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Medicine and surgery

Physiology

• Long term regulation of mean arterial blood pressure

There are several physiological mechanisms that regulate blood pressure in the long-term, the first of which is the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS).

• <u>Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS)</u>

Renin is a peptide hormone released by the granular cells of the juxtaglomerular apparatus in the kidney. It is released in response to:

1)Sympathetic stimulation

2)Reduced sodium-chloride delivery to the distal convoluted tubule

3)Decreased blood flow to the kidney

Renin facilitates the conversion of angiotensinogen to angiotensin I which is then converted to angiotensin II using angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE).

Angiotensin II is a potent vasoconstrictor. It acts directly on the kidney to increase sodium reabsorption in the proximal convoluted tubule. Sodium is reabsorbed via the sodium-hydrogen exchanger. Angiotensin II also promotes release of aldosterone.

ACE also breaks down a substance called bradykinin which is a potent vasodilator. Therefore, the breakdown of bradykinin potentiates the overall constricting effect.

Aldosterone promotes salt and water retention by acting at the distal convoluted tubule to increase expression of epithelial sodium channels. Furthermore, aldosterone increases the activity of the basolateral sodium-potassium ATP-ase, thus increasing the electrochemical gradient for movement of sodium ions.

More sodium collects in the kidney tissue and water then follows by osmosis. This results in decreased water excretion and therefore increased blood volume and thus blood pressure.

• Anti-Diuretic Hormone (ADH)

The second mechanism by which blood pressure is regulated is release of Anti Diuretic Hormone (ADH) from the OVLT of the hypothalamus in response to thirst or an increased plasma osmolality.

ADH acts to increase the permeability of the collecting duct to water by inserting aquaporin channels (AQP2) into the apical membrane.

It also stimulates sodium reabsorption from the thick ascending limb of the loop of Henle. This increases water reabsorption thus increasing plasma volume and decreasing osmolality.

• Pulmonary circulation

Pulmonary circulation is the system of transportation that shunts de-oxygenated blood from the heart to the lungs to be re-saturated with oxygen before being dispersed into systemic circulation. Deoxygenated blood from the lower half of the body enters the heart from the inferior vena cava while deoxygenated blood from the upper body is delivered to the heart via the superior vena cava.

• Circle of Willis

The circle of Willis encircles the stalk of the pituitary gland and provides important communications between the blood supply of the forebrain and hindbrain (i.e., between the internal carotid and vetibro basilar systems following obliteration of primitive embryonic connections). Although a complete circle of Willis is present in some individuals, it is rarely seen radiographically in its entirety; anatomical variations are very common and a well-developed communication between each of its parts is identified in less than half of the population.

• Splanchnic circulation

The term 'splanchnic circulation' describes the blood flow to the abdominal gastrointestinal organs including the stomach, liver, spleen, pancreas, small intestine, and large intestine. It comprises three major branches of the abdominal aorta; the coeliac artery; superior mesenteric artery (SMA); and inferior mesenteric artery (IMA)

• Coronary circulation

Coronary circulation can be defined as the movement of blood throughout the heart muscles (myocardium). Arteries supply oxygenated blood to the heart muscle, and veins drain away the blood once it has been deoxygenated. Because the rest of the body, and most especially the brain, needs a steady supply of oxygenated blood that is free of all but the slightest interruptions, the heart is required to function continuously.

• Cutaneous circulation

The Cutaneous circulation is the circulation and blood supply of the skin. The skin is not a very metabolically active tissue and has relatively small energy requirements, so its blood supply is different to that of other tissues. Cutaneous blood flow increases to favor body cooling, however, with maximal effort cutaneous vasoconstriction can overcome thermoregulatory vasodilator responses, and the core body temperature can rise.

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• cardiovascular adjustment that occurs during exercise

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During exercise, the heart is subjected to intermittent hemodynamic stresses of pressure overload, volume overload, or both. To normalize such stress and to meet the systemic demand for an increased blood supply, the heart undergoes morphological adaptation to recurrent exercise by increasing its mass, primarily through an increase in ventricular chamber wall thickness. This augmentation of heart size is primarily the result of an increase in the size of individual terminally differentiated cardiac myocytes. Adaptive remodeling of the heart in response to exercise typically occurs with preservation or enhancement of contractile function. This contrasts with pathologic remodeling due to chronic sustained pressure overload (e.g., during hypertension or aortic stenosis), which can proceed to a loss of contractile function and heart failure.