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1. Discuss the 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)**.

Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS)

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

- Sympathetic stimulation
- Reduced sodium-chloride delivery to the distal convoluted tubule
- 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 osmolarity.

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 osmolarity.

Write short notes on:

2a. Pulmonary circulation

Pulmonary circulation, system of blood vessels that forms a closed circuit between the heart and the lungs, as distinguished from the systemic circulation between the heart and all other body tissues. On the evolutionary cycle, pulmonary circulation first occurs in lungfishes and amphibians, the first animals to acquire a three-chambered heart. The pulmonary circulation becomes totally separate in crocodilians, birds, and mammals, when the ventricle is divided into two chambers, producing a four-chambered heart. In these forms the pulmonary circuit begins with the right ventricle, which pumps deoxygenated blood through the pulmonary artery. This artery divides above the heart into two branches, to the right and left lungs, where the arteries further subdivide into smaller and smaller branches until the capillaries in the pulmonary air sacs (alveoli) are reached. In the capillaries the blood takes up oxygen from the air breathed into the air sacs and releases carbon dioxide. It then flows into larger and larger vessels until the pulmonary veins (usually four in number, each serving a whole lobe of the lung) are reached. The pulmonary veins open into the left atrium of the heart. The vessels of the pulmonary circulation are the pulmonary arteries and the pulmonary veins. A separate system known as the bronchial circulation supplies oxygenated blood to the tissue of the larger airways of the lungs.

The structure of this circulation is that deoxygenated blood leaves the heart, goes to the lungs, and then re-enters the heart; Deoxygenated blood leaves through the right ventricle through the pulmonary artery. From the right atrium, the blood is pumped through the tricuspid valve (or right atrioventricular valve), into the right ventricle. Blood is then pumped from the right ventricle through the pulmonary valve and into the main pulmonary artery.

b. <u>Circle of willis</u>

The circle of Willis is a junction of several important arteries at the bottom part of the brain. It helps blood flow from both the front and back sections of the brain. The circle of Willis is an important junction of arteries at the base of the brain. The structure encircles the middle area of the brain, including the stalk of the pituitary gland and other important structures.

Two arteries, called the carotid arteries, supply blood to the brain. They run along either side of the neck and lead directly to the circle of Willis.

Each carotid artery branches into an internal and external carotid artery. The internal carotid artery then branches into the cerebral arteries. This structure allows all of the blood from the two internal carotid arteries to pass through the circle of Willis.

The structure of the circle of Willis includes:

- left and right internal carotid arteries
- left and right anterior cerebral arteries
- left and right posterior cerebral arteries
- left and right posterior communicating arteries

- basilar artery
- anterior communicating artery

The circle of Willis is critical, as it is the meeting point of many important arteries supplying blood to the brain. The internal carotid arteries branch off from here into smaller arteries, which deliver much of the brain's blood supply.

The circle of willis allows for proper blood flow from the arteries to both the front and back hemispheres of the brain, serves as a sort of safety mechanism when it comes to blood flow and help blood flow from one side of the brain to the other in a situation in which the arteries on one side have reduced blood flow.

c. Splanchnic circulation

The splanchnic circulation is composed of gastric, small intestinal, colonic, pancreatic, hepatic, and splenic circulations, arranged in parallel with one another. The three major arteries that supply the splanchnic organs, cellac and superior and inferior mesenteric, give rise to smaller arteries that anastomose extensively. The circulation of some splanchnic organs is complicated by the existence of an intramural circulation. Redistribution of total blood flow between intramural vascular circuits may be as important as total blood flow. Numerous extrinsic and intrinsic factors influence the splanchnic circulation. Extrinsic factors include general hemodynamic conditions of the cardiovascular system, autonomic nervous system, and circulating neurohumoral agents. Intrinsic mechanisms include special properties of the vasculature, local metabolites, intrinsic nerves, paracrine substances, and local hormones.

d. Coronary circulation

Coronary circulation, part of the systemic circulatory system that supplies blood to and provides drainage from the tissues of the heart. In the human heart, two coronary arteries arise from the aorta just beyond the semilunar valves; during diastole, the increased aortic pressure above the valves forces blood into the coronary arteries and thence into the musculature of the heart. Deoxygenated blood is returned to the chambers of the heart via coronary veins; most of these converge to form the coronary venous sinus, which drains into the right atrium.

The heart normally extracts 70 to 75 percent of the available oxygen from the blood in coronary circulation, which is much more than the amount extracted by other organs from their circulations—e.g., 40 percent by resting skeletal muscle and 20 percent by the liver. Obstruction of a coronary artery, depriving the heart tissue of oxygen-rich blood, leads to death of part of the heart muscle (myocardial infarction) in severe cases, and total heart failure and death may ensue.

e. 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.

Some of the circulating blood volume in the skin will flow through will flow through **arteriovenous anastomoses (AVAs)** instead of capillaries. AVAs serve a role in temperature regulation.

Arteriovenous anastomoses are low-resistance connections between the small arteries and small veins that supply and drain the skin. These allow the shunt of blood directly into the venous plexus of the skin, without it passing through capillaries. Since AVAs contain no capillary section, they are not involved in transport of nutrients to/from the tissues, but instead play a major role in temperature regulation.

3. Discuss the cardiovascular adjustment that occurs during exercise?

The integrated response to severe exercise involves fourfold to fivefold increases in cardiac output, which are due primarily to increases in cardiac rate and to a lesser extent to augmentation of stroke volume. The increase in stroke volume is partly due to an increase in end-diastolic cardiac size (Frank-Starling mechanism) and secondarily due to a reduction in end-systolic cardiac size. The full role of the Frank-Starling mechanism is masked by the concomitant tachycardia. The reduction in end-systolic dimensions can be related to increased contractility, mediated by beta adrenergic stimulation. Beta adrenergic blockade prevents the inotropic response, the decrease in end-systolic dimensions, and approximately 50% of the tachycardia of exercise. The enhanced cardiac output is distributed preferentially to the exercising muscles including the heart. Blood flow to the heart increases fourfold to fivefold as well, mainly reflecting the augmented metabolic requirements of the myocardium due to near maximal increases in cardiac rate and contractility. Blood flow to the inactive viscera (e.g., kidney and gastrointestinal tract) is maintained during severe exercise in the normal dog. It is suggested that local autoregulatory mechanisms are responsible for maintained visceral flow in the face of neural and hormonal autonomic drive, which acts to constrict renal and mesenteric vessels and to reduce blood flow. However, in the presence of circulatory impairment, where oxygen delivery to the exercising muscles is impaired as occurs to complete heart block where normal heart rate increases during exercise are prevented, or in congestive right heart failure, where normal stroke volume increases during exercise are impaired, or in the presence of severe anemia, where oxygen-carrying capacity of the blood is limited, visceral blood flows are reduced drastically and blood is diverted to the exercising musculature. Thus, visceral flow is normally maintained during severe exercise as long as all other compensatory mechanisms remain intact. However, when any other compensatory mechanism is disrupted (even the elimination of splenic reserve in the dog), reduction and diversion of visceral flow occur.