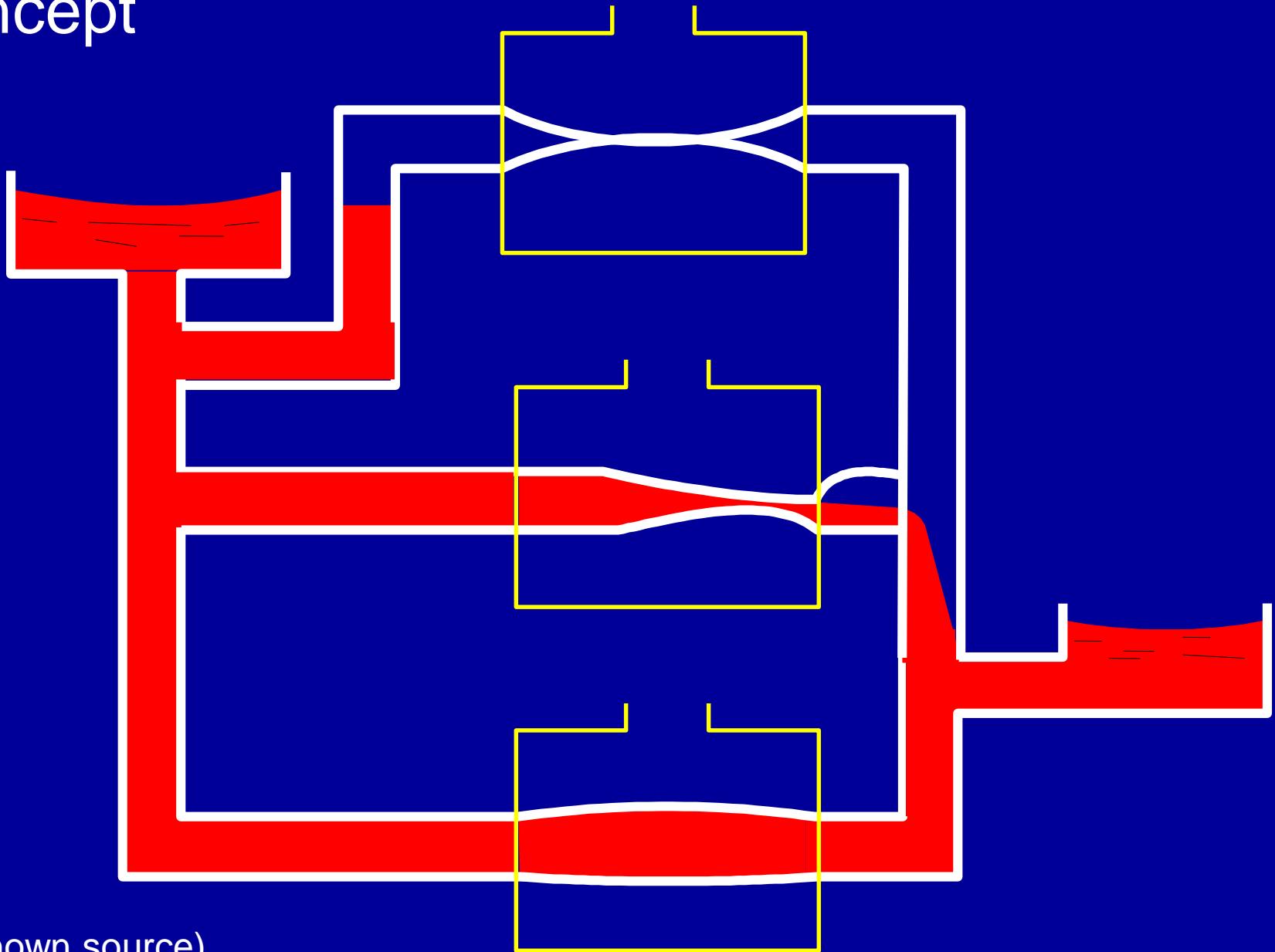
Figure 18b: Distribution of blood flow as described as West's zones

Reproduced from West: Respiratory Physiology-the essentials.



# The Starling Resistor Concept

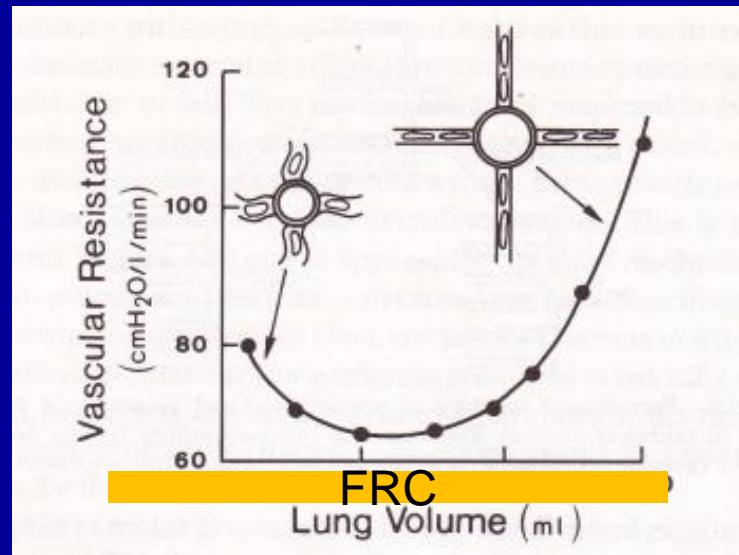
Pulmonary  
Circulation



(unknown source)

## E. Effects of lung volume on pulmonary vascular resistance

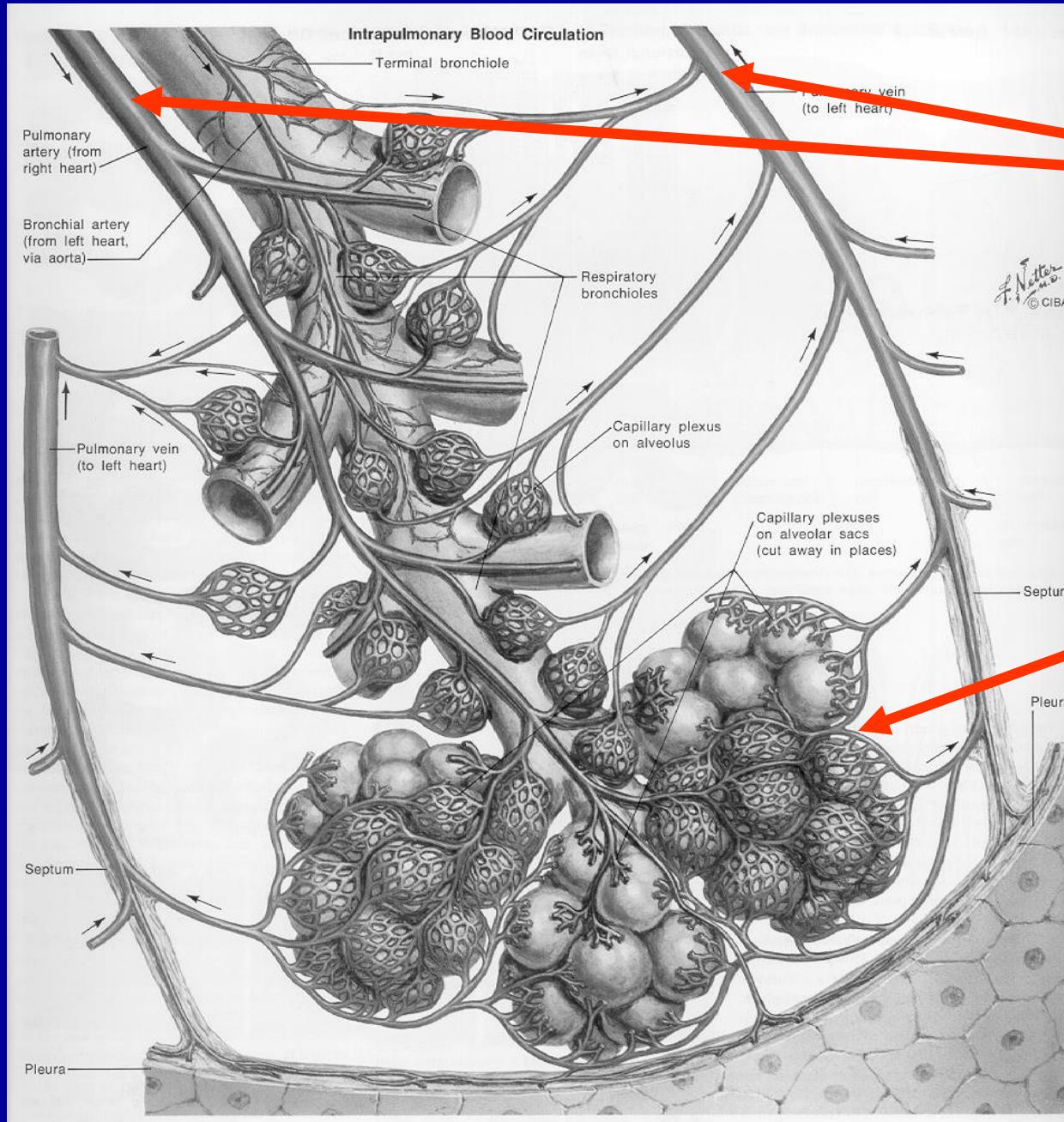
- Lung volume affects pulmonary **vascular** resistance in a complex manner depending on if the blood vessels are surrounded by alveoli (alveolar vessels) or not (extra-alveolar vessels).



Reproduced from West: Respiratory Physiology-the essentials.

- Above FRC, the alveolar vessels are stretched longitudinally and thus, their diameter decrease leading to an increase in vascular resistance
- Below FRC, the extra-alveolar vessels collapse because they are not stretched by the pulmonary tissues.

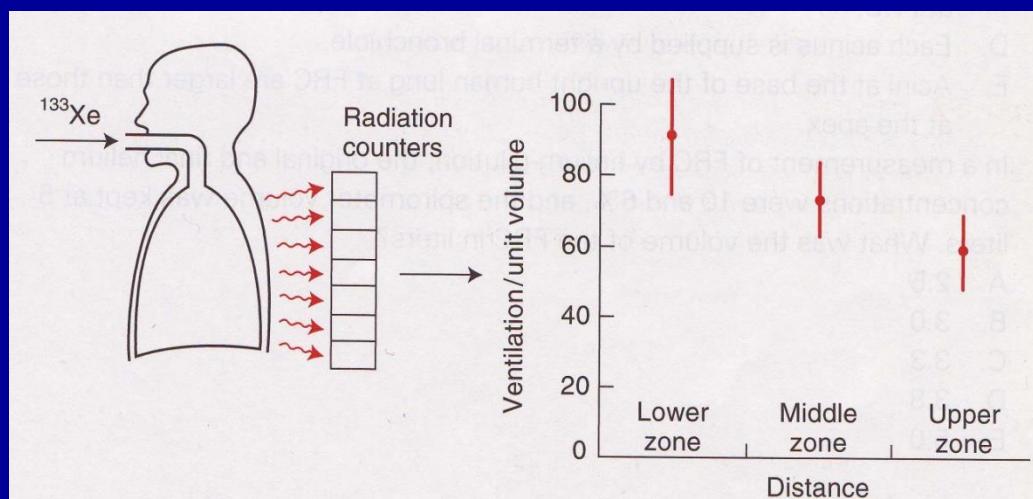
# Extra-alveolar vessels



# Alveolar vessels

## F. Effects of Gravity on Ventilation

- Gravity also affects the distribution of ventilation.
- In an upright lung at rest, in normal gravity, the alveoli at the top of the lungs are more opened than the bottom ones (think of a “Slinky” held in normal gravity).
- The distribution of ventilation can be measured in a similar way as that of perfusion but with inhaled radioactive Xenon instead of infused in the blood.



## G. Distribution of ventilation perfusion ratio in the lungs in normal gravity.

