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BYJU'S

NOTES

Breathing and Exchange of Gases



Key Takeaway



Breathing and cellular respiration

Types of cellular respiration

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Mechanism of gaseous exchange in invertebrates

Human respiratory system

Conducting and respiratory parts

Process of exchange of gases in body

Location of the lungs

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Mechanism of breathing

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Inspiration and expiration

Lung volumes and capacities

External respiration

Internal respiration

Transportation of gases in blood

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Artificial respiration

Respiratory disorders

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Summary



Breathing and Cellular Respiration



Breathing

Oxygen is inhaled and carbon dioxide is exhaled out of the lungs

No energy is produced during the process

Takes place in respiratory organs

Physical process

Cellular respiration

Breakdown of food using oxygen to produce energy which is used by cells to carry out cellular function

Energy is released in the form of ATP

Takes place in cells

Biochemical process



Types of Cellular Respiration



Types of cellular respiration

Aerobic respiration

In the case of **aerobic respiration**, the oxygen inhaled during breathing is utilised for the breakdown of food, while the carbon dioxide that is generated is exhaled during breathing.

Anaerobic respiration

In the case of **anaerobic respiration**, the breakdown of food occurs in the absence of oxygen, and lactic acid or ethanol is produced.



Mechanism of Gaseous Exchange in Various Organisms



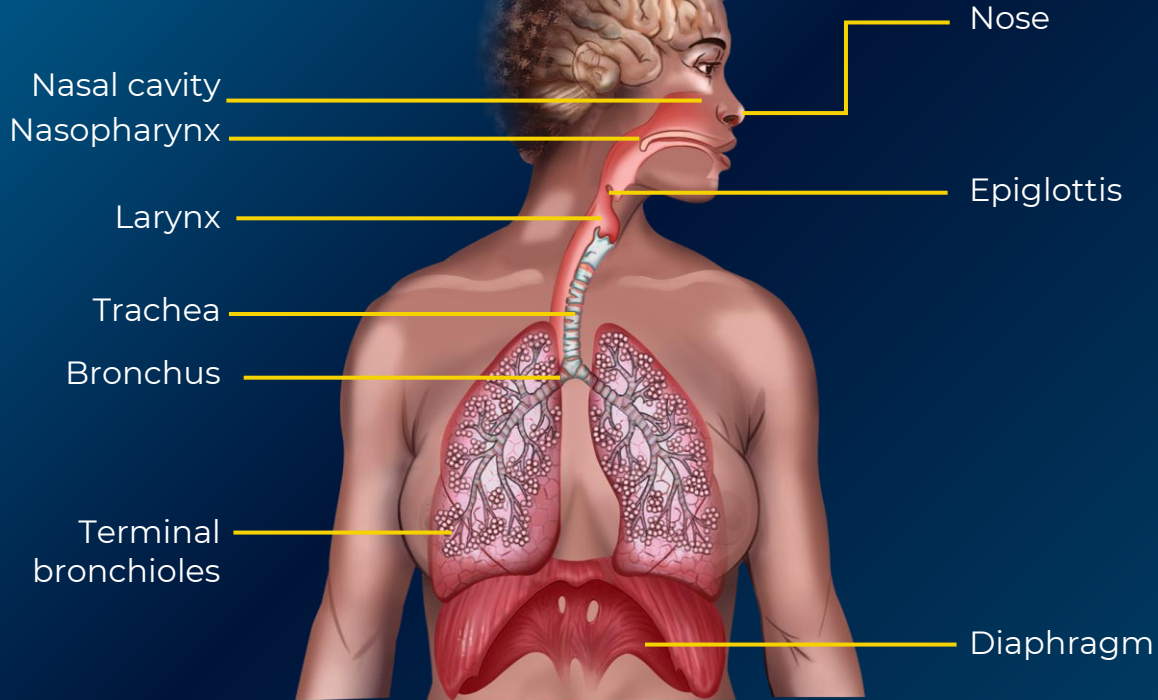
- **Sponges, coelenterates, flatworms** etc. rely on the **movement of water through them** for gaseous exchange.
- **Earthworms** breathe through their **moist cuticle**.
- **Insects** use a network of **tracheal tubes** to transport air throughout the body.
- **Gills** are special vascularised structures used by **most aquatic arthropods, molluscs and fishes** for breathing.
- Most terrestrial organisms such as **reptiles, birds and mammals have lungs** for gaseous exchange.
- **Amphibians** can respire through their **moist skin** as well besides using **lungs**. E.g. – frog.



Human Respiratory System

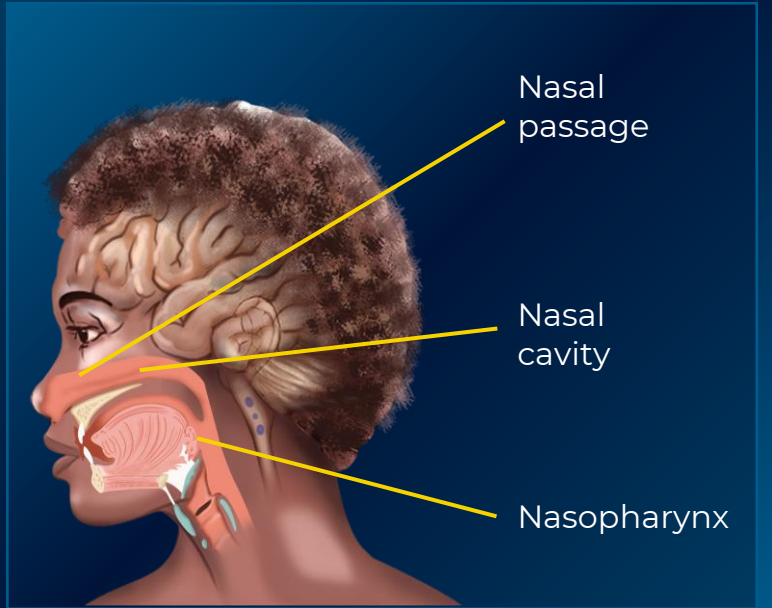
Pathway
of oxygen

Pathway
of carbon dioxide





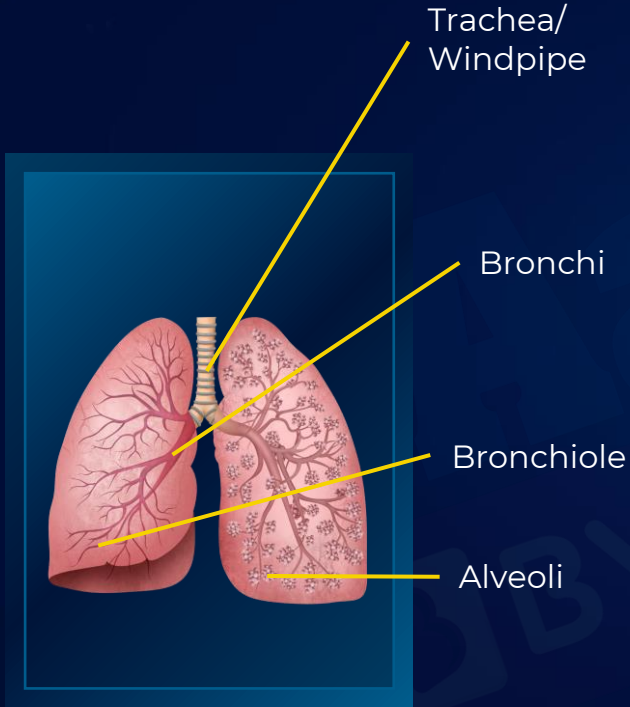
Human Respiratory System



- Air enters the respiratory system through the **nostrils**.
- It then travels through the **nasal passage**.
 - The nasal passage is separated into two chambers by the nasal septum.
 - It is lined with hair, which filters the dust particles present in the air.
- Presence of **rich vascular supply** allows the nose to change the temperature and the humidity of the inspired air.
- It helps to keep the **air** entering the **nose** from drying out the lungs and other parts of our respiratory system.
- The nasal cavity is at the farther end of the nasal passage.
- It leads to the **nasopharynx**.



Human Respiratory System



- It is a straight tube extending up to the mid-thoracic cavity.
- It is surrounded by incomplete **cartilaginous rings** that provide support to the trachea and prevent it from collapsing.
- At its farther end, it divides into left and right bronchi, which are referred to as the **primary bronchi**.
- **Bronchi** divide into numerous branches, which again sub-divide further into **bronchioles**.
- These are the passages that carry the inhaled air from the trachea to the **bronchioles**.
- **Bronchioles** carry air to the millions of alveoli present in the lungs.
- Bronchioles eventually terminate into alveoli.
- **Alveoli** are small sac-like structures that swell when air enters them.
- Alveoli are in close contact with the **blood capillaries**.
- Hence, alveoli are sites where the gaseous exchange between blood and lungs occurs.

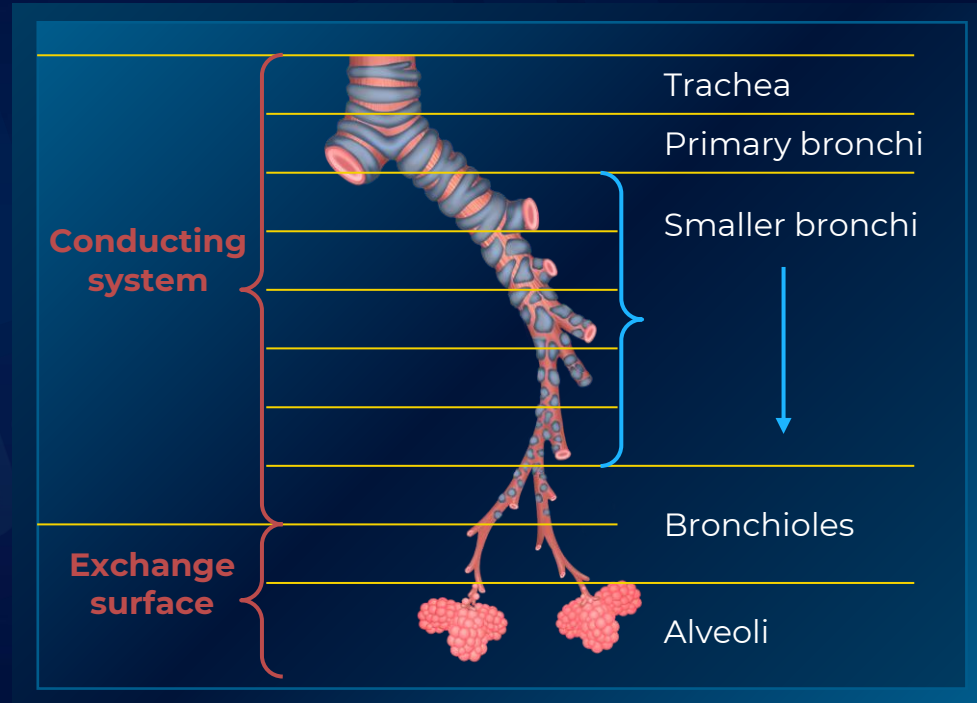


Conducting and Respiratory Parts



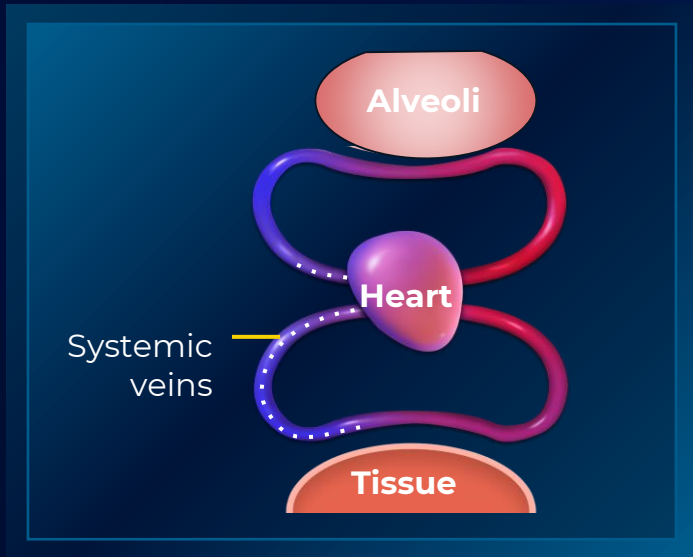
The human respiratory system can be divided into a conducting part and a respiratory part.

- **Conducting part**
 - It extends from the external nostrils up to the bronchioles.
 - It **conducts air** in and out of the lungs.
 - It **clears the air** of foreign particles.
 - It **humidifies** the air and brings it to the body temperature before it reaches the lungs.
- **Respiratory part/ Exchange part**
 - It includes alveoli and its ducts.
 - It is involved in the **exchange of gases** between the lungs and blood.





Process of Exchange of Gases in Body



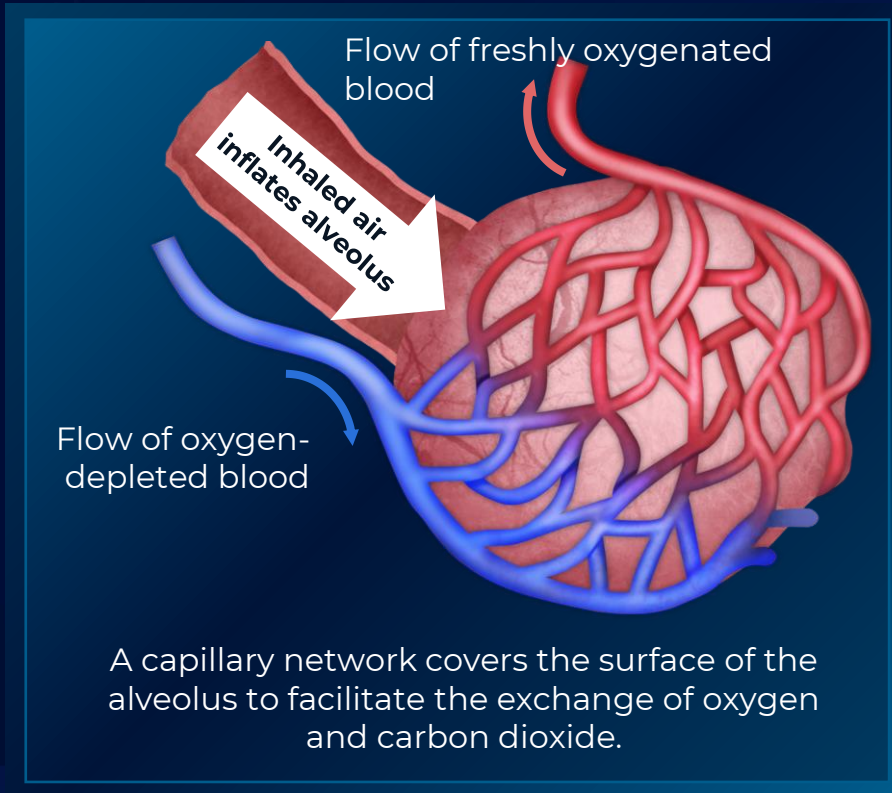
- Veins bring carbon dioxide-rich blood from all over the body to the heart.
 - This carbon dioxide is released during the process of cellular respiration.



- The heart then pumps this CO_2 -rich blood to the capillaries, surrounding the alveoli.
- The gaseous exchange occurs between the capillaries and the alveoli, where CO_2 diffuses into the alveoli, and O_2 from the alveoli diffuses into the capillaries.



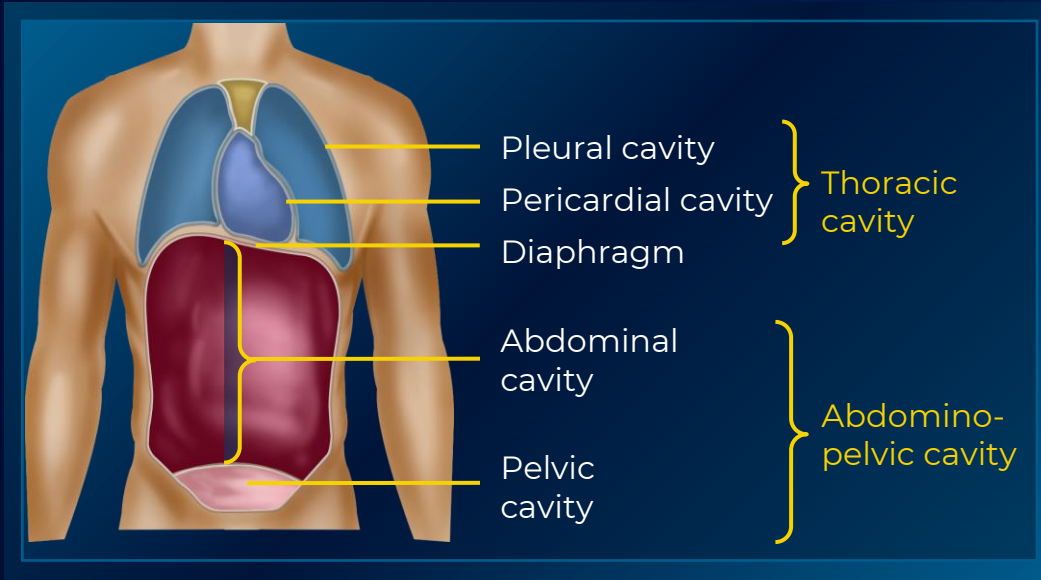
Process of Exchange of Gases in Body



- Now, the oxygen-rich blood from the capillaries is carried to the heart, which pumps it throughout the body via arteries.
- Meanwhile, the **CO₂-rich air** is exhaled by the lungs.
- Now, the cells of the body utilise the supplied oxygen to generate energy and release CO₂ in the process.
- Meanwhile, the lungs inhale the **O₂-rich air** and the cycle repeats itself.



Location of the Lungs



- Lungs are located in the **pleural cavity inside the thoracic cavity**.
- Lungs are surrounded by double layered **pleural membranes**.
- The thoracic cavity is covered in the following ways:
 - Dorsally by the vertebral column
 - Ventrally by the sternum
 - Laterally by the ribs
 - On the lower side by the dome-shaped diaphragm
- Any change in the volume of the thoracic cavity reflects in the volume of the lungs.



Mechanism of Breathing



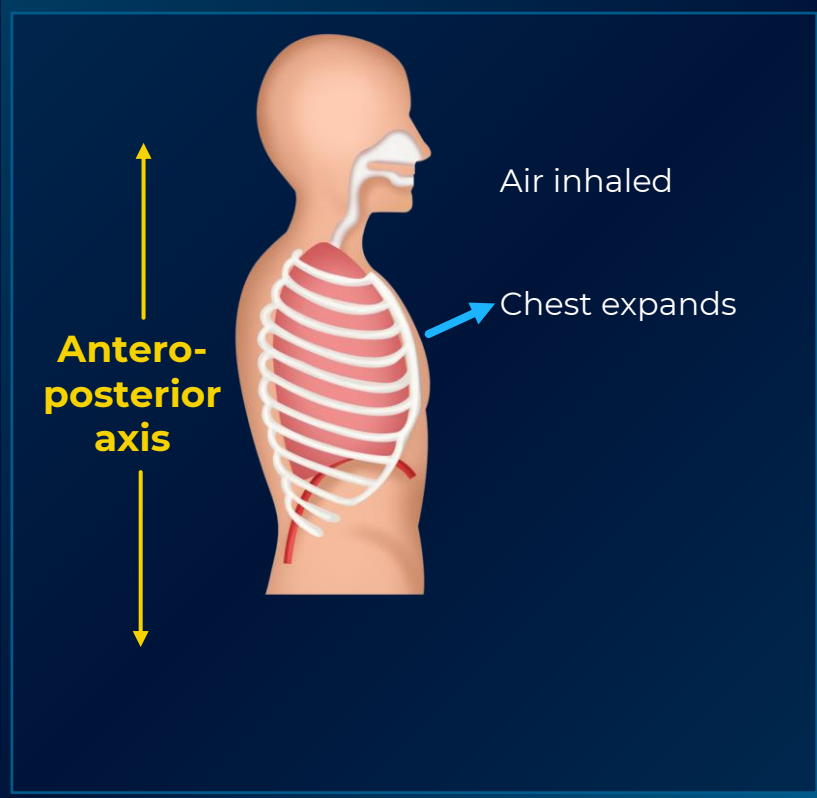
- Breathing is a **physical process** that takes place in the lungs.
- It involves the inspiration of oxygen and the expiration of carbon dioxide.
- It **does not release energy**.

Inspiration

Muscle that contracts	Consequence	Direction of expansion of thoracic cavity
Diaphragm	Diaphragm pulled down	Antero-posterior (up-down) direction
External intercostals	Rib cage expands upwards and outwards	Dorsoventral (front-back) direction



Mechanism of Breathing



Inspiration

Diaphragm **contracts** and moves **downwards** and external intercostal muscles **contract** and move the ribs **upward** and **outward**

The intrapulmonary volume **increases** and pressure **decreases**

This creates **low pressure** inside lungs

Air moves from **outside to inside** bringing about inhalation



Mechanism of Breathing

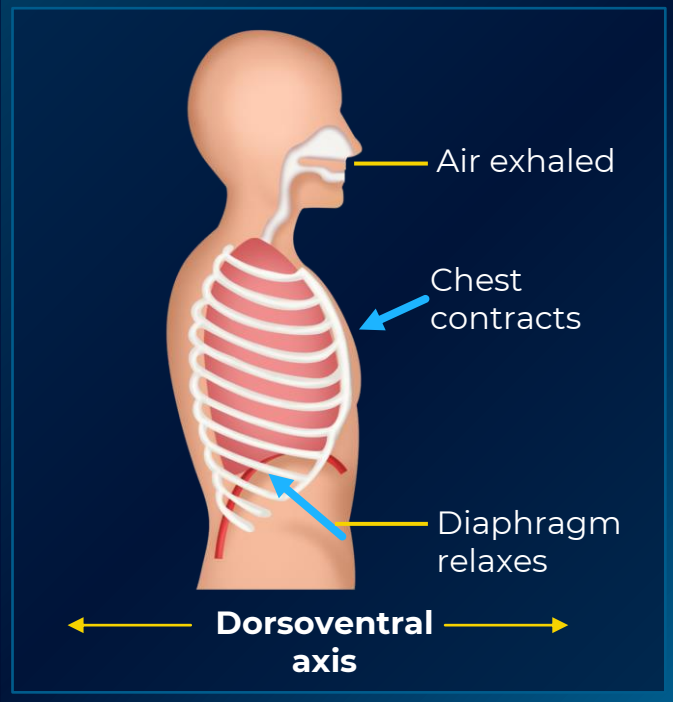


Expiration

Muscle involved (quiet expiration)	Consequence	Direction of contraction of thoracic cavity
Diaphragm Relaxation	Diaphragm pulled up	Antero-posterior (up-down) direction
External intercostals relaxation	Rib cage comes back downwards and inwards	Dorsoventral (front-back) direction



Mechanism of Breathing



Expiration

While **breathing out**, the **diaphragm relaxes** and the volume of the **thoracic cavity decreases** in the **longitudinal direction**.

- Decreased thoracic volume **reduces** the pulmonary volume
- Intrapulmonary pressure **increases**



Lung Volumes and Capacities



Lung volumes and capacities measure the following:

- Amount of air that lungs can hold.
- Measure of the amount of air breathed in and out.

Lung volume	Definition	Value (ml)
Tidal Volume (TV)	It is the volume of air inspired or expired during normal respiration .	500
Inspiratory Reserve Volume (IRV)	It is the additional volume of air that can be breathed in by forcible inspiration .	2,500-3,000
Expiratory Reserve Volume (ERV)	It is the additional volume of air that can be breathed out by forcible expiration .	1,000-1,100
Residual Volume (RV)	It is the volume of air left in lungs after forcible expiration .	1,100-1,200



Lung Capacities

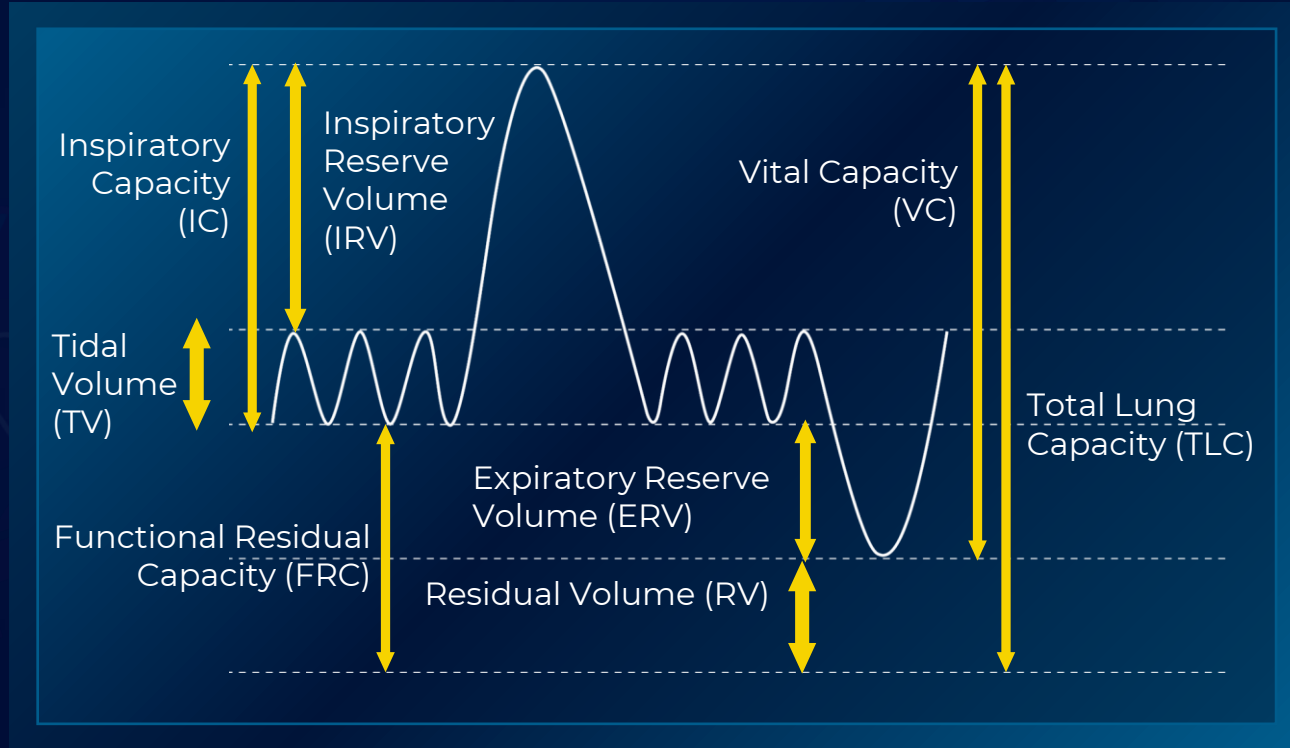
Lung capacity	Definition	Formula	Value/breath (ml)
Inspiratory Capacity (IC)	It is the maximum volume of air that can be inspired after normal expiration .	$IC = TV + IRV$	$500 + 2,750 = 3,250$
Functional Residual Capacity (FRC)	It is the volume of air that remains in lungs after normal expiration .	$FRC = ERV + RV$	$1,050 + 1,150 = 2,200$
Vital Capacity (VC)	It is the maximum volume of air that can be inspired after forced expiration .	$VC = ERV + TV + IRV$	$1,050 + 500 + 2,750 = 4,300$
Total Lung Capacity (TLC)	It is the maximum volume of air in lungs after forced inspiration .	$TLC = RV + ERV + TV + IRV$ $TLC = RV + VC$	$1,150 + 1,050 + 500 + 2,750$ $= 1,150 + 4,300$ $= 5,450$



Lung Volumes and Capacities



Graphical representation





Lung Volumes and Capacities



Spirometer

- Some of these volumes and capacities can be measured by an instrument known as a **spirometer**.
- It is useful in diagnosis of the following diseases:
 - Asthma
 - Shortness of breath
 - Assessing the effect of contaminants on lung infection
 - Effect of medication
 - Evaluating progress for disease treatment



Spirometer



Alveoli



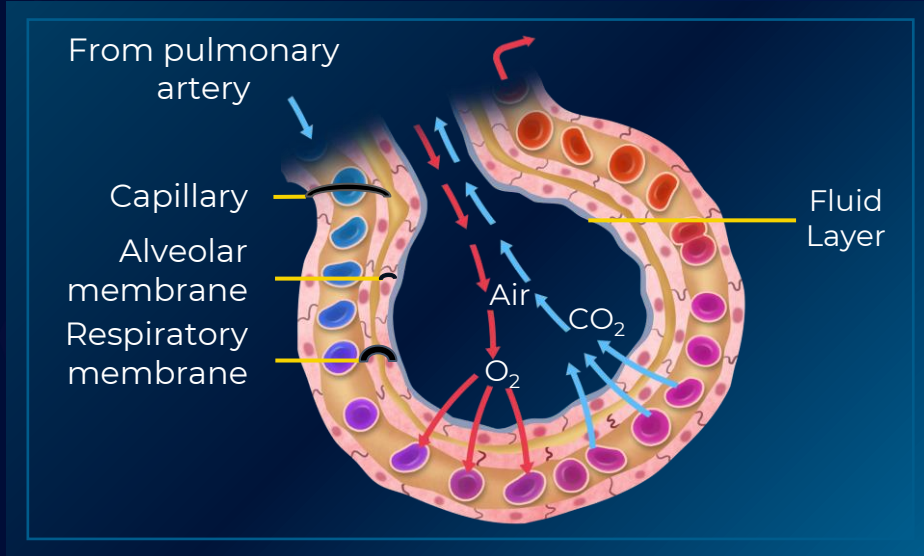
- **Alveoli** are the **primary sites** of exchange of gases.
- They are tiny air sacs located at the distal end of the bronchial tree.
- They are thin-walled, moist, and richly supplied with blood capillaries.
- The moistness helps in the **dissolution of the gases and facilitates easy exchange of the gases.**



Gases move across the alveolar membrane through **diffusion**.

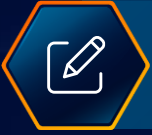


Alveoli



**Respiratory membrane
(Diffusion membrane)**

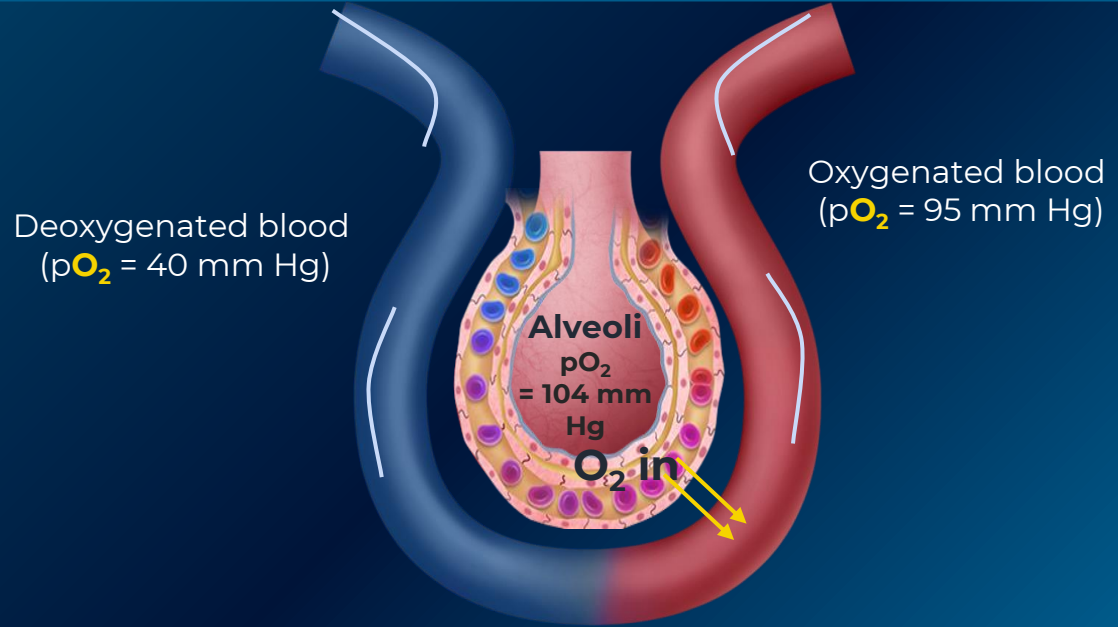
- The surface of the exchange of gases is known as **respiratory membrane** (diffusion membrane).
- The alveolar wall and the capillary wall, along with their basement membranes, form the respiratory membrane.
- The gases have to cross this membrane in order to enter into the bloodstream in the blood capillaries.



External Respiration

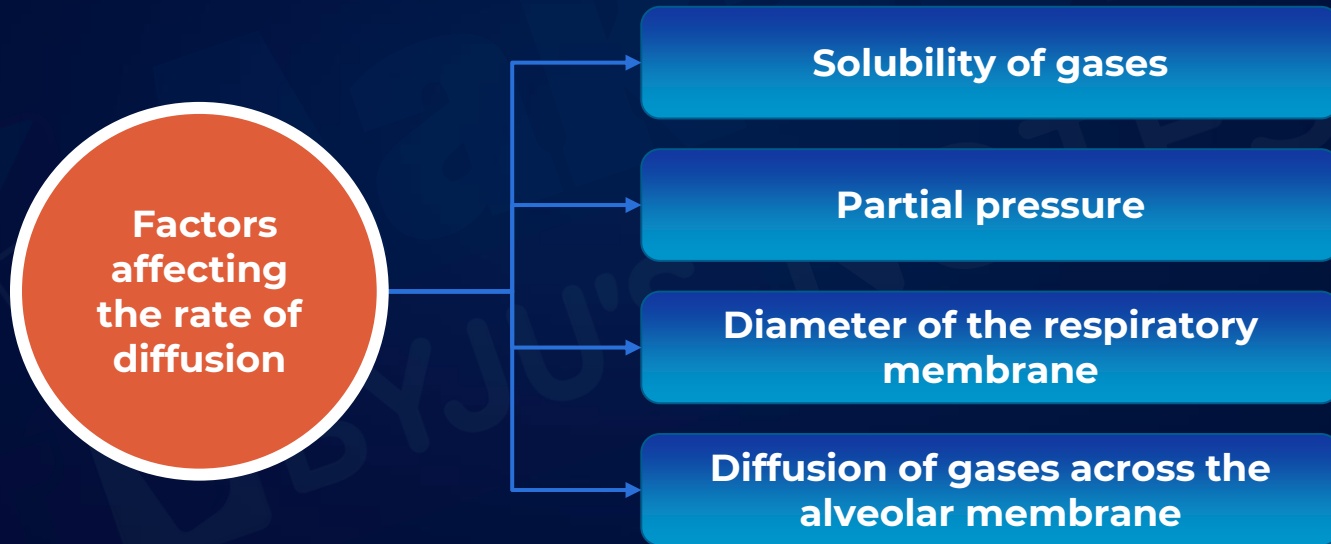


- **Exchange of air** that takes place between the **blood capillaries and alveoli**.
- Diffusion of **O₂** occurs from **alveoli to the blood** due to **partial pressure difference**.





Factors Affecting the Rate of Diffusion





Factors Affecting the Rate of Diffusion

Solubility of gases

- A gas having a high solubility diffuses at a faster rate than a gas having a lower solubility.
- The solubility of CO_2 is 20–25 times higher than that of O_2 .

Partial pressure

- Partial pressure is the pressure contributed by an individual gas in a mixture of gases if it occupies the same volume on its own.
- $p\text{O}_2$ - partial pressure of oxygen
- $p\text{CO}_2$ - partial pressure of carbon dioxide
- A gas always moves from a region of **high partial pressure to a region of lower partial pressure**.



Factors Affecting the Rate of Diffusion

Diameter of the respiratory membrane

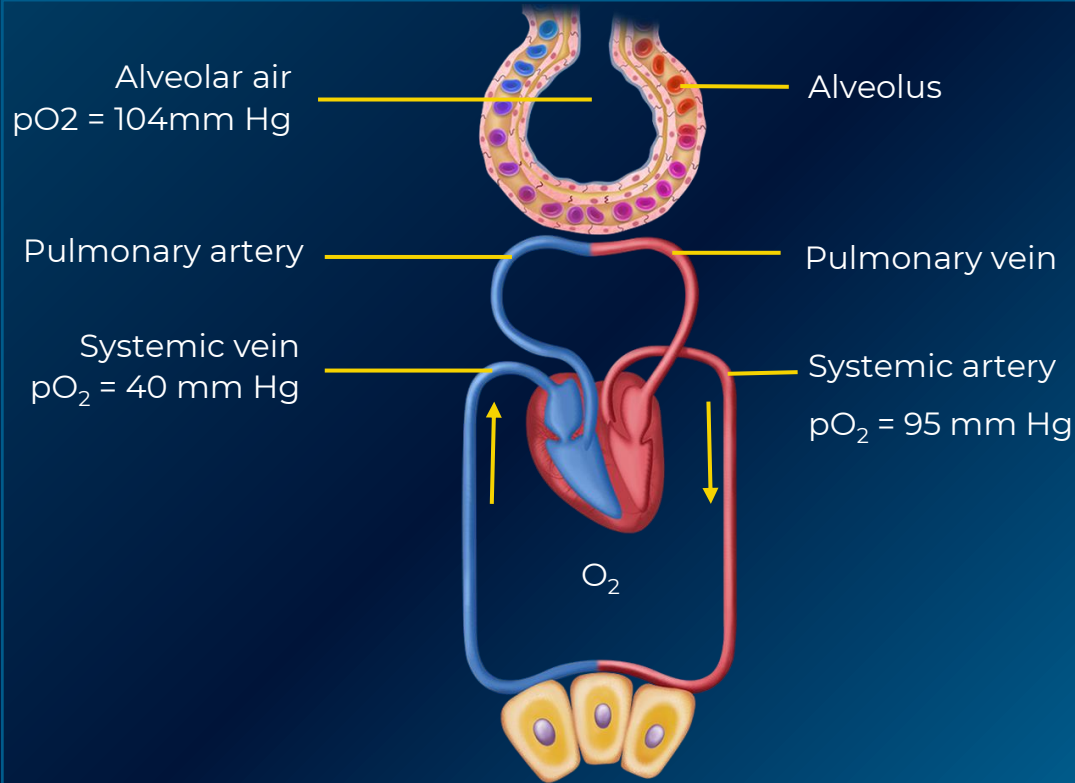
- The **thinner the membrane** involved in diffusion, the **faster is the diffusion** of gases.
- The total thickness of the respiratory membrane is less than a millimetre.

Diffusion of gases across the alveolar membrane

- The **pO₂ is higher in the alveoli than the deoxygenated blood.**
- **So, there is diffusion of O₂ from alveoli to the blood.**
- **This turns the deoxygenated blood to oxygenated blood.**
- **The blood that has higher concentration of oxygen is known as oxygenated blood.**
- The **capillaries bring the deoxygenated blood to lungs**, which has low oxygen concentration.
- Due to this low concentration of oxygen, the partial pressure of oxygen within the capillaries will also be low.



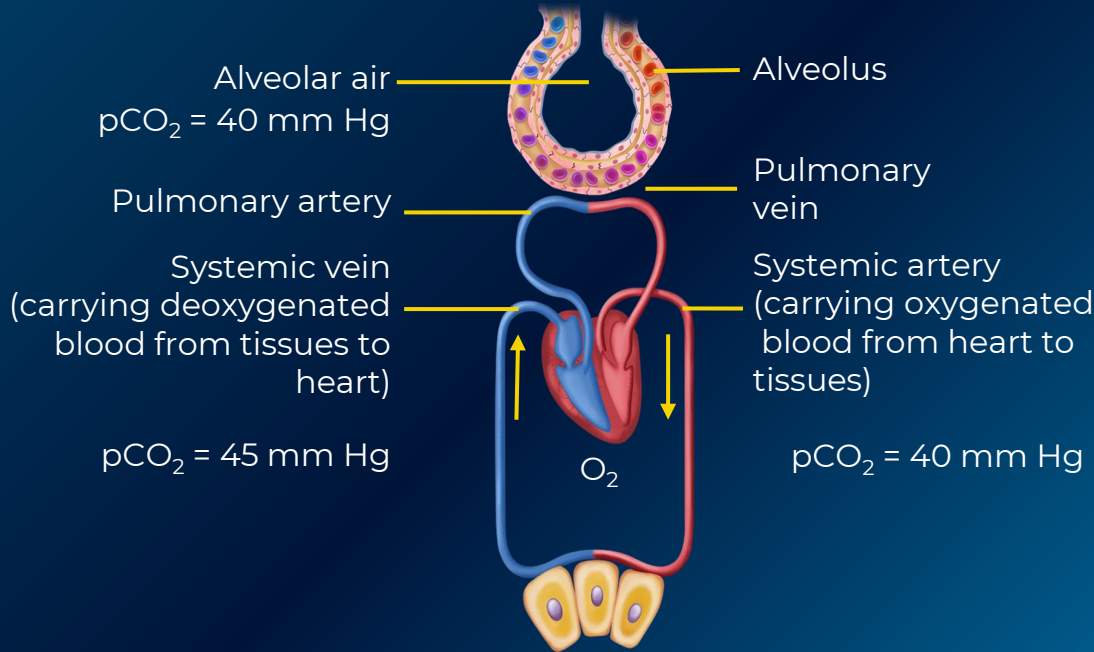
Internal Respiration



- **Exchange of gases occurs** between the **blood and the tissues**.
- The pO_2 of **oxygenated blood is 95 mm Hg** same as what it was when it left the lungs.
- Now the pO_2 of the tissues is much lower at **40 mmHg**. So, the **oxygen diffuses from the blood to the tissues**.
- The O_2 is consumed and CO_2 is released out from the tissues.
- The pCO_2 is higher in the tissues compared to the oxygenated blood so, the CO_2 moves from tissues to the blood.



Internal Respiration



- The addition of carbon dioxide along with the removal of oxygen makes the blood deoxygenated. So, the $p\text{CO}_2$ changes from 40 to 45 mm Hg in the blood.
- The carbon dioxide diffuses from the blood to the alveoli via external respiration.

- The $p\text{CO}_2$ of deoxygenated blood is 45 same as what it was when it left the tissues.



Transportation of Gases in Blood



Transport of gases

Oxygen

Oxyhaemoglobin

Dissolved form

Carbon dioxide

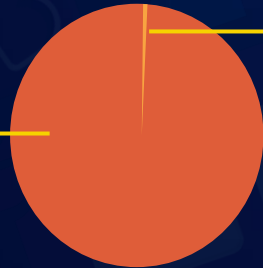
Carbaminohaemoglobin

Dissolved form

Bicarbonates

Dissolved form (3%)

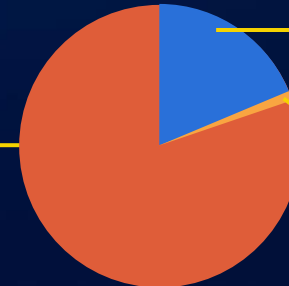
Haemoglobin (97%)



Carbamino haemoglobin (23%)

Bicarbonates (70%)

Dissolved form (7%)





Transport of Oxygen

Dissolved form

- Oxygen is **dissolved** in the blood **plasma**.
- **The blood plasma**, a component of blood, **can also dissolve oxygen in it**.
- **However, oxygen is not very soluble in blood, so only 3% of oxygen is transported in the dissolved form.**

Oxyhaemoglobin

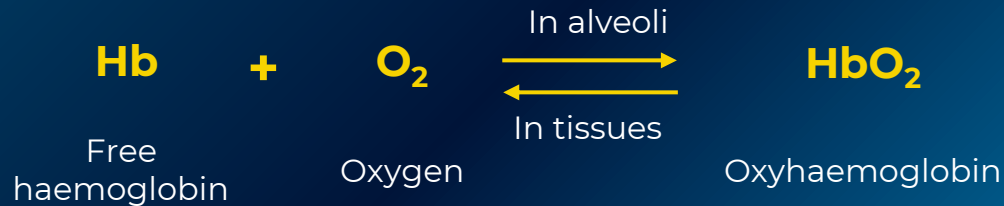
- Since the majority of oxygen cannot be transported in the dissolved form, our bodies have evolved another system to transport oxygen. i.e. as **oxyhaemoglobin**.
- The red blood cells have a respiratory pigment, that is, **haemoglobin**.
- Haemoglobin comprises globin and haem.
- Globin is the protein molecule and haem is the red pigment that gives blood its red colour.
- There are **four protein chains** and **four haems**.
- Each haem has an **iron atom at its centre**.



Transport of Oxygen

Oxyhaemoglobin

- **Haemoglobin** has an affinity for oxygen.
- It carries four molecules of oxygen.
- The **haem part** of haemoglobin **combines reversibly with oxygen** to form **oxyhaemoglobin**.
- Oxyhaemoglobin formation takes place in the alveoli.
- In tissues, this reverses and the oxyhaemoglobin releases oxygen.



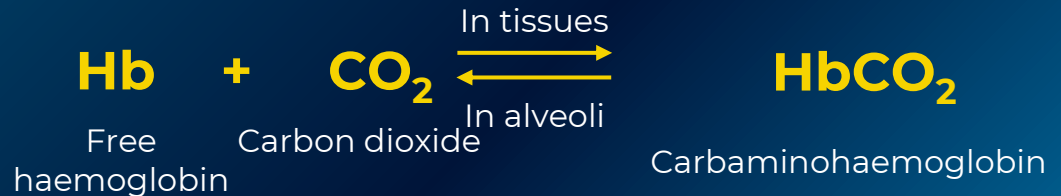
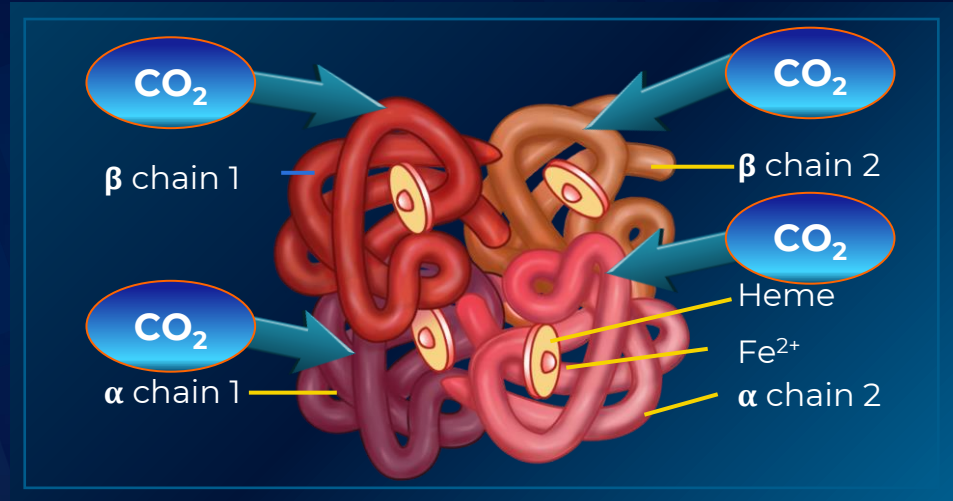


Transport of Carbon Dioxide



Carbaminohaemoglobin

- Just like oxygen, four CO_2 molecules can bind to the Hb molecule.
- However, they do not bind to the iron atom.
- Instead, they **bind to the amine groups** on the protein chains.
- The haemoglobin picks up CO_2 from the cells and transports it as carbaminohaemoglobin all the way from the tissues to the alveoli, which is an unstable molecule.
- CO_2 is dropped at the alveoli, and O_2 is picked up from the alveoli.





Transport of Carbon Dioxide



Dissolved form

- The solubility of CO_2 is **20–25 times higher** than that of O_2 .
- Therefore, **7%** of carbon dioxide **dissolves** in the blood plasma and is transported to the lungs.

Bicarbonates

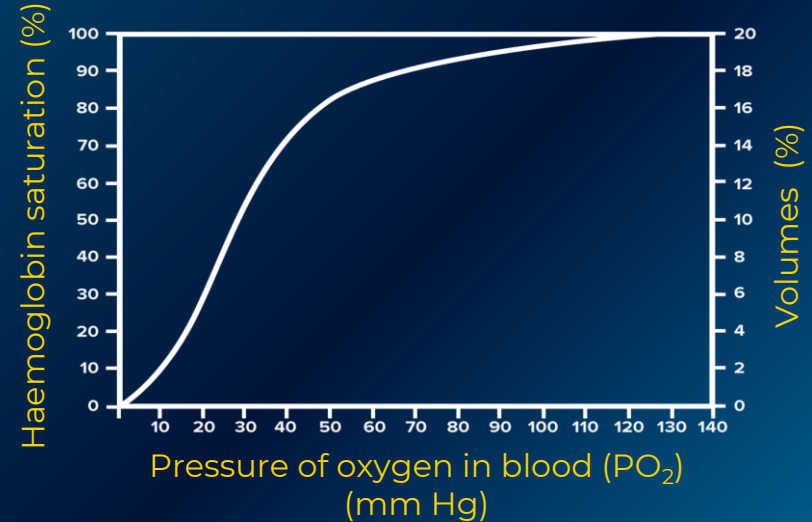
- The largest fraction of carbon dioxide is converted into **bicarbonate ions**.
- When carbon dioxide diffuses into RBCs at the tissues, it combines with water, forming carbonic acid.
- Since carbonic acid is unstable, it quickly dissociates into bicarbonate ions and hydrogen ions.
- Although, this reaction also occurs in plasma, it is a thousand times faster in RBCs because they contain the enzyme, **carbonic anhydrase**.
- This enzyme reversibly catalyses the conversion of carbon dioxide and water to carbonic acid.



Saturation of Haemoglobin



- The **ratio** of amount of **oxygen combined with haemoglobin** to the **amount of oxygen that haemoglobin is capable of carrying** gives the percentage saturation of haemoglobin.
- The saturation percentage and the partial pressure of oxygen are represented in the form of a curve known as the **oxygen-haemoglobin dissociation curve**.
- It is also known as the oxygen dissociation curve, and is **sigmoid** or **S-shaped**.



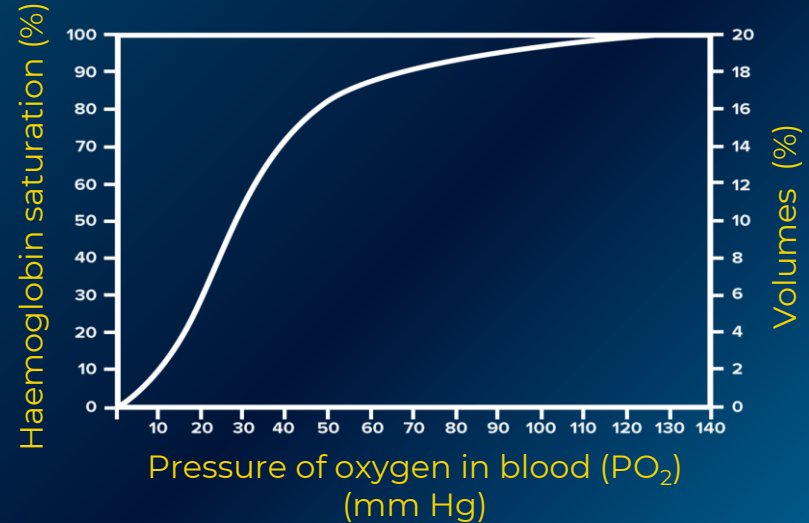


Factors Affecting Oxygen-Haemoglobin Dissociation Curve



pO_2 , pCO_2 , H^+ concentration and temperature

- In alveoli:
 - There is high pO_2 , low pCO_2 , less H^+ , and less temperature.
 - This favours oxyhaemoglobin association.
- In tissues:
 - There is low pO_2 , high pCO_2 , high H^+ , and high temperature which favours the dissociation of O_2 from oxyhaemoglobin.
 - As the partial pressure of oxygen increases, the affinity of Hb for O_2 also increases.





Factors Affecting Oxygen-Haemoglobin Dissociation Curve



CO₂ concentration

When there is increase in CO₂ concentration **in blood**



Increased carbon dioxide in blood reacts with water to form carbonic acid, giving more hydrogen and bicarbonate ions.

Higher H⁺ lowers the blood pH



High **H⁺** ions lower the blood pH and induces oxyhaemoglobin to give up more oxygen to the cells easily.

O₂ - Hb dissociation curve shifts right

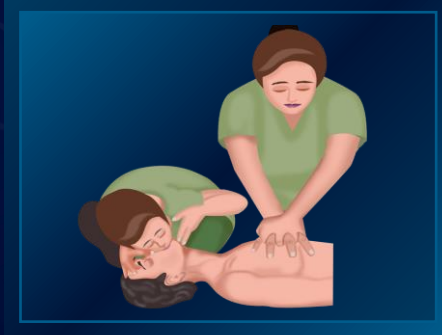


Artificial Respiration

It is a technique of **artificially stimulating the natural functioning of the respiratory system** when a person stops breathing because of drowning, electric shocks, accident, gas poisoning, anaesthesia etc.

Artificial respiration

Manual method



Clearing the airways via mouth to mouth and compression

CPR - Cardiopulmonary resuscitation

Mechanical method



Use of instruments to help breathe like **tracheostomy tube, iron lung, ventilator**



Mechanical Method



Mechanical method can be defined as the technique through which **breathing and respiration is performed with the help of an external device** connected directly to the patient.

Ventilator

- It is the **most common** method.
- Various machines are used to help the patient breathe.
- Patients breathing through a ventilator are said to be on **life support**.

Iron lung

- It is an enclosure used to **change the pressure in the space to make the person breathe**.

Tracheostomy tube

- Involves insertion of a special tube by making a cut in the neck to **facilitate the entry of air into the lungs**.



Regulation of Breathing



Regulation of breathing

Neural regulation

There are two sites of neural regulation.

Respiratory centres

Medullary
respiratory centres

Pons
respiratory
centres

Chemical regulation

There are two areas of chemical regulation.

Areas

Chemosensitive
area adjacent to
rhythm center

Carotid
bodies and
aortic bodies

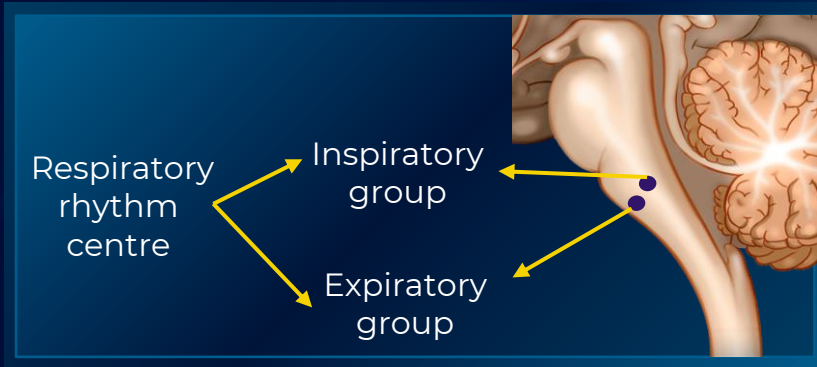


Respiratory Centres for Neural Regulation



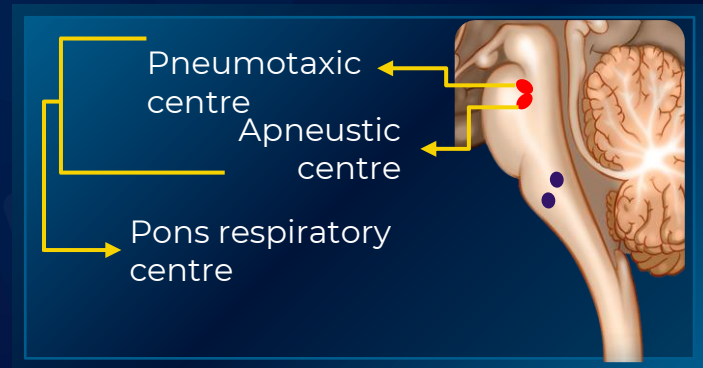
Respiratory centres

Medullary respiratory centres



- **Inspiratory group** - Stimulates the respiratory muscles to contract during inspiration
- **Expiratory groups** - Stimulates muscles for expiration

Pons respiratory centres



- The **pneumotaxic center**, located in the upper pons, sends signals to stop inspiration by inhibiting the **apneustic center**.
- It limits tidal volume.
- The apneustic and pneumotaxic center work against each other together to **control the respiratory rate**.



Respiratory Centres for Chemical Regulation



Rhythm centres

Normal concentration
of CO_2 and H^+ ions

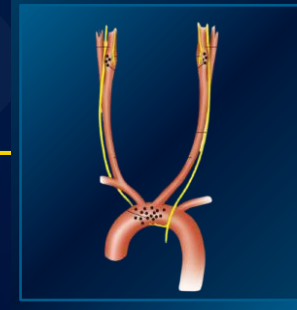
Concentration of CO_2
and H^+ ions alters



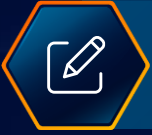
Rhythm centre
sends necessary
signals to alter
respiratory rate

Medulla senses pH
changes

Activates
rhythm centre



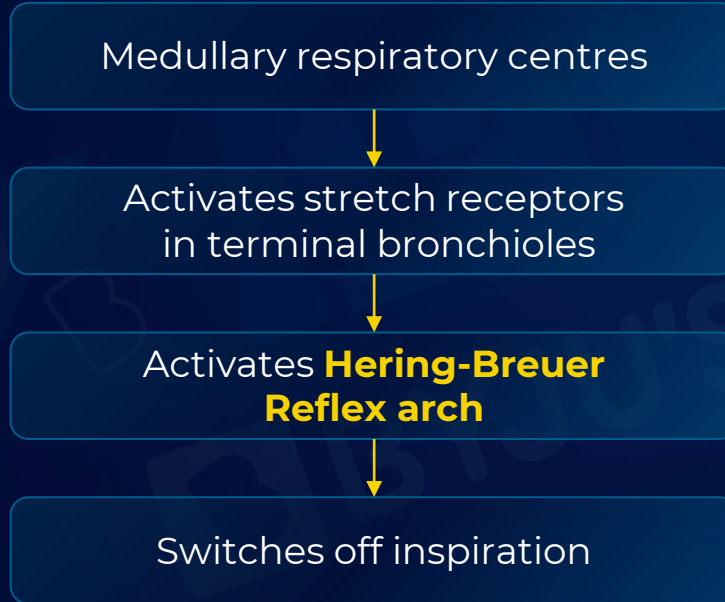
**Carotid body and
aortic body** sense
changes



Hering-Breuer Reflex Arch



- This reflex prevents the alveoli from bursting.



- This prevents alveoli from overstretching or bursting.
- Hence, this is called a **protective reflex**.

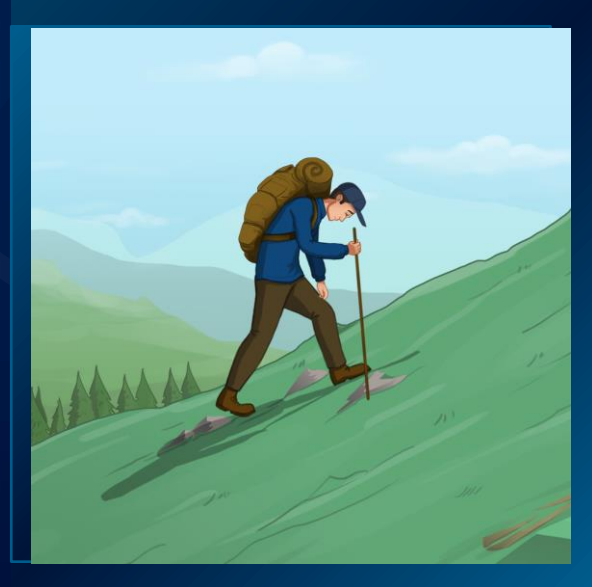


Respiratory Disorders



Mountain sickness

- Occurs due to **hypoxia** at high altitudes
 - Hypoxia = **Shortage of oxygen**
 - Occurs due to the presence of thin air at high altitudes
- **Symptoms:**
 - Vomiting
 - Breathlessness
 - Headache
 - Disorientation
 - Fatigue
 - Irritability



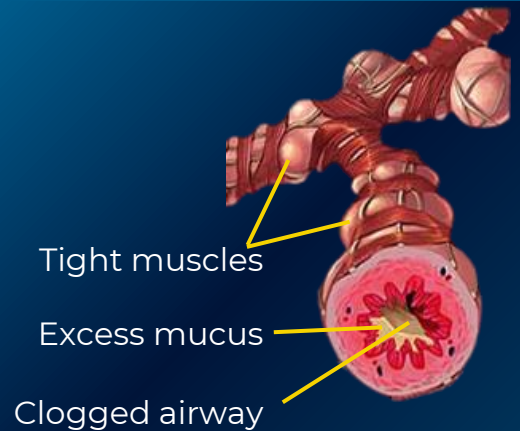


Respiratory Disorders



Bronchial asthma

- It is a chronic medical condition which results in the **swelling of the airway path of the lungs** which, as a result, **becomes narrow**.
- Due to this swelling, the air path produces excess mucus making it hard to breathe.
- It is caused by mould, dust mites, fragrance, cigarette smoke, cleaning chemicals, pets etc.
- **Symptoms:**
 - Coughing
 - Wheezing
 - Difficulty in breathing



Asthmatic bronchiole



Respiratory Disorders



Pulmonary Tuberculosis

- It is caused by ***Mycobacterium tuberculosis***.
- It is an airborne disease and spreads by inhalation.
- It results in destruction of lung tissue which then gets replaced by fibrous connective tissue.
- **Symptoms:**
 - Coughing and chest pain
 - Loss of appetite
 - Chills and fever
 - Night sweats
 - Fatigue

Emphysema

- Emphysema means shortness of breath.
- It is caused by smoking and inhalation of toxic gases and smoke.
- This condition results in
 - **Loss of elasticity in lungs** as elastic tissue is replaced by connective tissue.
 - Alveoli becoming weak and their walls break down.
 - As a result, lungs remain inflated, and **expiration becomes difficult**.
- **Symptoms:**
 - Inflammation of bronchioles and alveoli
 - Expiration becomes difficult
- **Preventive measures:**
 - No smoking
 - Use pollution masks



Respiratory Disorders



Occupational respiratory disorders

- It is any lung condition that arises due to the role of the person at the workplace.
- It occurs because of repeated exposure to certain toxins over a period of time such as **gas fumes, dust, silica and asbestos**.
- Often seen in individuals working in **mining, stone grinding and stone breaking industries**.
- It results in
 - **Fibrosis of upper lung and inflammation** due to the damage to lung tissue. The lung tissue becomes scarred, thickened and stiff, making it difficult for the lungs to work properly.
- **Symptoms:**
 - Difficulty in breathing
- **Protection masks** can help in keeping the workers safe.

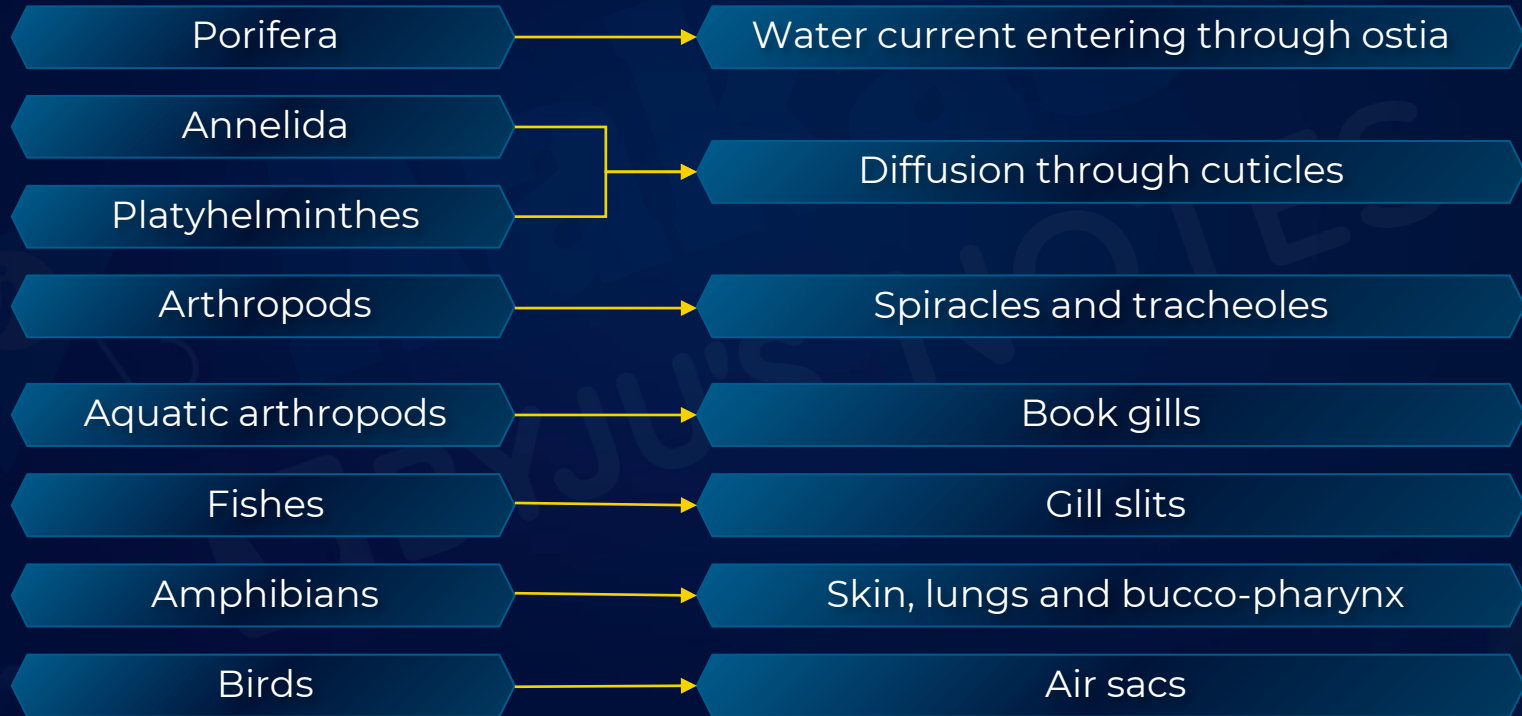




Summary



Mechanism of gaseous exchange In invertebrates

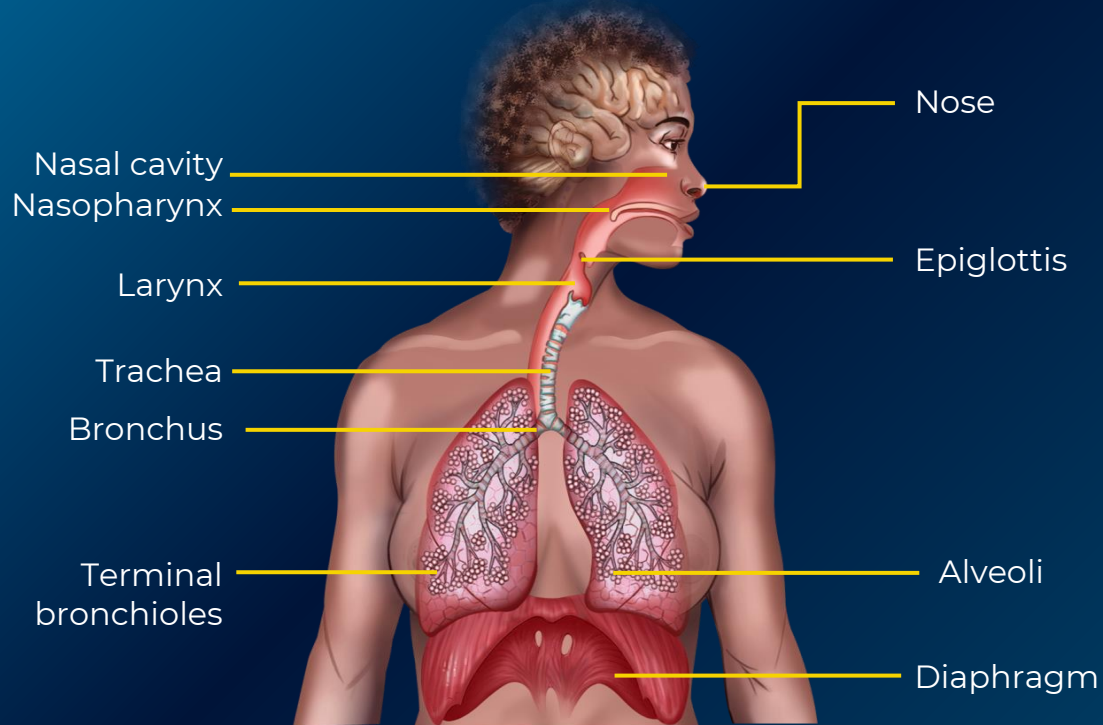




Summary



Human respiratory system

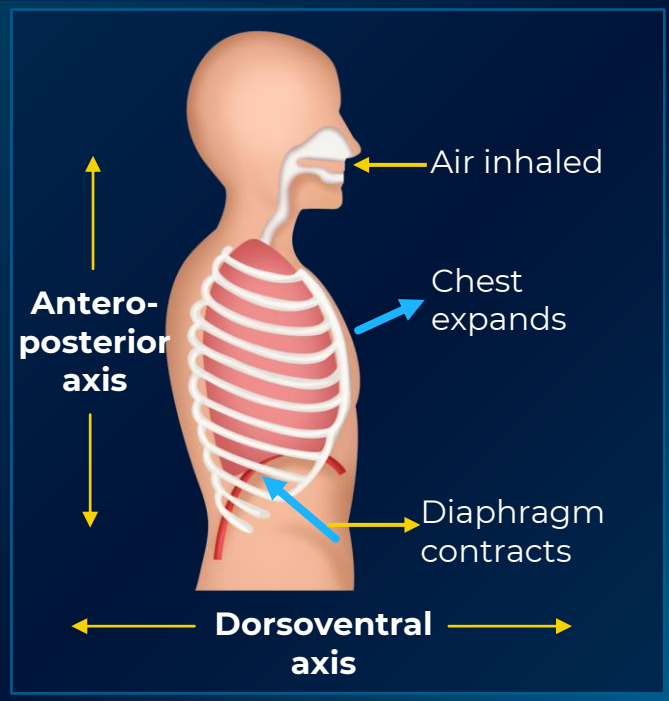




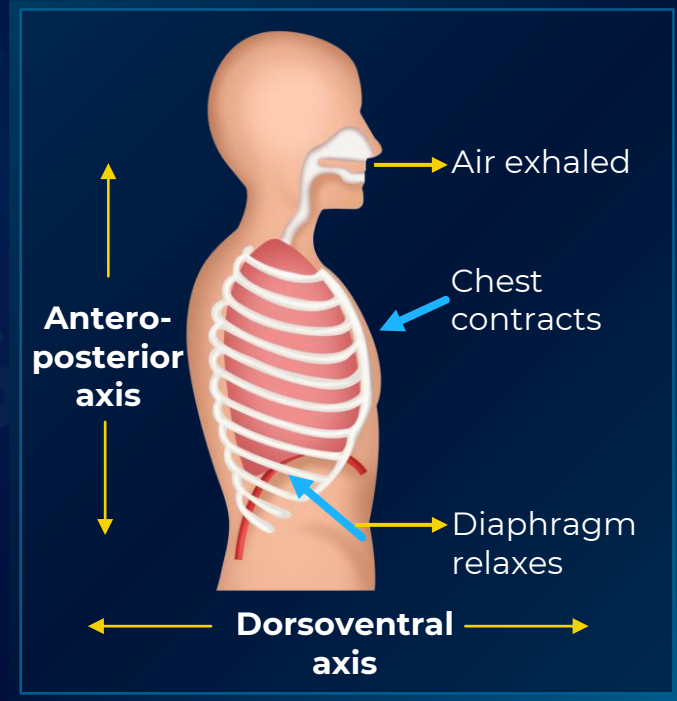
Summary



Inspiration



Expiration

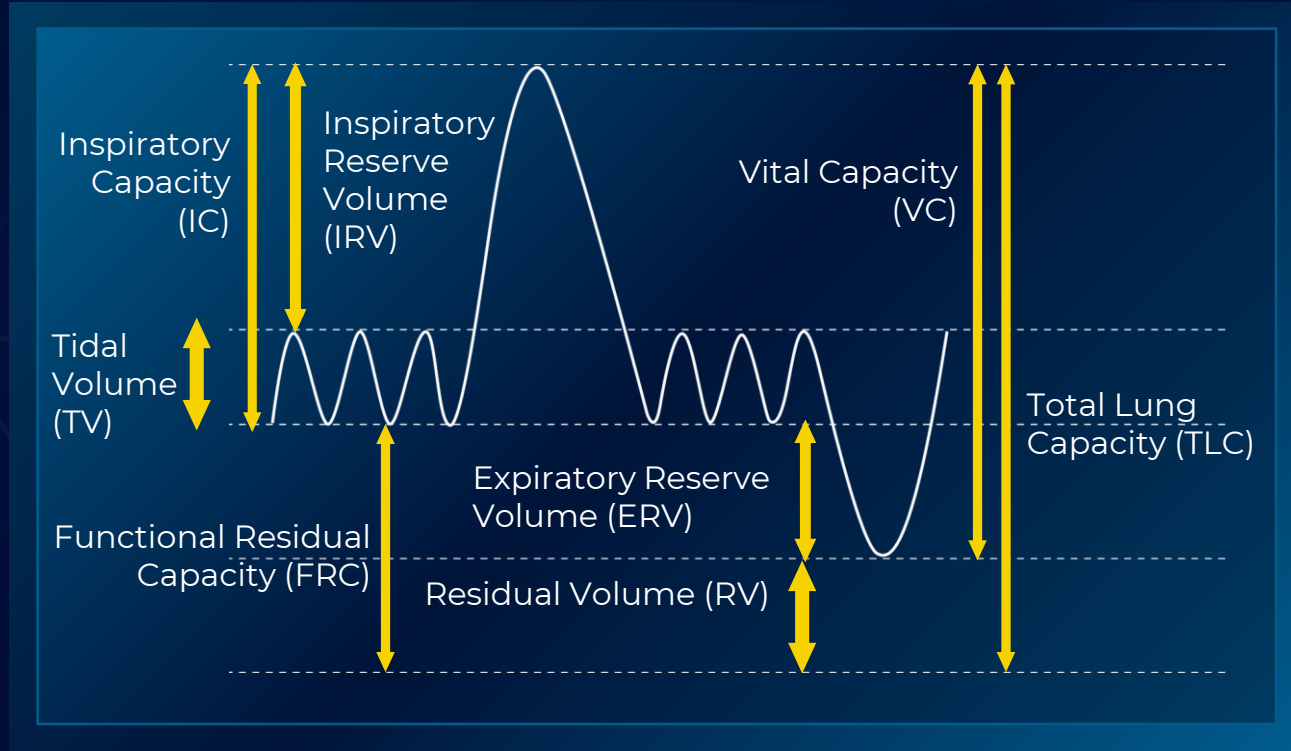




Summary



Graphical representations of lung capacities

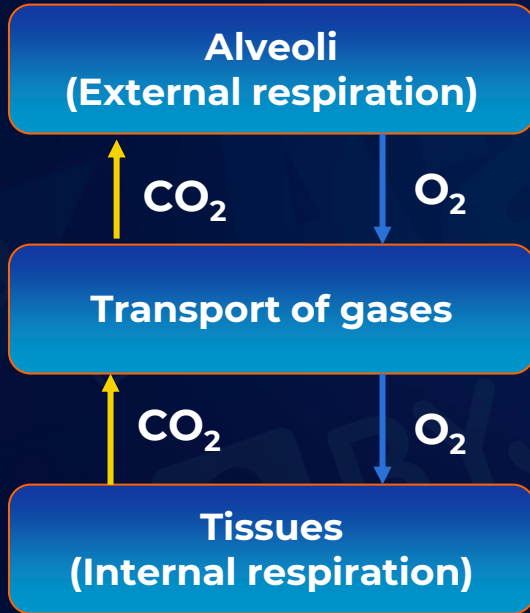




Summary



Exchange of gases



External respiration: It is the exchange of air that takes place between the blood capillaries and the alveoli.

Internal respiration: It is the exchange of air that takes place between the blood and the tissues.



Summary



Artificial respiration

Artificial respiration involves induction of breathing by some manipulative technique when natural respiration has ceased or is faltering.

Manual method

The manual methods include clearing the airways via mouth to mouth and CPR.

Mechanical method

Mechanical method can be defined as the technique through which breathing, and respiration are performed with the help of an external device connected directly to the patient.

Ventilator

Iron lung

Tracheostomy tube



Summary

