

## B. 10 Applied Respiratory Physiology

### a. Describe the physiological consequences of intermittent positive pressure ventilation and positive end-expiratory pressure.

Intermittent positive pressure ventilation (IPPV) is artificial ventilation produced by imposing a positive pressure from a sealed circuit into the airway, followed by passive expiration, usually at atmospheric pressure. The major physiological difference from spontaneous ventilation is in the range of airway and intrathoracic pressures involved. Spontaneous ventilation involves small pressure excursions above and below atmospheric pressure in airway pressure. IPPV involves much higher airway pressures in inspiration, typically 15-25 mmHg in a healthy adult. Much of this pressure is transmitted to increase intrathoracic pressure.

Positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) is a modification of IPPV such that the expiratory airway pressure does not fall as low as atmospheric pressure. A typical level of PEEP is 5-15 mmHg.

Consequences of IPPV and PEEP:

respiratory

end-expiratory alveolar pressure = PEEP,  
producing an increase in FRC according to PEEP  
level and compliance

may lift FRC above closing capacity in  
patients with a high closing volume  
reduces airway resistance  
alters relative compliance of upper and  
lower parts of the lung

reduces pulmonary shunt

intrapleural pressure rises according to the transmural pressure gradient (increased  
in most pathology)

increases dead space with prolonged application due to bronchiolar dilation

cardiac

increased intrathoracic pressure

reduced systemic venous return, reduced cardiac output, increased ADH,  
reduced ANF

increased pulmonary capillary resistance

increased "Zone 1" may make PCWP measurement unreliable

renal

decreased perfusion pressure

fluid retention

overall effect of PEEP

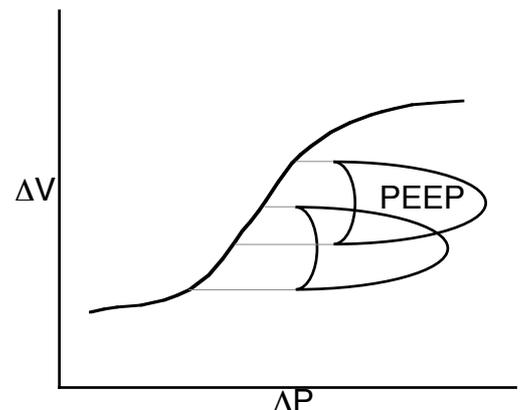
increased  $P_aO_2$  in diseased lung

decreased cardiac output

increased oxygen flux up to "best PEEP"

not useful in healthy lungs

mostly used in ICU setting



### b. Explain the physiological consequences of hypoxaemia, hyper and hypocapnia and carbon monoxide poisoning.

Hypoxaemia

low  $P_aO_2$

classified as hypoxic hypoxia (low  $P_aO_2$ ), anaemia hypoxia (low  $O_2$  carrying capacity),

stagnant hypoxia (poor tissue perfusion) and histotoxic hypoxia (failure of cellular respiration)

cellular

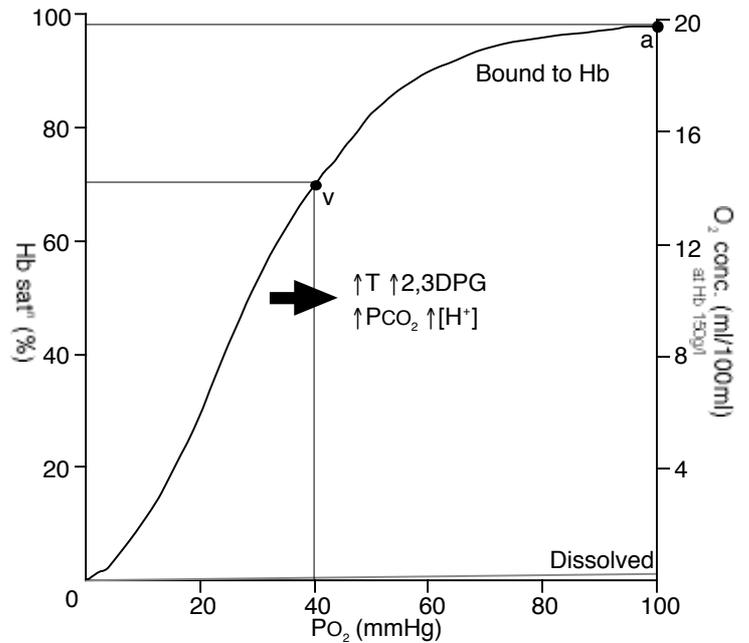
anaerobic metabolism  
 ( $P_aO_2 < 20$  mmHg or histotoxicity)  
 accumulation of lactate, acidosis  
 depletion of high energy phosphates: ATP and phosphocreatine  
 time to cellular "arrest" depends on energy requirements vs stores

respiratory control

hypoxia detected by peripheral chemoreceptors (carotid & aortic bodies)  
 hyperventilation at  $P_aO_2 < 55$  mmHg, maximal at  $P_aO_2 < 30$  mmHg  
 secondary hypocapnia  
 central respiratory depression with severe hypoxia  
 pulmonary vasoconstriction (primarily related to  $P_AO_2$ )

cardiovascular

systemic vasodilation (especially cerebral):  $\uparrow$  CO,  $\downarrow$  MAP  
 acidosis and increased 2,3-DPG shifts Hb- $O_2$  dissociation curve to the right  
 increased erythropoietin and haematocrit in chronic hypoxia



Hypercapnia

high  $P_aCO_2$   
 causes acidosis (in blood, ECF and CSF) via carbonic anhydrase

neurological

cerebral vasodilation,  $\uparrow$  ICP  
 convulsant at high  $P_aCO_2$   
 central depressant effect at high  $P_aCO_2$  ( $>95$  mmHg, MAC=32%)

autonomic

increased sympathetic outflow  
 increased sensitivity to parasympathetic tone via  $\downarrow$  AChE activity in acidosis

respiratory control

hypercapnia detected at central chemoreceptor (80% of sustained response) in the ventral medulla and in peripheral chemoreceptors (rapid response)  
 hyperventilation up to  $P_aCO_2$  of 100-150 mmHg  
 pulmonary vasoconstriction (weaker effect than hypoxia)

cardiovascular

systemic vasodilation  
 $\uparrow$  contractility and heart rate via sympathetic action (direct depressant action)  
 arrhythmogenic  
 acidosis shifts Hb- $O_2$  dissociation curve to the right

renal

chronic hypercapnia results in renal compensation by retention of  $HCO_3^-$

endocrine

sympathetic response raises blood glucose and  $K^+$

Hypocapnia

low  $P_a\text{CO}_2$

mainly opposite effects to those of hypercapnia

alkalosis ( $\downarrow$  free  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ )

neurological

cerebral vasoconstriction:  $\downarrow$  ICP

$\uparrow$  neural excitability at low  $P_a\text{CO}_2$

respiratory

detected at central and peripheral chemoreceptors

reduced respiratory drive (dangerous in labour)

can produce apnoea in anaesthetized patients, but not usually when conscious

pulmonary vasodilation

cardiovascular

$\uparrow$  peripheral resistance

$\downarrow$  cardiac output

Hb- $\text{O}_2$  dissociation curve shifted to the left

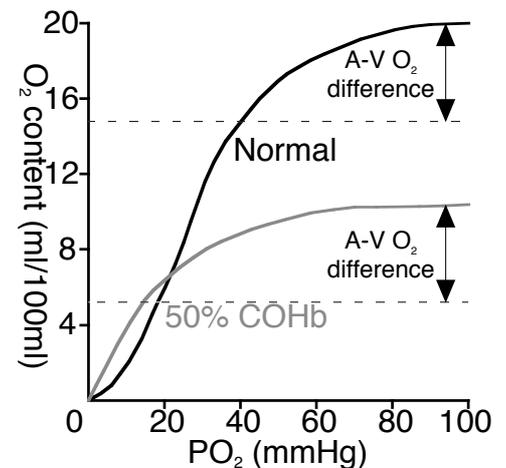
Carbon-monoxide (CO) poisoning

CO binds to haemoglobin (Hb) with approximately 270 times the affinity of oxygen under physiological conditions ( $P_{50}=0.1$  mmHg). It binds at the same site and in the same manner as  $\text{O}_2$ , so binding is cooperative with either CO or  $\text{O}_2$ : CO poisoning moves the Hb- $\text{O}_2$  dissociation curve to the left. The toxicity of CO is mediated by its reduction of the oxygen carrying capacity of blood by binding with Hb and by impairing tissue oxygenation through its effect on the Hb- $\text{O}_2$  dissociation curve.

The reduction in oxygen concentration at a given oxygen tension results in reduced oxygen delivery and tissue hypoxia if there is sufficient reduction in oxygen concentration. The  $P_a\text{O}_2$  is not reduced, but normal oxygen extraction results in a lower mixed venous  $\text{PO}_2$  and a lower tissue  $\text{PO}_2$ .

This reduction in oxygen carrying capacity causes hypoxaemia, and the physiological responses are given above.

CO poisoning can be reversed with removal of the source of CO, and hyperventilation with high  $\text{FiO}_2$  to accelerate dissociation of COHb. In the conscious patient, use of a raised  $\text{FiCO}_2$  is described as a method of increasing spontaneous ventilation.



**c. Explain the effects of the supine and erect postures on ventilatory function.**

Changing from erect to supine:

increased

diffusing capacity (due to reduced V/Q scatter)

decreased

FRC by 500-1000 ml, approaching closing capacity

anatomical dead space by 100-150 ml

physiological dead space by 5% (from 35% of  $V_T$  to 30%)

alveolar dead space (due to reduced V/Q scatter)

**d. Define humidity and give an outline of the importance of humidification.**

Absolute humidity

the mass of water vapour per unit volume of a gas.

Humidity at saturation

the maximum mass of water which can be present in a gas per unit volume at a

specified temperature.

Relative humidity

the ratio of absolute to saturation humidity at a specified temperature expressed as a percentage.

Air at 37° with a 100% relative humidity contains 44gm<sup>-3</sup> of water (SVP=47 mmHg)

Inspired gas is normally humidified in the nose and mouth before entering the lower respiratory tract. Inadequate humidification of inspired gas due to use of dry gas by mask or bypassing of the upper airway by intubation results in:

acute

- impaired ciliary and mucous belt function
- tenacious mucus, crusting of secretions
- increased airway resistance and reduced compliance
- heat loss by evaporation

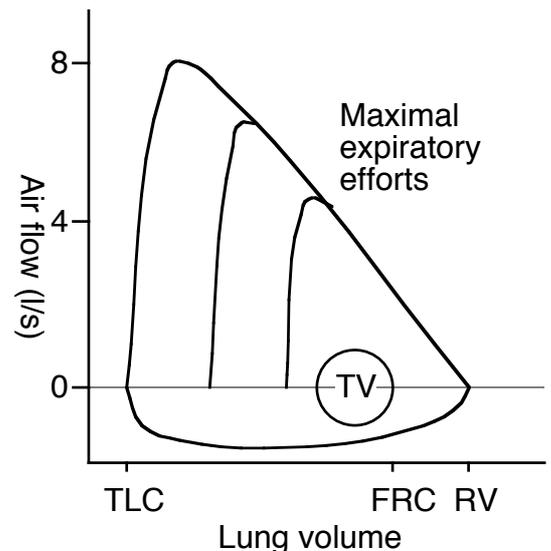
chronic

- squamous metaplasia
- ↓ FRC
- ↑ shunt
- impaired surfactant function
- atelectasis

**e. Explain the importance of the cough reflex and describe the relationship between lung volume and ability to cough.**

The cough reflex is the major mechanism for clearing the upper and lower airways of foreign material larger than can be carried by the mucociliary elevator. It is initiated by mechanical or chemical irritation of the airway. It consists of a deep inspiration to about  $\frac{2}{3}$  of  $V_T$  followed by tight closure of the glottis and contraction of expiratory muscles causing a rise in airway pressure often in excess of 100 mmHg, then a forceful expiration through upper airways narrowed by high transmural pressure, producing a high air velocity to dislodge foreign material.

The maximum expiratory flow rate and velocity which can be generated depends on both expiratory muscle strength and lung volume. With normal strength, it is limited by lung volume due to airway closure which makes expiratory flow effort independent as lung volume decreases.



**f. Explain the effects of general anaesthesia on respiratory function.**

Intraoperative

Control

- Altered patterns with depth of anaesthesia and agent used
- Hyperventilation in excitatory stage
- Depressed ventilation when deep
  - ↓ response to  $PCO_2$  with ↑ MAC value
  - abolished hypoxic response with minimal anaesthetic agent

in [Respiratory Control](#) (1.B.2)

Mechanics

- Supine position ↓ FRC
- Altered  $\dot{V}/Q$  matching with anaesthesia

- ↑ shunt, ↑ A-a gradient
- V<sub>D</sub> altered by position and instrumentation
- Gas exchange
  - Altered inspired gases or volatile agents
  - Second gas effect
- Defence mechanisms
  - Drying of mucosa, volatiles, tube cuff: ↓ ciliary function
- Postoperative
  - Immediate
    - Drug effects (above)
    - Diffusional hypoxia
    - ↑ O<sub>2</sub> requirement with shivering
  - Pain-related
    - ↓ FRC, ↓ VC most with upper abdominal surgery
    - Narcotic respiratory depression
    - Posture effects