# Lecture 2 PULMONARY VENTILATION

# **Objectives**

- ❀ The muscles used during ventilation
- ✤ The mechanism of ventilation of the lung
- The types of respiratory pressures
- ❀ The elastic recoil of the lung (surface tension)
- The chemical composition, functions and factors affecting surfactant production
- ❀ Types of respiratory dead space
- ❀ Significance of ADS

# Mechanism of normal quite breathing (eupnoea)

- Respiratory cycle (inspiration, expiration, pause)
- Respiratory rate 12-16/min
- Expiration 2 times inspiration

Normal quite breathing

V V Exercise

- Pause disappear
- Expiration = inspiration
- ↑ Rate
- $\uparrow RR \rightarrow$  tachypnea, e.g., exercise, fever.
- Arrest of respiration  $\rightarrow$  apnea, e.g, deglutition apnea
- $\odot$  Difficulty in breathing  $\rightarrow$  dyspnea, e.g, bronchial asthma.

# **Muscles of respiration**

## 

### • Normal inspiration

#### 1) Diaphragm

- Descend (contraction) about 1.5 cm (quiet inspiration), 7cm(forced inspiration) →↑ vertical diameter
- 75% of air entry
- Diaphragmatic paralysis (C3,4&5)  $\rightarrow$  respiration is seriously impaired.





- Diaphragm consists of costal portion, crural portion and central tendon
  - The costal and crural fibers are innervated by different parts of the phrenic nerves and can contract separately
  - Vomiting → ↑ intra-abdominal pressure by contraction of costal fibers but the crural fibers remain relaxed allowing materials to pass from the stomach into the esophagus.



2) External intercostal muscles ⇒ (run obliquely downward and forward from rib to rib)

- Eversion of ribs →↑ antero-posterior diameter
- Elevation of ribs  $\rightarrow \uparrow$  transverse diameter
- Forced inspiration

Accessory inspiratory muscles

- Sternocleidomastoid → elevates sternum
- Scalene  $\rightarrow$  elevates 1<sup>ST</sup> 2 ribs
- Serratus anterior  $\rightarrow$  elevates 1<sup>st</sup> 5 ribs



# **Muscles of expiration** Expiration is passive

- Normal expiration (passive)
   No muscle contraction
- Expiratory muscles used only with
  - Forced expiration (exercise)
  - Diseases (obstructive lung diseases)
  - 1) Internal intercostal muscles (pass obliquely downward and postariorly from rib to rib)
    - downward and posteriorly from rib to rib)
    - Inversion and depression of ribs

#### 2) Abdominal muscles

 Pulling the rib cage downward and inward and increasing the intra-abdominal pressure







Relaxation of inspiratory muscles Lungs retract due to elastic recoil Inside volume decrease Alveolar pressure >atmospheric pressure Air driven out (expiration)

### Pressure changes during respiratory cycle

### 1) Intra alveolar (intrapulmonary) pressure

- Definition: pressure inside the alveoli
  - At the end of normal expiration the intrapul. pressure = atmospheric pressure = zero.
- Values:
  - Quite inspiration → negative
    - ∽ Mid inspiration = −1 mmHg
    - $\bigcirc$  End of inspiration  $\rightarrow$  zero
    - $\bigcirc$  Forced inspiration (Muller's maneuver e.g sucking fluid with straw)  $\rightarrow$  (–80 mmHg)
  - Quite expiration  $\rightarrow$  positive
    - Mid expiration = +1 mmHg
    - $\bigcirc$  End of expiration  $\rightarrow$  zero
    - $\bigcirc$  Forced expiration (Valsalva's maneuver e.g. straining)  $\rightarrow$  (+100 mm Hg)



# 2) Intrapleural (intrathoracic) pressure

- **Definition:** pressure in pleural cavity
- Value: in normal breathing is always negative
  - Atmospheric pressure which is equal to 760 mmHg is taken as zero atmosphere

• Cause:

- Continuous tendency of lung to recoil inwards (elasticity and surface tension) and chest wall to expand (elasticity) → These two forces are equal in intensity and act in opposite directions against a closed space → negative pressure
- Rapid absorption rate of pleural fluid by pulmonary capillaries and also by the lymphatics



### • Variation in intrapleural pressure (values)

- 1) During different phases of respiration
  - Inspiration (more negative)
    - ∽ In quite inspiration (–6 mmHg)
    - $\bigcirc$  In forced inspiration(–12 to –18 mm Hg )
    - ∽ In Muller's maneuver (– 40 mm Hg)
  - During expiration (less negative)
    - Towards the end of expiration (-2.5 mm Hg)
    - $\bigcirc$  Forced expiration  $\rightarrow$  positive pressure
    - ∽ In Valsalva's maneuver (+40 mm Hg)



2) Regional variation (effect of gravity)

- Near the apex : (-6 mm Hg)
- In the middle part of the lung (-2.5mmHg)
- Near the base it is about (-1 mm Hg)

### • Measurement

 Indirect (measurement of pressure inside esophagus by esophageal balloon)





● Importance of negative intrapleural pressure

- Prevent collapse of alveoli (lung)
- Aids venous and lymphatic return (against gravity)
- Clinically negativity is an index of lung elasticity
- Effects of positive intrapleural pressure
  - Normally (Valsalva's maneuver)
  - Pathological (pneumothorax)
     Lung recoils (collapse) and chest wall expands to their relaxed volumes.
    - Trachea, mediastinum shift toward healthy side.
    - Decreased venous and lymphatic return



# Transpulmonary (transmural pressure)

- **Definition:** pressure difference across the lung
  - Intrapulmonary pressure intrapleural pressure
  - ↑Transpulmonary pr → greater stretching of lung →↑ lung volume (↑during inspiration &↓ during expiration)
- Values: (at the end of normal expiration)
  - At the apex of the lung: 0 (-6) = 6 mmHg
  - In the middle of the lung: 0- (-2.5) = 2.5 mmHg
  - At the base of the lung: 0 (-1) = 1 mmHg
  - Since the transmural pressure is less at the base of the lung:
    - ∽ The lung is less expanded at the base
    - This pressure further decreases at the end of forced expiration causing the airways to close at the base