

 Chapter 11
 心血管系統

 11-1
 心臓

 11-2
 血管

 11-3
 血流、血壓與阻力

 11-4
 血液容積

 11-5
 循環路徑



# Circulatory System Components

Cardiovascular system



- --Blood: a fluid that circulates around the body through blood vessels
- --Heart: four-chambered pump
- --Blood vessels: arteries, arterioles, capillaries, venules, and veins
- Lymphatic system
  - --Lymphatic vessels, lymphoid tissues, lymphatic organs (spleen, thymus, tonsils, lymph nodes)

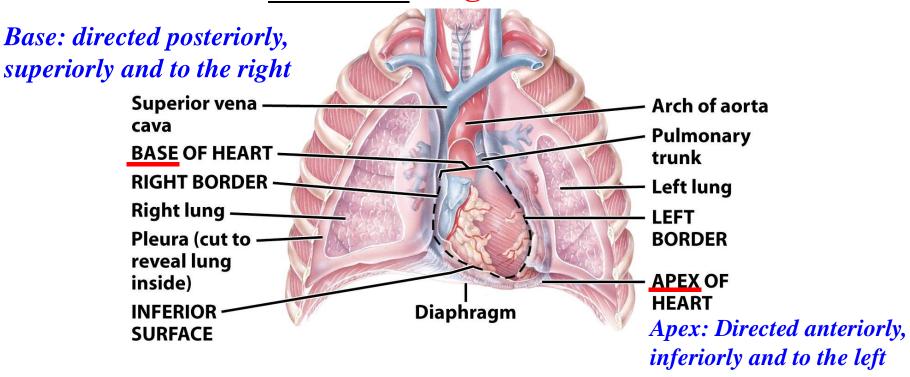
## **Heart Location**

> Located in thoracic cavity (between > Size of fist, weighs approximately 250–350 g (0.5% of BW), and the lungs in the mediastinum) just above the diaphragm surrounded by pericardium Right Left Aorta (to systemic Superior vena cava organs) (from upper body) Pulmonary trunk **Right lung** (to lungs) Left lung Heart -Pericardium Rib -**Diaphragm** 

**Abdominal cavity** 

# **Heart Orientation**

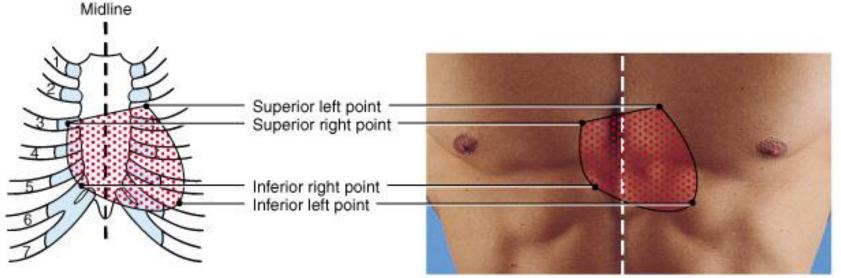
#### Heart has <u>2 surfaces</u>: Anterior and Inferior 2 borders: Right and Left



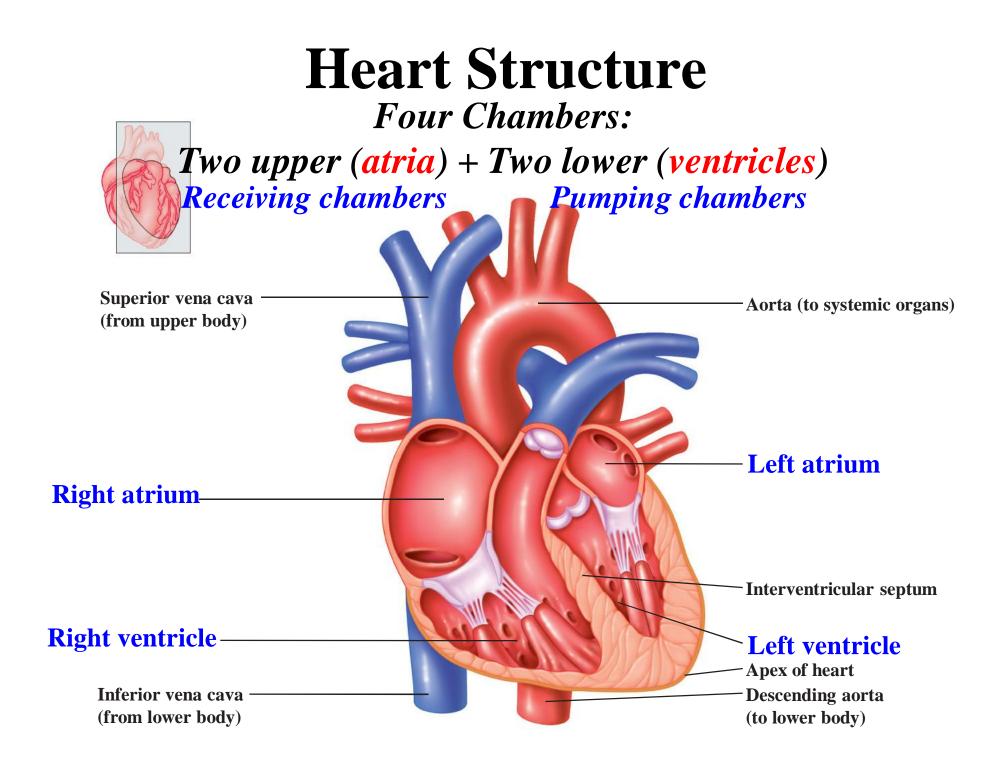
- Anterior surface deep to sternum and ribs
- Inferior surface between apex and right border
- Right border faces right lung
- Left border (pulmonary border) faces left lung

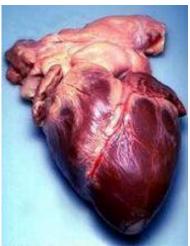
# **Surface Projection of the Heart**

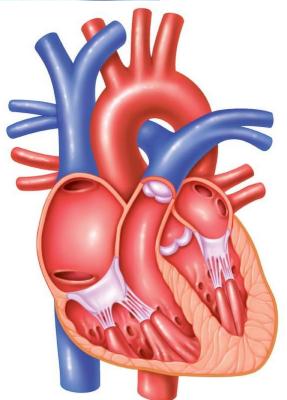
~ 2/3 of mass to the left of the midline



- Superior right point at the superior border of the <u>3rd right</u> costal cartilage
- Superior left point at the inferior border of the <u>2<sup>nd</sup> left costal</u> cartilage, 3 cm to the left of midline
- Inferior left point at the <u>5<sup>th</sup> intercostal space</u>, 9 cm from the midline
- Inferior right point at superior border of the <u>6<sup>th</sup> right costal</u> <u>cartilage</u>, 3 cm from the midline





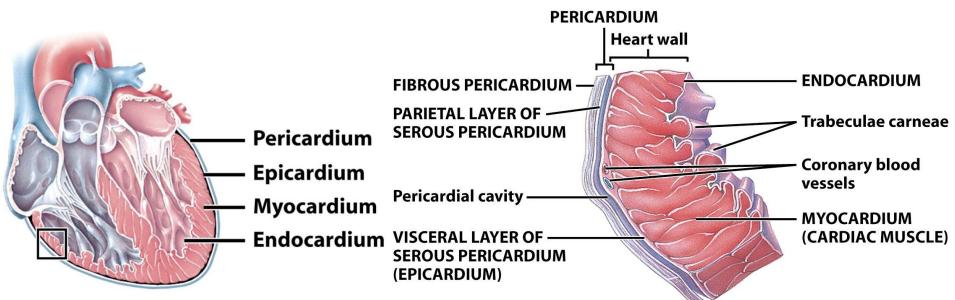


# **Heart Structure**

### • Functional heart

- --Left heart: atrium and ventricle in the left side of heart
- --Right heart: atrium and ventricle in the right side of heart
- Septum: left heart and right heart are separated by a wall
  - --Interatrial septum
  - --Interventricular septum
- **Base:** wider upper pole (end) of heart (top)
- Apex: narrower lower pole (bottom)

# **Tissue Layers of Heart Wall**



The wall of the heart has three layers: *Epicardium*, *Myocardium* (95%), and *Endocardium* 

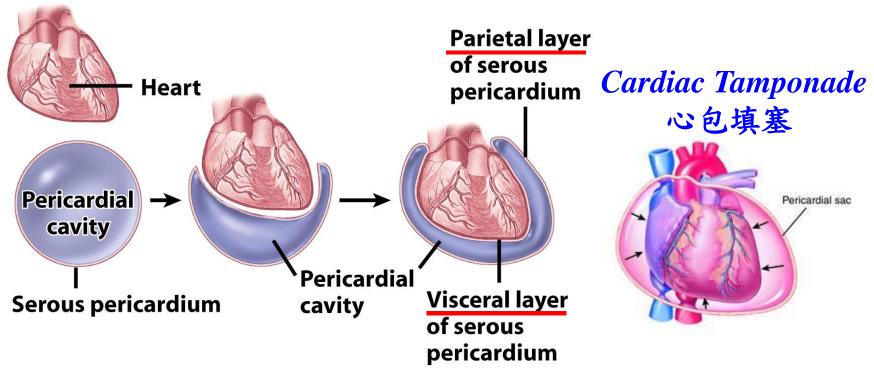
#### **\*** Pericardium 2 main parts: *Fibrous* and *Serous pericardium*

- --Fibrous pericardium: tough, inelastic, dense irregular connective tissue prevents overstretching, protection, anchorage
- --Serous pericardium: thinner, more delicate membrane double layer (parietal layer fused to fibrous pericardium, visceral layer also called epicardium)

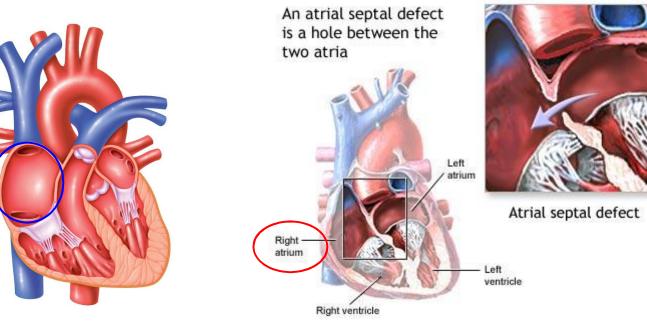
--Pericardial fluid reduces friction - secreted into pericardial cavity

8

# **Pericardium and Heart Wall**



- \**Pericarditis* is an inflammation of the pericardium
- *Endocarditis* is an inflammation of the endocardium (usually involves the heart valves)
- Associated bleeding into the pericardial cavity compresses the heart (*cardiac tamponade*) and is potentially lethal



Right Atrium (RA)

Receives blood from 3 sources

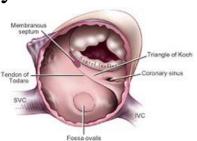
--Superior vena cava, inferior vena cava and coronary sinus

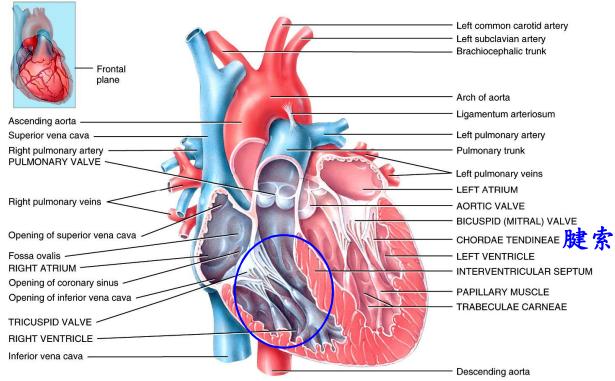
Interatrial septum has Fossa ovalis

--A remnant of the fetal foramen ovale

- Tricuspid valve (right atrioventricular valve)
  - --Blood flows through into right ventricle

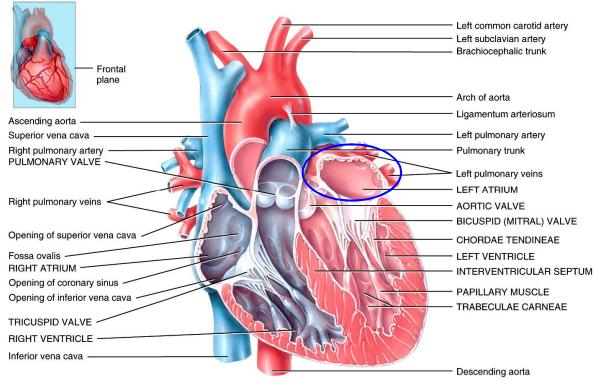
--Three cusps composed of dense CT covered by endocardium





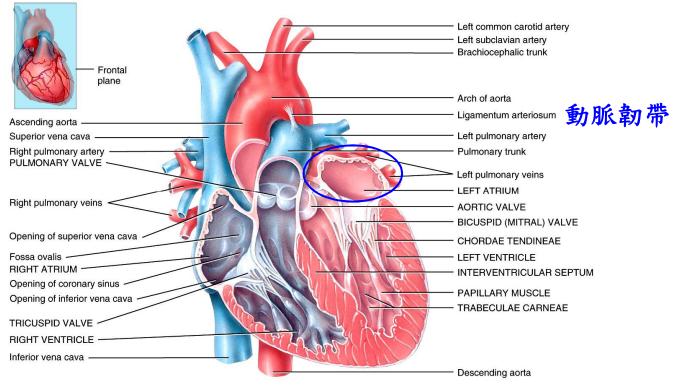
#### Right Ventricle (RV)

- Forms most of anterior surface of heart
- Papillary muscles are cone shaped trabeculae carneae (raised bundles of cardiac muscle)
- **Chordae tendineae**: cords between valve cusps and papillary muscles
- **\* Interventricular septum**: partitions ventricles
- Pulmonary semilunar valve: blood flows into pulmonary trunk
  <sup>11</sup>



#### Left Atrium (LA)

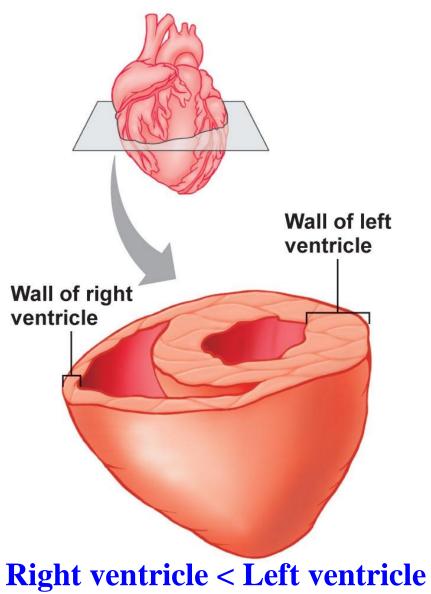
- Forms most of the base of the heart
- Receives blood from lungs 4 pulmonary veins (2 right + 2 left)
- Bicuspid valve: blood passes through into <u>left ventricle</u>
   --Two cusps= Mitral valve= Left Atrioventricular valve



#### Left Ventricle (LV)

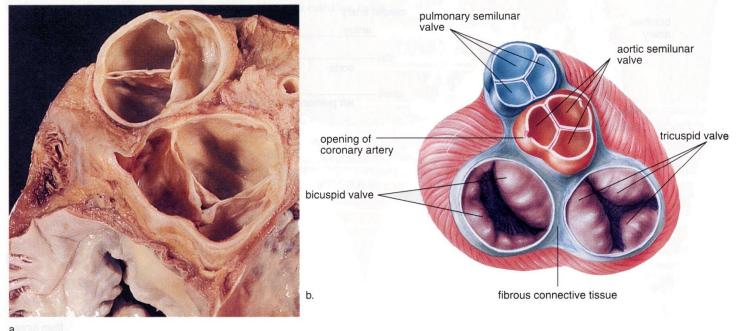
- Forms the apex of heart (thickest chamber)
- Chordae tendineae anchor <u>bicuspid valve</u> to papillary muscles
- Blood passes through aortic valve (aortic semilunar valve) into ascending aorta; some blood flows into coronary arteries, remainder to body
- During fetal life ductus arteriosus shunts blood from pulmonary trunk to aorta (lung bypass) closes after birth with remnant called ligamentum arteriosum

## **Myocardial Thickness and Function**



- Thickness of myocardium varies according to the function of the chamber
- Atria are thin walled, deliver blood to <u>adjacent</u> <u>ventricles</u>
- Ventricle walls are thicker because they pump blood greater distances
  - --Right ventricle supplies blood to the lungs (little flow resistance)
  - --Left ventricle wall is the thickest to supply systemic circulation 14

### **Heart Valves**



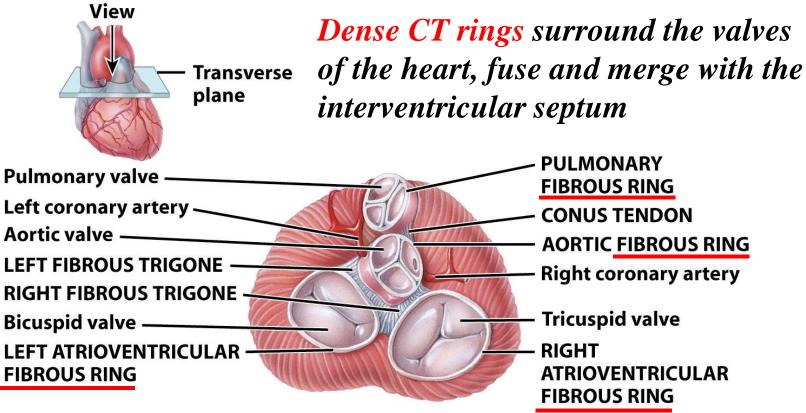
#### Four valves (2 atrioventricular & 2 semilunar)

Valves open and close in response to pressure changes as the heart contracts and relaxes (valves prevent backward flow of blood)

#### Heart valves disorders

- **Stenosis** is a narrowing of a heart valve which restricts blood flow
- Insufficiency or incompetence is a failure of a valve to close completely
- Stenosed valves may be repaired by balloon valvuloplasty, surgical repair, or valve replacement

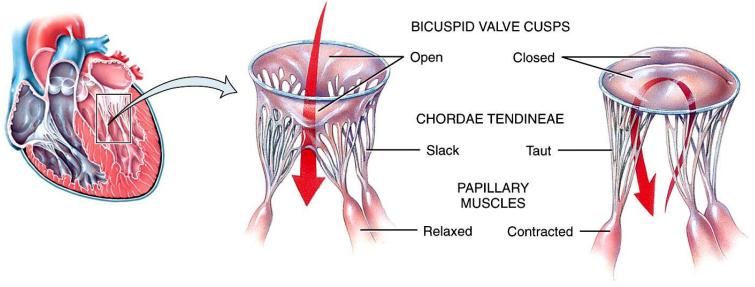
# **Fibrous Skeleton of Heart**



Support structure for heart valves

- Insertion point for cardiac muscle bundles
- Electrical insulator between atria and ventricles
  - --prevents direct propagation of AP's to ventricles<sub>16</sub>

# Action of AV Valve



(a) Bicuspid valve open

(b) Bicuspid valve closed

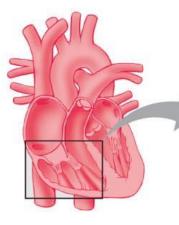
#### AV valves open

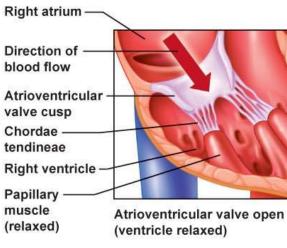
- AV valves open and allow blood to flow from atria into ventricles when ventricular pressure is lower than atrial pressure
  - --Occurs when ventricles are relaxed, <u>chordae tendineae are</u> <u>slack</u> and papillary muscles are relaxed

### AV valves close

- AV valves close preventing backflow of blood into atria
  - --Occurs when ventricles contract, pushing valve cusps closed, <u>chordae tendinae are pulled taut</u> and papillary muscles contract to pull cords and prevents regurgitation 17

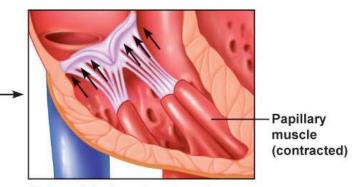
## Action of AV Valve





(a) When the ventricles are relaxed, blood enters the atria, pushing the atrioventricular valve cusps down into the ventricles, opening the valves.

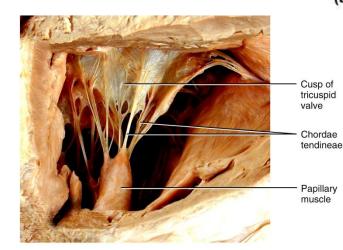
Atria Contracts
Ventricle Relaxed



Atrioventricular valve closed (ventricle contracted)

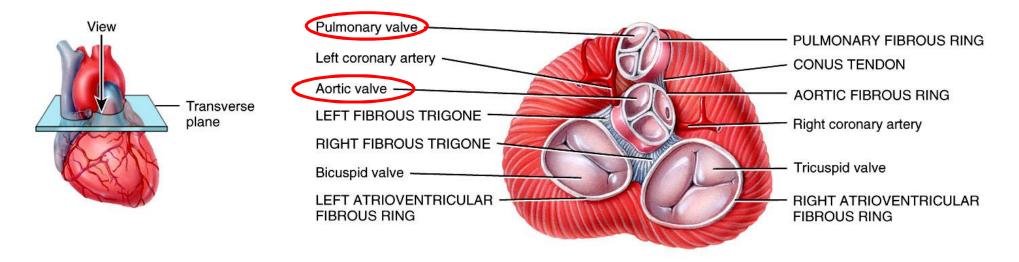
(b) When the ventricles contract, blood presses up against the atrioventricular valve cusps, forcing the valves closed. Contraction of the papillary muscles tightens the chordae tendineae, preventing the valve cusps from being pushed into the atria.

Atria Relaxed
Ventricle Contracts



(c) Tricuspid valve open

# **Action of Semilunar Valve**

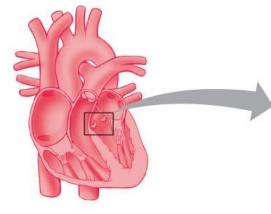


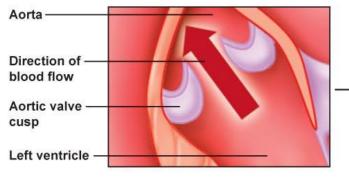
Superior view (the atria have been removed)

#### **Semilunar valves**

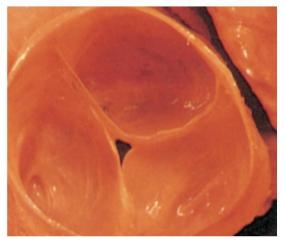
- SL valves open with ventricular contraction
  - --Allow blood to flow into pulmonary trunk and aorta
- SL valves **close** with ventricular **relaxation** 
  - --Prevents blood from returning to ventricles, blood fills valve cusps, tightly closing the SL valves

## **Action of Semilunar Valve**





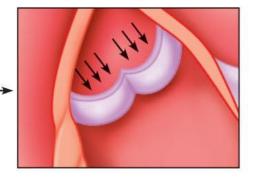
Aortic semilunar valve open (ventricle contracted)



Valve almost completely closed

(a) When the ventricles contract, blood presses up against the semilunar valve cusps, forcing the valves open and allowing blood to flow into the aorta and pulmonary artery.

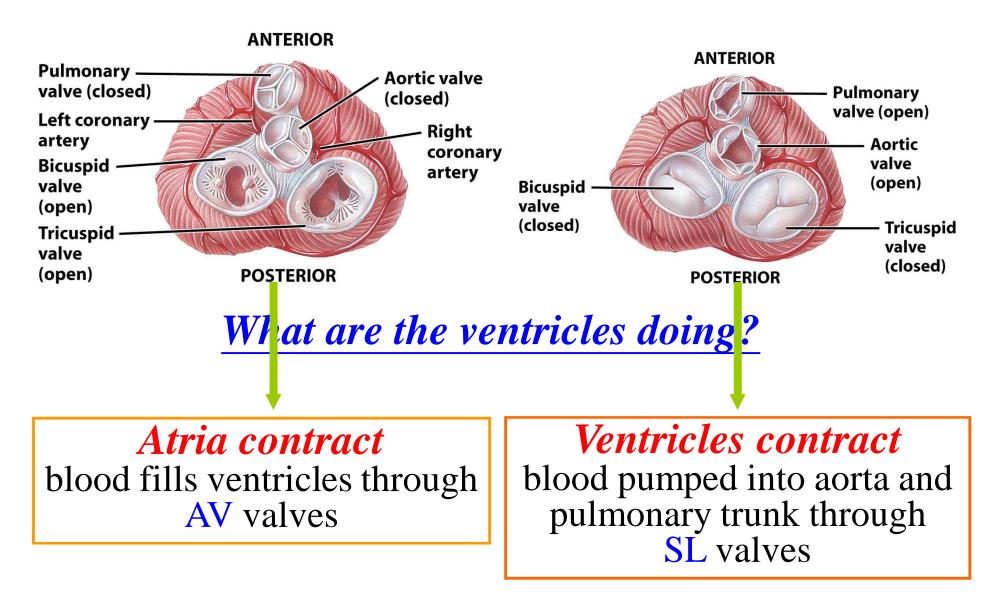
Ventricle Contracts



Aortic semilunar valve closed (ventricle relaxed)

(b) When the ventricles relax, blood in the aorta and pulmonary artery presses down against the valve cusps, forcing them to close.

#### > Ventricle Relaxed



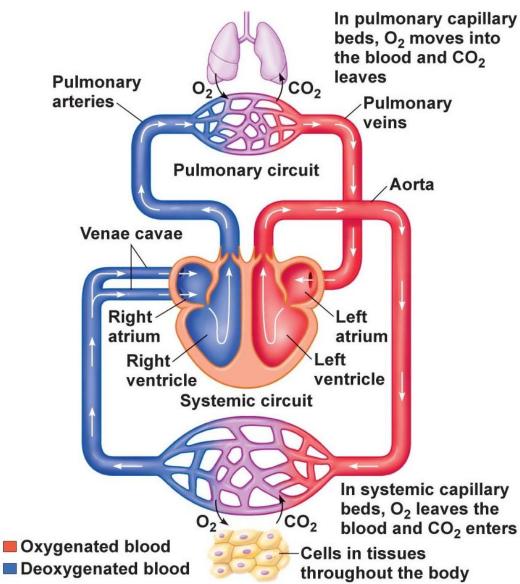
### **Heart Valves**

#### **Right Side**

#### Left Side

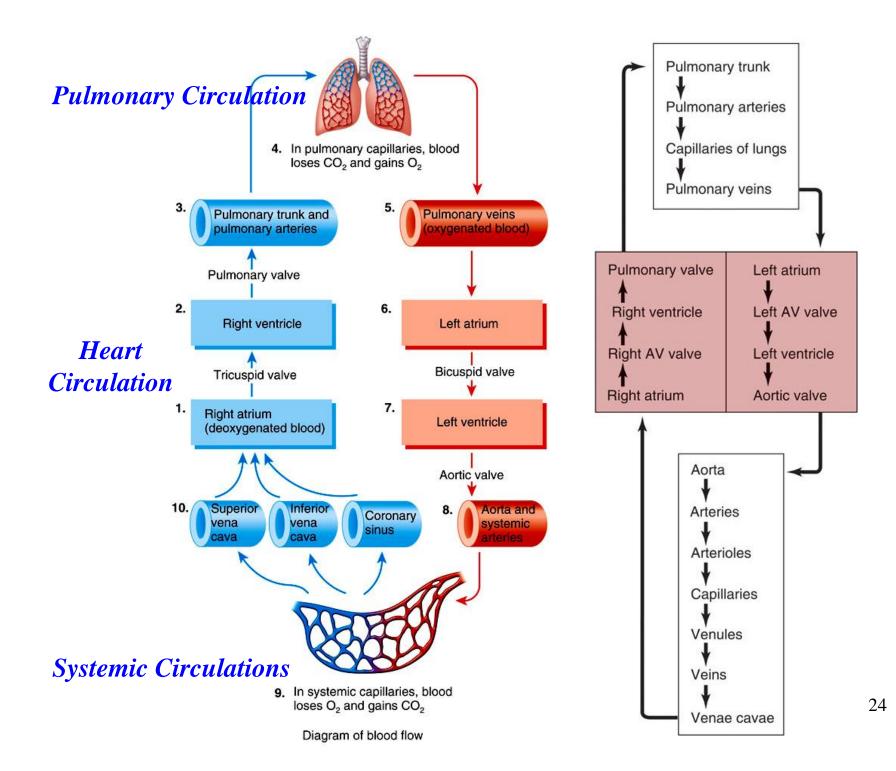
Valve	Location	Function	Valve	Location	Function
Tricuspid valve	Right atrioventricular valve	Prevents blood from moving from right ventricle into right atrium during ventricular contraction	Bicuspid (mitral) valve	Left atrioventricular valve	Prevents blood from moving from left ventricle into left atrium
Pulmonary semilunar valve	Entrance to pulmonary trunk	Prevents blood from moving from pulmonary trunk into right ventricle during ventricular relaxation	Aortic semilunar valve	Entrance to aorta	Prevents blood from moving from aorta into left ventricle

### **Pathway of Blood Flow**

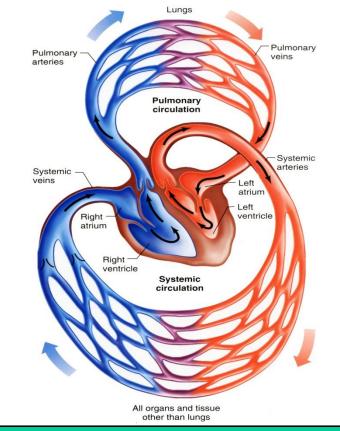


- Cardiovascular system
   = closed system
- Flow through systemic and pulmonary circuits is in series
- Left ventricle → aorta

   → systemic circuit →
   vena cava → right
   atrium → right
   ventricle → pulmonary
   artery → pulmonary
   circuit → pulmonary
   veins → left atrium →
   left ventricle



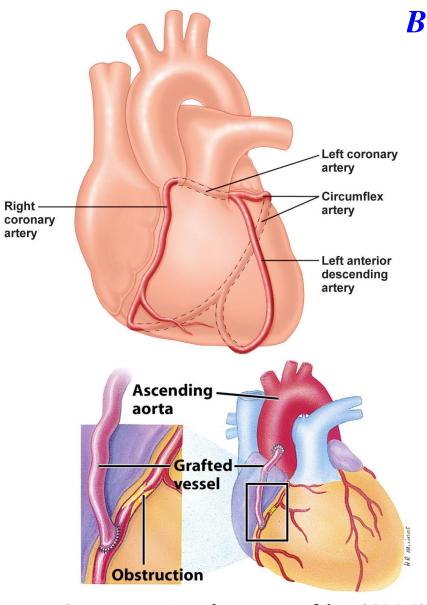
### **Systemic & Pulmonary Circulations**



Organ	Flow at rest ml/min	
Brain	650 (13%)	
Heart	215 (4%)	
Skeletal muscle	1030 (20%)	
Skin	430 (9%)	
Kidneys	950 (20%)	
Abdominal organs	1200 (24%)	
Other	525 (10%)	
Total	5000 (100%)	

	起源	動脈	動脈氧含量	靜脈 ;	靜脈氧含量	終點			
肺循環	右心室	肺動脈	低	肺靜脈	高	左心房			
體循環	左心室	主動脈和	高	上、下腔靜脈利	山 低	右心房			
		它的分支		它的分支		25			
25 *冠狀動脈循環的血液不進入腔靜脈,而是直接由冠狀竇(coronary sinus)回到右心房									

## **Coronary Circulation**



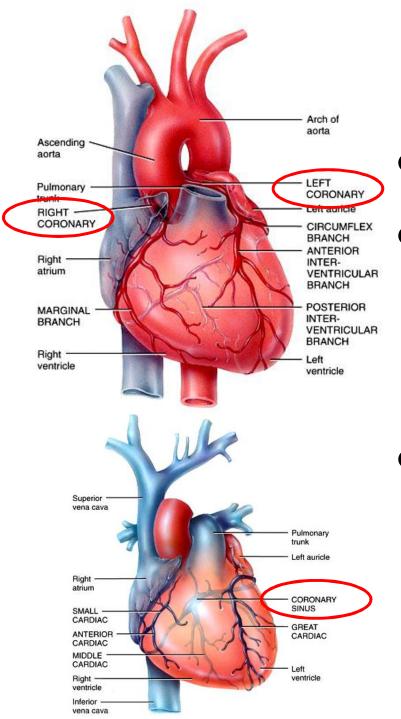
Coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG)

#### Blood flow: 4-5% of cardiac output (200-250 ml/min)

- Myocardium has its own network of blood vessels (blood in chambers does not supply nutrients to cardiac cells)
- Coronary arteries branch from ascending aorta
  - --Anastomoses provide alternate routes or collateral circuits
  - --Allows heart muscle to receive sufficient oxygen even if an artery is partially blocked
- Coronary capillaries

#### • Coronary veins

--Collects in coronary sinus--Empties into right atrium

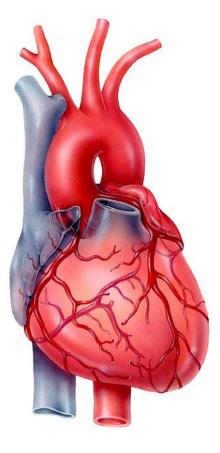


# **Coronary Artery**

- Branches off aorta above aortic semilunar valve
- Left coronary artery
   --Circumflex branch
  - In coronary sulcus, supplies left atrium and left ventricle
  - --Anterior interventricular art.
    - Supplies both ventricles
- Right coronary artery
  - --Marginal branch
    - In coronary sulcus, supplies right ventricle
  - --Posterior interventricular art. Supplies both ventricles

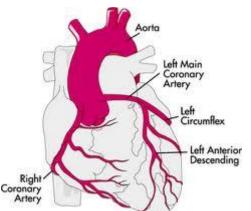
## **Coronary Artery**

### SCHEME OF DISTRIBUTION Ascending aorta Right coronary artery Posterior interventricular branch Marginal branch Marginal



# Characteristics of Coronary Circulation

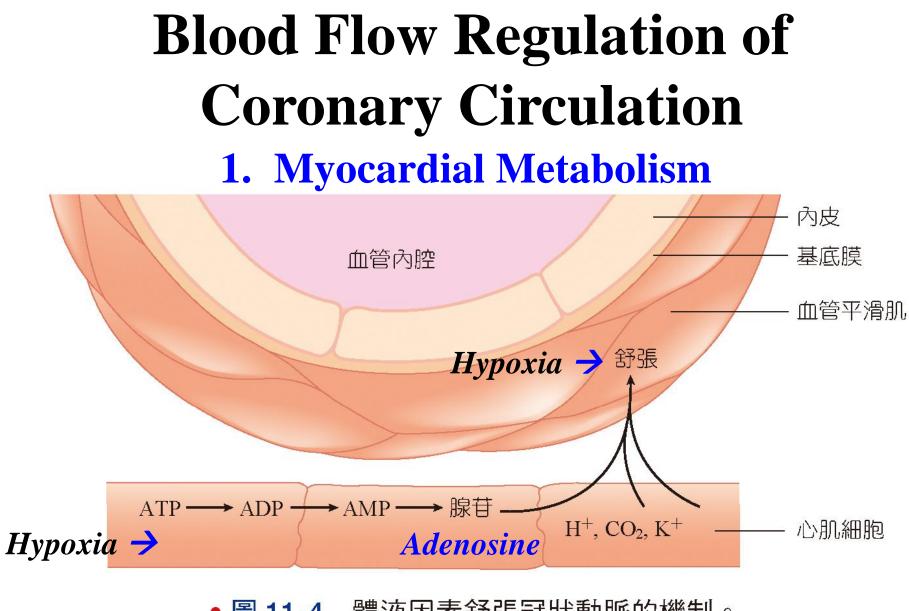
The path is *shorter* and *faster* blood flow



- *High* blood pressure and blood volume
- *High* arteriovenous oxygenated blood difference and oxygen uptake rate
- Blood supply mainly in *diastolic period*

### 1. Myocardial metabolism

- --心肌收縮的能量主要來源於<u>有氧代謝</u>,心肌耗氧量 大,安靜時每百克心肌的耗氧量為7~9 ml/min。
- --在運動或精神緊張等情況下,心肌自身代謝明顯增 加,耗氧量增加,冠狀血管舒張,冠狀血管流量增 加,增至原來血流量的5倍(Autoregulation)。
- --<u>擴張冠狀血管</u>的主要物質是心肌代謝產物,其中最 重要物質是**腺苷(adenosine)**。
- --當<u>心肌代謝增強和局部缺氧</u>時,心肌細胞中的 ATP 分解供能,其產物 AMP 在**5'-nucleotidase**作用下生 成adenosine。



• 圖 11-4 體液因素舒張冠狀動脈的機制。

### 2. Neuronal Regulation

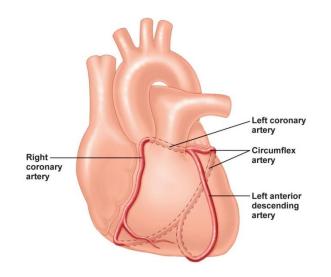
--冠狀動脈受交感神經和迷走神經雙重支配。

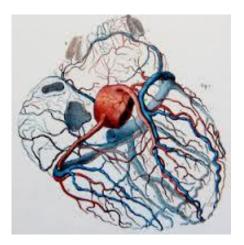
- --刺激交感神經,可使冠狀動脈先收縮(α-receptor)後 舒張(β-receptor),使心肌活動加強、耗氧量增加、 代謝加速、代謝產物增多造成的繼發性反應。
- --血管收縮作用往往被強大的繼發性血管舒張作用所 掩蓋,因此交感神經興奮常引起冠狀動脈舒張。
- --<u>迷走神經</u>對冠狀動脈的直接作用是**舒張冠狀動脈**, 給予冠狀動脈內灌注 ACh 會使冠狀動脈舒張。

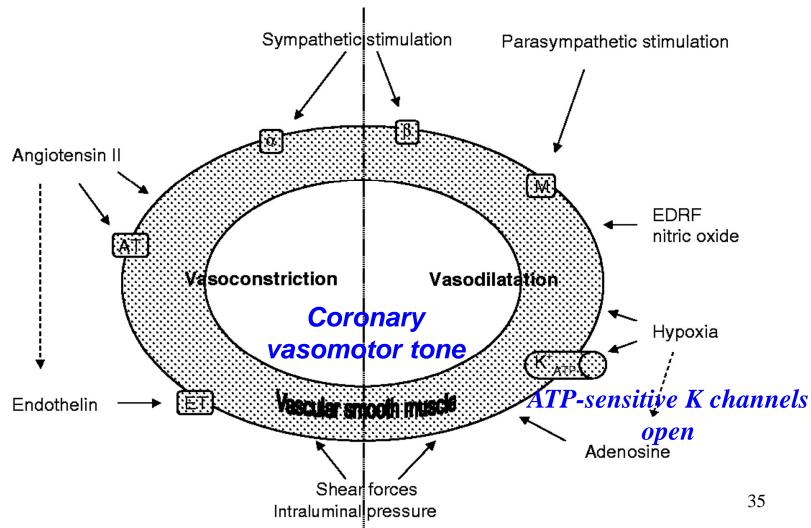
- **3. Humoral Regulation** 
  - --**Epinephrine**和**norepinephrine**可透過<u>增強</u>心肌 代謝活動和耗氧量使冠狀血管血流量增加。
  - --<u>直接作用</u>於冠狀血管的α-或β-receptor,引起 冠狀血管收縮或舒張。
  - --**Thyroxine**增多時,心肌代謝加強,耗氧量增加,<u>冠狀動脈舒張</u>,冠狀血管血流量增加。
  - --**Vasopressin**和**angiotensin II** 能使<u>冠狀動脈收</u> <u>縮</u>,冠狀血管血流量減少。

### 4. Vascular Endothelium

- --Vasorelaxants: nitric oxide, prostacyclin and bradykinin.
- --Vasoconstrictors: endothelin and thromboxane A2



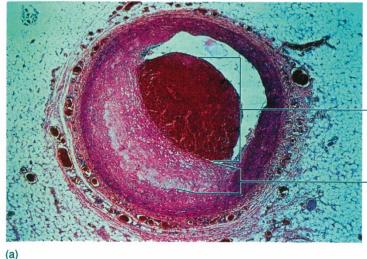




# **Coronary Artery Disease (CAD)**

血栓

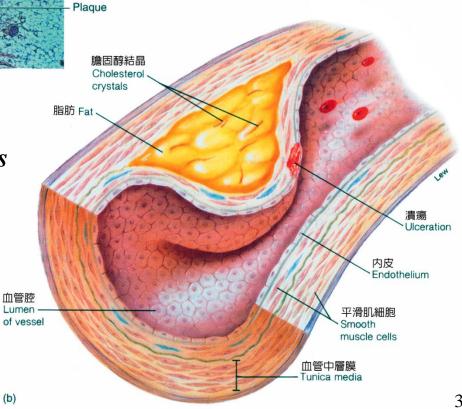
斑



**Risk factors:** 

✓ High blood cholesterol levels ✓ High blood pressure ✓ Diabetes ✓ Obesity ✓ Cigarette smoking ✓ "Type A" personality ✓ Sedentary lifestyle

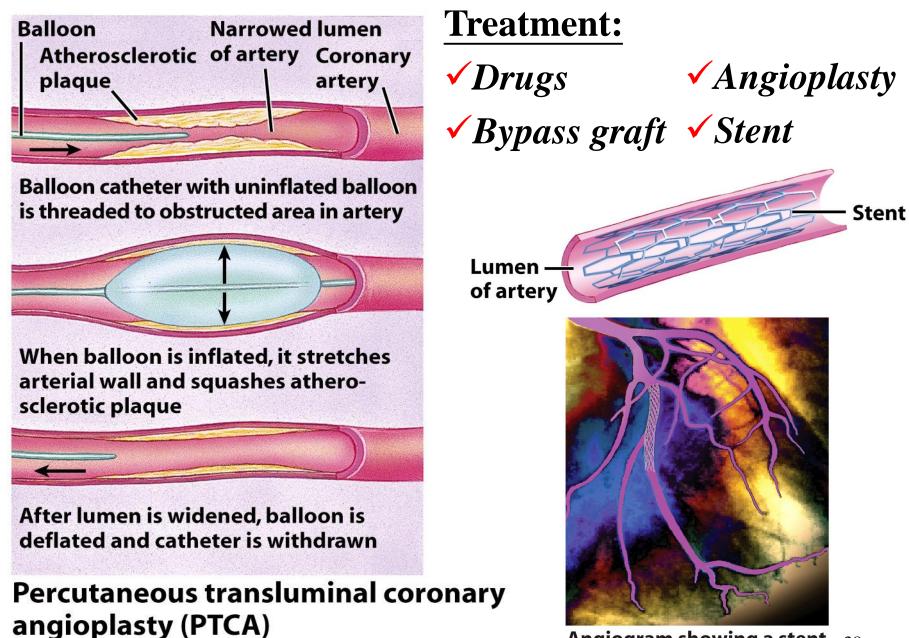
**Atherosclerosis** Coronary artery spasm, or Thrombus *A clot* in a coronary artery



## Myocardial Ischemia and Infarction (MI)

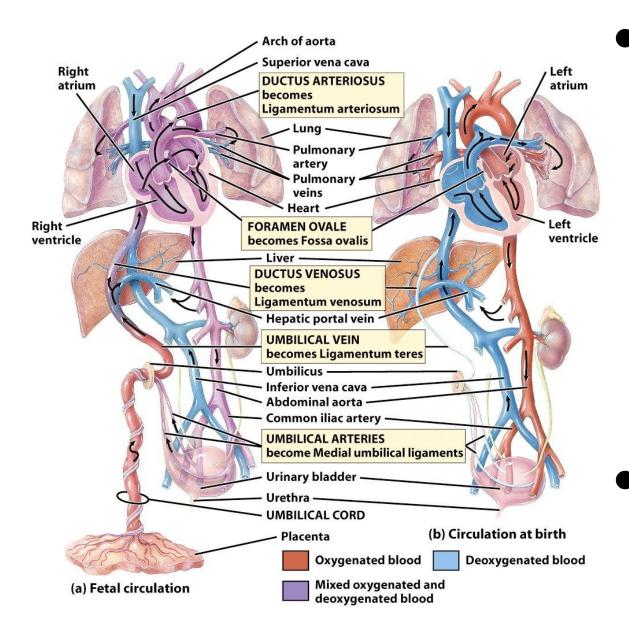
- <u>Reduced blood flow</u> through coronary arteries may cause **ischemia**. Ischemia causes **hypoxia** and may weaken the myocardial cells.
- Ischemia is often manifested through **angina pectoris**.
  - --A complete obstruction of flow in a coronary artery may cause **myocardial infarction (heart attack).**
  - --Tissue distal to the obstruction dies and is replaced by <u>scar tissue</u>.
  - --Treatment may involve injection of **thrombolytic agents**, **coronary angioplasty**, or **coronary artery bypass grafts**.



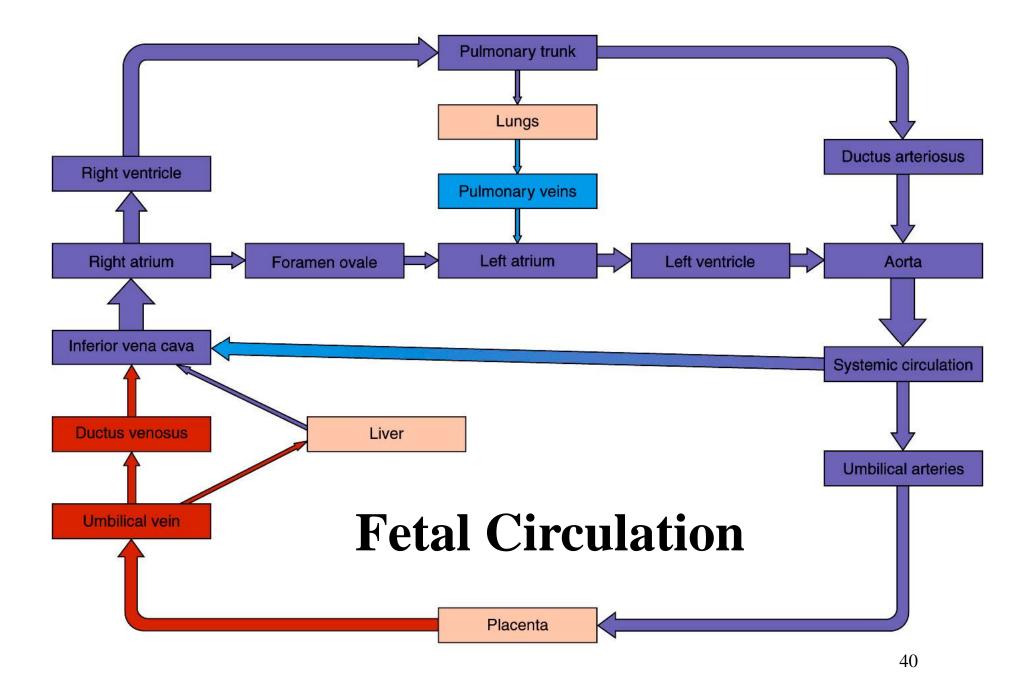


Angiogram showing a stent 38 in the circumflex artery

### **Fetal Circulation**

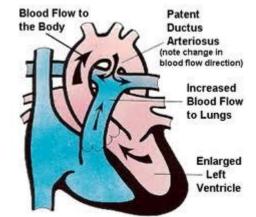


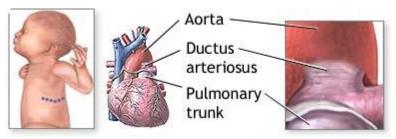
● 胎盤(充氧血)-臍靜 脈-肝門脈入肝&肝 靜脈出肝/或(約一半 血量)經由靜脈導管-匯入下腔靜脈(與缺氧) 血混合)-右心房 1. 卵圓孔-左心房-左 心室-主動脈 2. 右心室一肺動脈一供 給胎兒肺臟/或經動脈 導管進入主動脈共應 全身 ▶ 回胎盤之路線為:下 大動脈-總跨動脈 (CIA)一內跨動脈(IIA) 一 臍動脈 39

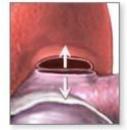


#### **Clinical Application: Patent Ductus Arteriosus**

- 出生時在動脈導管方面首先出現暫時的 血液逆流,接著<u>降低前列腺素濃</u>度誘使 其管壁<u>平滑肌收縮(</u>出生後4到10天內閉 合)。
- 若動脈導管未在出生後閉合,產生開放 性動脈導管(patent ductus arteriosus, PDA)。因左右心岔道會導致充氧血(主 動脈)與缺氧血(肺動脈)混合,造成肺循 環高血壓、心雜音、低血氧飽和度及心 律不整等症。
- 過高前列腺素濃度是PDA可能成因之一
   據統計唐氏兒中有PDA情形者約佔
   40%。
- ●處理方式可由內科注射藥物 Indomethacin (NSAID)、導管動脈栓塞 術(TAE)或外科手術結紮等。







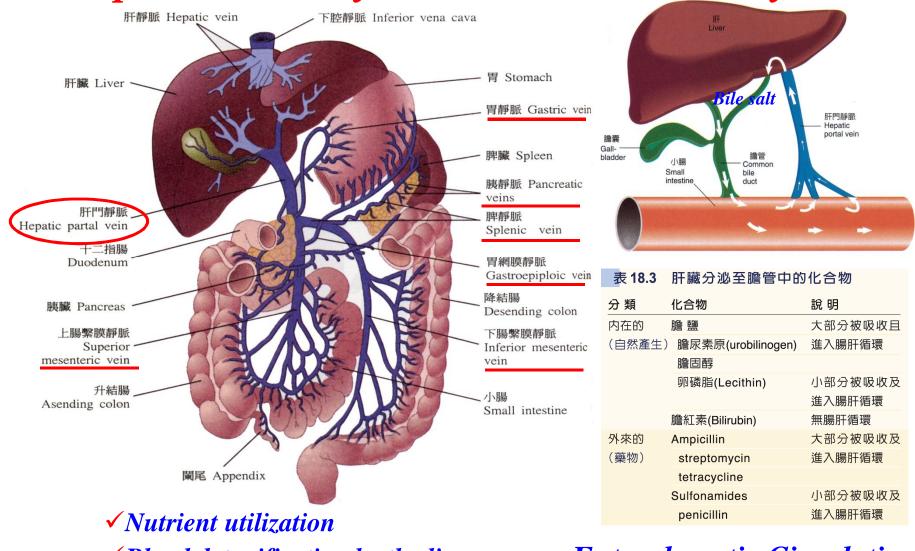
The aorta and pulmonary trunk are separated



The open ends are closed

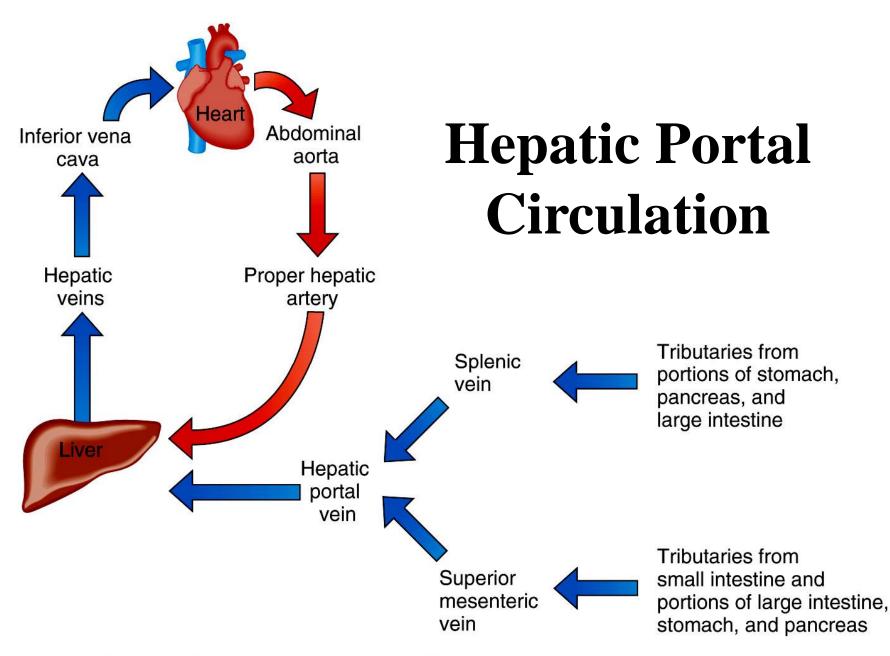
### **Hepatic Portal Circulation**

#### Hepatic Portal System= Portal Venous System



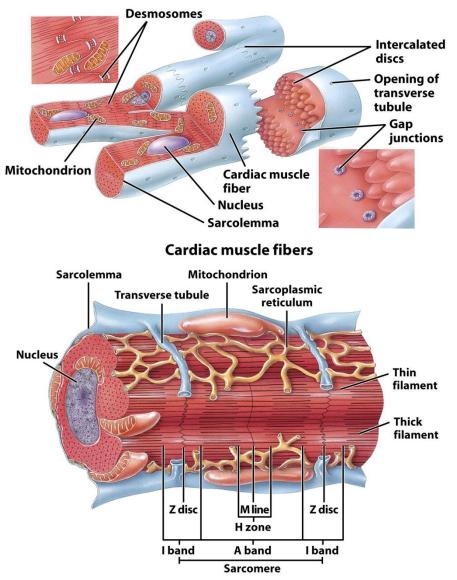
✓ Blood detoxification by the liver

**Enterohepatic Circulation** 



(b) Scheme of principal blood vessels of hepatic portal circulation and arterial supply and venous drainage of liver

## **Histology of Cardiac Muscle**



Arrangement of components in a cardiac muscle fiber

- Compared to skeletal muscle fibers, cardiac muscle fibers are <u>shorter in</u> <u>length</u>, <u>larger in diameter</u>, and <u>squarish</u> rather than circular in transverse section
- They also exhibit branching and usually <u>one centrally located</u> <u>nucleus</u>
- Fibers within the networks are connected by *intercalated discs: desmosomes* (hold fibers together)+ *gap junctions* (action potential)
- The same arrangement of actin and myosin as skeletal muscles
- They do have <u>less sarcoplasmic</u> reticulum than skeletal muscles and require Ca<sup>+2</sup> from ECF for contraction

## **Properties of Cardiac Muscle**

#### Intercalated disks

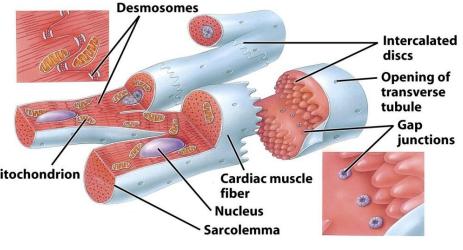
--Gap junctions (*cause heart to contract as a unit*)

--Desmosomes (*resist stress*)

- •Atria and ventricles
  - --Separate units
- Aerobic muscle
- No cell division after Mitochondrion

infancy—growth by

hypertrophy



**Cardiac muscle fibers** 

1. 99% Contractile cells (for pumping)

2. 1% Autorhythmic cells (set pace)

### **Cardiac Muscle Cell**

比較項目	心肌細胞	工作細胞 <i>Contractile cells</i>	自律性細胞 Autorhythmic cells	
組織細胞		心室肌 心房肌	竇房結(節律點細胞、過渡細胞)→ 房室結(房結區、結區、結希區)→ 房室束→左、右束分支→浦金氏纖維	
生理學特性	興奮性	有	有	
	自律性	無	有(結區、過渡細胞除外)	
	傳導性	有	有	
	收縮性	有	無	
組織學特徵	肌原纖維	豐富	缺少或無	
	屬性	心肌細胞	節律點細胞、浦金氏細胞	

## **Autorhythmic Cells**

- Autorhythmicity is the ability to generate own rhythm
- Autorhythmic cells: provide a pathway for spreading excitation through the heart (*conduction system= electrical activity*)
  - --<u>Specialized</u> cardiac muscle fibers
  - --<u>Self-excitable</u>
  - --<u>Repeatedly</u> generate action potentials that trigger heart contractions
  - --2 important functions
    - 1.Act as *pacemaker*
    - 2.Form *conduction system*
- Recording the electrical activity of the heart with an electrocardiogram (ECG)

## **Conducting System of Heart**

#### • Two types of autorhythmic cells

#### 1. Pacemaker cells

- --<u>Spontaneously depolarizing</u> membrane potentials to generate action potentials
- --Coordinate and provide heart rhythm
- --Sinoatrial node (Pacemaker)+Atrioventricular node
- **2. Conduction fibers** 
  - --<u>Rapidly conduct</u> action potentials initiated by pacemaker cells to myocardium
  - --Conduction velocity = 4 meters/second
  - --Ordinary muscle fibers, CV = 0.4 meter/second
  - --Internodal pathways+Bundle of His+Purkinje fibers

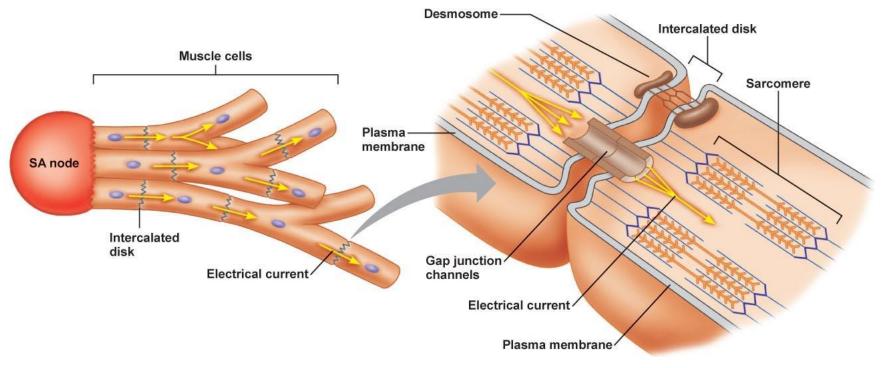
## **Autorhythmic Cells**

Location	Firing Rate at Rest
SA node	70–80 APs/min*
AV node	40–60 APs/min
<b>Bundle of His</b>	<b>20–40 APs/min</b>
Purkinje fibers	20–40 APs/min

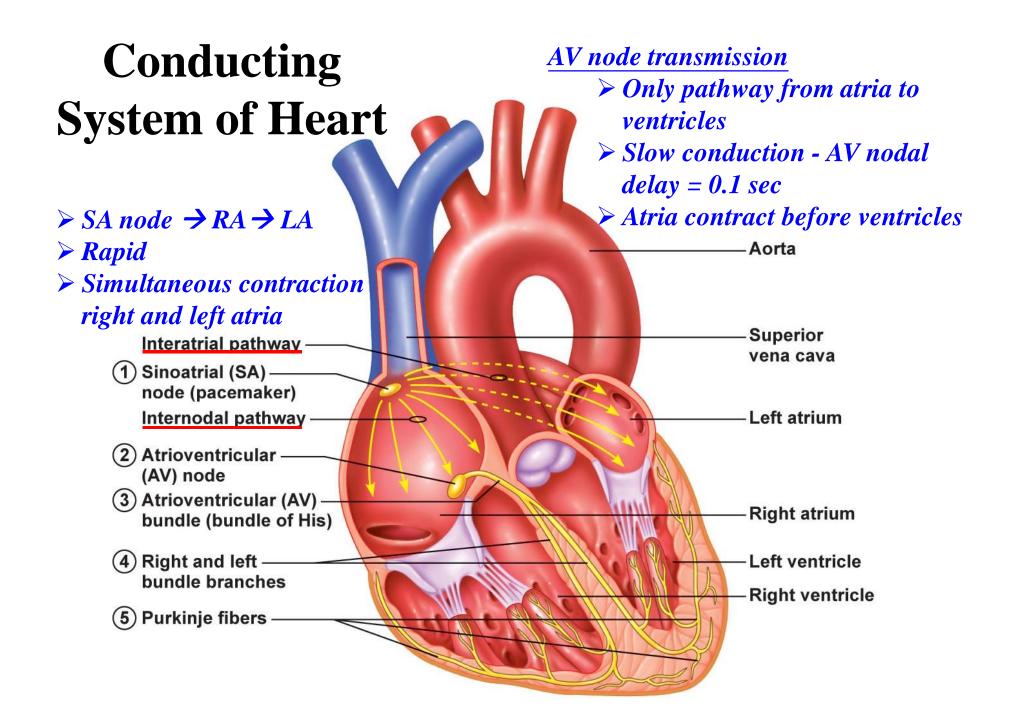
Cardiac cells are linked by gap junctions
 Fastest depolarizing cells control other cells
 Fastest cells = pacemaker = set rate for rest of heart

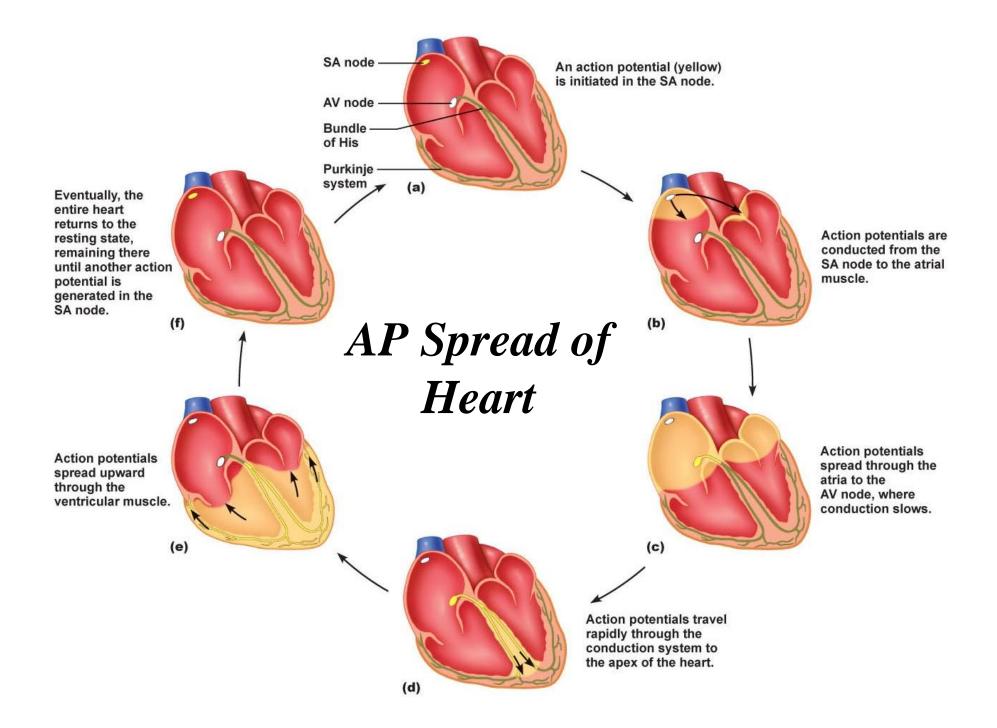
\* Action potentials per minute

## **Cardiac Electrical Connections**

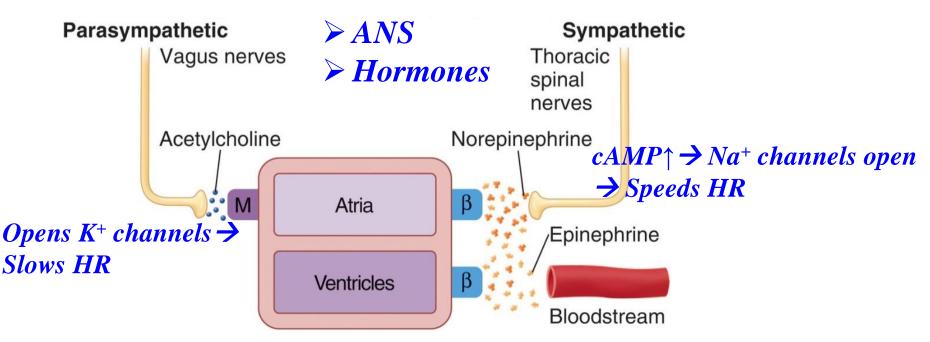


- > Atria contract, then followed by ventricles
- Coordination due to presence of *gap junctions* and *conduction pathways*
- Intercalated disks (Junctions between adjacent myocardial cells): *Desmosomes* to resist mechanical stress + *Gap junctions* for electrical coupling





## **Rhythm of Conduction System**



♦ SA node fires spontaneously 90-100 times per minute

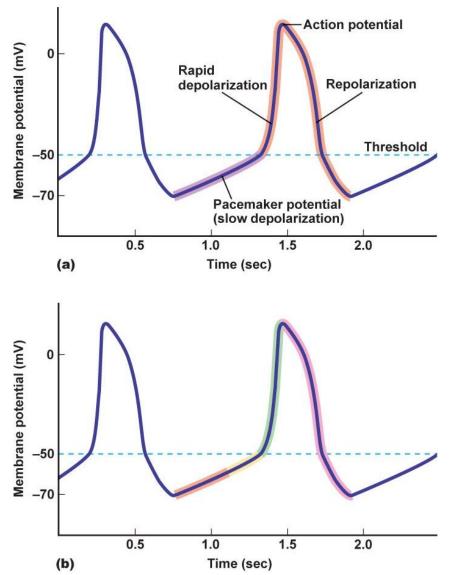
♦ AV node fires at 40-50 times per minute

\*Artificial pacemaker needed if pace is too slow

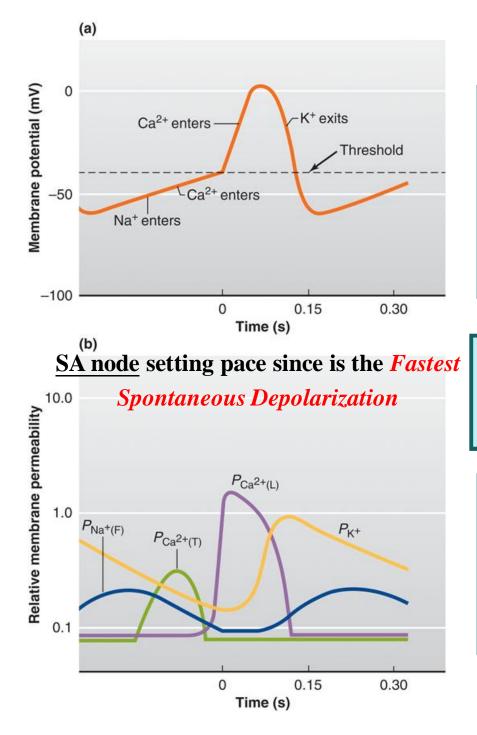
Extra beats forming at other sites are called *ectopic* pacemakers

--Caffeine & nicotine increase activity

#### Ionic Basis of Electrical Activity in Pacemaker Cell



- Autorhythmic cells (SA nodes) have <u>pacemaker potentials</u>
- Pacemaker potentials (slow depolarization): <u>closing K<sup>+</sup></u> channels and opening Na<sup>+</sup> channels (*orange*)+ <u>closing Na<sup>+</sup></u> channels and opening Ca<sup>++</sup> channels (yellow)
- Rapid depolarization phase of AP: more opening Ca<sup>++</sup> channels (green)
- Repolarization phase: <u>closing</u> <u>Ca<sup>++</sup> channels and opening K<sup>+</sup></u> <u>channels</u> (*pink*)



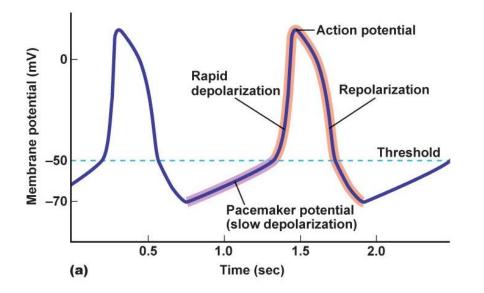
Sodium ions "leaking" in through the F-type [funny] channels PLUS Calcium ions moving in through the *T-type* Ca channels cause a threshold slow depolarization

The rapid opening of **voltage-gated calcium channels** (*L-type*) is responsible for the **rapid depolarization phase** 

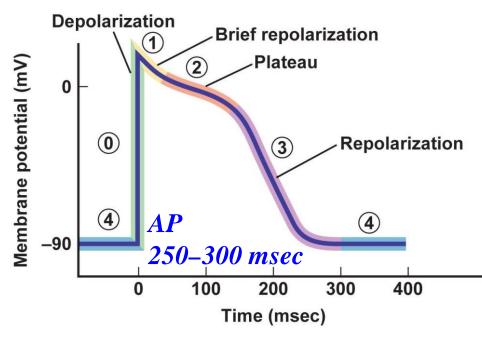
Reopening of potassium channels PLUS Closing of calcium channels are responsible for the repolarization phase

## Ionic Basis of Action Potential in Pacemaker Cell

Autorhythmic cell potential change	lon channel gating	lon movement
Pacemaker potential Initial period of spontaneous depolarization to subthreshold	Funny channels open	$P_{Na} > P_K$ Sodium moves in, potassium moves out
Latter period of spontaneous depolarization to threshold	T-type calcium channels open Calcium moves in $T = transient; L = long-lasting$	
Rapid depolarization phase of action potential	L-type calcium channels open	Calcium moves in
Repolarization phase of action potential	Potassium channels open	Potassium moves out



### Ionic Basis of Electrical Activity in Cardiac Contractile Cell (Myocardial Cell)



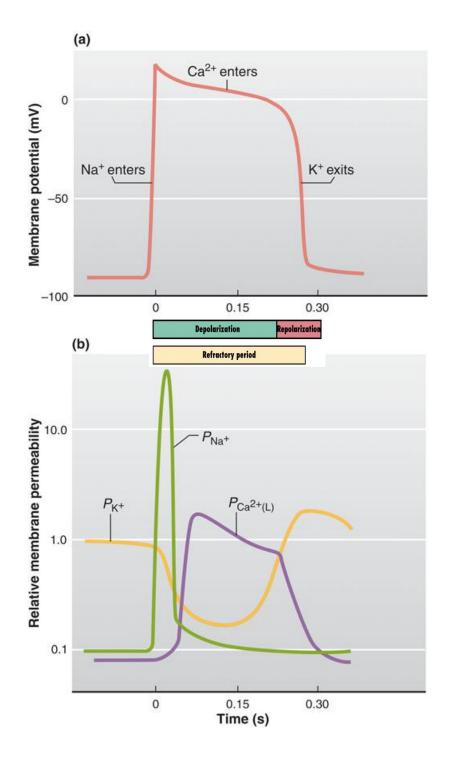
- 1. Some voltage -gated potassium channels close in response to depolarization
- 2. Depolarization opens voltage-gated calcium channels which not only contributes to further depolarization but triggers the muscle contraction

#### **Five phases:**

- Phase 0—increased  $P_{Na}$
- Phase 1—decreased  $P_{Na}$ 
  - 1. Voltage-gated K channels close

2. L-type voltage-gated Ca channels open

- •Phase 2—increased  $P_{Ca}$ , decreased  $P_{K}$
- Phase 3—increased  $P_{K}$ , decreased  $P_{Ca}$
- •Phase 4—resting membrane potential



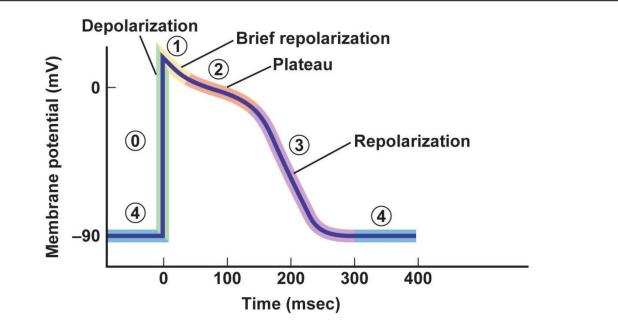
The rapid opening of voltagegated sodium channels is responsible for the rapid depolarization phase

The prolonged "*plateau*" of depolarization is due to the slow but prolonged opening of voltage-gated calcium channels PLUS closure of potassium channels

Opening of **potassium channels** results in the **repolarization phase** 

## Ionic Basis of Action Potential in Myocardial Cell

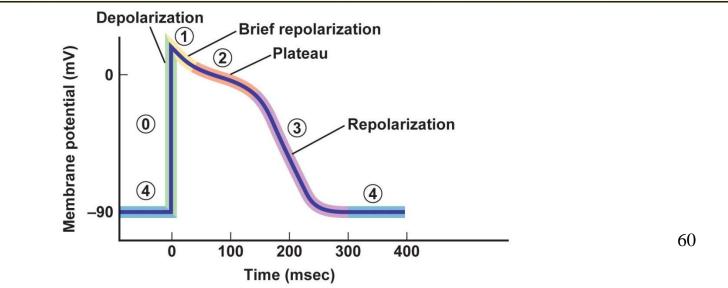
Phase of contractile cell action potential	Ion channel gating	lon movement
0 Rapid depolarization	Sodium channels open	Sodium moves in
1 Small repolarization	Sodium channels inactivate	Sodium movement in decreases
2 Plateau	Potassium inward rectifier channels close Calcium L-type channels open	Potassium movement out decreases Calcium moves in
3 Repolarization	Potassium delayed rectifier channels open Calcium L-type channels close	Potassium moves out Calcium movement in decreases
4 Resting potential	Potassium channels (both types) open Sodium and calcium channels still closed	Potassium moves out Little sodium or calcium moves in



59

#### 表 11-5 心室肌細胞的膜電位的形成機制

時相			膜電位 (mV)	持續時間 (ms)	形成機制	
靜止膊	莫電位		-90		K⁺ 平衡電位	
 動 作 電 何 再極	去極化 過程	0 期(去極化期)	-90 ~ +30	1~2	Na <sup>+</sup> 通道開放,大量 Na <sup>+</sup> 内流	
		1 期(快速再極化初期)	+30 ~ 0	5~10	К <sup>+</sup> 通道開放,少量К <sup>+</sup> 外 流	
	再極化 過程	19) 作 電 再極化	2期(高原期)	0	100~150	Ca <sup>2+</sup> 内流(及少量 Na <sup>+</sup> 内 流)與 K <sup>+</sup> 外流相平衡
		3期(快速再極化末期)	0 ~ -90	100~150	К <sup>+</sup> 通道開放,大量К <sup>+</sup> 外 流	
		4期(靜止期)	-90		鈉鉀幫浦及鈉鈣交換體的 共同活動	



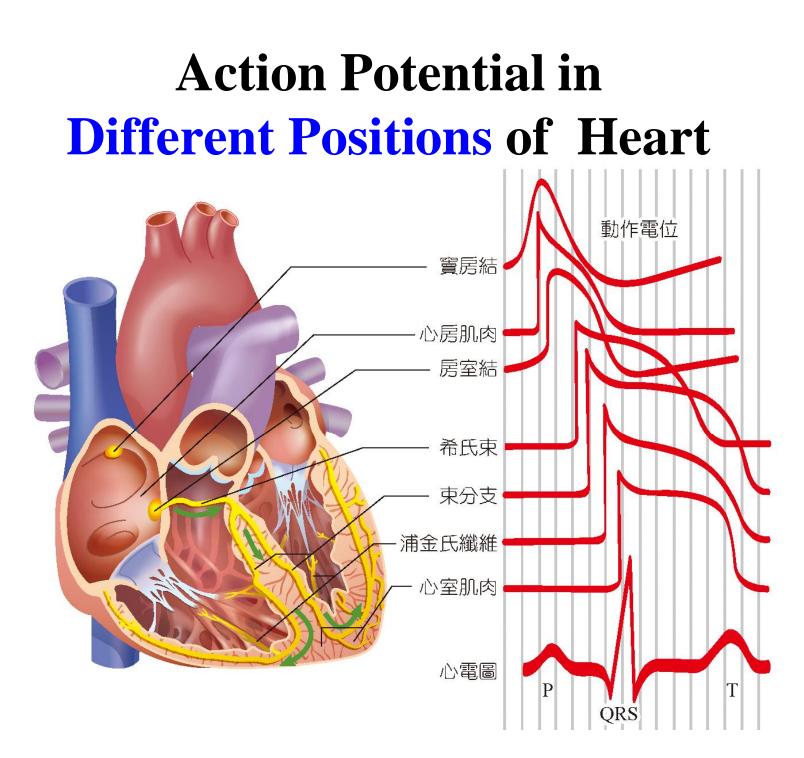
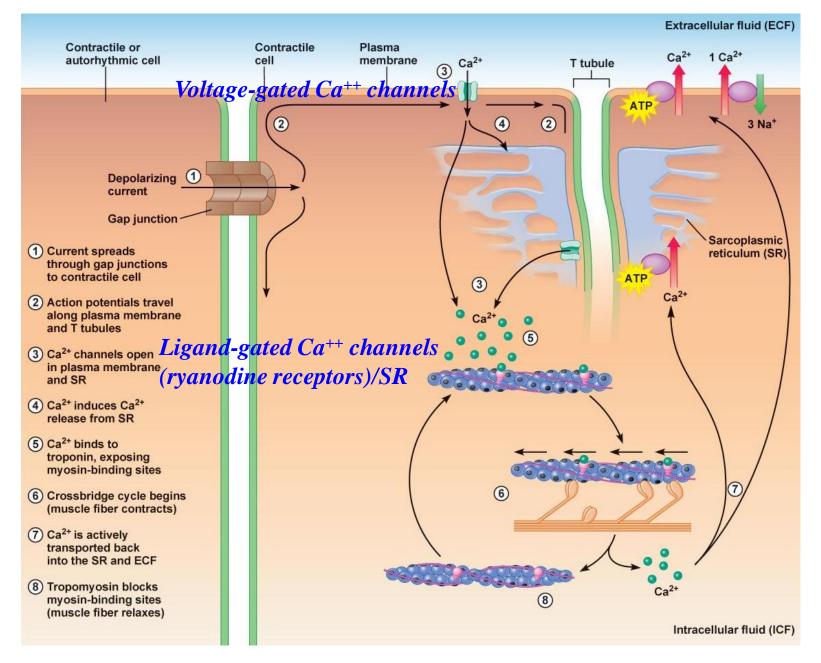


表 11-7 三類心肌細胞的電性活動比較					
心肌細胞 比較項目	心室肌細胞 (快反應非自律性細胞)	竇房結細胞 (慢反應自律性細胞)	浦金氏細胞 (快反應自律性細胞)		
膜電位分期	0、1、2、3、4 期	0、3、4 期	0、1、2、3、4 期		
靜止膜電位 / 最大舒 張電位値	靜止膜電位値 -90 mV	最大舒張電位 -70 mV	最大舒張電位 -90 mV		
	-70 mV	40 mV	-70 mV		
0期去極化幅度	大 (120 mV)	/J\ (70 mV)	大 (120 mV)		
0期時程	短 (1~2 ms)	長(7 ms 左右)	短 (1~2 ms)		
0期去極化速度	迅速	緩慢	迅速		
0期結束時膜電位値	+30 mV	0 mV	+30 mV		
4期自動去極化速度		快	慢		
4 期膜電位	穩定	不穩定,自動去極化	不穩定,自動去極化		

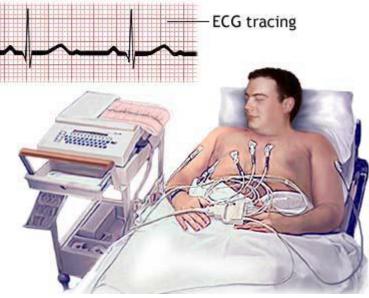
#### **Excitation-Contraction Coupling in Myocardial Cells**



### Electrocardiogram

• External measure of electrical activity of the heart

- A simple, non-invasive test that records the heart's electrical changes accompany each cardiac cycle (heartbeat) is called an <u>electrocardiogram (ECG</u> or EKG)
  - --Body = conductor
    - Currents in body can spread to surface (ECG, EMG, EEG)
  - --Distance and amplitude of *size of potentials* and



synchronicity of potentials from other cells

--Heart electrical activity—synchronized



在身體兩個不同部位安置兩個金屬電極板,用導線連到心 電圖描記器中的(+)、(-)兩端,使電流進入電流計再回返到 人體,構成一個完整電路,此記錄方法稱為導程(leads)

●臨床上記錄心電圖通常採用十二個導程,分兩類

#### 1. 雙極肢導(bipolar limb leads):

--記錄放在手腕和腳踝上的電極之間的電壓

▶第一肢導、第二肢導、第三肢導(Lead I-III)

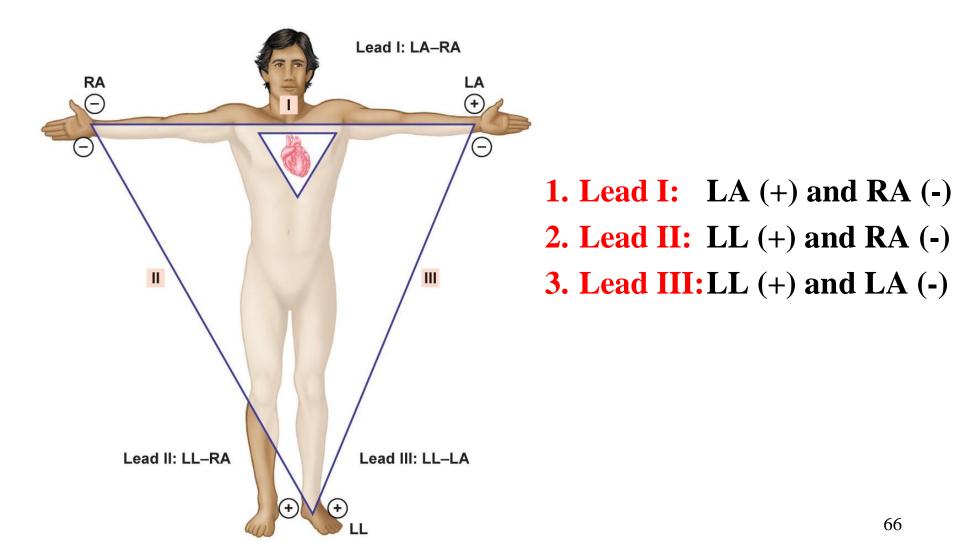
- 2. 單極導程(unipolar leads):
  - --記錄放在身體的<u>單一探查電極(-) 與無關電極(+)</u>之間 的電位差

▶單極肢導(unipolar limb leads): aVL, aVR, aVF

▶單極胸導(unipolar chest leads): V1-V6

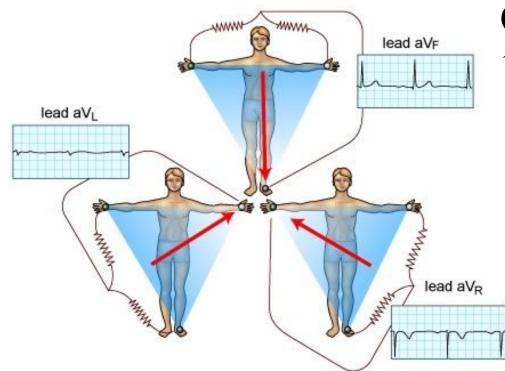
### Leads of ECG

雙極肢導(bipolar limb leads)



# Leads of ECG

#### 單極導程(unipolar leads):單極肢導



探查電極放在肢體的**右手臂** (**R**)、左手臂(L)及左腳(F), 分別簡寫:

> aVL: 探查電極(-) 與左 手臂相連,無關電極(+) 連接右手臂與左腳
>  aVR: 探查電極(-) 與右 手臂相連,無關電極(+) 連接左手臂與左腳
>  aVF: 探查電極(-) 與左 腳相連, 無關電極(+)連 接左手臂與右手臂

> > 67

### **Leads of ECG**

單極導程(unipolar leads):單極胸導

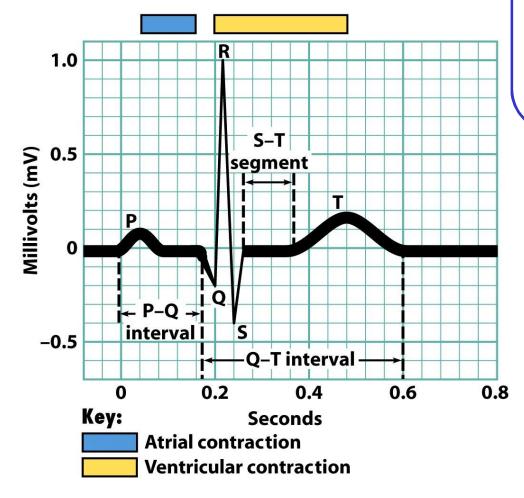
探查電極(-) 放在心前胸壁六個位置,即V1~V6



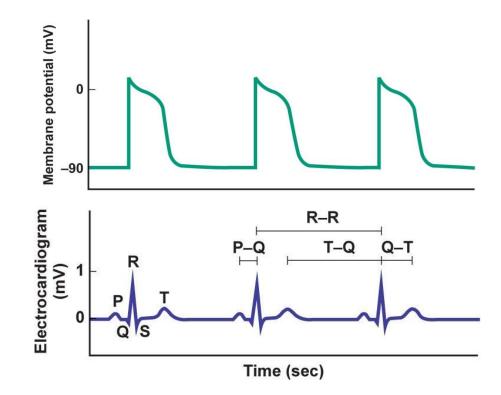


	電極配置
第一胸導 (V1)	胸骨右側第四肋間
第二胸導 (V <sub>2</sub> )	胸骨左側第四肋間
第三胸導 (V <sub>3</sub> )	在 $V_2$ 與 $V_4$ 之間
第四胸導 (V <sub>4</sub> )	鎖骨中線與第五肋間交界處
第五胸導 (V₅)	左腋前線與 $V_4$ 同一水準
第六胸導 (V <sub>6</sub> )	左腋中線與第五肋間交界處

### Electrocardiogram

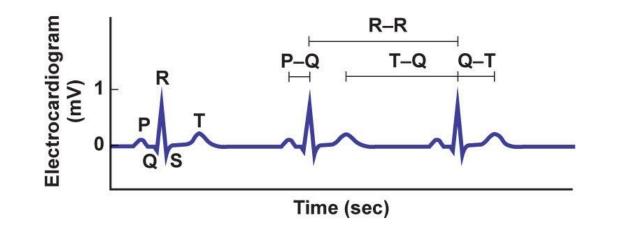


- **P** wave: *atrial depolarization*
- QRS complex: ventricular depolarization and atrial repolarization
- T wave: ventricular repolarization
- PQ interval: AV nodal delay (conduction time from atrial to ventricular excitation)
- > QT interval: *ventricular systole*
- TQ segment: ventricular diastole
- 0.8 ➤ ST segment: *time of complete ventricular depolarization* 
  - RR interval: time between heartbeats

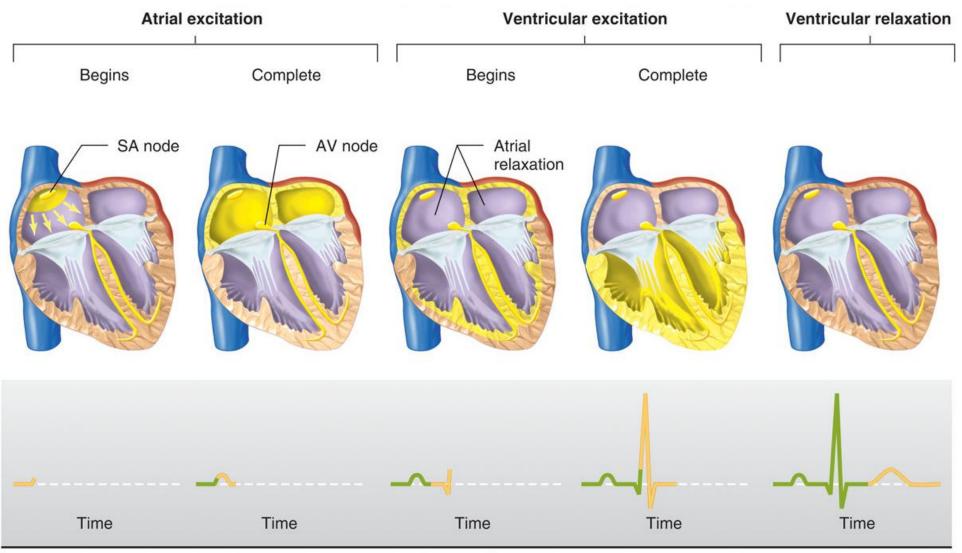


Amplitude (mV)	<b>Duration (sec)</b>	
0.2	0.10	
1.0	0.08–0.12	
0.2–0.3	0.16–0.27	
N/A	0.12–0.21	
N/A	0.30–0.43	
N/A	0.55–0.70	
N/A	0.85–1.00	
	0.2 1.0 0.2–0.3 N/A N/A N/A	

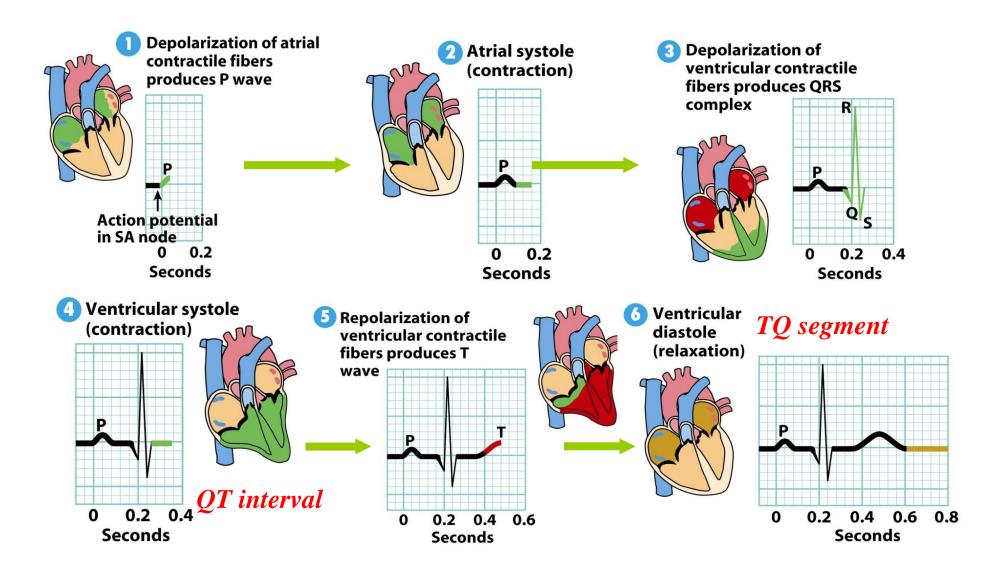
表 11-9 /	心電圖的定義與生理學意義		
名稱	定義與生理學意義	波幅 (mV)	時間(秒)
P 波	心房去極化的電位波,代表心房收縮	0.05~0.25	0.08~0.11
QRS 複合波	心室去極化的電位波・代表心室収縮	不定(< 2)	0.06~0.10
 T 波	心室再極化的電位波・代表心室舒張	0.1~0.8	0.05~0.25
PR間隔	從 P 波起點到 QRS 複合波起點,代表心房去極 化到心室去極化前的時間,即房-室傳導時間	_	0.12~0.20
QT 間隔	Q 波起點到 T 波終點,代表心室去極化到完全再 極化的時間,即心室收縮時間		0.4~0.43
PQ 節段	從 P 波終點到 QRS 複合波起點,代表興奮在房 室結的傳導時間	與基線相同	0.06~0.14
ST 節段	從 S 波終點到 T 波起點,心室完全去極化的時間	與基線相同	0.05~0.15



## **Sequence of Cardiac Excitation**



Electrocardiogram



#### **Clinical Application:** <u>Arrhythmias</u>

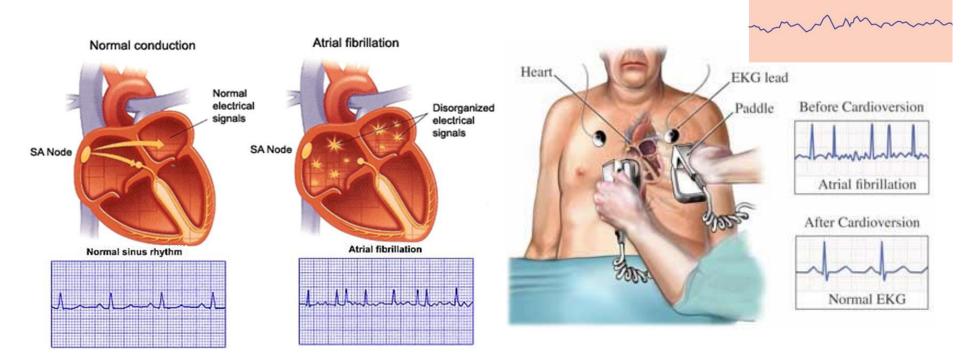
- Sinus rhythm = pace generated by <u>SA node</u>
- Arrhythmias is an irregular heartbeat the heart may beat too fast (*tachycardia*= <u>fast</u> rhythm), too slowly (*bradycardia*= <u>slow</u> rhythm), too early (*premature contraction*), or too rapid and irregular (*fibrillation*)
- Caused by a **defect in the conduction system**
- Classify by **rate** (tachycardia, bradycardia), or **mechanism** (automaticity, reentry, junctional, fibrillation), or **site of origin** (atria or ventricles)

Sinus tachycardia (with inverted T wave) **RR** interval<normal (0.85 s)

Sinus bradycardia

**RR** interval>normal (1 s)

- Atrial fibrillation can result from atrial <u>flutter</u> (extremely fast:200-300 bpm and regular) and cause *clotting and inefficient filling of the ventricles.*
- Ventricular fibrillation (ventricles can't pump blood and death occurs) can result from ventricular tachycardia.
- **Defibrillation** is the application of an electrical stimulus to shock the heart back into a normal SA rhythm. For chronic issues people can have "*pacemakers*" *implanted*.



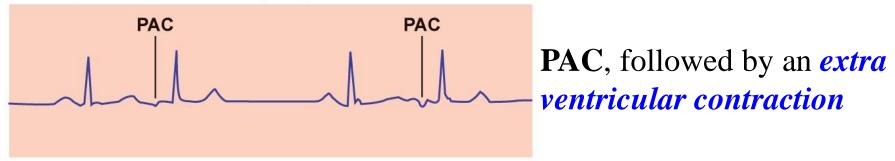


## Arrhythmias



- An ectopic focus is an abnormal pacemaker that takes over the conduction system usually because it goes faster than the SA node.
- **Premature contraction** is called **Extrasystole**. The **preventricular contractions (PVCs)** are the most problematic.

Premature atrial contraction (PAC)



#### **Arrhythmias: Heart Block**

- A disease in the electrical conduction system of the heart ≠ angina (chest pain) or myocardial infarction (heart attack).
- Slowed/diminished conduction through AV node occurs in varying degrees.
  - 1. First degree AV block (PR prolongation)
  - --Increases duration PQ interval (>0.2 s)
  - --Increases delay between atrial and ventricular contraction
  - --The most common causes are an **AV nodal disease**, enhanced vagal tone (for example in athletes), electrolyte disturbances and medications (ACh, Ca channel blockers, beta-blockers, digitalis)

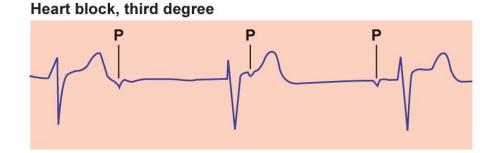
#### **Arrhythmias: Heart Block**

- 2. Second degree AV block
- --Slowed, sometimes stopped conduction through AV node
- --One or more (but not all) of the atrial impulses <u>fail</u> to conduct to <u>the ventricles</u> due to impaired conduction
- --Lose 1-to-1 relationship between P wave and QRS complex
- --Lose 1-to-1 relationship between atrial and ventricular

#### **Arrhythmias: Heart Block**

3. Third degree AV block (Complete heart block)

- --Loss of conduction through the AV node
- --Impulse generated in the SA node in the atrium <u>does not</u> propagate to the ventricles
- --P wave becomes independent of QRS
- --Atrial and ventricular contractions are **independent** (a pacemaker in the <u>Purkinje fibers</u> takes over, but this is slow (20–40 bpm)
- --The most common cause is coronary ischemia



#### -臨床焦點一



#### 心律不整

正常人心臟跳動節律規律,由竇房結控制, 稱為竇性心律。如果心臟病變導致心臟搏動異 常,例如過快、過慢或不規則,即稱為心律不整 (cardiac arrhythmia)。各種早期收縮 (premature beat)、竇性心搏過速、竇性心搏過緩、傳導阻 滯、心房纖維顫動 (atrial fibrillation)等都屬於心 律不整(圖 11-18)。

心律不整可發生在健康人身上,如過度疲勞、吸菸、飲酒等引起,但最常見原因在於冠心病、心肌炎、心肌病、風濕性心臟病等引起。老年性的心律不整多見於器質性病變。心律不整可使心房和心室收縮模式改變,導致心排血量下降,引起病人心悸、胸悶或胸痛、頭暈、無力、呼吸短促等症狀。

透過心電圖檢查可以診斷各類心律不整。 治療心律不整的方法包括:抗心律不整藥物、 裝置心律調節器、電氣燒灼術 (radiofrequency ablation) 等。



竇性心搏過緩 (Sinus bradycardia)



竇性心搏過速 (Sinus tachycardia)

• 圖 11-18 心律不整的心電圖。(圖片來源: Fox, 2006)

#### **Cardiac Cycle**



- A cardiac cycle = the systole (contraction) and diastole (relaxation) of both atria + the systole and diastole of both ventricles (at 75 bpm, one cycle requires 0.8 sec)
- Pressure and volume changes during the cardiac cycle
  End diastolic volume (EDV)

--Volume in ventricle at end of diastole, about 130 ml **\* End systolic volume (ESV)** 

--Volume in ventricle at end of systole, about 60 ml

**\*** Stroke volume (SV) *SV* = *EDV* - *ESV* 

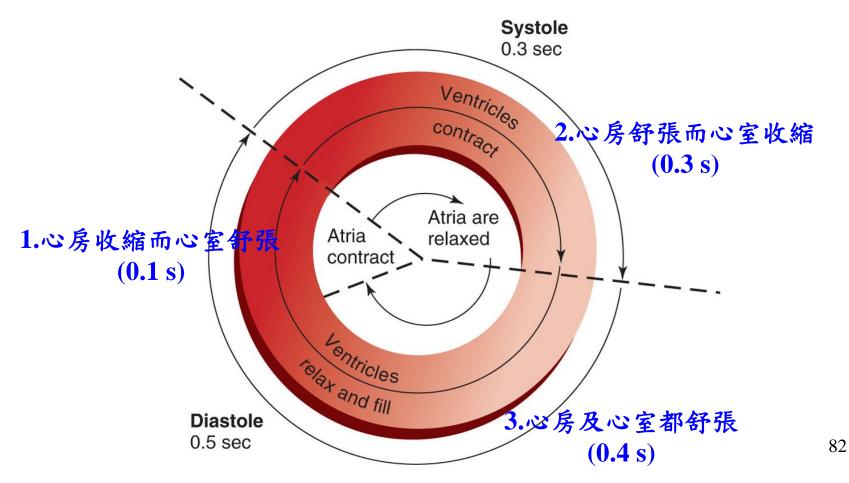
--The volume ejected per beat from each ventricle, about 70 ml

#### **Cardiac Cycle**

Two main periods of cardiac cycle:

Systole (contraction) + Diastole (relaxation)

At 75 beats/min, one cycle requires **0.8 sec** (60÷75)



#### **Opening of Valves During the Cardiac Cycle**

•Valves open passively due to pressure gradients

--AV valves open when

**Pressure atria > pressure ventricles** 

--Semilunar valves open when

**Pressure ventricles > pressure arteries** 

#### Four Phases of Cardiac Cycle

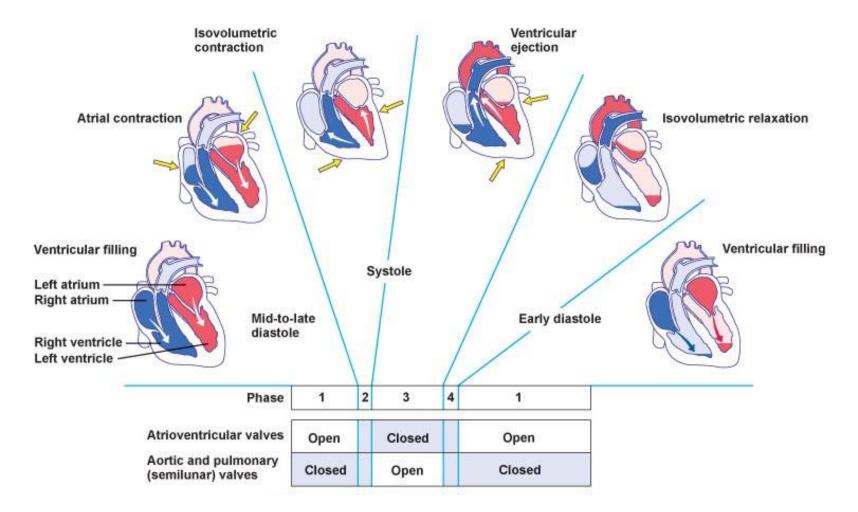
- Ventricular filling (Phase 1)
  - --Pressure atria (venous return) > pressure ventricles
  - --AV valves open
  - --Passive phase—no atria or ventricular contraction
  - --Active phase—atria contract (pushes final 20-25 ml blood into ventricle)
- Isovolumetric ventricular contraction (Phase 2)
  - --Ventricle contracts—increases pressure
  - --AV and semilunar valves closed
  - --No blood entering or exiting ventricle

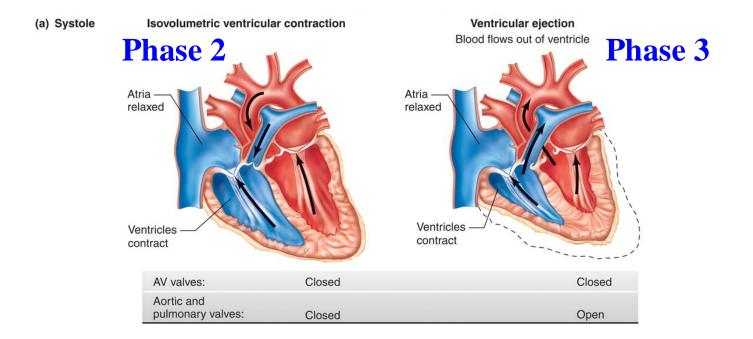
#### Four Phases of Cardiac Cycle

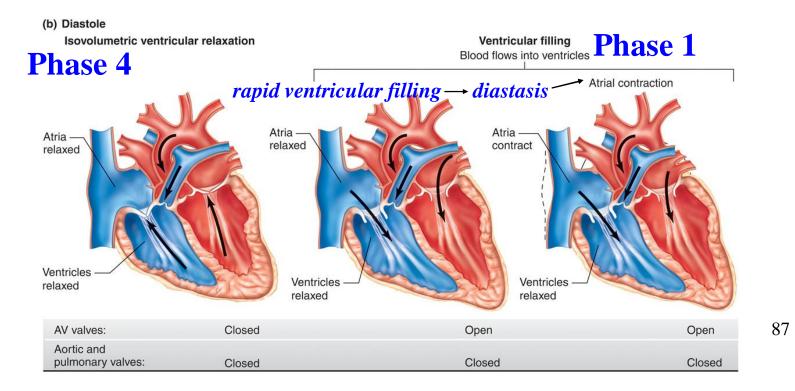
#### • Ventricular ejection (Phase 3)

- --Pressure ventricles > pressure arteries
- --Semilunar valves open
- •Isovolumetric ventricular relaxation (Phase 4)
  - --Ventricle relaxes—decreases pressure
  - --AV and semilunar valves closed
  - --No blood entering or exiting ventricle

#### Four Phases of Cardiac Cycle







#### **Ventricular Systole**

#### •Isovolumetric ventricular contraction

--AV and aortic valves closed

--Ventricular pressure increases until it exceeds atrial pressure

#### •Ventricular ejection

--Aortic valve opens

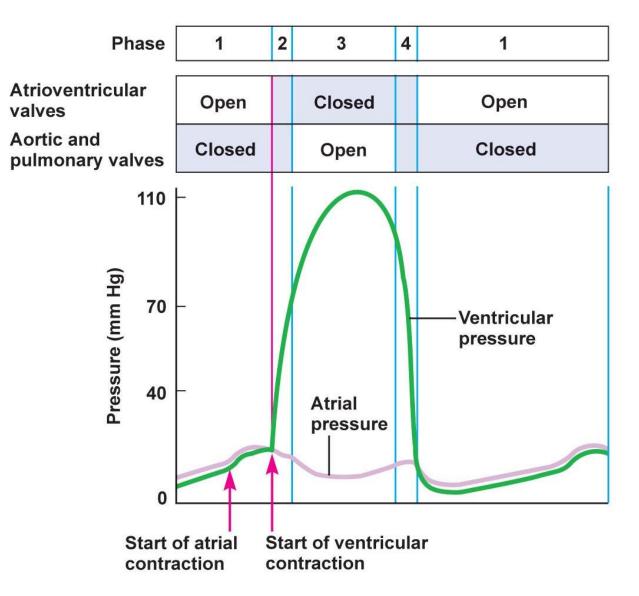
--Blood moves from ventricle to aorta

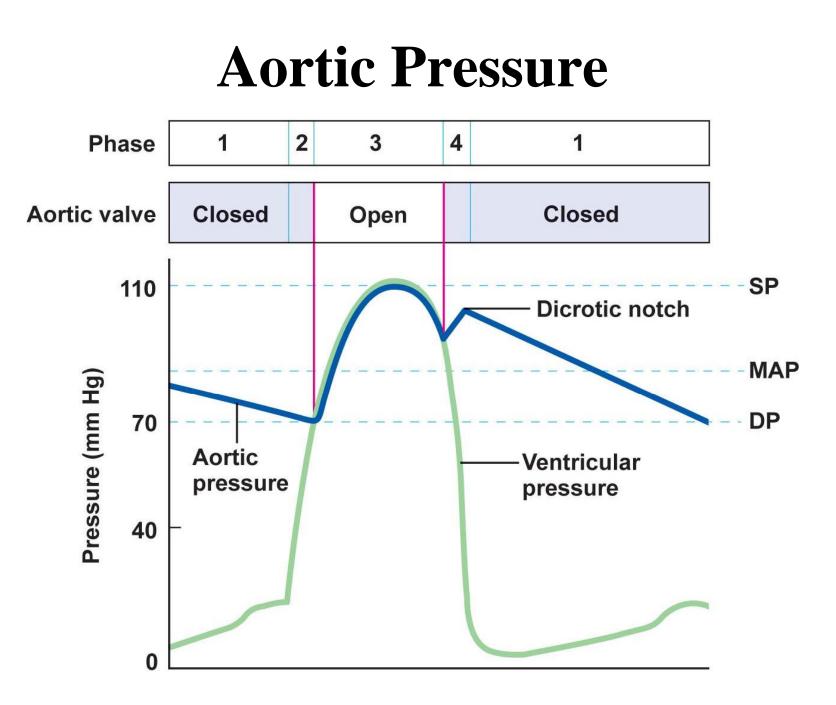
#### **Ventricular Diastole**

#### •Isovolumetric ventricular relaxation

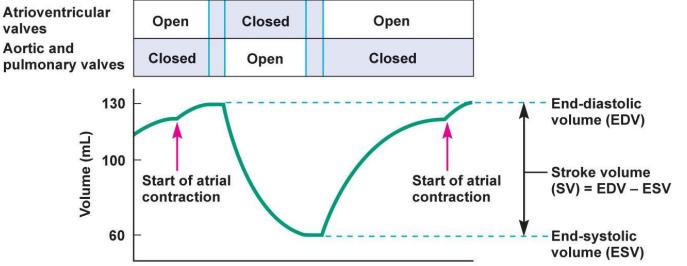
- --Ventricle muscle relaxes so that pressure is less than aorta
- --Aortic valve closes
- --Pressure in ventricle continues dropping until it is less than atrial pressure
- •Ventricular filling
  - --AV valve opens
  - --Blood moves from atria to ventricle
  - --Passive until atrium contracts

#### **Ventricular Pressure**

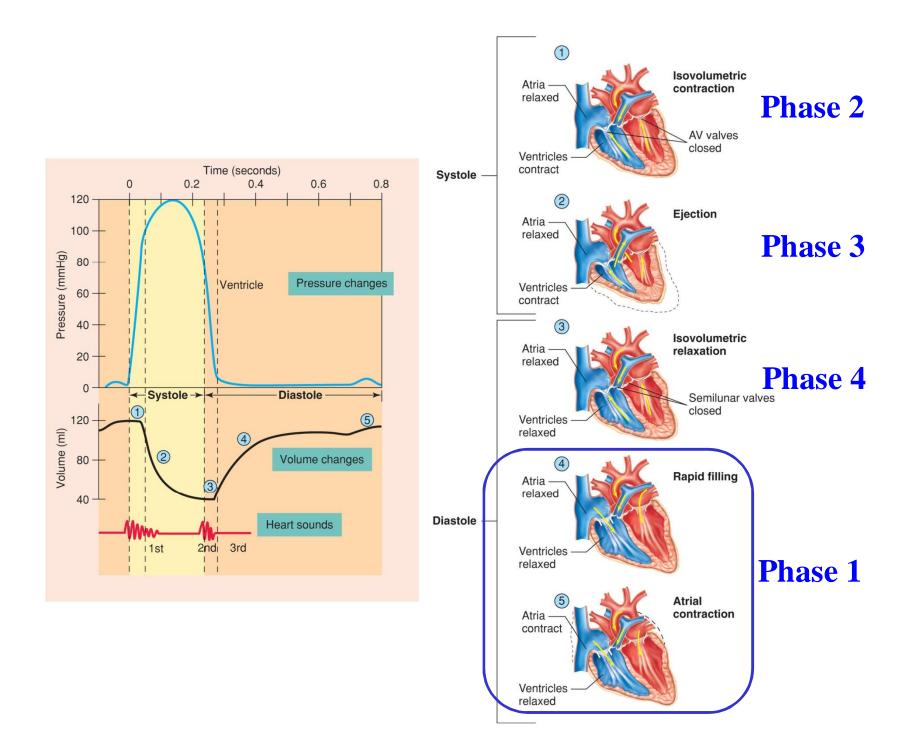


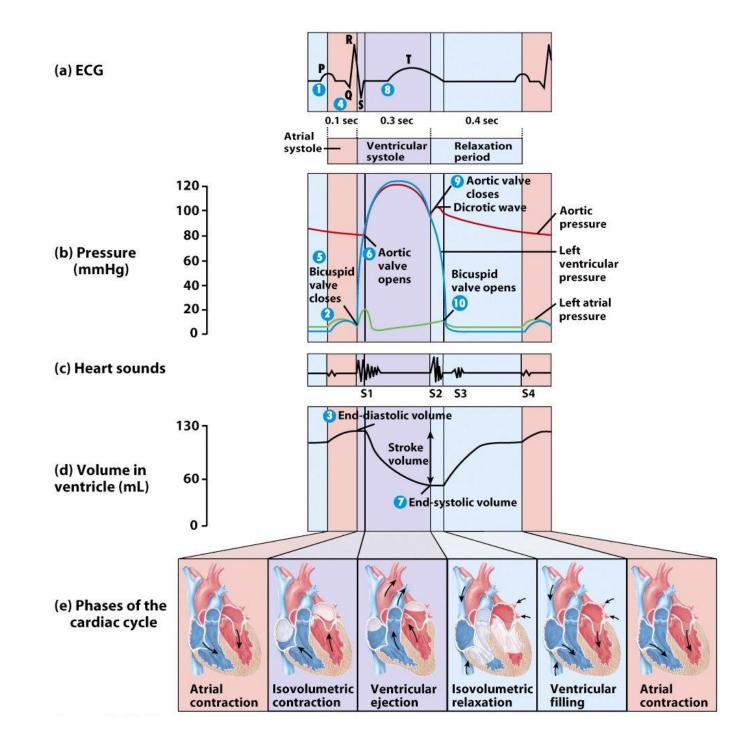


## Ventricular VolumePhase12341

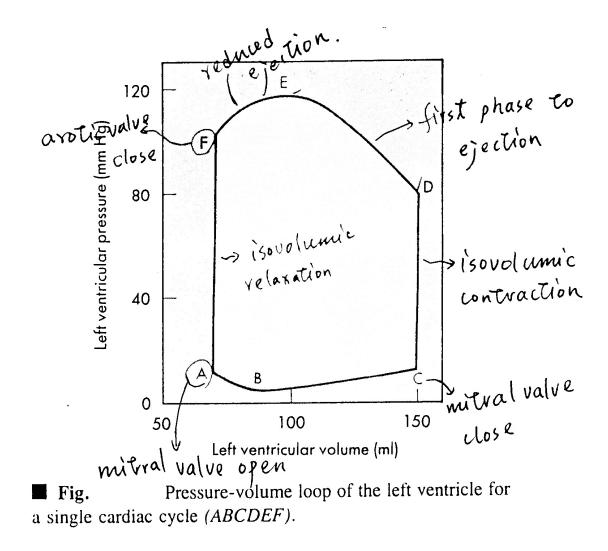


- EDV = end-diastolic volume, volume of blood in ventricle at the end of diastole (~130 ml)
- **ESV** = **end-systolic volume**, volume of blood in ventricle at the end of systole (~60 ml)
- SV = stroke volume, volume of blood ejected from ventricle each cycle (SV = EDV - ESV = 70 ml)
- Ejection Fraction (EF), fraction of end-diastolic volume ejected during a heartbeat (EF=SV/EDV=0.54=54%~50-75% rest normal)





#### **Pressure-Volume Loop**

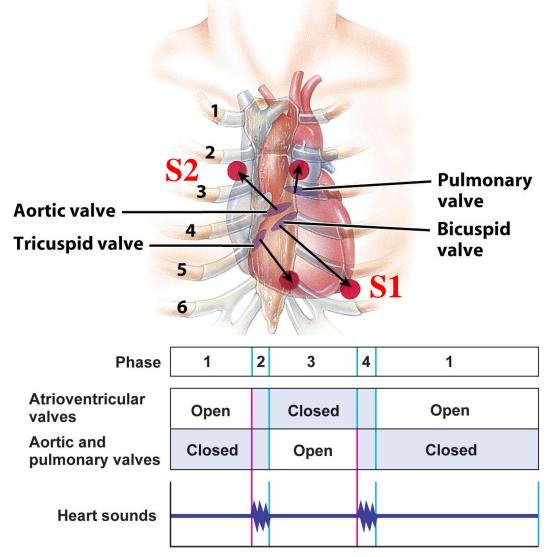


95

表 11-1 在心動週期中,壓力、瓣膜、血流方向、心室容積和心音的關係									
心動週期的時相		壓力關係	房室瓣	半月瓣	血流方向	心室 容積	心 音		
心室收縮期	等容收縮期 (0.05s)	房壓<室壓≦主動脈壓	關閉	關閉	血液存心室	不變	S1		
	快速射血期 (0.10s)	房壓<室壓>主動脈壓	關閉	開放	心室→動脈	$\downarrow$			
	緩慢射血期 (0.15s)	房壓<室壓<主動脈壓	關閉	開放	心室→動脈	$\downarrow \downarrow$			
心室舒張期	等容舒張期 (0.07s)	房壓≦室壓<主動脈壓	關閉	關閉	血液存心室	不變	S2		
	快速充血期 (0.11s)	房壓>室壓<主動脈壓	開放	關閉	心房→心室	1	S3		
	緩慢充血期 (0.22s)	房壓>室壓<主動脈壓	開放	關閉	心房→心室	$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$			
心房收縮期 (0.1s)		房壓>室壓<主動脈壓	開放	關閉	心房→心室	最大	S4		

#### **Heart Sounds**

*Where to listen on chest wall for heart sounds ?* The sound of a heartbeat

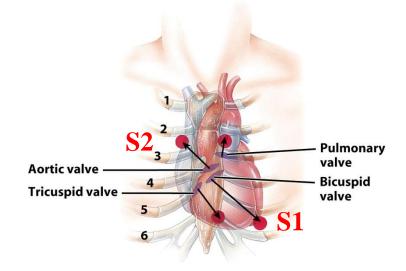


comes primarily from the <u>turbulent flow</u> caused by the **closure of the valves**, not from the contraction of the heart muscle.

The first heart sound (soft Lubb) = closing of AV valves (occurs at ventricular systole).

The second heart sound (louder Dupp) = closing of semilunar valves (occurs at ventricular diastole).

表 11-2 心音的分類、產生時間、產生機制、特徵和生理意義								
比較項目	心音	第一心音 (S1)	第二心音 (S2)					
心動週期時相		心室等容收縮期	心室等容舒張期					
產生原因		房室瓣關閉	半月瓣關閉					
	音調	低	高脆					
百亩 言◇ 卅士 22万	 		較 S1 弱					
聽診特徵		長	較短(0.08 秒)					
	最響部位	心尖(左第5肋間鎖骨中線)	心底(胸骨旁第2肋間)					
生理意義		代表收縮期開始	代表舒張期開始					
心電圖位置		QRS 複合波後 0.02~0.04 秒	T 波終末或稍後					



#### **Clinical Application: Murmurs**

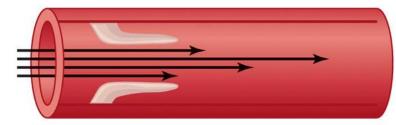
- A heart murmur is an abnormal sound that consists of a flow noise that is heard before, between, or after the lubb-dupp or that may mask the normal sounds entirely.
- Some murmurs are caused by <u>turbulent blood</u>
   <u>flow</u> around valves due to abnormal anatomy
   or increased volume of flow.
- Not all murmurs are abnormal or symptomatic, but most indicate a valve disorder.



### **Clinical Application: Murmurs**

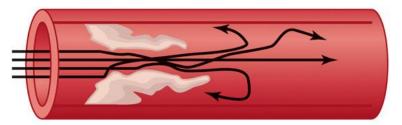
(b)

Normal open valve



Laminar flow = quiet

Stenotic valve



Narrowed valve Turbulent flow = murmur

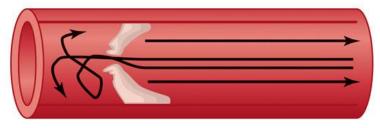
Mitral stenosis: may result in pulmonary hypertension

Insufficient valve



Normal closed valve

No flow = quiet



Leaky valve Turbulent backflow = murmur



### **Heart Disease**

#### Risk factors:

high blood cholesterol level

- high blood pressure
- 🗸 cigarette smoking
- 🗸 obesity
- ✓ lack of regular exercise

#### **\*** Other factors include:

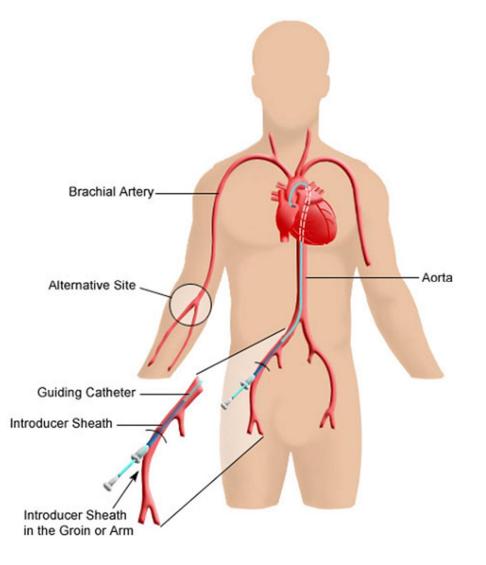
- 🗸 diabetes mellitus
- ✓ genetic predisposition
- 🗸 male gender
- high blood levels of fibrinogen
- ✓ left ventricular hypertrophy

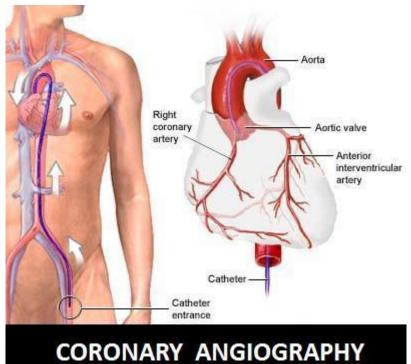
- Risk factor for developing heart disease is <u>high blood cholesterol</u> <u>level</u>.
  - Promotes growth of fatty plaques
  - Most lipids are transported as lipoproteins
    - -- **HDLs** remove excess cholesterol from circulation
    - -- LDLs are associated with the formation of fatty plaques
    - -- VLDLs contribute to increased fatty plaque formation
- There are two sources of cholesterol in the body:
  - ✓ In foods we ingest & formed by liver

#### **Measurement of Cardiac Function**

- Human cardiac output can be measured by a variety of methods
  - **1.** *Echocardiography:* a noninvasive technique that uses ultrasonic waves
    - --detect the abnormal functioning of **cardiac valves** or **contractions of the cardiac walls**, and can also be used to measure **ejection fraction**
  - 2. Cardiac angiography: requires the temporary threading of a thin, flexible tube called a catheter through an artery or vein into the heart
    - --a liquid containing radio-opaque contrast material is then injected through the **catheter** during **high-speed x-ray videography**
    - --useful for evaluating **cardiac function** and for identifying **narrowed coronary arteries**

#### **Cardiac Angiography**





#### **Cardiac Output(CO) =**

Heart Rate(HR) × Stroke Volume(SV)

- Average blood volume = 5.5 liters
- Volume of blood pumped by each ventricle per minute
- At 70 ml stroke volume (SV=EDV-ESV) & 72 beat/min (HR)-- 5 L/min at rest
- Regulate heart rate and stroke volume

--Extrinsic and intrinsic regulation 1.Extrinsic—neural and hormonal

2.Intrinsic—autoregulation

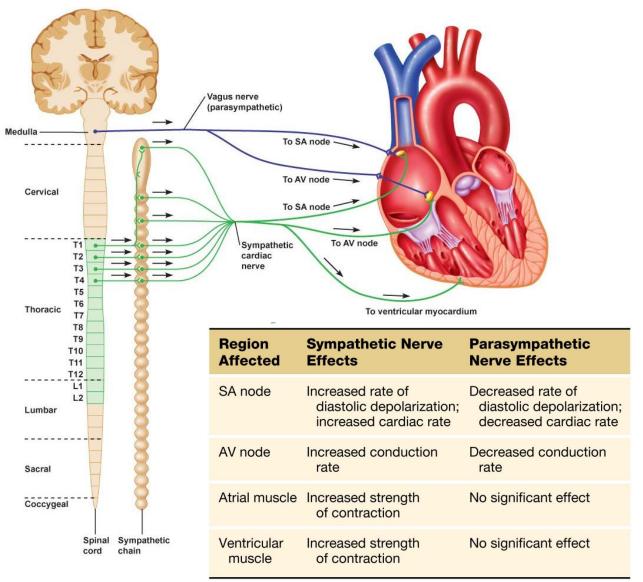


#### **Regulation of Heart Rate**

- In a healthy system SV is fairly constant. If blood volume drops or if the heart weakens, then SV declines and CO is maintained by increasing HR (CO= SV x HR)
- Things that **increase HR** are **positive** <u>chronotropic factors</u>
- Things that **decrease HR** are **negative** <u>chronotropic factors</u>
- Adjustments in heart rate important in short-term control of cardiac output and blood pressure
- Autonomic nervous system (neural regulation) and epinephrine/norepinephrine (hormonal regulation) most important
- Heart rate is also controlled by the input from the ANS: SNS increases heart rate; PSNS decreases heart rate

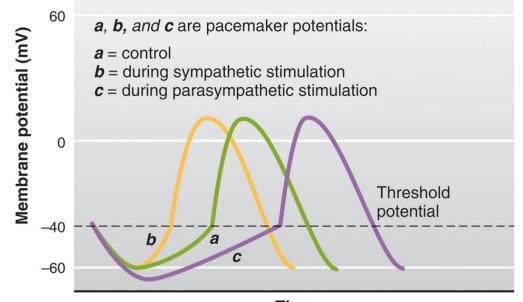
#### **Regulation of Heart Rate**

#### Autonomic Regulation



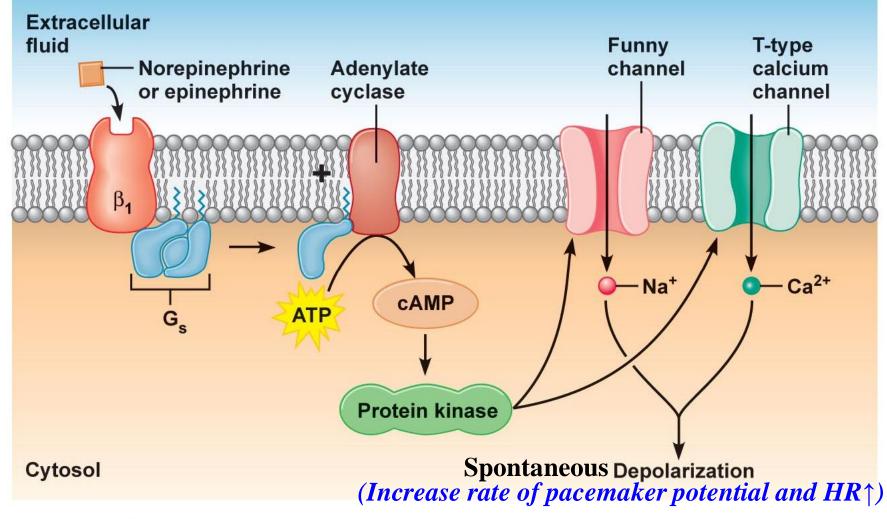
106

# Regulation of Heart Rate *Autonomic Regulation*SA node intrinsic firing rate = 100/min -No extrinsic control on heart, HR = 100 bpm SA node under control of ANS and hormones -Rest: *parasympathetic* dominates, HR = 75 bpm -Excitement: *sympathetic* takes over, HR increases



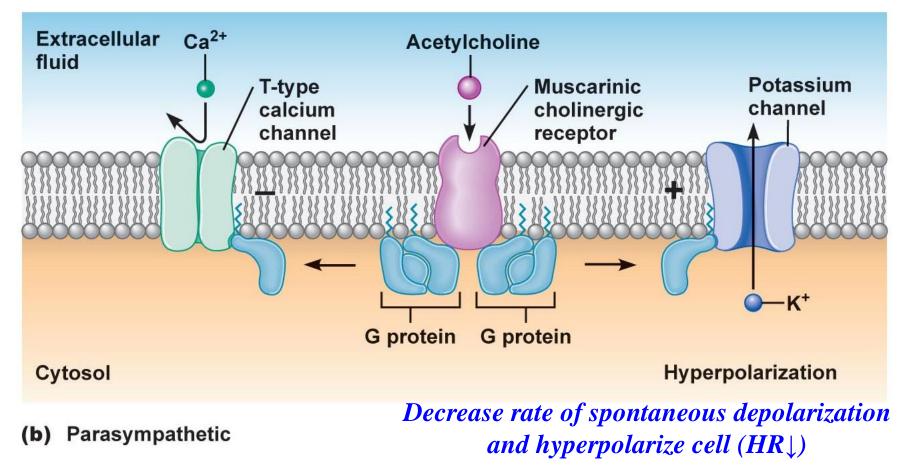
Time

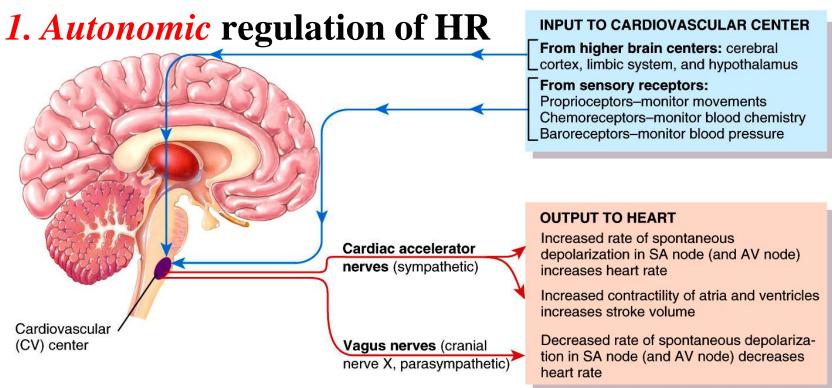
# **Sympathetic Regulation** of **SA cell (Heart Rate)**



(a) Sympathetic

# **Parasympathetic Regulation of SA cell (Heart Rate)**





### 2. Chemical regulation of HR

#### **Hormones**

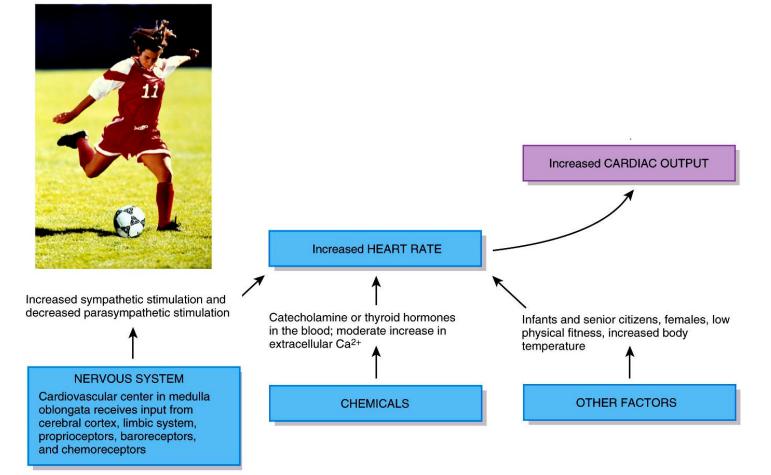
--Epinephrine and norepinephrine increase heart rate and contractility (same effect as sympathetic effect)

--Glucagon, insulin and thyroid hormones also increase heart rate and contractility

#### **Cations**

--Ionic imbalance can compromise pumping effectiveness Relative concentration of  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Na^+$  important

### Cardiac Output(CO) = Heart Rate(HR) × Stroke Volume(SV)



# **Regulation of Stroke Volume**

### • SV = EDV - ESV

- 3 primary factors affecting stroke volume
  - 1. End-diastolic volume (preload)
  - 2. Ventricular contractility (strength of ventricular contraction)
  - 3. Afterload (total peripheral resistance)
- Ventricles never completely empty of blood
  - --Every beat the heart pumps about 60% of the blood in its chambers or 70 mL
  - --More forceful contraction will expel more blood
- Extrinsic controls of SV: Change in Contractility
  - --Sympathetic drive to ventricular muscle fibers
  - --Hormonal control
- Intrinsic controls of SV: Changes in EDV

# **Regulation of Stroke Volume**

### 1. Preload=EDV (Intrinsic controls)

--*Frank-Starling* Law of Heart (EDV is determined by <u>length</u> of ventricular diastole and <u>venous return</u>)

--More muscle is stretched, greater force of contraction --More blood more force of contraction results

### 2. Contractility

--Autonomic nerves, hormones, Ca<sup>+2</sup> or K<sup>+</sup> levels (Extrinsic controls)

--Is affected by *positive* and *negative* <u>inotropic</u> agents **Positive inotropic agents increase** contractility **Negative inotropic agents decrease** contractility

3. Afterload

--Amount of **arterial pressure** created by the blood in the way --High blood pressure creates high afterload  Extrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume
 Sympathetic innervation of contractile cells
 -Cardiac nerves
 -NE binds to β<sub>1</sub> adrenergic receptors
 -Increases cardiac contractility

Parasympathetic innervation of contractile cells

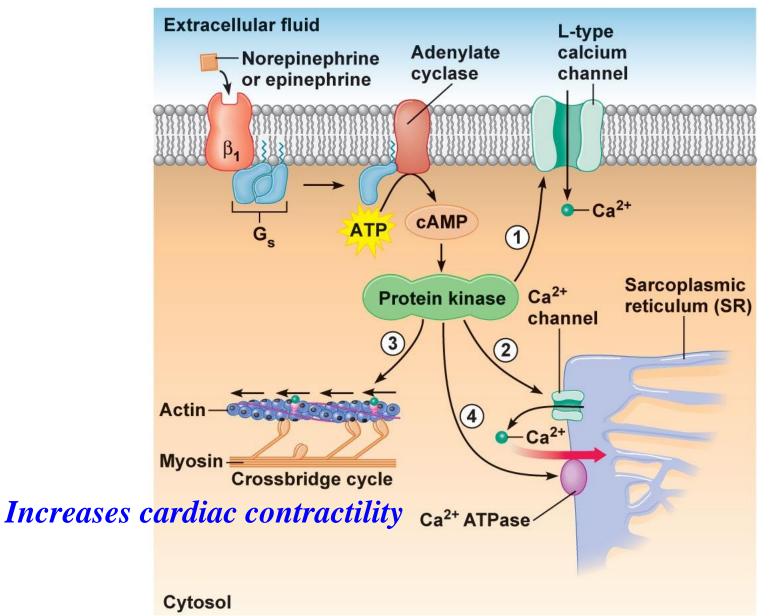
--Not significant

Hormones

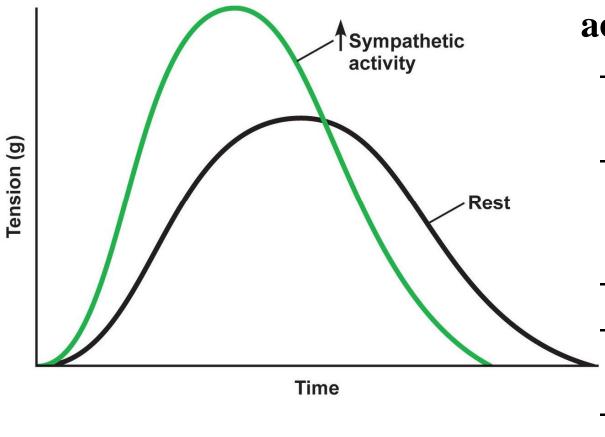
--*Thyroid hormones, insulin, and glucagon* increase force of contraction

114

## **Sympathetic Effects on Contractility**



## **Extrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume** Sympathetic Regulation



Increased sympathetic activity

> --Increased *adrenal epinephrine* release

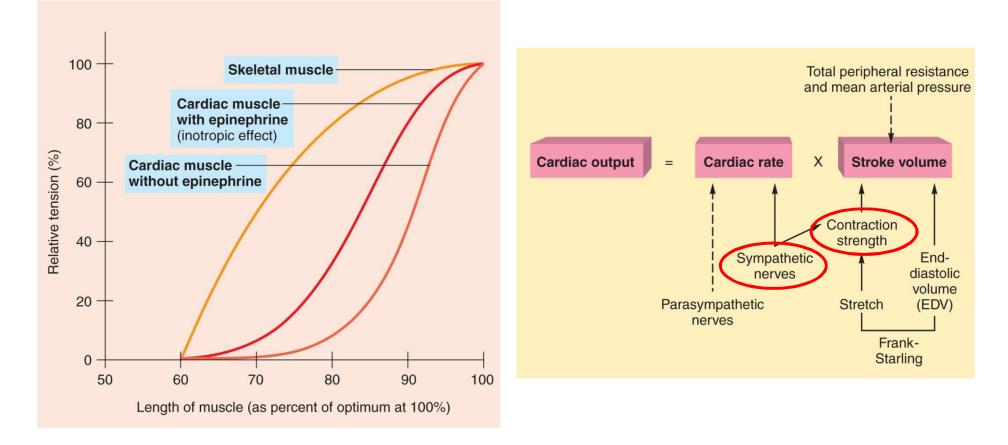
--Increases strength of contraction (*contractility*)

--Increases SV

--Increases rate of
contraction

--Increases *rate of relaxation* 116

## **Extrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume** Sympathetic Regulation

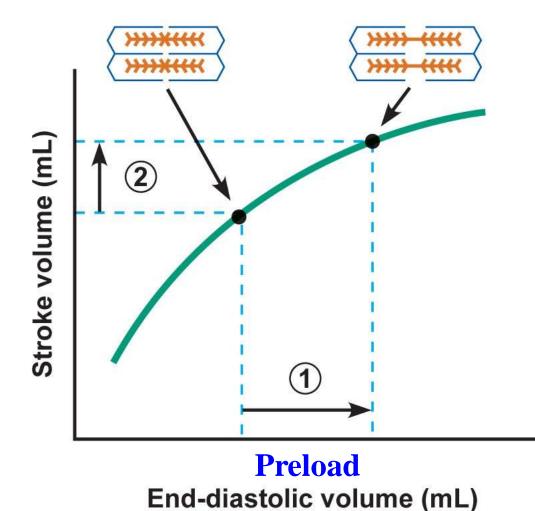


# **Regulation of Stroke Volume**

### **1. Preload=EDV** (Intrinsic controls)

- --*Frank-Starling* Law of Heart (EDV is determined by <u>length</u> <u>of ventricular diastole</u> and <u>venous return</u>)
- --More muscle is stretched, greater force of contraction
- --More blood more force of contraction results
- 2. Contractility
  - --Autonomic nerves, hormones, Ca<sup>+2</sup> or K<sup>+</sup> levels (**Extrinsic controls**)
  - --Is affected by *positive* and *negative* <u>inotropic agents</u> **Positive inotropic agents** increase contractility **Negative inotropic agents** decrease contractility
- 3. Afterload
  - --Amount of **arterial pressure** created by the blood in the way --High blood pressure creates high afterload

## Intrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume Frank-Starling's Law



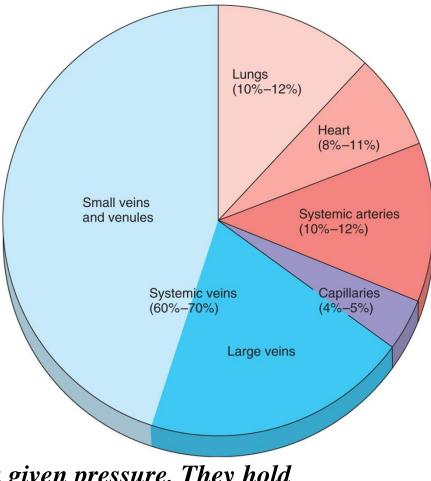
- ≻Increased EDV
- $\rightarrow$  Increased contractility
- $\rightarrow$  Increased stroke volume

An increase in EDV ...
 (Increase venous return)

causes stroke volume to increase

Intrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume Frank-Starling's Law

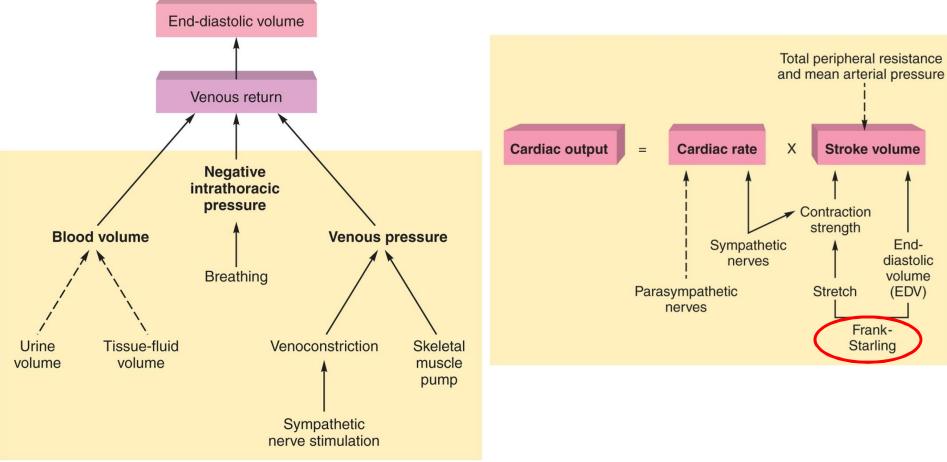
- End diastolic volume = preload is controlled by factors that affect venous return:
  - --Total blood volume
  - --Venous pressure



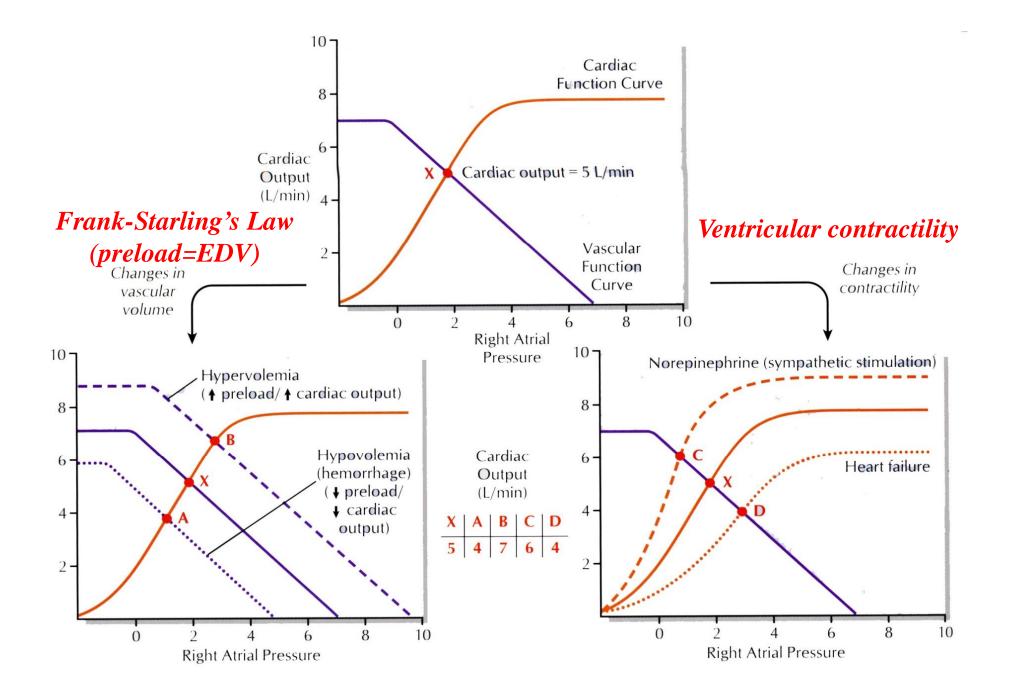
120

Veins are compliant = stretch at a given pressure. They hold more blood than arteries but maintain lower pressure

## Intrinsic Controls of Stroke Volume Frank-Starling's Law



121



# **Regulation of Stroke Volume**

### 1. Preload=EDV (Intrinsic controls)

--*Frank-Starling* Law of Heart (EDV is determined by <u>length</u> of ventricular diastole and <u>venous return</u>)

- --More muscle is stretched, greater force of contraction
- --More blood more force of contraction results

### 2. Contractility

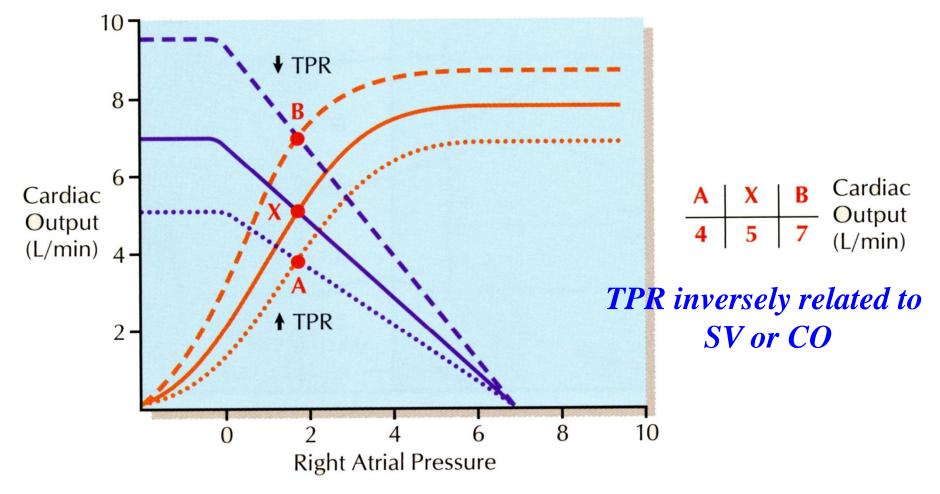
--Autonomic nerves, hormones, Ca<sup>+2</sup> or K<sup>+</sup> levels (Extrinsic controls)

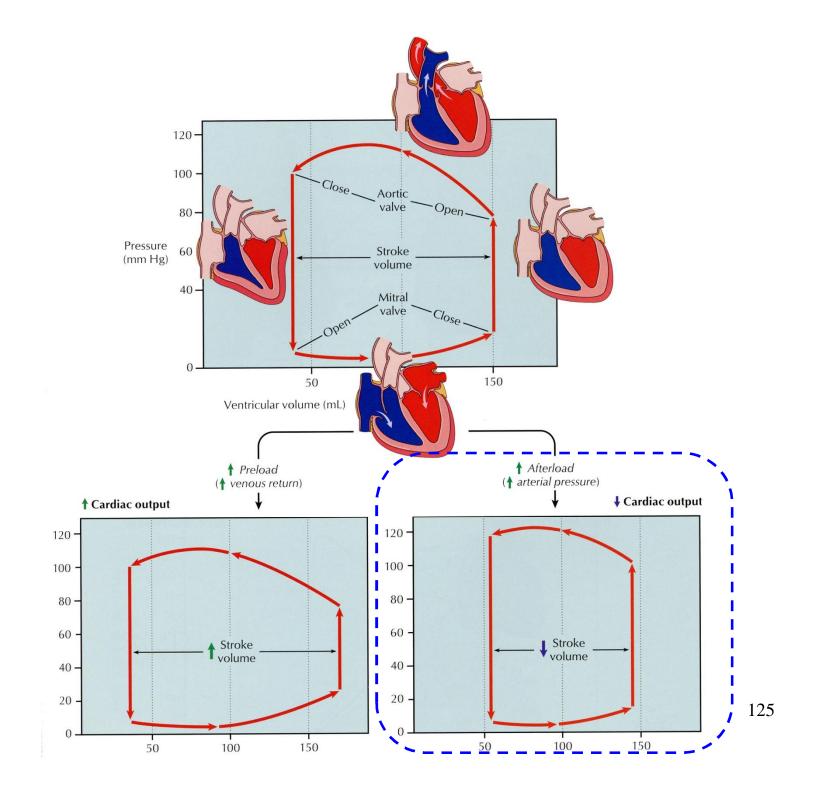
--Is affected by *positive* and *negative* <u>ino</u>tropic agents **Positive inotropic agents** increase contractility **Negative inotropic agents** decrease contractility

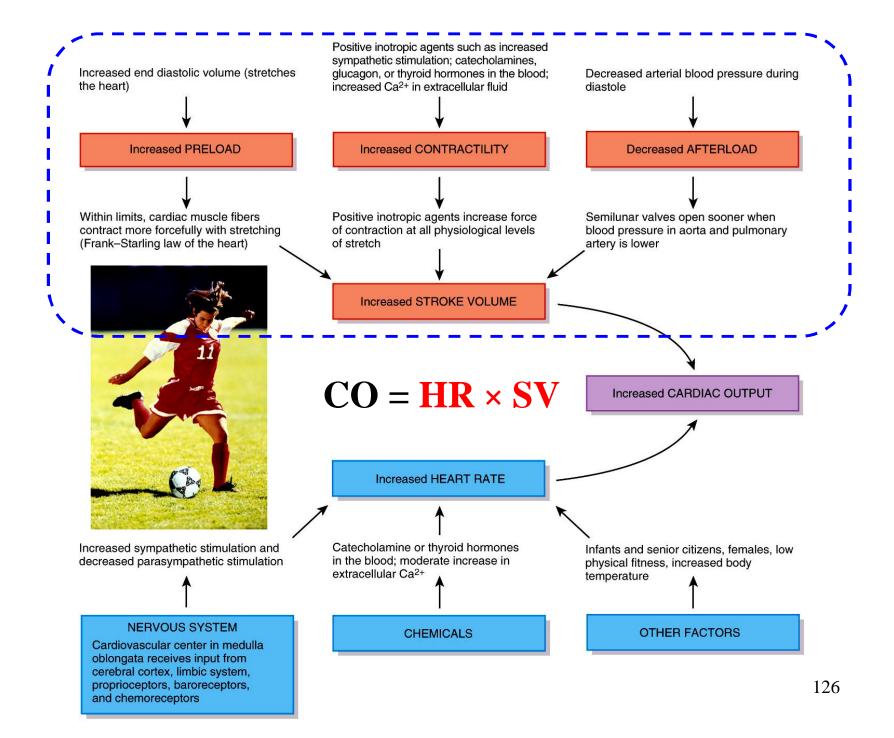
### **3.** Afterload=Total peripheral resistance (TPR)

--Amount of <u>arterial pressure</u> created by the blood in the way --High blood pressure creates high afterload

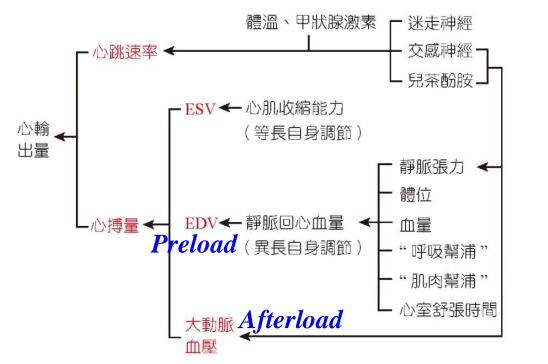
## **Regulation of Stroke Volume** *Afterload (TPR)*











#### 一臨床焦點一



#### 心衰竭 (Heart Failure)

心衰竭是指心臟結構或功能性疾病導致心肌 收縮力下降,心臟不能排出足夠血液滿足組織代 謝需要,以致於周圍組織灌注不足,出現肺循環 或體循環淤血,臨床主要表現是呼吸困難和無力 引起的體力活動受阻和水腫。

按發病部位和臨床表現常分為左心衰竭、右 心衰竭和全心衰竭。左心衰竭是指左心室代償功 能不全而發生的心衰竭,臨床上常見於高血壓、 主動脈瓣狹窄、肥厚性梗阻性心肌病引起,以肺 循環淤血為特徵。右心衰竭常見於肺心病、肺動 脈高壓、肺動脈瓣狹窄等,以體循環淤血為特 徵。左心衰竭後,肺動脈壓力增高,使右心負荷 加重,長時間後,出現右心衰竭,即為全心衰竭。 心肌炎、心肌病患者可出現全心衰竭。

按疾病的急緩分為急性和慢性心衰竭。急 性心衰竭臨床上以急性左心衰竭最常見,表現為 急性肺水腫或心源性休克;慢性心衰竭是一個 緩慢的發展過程,一般有代償性心臟擴大或肥 厚及其他代償機制參與。

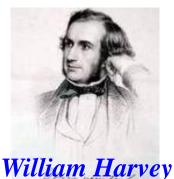
按發病機制分為收縮性心衰竭和舒張性心 衰竭。收縮性心衰竭的特點是心臟增大,收縮 末期心室容積增加和射血率 (ejection fraction) 下降,是臨床上常見的心衰竭。舒張性心衰竭 是由於心室鬆弛性降低,僵硬度增加,使心室 舒張期充血受限,心室舒張末期壓力升高和心 搏量減少,心肌常顯著肥厚,心臟大小正常、 射血率無明顯減少,患者心衰竭症狀也不太明 顯,可見於高血壓、冠心病的某一階段,嚴重 者見於原發性限制型心肌病、原發性梗阻性肥 厚型心肌病。通常舒張性心衰竭發生在先,進 而發生收縮功能障礙。

## **Blood Vessels**

### The Cardiovascular System: Blood Vessels, Blood Flow and Blood Pressure



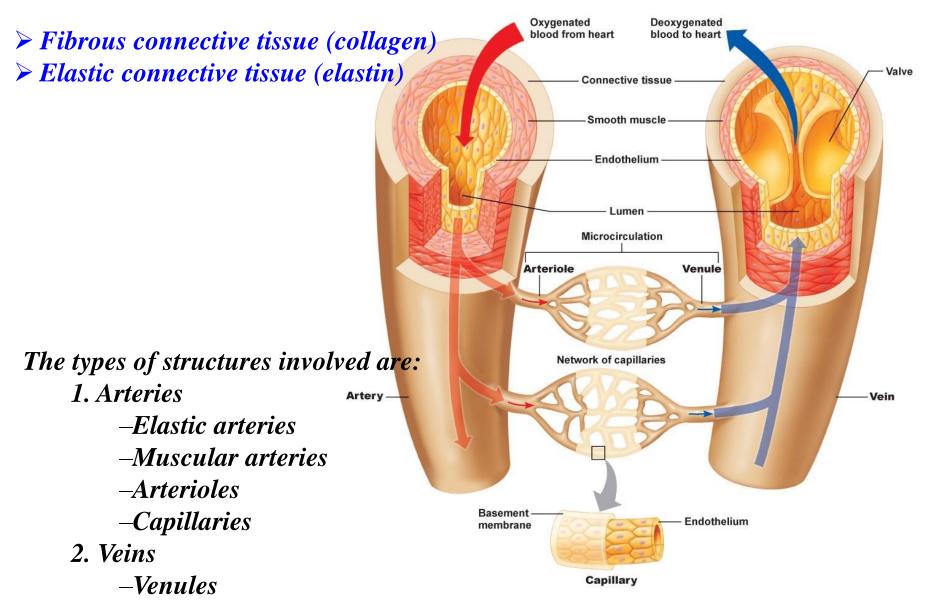
## Structure and Function of Blood Vessels



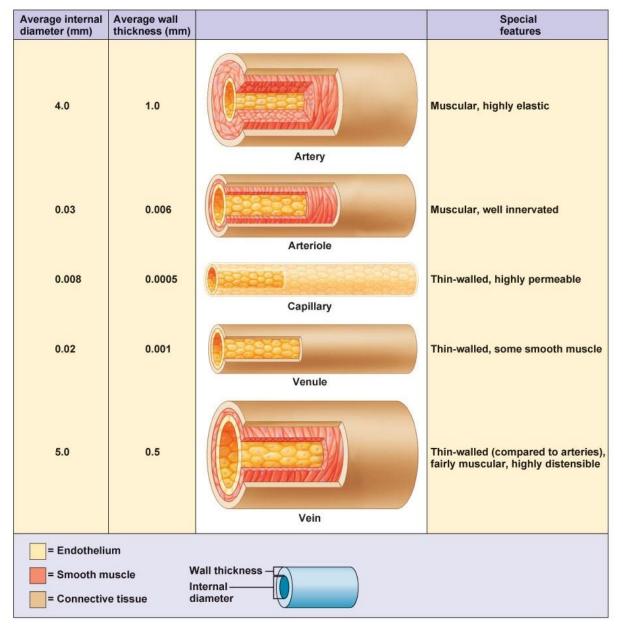
(1578-1657)
Solution & Blood vessels form a closed system of tubes that carry blood away from the heart, transport it to the tissues of the body, and then return it to the heart (one-way)

- --Arteries carry blood AWAY from the heart
- --Microcirculation
  - ✓ *Arterioles* are small arteries that <u>connect to capillaries</u>
  - Capillaries are the site of substance exchange between the blood and body tissues
  - ✓ Venules connect capillaries to larger veins
- --Veins carry blood **TO** the heart

# **Types of Blood Vessels**



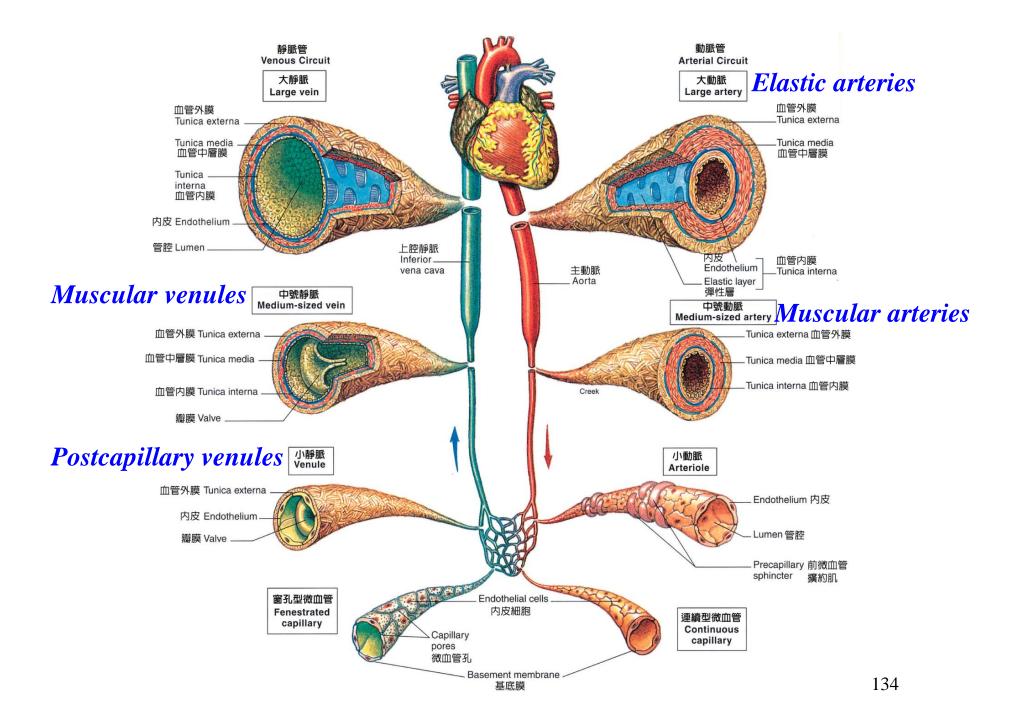
## **Blood Vessel Characteristics**



132

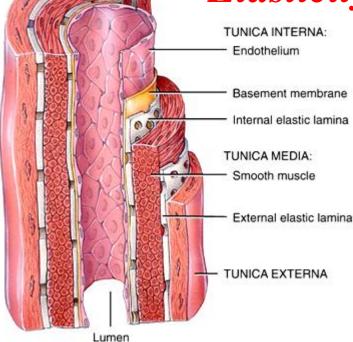
# **Basic structure of Blood Vessel**

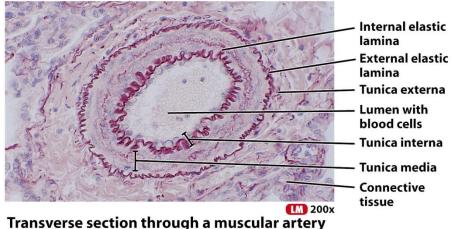
- The walls of arteries and veins have three layers or tunics:
  - --**Tunica interna (intima):** inner layer; composed of simple squamous <u>endothelium</u> on a <u>basement membrane</u> and <u>connective tissue</u>
  - --**Tunica media:** middle layer; composed of <u>smooth muscle tissue (regulates diameter of</u> lumen)
  - --**Tunica externa:** outer layer; composed of <u>connective tissue</u> (helps anchor vessel to surrounding tissue)



BLOOD VESSEL	SIZE	TUNICA INTERNA	TUNICA MEDIA	TUNICA EXTERNA	FUNCTION
Elastic arteries	Largest arteries in the body.	Well-defined internal elastic lamina.	Thick and dominated by elastic fibers; well-defined external elastic lamina.	Thinner than tunica media.	Conduct blood from the heart to muscular arteries.
Muscular arteries	Medium-sized arteries.	Well-defined internal elastic lamina.	Thick and dominated by smooth muscle; thin external elastic lamina.	Thicker than tunica media.	Distribute blood to arterioles.
Arterioles	Microscopic $(15-300 \ \mu m)$ in diameter).	Thin with a fenestrated internal elastic lamina that disappears distally.	One or two layers of circularly oriented smooth muscle; distal- most smooth muscle cell forms a precapillary sphincter.	Loose collagenous connective tissue and sympathetic nerves.	Deliver blood to capillaries and help regulate blood flow from arteries to capillaries.
Capillaries	Microscopic; smallest blood vessels (5–10 μm in diameter).	Endothelium and basement membrane.	None.	None.	Permit exchange of nutrients and wastes between blood and interstitial fluid; distribute blood to postcapillary venules.
Postcapillary venules	Microscopic (10–50 $\mu$ m in diameter).	Endothelium and basement membrane.	None.	Sparse.	Pass blood into muscular venules; permit exchange of nutri- ents and wastes between blood and interstitial fluid and function in white blood cell emigration.
Muscular venules	Microscopic $(50-200 \ \mu m \text{ in } diameter).$	Endothelium and basement membrane.	One or two layers of circularly oriented smooth muscle.	Sparse.	Pass blood into vein; reservoirs for accumulating large volumes of blood (along with postcapillary venules.
Veins	Range from 0.5 mm–3 cm in diameter.	Endothelium and basement membrane; no internal elastic lamina; contain valves; lumen is much larger than in accompanying artery.	Much thinner than in arteries; no external elastic lamina.	Thickest of the three layers.	Return blood to the heart, facilitated by valves in veins in limbs.

## Arteries **Elasticity & Contractility**





The wall of an artery consists of three major layers

### Tunica interna (intima)

- --simple squamous epithelium known as **endothelium**
- --basement membrane
- --internal elastic lamina

### Tunica media

- --circular **smooth muscle** & elastic fibers
- 💠 Tunica externa

--elastic & collagen fibers

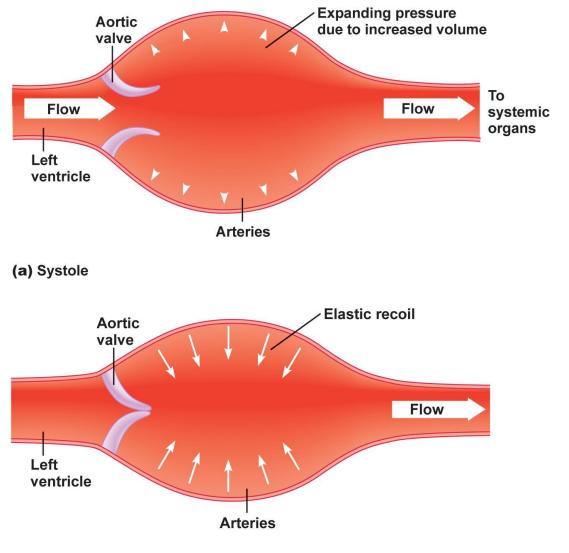
## **Arteries as Pressure Reservoirs** *Elasticity & Contractility*

- Rapid transport pathway
  - --Large diameter and Little resistance
- Walls contain elastic and fibrous (collagen) tissue
  - --Under high pressure

• Arteries as a **pressure reservoir** = storage site for pressure

- --Thick elastic arterial walls
- --Low compliance
- -- Expand as blood enters arteries during systole
- --Recoil during diastole
- Vasoconstriction <u>decrease</u> in lumen diameter
- Vasodilation <u>increase</u> in lumen diameter

## **Arteries as Pressure Reservoirs**



# Sympathetic Innervation of Arteries

- Vascular smooth muscle is innervated by sympathetic nervous system
  - --*Increase* in stimulation causes muscle contraction or vasoconstriction

✓ Decreases diameter of vessel

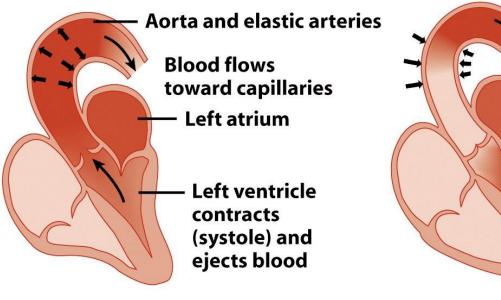
- --*Injury* to artery or arteriole causes muscle contraction reducing blood loss (vasospasm)
- --Decrease in stimulation or presence of certain chemicals causes vasodilation

✓ Increases diameter of vessel

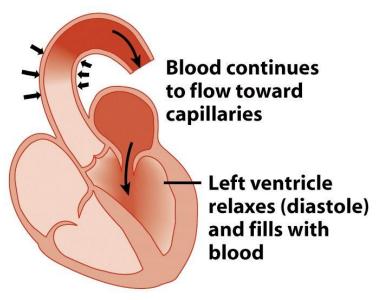
 $\checkmark$ Nitric oxide, K<sup>+</sup>, H<sup>+</sup> and lactic acid cause vasodilation

## **Elastic Arteries**

- **Chargest arteries** with more elastic fibers and less smooth muscle are called *elastic arteries* (aorta) and are able to receive blood under pressure and propel it onward
- They are also called *conducting arteries* because they conduct blood from the heart to medium sized **muscular arteries**
- They function as a pressure reservoir



(a) Elastic aorta and arteries stretch during ventricular contraction



(b) Elastic aorta and arteries recoil during ventricular relaxation

140

# **Muscular Arteries**

- These arteries deliver blood to specific organs (mesenteric artery, renal artery etc.)
- Medium-sized arteries with more muscle than elastic fibers in tunica media (little elastin)
- These arteries can play a large role in the regulation of blood pressure (smooth muscle regulates radius)
  - --For example, the mesenteric artery carries ~25 % of the CO, so alterations in its diameter would have a large effect
- Capable of greater vasoconstriction and vasodilation to adjust rate of flow
  - --walls are relatively thick
  - --called *distributing arteries* because they direct blood flow

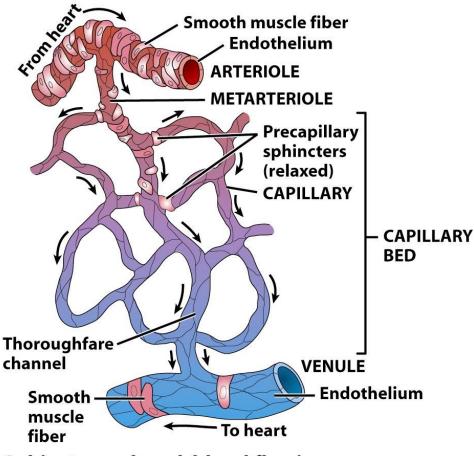
#### 一臨床焦點一

#### 動脈粥狀硬化 (Atherosclerosis)

動脈粥狀硬化係指動脈發生非發炎性、退行 性和增生性的病變。主要常見於體循環的大型動 脈(如主動脈)和中型動脈(如冠狀動脈和腦動 脈)。內膜有黃色粥狀外觀的脂質積聚、血栓形 成、纖維組織增生,並合併有動脈中層的逐漸退 化和鈣化等多種病變,而產生血管壁增厚變硬、 失去彈性和管腔縮小堵塞的特徵,使得受阻動脈 遠端缺血,導致局部組織壞死,是形成心臟和腦 缺血疾病的主要原因。常見病因有高血壓、高血 脂症、吸菸、糖尿病、肥胖等。 動脈粥狀硬化的症狀主要取決於血管病變 及受波及器官的缺血程度,可能發生心絞痛、 心肌梗塞、心律不整、腦缺血、腦萎縮、高血 壓、下肢間歇性跛行等。臨床常用治療包括: 均衡飲食、適量的活動、不吸菸、控制危險因 素(如高血壓、高膽固醇、糖尿病等)及使用 藥物(如降血脂藥、抗血小板藥物)等。



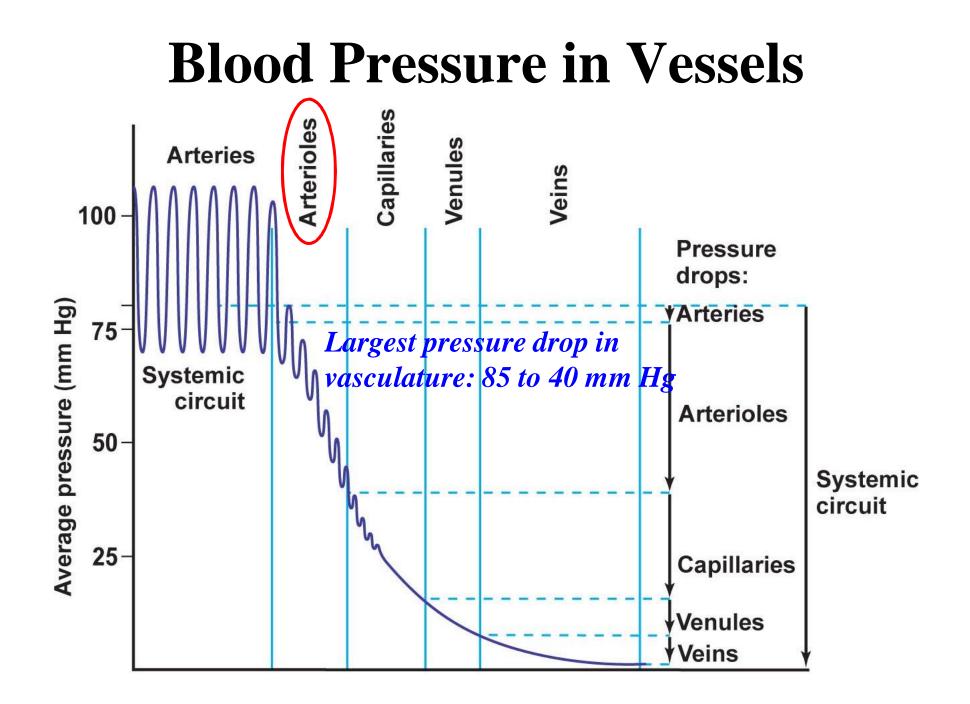
# Arterioles



Sphincters relaxed: blood flowing through capillary bed

Arterioles (resistance arteries) are the smallest arteries (tunica media containing few layers of muscle)

- --Part of microcirculation
- --Connect arteries to capillaries or metarterioles
- --Contain rings of smooth muscle to regulate radius, and thus, resistance (altering blood flow and arterial blood pressure)
- Their diameter is controlled by neural, hormonal, and local chemicals
- \* Arterioles provide greatest resistance to blood flow ( $F = \Delta P/R$ )



# **Changes in Arteriole Radius**

Radius dependent on *contraction state of smooth muscle in arteriole wall* 

### Arteriolar tone

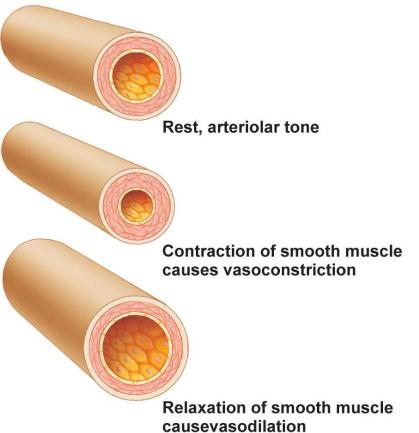
--Contraction level (radius) independent of extrinsic influences

### • Vasoconstriction

--<u>Increased</u> contraction (<u>decreased</u> radius)

### • Vasodilation

--<u>Decreased</u> contraction (<u>increased</u> radius)



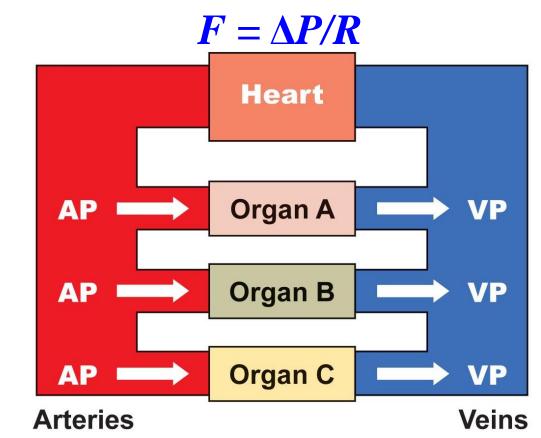
Functions: 1. Controlling blood flow to individual capillary beds 2. Regulating mean arterial pressure

## **Intrinsic Control of Arteriole Radius**

- Regulation of **blood flow to organs** based on **need**
- Regulated by **varying resistance**  $F = \Delta P/R$ 
  - --If you increase resistance by *vasoconstriction* and keep pressure the same, then <u>flow to a tissue decreases</u>
  - --If you need to <u>increase flow to a tissue</u>, then you either *increase the pressure* or *vasodilate* to decrease resistance

Ex. Organ blood flow =  $\Delta P$  / organ resistance

## **Arteriole Radius and Blood Flow**



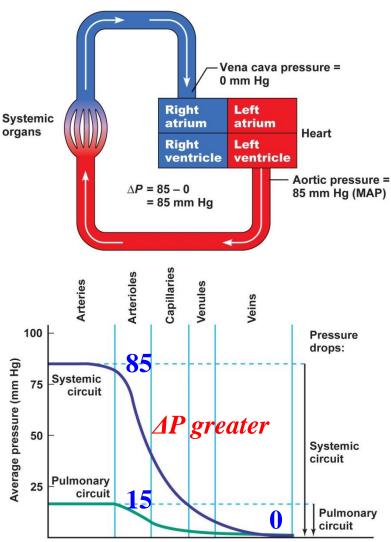
**>Pressure gradient** ( $\Delta P$ )

Organ blood flow driving force = Arterial pressure (AP) – Venous pressure (VP)

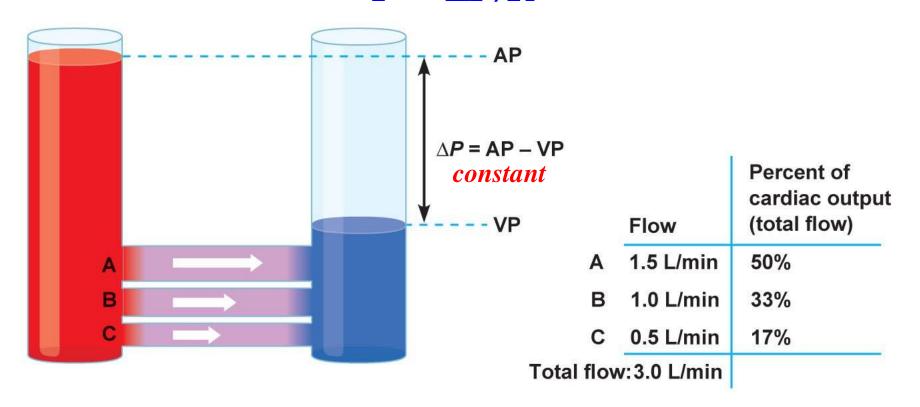
## **Arteriole Radius and Blood Flow**

### $F = \Delta P/R$

- Pressure gradients (ΔP) drive blood
   flow from high pressure to low pressure
- Heart creates pressure gradient for bulk flow of blood
- Pressure gradient = pressure in aorta minus pressure in vena cava just before it empties into right atrium
- Pressure in aorta = *mean arterial pressure (MAP)* = 85 mm Hg
- Pressure in vena cava = *central venous pressure (CVP)* = 0 mm Hg
- Pressure gradient = MAP CVP = 85-0= 85 mm Hg

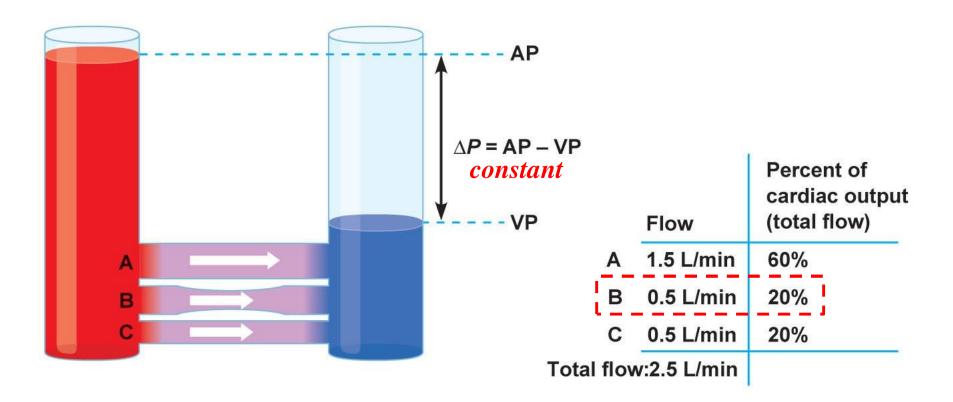


### **Arteriole Radius and Blood Flow** $F = \Delta P/R$



> Cardiac output is distributed unequally to different organs due to *unequal resistance* to blood flow through the organs > Flow varies due to *differences in resistance* 

### Arteriole Radius and Blood Flow $F = \Delta P/R$

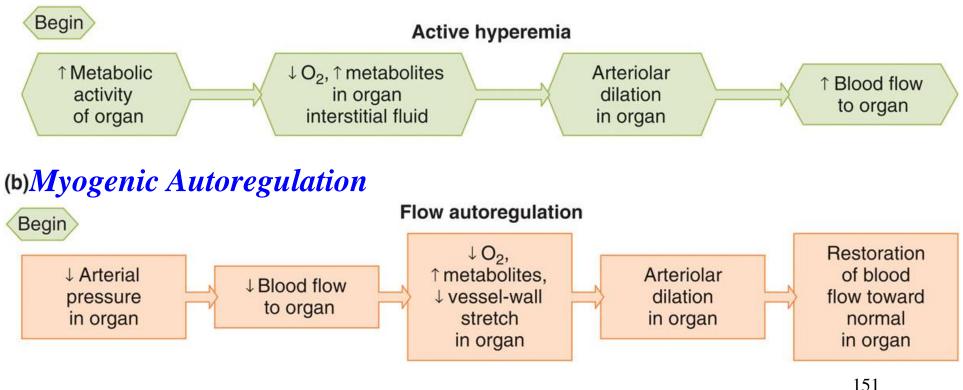


Blood flow changes when resistance changes
(Local and extrinsic regulation)

## **Local Control of Arteriole Radius** $F = \Delta P/R$

# Contractile state of *smooth muscle in Arteriole* → *Radius* of arterioles → Vascular *resistance* → *Blood flow and blood pressure*

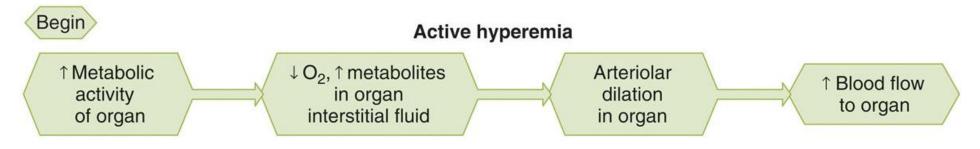
### (a) Metabolic Regulation

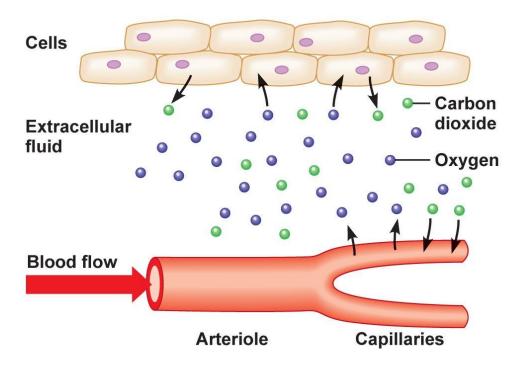


### 1. Metabolic Regulation=Active Hyperemia

- Active Hyperemia: increased blood flow in response to increased metabolic activity
- Changes associated with *increased* metabolic activity generally cause **vasodilation** 
  - --Carbon dioxide
  - --Potassium
  - --Hydrogen ions
- Changes associated with *decreased* metabolic activity generally cause vasoconstriction

   --Oxygen

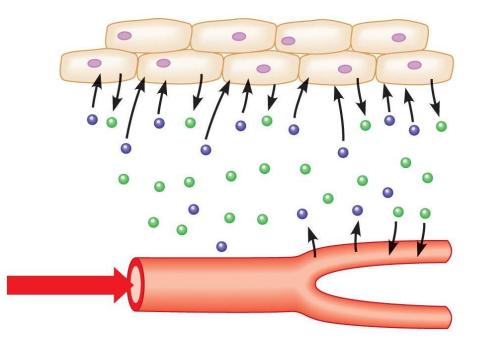




Steady state

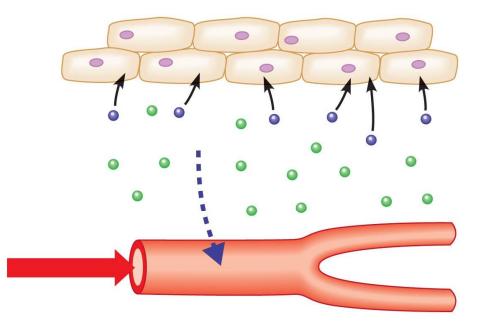
- --O<sub>2</sub> delivered rate= consumed rate
- --CO<sub>2</sub> removed rate= produced rate

(a) Under normal steady-state conditions, oxygen (purple dots) is delivered to tissues by the blood as fast as it is consumed by cells, and carbon dioxide (green dots) is removed from tissues by the blood as fast as it is produced by cells.



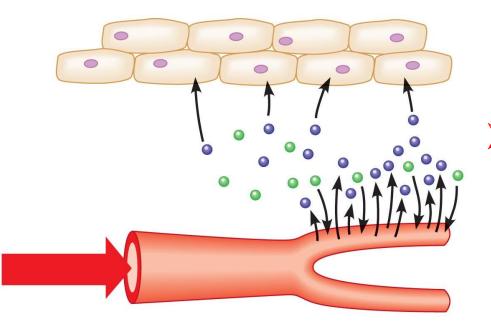
(b) An increase in the metabolic rate causes oxygen to be consumed faster than it is delivered and carbon dioxide to be produced faster than it is removed. The oxygen concentration in extracellular fluid decreases, while carbon dioxide concentration increases.

Increased metabolic rate
--O<sub>2</sub> delivered rate
consumed rate
--CO<sub>2</sub> removed rate
produced rate



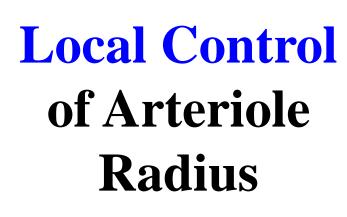
Response to low O<sub>2</sub> and high CO<sub>2</sub> --Vasodilation --Vasodilation increases blood flow

(c) The decreased oxygen concentration and increased carbon dioxide concentration act on arteriolar smooth muscle to promote vasodilation.

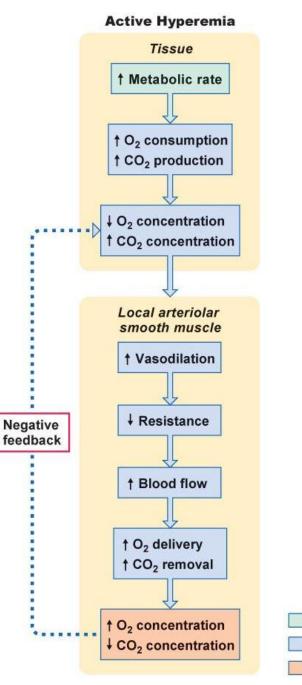


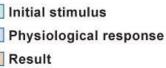
Increased blood flow --Delivers more O<sub>2</sub> --Removes more CO<sub>2</sub>

(d) Vasodilation promotes increased blood flow, which increases oxygen delivery to cells and carbon dioxide removal from cells.



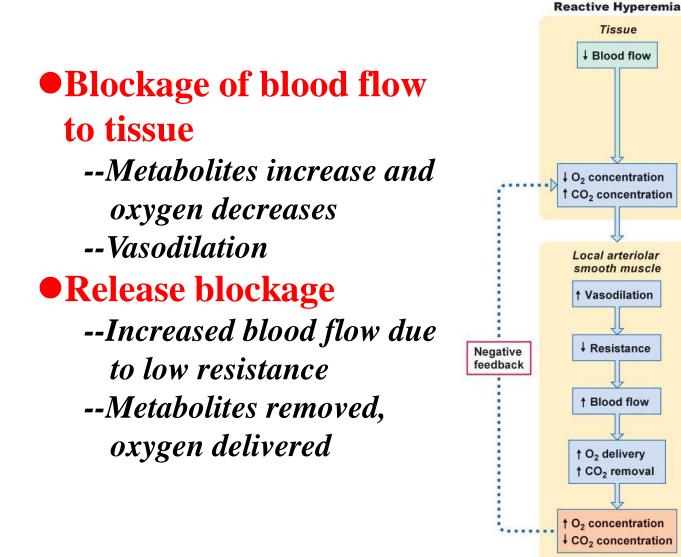
*1. Metabolic Regulation*=Active Hyperemia

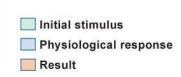




2. *Blood flow Regulation*=Reactive Hyperemia

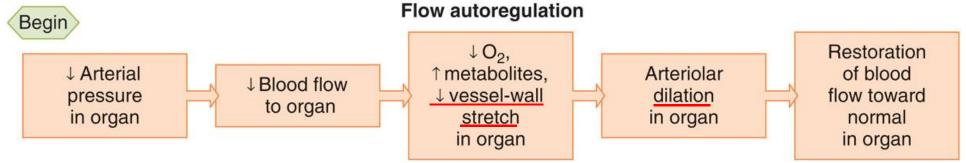
Tissue + Blood flow



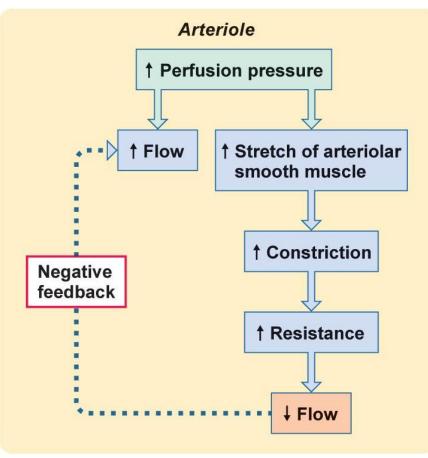


### 3. Myogenic Autoregulation=Myogenic Response

- **Myogenic Autoregulation:** change in vascular resistance in response to stretch of blood vessels in <u>absence of any external factors</u>
- Increased perfusion pressure *increases* blood flow and pressure in arterioles
- Increased pressure in arteriole *stretches* arteriole wall
- Stretch of vascular smooth muscle induces contraction of vascular smooth muscle (\u00e4blood flow) inherent property of smooth muscle
- Purpose—keep blood flow constant (autoregulate)



3. Myogenic Autoregulation=Myogenic Response



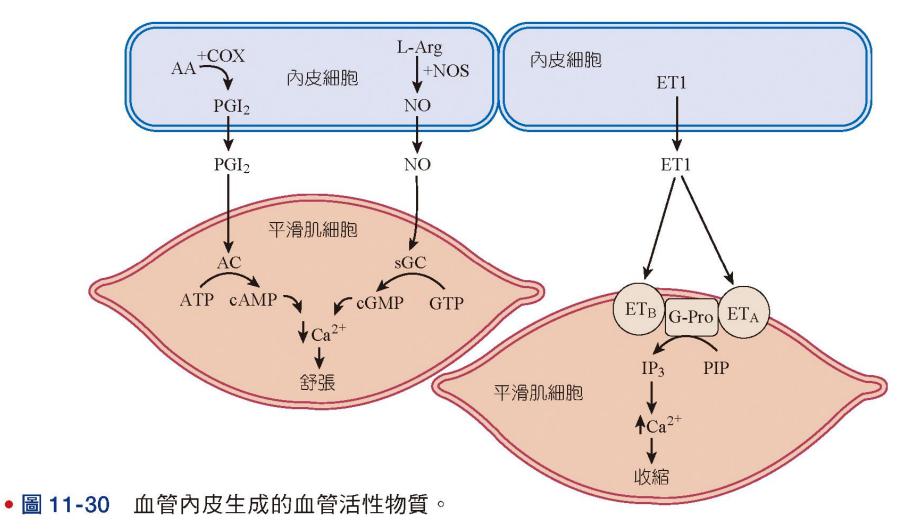
- Initial stimulus
- Physiological response
- Result

4. Chemical Messengers=Local Vasoactive Substances

# Actions on *smooth muscle in Arteriole* → *Radius* of arterioles → Vascular *resistance* → *Blood flow and blood pressure*

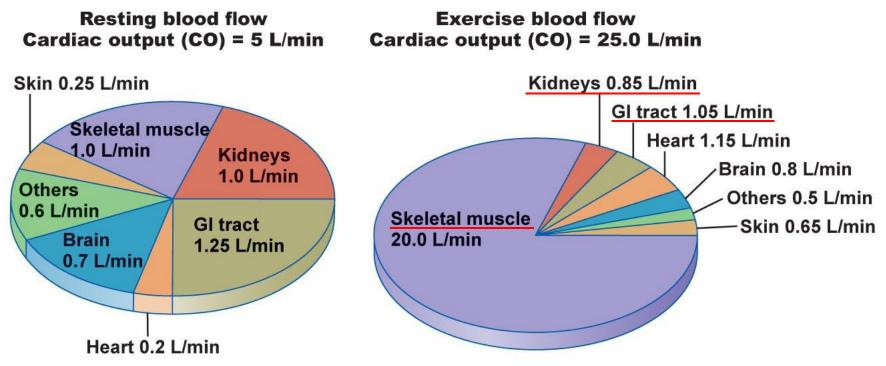
Substance	Source	Effect on vascular smooth muscle
Oxygen	Delivered to tissues by blood; consumed in aerobic metabolism	Vasoconstriction
Carbon dioxide	Generated in aerobic metabolism	Vasodilation
Potassium ions	Released from cells (particularly in muscle) as a result of repeated depolarization occurring during activity	Vasodilation (vasoconstriction at high concentrations)
Acids (hydrogen ions)	Acids (hydrogen ions) Generated during anaerobic metabolism (lactic acid) and by reaction of carbon dioxide with water (carbonic acid)	
Adenosine	Released by cells in certain tissues in response to hypoxia	Vasodilation
Nitric oxide	Released by endothelial cells on a continuous basis and in response to various chemical signals <i>ex. BK</i> , <i>histamine etc.</i>	Vasodilation
Bradykinin	Generated from a precursor protein (kininogen) by action of an enzyme (kallikrein) secreted by cells in certain tissues in response to various chemical signals	Vasodilation
Endothelin-1	Released by endothelial cells in response to various chemical signals and mechanical stimuli	Vasoconstriction
Prostacyclin ( <b>PGI</b> <sub>2</sub> )	Released by endothelial cells in response to various chemical signals and mechanical stimuli	Vasodilation

## Vasoactive Substances of Vascular Endothelium

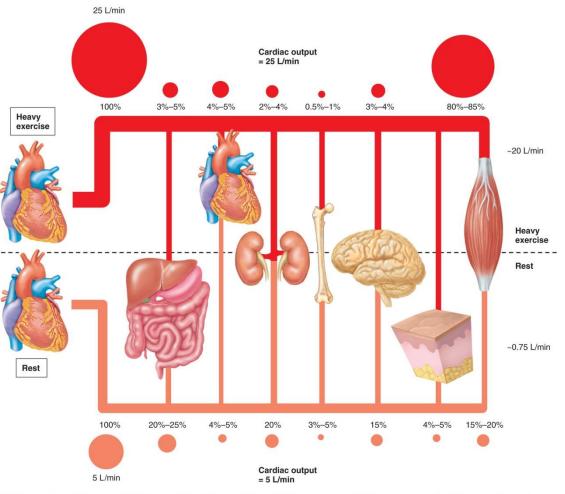


## Independent Regulation of Blood Flow During Exercise

- Cardiac output *increases* during exercise
- Distribution of blood *does not increase proportionally*
- Disproportionate flow diverts blood to muscles



Independent Regulation of Blood Flow During Exercise



#### Table 14.5 Changes in Skeletal Muscle Blood Flow Under Conditions of Rest and Exercise

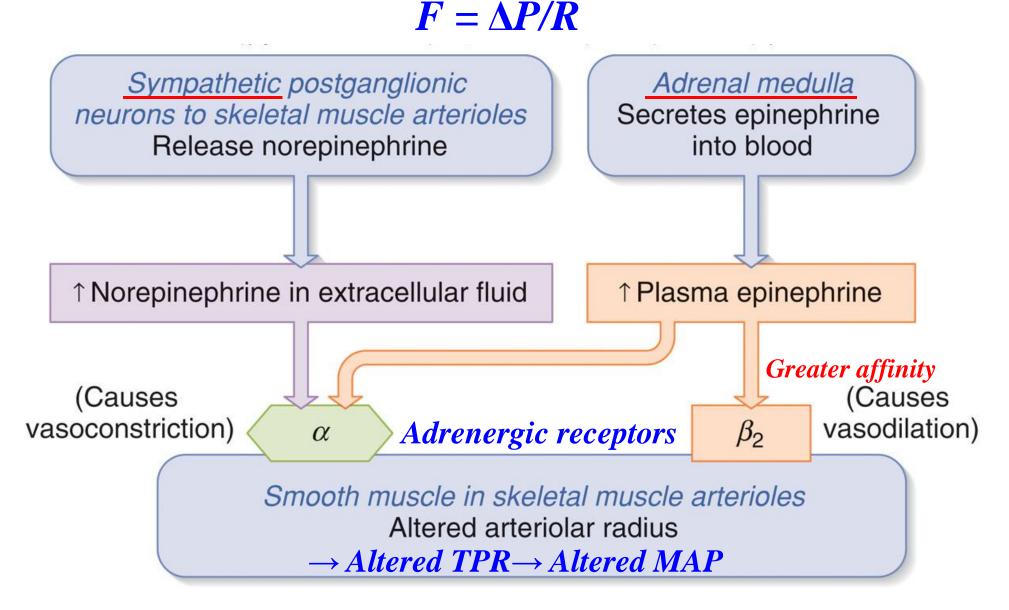
Condition	Blood Flow (ml/min)	Mechanism	
Rest	1,000	High adrenergic sympathetic stimulation of vascular alpha receptors, causing vasoconstriction	
Beginning exercise	Increased	Dilation of arterioles in skeletal muscles due to cholinergic sympathetic nerve activity and stimulation of beta-adrenergic receptors by the hormone epinephrine	
Heavy exercise	20,000	Fall in alpha-adrenergic activity	
	Increased cholinergic sympathetic activity		
		Increased metabolic rate of exercising muscles, producing intrinsic vasodilation	

### **Extrinsic Control of Arteriole Radius**

Flow (F) =  $\Delta P/R$  CO = MAP / TPR  $MAP = CO \times TPR$  $MAP = SV \times HR \times TPR$ 

- Mean arterial pressure depends on *TPR*
- TPR depends on *radius of arterioles*
- Radius of arterioles regulated by *extrinsic mechanisms* to control *mean arterial pressure*
  - --Sympathetic activity
  - --Hormones

# **Extrinsic Control of Arteriole Radius**



### **Extrinsic Control of Arteriole Radius**

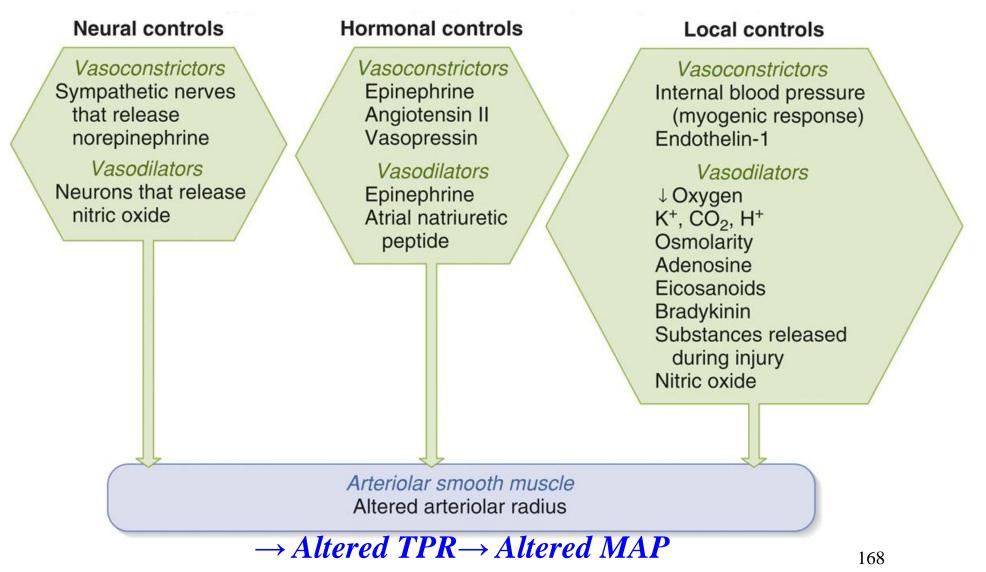
Extrinsic factor	Change in radius	Effect on MAP
Sympathetic nerves	Vasoconstriction	Increase
Epinephrine	Depends on receptor type	Increase (dominant effect is at $\alpha$ receptors)
	α Adrenergic: vasoconstriction	
	$\beta_2$ Adrenergic: vasodilation	
Vasopressin <b>(ADH</b> )	Vasoconstriction	Increase
Angiotensin II	Vasoconstriction	Increase

AII is synthesized from angiotensinogen (precursor)
Angiotensinogen <u>renin</u> angiotensin I <u>ACE</u> angiotensin II

Action

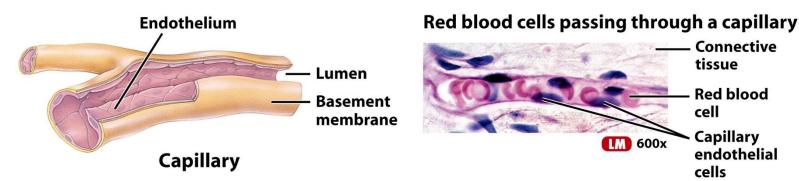
- --Vasoconstriction
- --Increases TPR (total peripheral resistance)

# **Control of Arteriole Radius**



## Capillaries

- Microscopic vessels (5–10 μm in diameter) that connect arterioles to venules (*smallest blood vessels*)
- Found near every cell in the body but more extensive in highly active tissue (*muscles, liver, kidneys & brain*)
  - --Entire capillary bed fills with blood when tissue is active
  - --Lacking in epithelia, cornea and lens of eye & cartilage
- **Exchange vessels** exchange of nutrients & wastes between blood and tissue fluid (total  $SA = 600 \text{ m}^2$ )
- Capillary walls (lack tunica media and tunica externa)= a single layer of cells (endothelium=simple squamous epithelium tissue) and a basement membrane



### > Capillaries form

**microcirculation** –flow from metarteriole through capillaries and into postcapillary venule

### Capillary beds –arise from single metarteriole

- --Vasomotion: intermittent contraction and relaxation
- --Thoroughfare channel: bypasses capillary bed
- Blood flow to capillaries is regulated by:
  - --Vasoconstriction and vasodilation of arterioles
  - --Precapillary sphincters

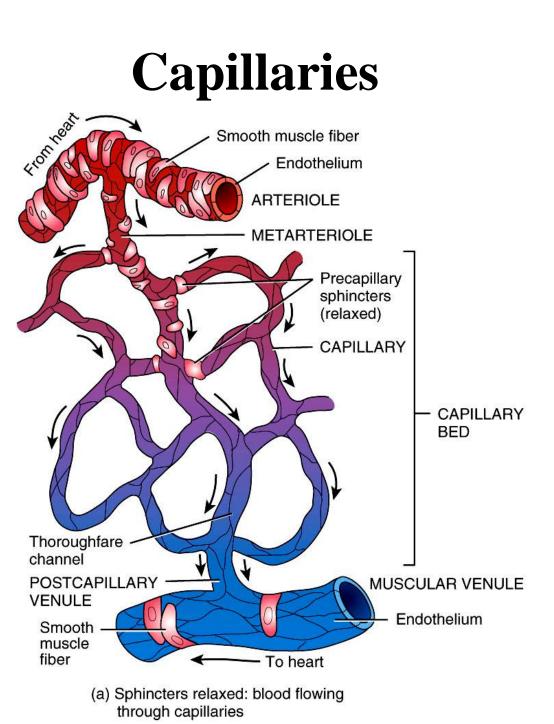
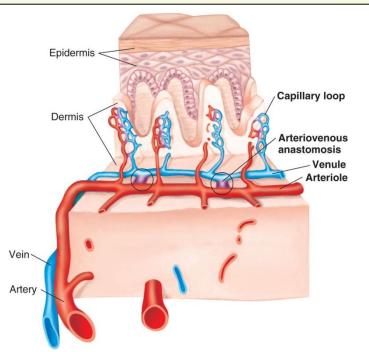
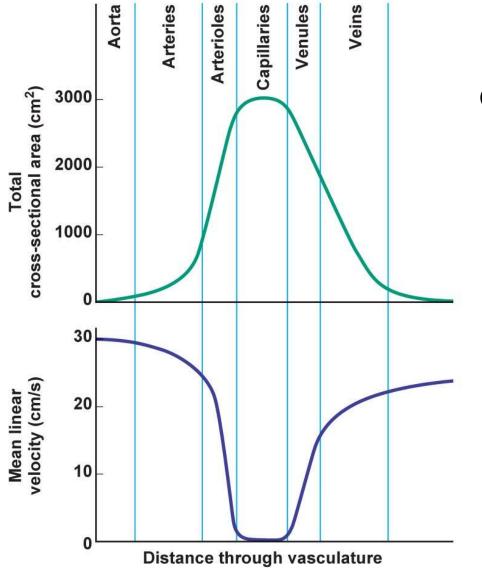


表 11-11	直捷通路與動靜脈吻合支的比較 Thoroughfare channel	Arteriovenous anastomosis	
途徑	直捷通路	動靜脈吻合支	
血管組成	小動脈→後小動脈→直捷通路→小靜脈	小動脈→動靜脈吻合支→小靜脈	
血流速度	快	迅速(更快)	
物質交換		無 皮膚	
主要分布	骨骼肌		
血管狀況	通常開放	平時關閉,體溫升高時開放	
生理意義	血液迅速回流心臟	體溫調節	



## **Vessel Area and Velocity of Blood**



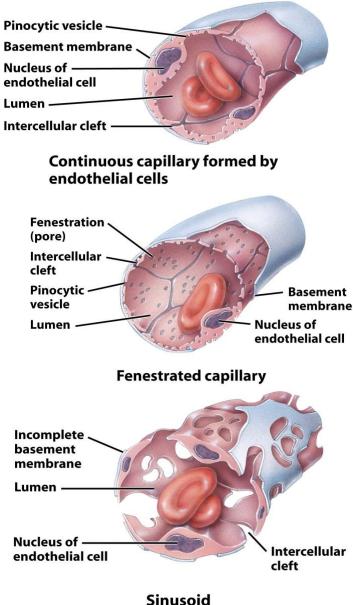
### • Capillaries

--Have *greatest total cross-sectional* 

area

--Have *slowest velocity of blood flow, enhances exchange* 

# **Types of Capillaries**



### Continuous capillaries

- --Intercellular clefts are *gaps* between neighboring cells
- --Skin, muscle, adipose tissue, skeletal & smooth, connective tissue, CNS and lungs
- --*Most common kind* have tight junctions

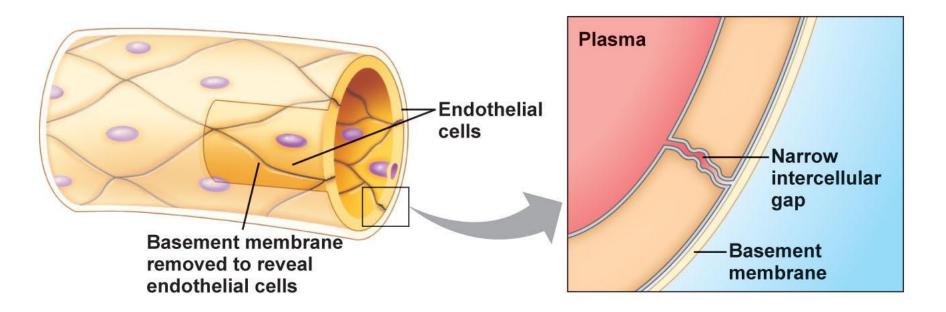
### Fenestrated capillaries

- --Plasma membranes have many holes (more permeable)
- --Kidneys, small intestine, choroid plexuses, ciliary process & endocrine glands

### Sinusoid (Discontinuous)

- --Very large fenestrations
- --Incomplete basement membrane
- --Liver, bone marrow, spleen, anterior pituitary, & parathyroid gland

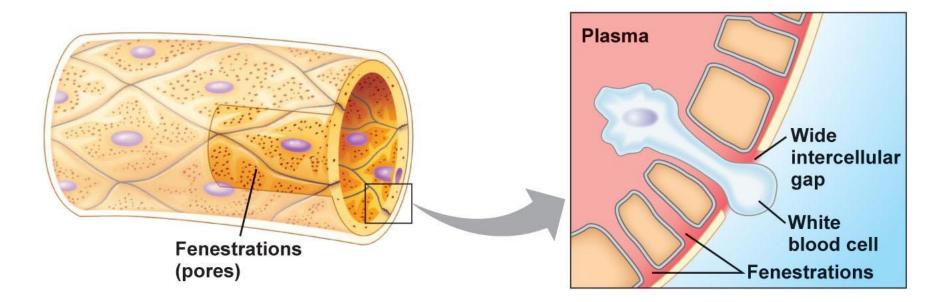
## **Continuous Capillaries**



### ➤Most common

Small gaps between endothelial cells --Allows small water-soluble molecules to move through

## **Fenestrated Capillaries**



 Large gaps between endothelial cells forming pores or fenestrations
 --Allow proteins and in some cases blood cells to move through

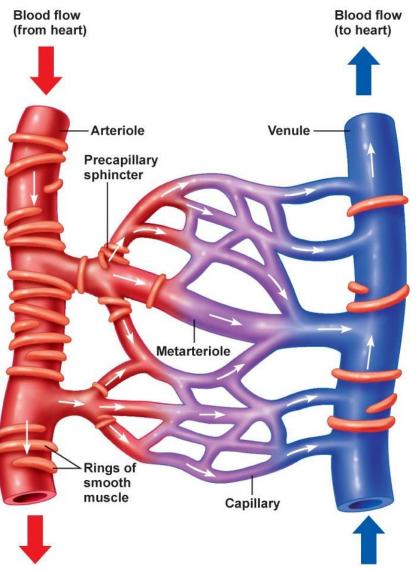
# **Types of Capillaries**

種類特性	連續型微血管	窗孔型微血管	不連續型微血管
内皮細胞 型態	緊密相連	細 胞 間 有 80~100 nm 的 孔 隙,並附著黏液蛋白	細胞間隙較大,約1μm
部位	主要在肌肉、肺、皮膚及血 腦障壁上	腎臟、小腸絨毛、内分泌腺 等部位	骨髓、肝脾的血竇中
通透性	對水和蛋白質的通透性都很 低	水及蛋白質能通過	對水和蛋白都有高通透

## Local Control of Blood Flow Through Capillary Beds

- Local control of **smooth muscle** in microcirculation
  - 1. Arterioles
  - 2. Metarterioles
    - >Intermediate between arterioles and capillaries
    - Directly connect arterioles to venules
    - ≻Function as shunts to bypass capillaries
    - <u>Rings of smooth muscle</u> at strategic locations
      - --Contract and relax in response to local factors
      - --*Contract*  $\rightarrow$  increase blood flow through capillaries
      - --*Relax*  $\rightarrow$  decrease blood flow through capillaries
  - 3. Precapillary sphincters

## Local Control of Blood Flow Through Capillary Beds



- 3. Precapillary Sphincters: <u>Rings of smooth muscle</u> that surround capillaries on the arteriole end
  - --Contract and relax in response to local factors only
  - --*Contraction* → constrict capillary → decrease blood flow
  - --*Relaxation* → increase blood flow
  - --*Metabolites* cause relaxation

# **Capillary Exchange**

- Movement of substances between blood and interstitial fluid
- **3 exchange mechanisms** across capillary walls
  - **1. Diffusion** (most important method)
    - Substances move *down their concentration gradient* 
      - --O<sub>2</sub> and nutrients from blood to interstitial fluid to body cells
      - $--CO_2$  and wastes move from body cells to interstitial fluid to blood
    - Can cross capillary wall through *intracellular clefts*, *fenestrations or through endothelial cells (lipid bilayer)*

--Most plasma proteins cannot cross

--Except in sinusoids – proteins and even blood cells leave

--Blood-brain barrier (Mediated transport)- tight junctions limit diffusion

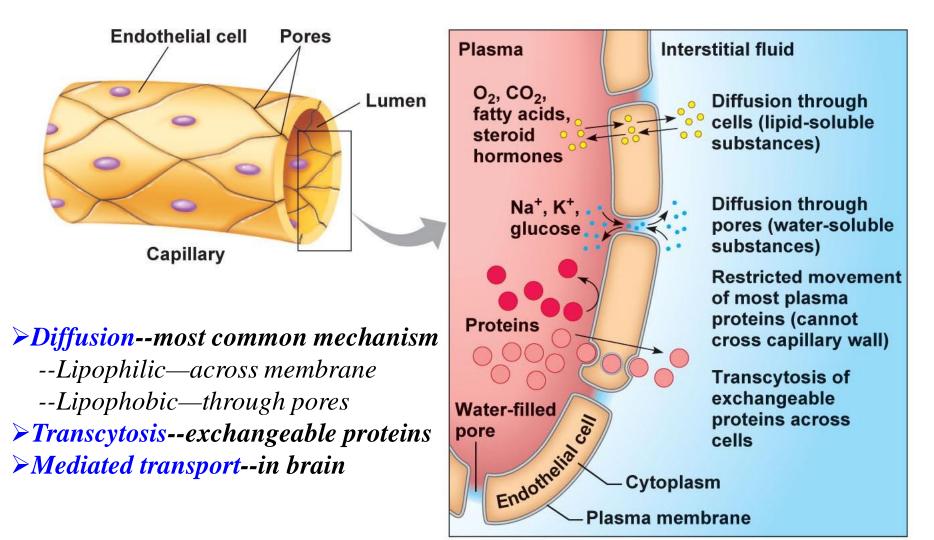
### 2. Transcytosis

Passage of material across endothelium in tiny vesicles by *endocytosis* and exocytosis

--large, lipid-insoluble molecules such as insulin or maternal antibodies passing through placental circulation to fetus

### 3. Bulk flow

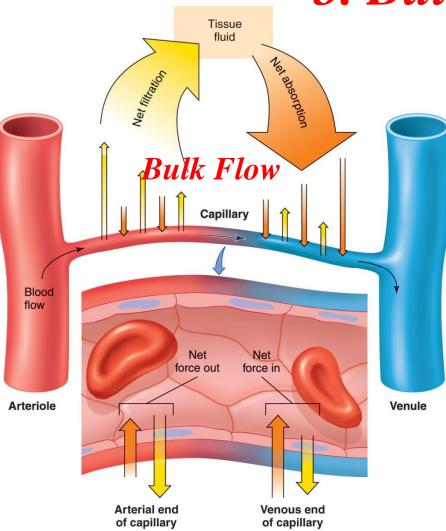
# **Capillary Exchange**



# Capillary Exchange 3. Bulk Flow

- **Bulk flow** = <u>Passive process</u> in which large numbers of ions, molecules, or particles in a fluid move together in the <u>same direction</u>
- Based on *pressure gradient*
- <u>Diffusion</u> is more important for solute exchange
- <u>Bulk flow</u> more important for regulation of *relative volumes* of blood and interstitial fluid
- Filtration= from capillaries into interstitial fluid
- **Reabsorption**= from interstitial fluid into capillaries

# Capillary Exchange 3. Bulk Flow



- Net filtration pressure = hydrostatic pressure of the blood in the capillaries hydrostatic pressure of the fluid outside the capillaries
- Net reabsorption = movement of fluid into the capillaries
  - --Blood plasma has higher colloid osmotic pressure than interstitial fluid

# **Starling Forces Across Capillary Walls**

- •Starling forces for bulk flow: *hydrostatic and osmotic pressures*
- •Hydrostatic pressure gradient = force due to fluid
- •Osmotic pressure = osmotic force exerted on water by nonpermeating solutes

--Only nonpermeating solute = **proteins** 

--Oncotic pressure (colloid osmotic pressure) = osmotic force of proteins

# **Hydrostatic Pressure Gradient**

• Capillary hydrostatic pressure = capillary BP

--Arteriole end = 38 mm Hg

--Venous end = 16 mm Hg

--Favors filtration

• Interstitial hydrostatic pressure = 0–1 mm Hg

--Favors reabsorption

- Hydrostatic pressure gradient
  - --Arteriole end: 38 1 = 37 mm Hg, filtration
  - --Venous end: 16 1 = 15 mm Hg

--Favors reabsorption

# **Osmotic Pressure Gradient**

## • Capillary oncotic osmotic pressure

--25 mm Hg (plasma protein 6-8 g/100 ml)

--Favors reabsorption

#### Interstitial fluid oncotic osmotic pressure

--0–1 mm Hg (relatively few protein)

--Favors filtration

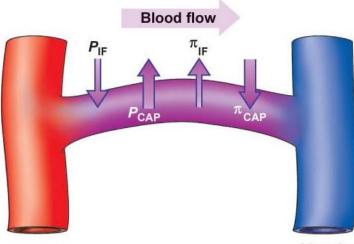
## • Osmotic pressure gradient

-25 - 0 = 25 mm Hg

--Favors reabsorption

# **Starling Forces Across Capillary Walls**

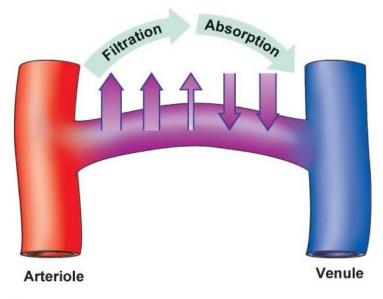
- 2 pressures promote filtration
  - **1.** <u>Capillary (blood) hydrostatic pressure</u> generated by pumping action of heart
  - 2. Interstitial fluid colloid osmotic pressure
- 2 pressures promote reabsorption
  - 1. Capillary (blood) colloid osmotic pressure
     promotes reabsorption (due to blood plasma
     proteins > ISF)
  - 2. Interstitial fluid hydrostatic pressure



Arteriole

Venule

(a) **Starling's Law** 

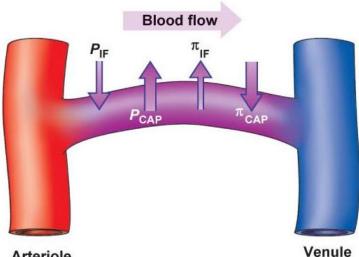


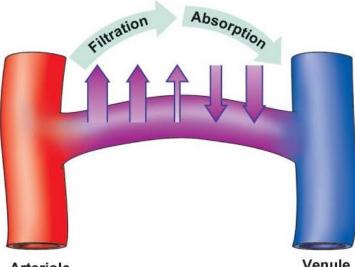
(c) Filtration ≈ Reabsorption

 $P_{\rm IF}$  = 1 mm Hg  $\pi_{\rm IF}$  = 0 mm Hg  $\pi_{CAP} = 25 \text{ mm Hg}$ PCAP 38 mm Hg 16 mm Hg Venule Arteriole Arteriole end Venule end Filtration Absorption Filtration Absorption pressure: pressure: pressure: pressure:  $\begin{array}{c} P_{\text{CAP}} = 38 \text{ mm Hg} \\ \pi_{\text{IF}} = 0 \text{ mm Hg} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \pi_{\text{CAP}} = 25 \text{ mm Hg} \\ P_{\text{IF}} = 1 \text{ mm Hg} \end{array}$  $P_{CAP} = 16 \text{ mm Hg}$  $\pi_{CAP}$  = 25 mm Hg  $\pi_{IE} = 0 \text{ mm Hg}$  $P_{iF} = 1 \text{ mm Hg}$ 38 mm Hg 26 mm Ha 16 mm Hg 26 mm Ha NFP = Filtration pressure NFP = Filtration pressure Absorption pressure Absorption pressure = 38 mm Hg – 26 mm Hg = 12 mm Hg = 16 mm Hg – 26 mm Hg = -10 mm Hg (b) ≻Net filtration pressure (NFP)=  $(\boldsymbol{P}_{CAP} + \boldsymbol{\pi}_{IF}) - (\boldsymbol{\pi}_{CAP} + \boldsymbol{P}_{IF})$ >Net across capillary: filtration > absorption  $\triangleright$ Net filtration = 3 L/day >Lymphatic system picks up excess filtrate and returns it to circulation

# **Starling Forces Across Capillary Walls**

Force	Definition	Direction of force	Approximate value
Capillary hydrostatic pressure, P <sub>CAP</sub>	Hydrostatic pressure exerted by the presence of fluid inside the capillary	Filtration	16–38 mm Hg
Interstitial fluid hydrostatic pressure, P <sub>IF</sub>	Hydrostatic pressure exerted by the presence of fluid outside the capillary	Absorption	1 mm Hg
Capillary osmotic pressure, $\pi_{CAP}$	Osmotic force due to presence of proteins in plasma	Absorption	25 mm Hg
Interstitial fluid osmotic pressure, $\pi_{ ext{IF}}$	Osmotic force due to presence of proteins in interstitial fluid	Filtration	0 mm Hg
Net filtration pressure, NFP	Difference between forces for filtration and absorption	If positive: filtration if negative: absorption	2 mm Hg



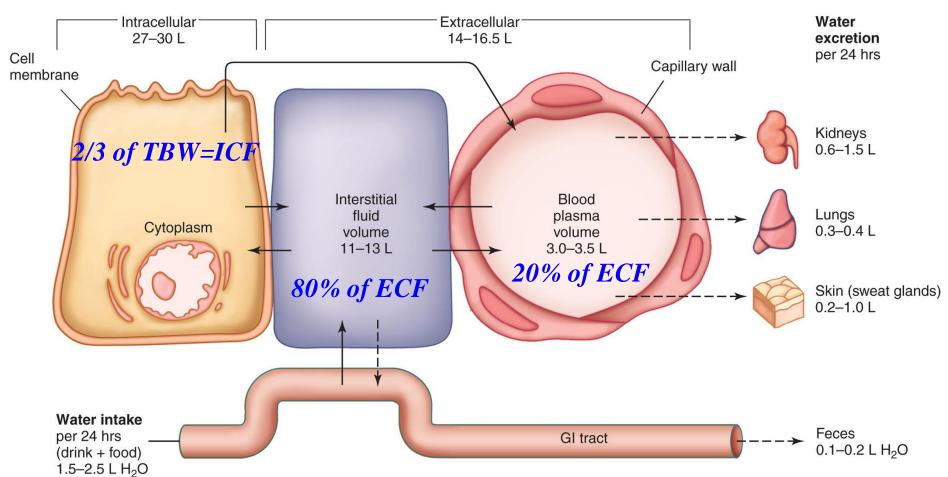


Arteriole

Arteriole

Venule

# **Body Water Distribution**



Osmotic forces (control the movement of water: ISF-capillaries; ISF-ICF), water excretion (urine formation) and water intake (drinking) play a important role in <u>blood volume homeostasis</u>



# **Clinical Application: Edema**

An abnormal increase in interstitial fluid (Filtration > Reabsorption)

	水腥的原因		
	原因	註 解	
<b>P</b> <sub>CAI</sub>	血壓增加或 P 靜脈阻塞	增加微血管過濾壓,所以有較多的組織 液在微血管動脈端形成	
	組織蛋白濃 度增加 <i>π<sub>IF</sub></i>	降低水分滲透進入微血管靜脈端。通常 局部組織水腫是由於在發炎和過敏反應 時血漿蛋白經由微血管漏出所致。甲狀 腺功能低下造成的黏液水腫也是屬於這 一類	•
	血漿蛋白濃 度降低 <i>π<sub>CAP</sub></i>	降低水分滲透進入微血管靜脈端。可能 是由肝臟疾病(其與血漿蛋白製造不足 有關)、 <u>腎臟病</u> (由於血漿蛋白滲漏進 尿液中)、或 <u>蛋白質營養失調</u> 引起的	
	淋巴管阻塞	由特殊種類的蚊子傳染而感染絲蟲蛔蟲 (filaria roundworms)(線蟲類),其阻斷淋 巴流動,引起水腫及感染區域巨大的腫脹	

业场内国田

Excess filtration

- --Increased blood pressure (hypertension)
- --Increased permeability of capillaries allows plasma proteins to escape

#### Inadequate reabsorption

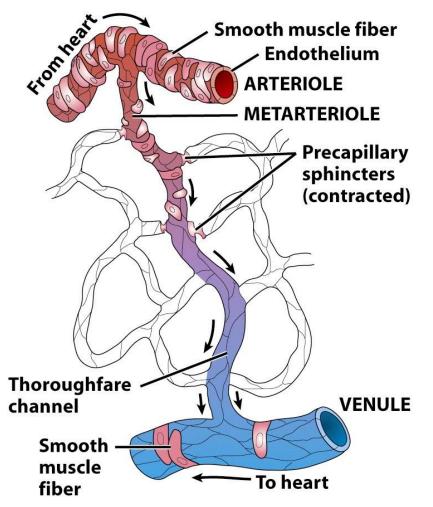
- --Decreased concentration of plasma proteins lowers blood colloid osmotic pressure
  - ✓ Inadequate synthesis or loss from liver disease, burns, malnutrition or kidney disease; blockage of lymphatic vessels postoperatively or due to filarial worm infection

# **Clinical Application: Edema**

An abnormal increase in interstitial fluid

表 11-19 組織液增	曾多的影響因素
原因	實 例
1. 微血管血壓 ↑ <b>P<sub>CAP</sub></b>	靜脈回流受阻ex. CHF
2. 組織液膠體滲透壓↑ <i>π</i> IF	病理性微血管通透性上 升,部分血漿蛋白過濾 進入組織液
3. 血漿膠體滲透壓 ↓ <i>ת<sub>САР</sub></i>	低蛋白血症
4. 淋巴回流受阻	絲蟲病導致淋巴管阻塞 引起的象皮腿;乳腺癌 阻塞淋巴管
5. 微血管通透性↑ ‴ŢF	炎症、過敏反應 ex. histan

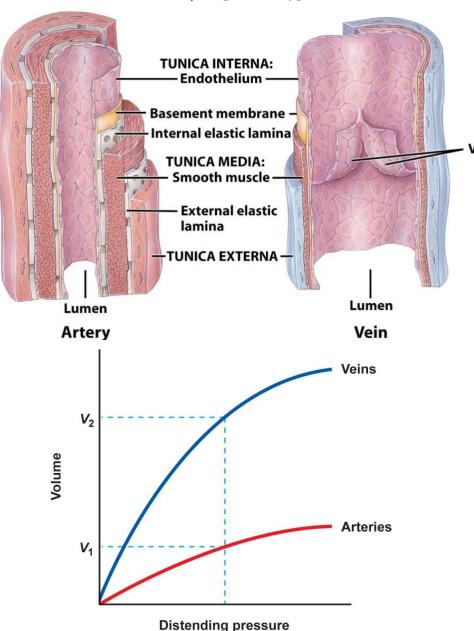
# Venules



Sphincters contracted: blood flowing through thoroughfare channel

- Small veins collecting blood from capillaries
- **Smaller** than arterioles
- Form part of microcirculatory exchange unit with capillaries
- Tunica media contains only a few smooth muscle cells & scattered fibroblasts
  - --Very porous endothelium allows for escape of many phagocytic white blood cells

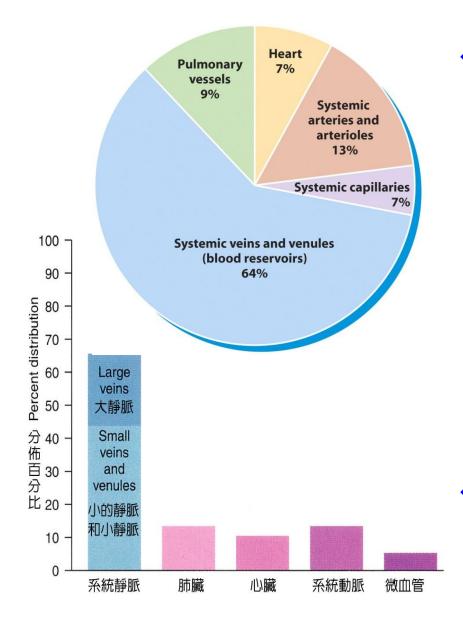
## Veins



Veins consist of the same three tunics as arteries but have a thinner tunica interna and media and a thicker tunica externa

- --Less elastic tissue and smooth muscle
- --**Thinner**-walled than arteries
- --Contain *valves* to prevent the backflow of blood
- Veins are highly distensible= capacitance (compliant) vessels that act as blood reservoirs
  - --64% total blood volume in systemic veins at rest

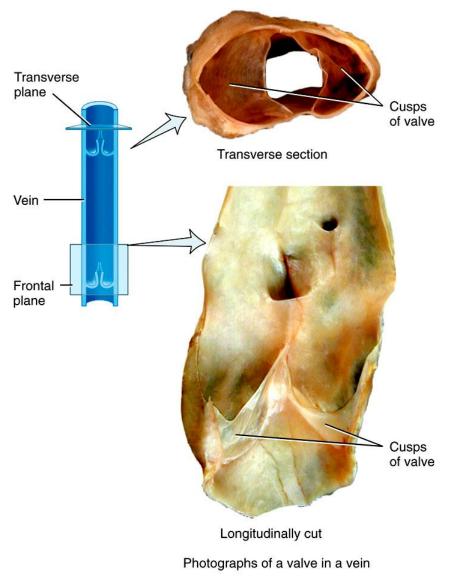
# **Blood Distribution**



64% of blood volume at rest is in systemic veins and venules

- --Function as *blood reservoir* 
  - Veins of skin & abdominal organs (liver and spleen)
- --Blood is diverted from it in times of need
  - *Increased muscular activity* produces venoconstriction
  - *Hemorrhage* causes venoconstriction to help maintain blood pressure
- 13% of blood volume in arteries & arterioles

# **Venous Valves**

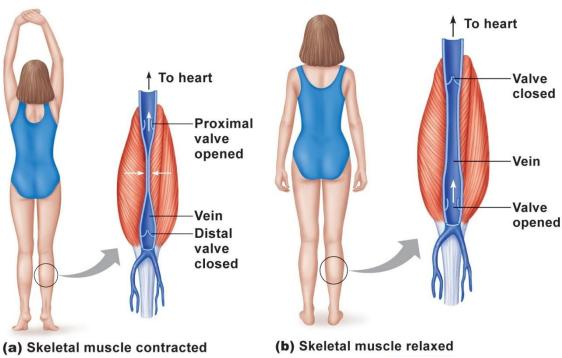


- Valves allow *unidirectional blood flow*
  - --Present in <u>peripheral veins</u> --Absent from central veins
- Valves folds on <u>tunica interna</u> forming cusps
  - --Aid in *venous return* by preventing backflow
- Portal vein blood passes through second capillary bed --Hepatic or hypophyseal
- Vascular (venous) sinuses are veins with very thin walls with no smooth muscle to alter their diameters
  - --Brain's superior sagittal sinus and the coronary sinus of the heart

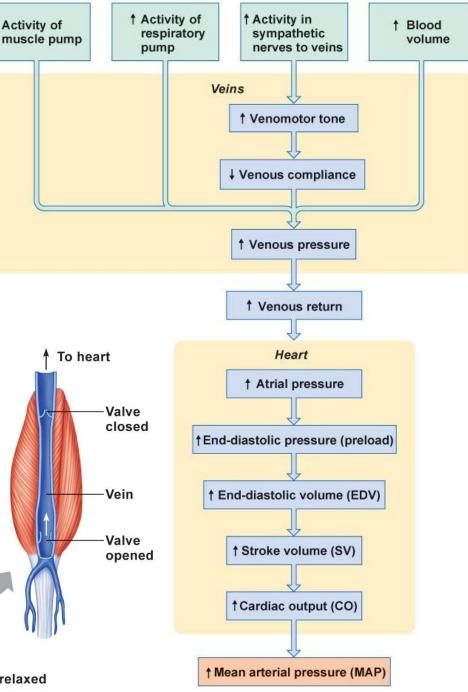
# **Venous Pressure**

- Blood pressure in veins is ~15 mm Hg. This is not sufficient to move blood back to the heart. So there are the "pumps":
  - 1. Respiratory pump: Inhalation increases abdominal cavity pressure in relation to thoracic pressure and helps to propel blood back to the heart
  - 2. Muscular pump: *Muscles contract* blood moving forward and being prevented from backflow by the *venous valves*. This moves blood toward the heart
- The smooth muscle in the veins is under **SNS** control and contract (*venoconstriction*) when stimulated, similar to the arterial smooth muscle. This causes contraction and a narrowing of the lumen

**Factors Affecting Venous Pressure** Skeletal muscle pump **Respiratory pump Blood** volume **Venomotor tone** 

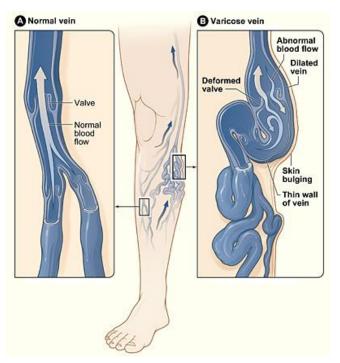


**†** Activity of



# **Clinical Application: Varicose Veins**





#### Twisted, dilated superficial veins

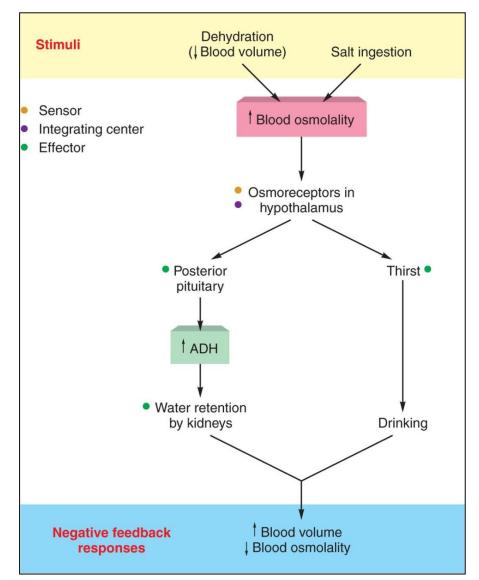
- --Caused by leaky venous valves
  - Congenital or mechanically stressed from prolonged standing or pregnancy

#### --Allow backflow and pooling of blood

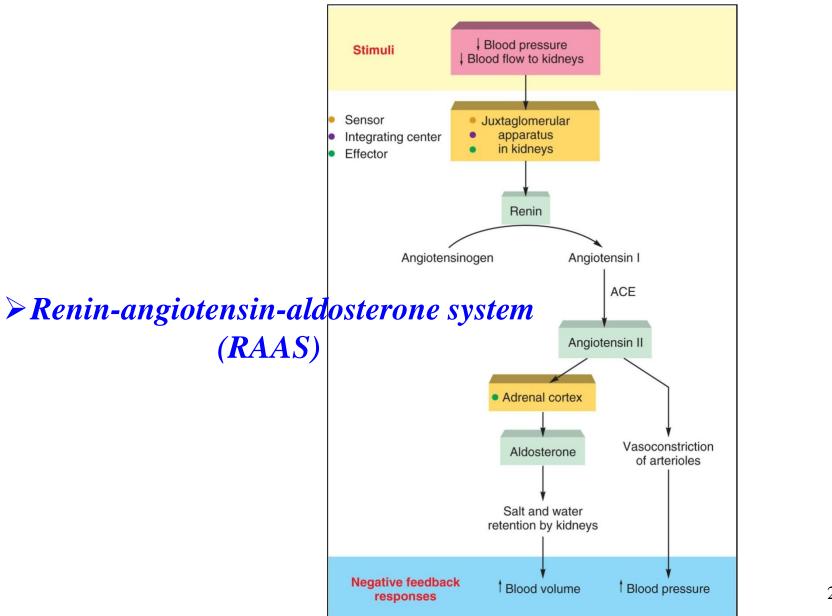
- Extra pressure forces fluids into surrounding tissues
- Nearby tissue is inflamed and tender
- The most common sites are in the esophagus, the lower limbs, and veins in the anal canal (hemorrhoids)
- Deeper veins not susceptible because of support of surrounding muscles
- The treatments for varicose veins in the lower limbs include: sclerotherapy, radiofrequency endovenous occlusion, laser occlusion, and surgical stripping

## **Regulation of Blood Volume by <u>Kidneys</u>**

- 180 L of filtrate is moved across the glomeruli per day, yet only about 1.5 L is actually removed as urine. The rest is reabsorbed into the blood
- The amount of <u>fluid</u> <u>reabsorbed</u> is controlled by <u>several hormones</u> in response to the body's needs
- Antidiuretic hormone (ADH)=vasopressin (AVP)
- Stretch receptors in <u>left</u> <u>atrium, carotid sinus, and</u> <u>aortic arch</u> also *inhibit* ADH release

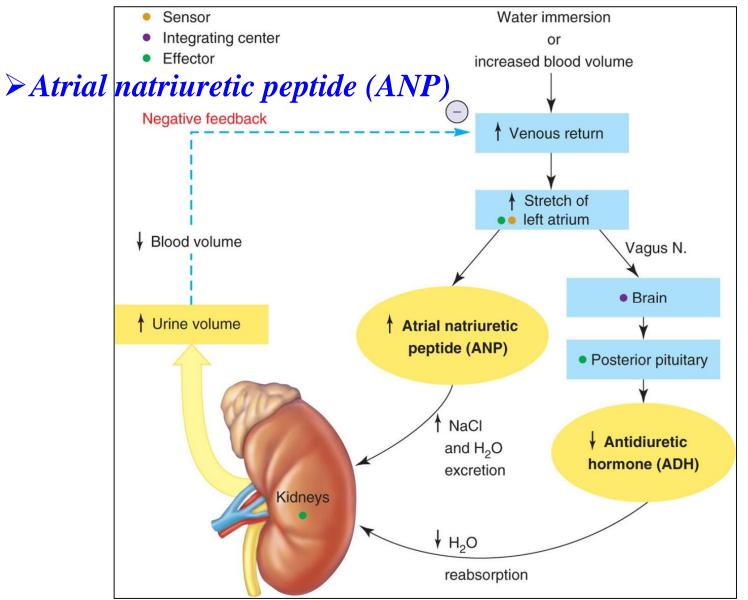


## **Regulation of Blood Volume by <u>Kidneys</u>**



200

## **Regulation of Blood Volume by <u>Kidneys</u>**



201

# Hemodynamics

 $Flow = \Delta P/R$ CO = MAP / TPR $MAP = CO \ x \ TPR$  $MAP = SV \ x \ HR \ x \ TPR$ 

Factors affecting circulation

--**Pressure differences** ( $\triangle P$ ) that drive the blood flow

- <u>Velocity</u> of blood flow (inversely related to the crosssectional area)
- <u>Volume of blood flow</u> (CO=MAP / TPR)

--venous return (4 factors)

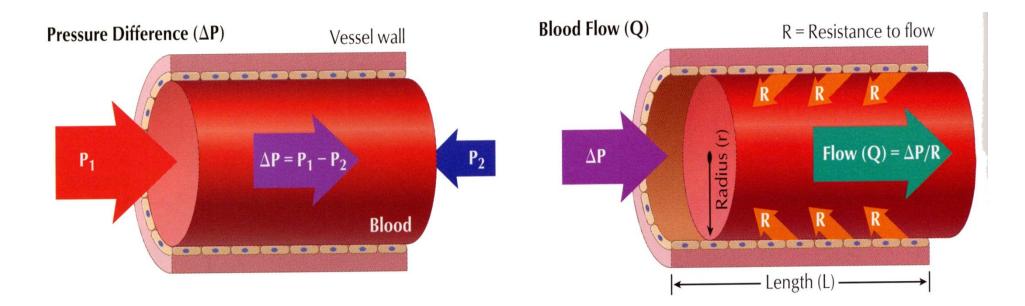
• <u>Blood pressure</u> (MAP=CO × TPR)

--Resistance to flow (R)

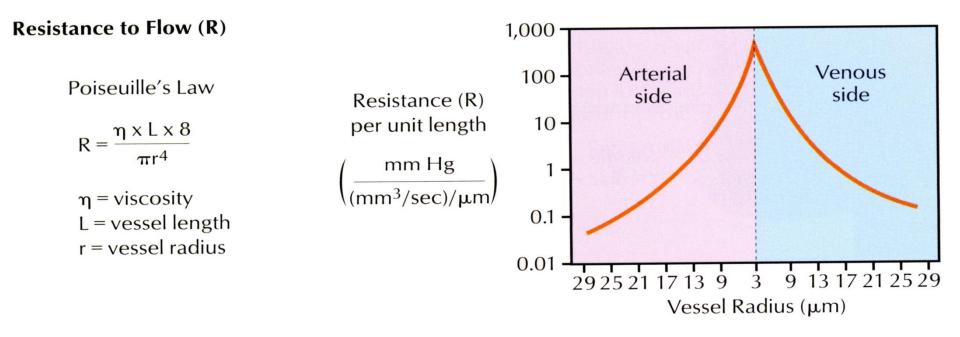
**\*** An interplay of forces result in blood flow

## **Hemodynamic: Pressure Difference**

血流量指每分鐘流經血管某一截面的血量, 取決於<u>血管兩端的壓力差(△P)</u>和<u>血流阻力(R)</u>



# Hemodynamics: Resistance



- ► *Resistance* refers to the opposition to blood flow as a result of friction between blood and the walls of the blood vessels (*Flow* =  $\Delta P/R$ )
- Vascular resistance depends on the <u>vessel radius</u>, <u>blood viscosity</u>, and <u>total blood vessel length</u>
- Systemic vascular resistance (total peripheral resistance=TPR) refers to all of the vascular resistances offered by systemic blood vessels

# **Factors Affecting Resistance to Flow**

#### • Radius of vessel

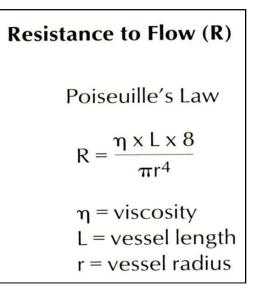
--In *arterioles* (and small arteries) — can regulate radius

#### Length of vessel

--In *obesity* ( $\uparrow$ *body size*) — can  $\uparrow$ total vessel length ( $\uparrow$ R)

## • Viscosity of fluid = $\eta$

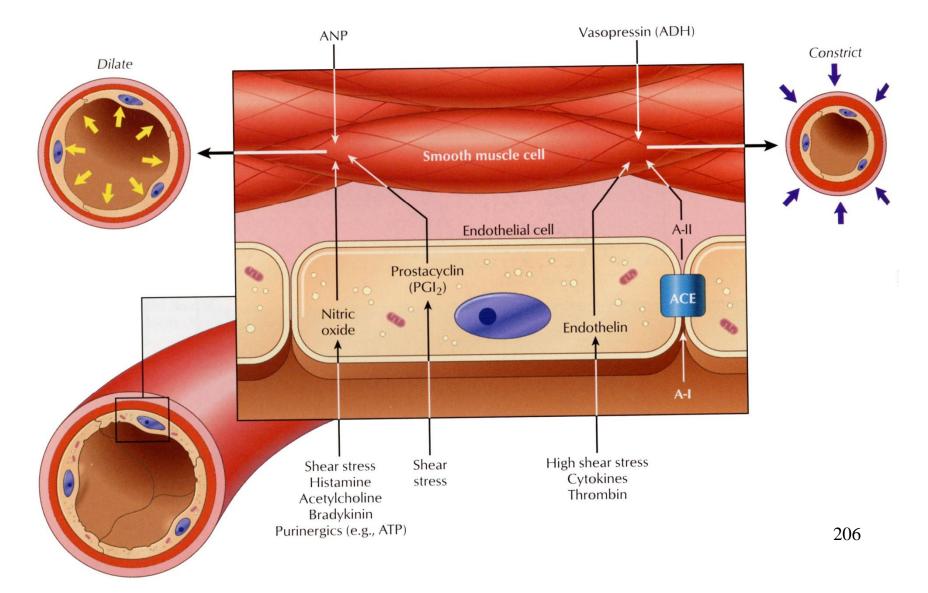
--Blood viscosity dependent on *amount of RBCs (Hct) and shear rate* 



- ▶血流阻力(R)與血管長度(L)及血液黏稠度(η)成正 此,與血管半徑的四次方(r<sup>4</sup>)成反比
- ▶當其他條件都相同時,若管徑變為原先的一半,則 血流阻力便會增加 2<sup>4</sup> = 16 倍
- ▶對血流阻力影響最大的因素為血管管徑

205

# Total peripheral resistance<br/>(TPR)✓ Neural Controls<br/>✓ Hormone Controls<br/>✓ Local Controls

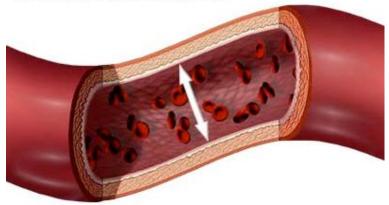


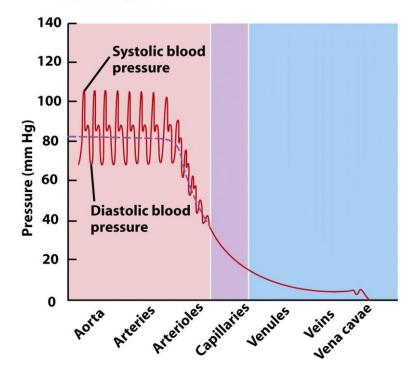
## **Extrinsic Control of Vascular Resistance**

Extrinsic Agent	Effect	Comments
Sympathetic nerves		
Alpha-adrenergic	Vasoconstriction	Vasoconstriction is the dominant effect of sympathetic nerve stimulation on the vascular system, and it occurs throughout the body.
Beta-adrenergic	Vasodilation	There is some activity in arterioles in skeletal muscles and in coronary vessels, but effects are masked by dominant alpha-receptor-mediated constriction.
Cholinergic	Vasodilation	Effects are localized to arterioles in skeletal muscles and are produced only during defense (fight-or-flight) reactions.
Parasympathetic nerves	Vasodilation	Effects are restricted primarily to the gastrointestinal tract, external genitalia, and salivary glands and have little effect on total peripheral resistance.
Angiotensin II	Vasoconstriction	A powerful vasoconstrictor produced as a result of secretion of renin from the kidneys; it may function to help maintain adequate filtration pressure in the kidneys when systemic blood flow and pressure are reduced.
ADH (vasopressin)	Vasoconstriction	Although the effects of this hormone on vascular resistance and blood pressure in anesthetized animals are well documented, the importance of these effects in conscious humans is controversial.
Histamine	Vasodilation	Histamine promotes localized vasodilation during inflammation and allergic reactions.
Bradykinins	Vasodilation	Bradykinins are polypeptides secreted by sweat glands and by the endothelium of blood vessels; they promote local vasodilation.
Prostaglandins	Vasodilation or vasoconstriction	Prostaglandins are cyclic fatty acids that can be produced by most tissues, including blood vessel walls. Prostaglandin I <sub>2</sub> is a vasodilator, whereas thromboxane A <sub>2</sub> is a vasoconstrictor. The physiological significance of these effects is presently controversial.

# **Blood Pressure**

Blood pressure is the measurement of force applied to artery walls



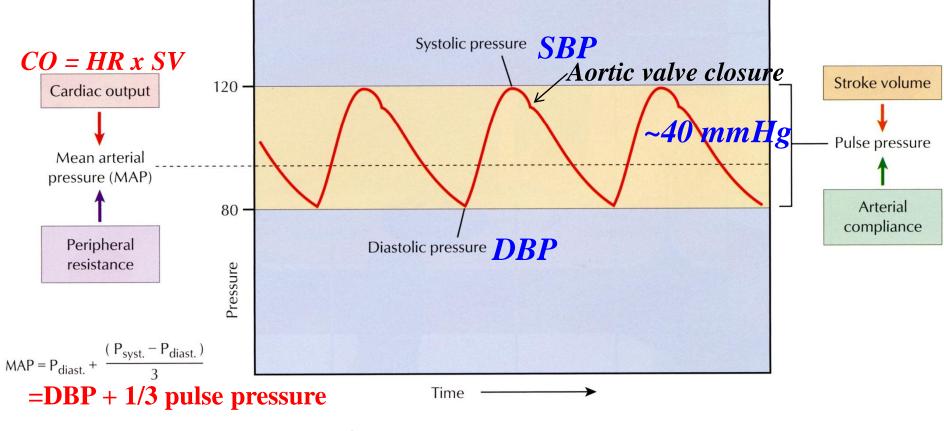


Pressure exerted by blood on walls of a vessel

- --Caused by contraction of ventricles
- --Highest in aorta
  - 120 mm Hg during systole & 80 during diastole
- If heart rate increases cardiac output, BP rises (MAP=CO×TPR)
- Pressure falls steadily in systemic circulation with distance from left ventricle
  - --35 mm Hg entering the <u>capillaries</u> --0 mm Hg entering the right atrium
- If decrease in blood volume is over 10%, BP drops
- Water retention increases blood pressure

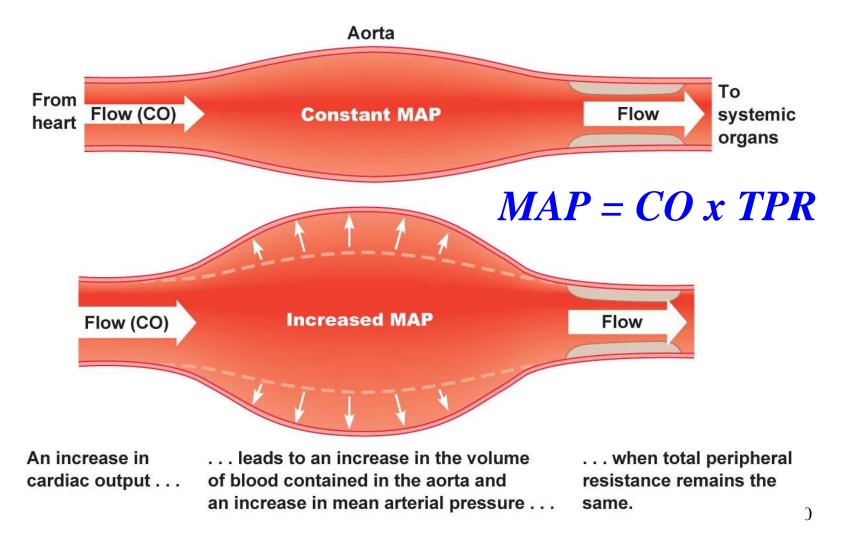
## Arterial Pressure MAP = CO x TPR

#### MAP determined by > Heart rate > Stroke volume > Total peripheral resistance

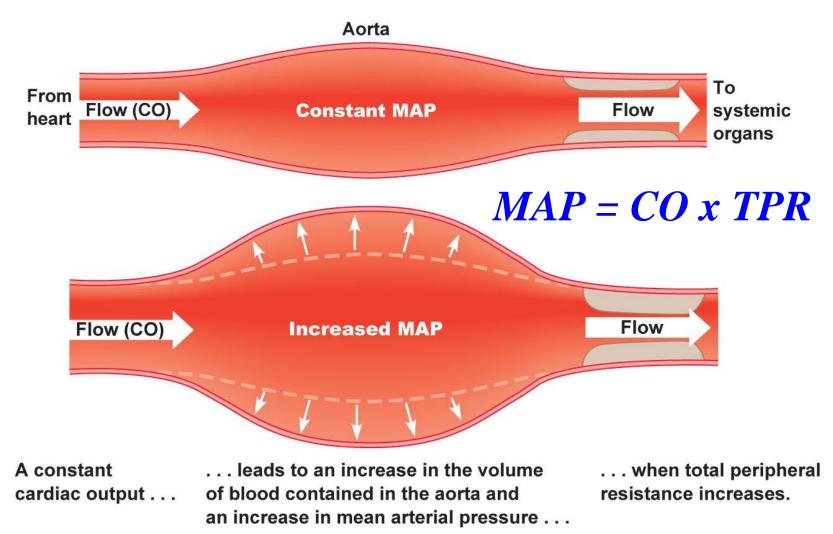


*SBP:DBP:PP= 3:2:1* 

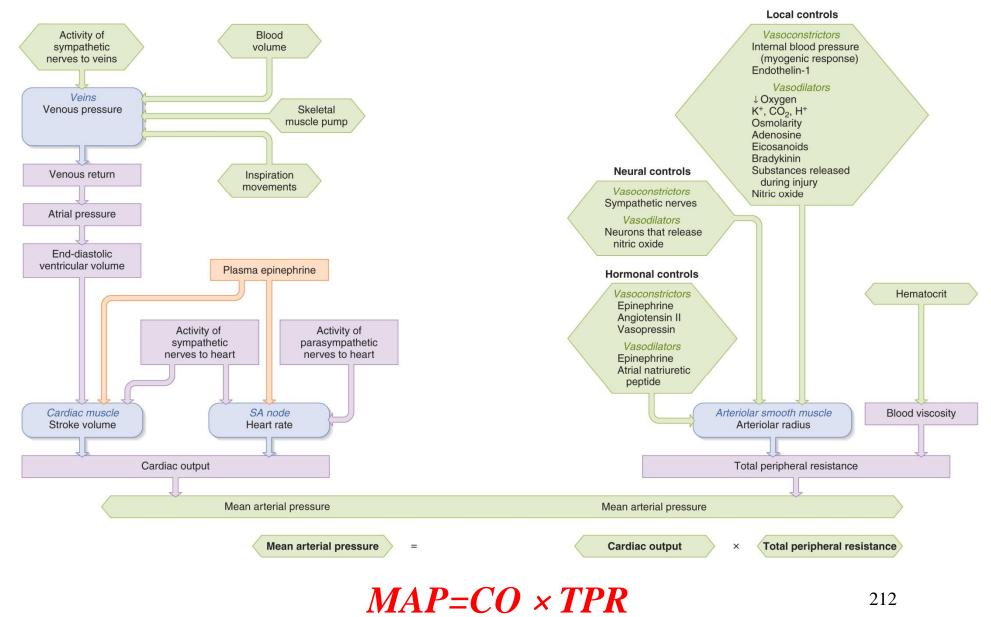
## Effects of Cardiac Output on Mean Arterial Pressure



## Effects of TPR on Mean Arterial Pressure



## **Control of Blood Pressure**

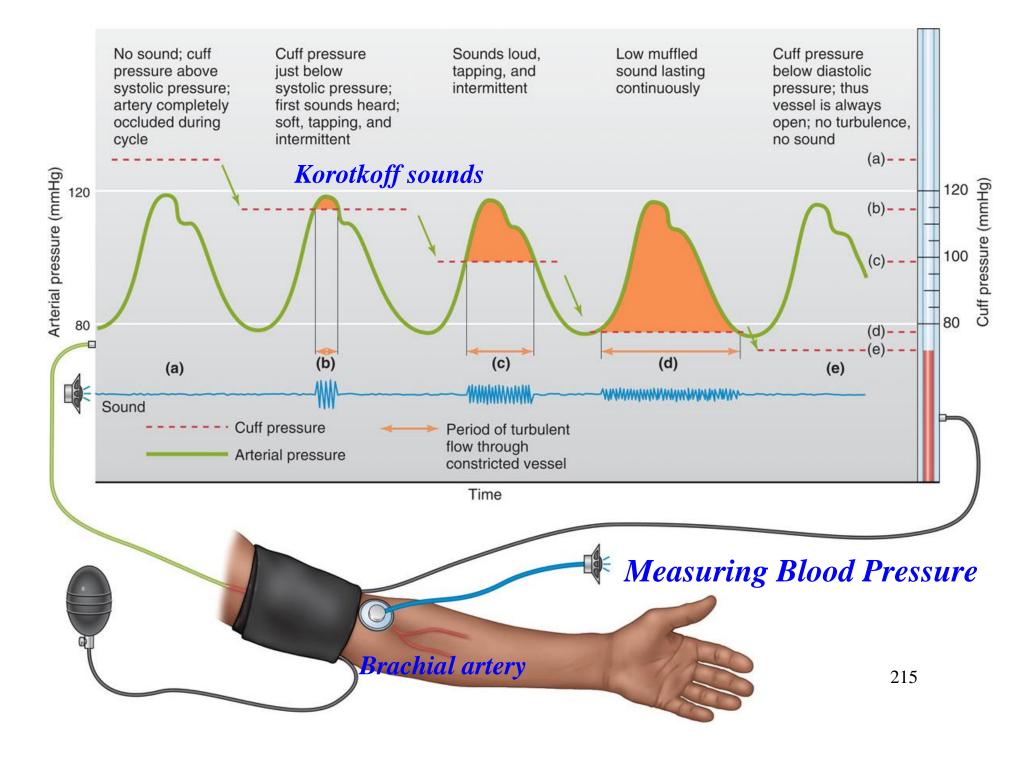


# **Determinants of Arterial Pressure** MAP = HR x SV x TPR

血壓變化 影響因素	收縮壓	舒張壓	脈搏壓	主要作用
心搏量↑	$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$	1	$\uparrow$	收縮壓
心跳速率↑	↑	$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$	$\downarrow$	舒張壓
周邊總阻力↑	$\uparrow$	$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$	$\downarrow$	舒張壓
單純大動脈彈性↓	$\uparrow$	$\downarrow$	$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$	脈搏壓
循環血量↓或失血	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$	
註:增加↑;明顯增加↑↑。				

## **Determinants of Mean Arterial Pressure MAP = HR x SV x TPR**

Target organ or tissue	Neural or hormonal factor	Factor's effect on target	Influence on mean arterial pressure
Heart			
Sinoatrial node	Sympathetic nerves	↑HR	↑MAP
	Parasympathetic nerves	↓HR	↓MAP
	Epinephrine	↑HR	↑MAP
Ventricular myocardium	Sympathetic nerves	↑Contractility (↑SV)	↑MAP
	Epinephrine	↑Contractility (↑SV)	↑MAP
Arteriolar smooth muscle (most tissues)	Sympathetic nerves	Vasoconstriction (↑TPR)	↑MAP
	Epinephrine	Vasoconstriction or vasodilation, depending on concentration and location	Variable
	Vasopressin	Vasoconstriction (↑TPR)	1 MAP
	Angiotensin II	Vasoconstriction (↑TPR)	↑MAP
Venous smooth muscle	Sympathetic nerves	↑Venomotor tone	↑MAP
	Epinephrine	↑Venomotor tone	1 MAP



#### Clinical Focus

#### 一臨床焦點一

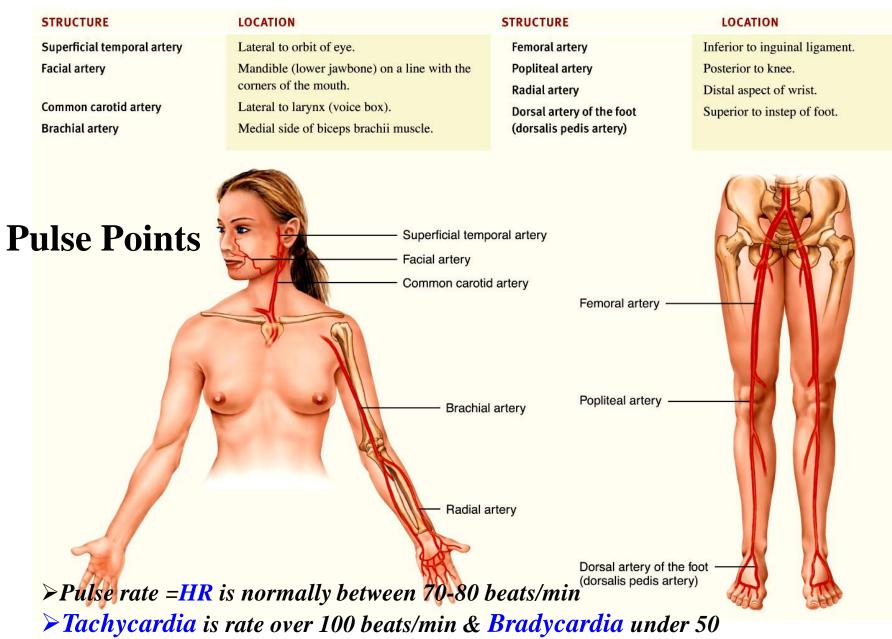
#### 血壓的測量

血壓的測量通常採用<u>肱動脈</u>的血壓計測量方法(圖 11-32)。水銀柱血壓計的組成包括壓脈帶、充氣橡皮球、水銀柱壓力計以及橡皮導管連接。測量血壓時,將壓脈帶繞住上臂,聽診器置於肘窩肱動脈處監聽動脈搏動聲音。

測壓初始向壓脈帶內充氣加壓,當壓脈帶 的氣囊壓力超過動脈收縮壓後,使動脈完全閉 陷,並阻止心動週期各期血流。然後逐漸放氣, 氣囊壓力逐漸下降。當氣囊壓力降至與動脈收縮 壓相等時,心臟射出的血液僅在動脈血壓處於最 大時流出肱動脈,<u>每次流過都將產生一次亂流</u>, 亂流引起血管壁振動。此時放在壓脈帶下方的聽 診器可聽到亂流引起的拍擊聲。第一個拍擊聲 出現時的水銀數值即為動脈收縮壓。

隨著氣囊壓力逐漸下降,每一次心臟收縮 將會有更多的血液流過肱動脈,產生的拍擊聲 轉變為較響的重擊聲。此後,氣囊壓力繼續下 降。當氣囊壓力下降至動脈舒張時,肱動脈在 心動週期的任何階段都不能被閉陷,通過肱動 脈的血流為層流,<u>層流血液不引起血管壁振動</u>。 因此,聽診器聽不到聲音,表現為聲音變弱或 消失。此時對應的水銀數值為動脈舒張壓。<u>收</u> 縮壓反映左心室收縮力,舒張壓反映血管的阻 力。兩者之差為脈搏壓。

# **Pulse** is <u>a pressure wave</u> that alternate expansion & recoil of elastic artery after each systole of the left ventricle

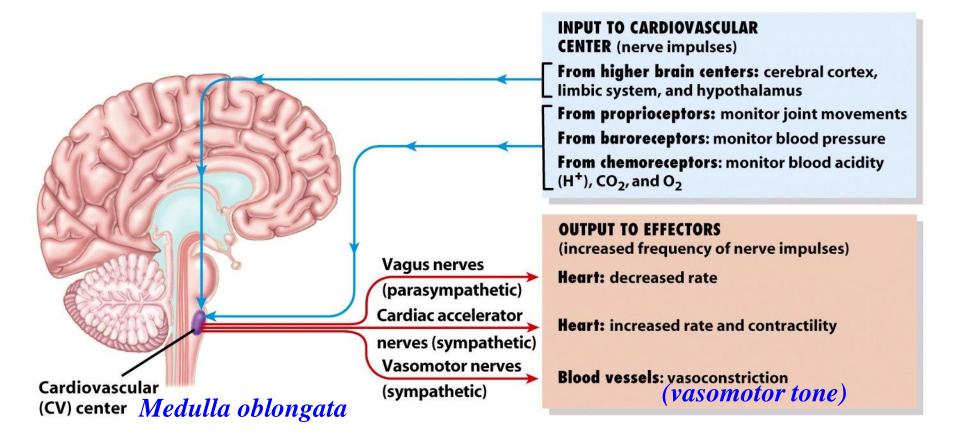


# **Control of Blood Pressure**

### Role of cardiovascular center

### --Help regulate heart rate & stroke volume

--Specific neurons regulate blood vessel diameter



### **Input to CV Center**

- **Higher brain centers** such as cerebral cortex, limbic system & hypothalamus --Anticipation of competition
  - --Increase in body temperature

### Proprioceptors

--Input during physical activity

### **\*** Baroreceptors

--Changes in pressure within blood vessels

#### Chemoreceptors

--Monitor concentration of chemicals in the blood

### **Output** from CV Center

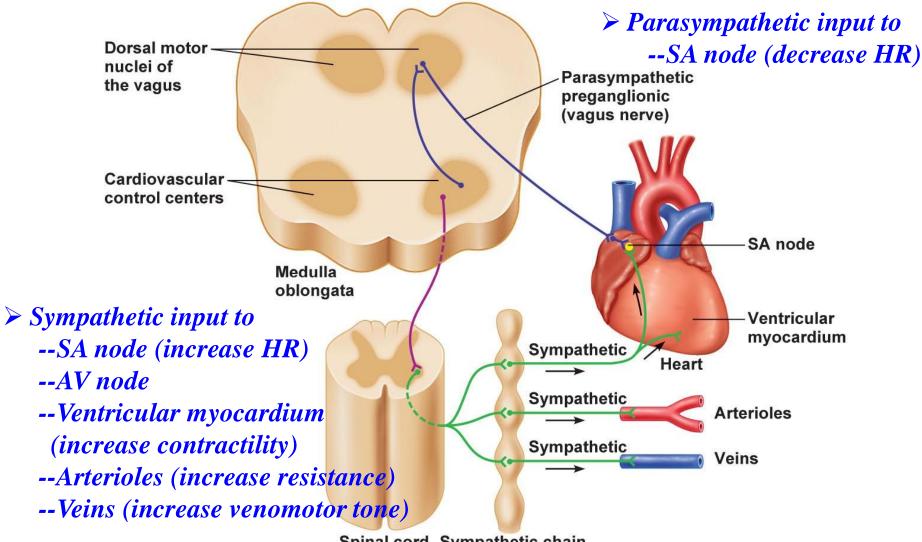
**\*** Heart

- --**Parasympathetic** (vagus nerve)
  - Decrease heart rate
- --Sympathetic (cardiac accelerator nerves)
  - Cause increase or decrease in contractility & rate

#### **\*** Blood vessels

- --Sympathetic vasomotor nerves
  - Continual stimulation to arterioles producing vasoconstriction (vasomotor tone)
  - Increased stimulation produces constriction & increased BP 219

### **Cardiovascular Neural Pathways**



Spinal cord Sympathetic chain

# Short- and Long-Term Regulation of MAP

Short-term regulation—seconds to minutes

--Regulate *cardiac output* and *total peripheral resistance (MAP=CO × TPR)* 

--Involves *heart* and *blood vessels* 

--Primarily *neural control* 

• Long-term regulation—minutes to days

--Regulate *blood volume* 

--Involves *kidneys* 

--Primarily *hormonal control* 

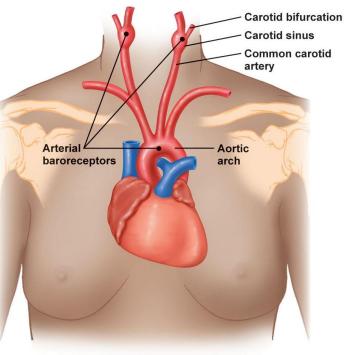
## **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure**

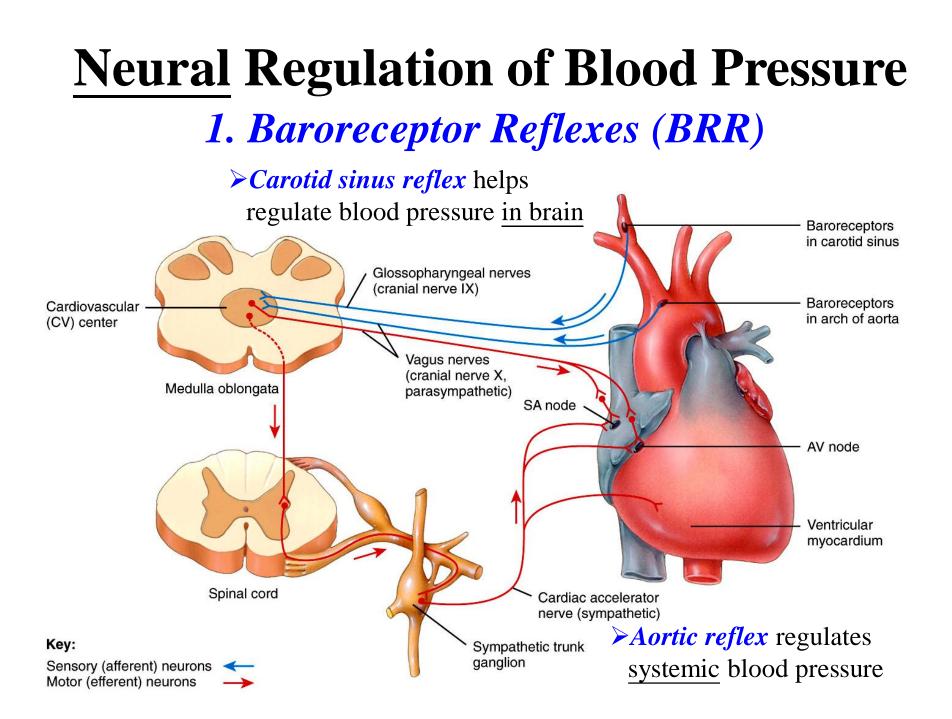
Negative feedback loops

- > Detector = baroreceptors (pressure-sensitive sensory neurons)
- ≻ Afferent = CN. IX+X
- > Integration Center = CV centers in the

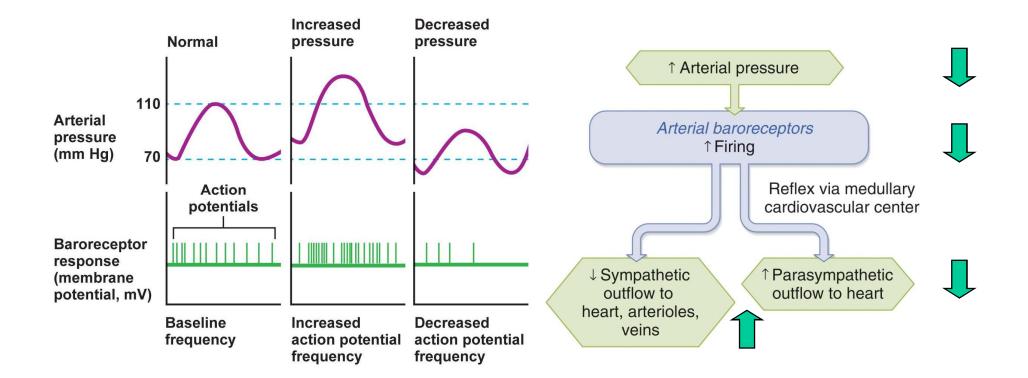
brainstem

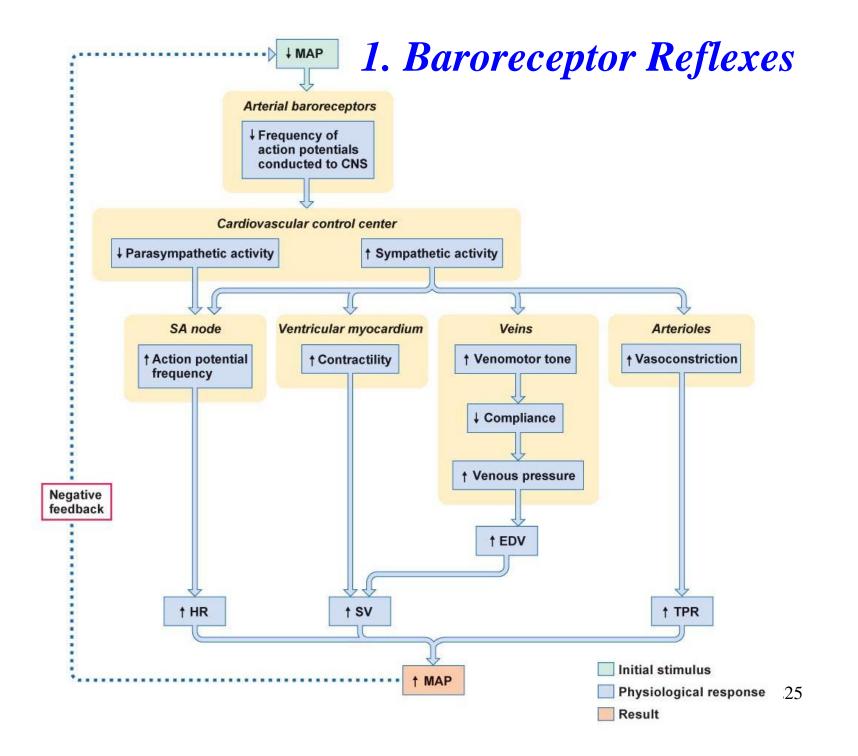
- > Controllers (efferent) = ANS
- > Effectors = heart and blood vessels
- > Locations = aortic arch+carotid sinuses
- > Baroreceptors = pressure receptor
  - --Sometimes called stretch receptors
  - --Arterial baroreceptors =  $\underline{sinoaortic receptors}$
- > Respond to **stretching** due to <u>pressure change</u>s in arteries

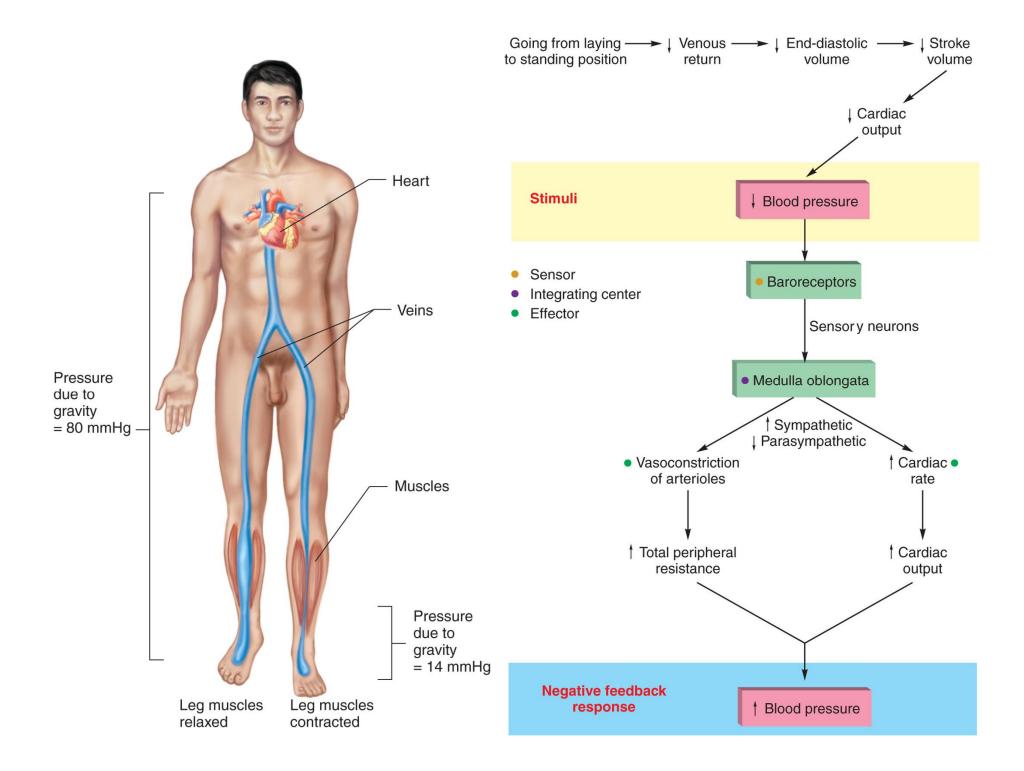




# **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure** *1. Baroreceptor Reflexes (BRR)*





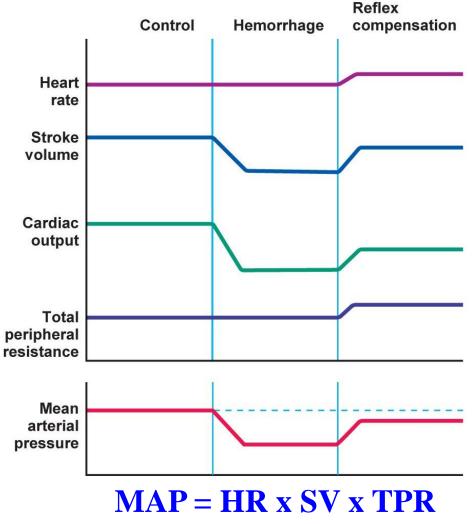


### **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure**

### 1. Baroreceptor Reflexes (BRR)

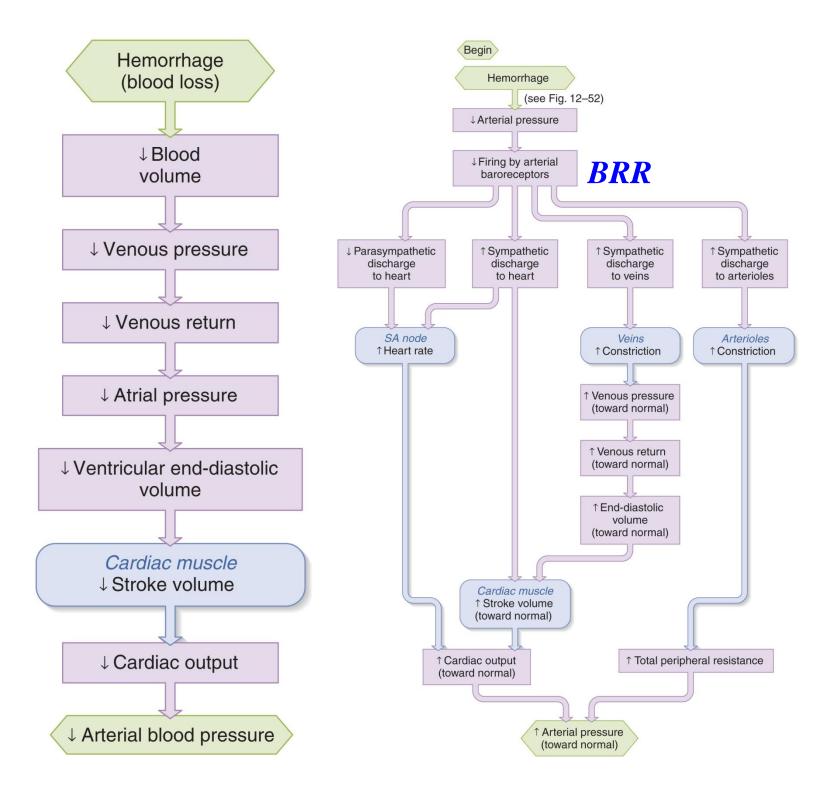
	血 壓	壓力感受器	傳入神經		心血管中樞	傳出神經	動作器	對血壓的作用
	突然增高	頸動脈竇 (+) 主動脈弓 (+)	舌咽 N (+) 迷走 N (+)	延脳	心迷走中樞 (+) 心交感中樞 (-) 血管收縮中樞 (-)	心迷走神經(+) 心交感神經(-) 交感性血管收 縮神經(-)	心臟 (-) 心臟 (-) 血管舒張	→心輸出量↓→血壓↓ →心輸出量↓→血壓↓ →周邊總阻力↓→血壓↓
討	註:(+)興奮;(-)抑制。							

## **Clinical Application: Hemorrhage**

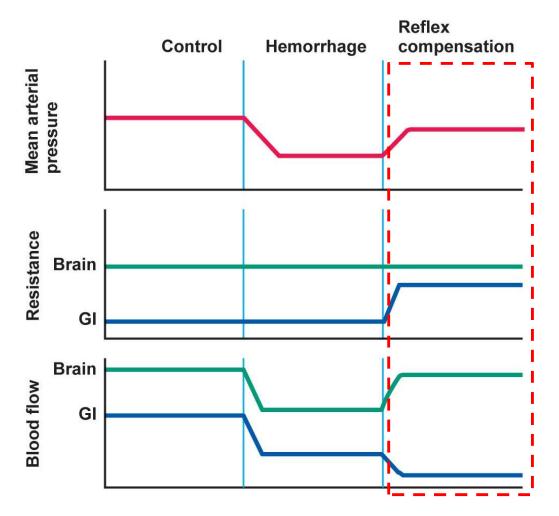


 Hemorrhage results in a decrease in blood volume

- ●Blood volume decrease → decrease in MAP
- •Hemorrhage causes
  - --Baroreceptor reflex
  - --Increase in sympathetic activity
  - --Decrease in parasympathetic activity
- Reflex compensation



# Hemorrhage and Blood Flow Baroreceptor reflex

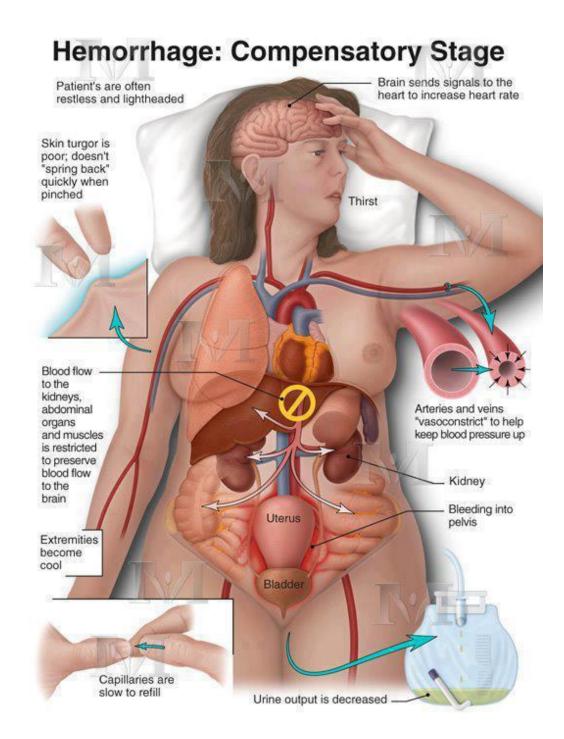


➢GI tract

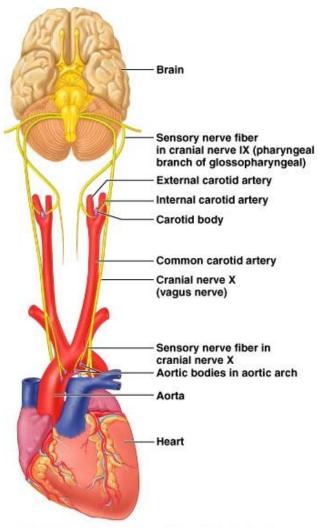
- --Increased resistance
- --Decreased blood flow

#### **≻Brain**

- --Vasculature not subject of extrinsic control
- --No change in resistance
- --Blood diverted from GI tract to brain



### **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure** 2. Chemoreceptor Reflexes



- Receptors located close to baroreceptors of carotid sinus (carotid bodies) and aortic arch (aortic bodies)
- Detect hypoxia (low O<sub>2</sub>), hypercapnia (high CO<sub>2</sub>), acidosis (high H<sup>+</sup>) and send signals to CV
- CV *increases sympathetic stimulation* to arterioles and veins, producing vasoconstriction and an *increase in blood pressure*
- Receptors also provide input to *respiratory center* to adjust breathing rate (*increased ventilation*)

# **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure**

2. Chemoreceptor Reflexes

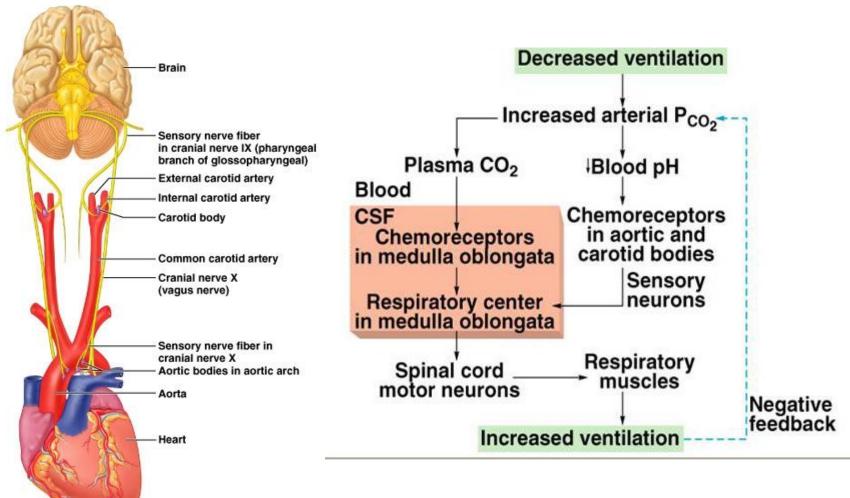


表 11-17 壓力感受器反射與化學感受器反射的比較					
比較項目	壓力感受器反射	化學感受器反射			
感受刺激	血壓搏動性變化比非搏動性變化更敏感	缺 $O_2 \circ CO_2 \uparrow \circ H^+ \uparrow$			
感受器	頸動脈竇、主動脈弓壓力感受器	頸動脈體、主動脈體化學感受器			
中樞作用	心迷走中樞緊張性增強 心交感中樞緊張性減弱 交感性血管收縮中樞緊張性減弱	心迷走中樞緊張性減弱 心交感中樞緊張性增強 交感性血管收縮中樞緊張性增強 呼吸中樞緊張性增強			
總合作用		呼吸↑,血壓↑			
特性	平時經常發生作用(當血壓在 60~180 mmHg 時), 頸動脈竇比主動脈弓更敏感,屬負迴饋機制	平時不發生調節作用,在缺氧、 CO₂↑、酸中毒或嚴重失血時發生作用			
生理意義	經常監視血壓波動,對維持正常血壓的相對穩定有 重要作用	移緩濟急(首先確保心腦血液供應)的 應急反應			

## **Neural Regulation of Blood Pressure**

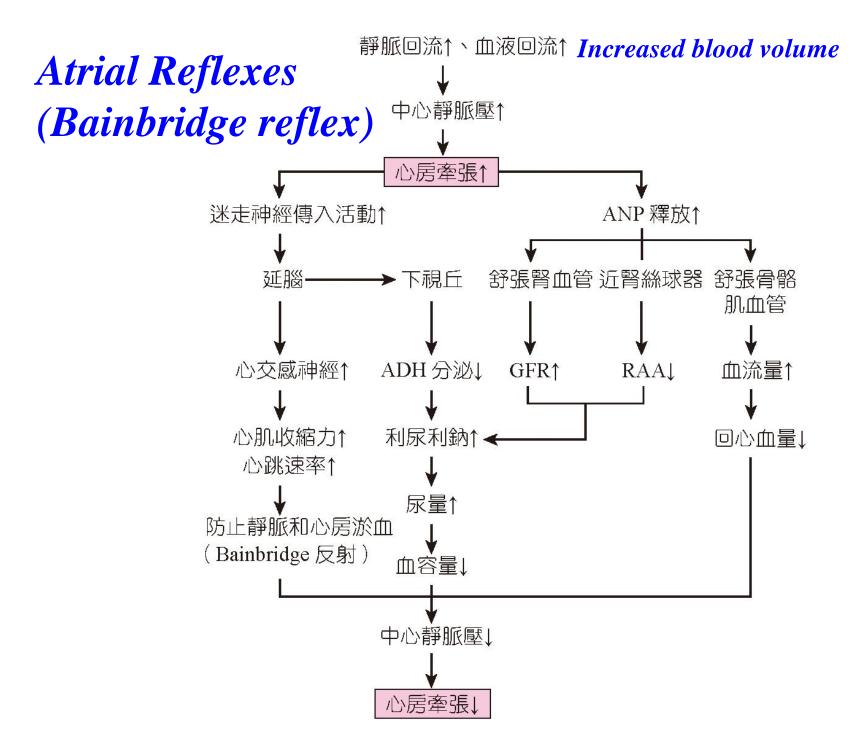
### 3. Right Atrial Reflexes (Bainbridge reflex)

- Atrial reflex is an *increase in heart rate* due to an <u>increase in</u> central venous pressure
- <u>Increased blood volume</u> is detected by *stretch receptors* located in both **atria at the venoatrial junctions**
- This reflex and the *baroreceptor reflex* act <u>antagonistically to</u> <u>control heart rate</u>
- The BRR acts to increase heart rate when blood pressure drops. When <u>blood volume is increased</u>, the *Bainbridge reflex* is dominant; when <u>blood volume is decreased (BP drops)</u>, the *BRR* is dominant
- Bainbridge reflex is involved in *Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia* --During inspiration

 $\uparrow$  Sympathetic activity  $\rightarrow$   $\uparrow$  HR (Bainbridge reflex)

--During expiration

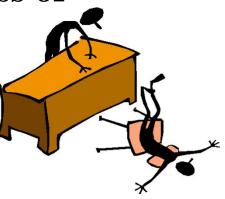
 $\uparrow$  Parasympathetic activity  $\rightarrow \downarrow$  HR



# **Clinical Application: Syncope**

Fainting or a sudden, temporary loss of consciousness not due to trauma

--Due to cerebral ischemia or lack of blood flow to the brain



#### Causes

- --Vasodepressor syncope = sudden emotional stress
- --Situational syncope = pressure stress of coughing, defecation, or urination (vagal stimulation)
- --**Drug-induced syncope** = antihypertensives, diuretics, vasodilators and tranquilizers
- --Orthostatic hypotension = decrease in BP upon standing

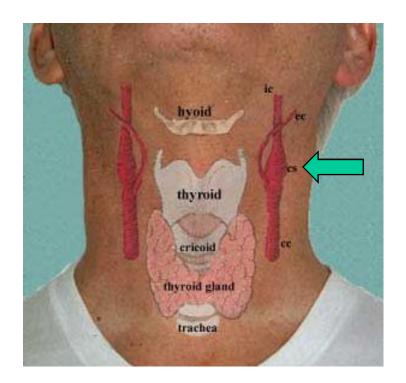
# Clinical Application: Orthostatic Hypotension

- Orthostatic (postural) hypotension is defined as a drop in systolic blood pressure of >20 mmHg within 2 minutes of standing
- Changing from a lying position to standing **loses about 700 ml** of blood from <u>the thorax</u>, with a decrease in systolic blood pressure .The overall effect is an <u>insufficient blood perfusion</u> in the <u>upper part of the body</u>

Primary autonomic failure	Pure autonomic failure, multiple system atrophy
<i>BRR sensitivity</i> ↓	Parkinsons disease with autonomic failure Lew Body dementia
Secondary autonomic failure	Diabetes, amyloidosis, spinal cord injuries Atherosclerosis
Drug induced orthostatic hypotension	Diuretics, vasodilators, tricyclic antidepressants
Volume depletion	Diarrhoea, vomiting



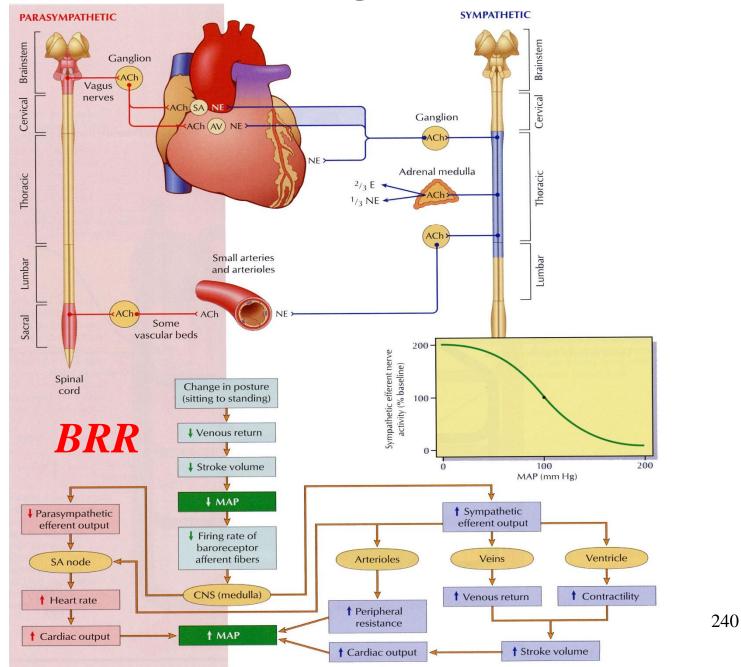
# **Clinical Application: Superventricular Tachycardia**



If vagal maneuvers are not effective, used Adenosine, an ultra short acting AV nodal blocking agent via the A1 receptor

- Carotid sinus massage can slow heart rate in paroxysmal superventricular tachycardia (PSVT)
- Stimulation (careful neck massage) over *the carotid sinus* lowers heart rate
  - --PSVT: tachycardia originating from the **atria** due to *re-entry*
- Anything that puts pressure on carotid sinus
  - --Tight collar or hyperextension of the neck
  - --May <u>slow heart rate</u> & cause carotid sinus *syncope or fainting*

### **Short-Term Regulation of BP**



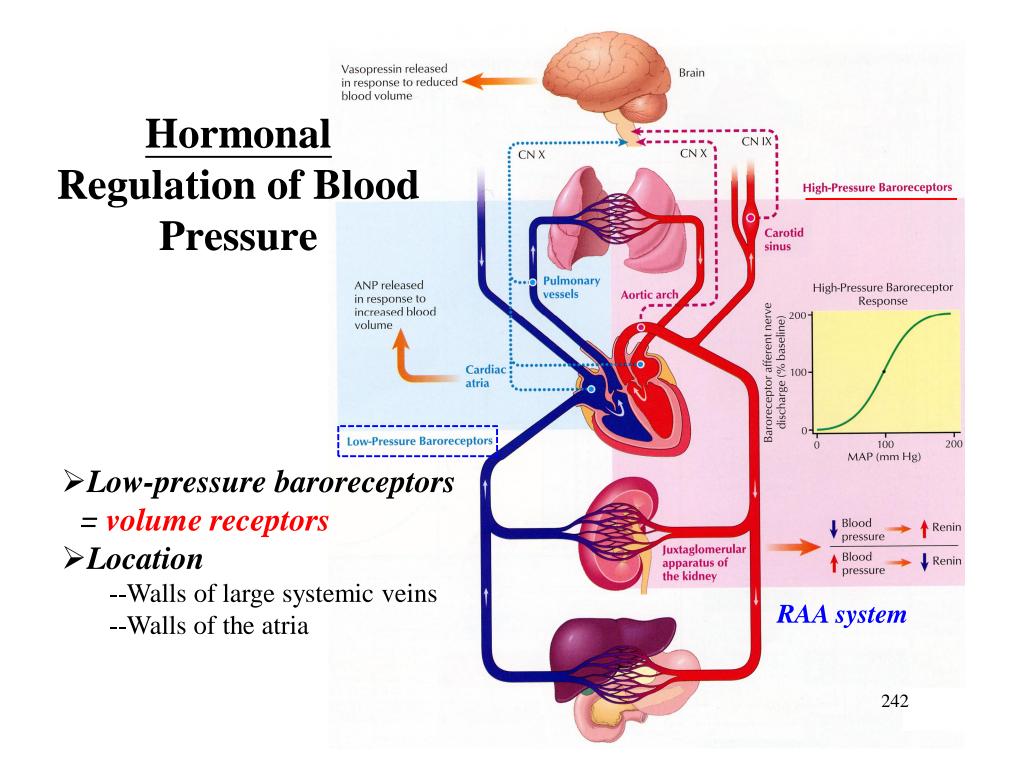
## **Hormonal Regulation of Blood Pressure**

### **Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone (RAA) system**

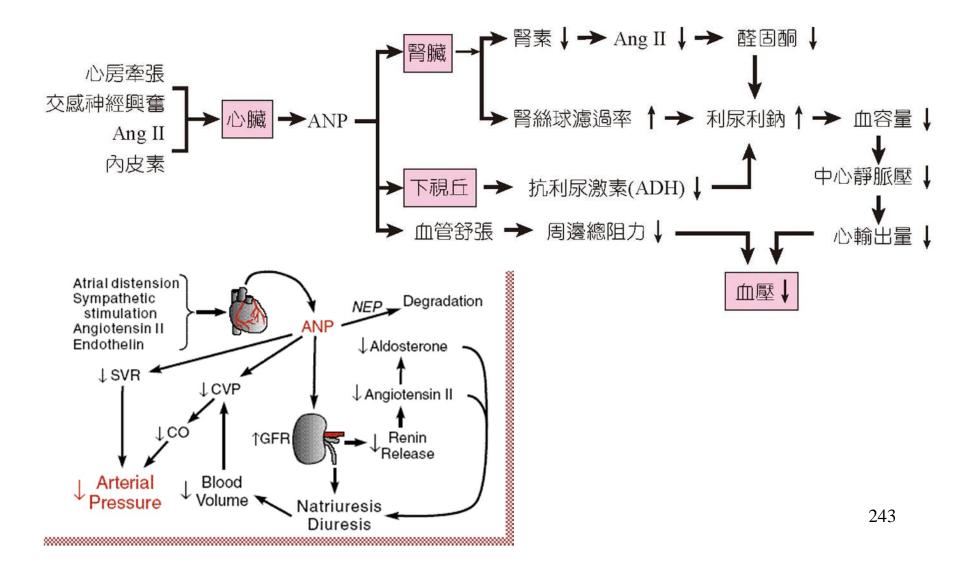
- --Decrease in BP or decreased blood flow to kidney
- --Release of renin/results in formation angiotensin II
  - Systemic vasoconstriction
  - Causes release aldosterone ( $H_2O$  & Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorption)

### Epinephrine & norepinephrine

- --Increases heart rate & force of contraction
- --Causes vasoconstriction in skin & abdominal organs
- --Vasodilation in cardiac & skeletal muscle
- **ADH** causes vasoconstriction
- **ANP (atrial natriuretic peptide)** lowers BP
  - --Causes vasodilation & loss of salt and water in the urine



# Atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP)

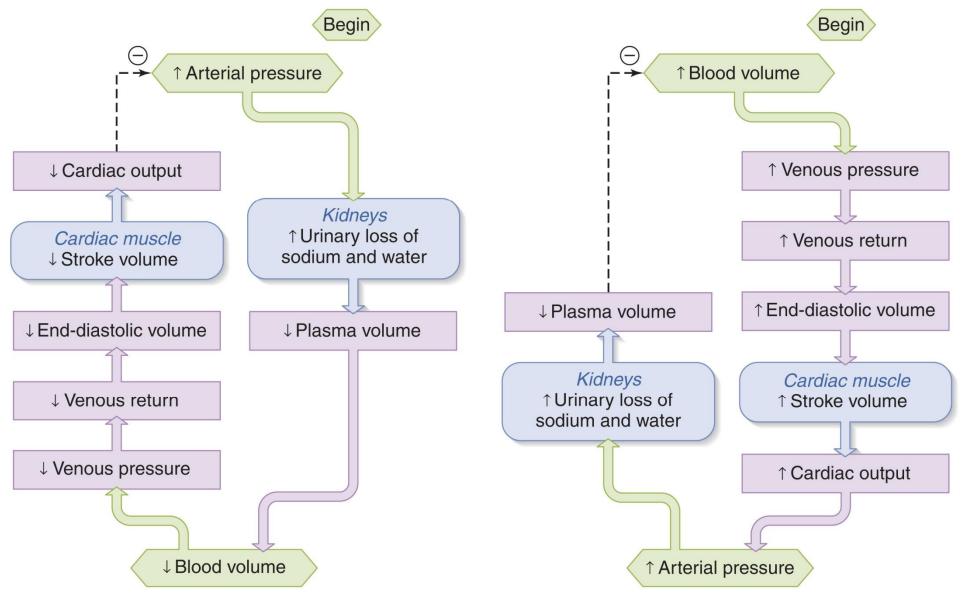


# **Hormonal Regulation of Blood Pressure**

FACTOR INFLUENCING BLOOD PRESSURE	HORMONE	EFFECT ON BLOOD PRESSURE			
CARDIAC OUTPUT					
Increased heart rate and contractility	Norepinephrine Epinephrine	Increase			
SYSTEMIC VASCULAR R	ESISTANCE				
Vasoconstriction Vasodilation	Angiotensin II Antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin) Norepinephrine* Epinephrine <sup>†</sup> Atrial natriuretic peptide Epinephrine <sup>†</sup> Nitric oxide	Increase			
BLOOD VOLUME					
Blood volume increase Blood volume decrease	Aldosterone Antidiuretic hormone Atrial natriuretic peptide	Increase Decrease			
*Acts at $\alpha_1$ receptors in arterioles of abdomen and skin. <sup>†</sup> Acts at $\beta_2$ receptors in arterioles of cardiac and skeletal muscle; norepinephrine has a much smaller vasodilating effect.					

### **Long-Term Regulation of BP**

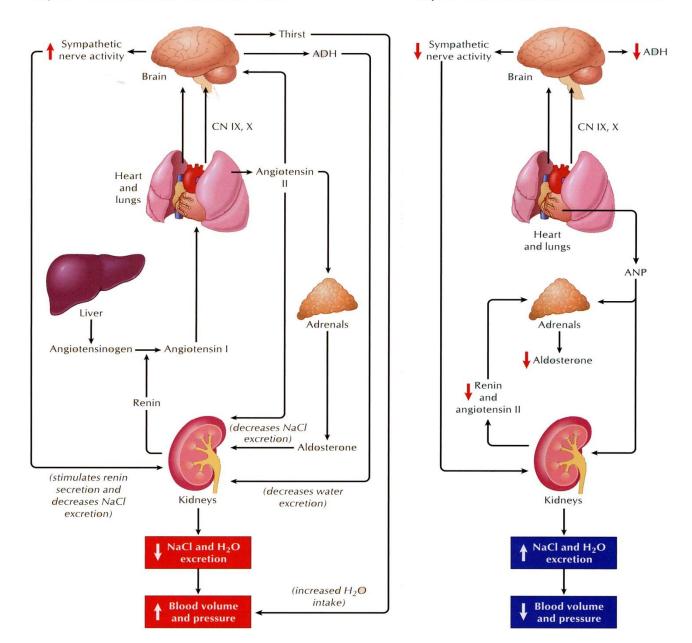
**Blood Volume vs. Blood Pressure** 



### **Long-Term Regulation of BP**

Response to Decreased Blood Volume and Pressure

**Response to Increased Blood Volume and Pressure** 



## **Local Regulation of Blood Pressure**

- The ability of a tissue to automatically adjust its own blood flow to match its metabolic demand for supply of  $O_2$  and nutrients and removal of wastes is called *autoregulation*
- Local factors cause changes in each capillary bed
  - --Important for tissues that have major increases in activity (brain, cardiac & skeletal muscle)
- \* Local changes in response to **physical changes** 
  - --Warming & decrease in vascular stretching promotes vasodilation
- Vasoactive substances released from cells alter vessel diameter (K<sup>+</sup>, H<sup>+</sup>, lactic acid, nitric oxide)
  - --Systemic vessels <u>dilate</u> in response to low levels of  $O_2$
  - --Pulmonary vessels constrict in response to low levels of  $O_2$

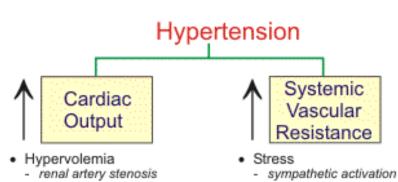
# **Clinical Application: Hypertension**

- Hypertension (not a disease) is *chronically elevated blood pressure*. It is usually a *"silent" killer* because most people don't know that they have it until it has caused significant damage
- Prolonged hypertension is the major cause of *heart failure, renal failure, stroke, and vascular disease*

System Involved	Examples	Mechanisms	
Kidneys	Kidney disease	Decreased urine formation	
	Renal artery disease	Secretion of vasoactive chemicals	
Endocrine	Excess catecholamines (tumor of adrenal medulla)	Increased cardiac output and total peripheral resistance	
	Excess aldosterone (Conn's syndrome)	Excess salt and water retention by the kidneys	
Nervous	Increased intracranial pressure	Activation of sympathoadrenal system	
	Damage to vasomotor center	Activation of sympathoadrenal system	
Cardiovascular	Complete heart block; patent ductus arteriosus	Increased stroke volume	
	Arteriosclerosis of aorta; coarctation of aorta	Decreased distensibility of aorta	

Table 14.9	Possible Ca	uses of Secondary	<b>Hypertension</b>
------------	-------------	-------------------	---------------------

# **Clinical Application:** Hypertension



Atherosclerosis

· Renal artery disease

Pheochromocytoma

Thyroid dysfunction

Cerebral ischemia

Diabetes

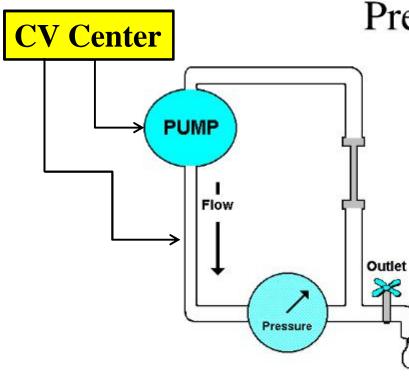
- renal disease
- hyperaldosteronism
- hypersecretion of ADH
- aortic coarctation
- pregnancy (preeclampsia)
- Stress
- sympathetic activation
- Pheochromocytoma
  - increased catecholamines

	Drugs Commonly Linked to Hypertension		
	Class	Drugs	Mechanism
ision	Sympathomimetic agents	Amphetamines (dextroamphetamine, methamphetamine, methylphenidate); phenylpropanolamine, ephedrine, pseudoephedrine	Cause dose-related increases in blood pressure; CNS stimulant
Systemic Vascular	NSAIDs and COX-2 inhibitors	Ibuprofen, diclofenac, celecoxib	Block COX-1 and COX-2 enzymes, which leads to a reduction in prostaglandin formation; cause dose-related increases in sodium and water retention
Resistance	Corticosteroids	Prednisone, fludrocortisone, hydrocortisone	Cause sodium retention, resulting in dose-related fluid retention
<ul> <li>sympathetic activation</li> </ul>	CNS stimulants	Caffeine	Stimulant effect
Atherosclerosis Renal artery disease - <i>increased angiotensin II</i> Pheochromocytoma	Estrogens and progestins	Oral contraceptives, ERT/HRT	Estrogen stimulates the hepatic production of the renin substrate angiotensinogen; both appear to contribute in a dose-dependent fashion
increased catecholamines Thyroid dysfunction	Dietary supplements	Ginseng, natural licorice, yohimbine	Mild stimulant effect; increase arterial pressure
Diabetes Cerebral ischemia	SNRIS	Venlafaxine, sibutramine	Increase levels of norepinephrine and the subsequent potentiation of noradrenergic neurotransmission
Immunosuppressants		Cyclosporine, tacrolimus	Increase prostaglandin synthesis and decrease water, sodium, and potassium excretion

CNS: central nervous system; NSAID: nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; COX: cyclooxygenase; ERT/HRT: estrogen replacement therapy/hormone replacement therapy; SNRI: serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor.

# Clinical Application: Hypertension

Ways of Lowering Blood Pressure

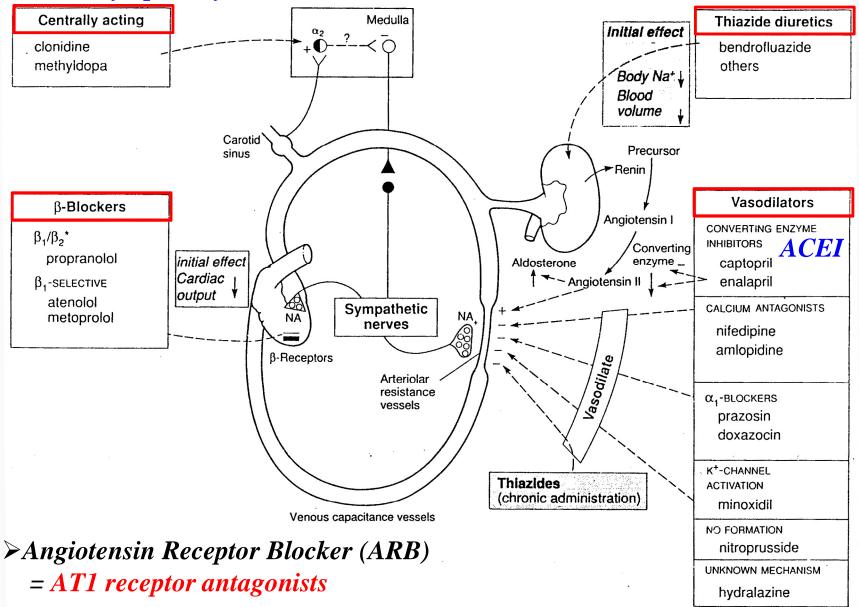


MAP = CO X TPR

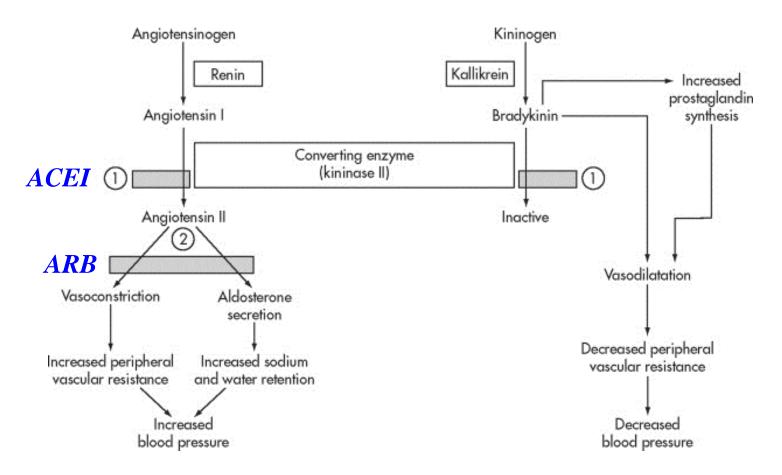
- Reduce cardiac output (ßblockers, Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel blockers)
- Reduce plasma volume (diuretics)
- Reduce peripheral vascular resistance (vasodilators)

#### **Drugs used in hypertension**

#### **Central Sympatholytics**



# Hypertension Treatment ACEI vs. ARB



# **Antihypertensive Drugs**

Category of Drugs	Examples	Mechanisms
Diuretics	Thiazide; furosemide	Increase volume of urine excreted, thus lowering blood volume
Sympathoadrenal system inhibitors	Clonidine; alpha-methyldopa	Act to decrease sympathoadrenal stimulation by bonding to $\alpha_2$ -adrenergic receptors in the brain
	Guanethidine; reserpine	Deplete norepinephrine from sympathetic nerve endings
	Atenolol	Blocks beta-adrenergic receptors, decreasing cardiac output and/or renin secretion
	Phentolamine	Blocks alpha-adrenergic receptors, decreasing sympathetic vasoconstriction
Direct vasodilators	Hydralazine; minoxidil sodium nitroprusside	Cause vasodilation by acting directly on vascular smooth muscle
Calcium channel blockers	Verapamil; diltiazem	Inhibit diffusion of Ca <sup>2+</sup> into vascular smooth muscle cells, causing vasodilation and reduced peripheral resistance
Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors	Captopril; enalapril	Inhibit the conversion of angiotensin I into angiotensin II
Angiotensin II-receptor antagonists	Losartan	Blocks the binding of angiotensin II to its receptor

Angiotensin Receptor Blocker (ARB)
= AT1 receptor antagonists

# **Clinical Application: Shock**

- Shock is an inadequate cardiac output (inadequate perfusion) to match oxygen usage in the tissues
- As a result, cells forced to switch to anaerobic respiration, lactic acid builds up, and cells and tissues become damaged & die (blood volume drops by 10-20% or BP does not rise sufficiently)

	Early Sign	Late Sign		
Blood pressure	Decreased pulse pressure	Decreased systolic pressure		
	Increased diastolic pressure			
Urine	Decreased Na <sup>+</sup> concentration	Decreased volume		
	Increased osmolality			
Blood pH	Increased pH (alkalosis) due to hyperventilation	Decreased pH (acidosis) due to "metabolic" acids		
Effects of poor tissue perfusion Slight restlessness; occasionally warm, dry skin Cold, clamm		Cold, clammy skin; "cloudy" senses		

#### Table 14.11 | Signs of Shock

Signs and symptoms: clammy, cool, pale skin; tachycardia; weak, rapid pulse; sweating; hypotension (systemic pressure < 90 mm Hg); altered mental status; decreased urinary output; thirst; and acidosis

# **Types of Shock**

 Hypovolemic shock is due to loss of blood or body fluids (hemorrhage, sweating, diarrhea or extensive burns)

--Venous return to heart declines & output decreases

- Cardiogenic shock is caused by damage to pumping action of the heart (MI, ischemia, valve problems, cardiac failure or arrhythmias)
- Vascular shock causing drop inappropriate vasodilation-anaphylatic shock (histamine<sup>↑</sup>), septic shock or neurogenic shock (head trauma, spinal cord injury or anesthesis)
- Obstructive shock caused by blockage of circulation (pulmonary embolism)
- Homeostatic responses to shock include activation of the RAA system, secretion of ADH, activation of the sympathetic division of the ANS, and release of local vasodilators

#### **Homeostatic Responses to Shock**

Mechanisms of compensation in shock attempt to return cardiac output & BP to normal

--Activation of renin-angiotensin-aldosterone

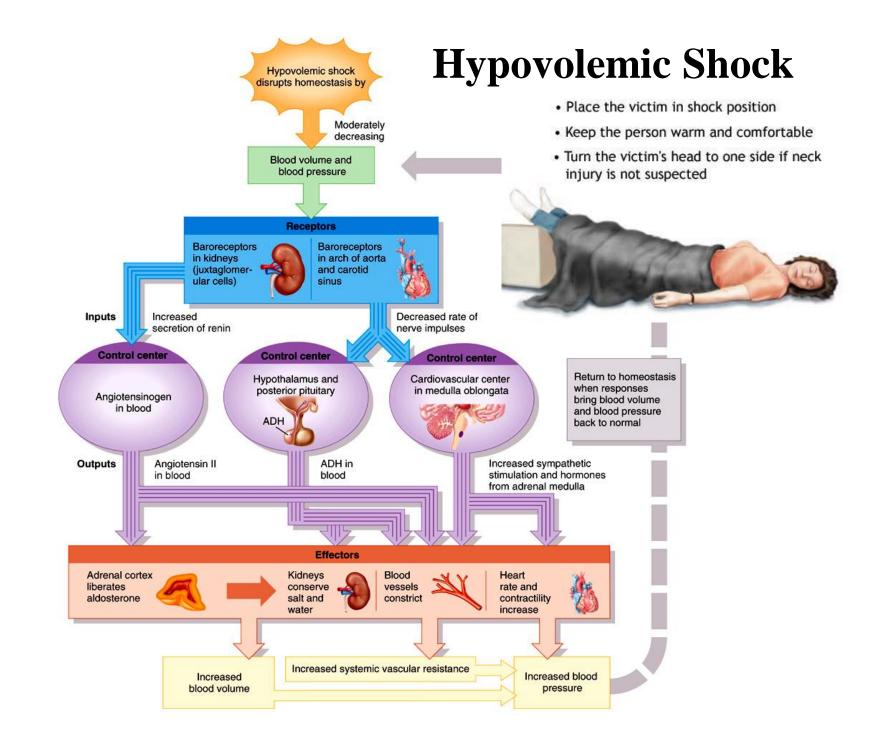
--Secretion of antidiuretic hormone

--Activation of sympathetic nervous system

--Release of local vasodilators

Table 14.12	<b>Cardiovascular Reflexes That Help to Compensate for Circulatory Shock</b>
-------------	--

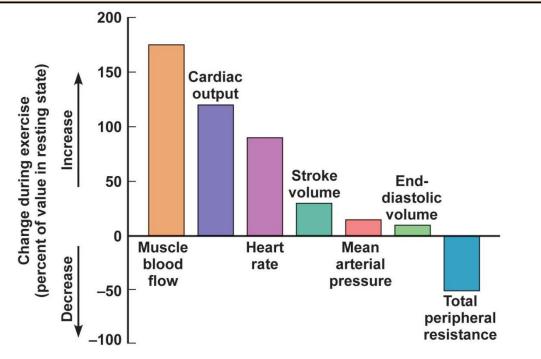
Organ(s)	Compensatory Mechanisms
Heart	Sympathoadrenal stimulation produces increased cardiac rate and increased stroke volume due to "positive inotropic effect" on myocardial contractility
Digestive tract and skin	Decreased blood flow due to vasoconstriction as a result of sympathetic nerve stimulation (alpha-adrenergic effect)
Kidneys	Decreased urine production as a result of sympathetic-nerve-induced constriction of renal arterioles; increased salt and water retention due to increased plasma levels of aldosterone and antidiuretic hormone (ADH)



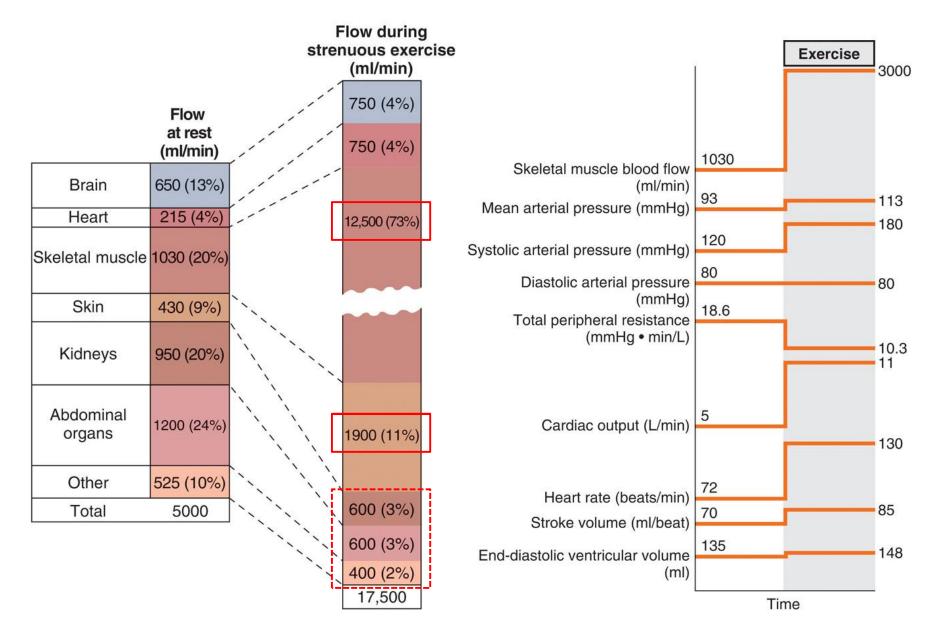
## **Cardiovascular Adaptation to Exercise**

#### Table 14.5 | Changes in Skeletal Muscle Blood Flow Under Conditions of Rest and Exercise

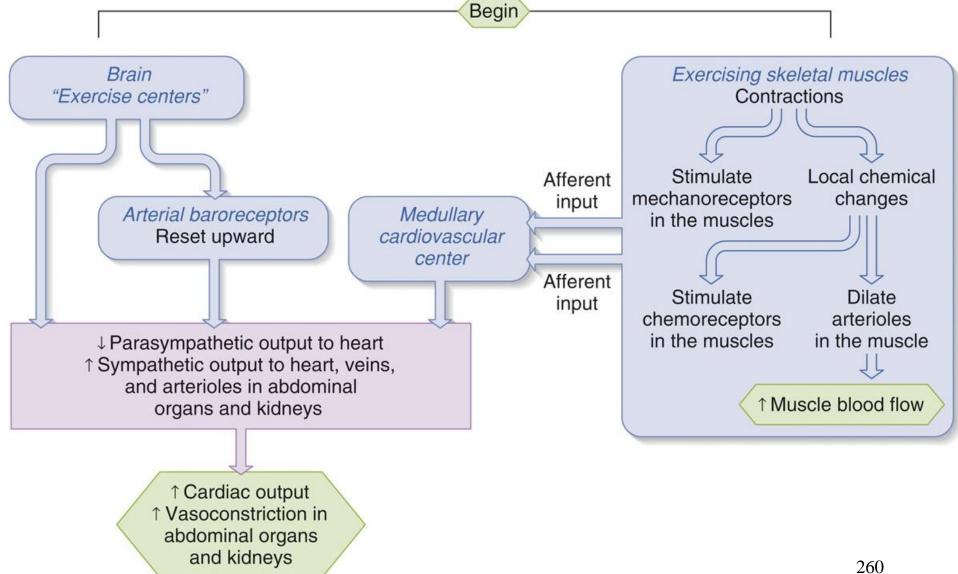
Condition	Blood Flow (ml/min)	Mechanism
Rest	1,000	High adrenergic sympathetic stimulation of vascular alpha receptors, causing vasoconstriction
Beginning exercise	Increased	Dilation of arterioles in skeletal muscles due to cholinergic sympathetic nerve activity and stimulation of beta-adrenergic receptors by the hormone epinephrine
Heavy exercise	20,000	Fall in alpha-adrenergic activity
		Increased cholinergic sympathetic activity
		Increased metabolic rate of exercising muscles, producing intrinsic vasodilation



### **Cardiovascular Adaptation to Exercise**



## **Cardiovascular Adaptation to Exercise**

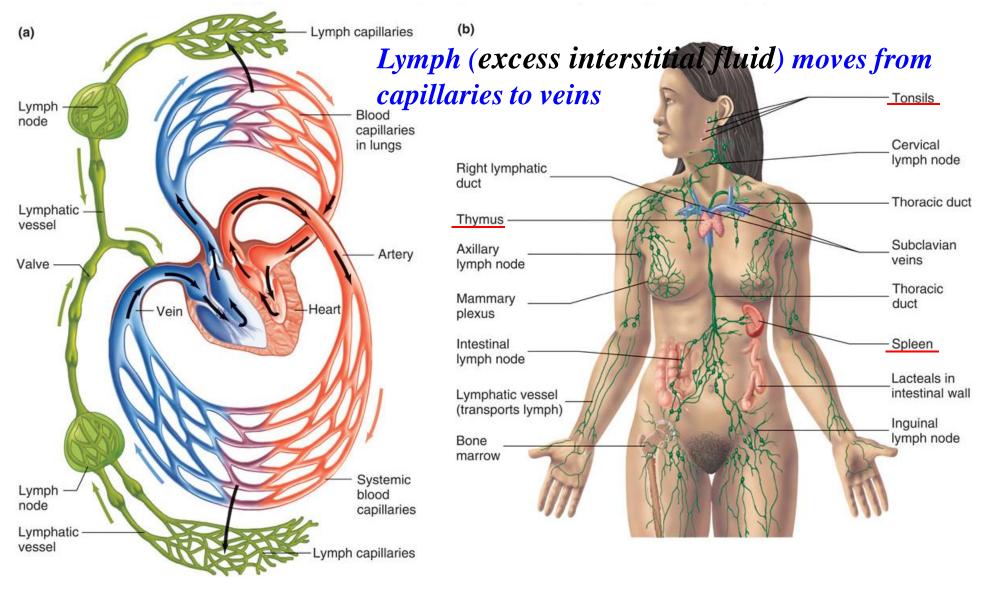


#### **Cardiovascular Changes During Exercise**

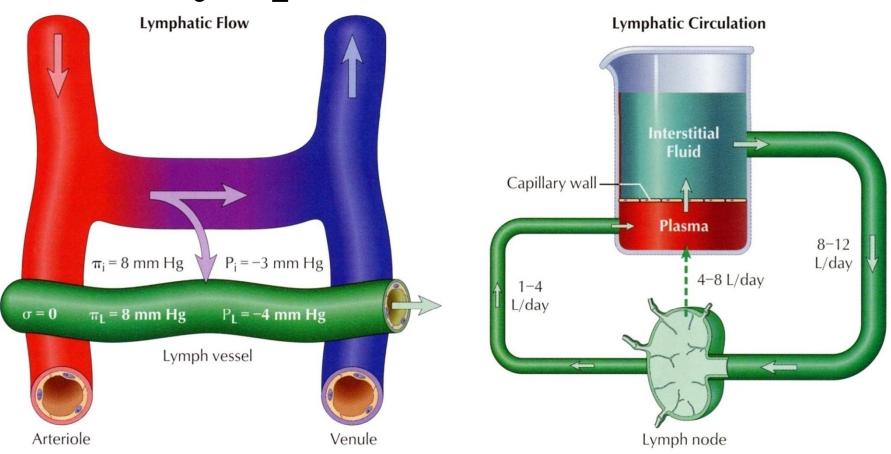
Variable	Change	Explanation
Cardiac output	Increases	Heart rate and stroke volume both increase, the former to a much greater extent.
Heart rate	Increases	Sympathetic nerve activity to the SA node increases, and parasympathetic nerve activity decreases.
Stroke volume	Increases	Contractility increases due to increased sympathetic nerve activity to the ventricular myocardium; increased ventricular end-diastolic volume also contributes to increased stroke volume by the Frank–Starling mechanism.
Total peripheral resistance	Decreases	Resistance in heart and skeletal muscles decreases more than resistance in other vascular beds increases.
Mean arterial pressure	Increases	Cardiac output increases more than total peripheral resistance decreases.
Pulse pressure	Increases	Stroke volume and velocity of ejection of the stroke volume increase.
End-diastolic volume	Increases	Filling time is decreased by the high heart rate, but the factors favoring venous return— venoconstriction, skeletal muscle pump, and increased inspiratory movements—more than compensate for it.
Blood flow to heart and skeletal muscle	Increases	Active hyperemia occurs in both vascular beds, mediated by local metabolic factors.
Blood flow to skin	Increases	Sympathetic nerves to skin vessels are inhibited reflexively by the increase in body temperature.
Blood flow to viscera	Decreases	Sympathetic nerves to the blood vessels in the abdominal organs and kidneys are stimulated.
Blood flow to brain	Increases slightly	Autoregulation of brain arterioles maintains constant flow despite the increased mean arterial pressure.

# Lymphatic System

#### Lymphatic vessels + lymphatic tissue (node & organ)



# **Lymphatic Circulation**



Lymphatic vessels involved in returning excess filtrate to circulation
 Lymph nodes where the lymph is provide a proliferation site for lymphocytes and cleaned and examined by immune cells (phagocytes & lymphocytes) for pathogens (part of immune system)

**Swollen glands (lymphedema)** = lymph nodes become swollen and painful



成功的祕訣



日本人把"不倒翁"稱為"永遠向上的小法師"

因為重心在下面,所以無論你怎樣推它,

只要一鬆手,它就會馬上彈起來

不怕失敗每當我們跌倒時都能爬起來

正是因為不斷地接受磨難,人才能變得更加堅強

"人生成功的祕訣只有那些在奮鬥中尚未成功的人才知道" ——格林斯