

Respiratory system & Lung diseases

Points

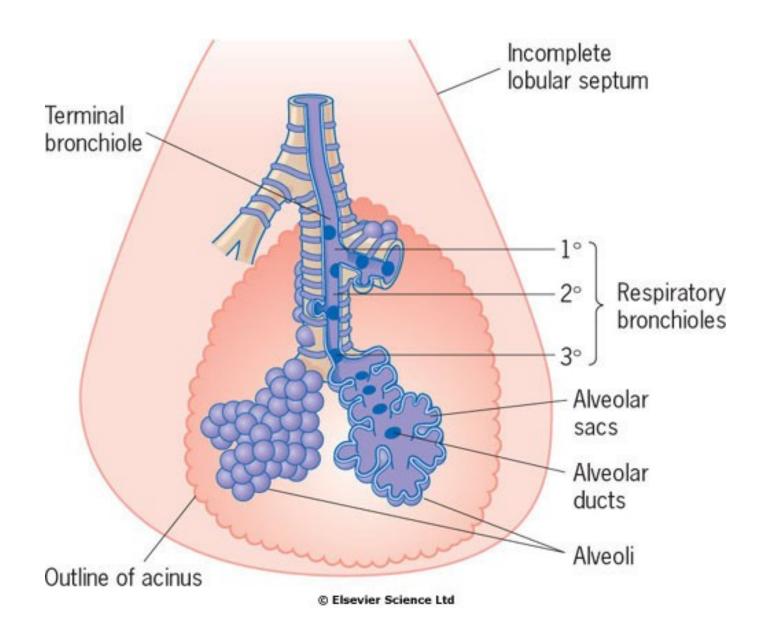
- ■Ventilation
- Diffusion
- □ Perfusion

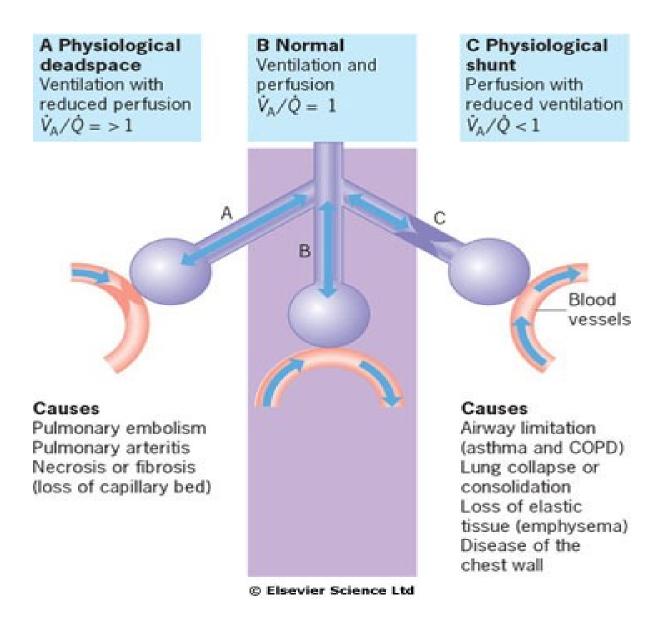


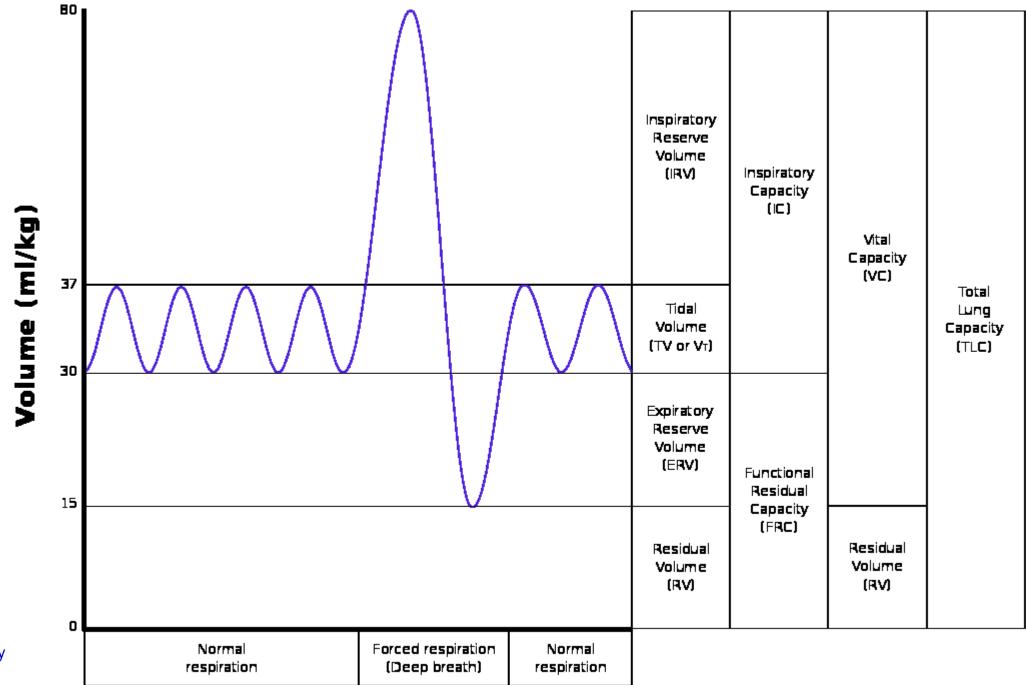
Breathing

- **Lung ventilation can be considered in two parts:**
- **□** the mechanical process of inspiration and expiration
- **□** the control of respiration to a level appropriate for the metabolic needs.









Lung Volume Patterns

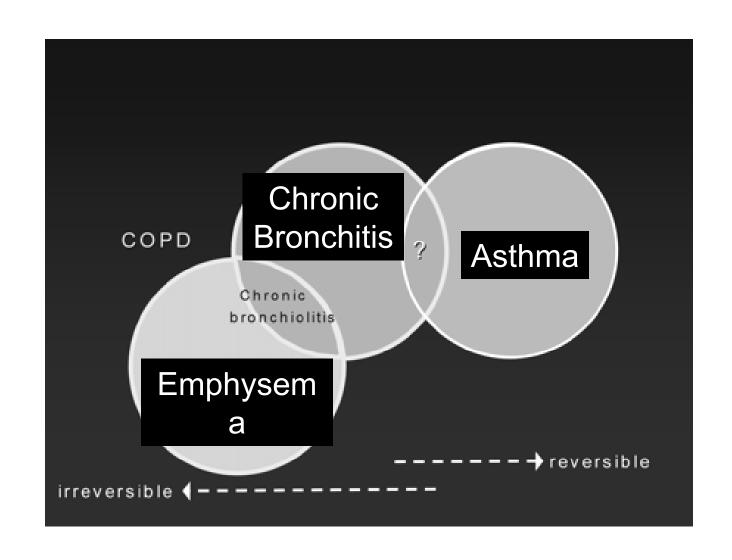
- □ Obstructive Disease: Characterized by hyperinflation and gas trapping (increased TLC and RV/TLC)
 - □asthma, chronic COPD (bronchitis, emphysema)
- Restrictive Disease: Characterized by generalized reduction in lung volume (decreased TLC, RV and FRC)
 - □ interstitial lung diseases (pulmonary fibrosis, sarcoidosis), pneumothorax, lung resection



Obstructive pulmonary diseases

- ☐ They are characterized by airway obstruction that is worse with expiration.
- □ Either more force (i.e., use of accessory muscles of expiration) is required to expire a given volume of air or emptying of the lungs is slowed or both.
- The unifying symptom of obstructive disease is dyspnea, the unifying sign is wheezing.
- □ The most common obstructive diseases are asthma, chronic bronchitis and emphysema.
- Because many individuals have both bronchitis and emphysema, they are often called COPD

Spectrum of Obstructive Lung Disease Syndromes



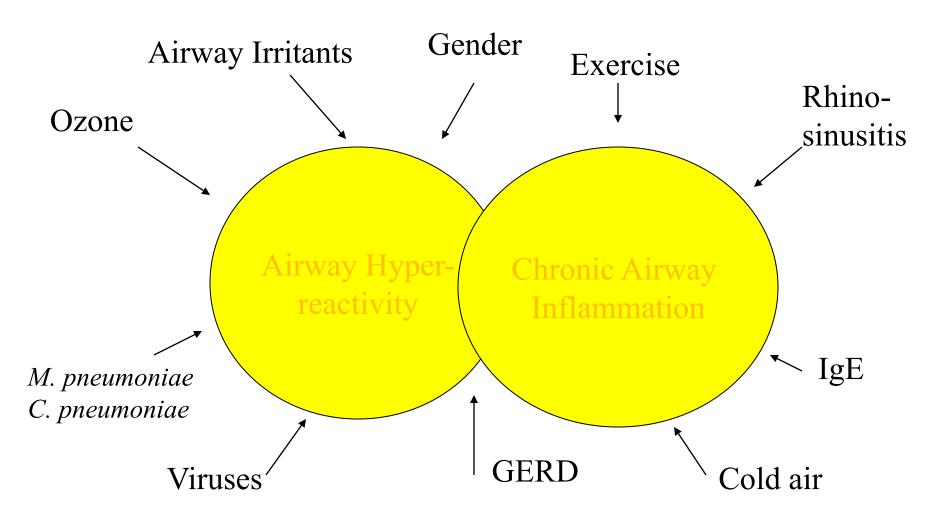
Airway obstruction caused by emphysema, chronic bronchitis, and asthma

Pulmonary artery Cartilage Submucosal Normal lung Emphysema gland Mast cell Basement Parasympathetic membrane Smooth muscle Bronchioles -Epithelium Norma Respiratory Goblet cell bronchioles alveoli Alveoli D **Bronchitis** Asthma Enlarged submucosal Degranulation gland of mast cell Mucus Smooth muscle accumulation constriction Mucus plug Inflammation of epithelium Hyperinflation Hyperinflation of alveoli accumulation of alveoli

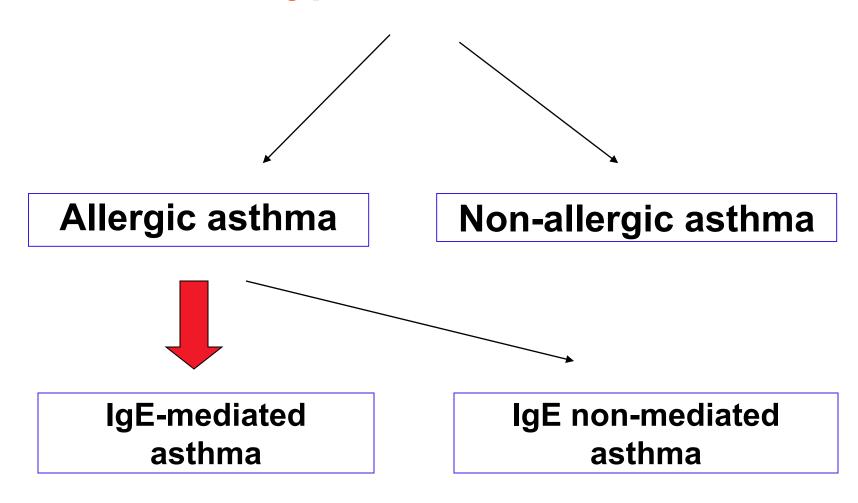
Asthma bronchiale

- Asthma is a chronic inflammatory disorder of the airways in which many cells and cellular elements play a role.
- The chronic inflammation causes an associated increase in airway hyperresponsiveness that leads to recurrent episodes of wheezing, breathlessness, chest tightness, and coughing, particularly at night or in the early morning.
- These episodes are usually associated with widespread but variable airway obstruction that is often reversible either spontaneously or with treatment.

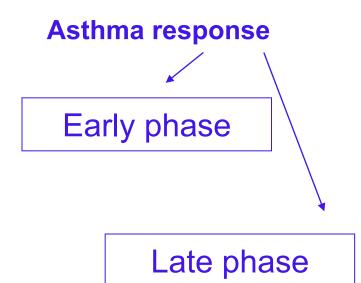
Asthma Pathogenesis

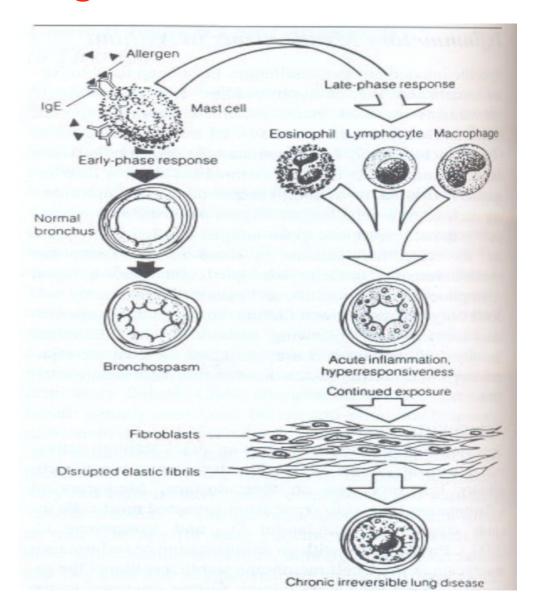


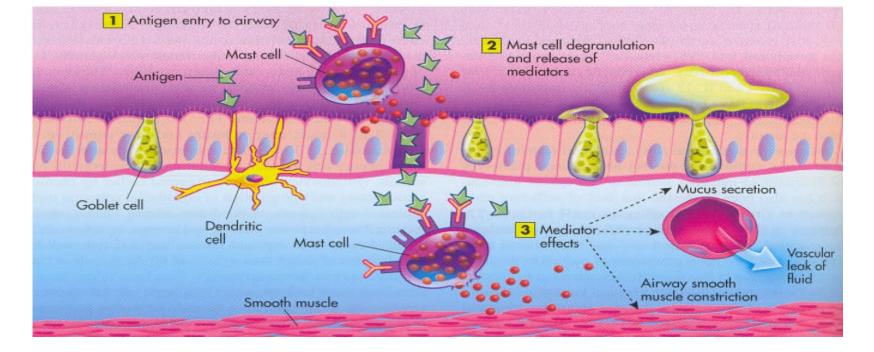
Types of asthma

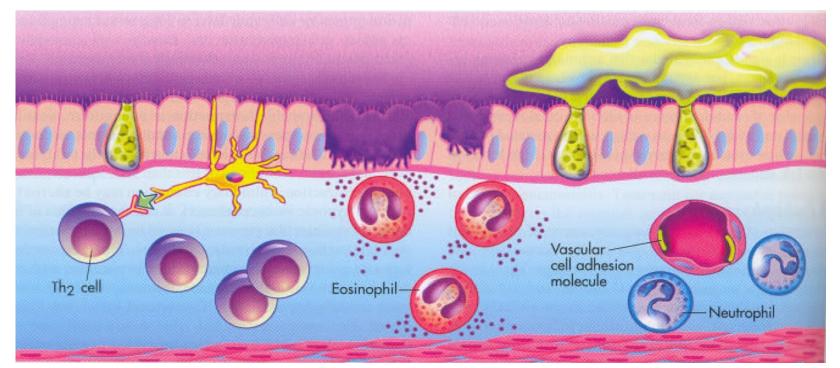


Allergic asthma









Asthma classification based on severity

- Mild intermitent
- Mild persistent
- Moderate persistent
 - Severe persistent

Determining Asthma Severity

Asthma – clinical manifestations

- **During full remision**
 - Individuals are asymptomatic and pulmonary function tests are normal.
- **During partial remision**

There are no clinical symptoms but pulmonary function tests are abnormal

- During attacks
 - Individuals are dyspneic and respiratory effort is marked
 - Breath sounds are ecreased except for considerable wheezing, dyspnea, non-productive coughing, tachycardia and tachypnea occur

Asthma - pulmonary function

- Spirometry shows decreases in expiratory flow rate, forced expiratory volume (FEV), and forced vital capacity (FVC)
- □FRC and total lung capacity (TLC) are increased.
- Blood gas analysis shows hypoxemia with early respiratory alkalosis or late respiratory acidosis.



Treatment

Goals:

- To reverse of acute attacks
- To control recurrent attacks
- To reduce bronchial inflammation and the associated hyperreactivity
- + elimination of allergens (if it is possible)

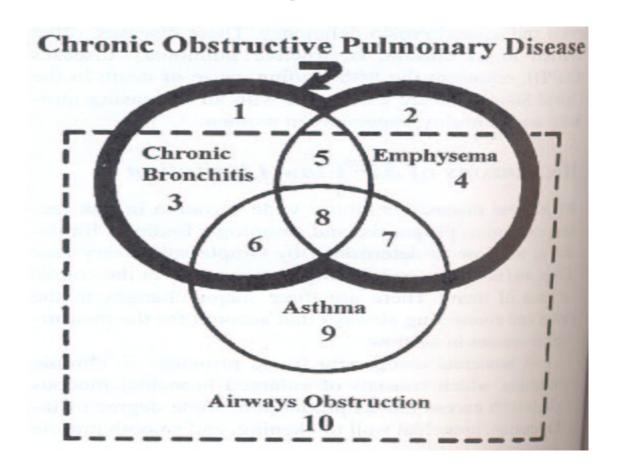
Drugs:

- Allergen's immunotherapy
- Bronchodilator (Beta agonists, Anticholinergic agents, Theophylline)
- **Immunosuppressant (corticosteroids)**
- Others (Leukotriene modifiers, antihistamine, e.g.)

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)

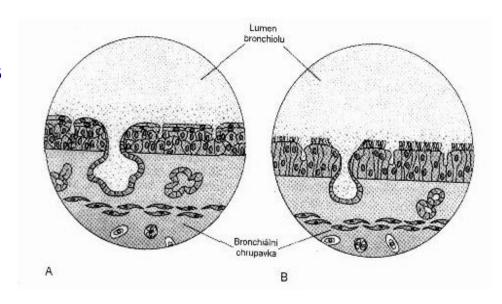
- □ COPD is defined as pathologic lung changes consistent with emphysema or chronic bronchitis.
- □ It is syndrome characterized by abnormal tests of expiratory airflow that do not change markedly over time, and without a reversible response to pharmacological agents.
- □ 5-20% adult population
- Most frequently in men
- □ The fifth leading cause of death

The complex, heterogenous overlapping of the three primary diagnoses include under diseases of air flow limitation is present on the next picture:



1. Chronic bronchitis

- □ Chronic bronchitis is defined as hypersecretion of mucus and chronic productive cough that continues for at least 3 months of years for at least 2 consecutive years.
- □ Incidence is increased in smokers (up to twentyfold) and even more so in workers exposed to air pollution.
- □ It is a major health problem for the elderly population. Repeated infections are common.



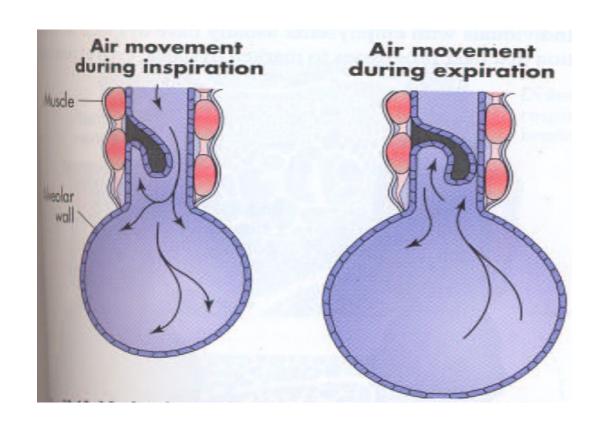
Chronic bronchitis - etiology

- □ It is primarily caused by cigarette smoke, both active and passive smoking have been implicated
- □ Other risk factors:
 - profesional exposition
 - air pollution
 - repeated infections of airways
 - genetics

Chronic bronchitis - morphology

- □ Inspired irritants not only increase mucus production but also increase the size and number of mucous glands and goblet cells in airway epithelium
- ☐ The mucus produced is thicker and more tenacious than normal. This sticky mucus coating makes it much more likely that bacteria, such as H. influenze and S. pneumoniae, will become embedded in the airway secretions, there they reproduce rapidly.
- □ Ciliary function is impaired, reducing mucus clearance further. The lung's defense mechanisms are tehrefore compromised, increasing susceptibility to pulmonary infection and injury.
- □ The bronchial walls become inflamed and thickened from edema and accumulation of inflammatory cells.

- Initially chronic bronchitis affects only the larger bronchi, but eventually all airways are involved.
- □ The thick mucus and hypertrophied bronchial smooth muscle obstruct the airways and lead to closure, particularly during expiration, when the airways are narrowed.
- □ The airways collapse early in expiration, trapping gas in the distal portions of the lung.
- Obstruction eventually leads to ventilation-perfusion mismatch, hypoventilation (increased PaCO2) and hypoxemia.



Chronic bronchitis – clinical manifestations

- □ Individuals usually have a productive cough ("smoker's cough") and evidence of airway obstruction is shown by spirometry
- ☐ Bronchitis patients are often described as "blue bloaters" due to their tendency to exhibit both hypoxemia and right heart failure with peripheral edema in spite of only moderate obstructive changes on pulmonary functional tests.
- Acute episodes (e.g. after infection) result in marked hypoxemia that leads to polycytemia and cyanosis (blueness) associated with an increase in pulmonary artery pressure, impairing right ventricular function, and significant jugular venous distension and ankle edema (bloated)

Chronic bronchitis – evaluation and treatment

- □ Diagnosis is made on the basis of physical examination, chest radiograph, pulmonary function tests and blood gas analyses.
- □ The best "treatment" is prevention, because pathological changes are not reversible.
- ☐ If the individuals stops smoking, disease progression can be halted
- □Therapy: bronchodilators
 - expectorans
 - chest physical therapy
 - steroids
 - antibiotics



Chronic bronchitis: low-flow oxygen therapy

- ☐ It is administered with care to individuals with severe hypoxemia and CO2 retention
- □ Because of teh chronic elevation of PaCO2, the central chemoreceptors no longer act as the primary stimulus for breathing.
- □ This role is taken over by the peripheral chemoreceptors, which are sensitive to changes in PaO2.
- □Peripheral chemoreceptors do not stimulate breathing if the PaO2 is much more than 60 mmHg.
- □ Therefore, if oxygen therapy causes PaO2 to exceed 60 mmHg, the stimulus to breathe is lost, PaCO2 increases, and apnea results.
- □ If inadequate oxygenation cannot be achieved without resulting in respiratory depression, the individual must be mechanically ventilated)



2. Emphysema

- □It is abnormal permanent enlargement of gas-exchange airways (acini) accompanied by destruction of alveolar walls and without obvious fibrosis.
- □ In emphysema, obstruction results from changes in lung tissues, rather than mucus production and inflammation, as in chronic bronchitis.
- ☐ The major mechanism of airflow limitation is loss of elastic recoil.



Types of emphysema

☐ Three distinctive types of alveolar destruction have been described, according to the portion of the acinus first involved with disease:

1) Centrilobular (centriacinar):

- septal destruction occurs in the respiratory bronchioles and alveolar ducts, usually in the upper lobes of the lung. The alveolar sac (alveoli distal to the respiratory bronchiole) remains intact. It tends to occur in smokers with chronic bronchitis.

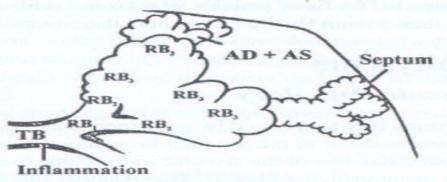
2) Panacinar (panlobular):

- It involves the entire acinus with damage more randomly distributed and involving the lower lobes of the lung. It tends to occur in patients with α 1-antitrypsin deficiency.

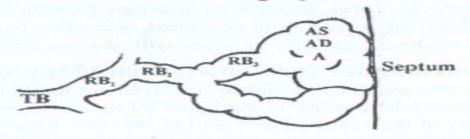
3) Distal acinar (subpleural):

- It is typically seen in a young adult with a history of a spontaneous pneumothorax.

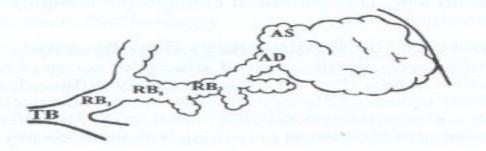
A. Centrilobular Emphysema



B. Panacinar Emphysema



C. Distal Acinar Emphysema



Types of emphysema

□Primary emphysema:

- it is commonly linked to an inherited deficiency of the enzyme $\alpha 1$ -antitrypsin that is a major component of α 1-globulin, a plasma protein.
 - Normally it inhibits the action of many proteolytic enzymes.
- Individuals with deficiency of this enzyme (AR) have an increased likelihood of developing emphysema because proteolysis in lung tissues is not inhibited.

□Secondary emphysema:

- It is also caused by an inability of the body to inhibit proteolytic enzymes in the lung. It results from an insult to the lungs from inhaled toxins, such as cigarette smoke and air pollution.



Pathophysiology of emphysema

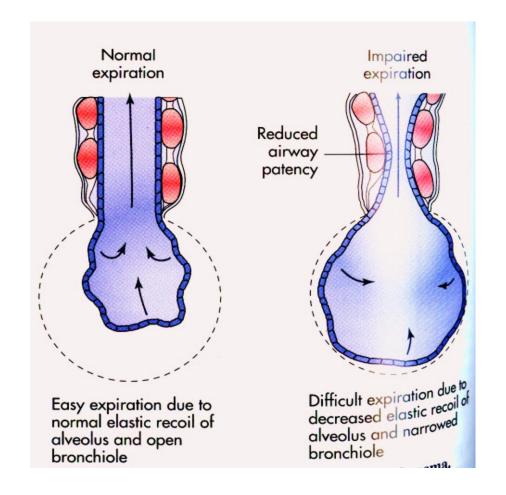
□ Emphysema begins with destruction of alveolar septa

- □ It is postulated that inhaled oxidants, such as those in cigarette smoke and air pollution, tip the normal balance of elastases (proteolytic enzymes) and antielastases (such as α 1antitrypsin) such that elastin is destroyed at an increased rate
- **Expiration becomes difficult because loss of elastic recoil reduces the volume of air that** can be expired passively.
- ☐ Hyperinflation of alveoli causes large air spaces (bullae) and air spaces adjacent to pleura (blebs) to develop.
- □ The combination of increased RV in the alveoli and diminished caliber of the bronchioles causes part of each inspiration to be trapped in the acinus.

Mechanisms of air trapping in emphysema

Damaged or destroyed alveolar walls no longer support and hold open the airways, and alveoli lose their property of passive elastic recoil.

Both of the se factors contribute to collapse during expiration.



Emphysema – clinical manifestations

- □ Patients with emphysema are able to maintain a higher alveolar minute ventilation than those with chronic bronchitis. Thus they tend to have a higher PaO2 and lower PaCO2 and have classically been referred to as "pink puffers"
- □ Physical examination often reveals a thin, tachypneic patient using accessory muscles and pursed lips to facilitate respiration. The thorax is barrel-shaped due to hyperinflation.
- □There is little cough and very little sputum production (in "pure" emphysema)



Emphysema – evaluation

□Pulmonary function tests:

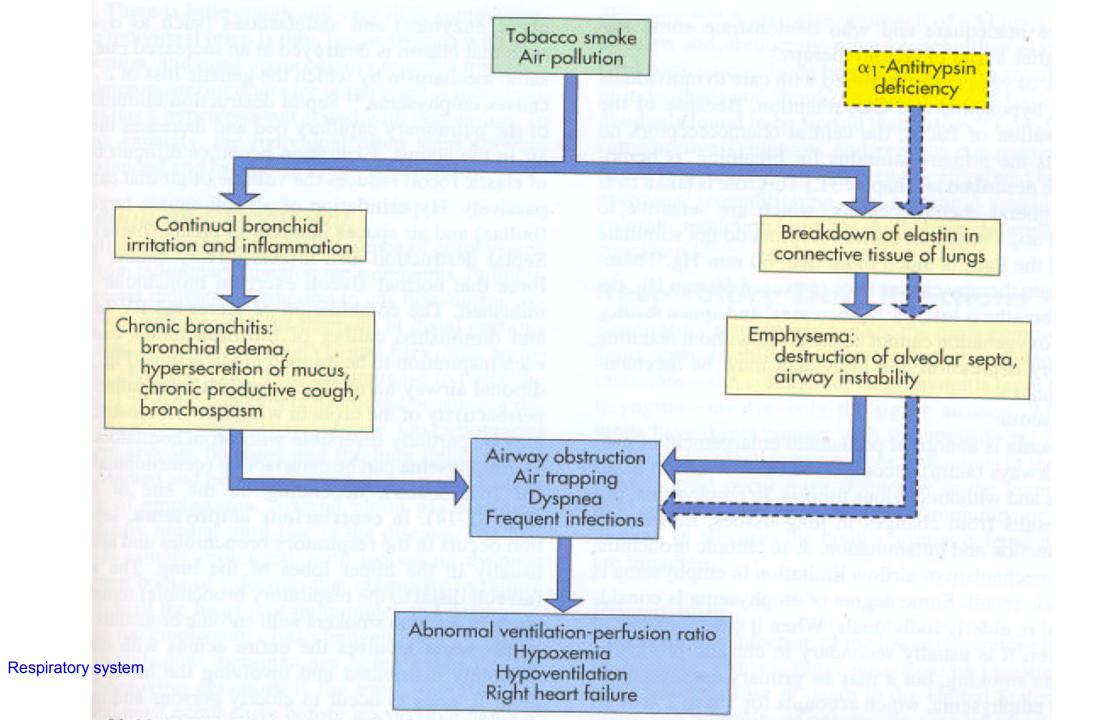
- indicate obstruction to gas flow during expiration
- airway collapse and air trapping lead to a decrease in FVC and FEV1 and an increase in FRC, RV, and TLC.
- diffusing capacity is decreased because destruction of the alveolocapillary membrane
- □ Arterial blood gas measurements are usually normal until latge in the disease



Emphysema – approach to therapy

- **■Smoking cessation is the most important intervention**
- □Inhaled anticholinergic agets
- **B2-adrenergic agonists**
- □ Steroids
 □
 ■ Steroids
 □
 □
 ■ Steroids
 ■ Steroids
 □
 ■ Steroids
 ■ Stero
- ■Low-flow oxygen therapy in selected individuals
- Lung transplant can be considered





Clinical Manifestations of Chronic Table 32-4 Obstructive Lung Disease Clinical Manifestations Bronchitis Emphysema Productive Classic sign Late in course cough with infection Dyspnea Late in course Common Wheezing Intermittent Minimal History of Common Common smoking Barrel chest Occasionally Classic Prolonged Always present Always present expiration Cyanosis Common Uncommon Chronic Common Late in course hypoventilation Polycythemia

Common

Common

Late in course

Late in course

Cor pulmonale

Cyansis

□ Reduced hemoglobin higher than 50 g/l

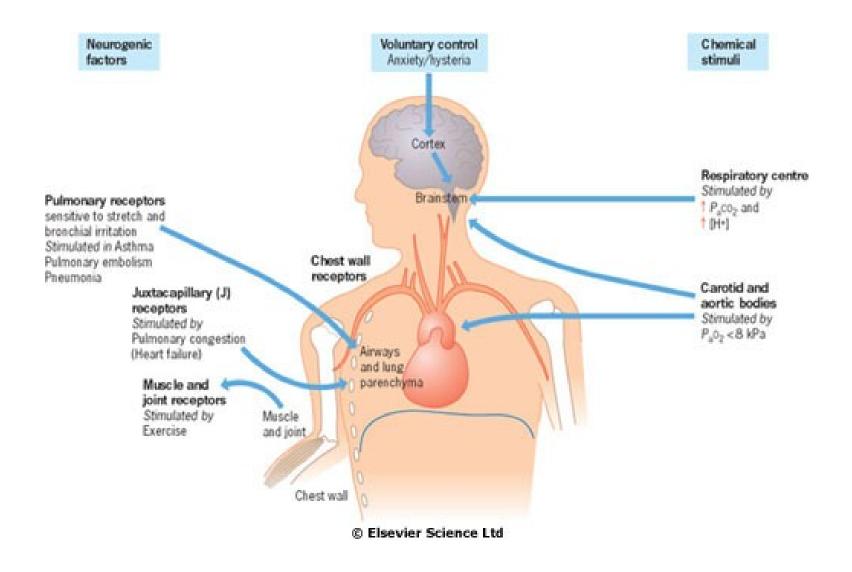
□Hemoglobin

Normal – 120-160 g/l (F), 130-180 g/l (M)

Anemia – less than 110 g/l,

Severe anemia – less than 79 g/l





Hypoxic drive

- ☐ Traditional theory, obsolete
- □Global respiratory insufficieny (hypoxemia + hypercapnia)
 disables stimulation based on pCO₂
- Respiration stimulated by hypoxemia
- Administration of oxygen may cause depression of the respiratory center (leading to critical hypercapnia)



Ventilation-perfusion mismatch

- □ Current theory
- □ Low pO₂ causes pulmonary vasoconstriction (redistribution of perfusion to a ventilated area)
- □ Administration of oxygen will reverse pulmonary vasoconstriction, however, a poorly ventilated alveolus does not ventilate CO₂
- □Oxygen also leads to a shift of the dissociation curve to the right (release of CO₂ from hemoglobin Haldane effect), which is not ventilated, increasing pCO₂
- □Oxygen administration is safe if oxygenation is titrated to reach 88%-92% saturation



Hypoxic pulmonary

vasoconstriction

Ventilation

Interstitial lung diseases

There are a large number of diseases that affect the interstitium of the lung

it is connective tissue present between the alveolar epithelium and capillary endothelium

- ☐ Some of these diseases have known etiology, e.g. occupational diseases
- Others are diseases of unknown etiology
 - most frequent of these are idiopatic pulmonary fibrosis (diffuse interstitial fibrosis), pulmonary fibrosis associated with collagen-vascular diseases, and sarcoidosis.

Nozological units

Idiopatic pulmonary fibrosis

☐ Diseases unknown etiology, non-specific fibrotic change in lung. The diagnosis is to some extent one of exclusion.

Sarcoidosis

□ One of the most common. It is multi-systém granulomatous disease that involves lung, lymph nodes, salivary glands, and liver. Specific type is called erythema nodosum

Occupational intersticial diseases

□ Exposure to occupational and environmental inhalants for a long time can lead to develop lung disease. Workers in industries with heavy exposure to silica dust, asbestos particles, and welding fumes are generally aware of the risk of their occupation.

Occupational diseases

Diseases

Azbestosis

Aspergilosis

Berryliosis

Lung of breeder of birds

Pneumoconiosis

Farmer's lung

Silicosis

Welder's lung

Cause

Azbestos particles

Mould -

Berrylium's compouds

Birds' antigens

Coal

Grain's mould

Silica dust

Welding fumes

Clinical manifestations

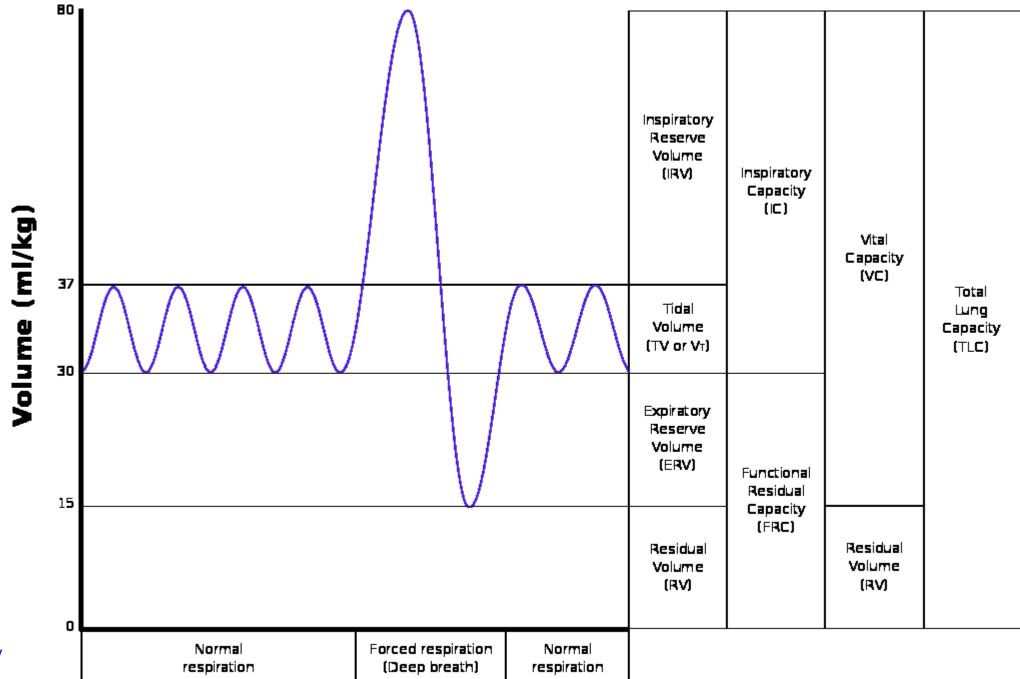
Subjective symptoms Laboratory findings □ dyspnoe □ Decrease PaO₂ □ cough □ normal PaCO₂ **Objective signs □ ECG- cor pulmonale** □ tachypnoe **□** Spirometry - restrictive pattern (VC, normal ratio □ crackles FEV1/FVC) □ clubbing □ Decrease diffusion capacity □ cyanosis of the lung for carbon □ cor pulmonale monooxide

Therapy

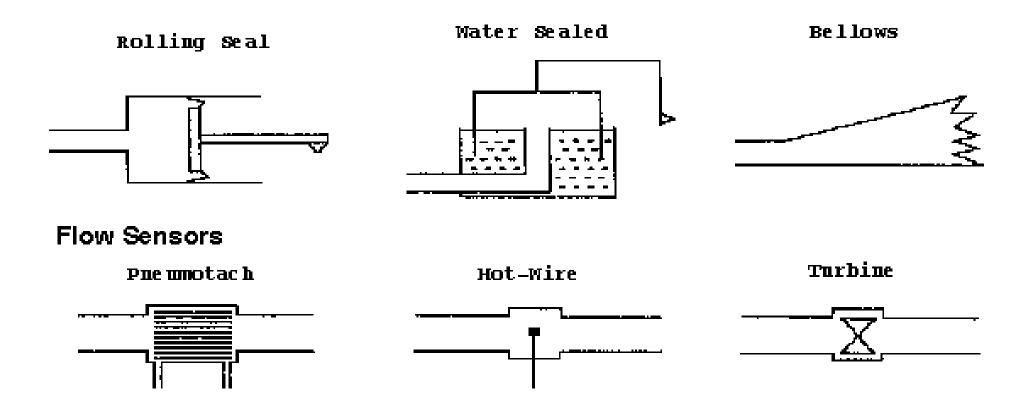
- □ It depends on etiology (if it is known)
- □ Stopping the occupational exposure
- □ Antibiotics
- Diseases of unknown etiology (sarcoidosis, idiop. pulmonary fibrosis) corticosteroids
- □ Oxygen therapy



Spirometry

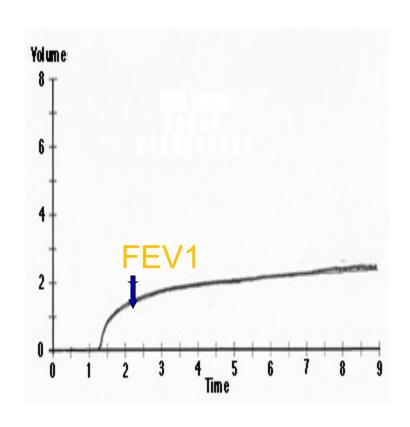


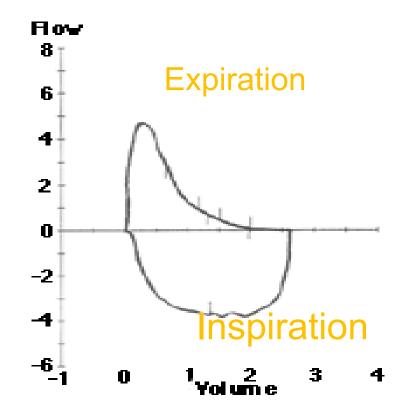
Types of spirometers





Graphs





53 Respiratory system Volume-time

Flow-volume

Lung Volume Patterns

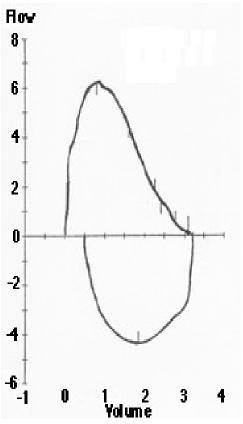
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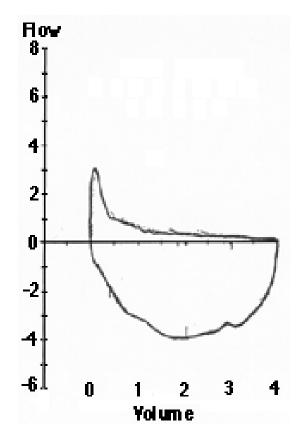


Flow-volume graphs

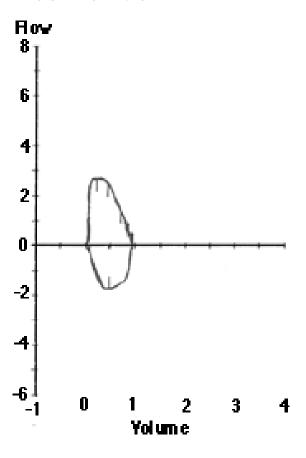


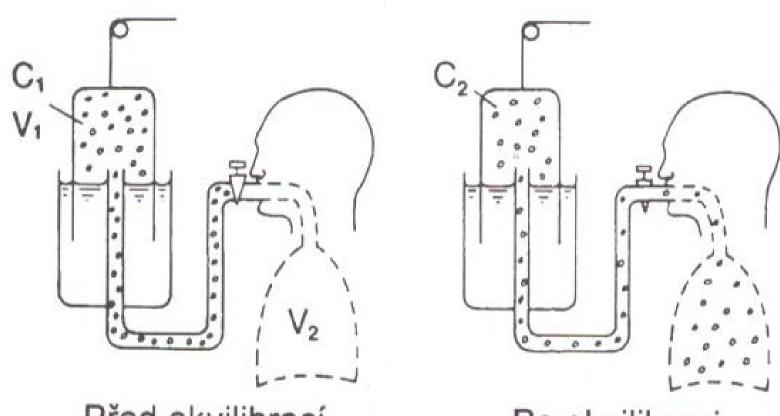


Obstructive



Restrictive





Před ekvilibrací

Po ekvilibraci

$$C_1 * V_1 = C_2 * (V_1 + V_2)$$