

Chapter 20.1

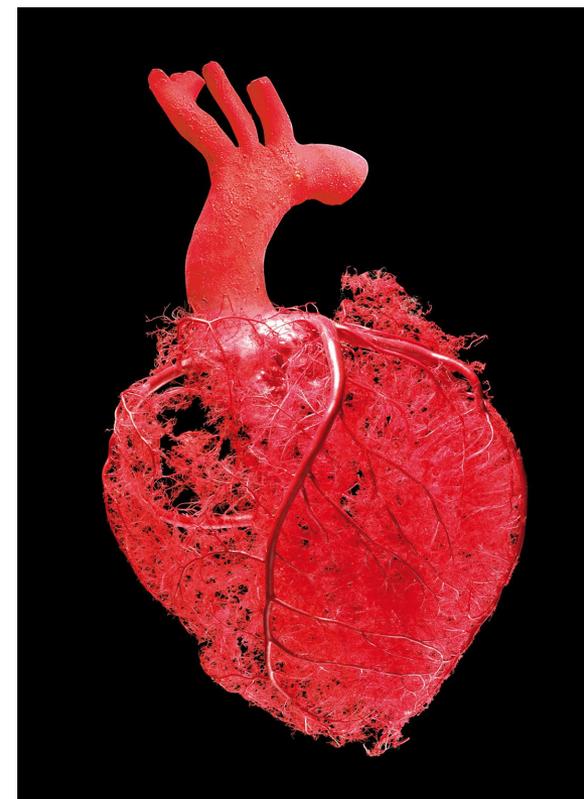
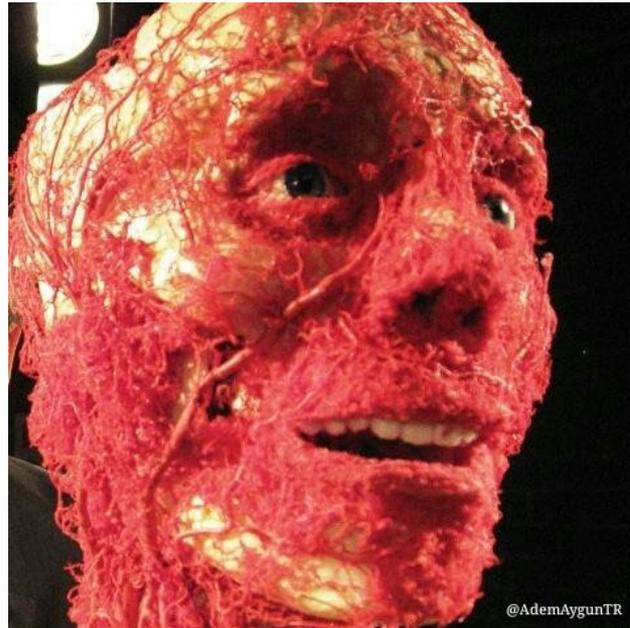
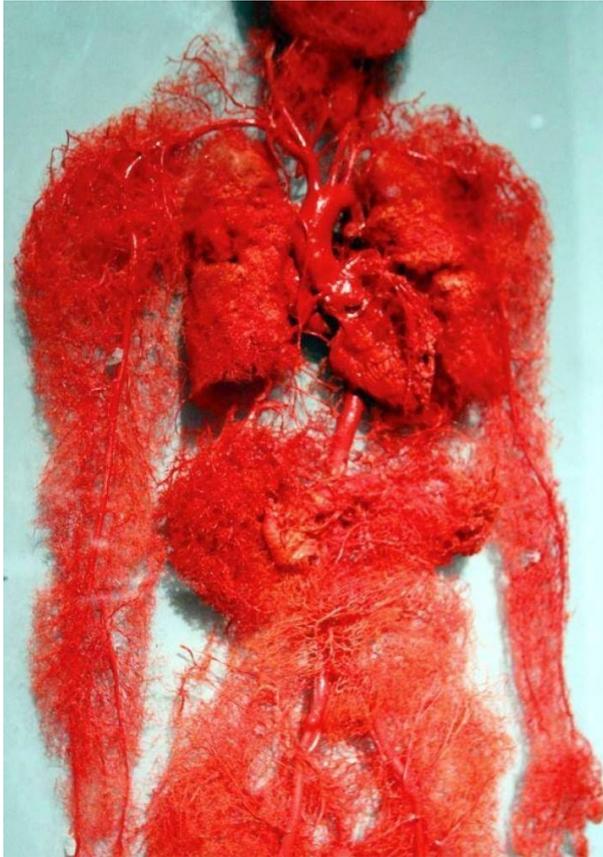
Blood Vessels and Blood Circulation



The human body has 60,000 miles of blood vessels.

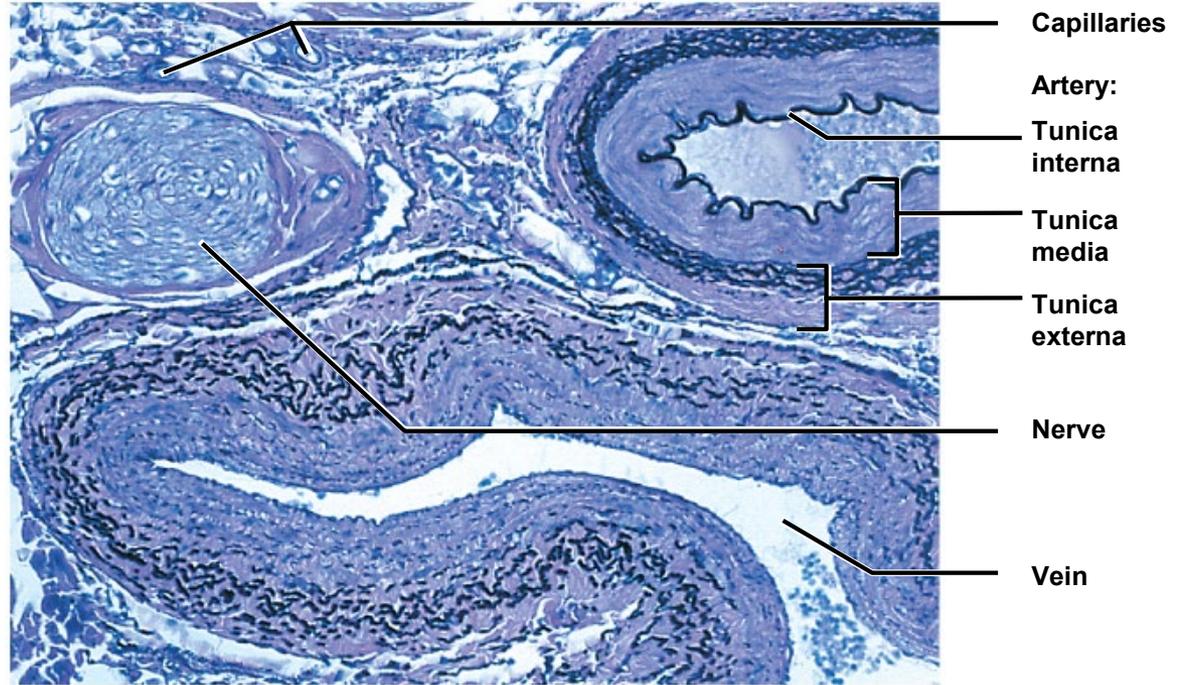
This is nearly enough blood vessels to circle the earth 2 ½ times.

When you gain one pound of fat, you add another mile of blood vessels.



Blood Vessels

1 mm



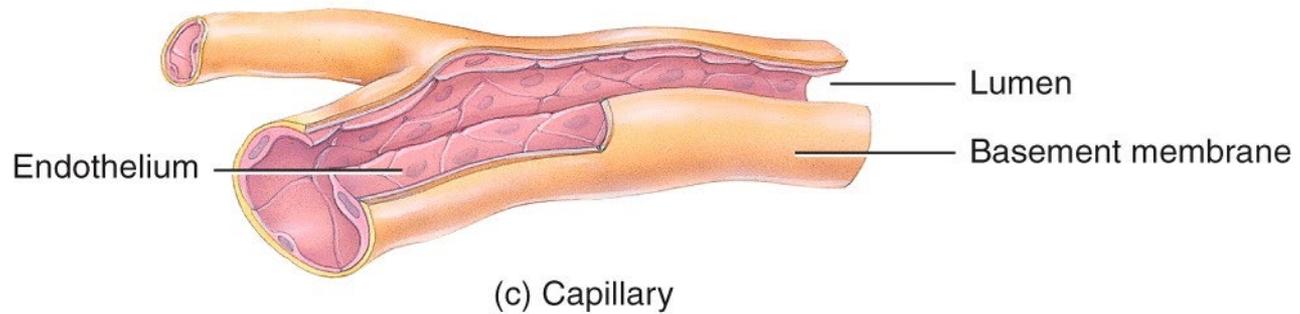
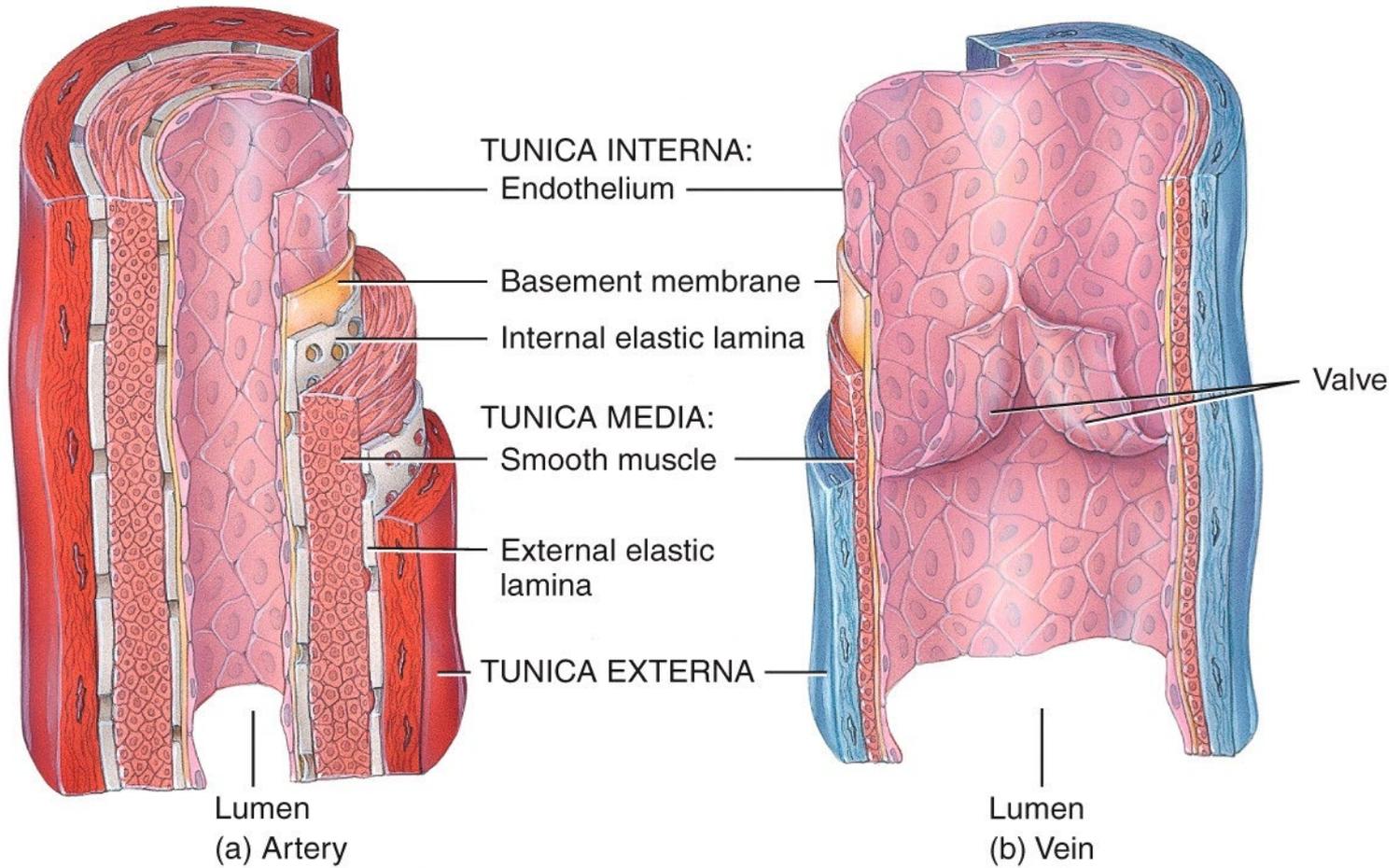
Arteries - carry blood away from heart

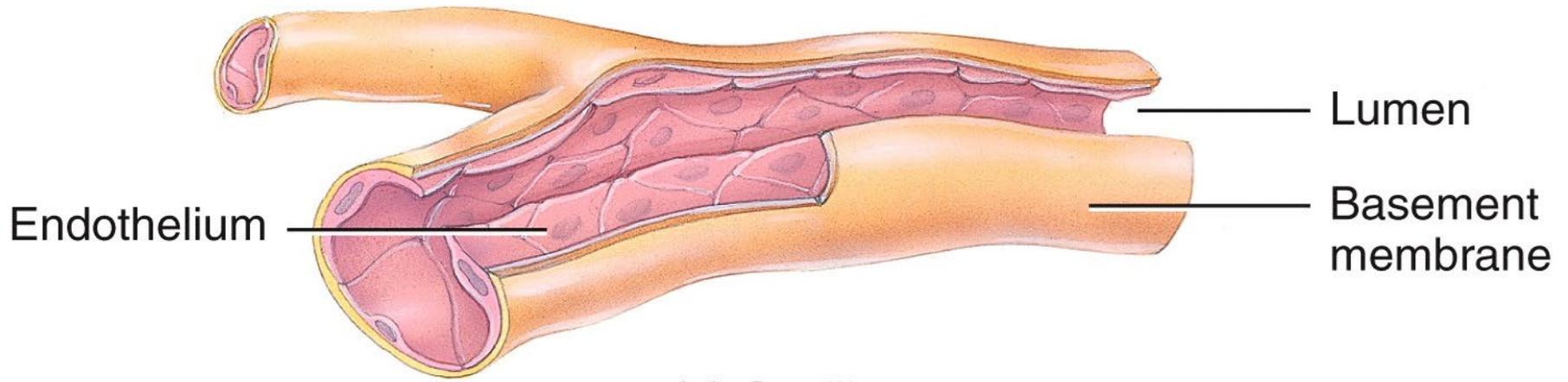
Veins - carry blood back to heart

Capillaries - connect smallest arteries to smallest veins

Capillaries are “semi-permeable membranes” to allow for the exchange of fluid, ions, & small molecules between the blood and the interstitial space

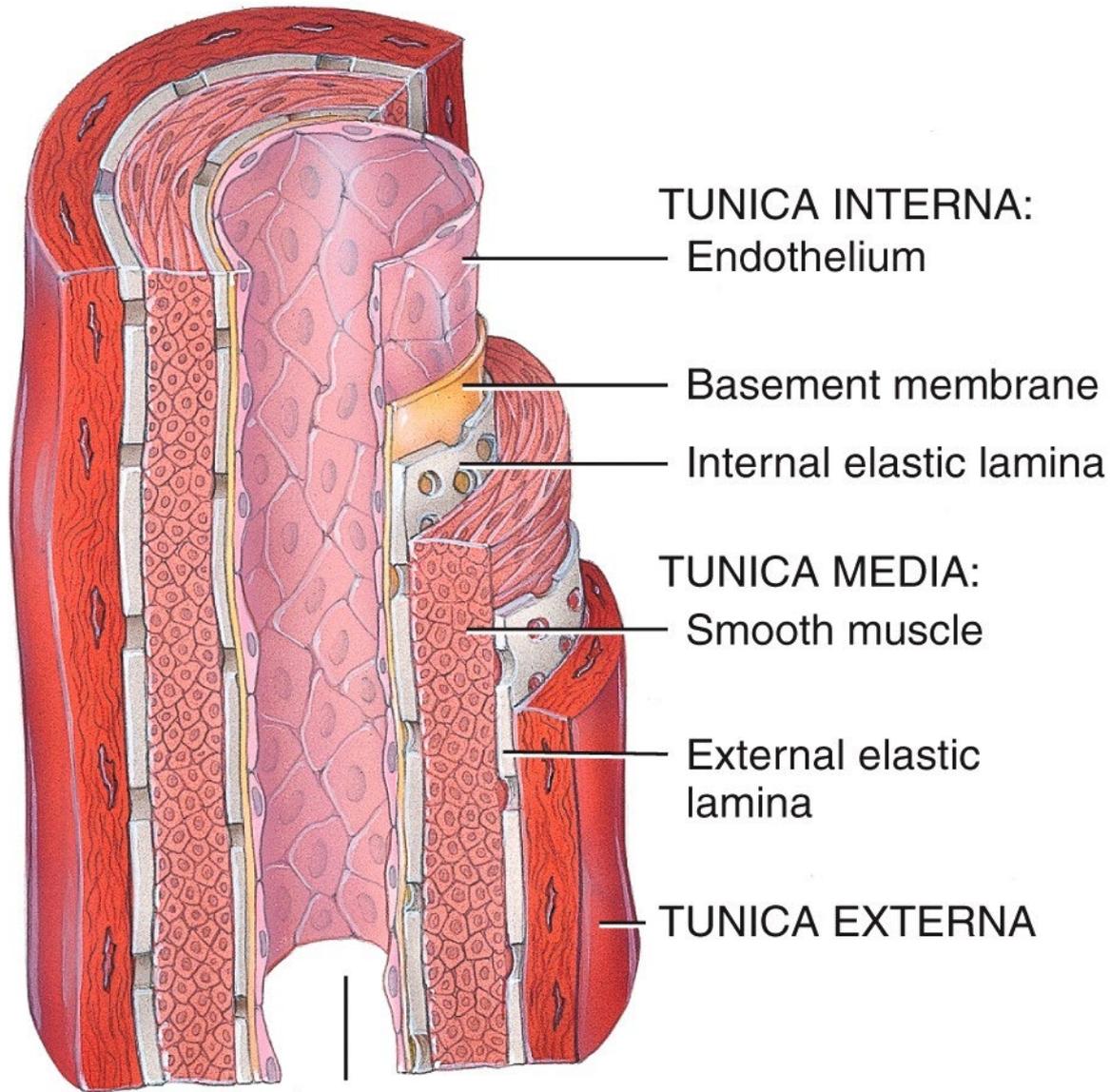
Arteries and veins have **three tunics** (layers)



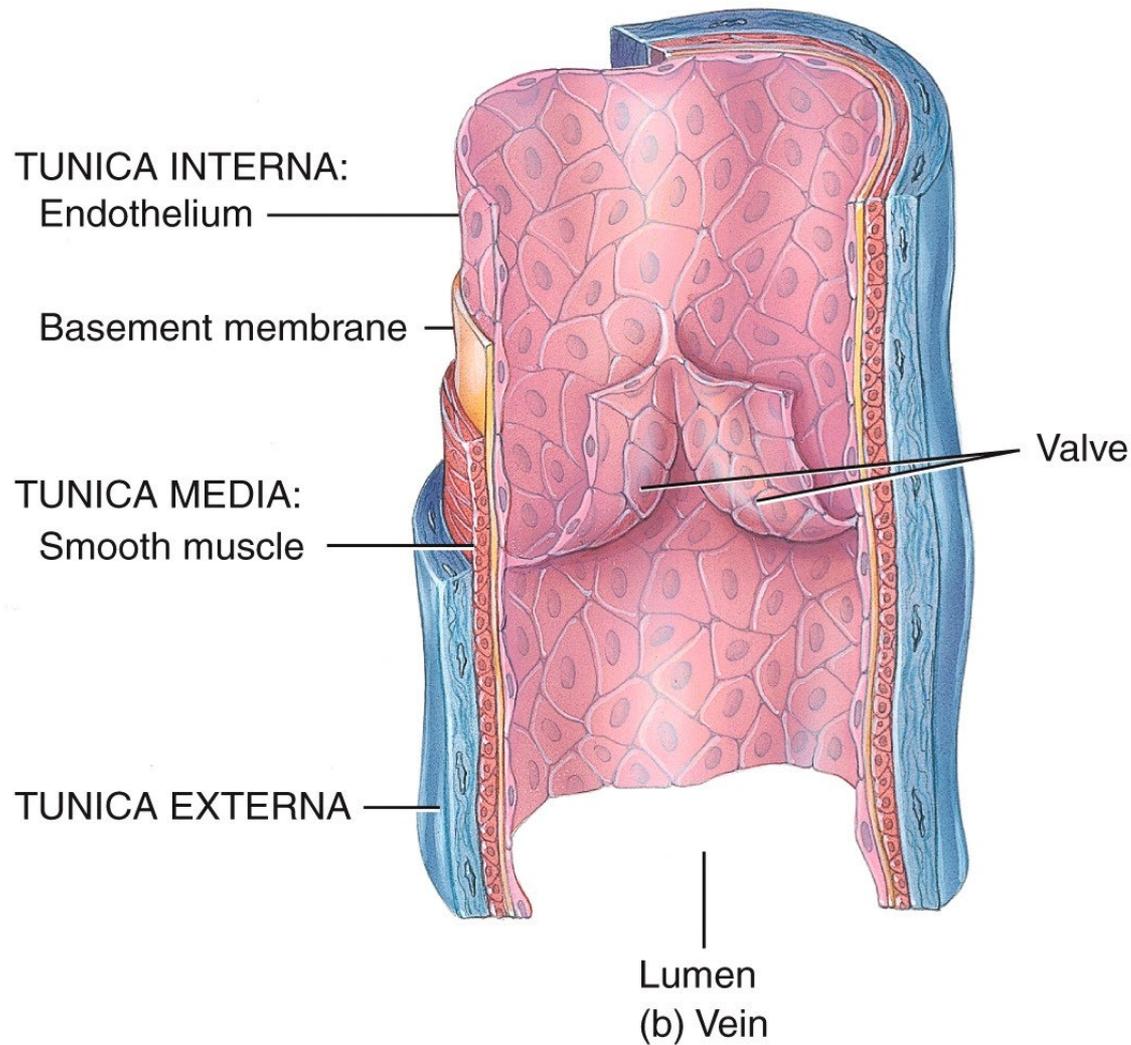


(c) Capillary

The endothelium are epithelial cell which are always attached to a basement membrane and have an apical and basal side.



Lumen
(a) Artery



Veins have some elasticity, but they are significantly less elastic and more compliant (stretchable) than arteries. Veins have thinner walls with less elastic and smooth muscle tissue, which allows them to hold a large volume of blood at low pressure, unlike arteries, which are built to withstand high pressure and recoil.

Tunica Interna (tunica intima)

Endothelium are cells that lines the inside of blood vessel

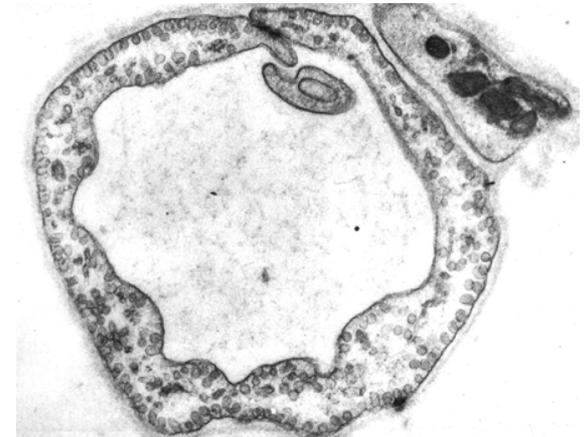
Simple squamous epithelium with basal surface attached to a basement membrane

It is a selectively permeable barrier (semi-permeable membrane)

Normally **repels blood cells and platelets** ///
endothelium secrete **prostacyclin – make surface**
“slippery” so platelets don’t stick to the endothelium

When tissue around vessel is inflamed, the endothelial cells **produce cell-adhesion molecules** that induce leukocytes to adhere to the surface

Allows leukocytes to congregate in tissues where their defensive actions are needed



Tunica Media

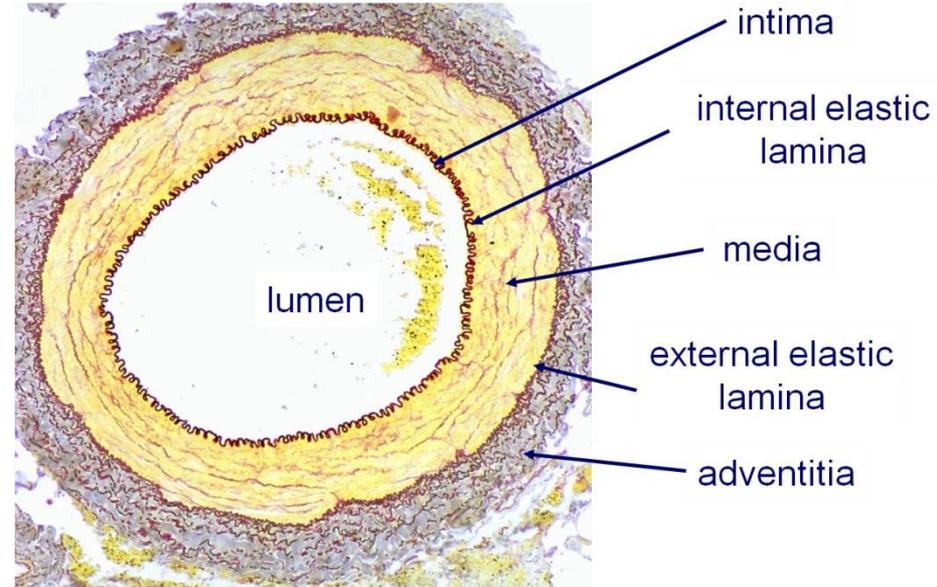
The middle layer

Consists of smooth muscle and connective tissue with collagen and elastic fibers

Strengthens vessel and prevents blood pressure from rupturing vessels

Arteries have elastic tissue on both sides of the tunica media and veins do not have any elastic tissue.

Vasomotion – changes in diameter of the blood vessel brought about by smooth muscle action /// regulated by vasomotion center in medula oblongata



*Note: at end of arterial system are small diameter vessels called **arterioles** // the **vasomotor center** can control blood pressure by regulating smooth muscle contraction --- this is known as **peripheral resistance**.*

The volume of blood on the arterial side also contributes to the blood pressure.

Tunica Externa

Outermost layer

Consists of loose connective tissue

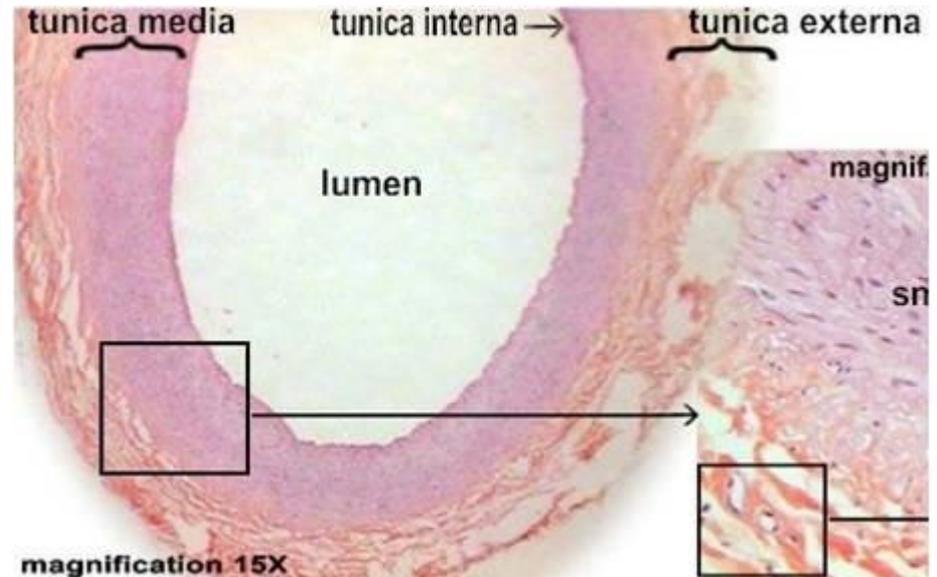
Merges with that of neighboring blood vessels, nerves, or other organs

Anchors the vessel to surrounding tissues

Provides passage for small nerves, lymphatic vessels

Vasa vasorum – small vessels that supply blood to the outer half of the blood vessel's wall

Blood from the lumen is thought to nourish the inner half of the blood vessel's wall by diffusion



Arteries

Carry blood away from the heart

Maybe classified by their function

Elastic arteries (largest – garden hose size /// also function as a pressure reservoirs – e.g. aorta)

Distributing arteries (also called conduction arteries) // medium size sometimes referred to as muscular / pencil to string size / e.g. renal artery

Resistance arterioles (small arteries – able to regulate blood flow into capillary beds and change blood pressure / regulated by vaso motor center)

Distributing Arteries

Distributing arteries are also called conducting arteries

- **These are “named arteries”**
- Arteries distal to pulmonary trunk and aorta // e.g. renal, common carotid, subclavian, and common iliac arteries
- Have a layer of elastic tissue, **internal elastic lamina**, at the border between intima and media
- **External elastic lamina** at the border between media and externa
- Expand during systole, recoil during diastole – helps to maintain downstream pressure // this lessens fluctuations in blood pressure

Elastic Arteries

Walls stretched as blood received by pulmonary trunk and aorta

Stretching vessel walls “stores energy” because of elastic component of the vessel wall

Elastic recoil in **pulmonary trunk and aorta** keep blood flowing while ventricles are in diastole

Resistance Arteries

Why are arteries called resistance vessels?

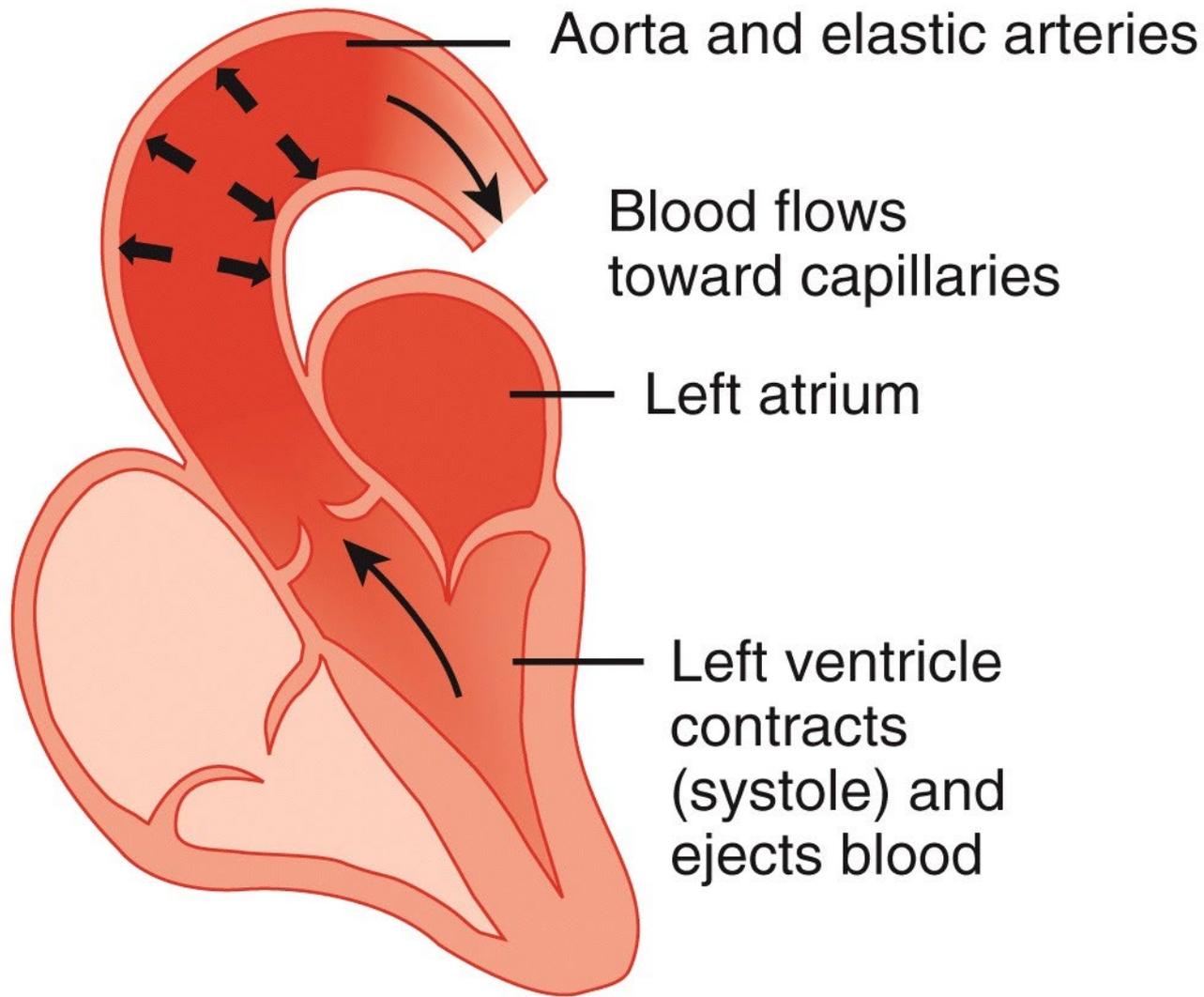
Because they have thick smooth muscle walls

Resilient wall structure that can resist dilation due to high blood pressure

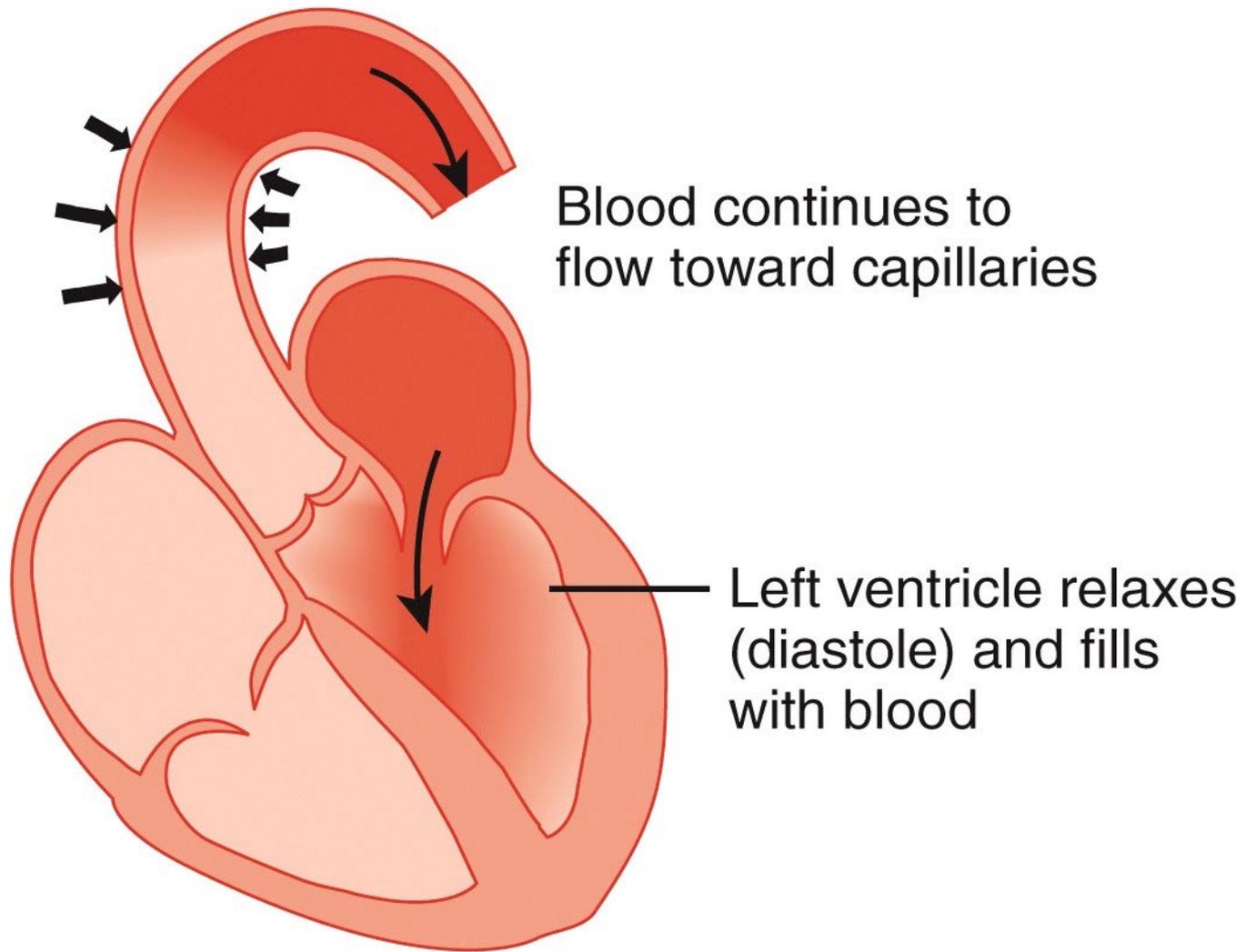
Arterioles (smallest of the arteries) just before capillaries are “regulated” by the vasomotor center

Two functions of the vasomotor center (located in medulla oblongata)

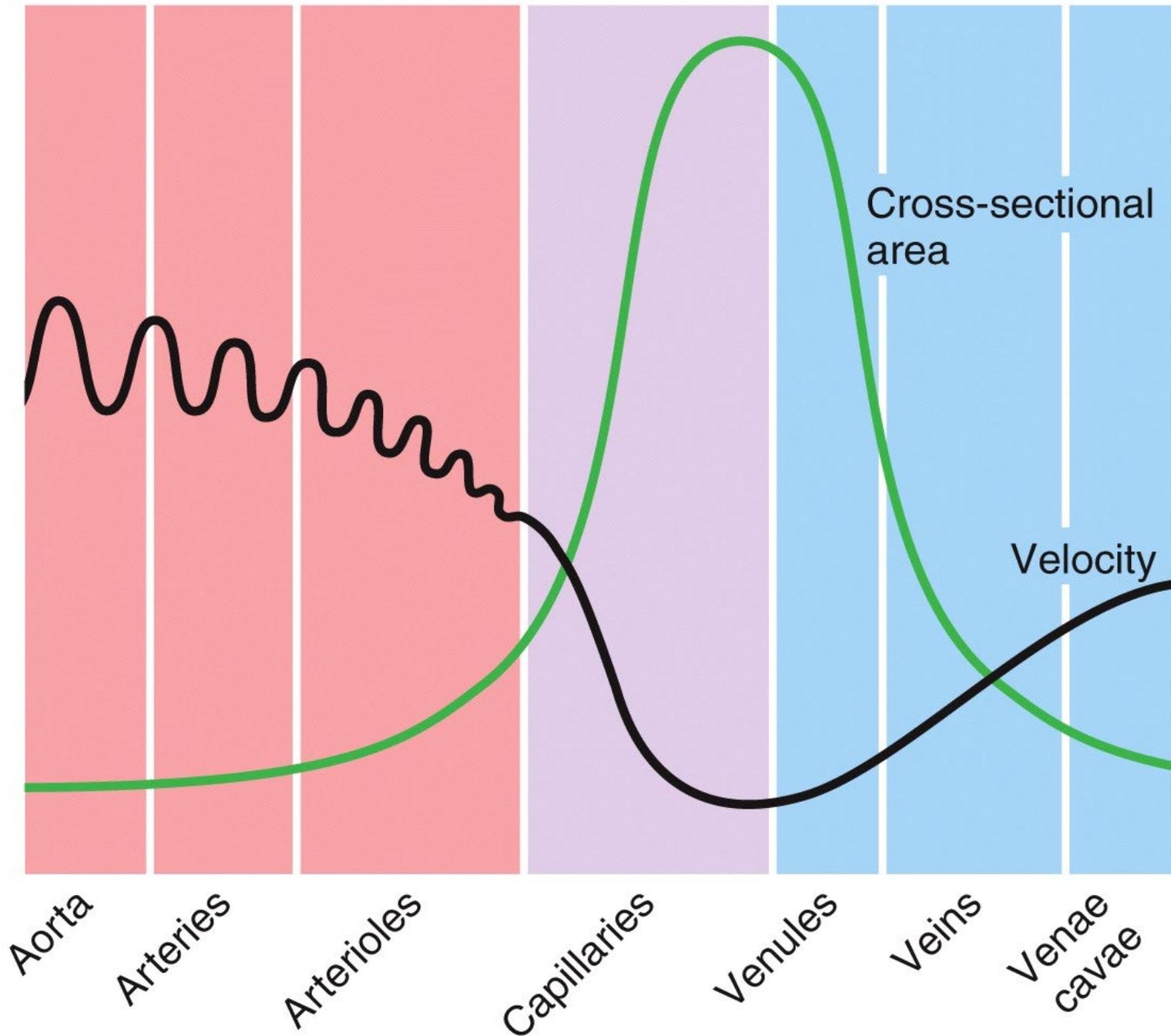
- Regulate blood pressure
- Regulate blood distribution



(a) Elastic aorta and arteries stretch during ventricular contraction



(b) Elastic aorta and arteries recoil during ventricular relaxation



Arterial Sense Organs

Sensory structures in the walls of the **aorta and carotid arteries** monitor blood pressure and blood chemistry

Transmit information to brain stem to regulate

- 1) heart rate **
- 2) vasomotion (vasomotor center) **
- 3) respiration*

Location of sense organs

- carotid baroreceptor (also called carotid sinus)*
- aortic baroreceptor (also called aortic sinus)*
- carotid chemoreceptor*
- aortic chemoreceptor*

** Please Note: the chemoreceptors are more important in regulating respiration.*

Arterial Sense Organs

Aortic & carotid sinuses // baroreceptors (pressure sensors)

- **most important in regulation of heart**
- in walls of internal carotid artery & aortic arch
- monitors blood pressure – signaling brainstem
- decreased heart rate and vessels dilation in response to high blood pressure

Aortic & carotid bodies // chemoreceptors

- oval bodies near branch of common carotids
- monitor blood chemistry
- **mainly transmit signals to the brainstem respiratory centers**
- adjust respiratory rate to stabilize pH, CO₂, and O₂
- one to three in walls of aortic arch
- same function as carotid bodies

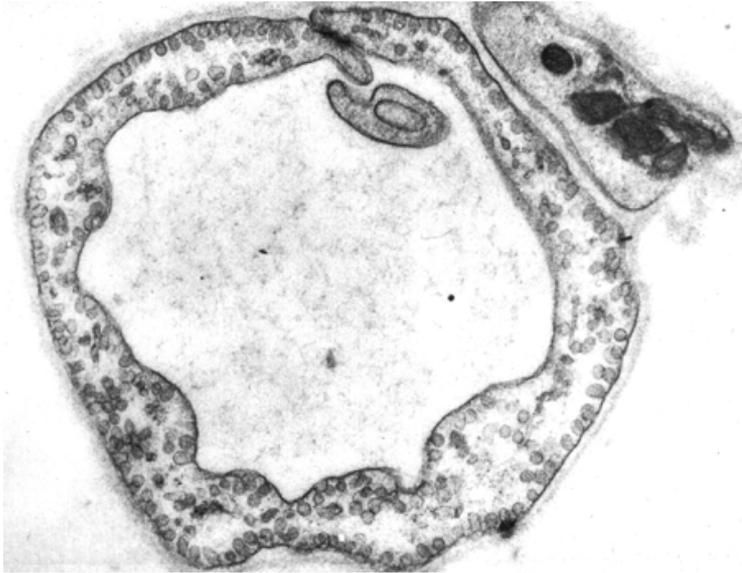
Capillaries

Site where nutrients, wastes, and hormones pass between the blood and tissue fluid through the walls of the vessels (exchange vessels)

The 'business end' of the cardiovascular system

Composed of **endothelium and basal lamina**

Capillaries are absent or scarce in tendons, ligaments, epithelia, cornea and lens of the eye



Three Types of Capillaries

- Continuous Capillaries
- Fenestrated Capillaries
- Sinusoid Capillaries

Distinguished by ease with which substances pass through their walls

Structural differences that account for their greater or lesser permeability

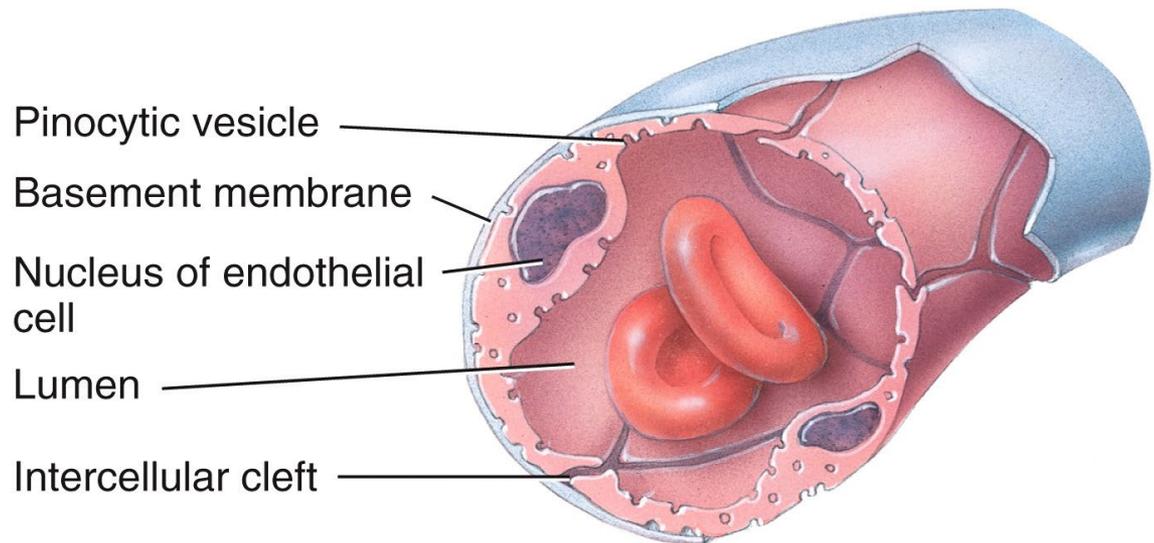
Continuous Capillaries

Most common, occur in most tissues

Endothelial cells have **tight junctions** forming a continuous tube with **intercellular clefts**

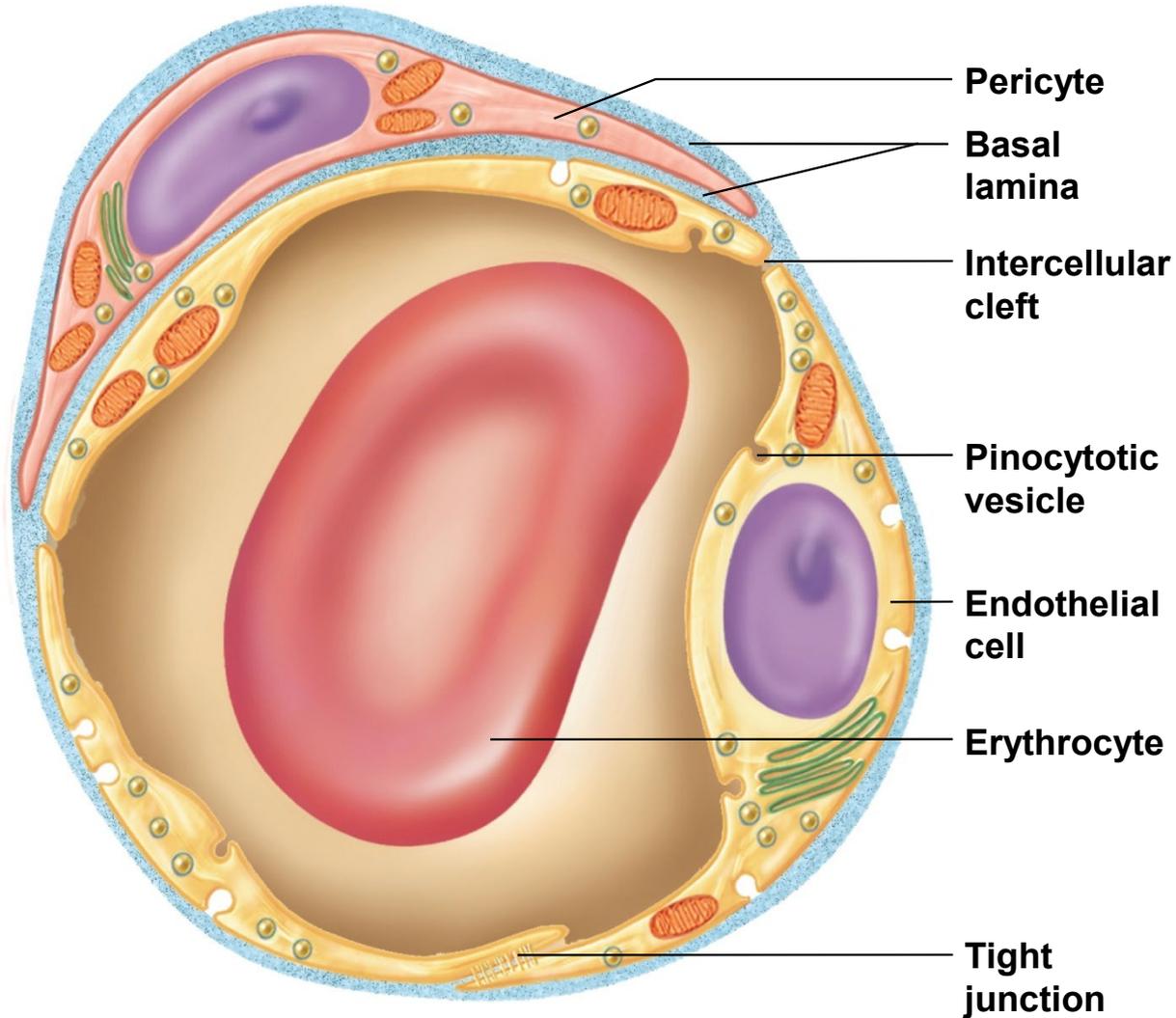
- Allow passage of solutes such as glucose

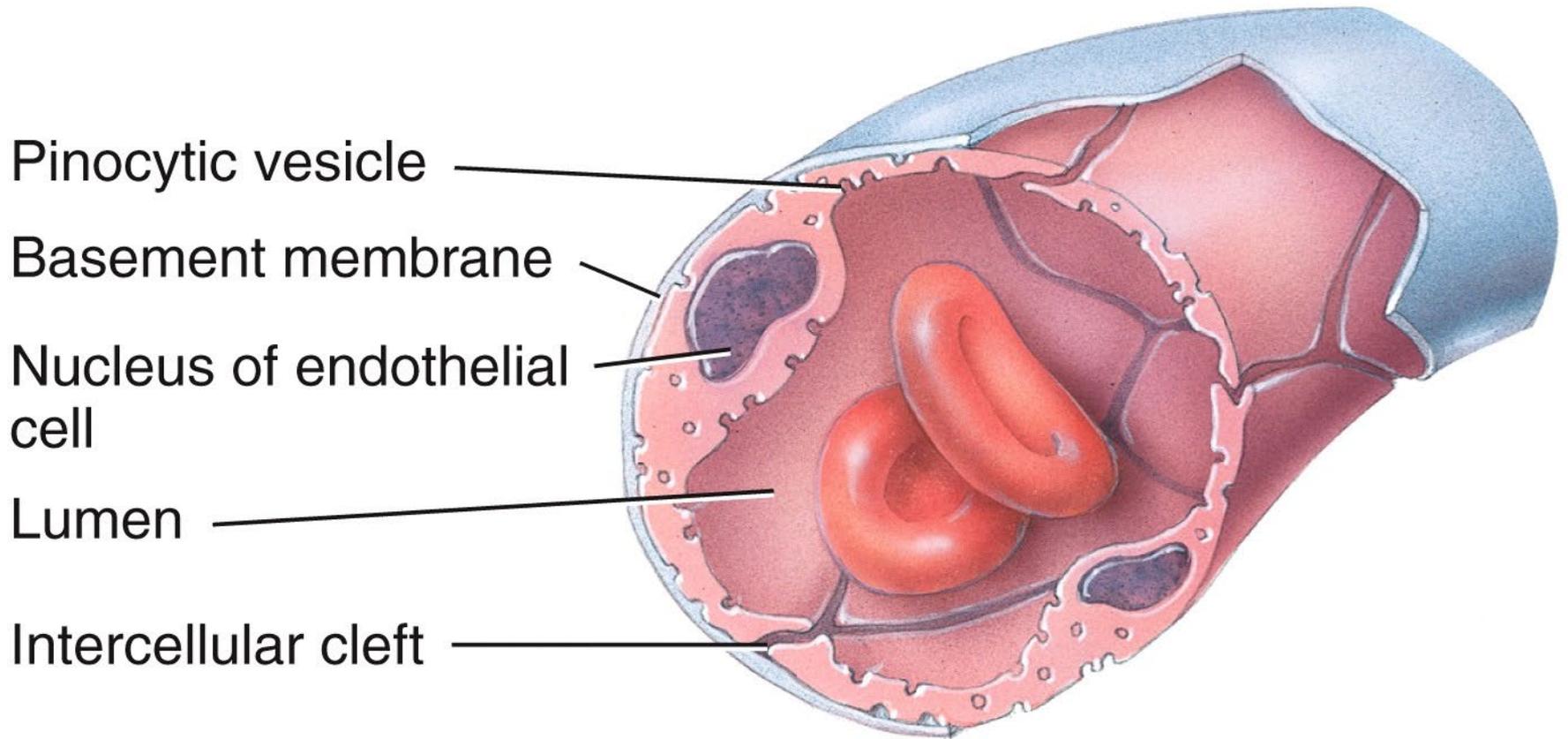
Pericytes wrap around the capillaries and contain the same contractile protein as muscle // contract but minimum ability to regulate blood flow



(a) Continuous capillary formed by endothelial cells

Continuous Capillary





(a) Continuous capillary formed by endothelial cells

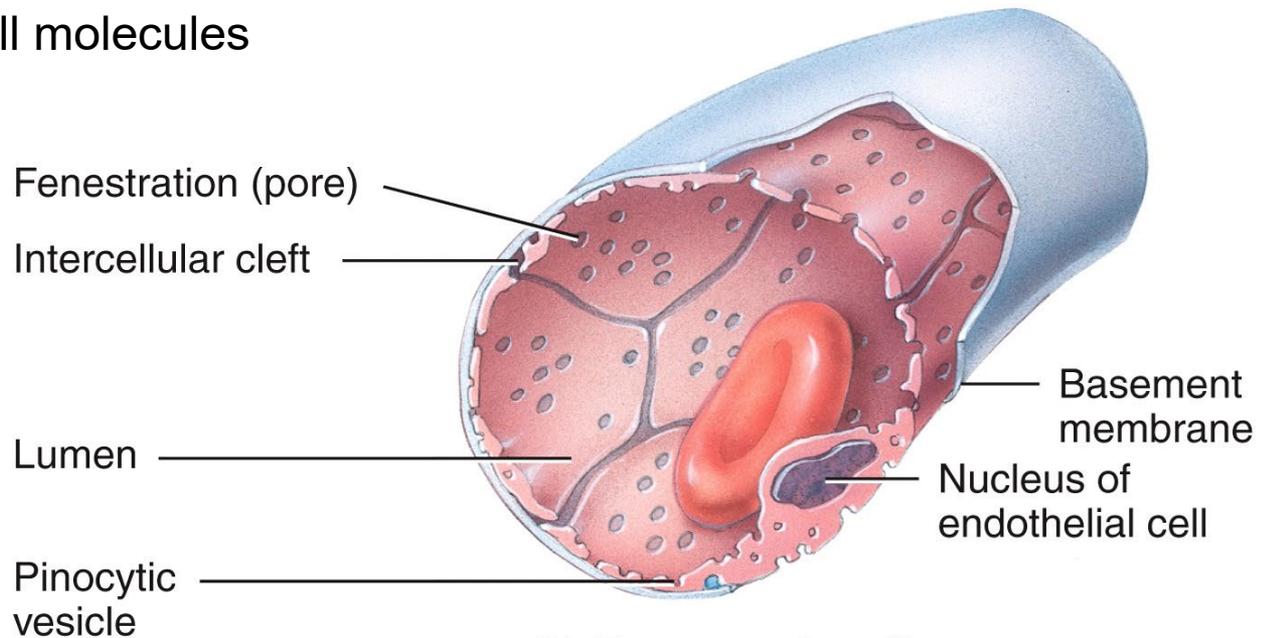
Fenestrated Capillaries

Common in kidneys and small intestine // organs that require rapid absorption or filtration

Endothelial cells riddled with holes called **filtration pores (fenestrations)**

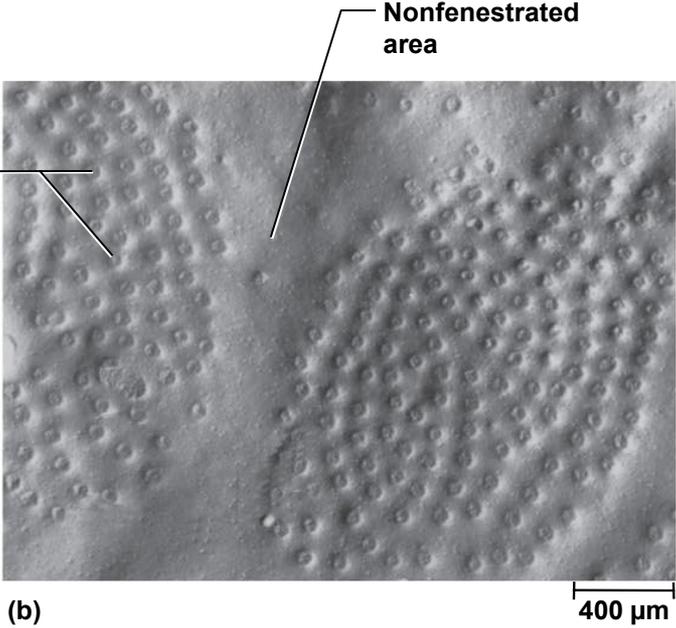
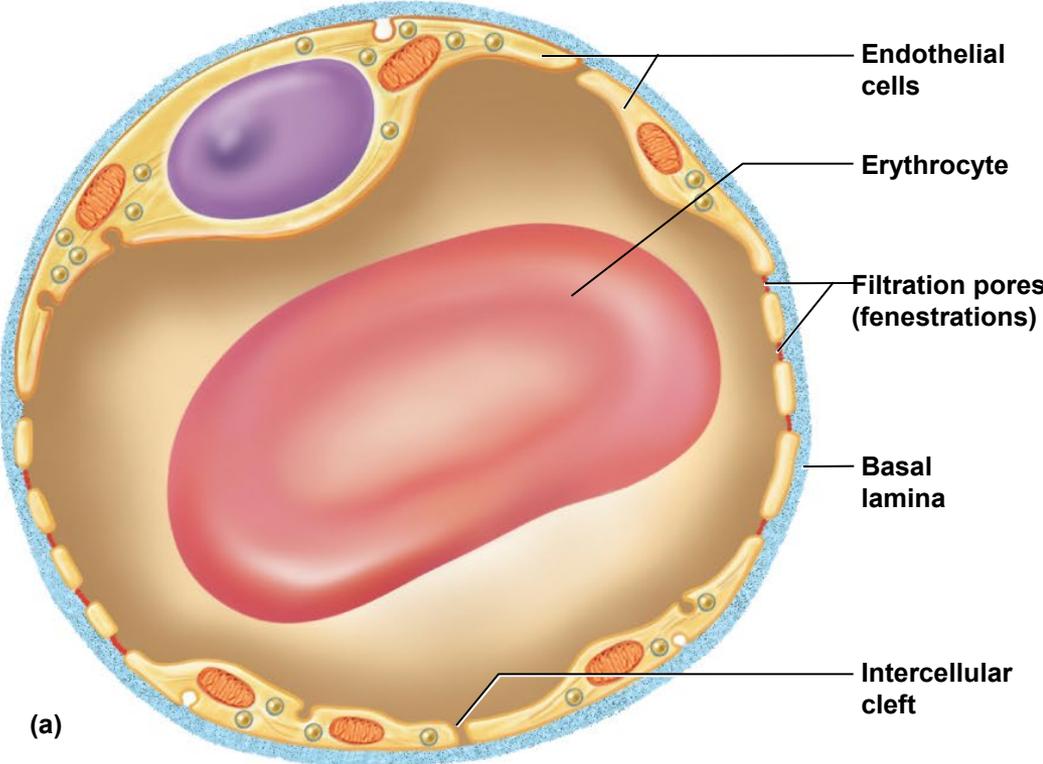
Spanned by very thin glycoprotein layer

Allows passage for small molecules

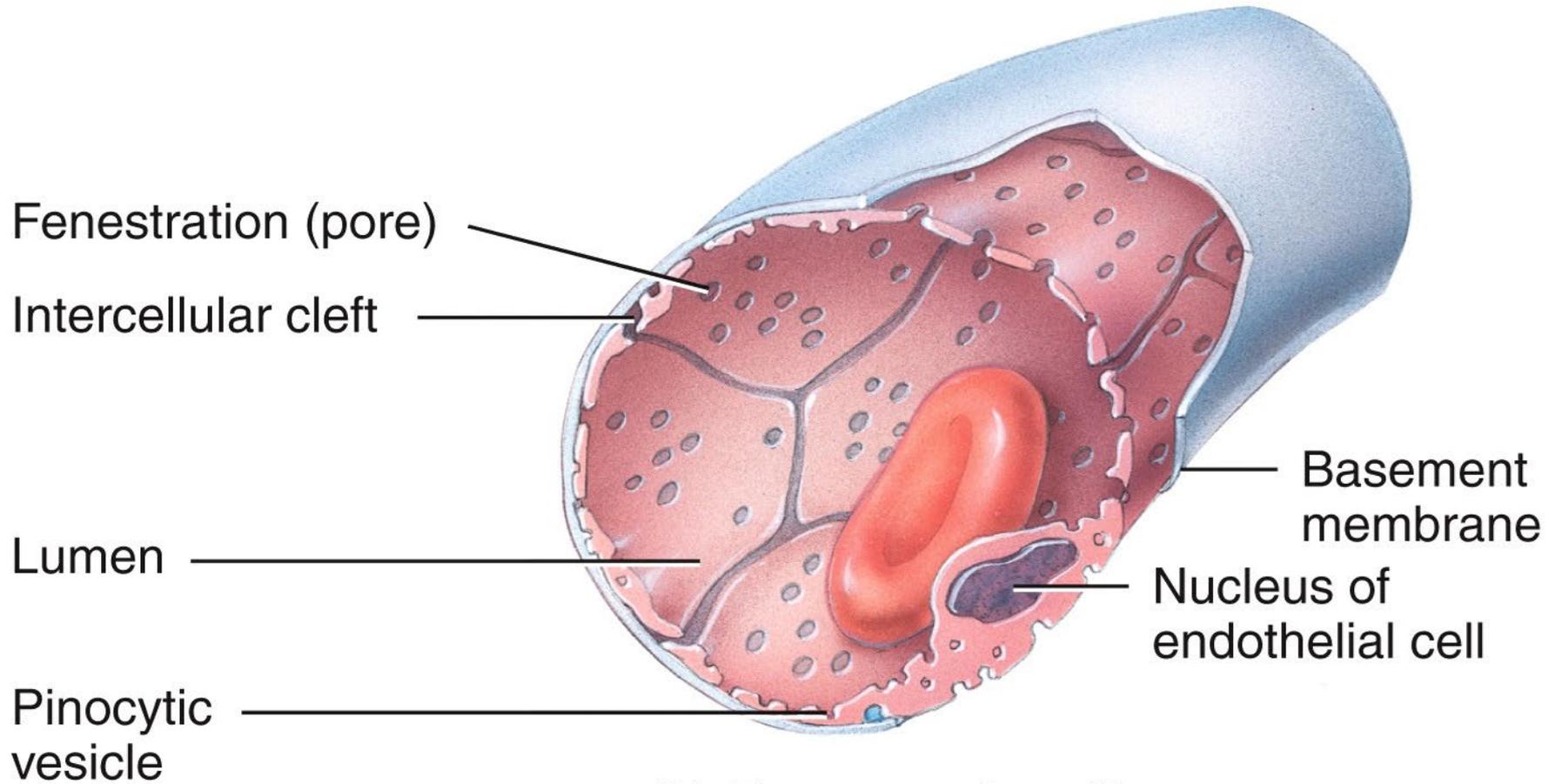


(b) Fenestrated capillary

Fenestrated Capillary



b: Courtesy of S. McNutt



(b) Fenestrated capillary

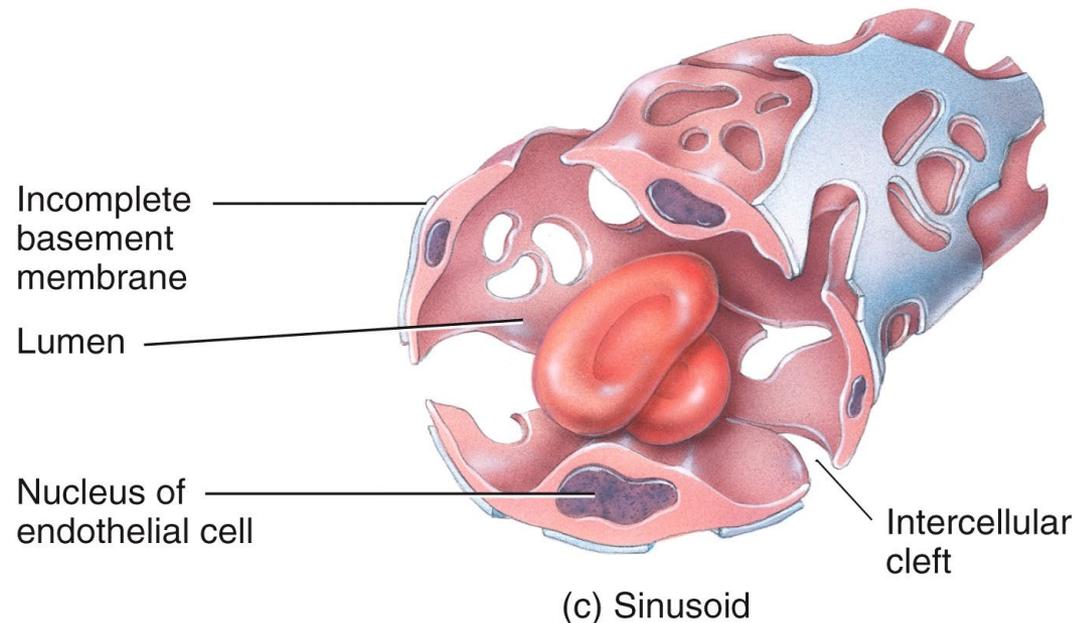
Sinusoids

–Discontinuous capillaries

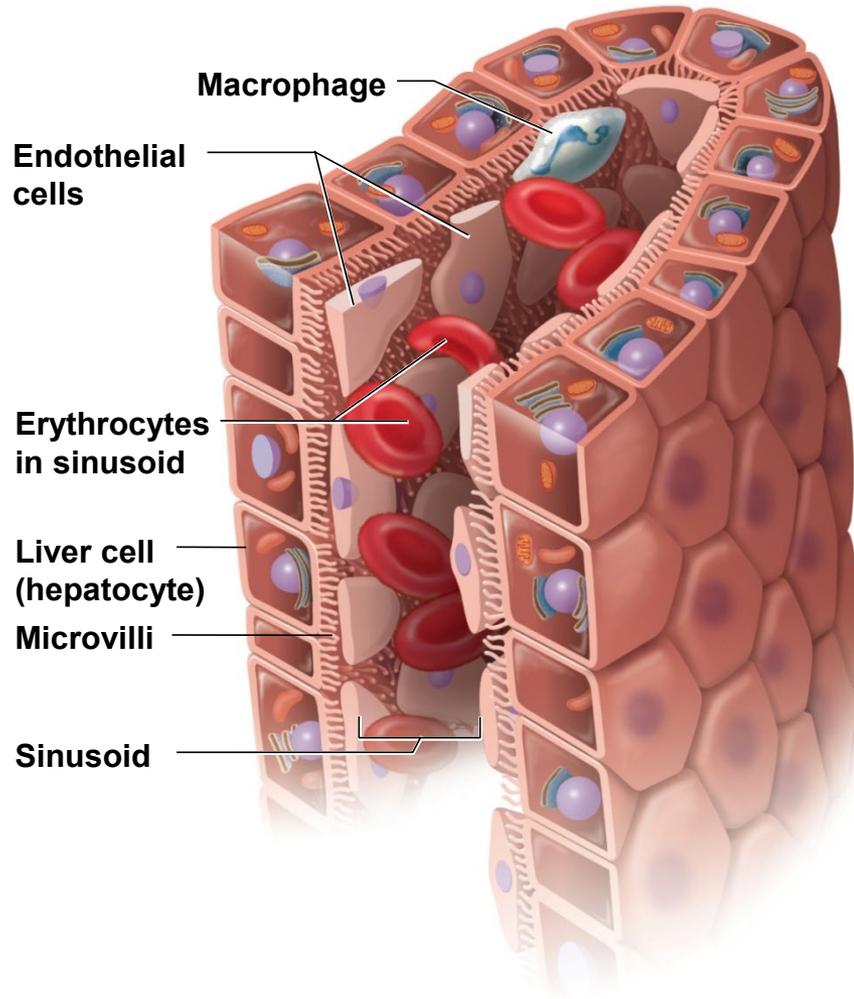
Liver, bone marrow, spleen // these tissues make large proteins and/or cells which must enter blood vessels.

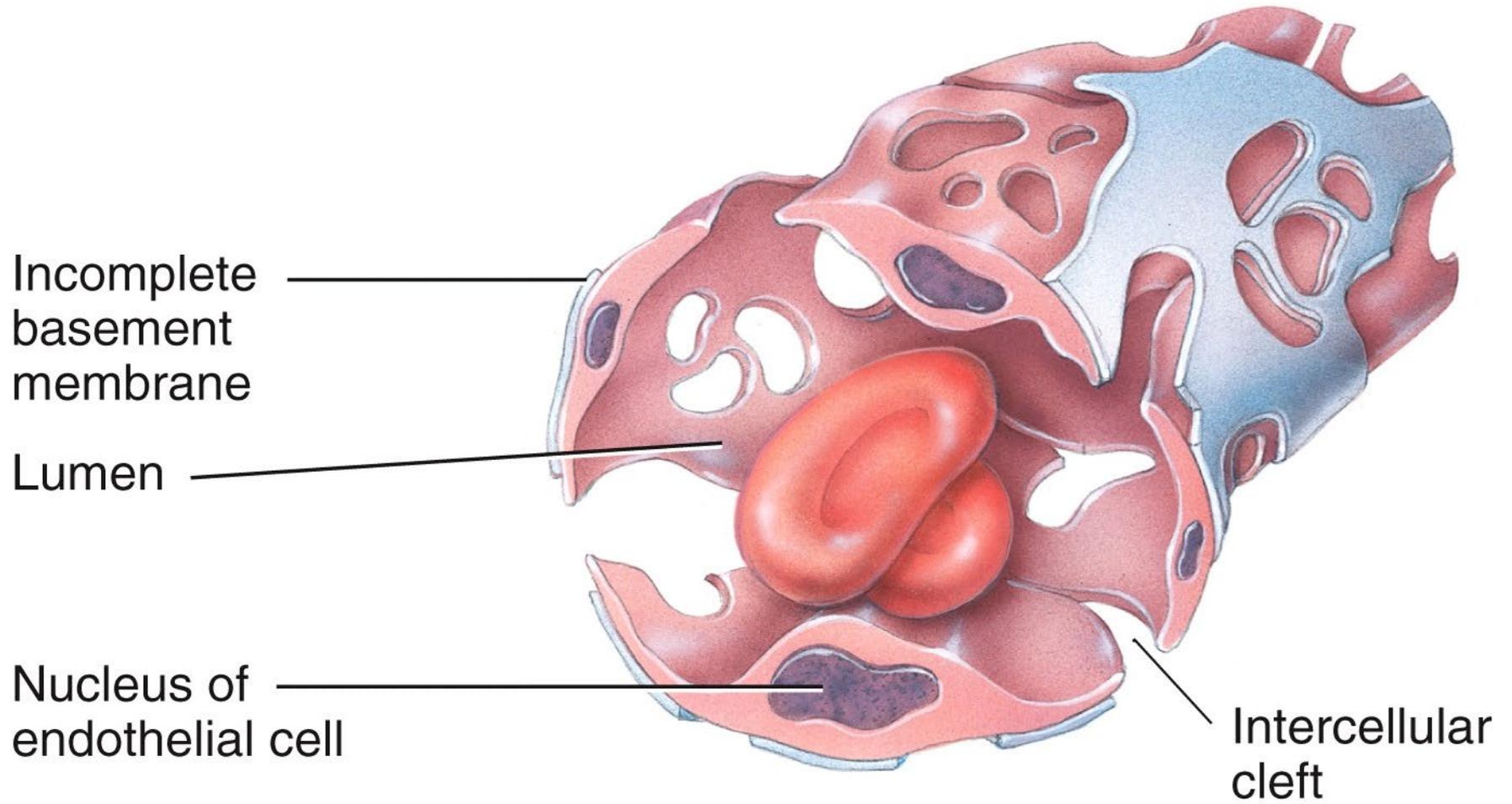
Irregular blood-filled spaces with large fenestrations

Allow proteins (albumin), clotting factors, and new blood cells to enter the circulation



Sinusoid in Liver





Capillary Beds

- Capillaries organized into networks called **capillary beds**
- Situated between an arteriole and venule
- A passageway connects the arteriole to the venule // two segments
 - **Metarteriole** – proximal to arteriole / no smooth muscle but smooth muscle at junction between metarteriole and capillary
- **precapillary sphincters** control which beds are well perfused
- when sphincters open - capillaries are well perfused with blood and engage in exchanges with the tissue fluid
- when sphincters closed - blood bypasses the capillaries and flows through thoroughfare channel to venule
 - **Thoroughfare channel** – point beyond the metarteriole that continues through capillary bed to venule

Arterioles and Metarterioles

Arterioles

Responsible for “**peripheral resistance**”

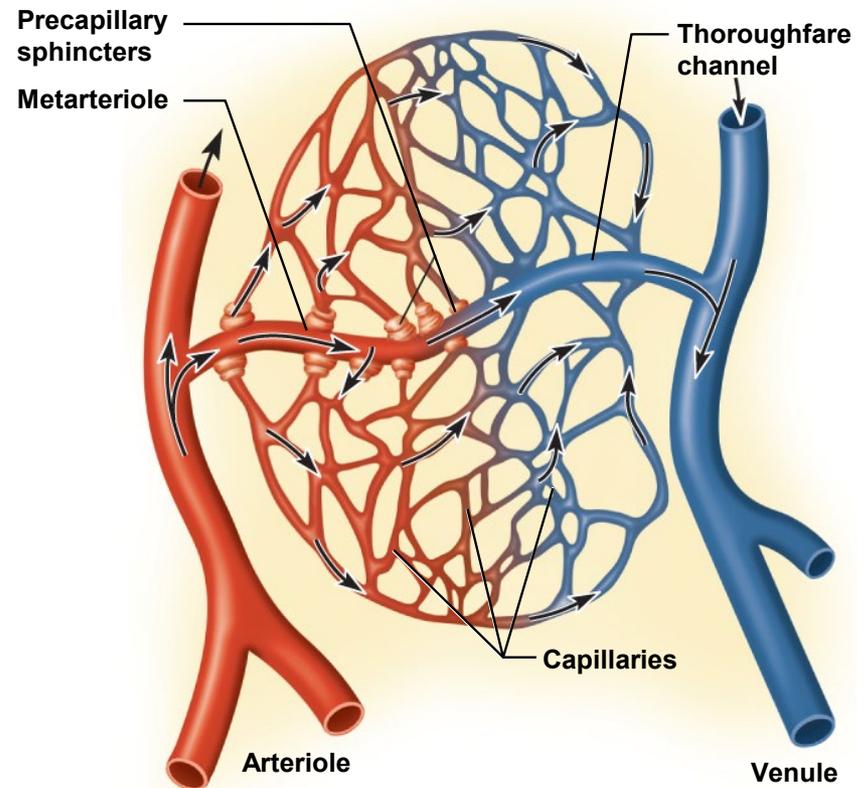
The smallest arteries with two functions.

Control amount of blood flowing into various organs

Create “peripheral resistance” to regulate blood pressure.

Thicker tunica media in proportion to their lumen than large arteries

Little tunica externa



(a) Sphincters open

Arterioles to Metarterioles

Metarterioles

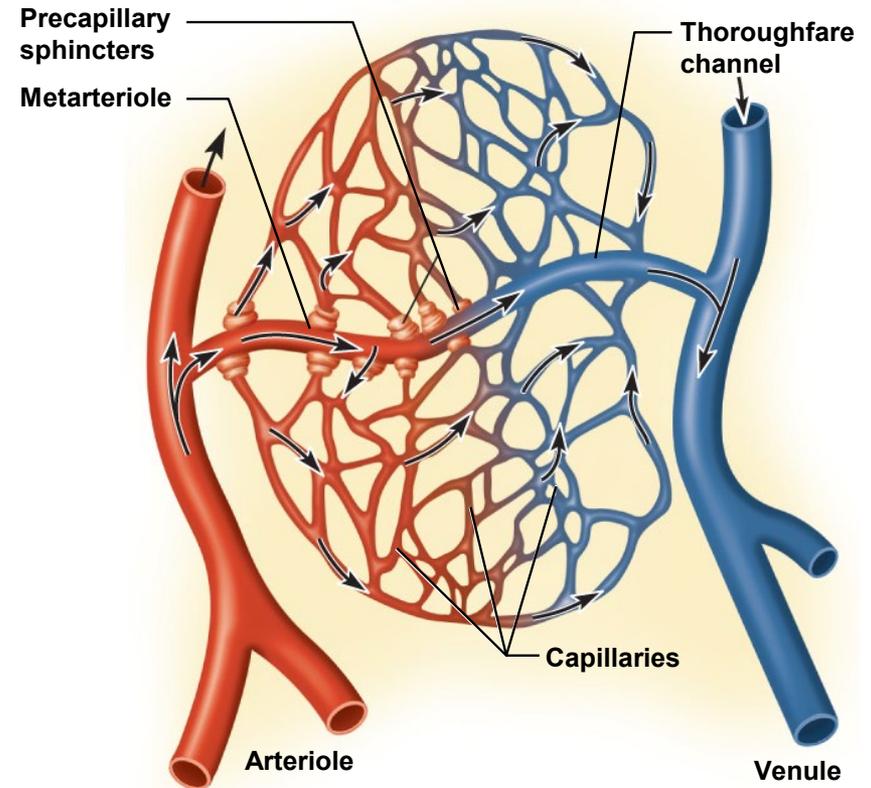
Short vessels that link arterioles to capillaries

Smooth muscle cells form **precapillary sphincter** at entrance to capillary bed

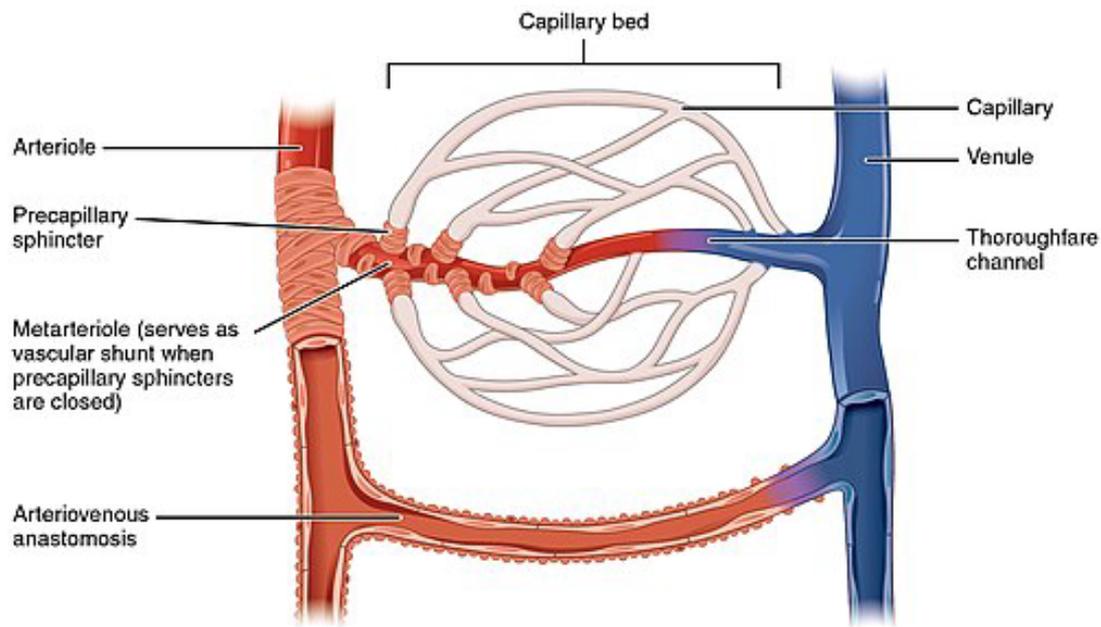
Constriction of these sphincters reduces or shuts off blood flow into capillaries

Relax sphincter muscles allow blood to flow into capillary bed.

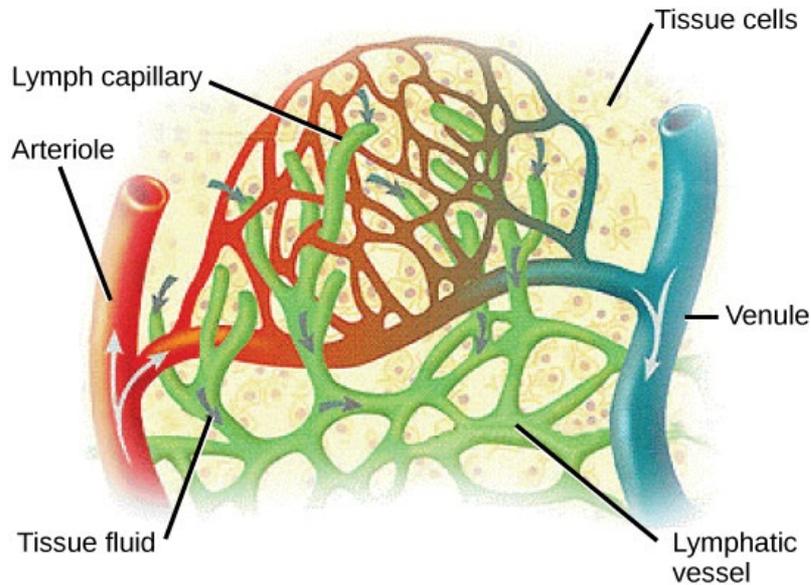
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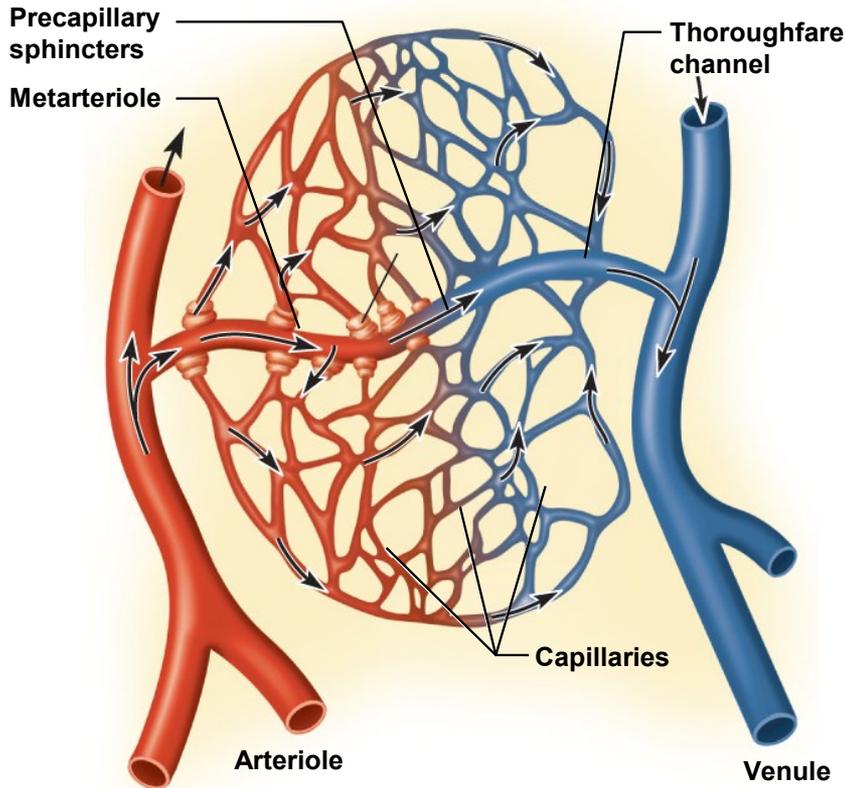
(a) Sphincters open



Lymph Capillaries in the Tissue Spaces



Sphincters Open Blood Flow Into Capillary Bed



(a) Sphincters open

approximately one billion capillaries

no cell more than 40 to 80 micrometers from capillary

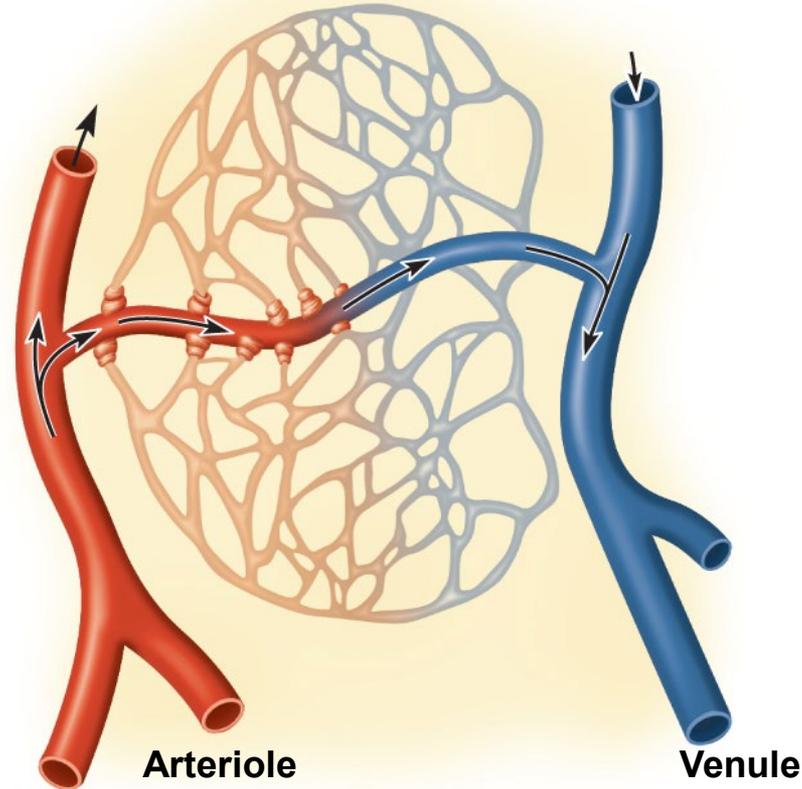
four to six cell widths

Pre-capillary sphincters are not controlled by vasomotor center

Pre-capillary sphincters regulated by "local regulation"

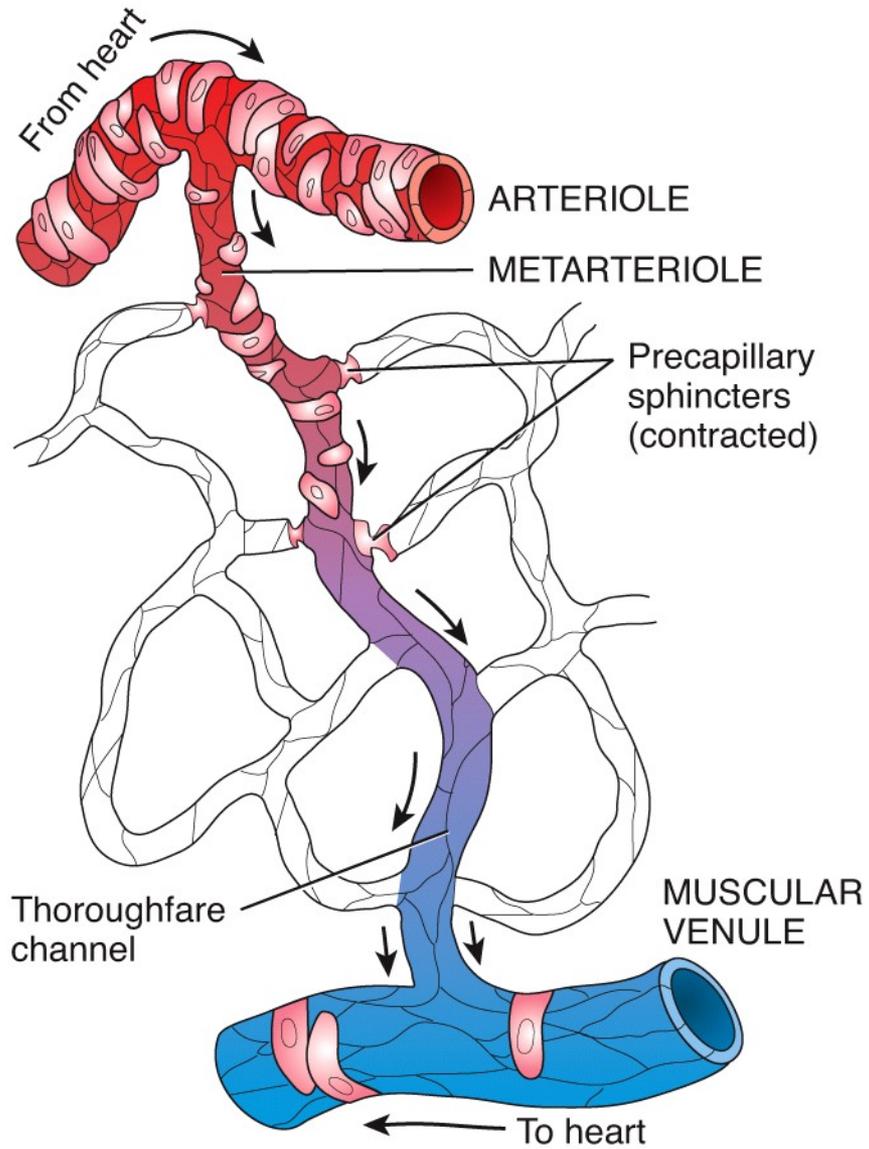
When sphincters are open, the capillaries are well perfused ///
75% of the capillaries are normally shut down

Sphincters Closed Blood Flows Directly to Venule

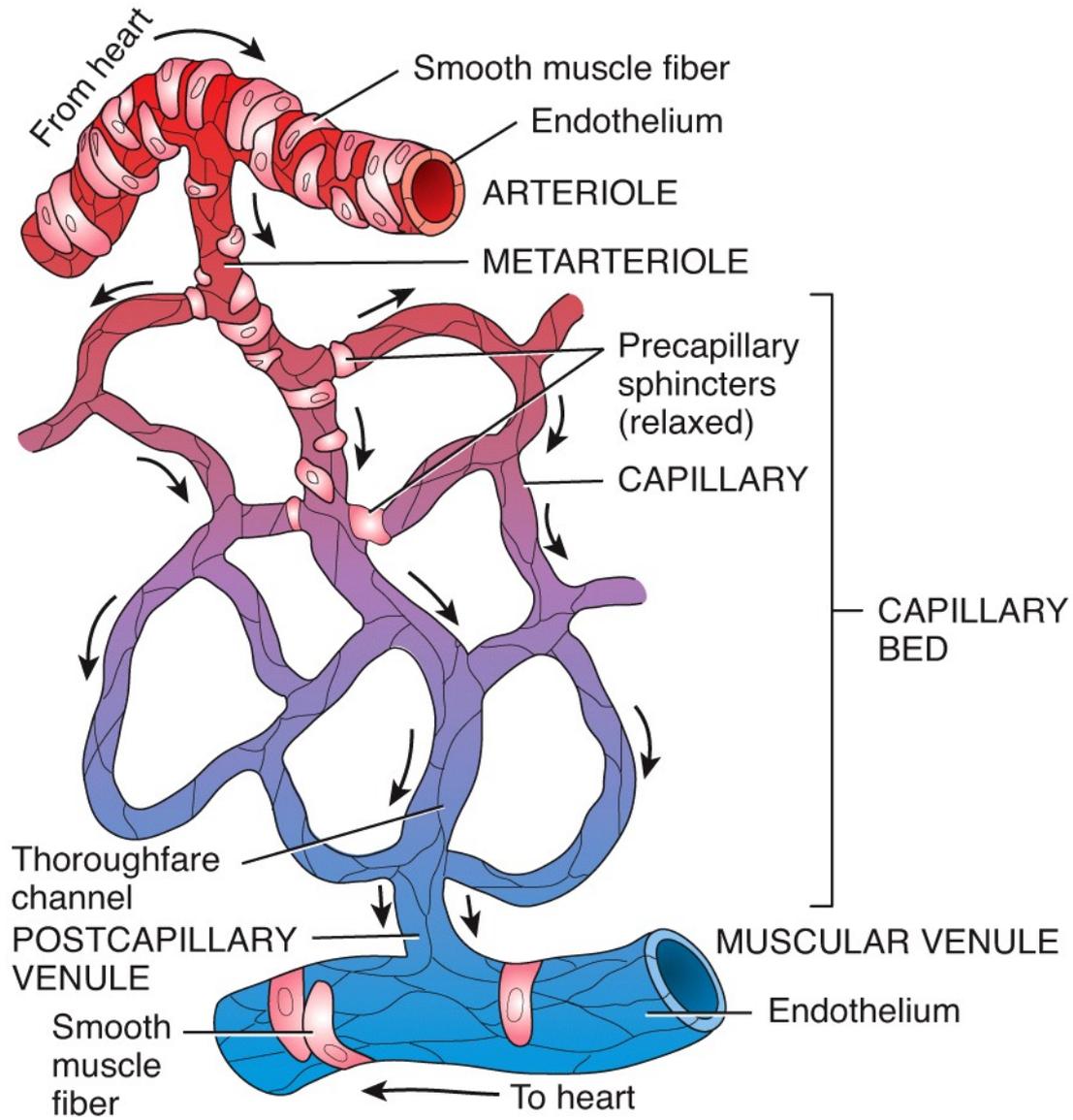


(b) Sphincters closed

When the sphincters are closed, little to no blood flow into capillary bed
(e.g. when skeletal muscles at rest)



(b) Sphincters contracted: blood flowing through thoroughfare channel



(a) Sphincters relaxed: blood flowing through capillaries

Metabolic Theory of Auto-Regulation

Autoregulation = Local Control = the ability of the tissues to regulate its own blood supply

This principle applies to the capillary beds

If tissue is not adequately perfused with blood, then carbon dioxide accumulate and stimulates vasodilation // increases perfusion

Bloodstream delivers oxygen and removes carbon dioxide

When carbon dioxide levels drop then smooth muscle constricts

Why does this make sense? Explain.

Capillary Filtration and Reabsorption

Capillary **filtration** occurs at arterial end

Capillary **reabsorption (osmosis)** occurs at venous end

Variations occurs within different organ types

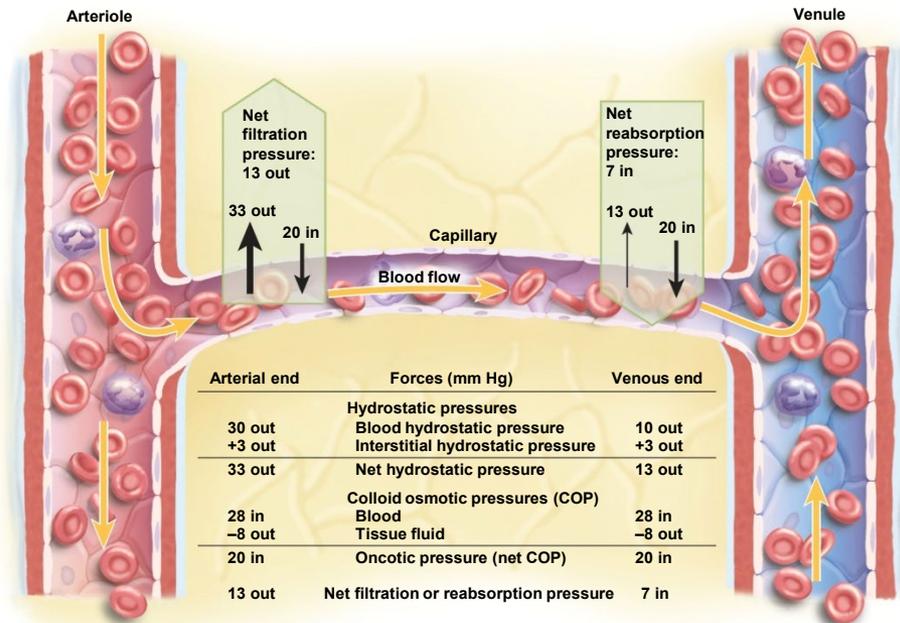
Location:

Glomeruli of kidney // devoted to filtration

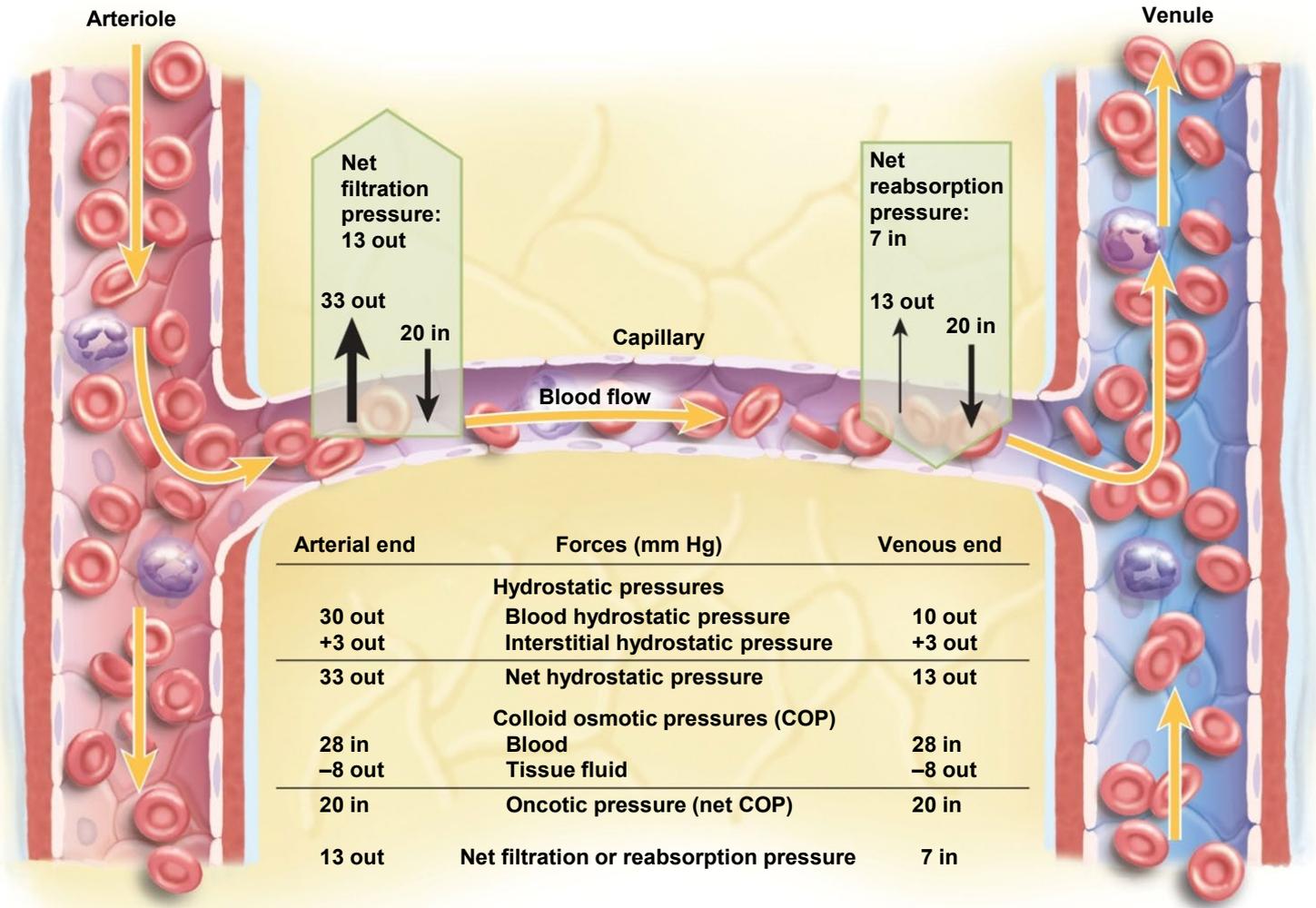
Alveolar capillary of lungs // devoted to absorption

Activity or trauma also increases filtration

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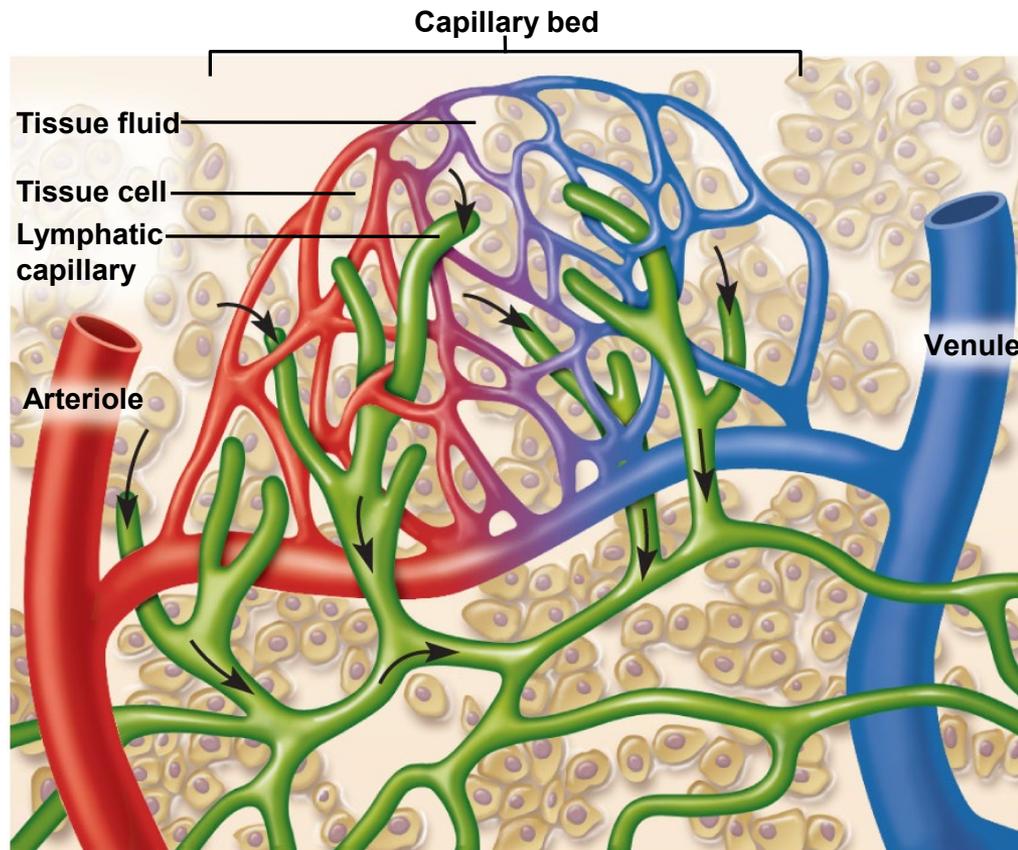


Capillary Filtration and Reabsorption

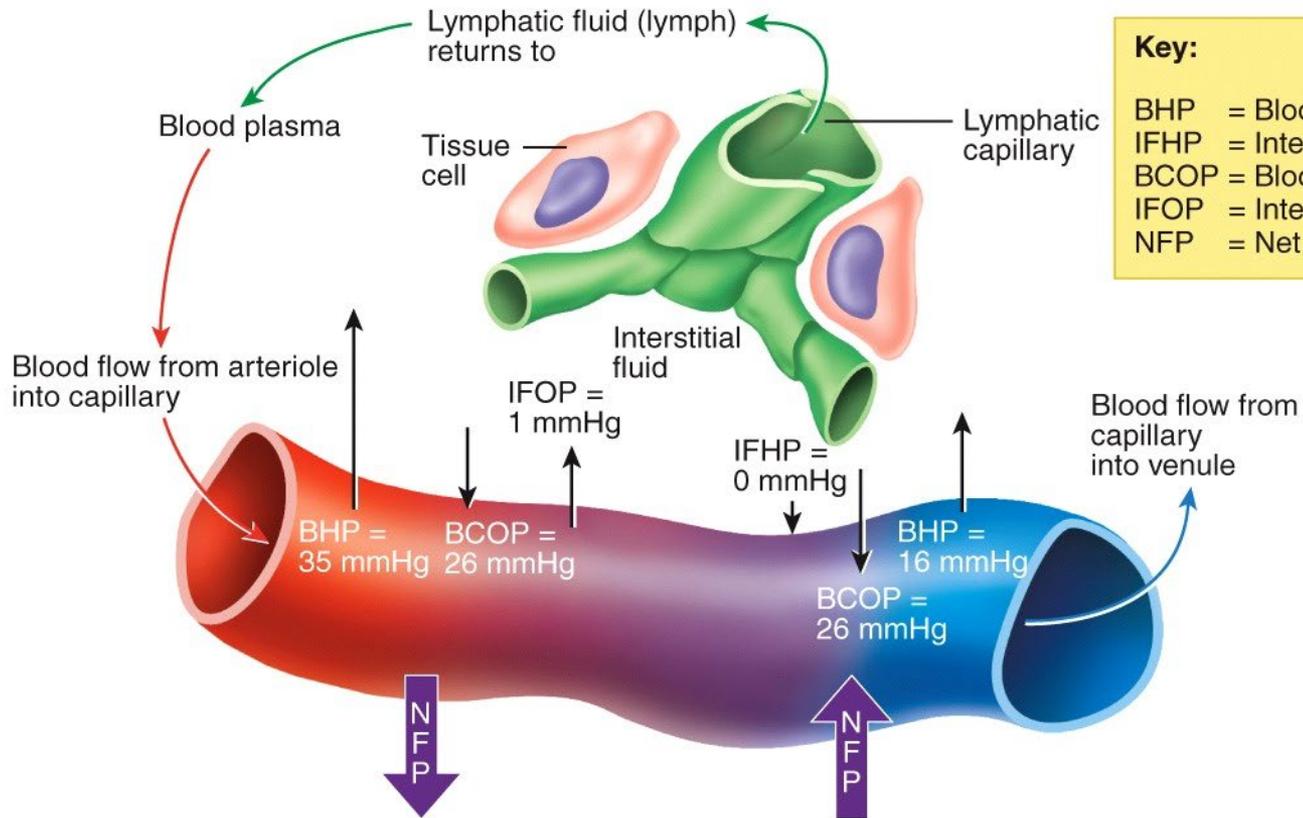


Net "6 mm Hg" out. Reabsorb only 85% // **Where does the fluid go?**

Structure of a Capillary Bed with Lymphatic Capillaries and Their Afferent Vessels



How much fluid is not recovered at the end of the capillary bed?



Key:

- BHP = Blood hydrostatic pressure
- IFHP = Interstitial fluid hydrostatic pressure
- BCOP = Blood colloid osmotic pressure
- IFOP = Interstitial fluid osmotic pressure
- NFP = Net filtration pressure

Net filtration at arterial end of capillaries (20 liters per day)

Net reabsorption at venous end of capillaries (17 liters per day)

$$\text{Net filtration pressure (NFP)} = \begin{matrix} \text{(BHP + IFOP)} \\ \text{Pressures promoting} \\ \text{filtration} \end{matrix} - \begin{matrix} \text{(BCOP + IFHP)} \\ \text{Pressures promoting} \\ \text{reabsorption} \end{matrix}$$

Arterial end
$\text{NFP} = (35 + 1) - (26 + 0)$ $= 10 \text{ mmHg}$
Result Net filtration

Venous end
$\text{NFP} = (16 + 1) - (26 + 0)$ $= -9 \text{ mmHg}$
Result Net reabsorption

Veins (Capacitance Vessels)

Greater capacity (volume) for blood containment than arteries (54% vs 11%)

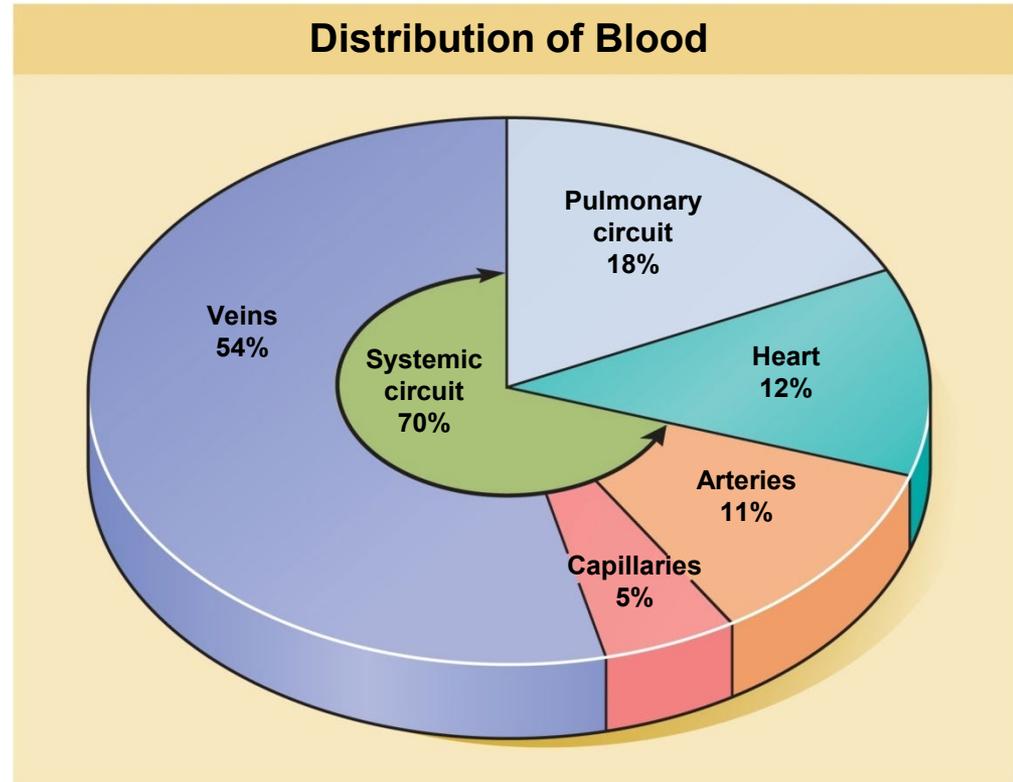
Thinner walls, flaccid, less muscular and elastic tissue

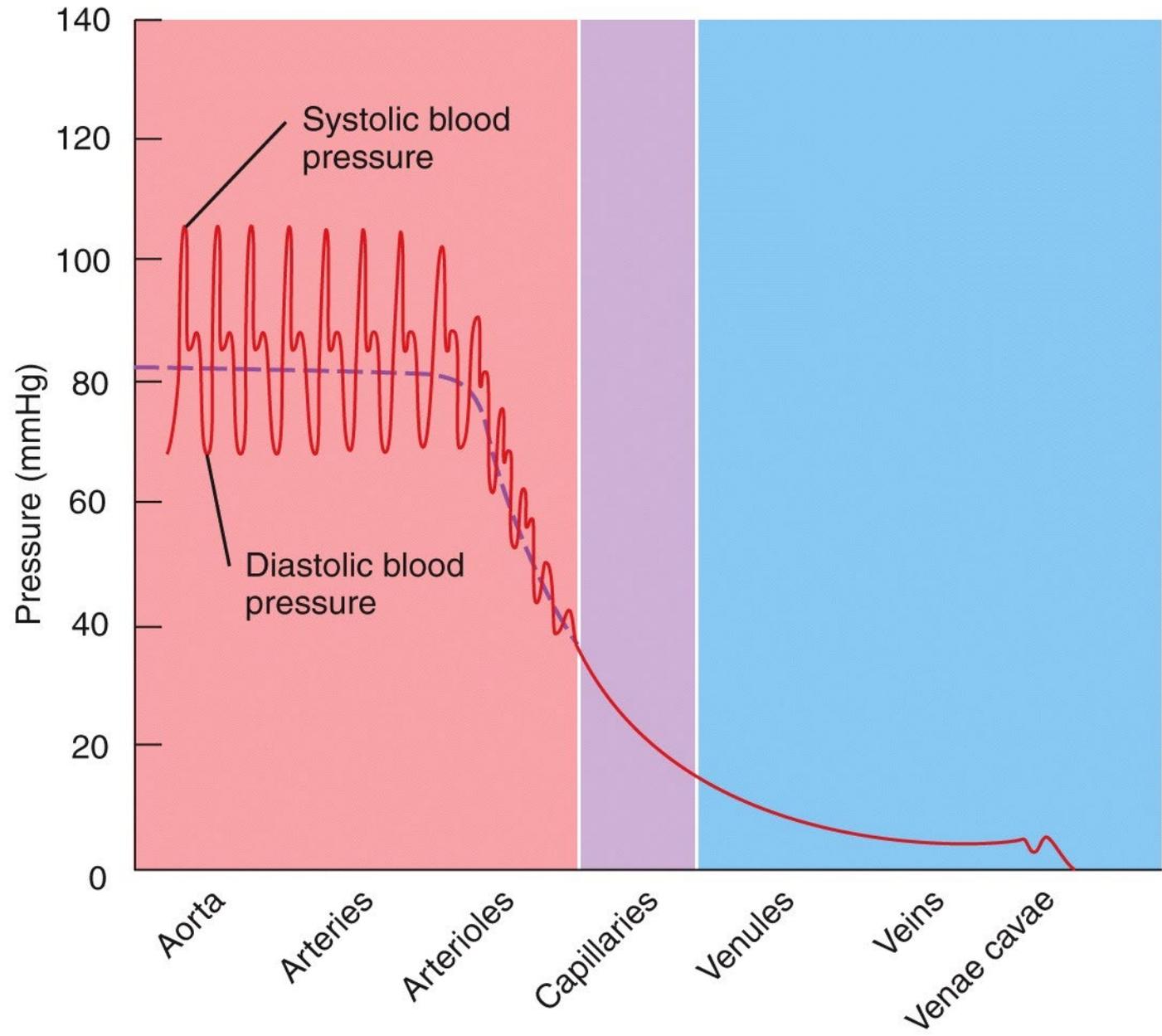
Collapse when empty, expand easily

Have steady blood flow

Merge to form larger veins

Subjected to relatively low blood pressure /// remains 10 mm Hg with little fluctuation





Venules

Venules – smallest veins, occur just past the capillary bed

Even more porous than capillaries // also exchange fluid with surrounding tissues

Tunica interna with a few fibroblasts and no muscle fibers

Most leukocytes emigrate from the bloodstream through venule walls

Muscular venules – up to 1 mm in diameter

1 or 2 layers of smooth muscle in tunica media /// have a thin tunica externa

Medium and Large Veins

Medium veins – up to 10 mm in diameter

Thin tunica media and thick tunica externa

Tunica interna in this area forms **venous valves**

Large veins – larger than 10 mm

Some smooth muscle in all three tunics

Thin tunica media with moderate amount of smooth muscle

Tunica externa is thickest layer

Contains longitudinal bundles of smooth muscle

Examples /// venae cavae, pulmonary veins, internal jugular veins, and renal veins

Sinuses

Venous sinuses

Veins with extremely thin walls

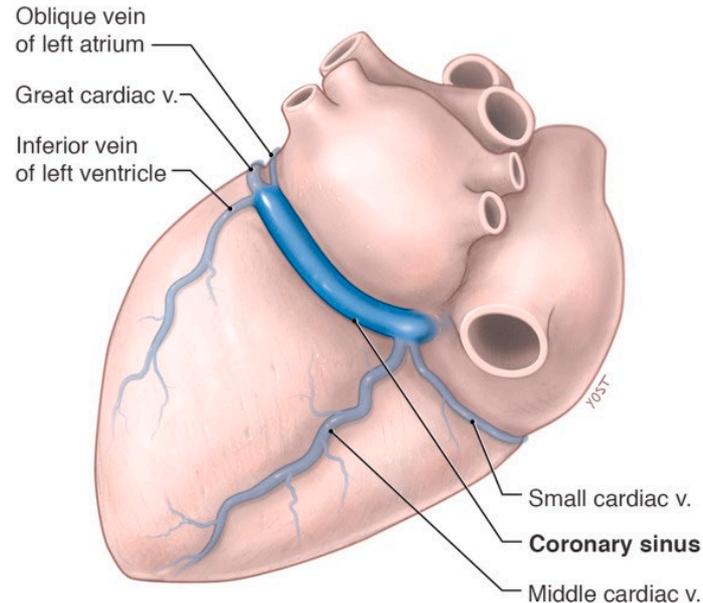
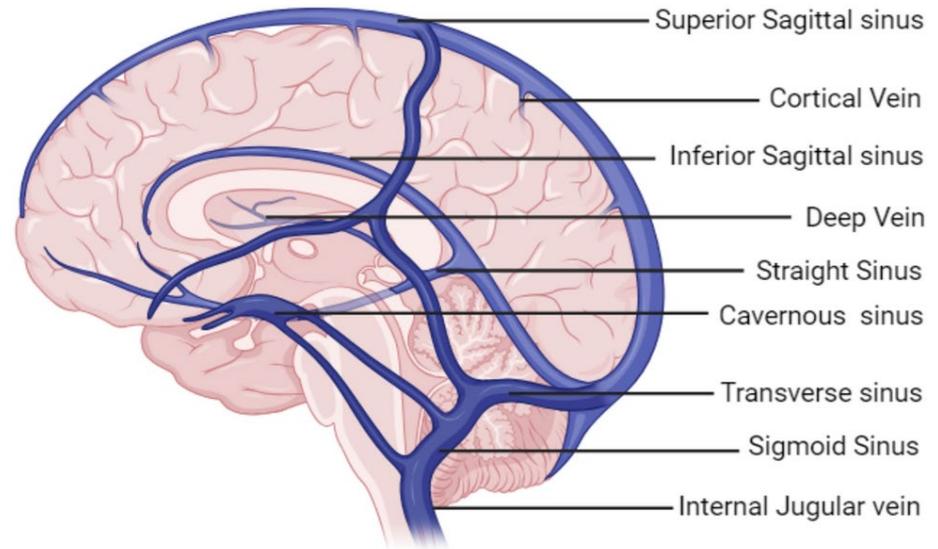
Large lumen, and no smooth muscle

Dural venous sinus in the brain

Coronary sinus in the heart

These vessels are not capable of vasomotion

Function as blood reservoirs



Mechanisms of Venous Return

Venous return – the flow of blood back to the heart occurs at low pressure gradient

blood pressure is the most important force in venous return

7-13 mm Hg venous pressure towards heart

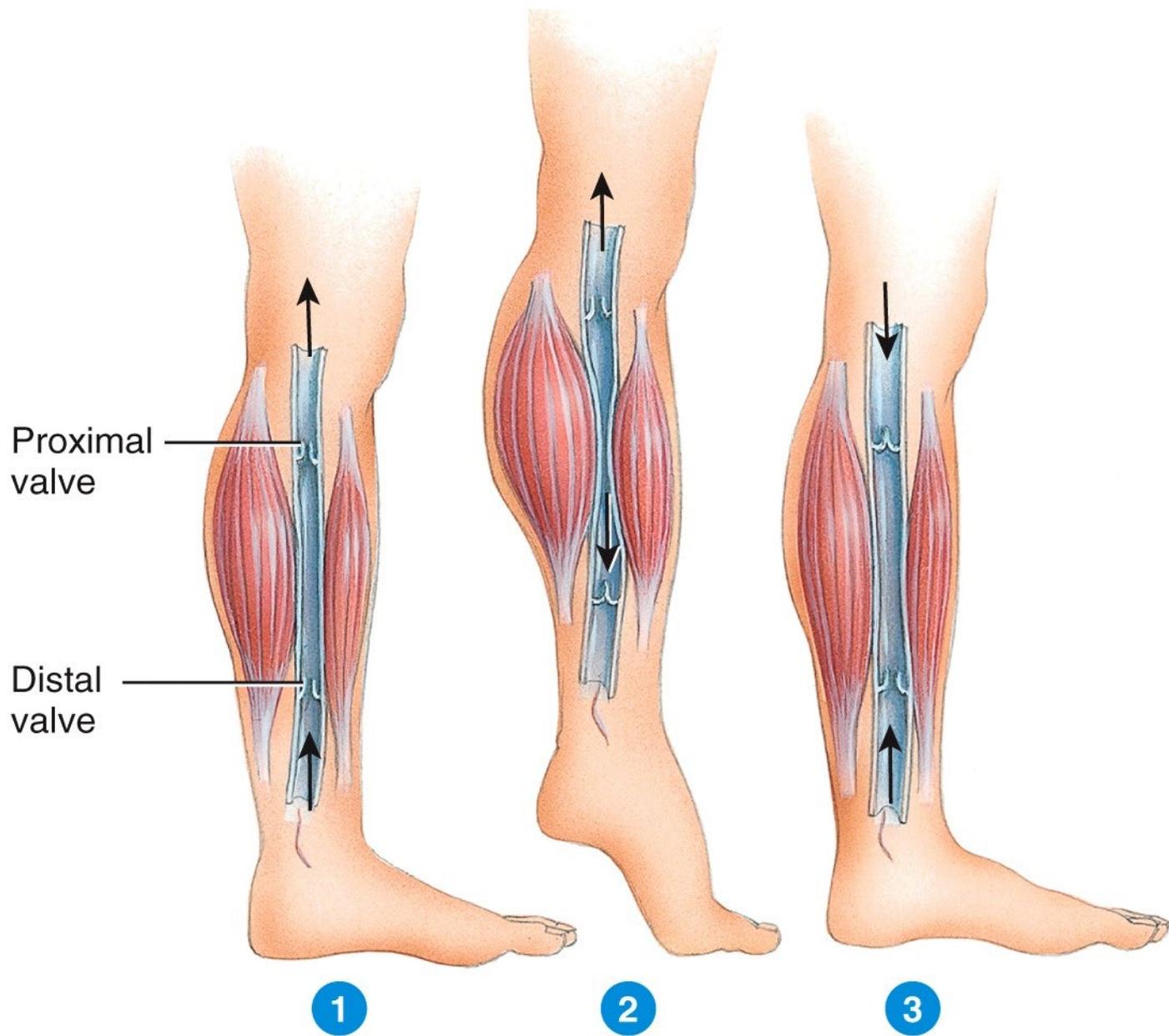
venules (12-18 mm Hg) to **central venous pressure** – point where the venae cavae enter the heart (~5 mm Hg)

Skeletal muscle pump – occurs in the limbs

contracting muscle compressed vein between muscles to move blood towards heart

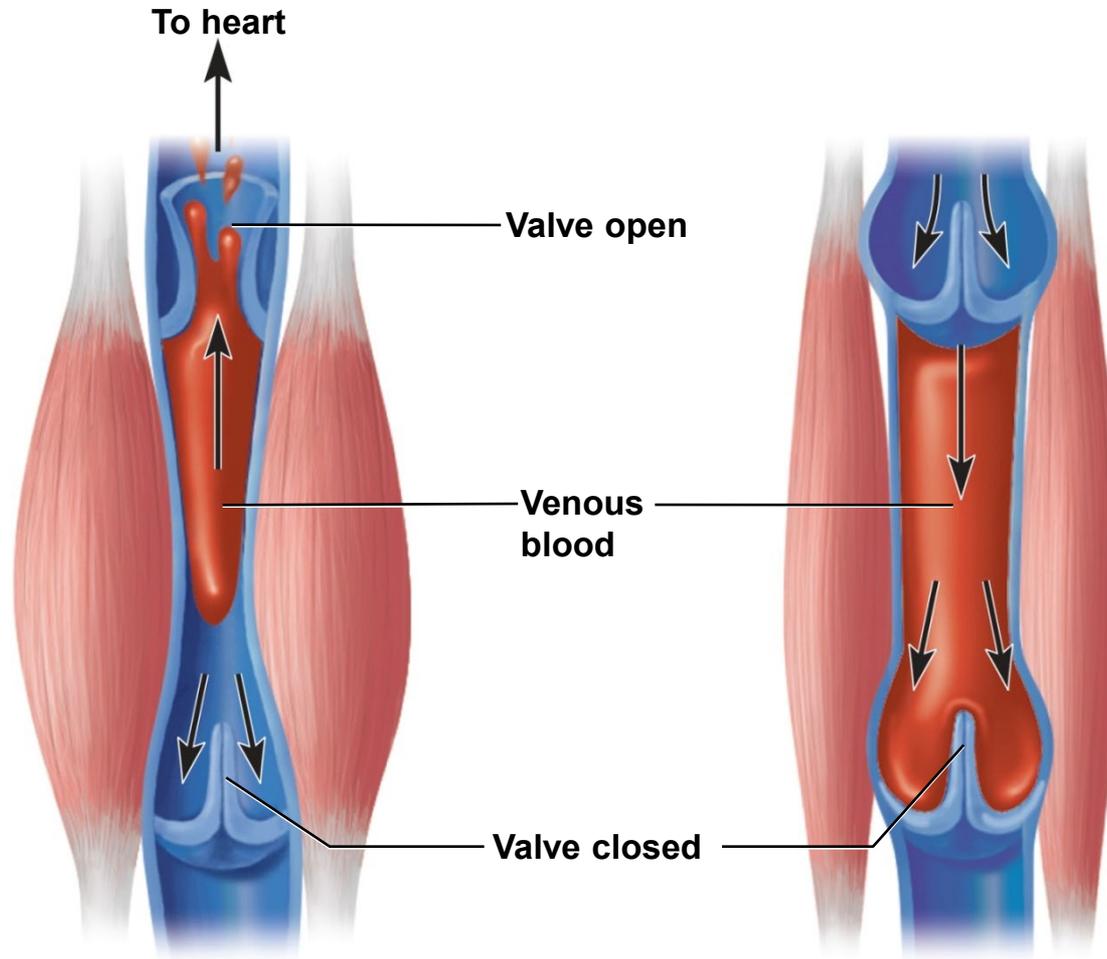
deep veins in legs have one way valves

veins in arm also have valves, but fewer than in legs



Skeletal Muscle Pump

Propels venous blood back toward the heart



(a) Contracted skeletal muscles

(b) Relaxed skeletal muscles

Other Mechanisms of Venous Return

Gravity - drains blood from head and neck

Thoracic (respiratory) pump // as you inhale the thoracic cavity expands and thoracic pressure decreases // abdominal pressure increases forcing blood upward /// central venous pressure fluctuates

2mm Hg- inhalation, 6mm Hg-exhalation

blood flows faster with inhalation

Cardiac suction - caused by expanding atria

Physical Activity

Exercise increases venous return in many ways

heart beats faster, harder increasing CO and BP

vessels of skeletal muscles, lungs, and heart dilate and increase flow

increased respiratory rate, increased action of thoracic pump

increased skeletal muscle pump

Venous Pooling

Venous pooling occurs with inactivity

venous pressure not great enough to force blood upward

with prolonged standing, may be low enough to cause dizziness or fainting

prevented by tensing leg muscles to activate skeletal muscle pump

jet pilots wear pressure suits

Varicose Veins

Blood pools in the lower legs in people who stand for long periods and causes stretching of the veins

Cusps of the valves pull apart in enlarged superficial veins further weakening vessels

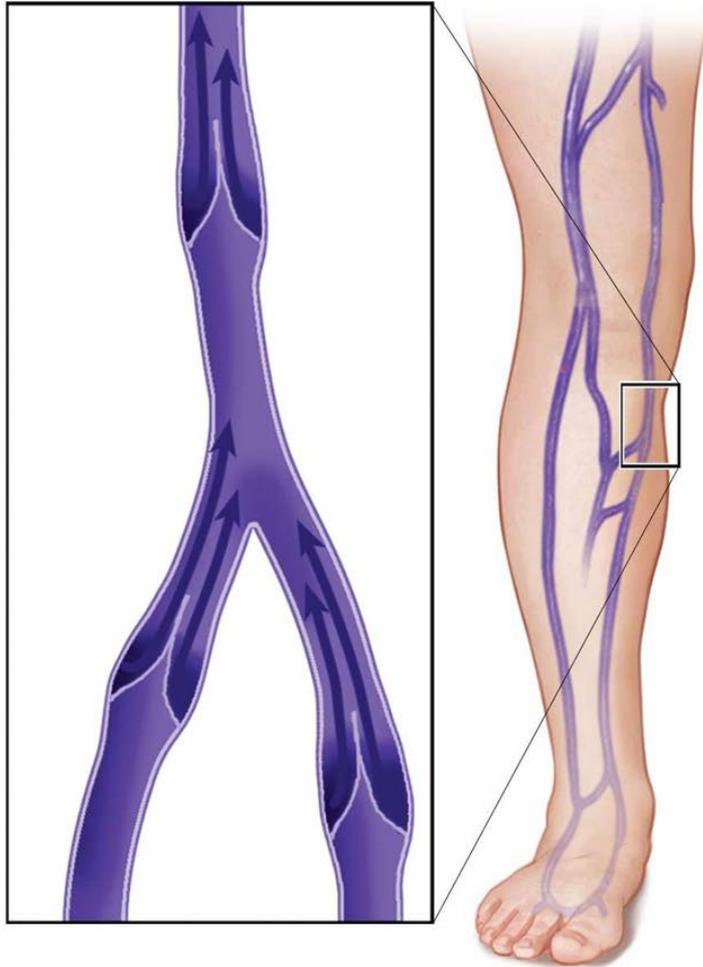
Blood backflows and further distends the vessels, their walls grow weak and develop into **varicose veins**

Hereditary weakness, obesity, and pregnancy also promote problems

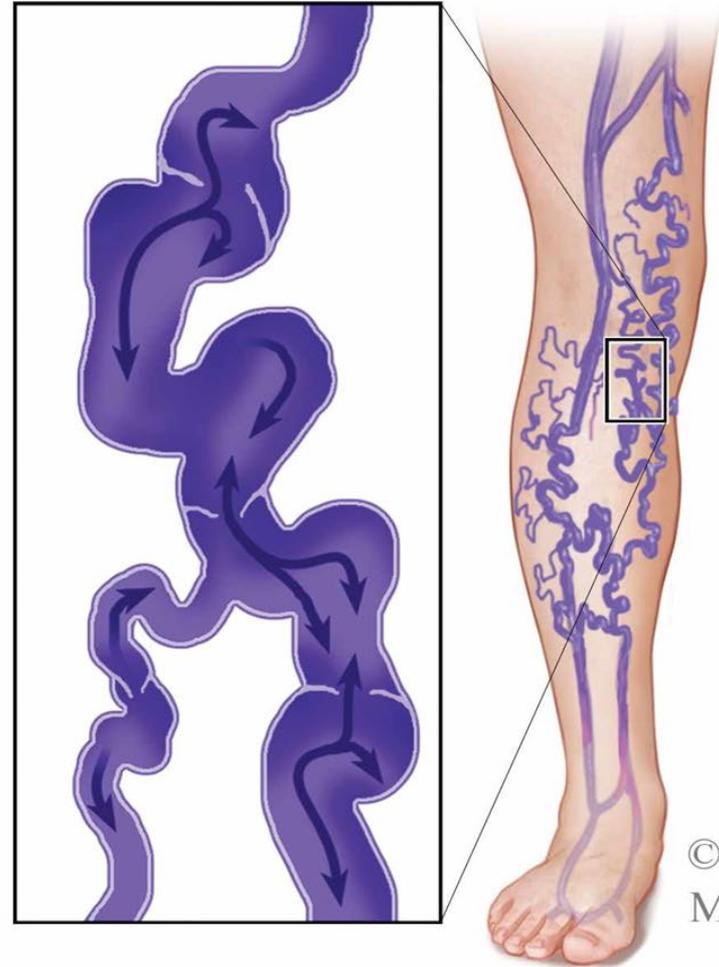
Hemorrhoids are varicose veins of the anal canal

Normal and Varicose Veins

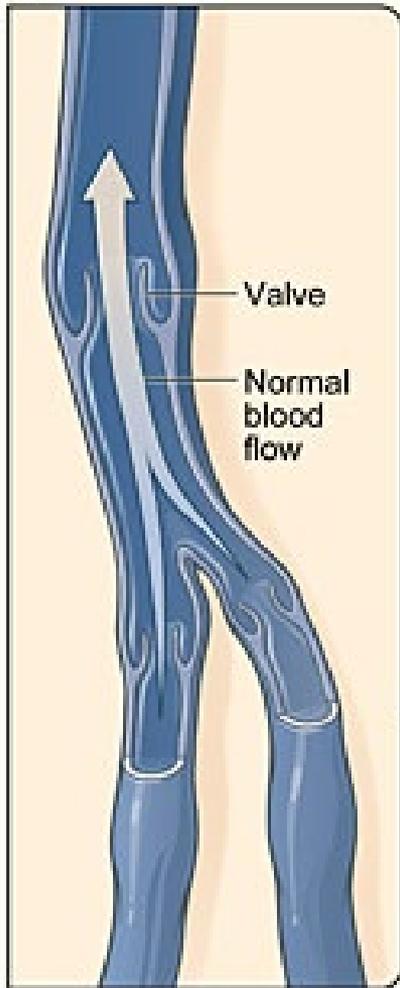
Normal veins



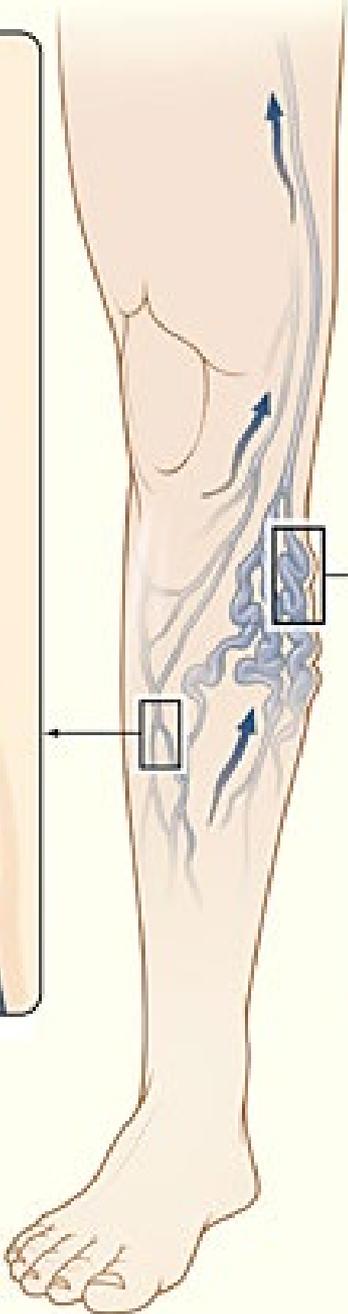
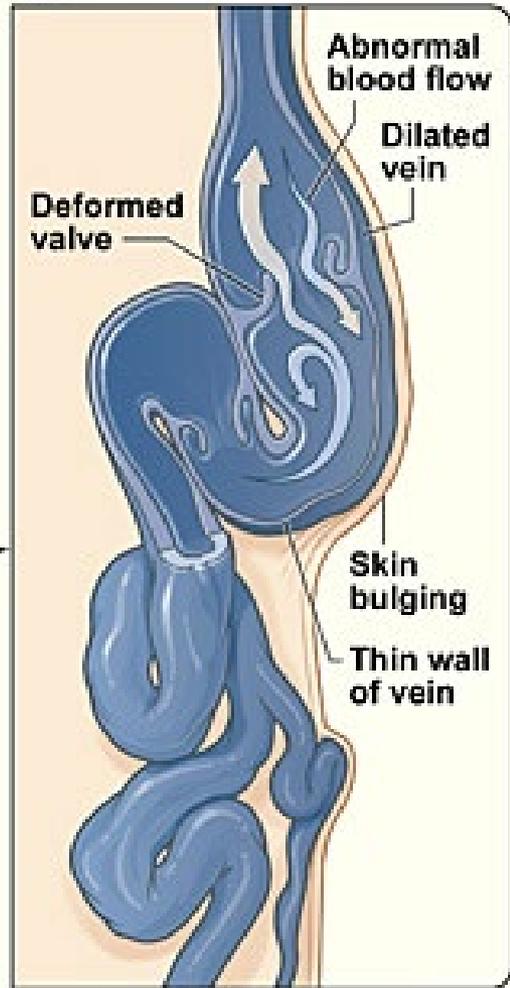
Varicose veins



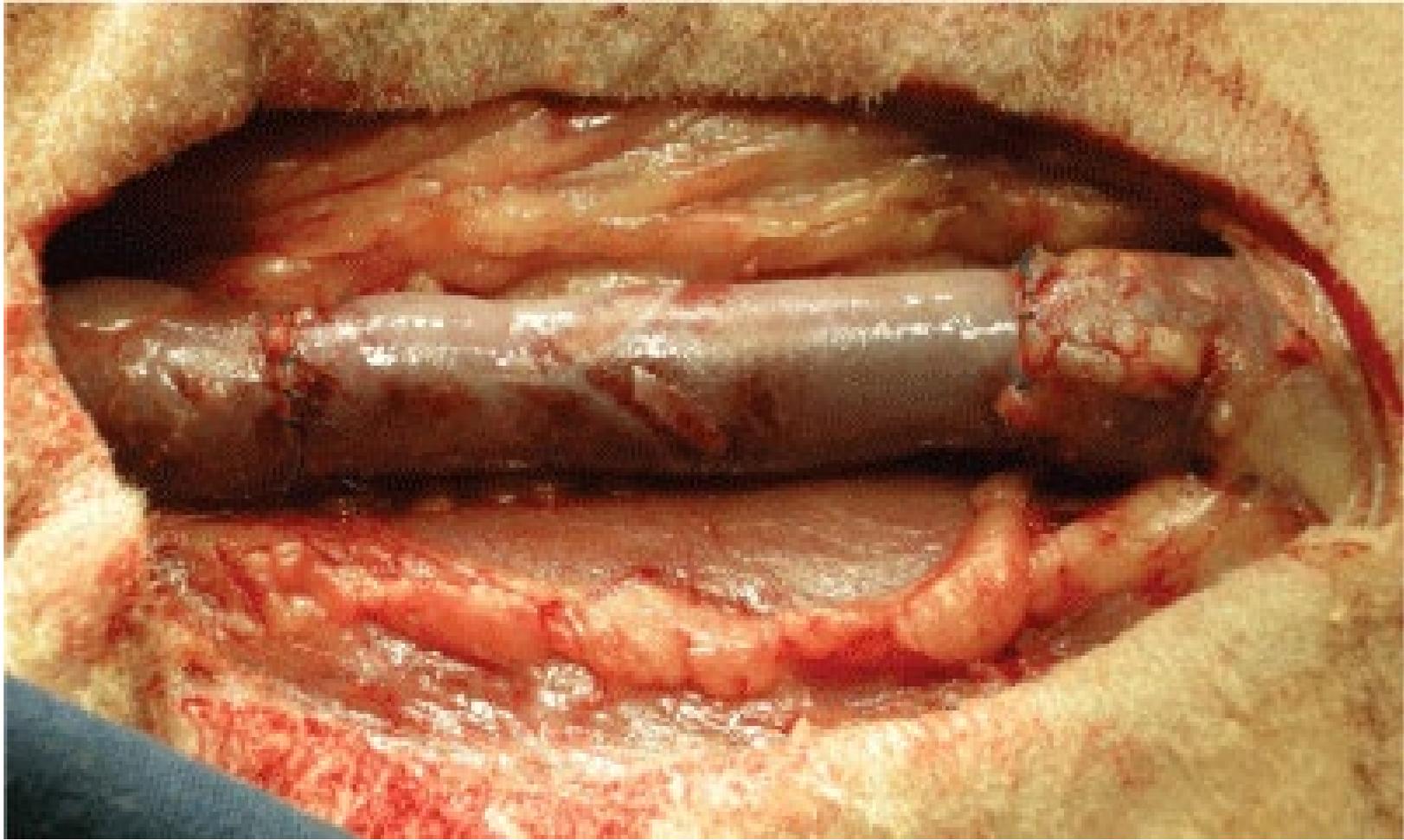
A Normal vein



B Varicose vein







Circulatory Routes

Most common route = heart → arteries → arterioles → capillaries → venules → veins

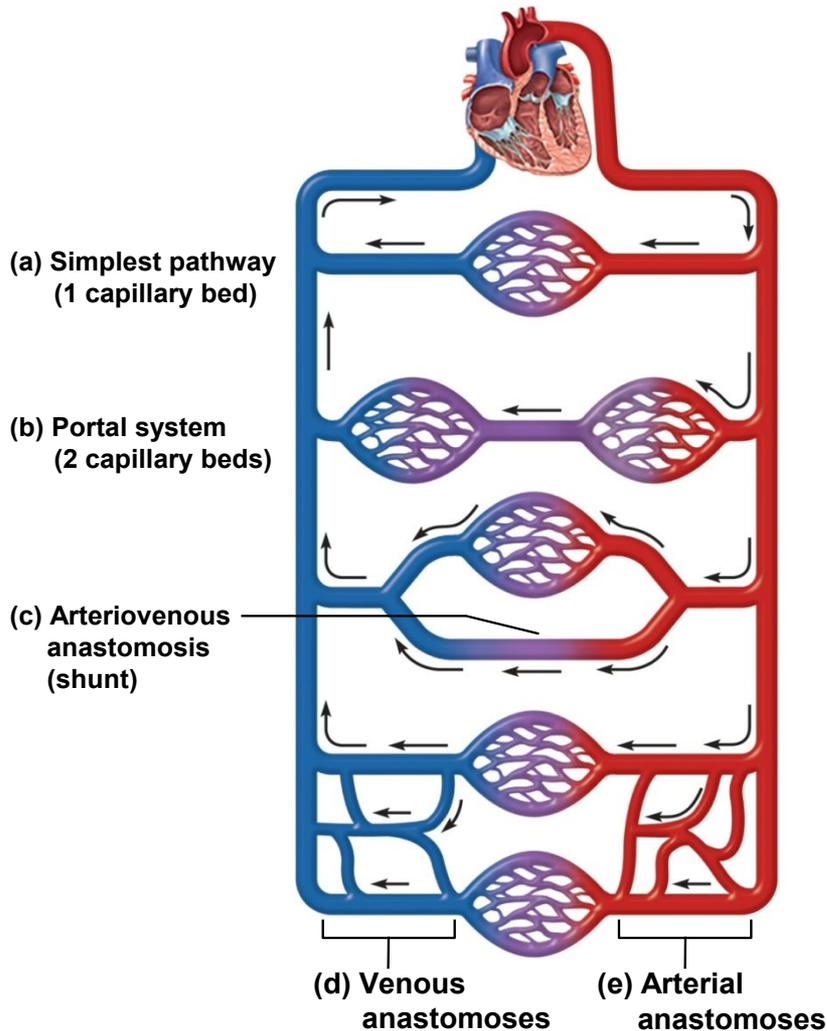
In most cases, passes through only **one network of capillaries** from the time it leaves the heart until the time it returns

Portal system // blood flows through **two capillary** networks before returning to heart

artery → capillary → portal vein → capillary → vein

Three locations:

- 1) between hypothalamus and anterior pituitary
- 2) kidneys (peritubular capillaries)
- 3) between intestines and liver



Anastomosis – the point where two blood vessels merge

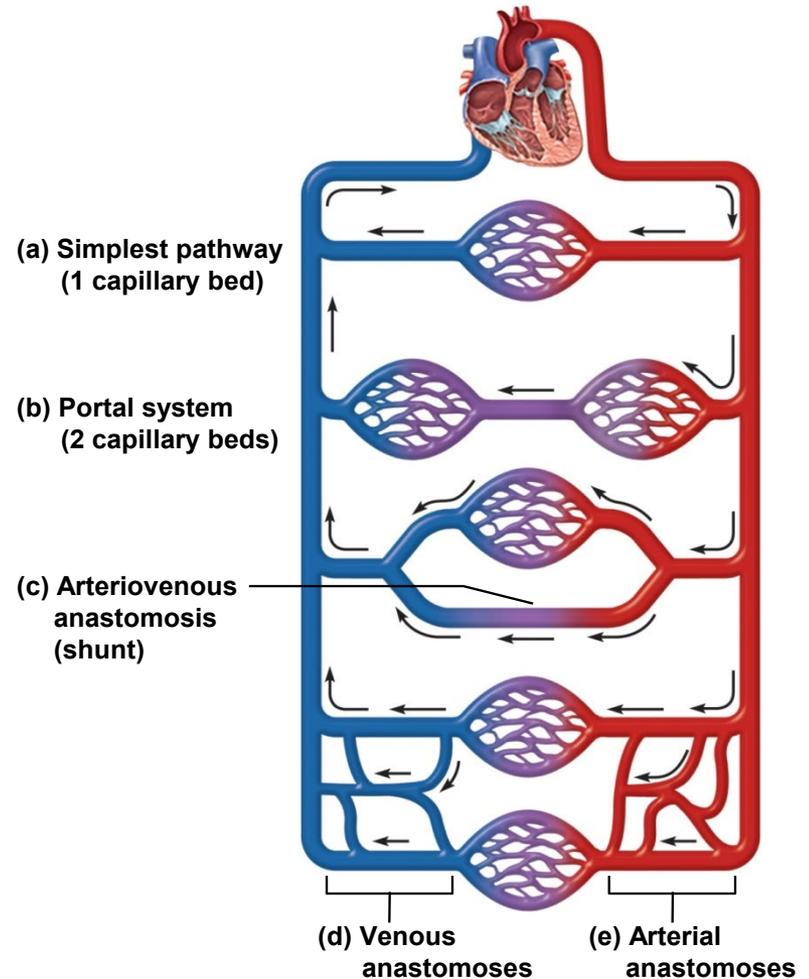
Arteriovenous anastomosis (shunt) // artery flows directly into vein bypassing capillaries

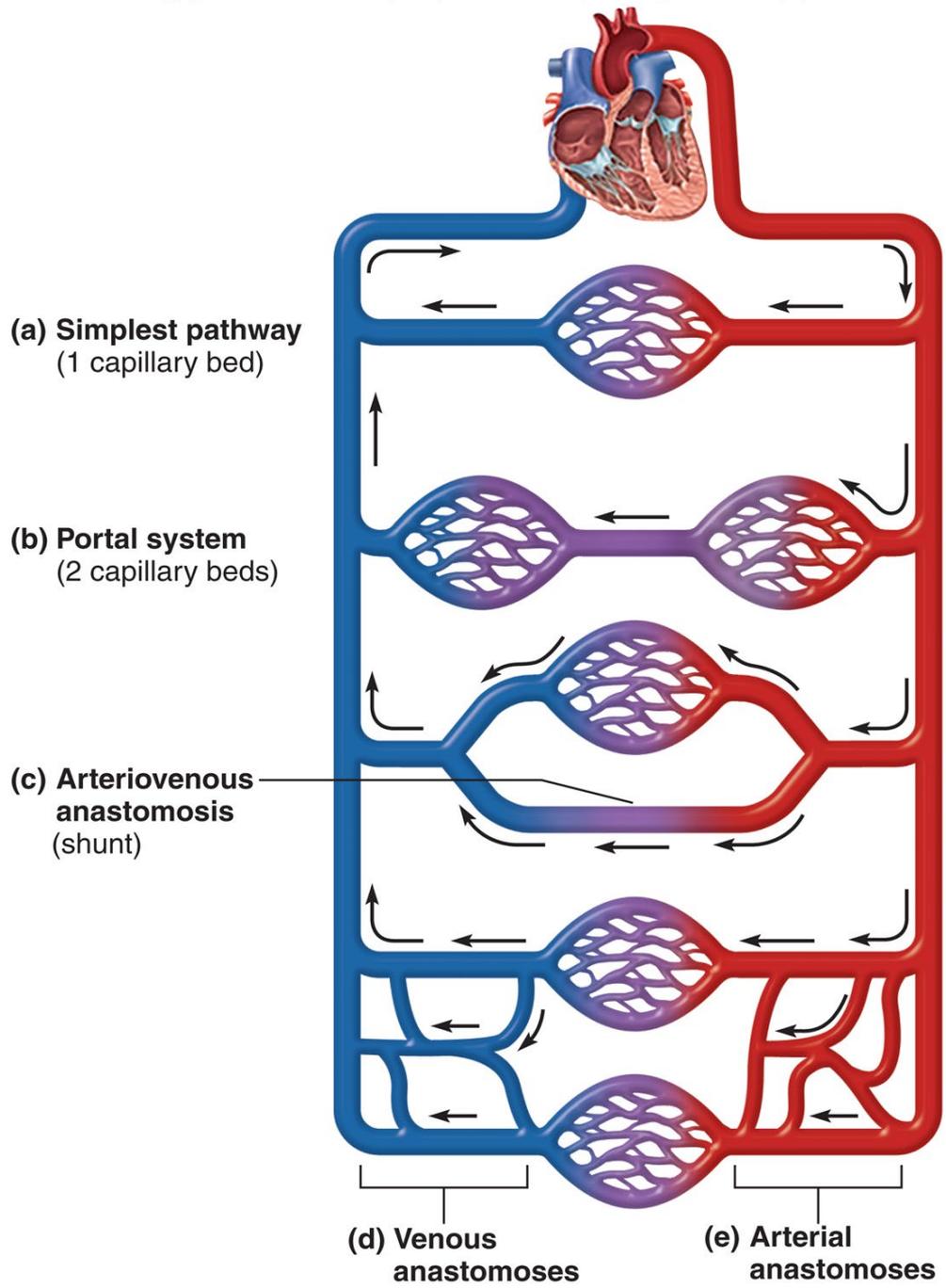
Venous anastomosis

- most common
- one vein empties directly into another
- vein blockage less serious
- arterial blockage more dangerous

Arterial anastomosis

- two arteries merge
- **provides collateral (alternative) routes**
- coronary circulation and around joints





(a) Simplest pathway
(1 capillary bed)

(b) Portal system
(2 capillary beds)

(c) Arteriovenous anastomosis
(shunt)

(d) Venous anastomoses

(e) Arterial anastomoses

Aneurysm

Weak point in a wall of an artery

Forms a thin-walled, bulging sac that pulsates with each heartbeat and may rupture at any time

Dissecting aneurysm - blood accumulates between the tunics of the artery and separates them, usually because of degeneration of the tunica media

Most common sites // abdominal aorta, renal arteries, and arterial circle at the base of the brain

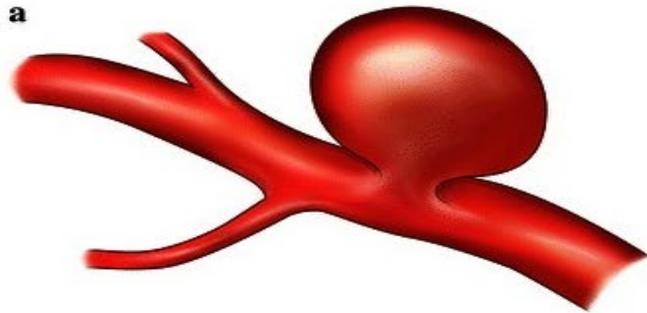
Can cause pain by putting pressure on other structures

Can rupture causing hemorrhage

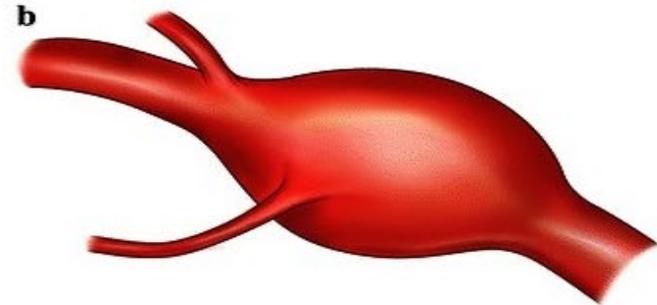
Result from congenital weakness of the blood vessels or result of trauma or bacterial infections such as syphilis

Most common cause is atherosclerosis and hypertension

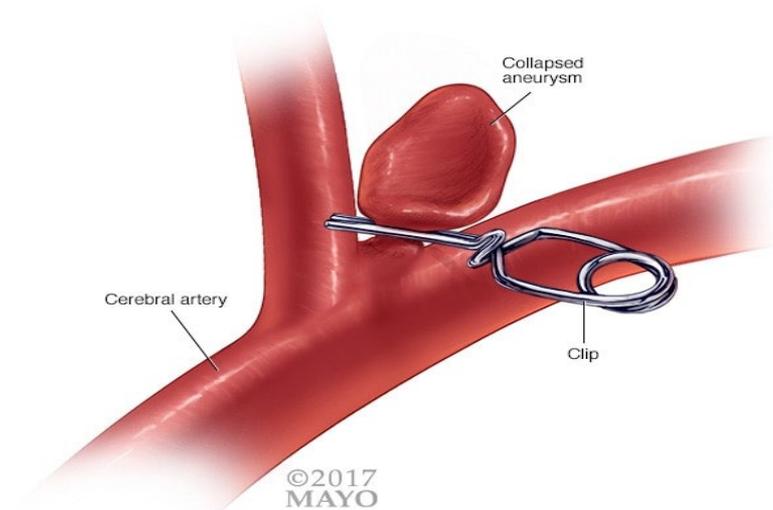
Aneurysm



Saccular Aneurysm



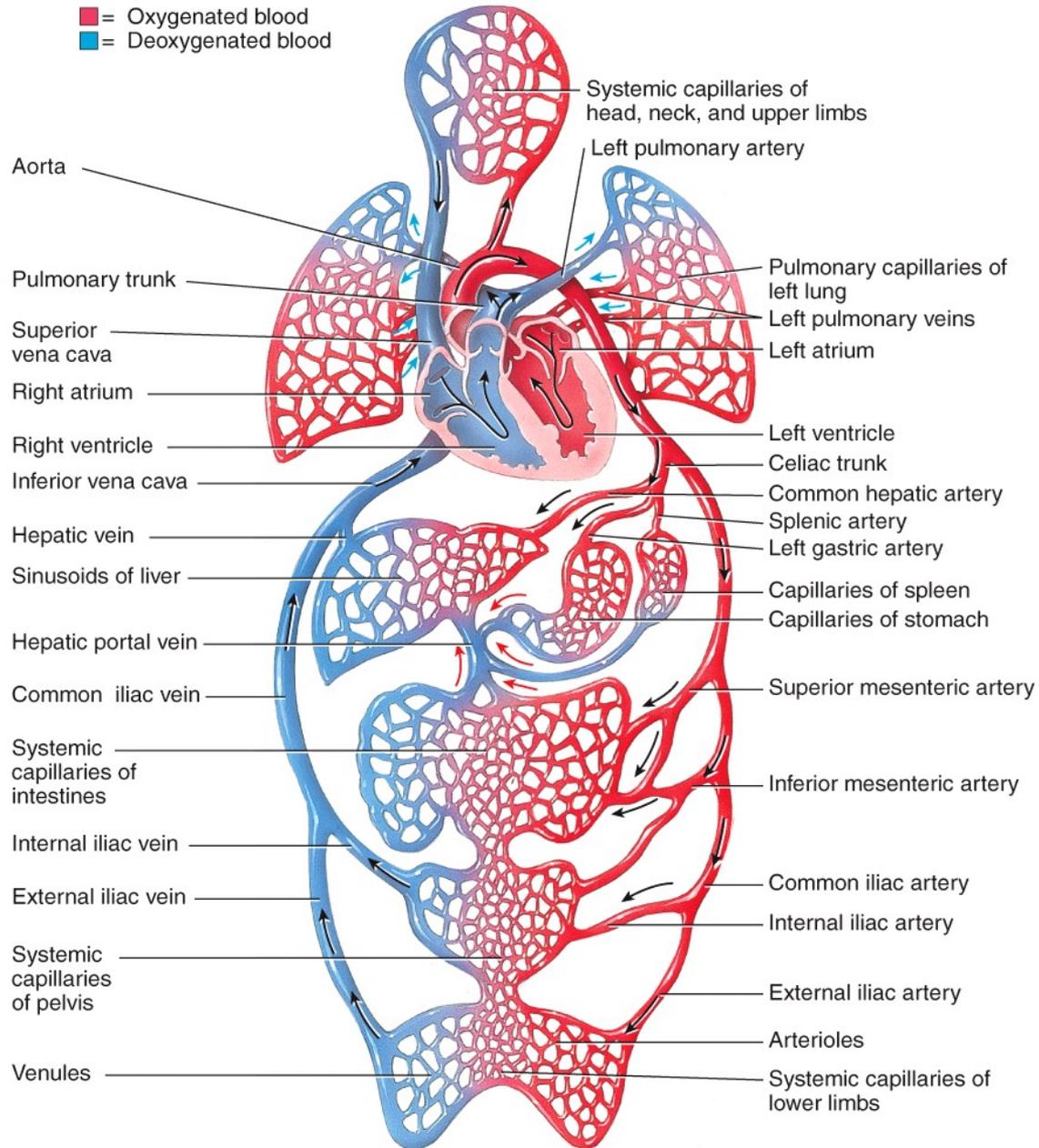
Fusiform Aneurysm

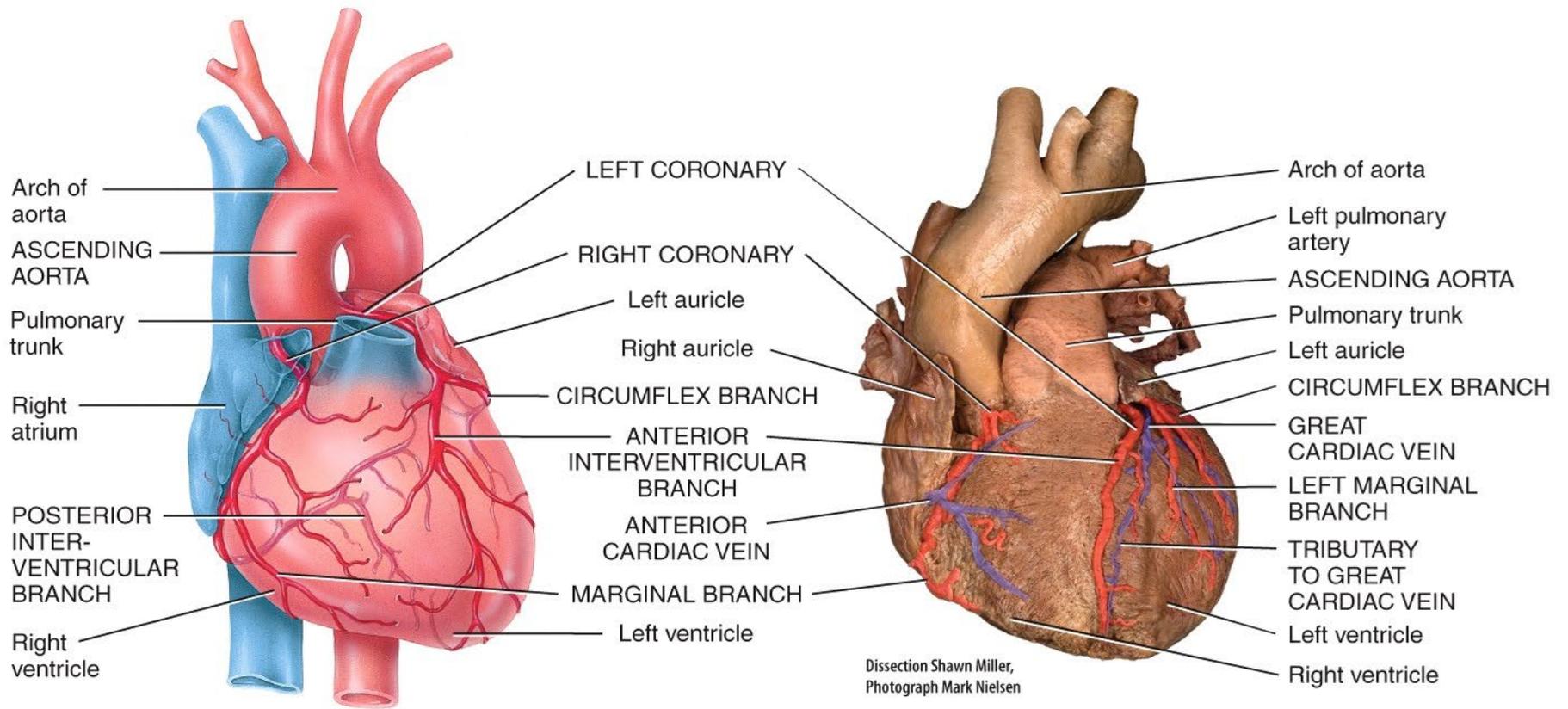


Lecture Objectives Stop

Review of Blood Vessels

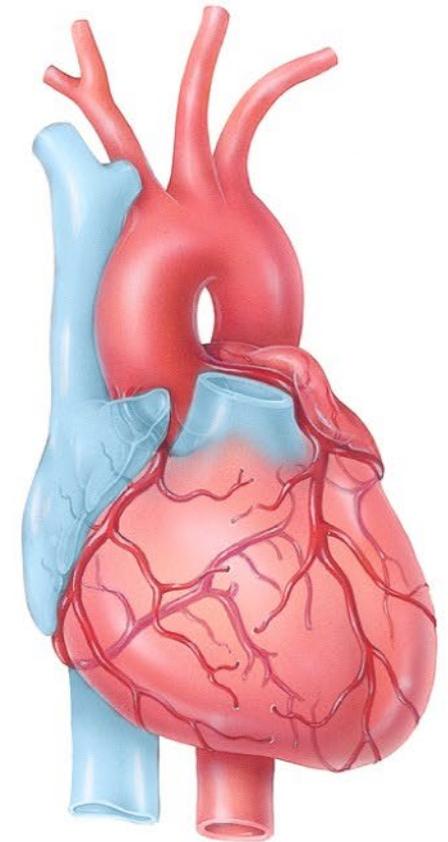
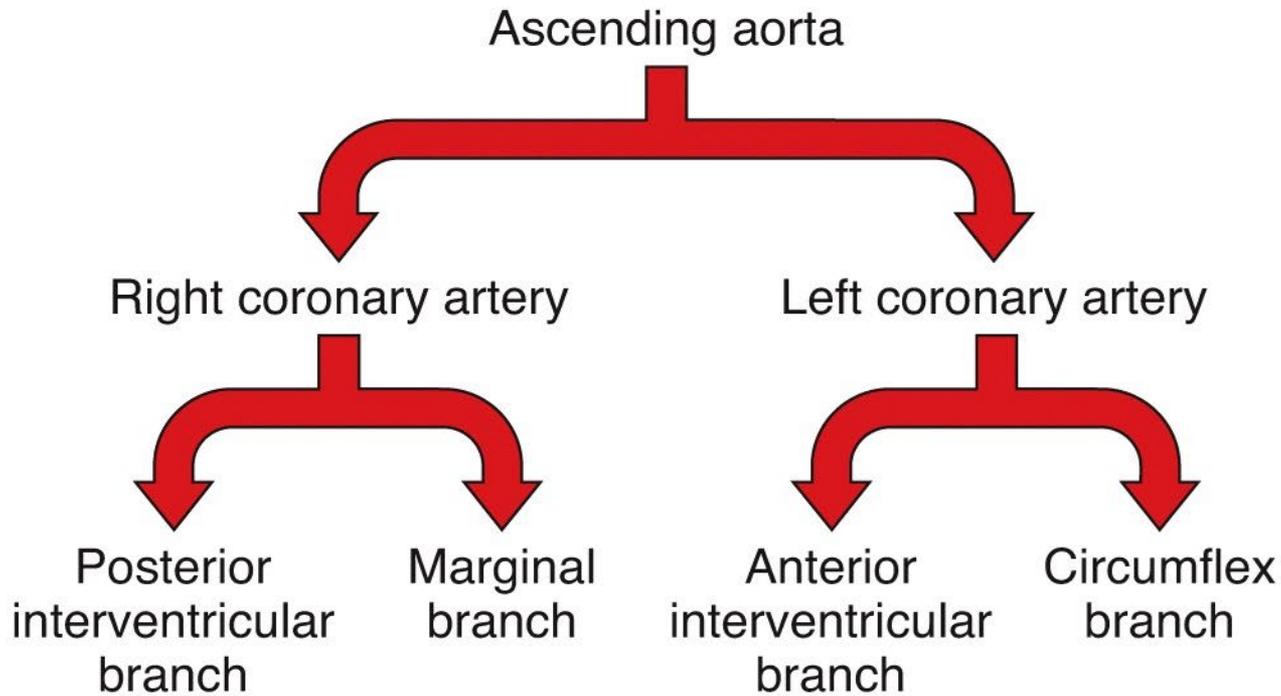
■ = Oxygenated blood
 ■ = Deoxygenated blood

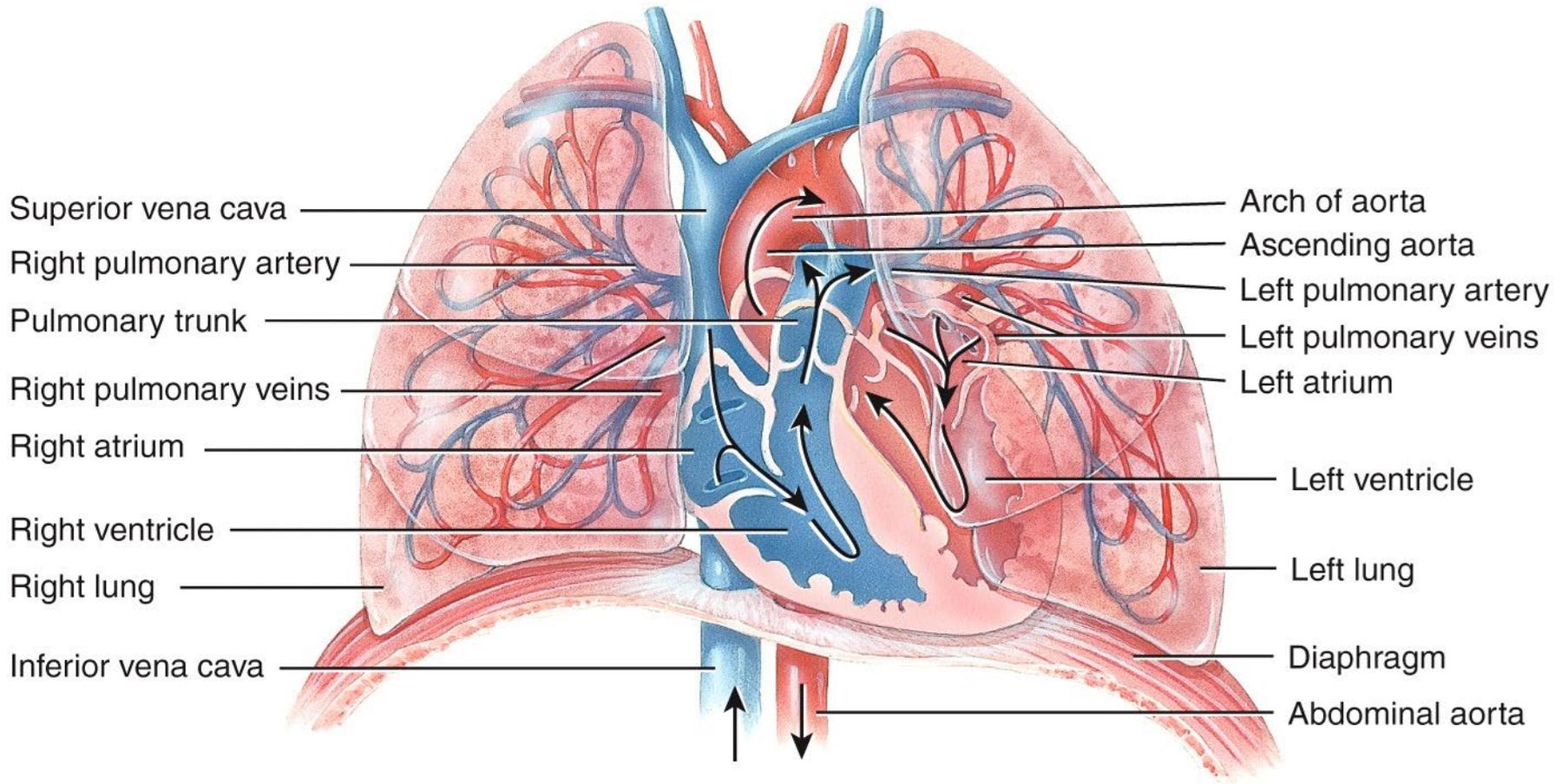




Anterior view of coronary arteries and their major branches

SCHEME OF DISTRIBUTION

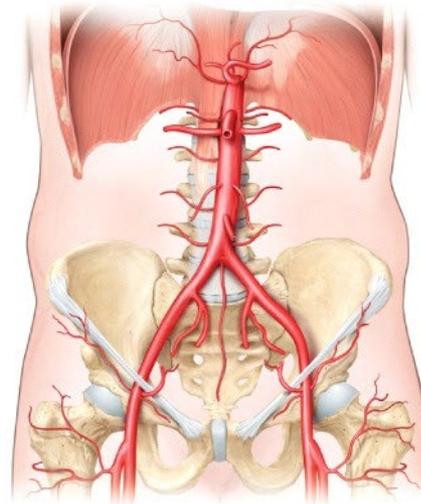
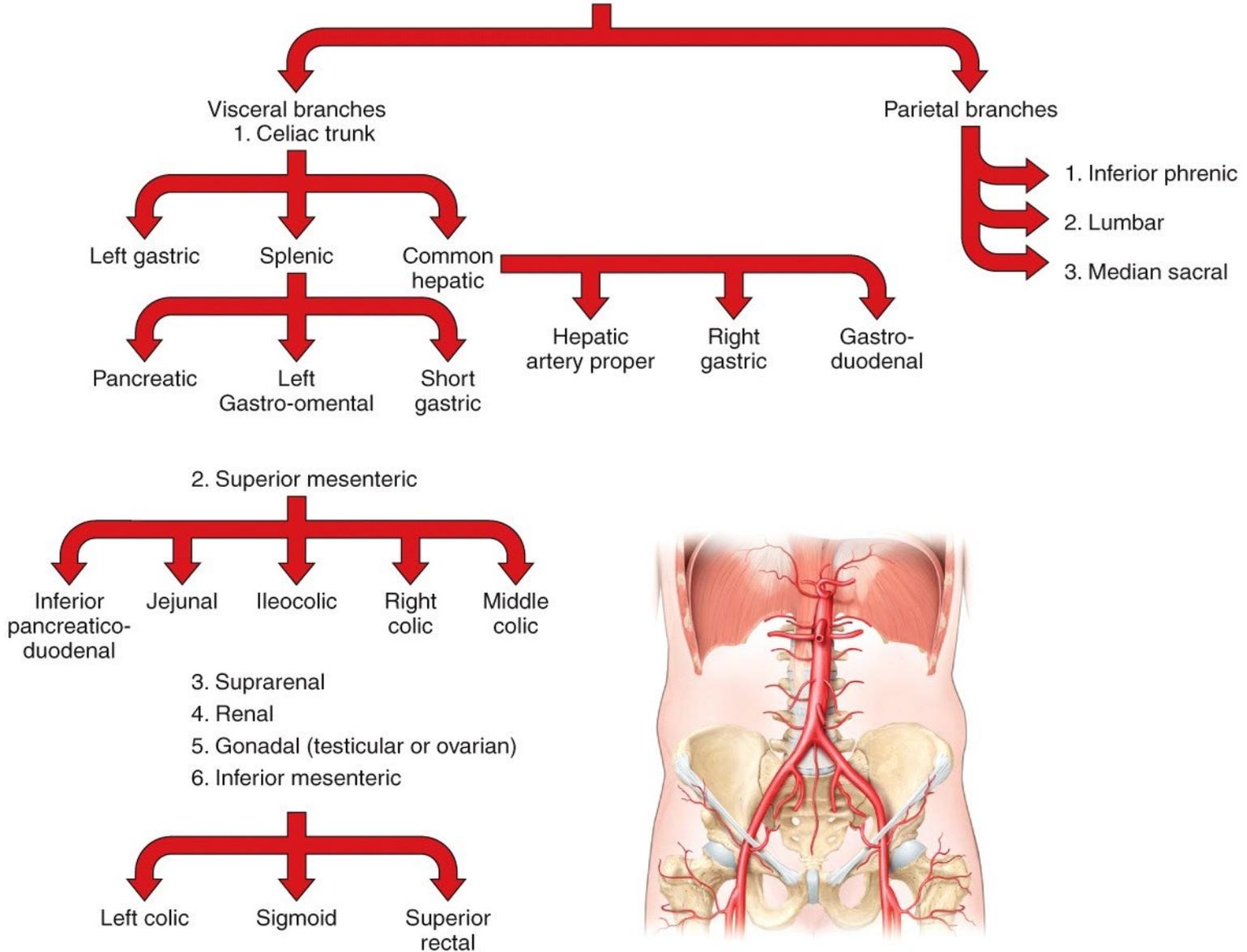




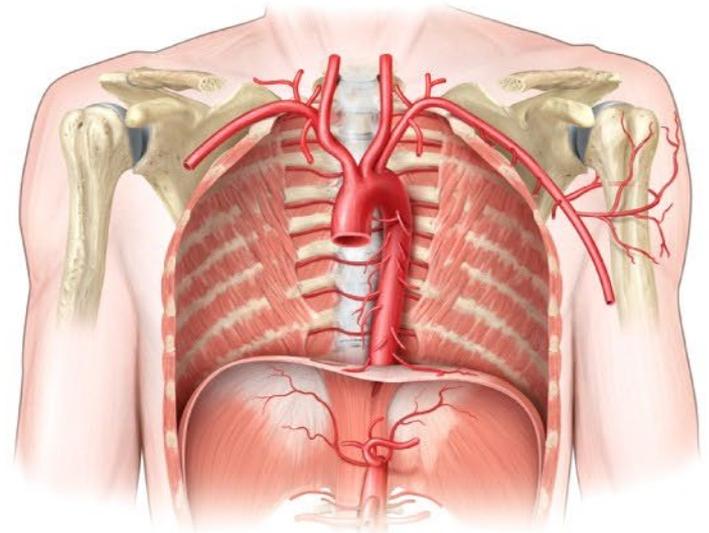
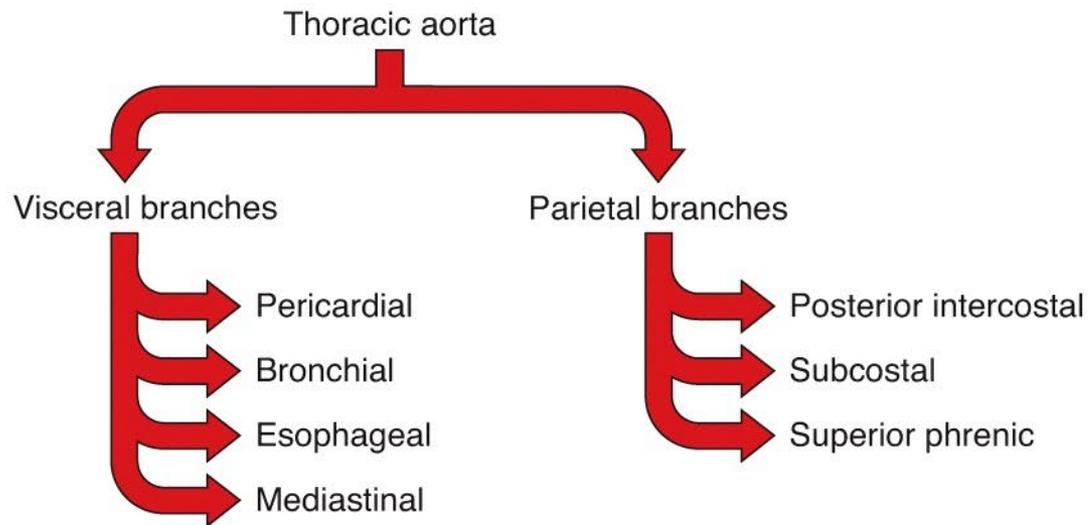
(a) Anterior view

SCHEME OF DISTRIBUTION

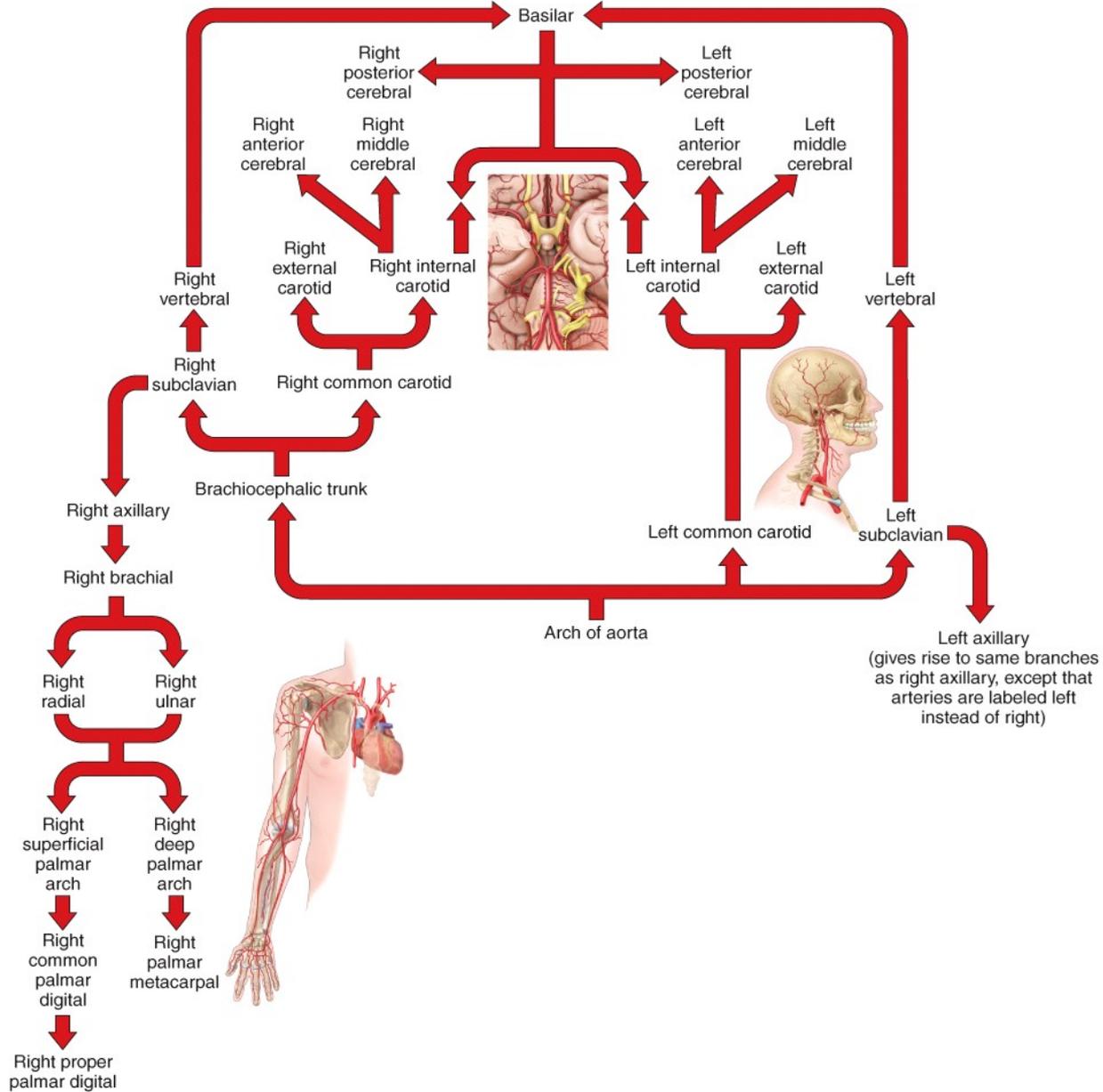
Abdominal aorta



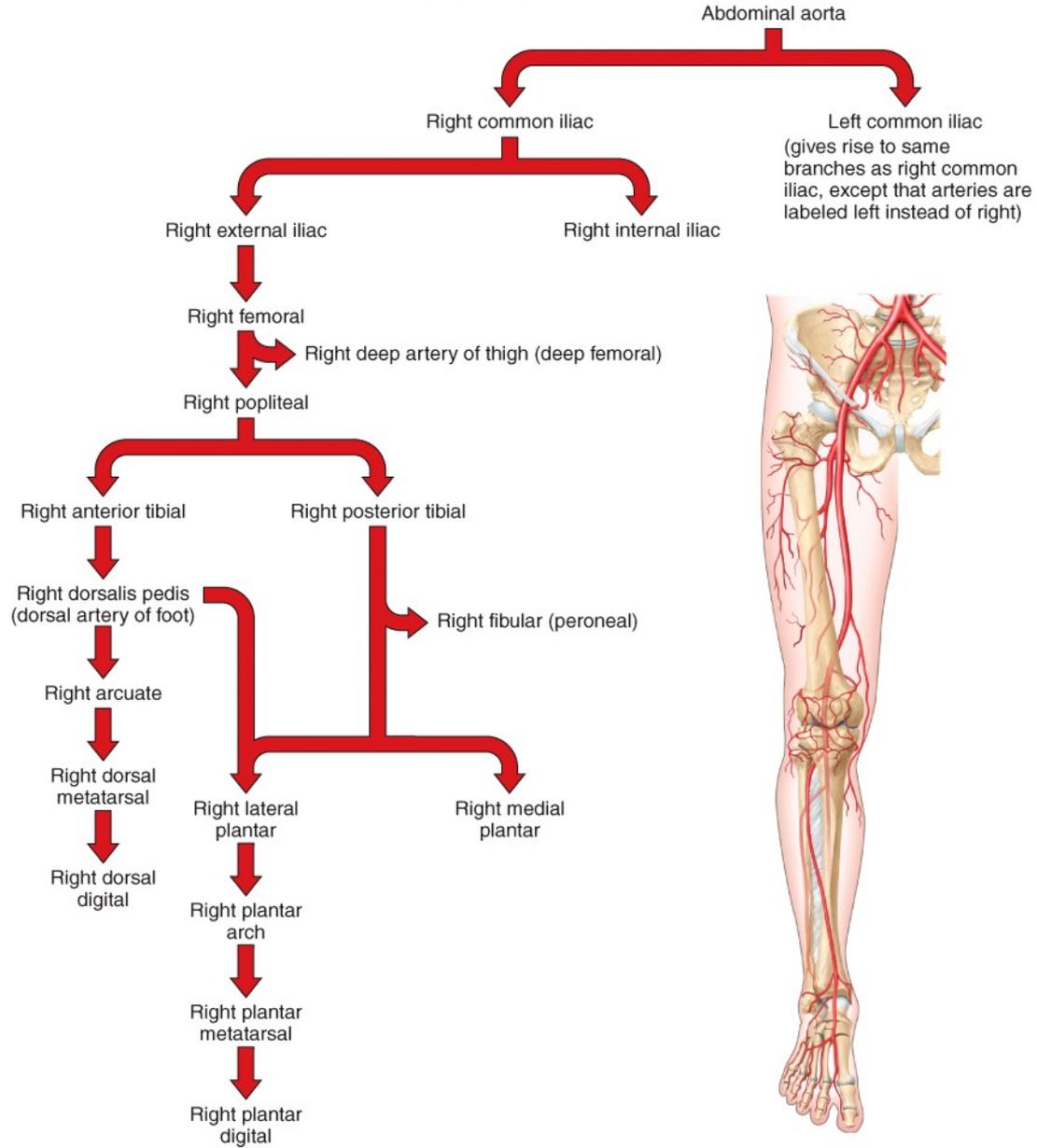
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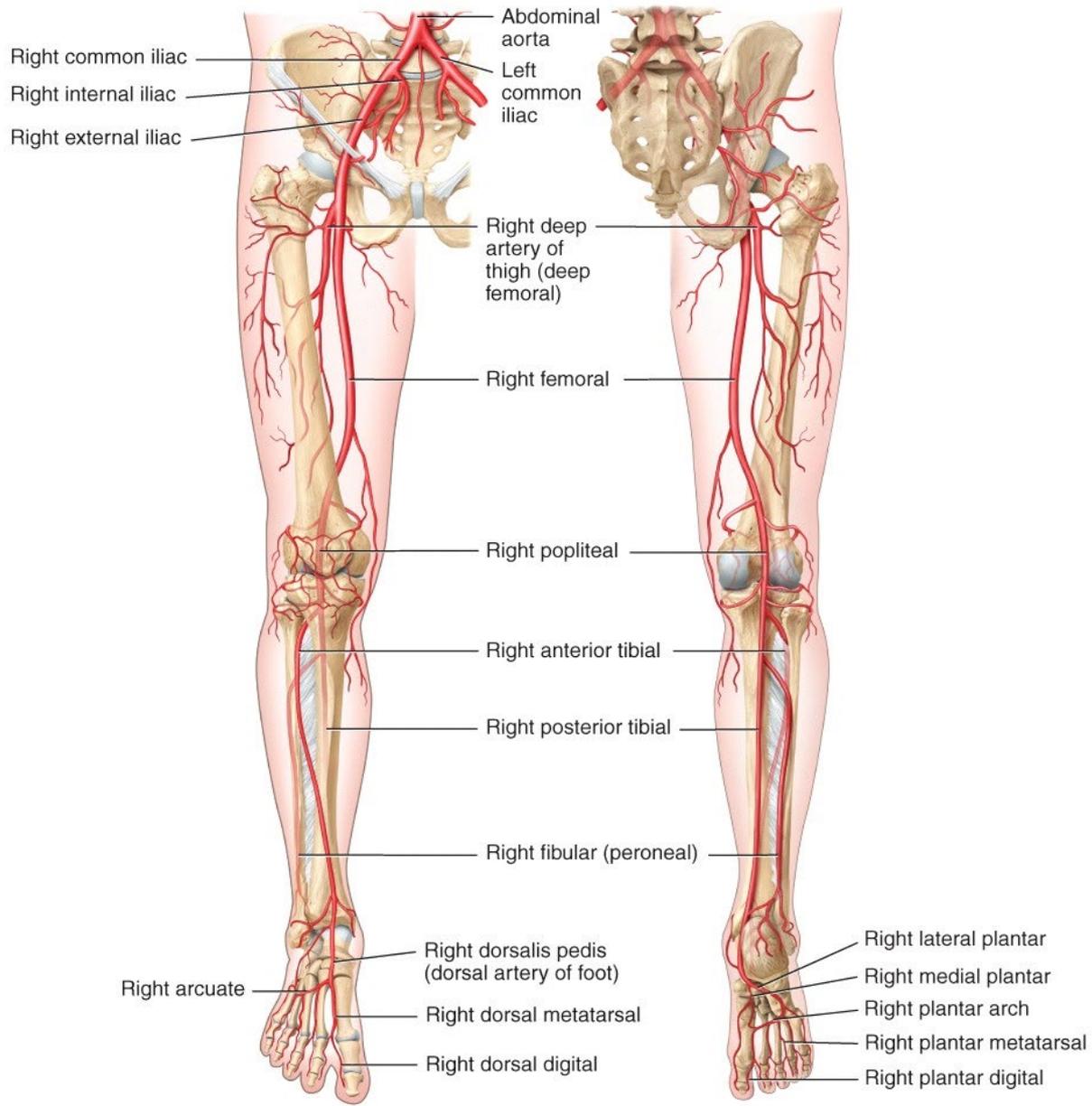


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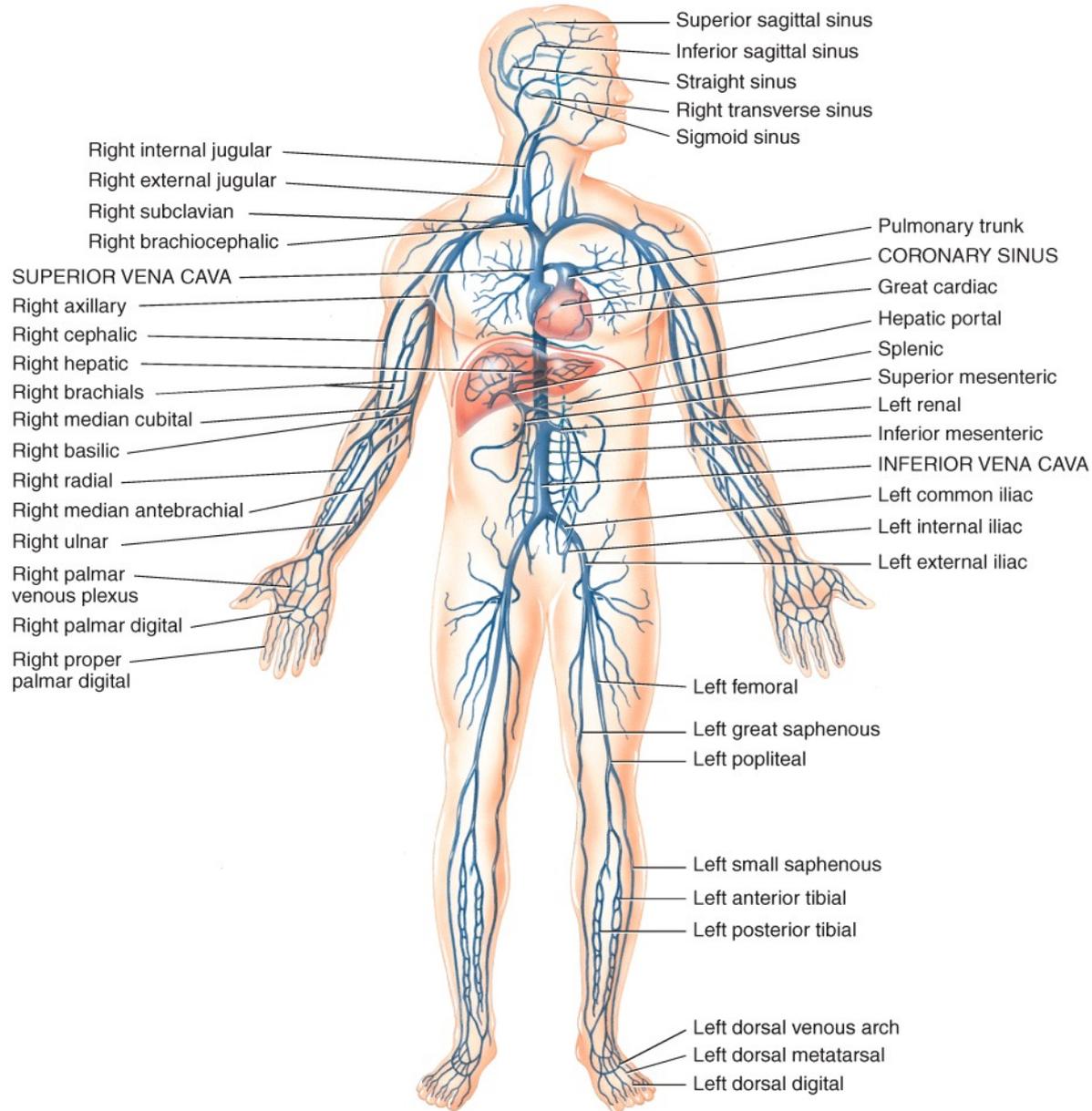
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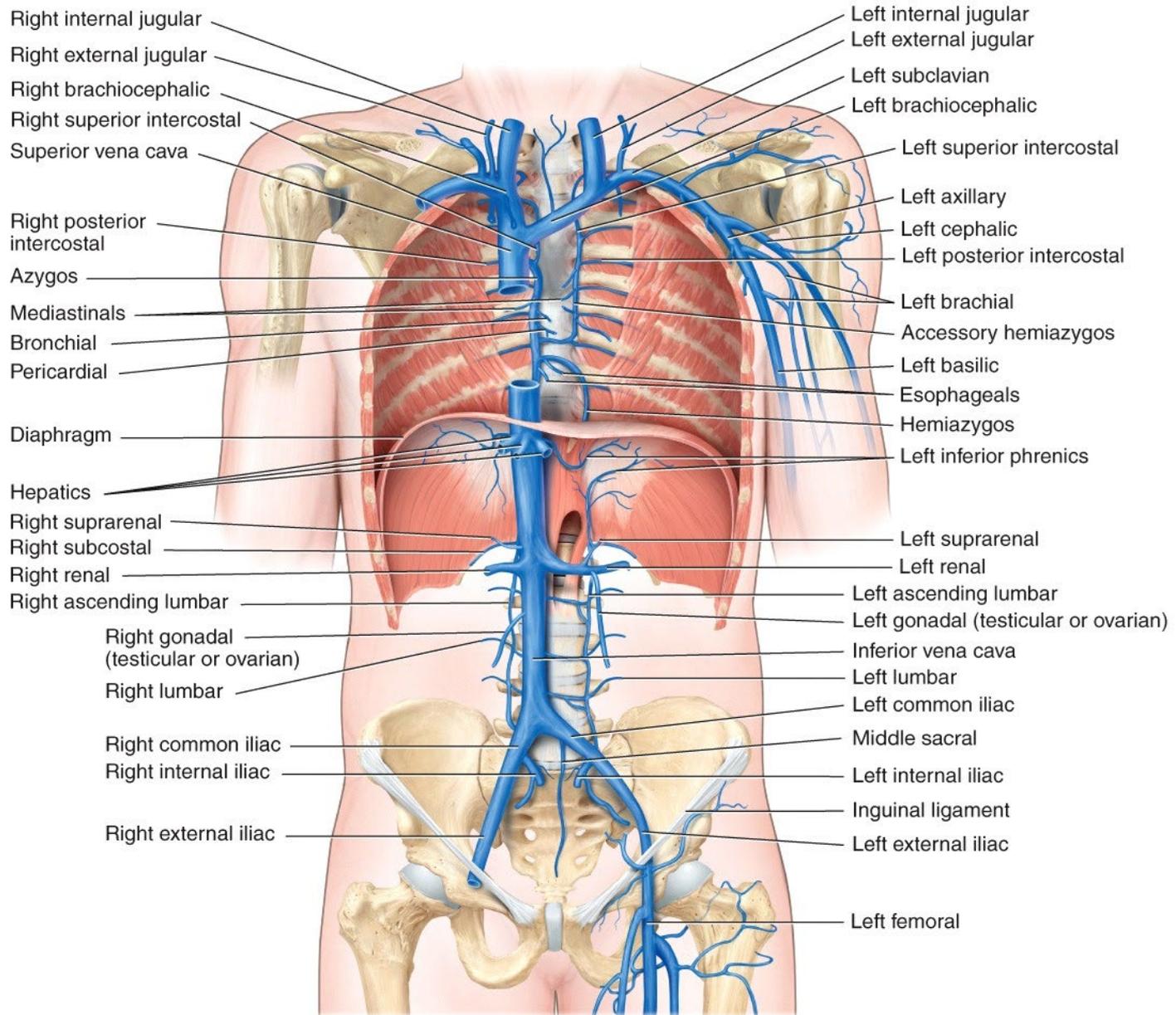


(a) Anterior view

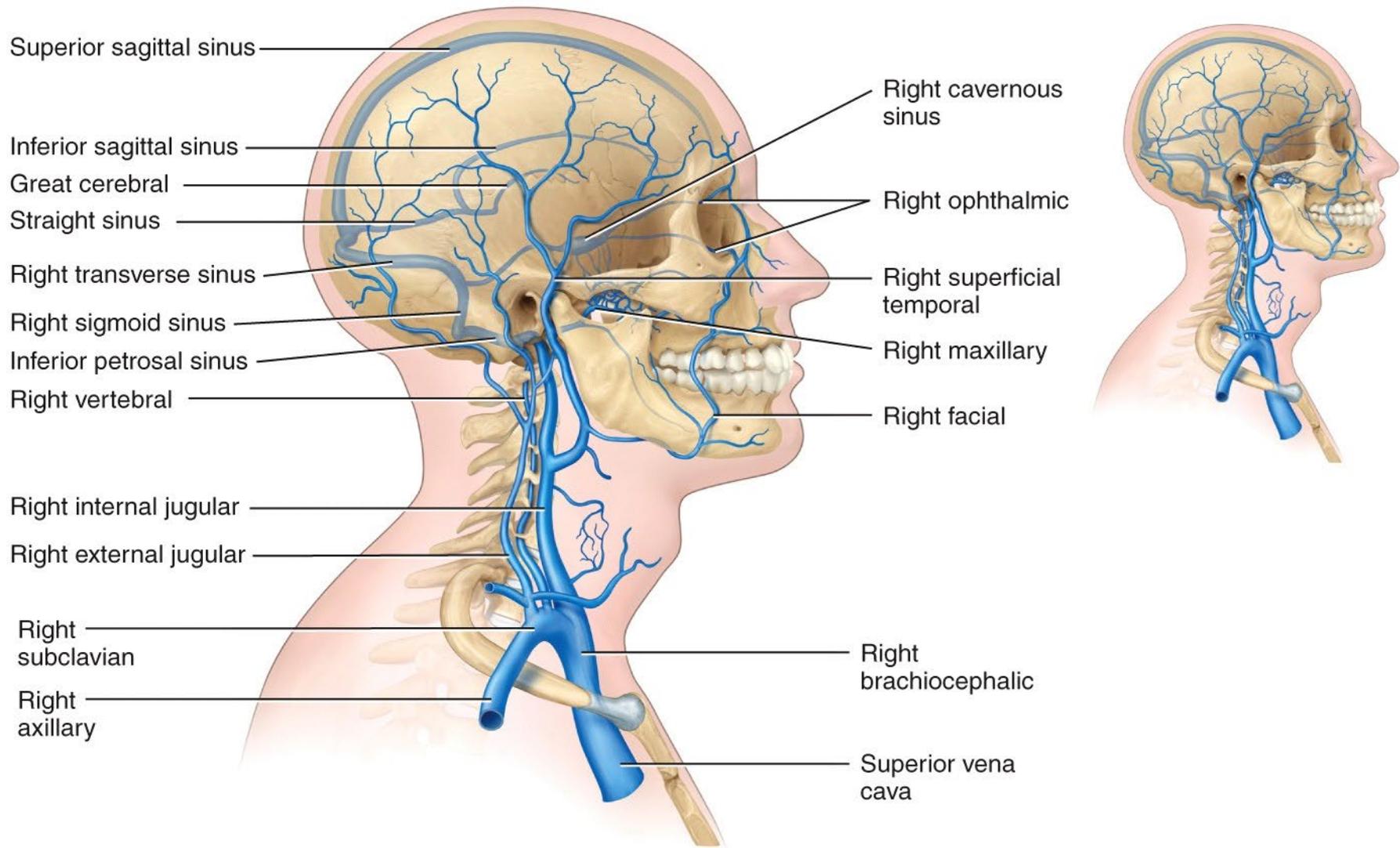
(b) Posterior view



Overall anterior view of the principal veins

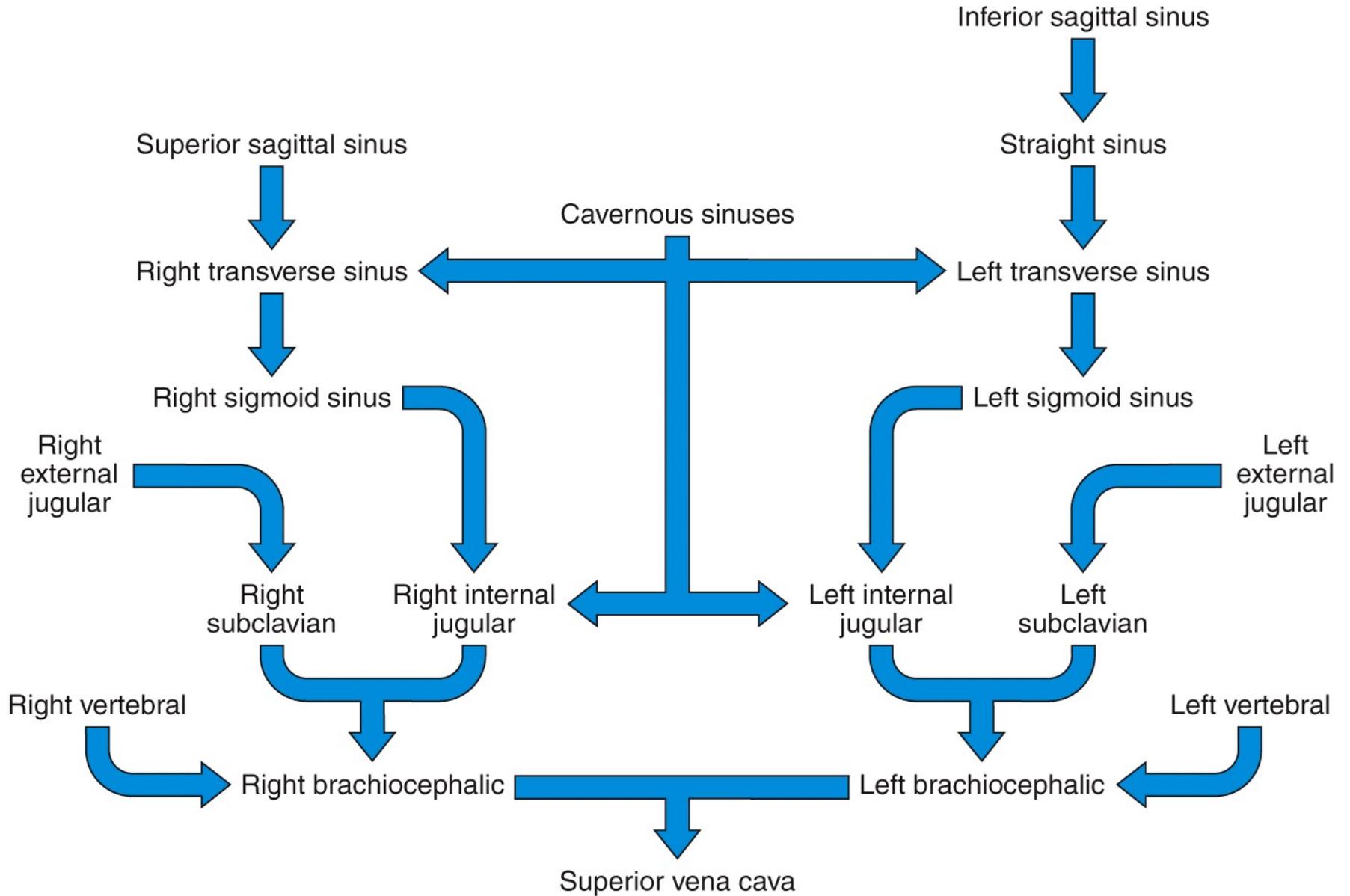


Anterior view

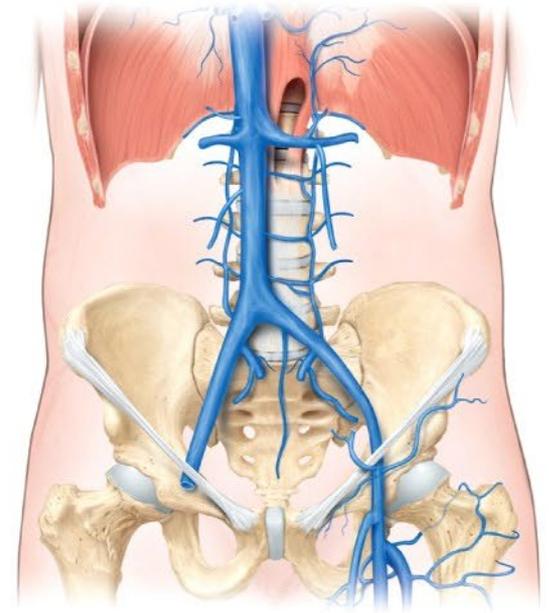
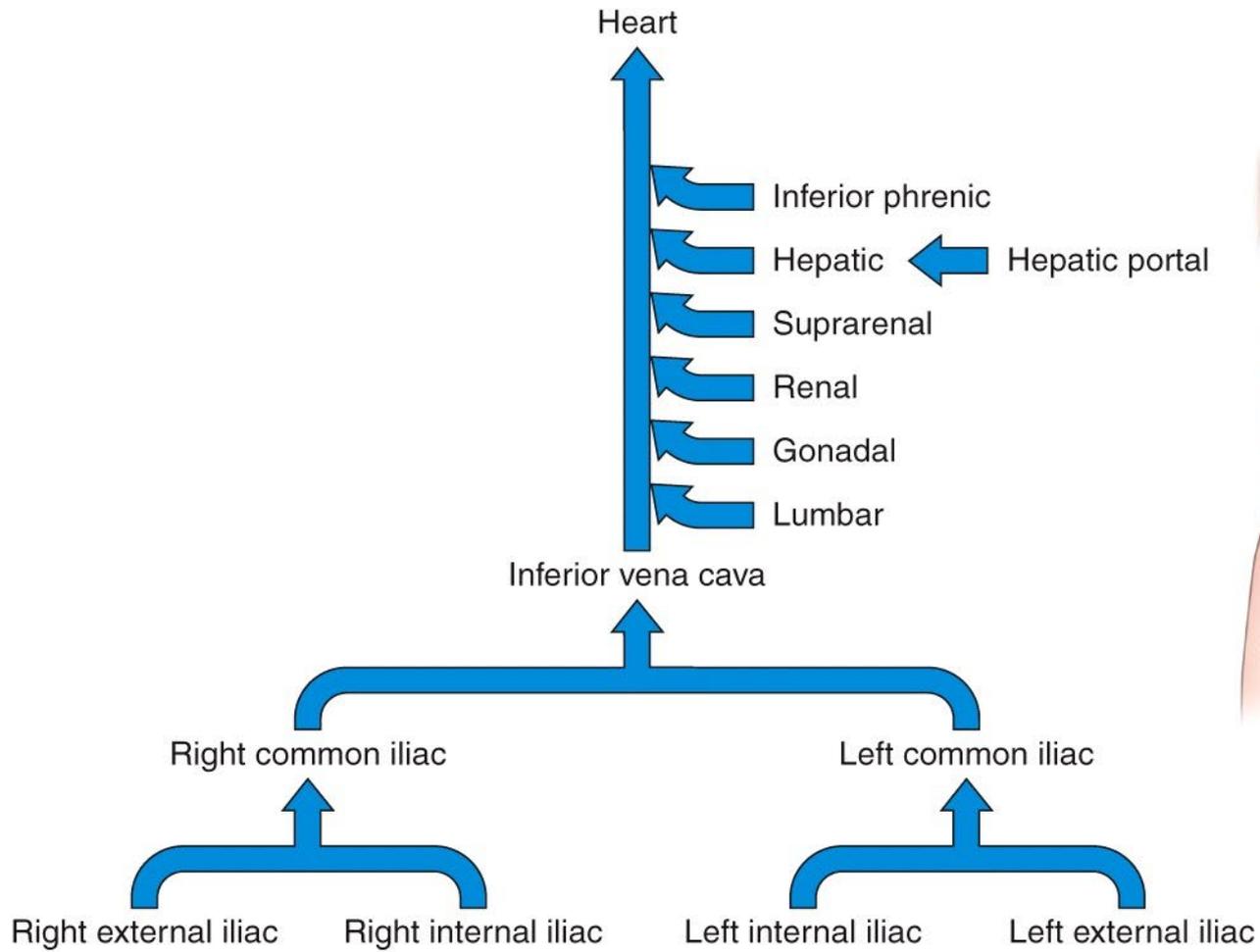


Right lateral view

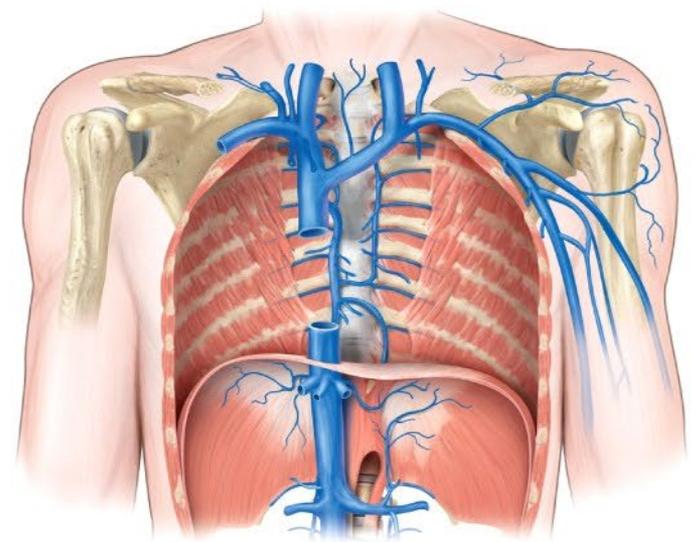
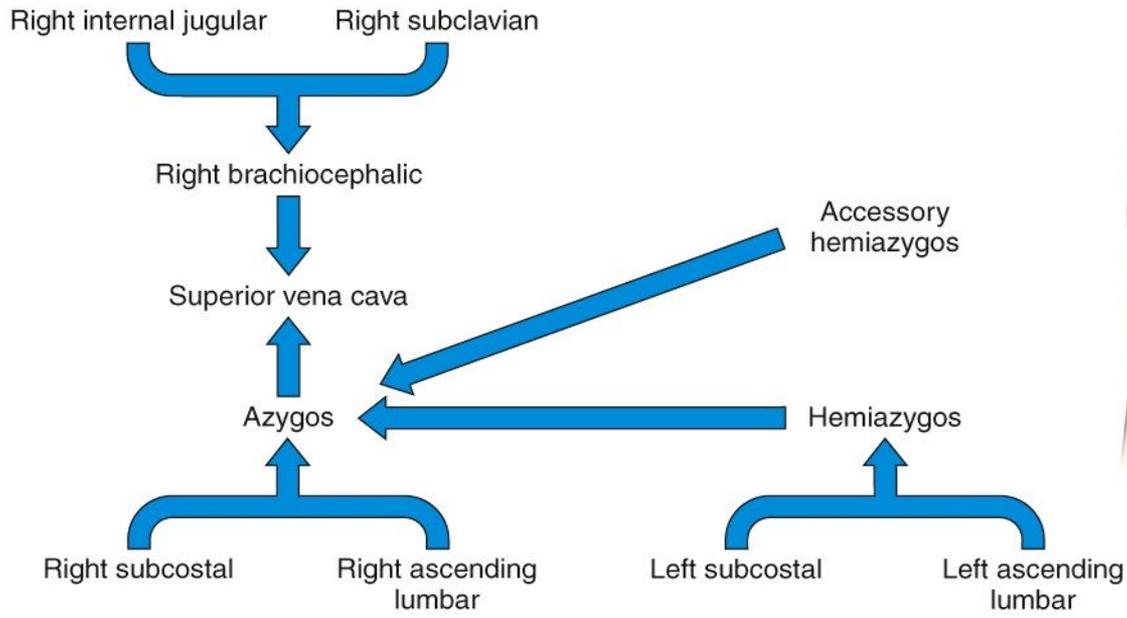
SCHEME OF DRAINAGE



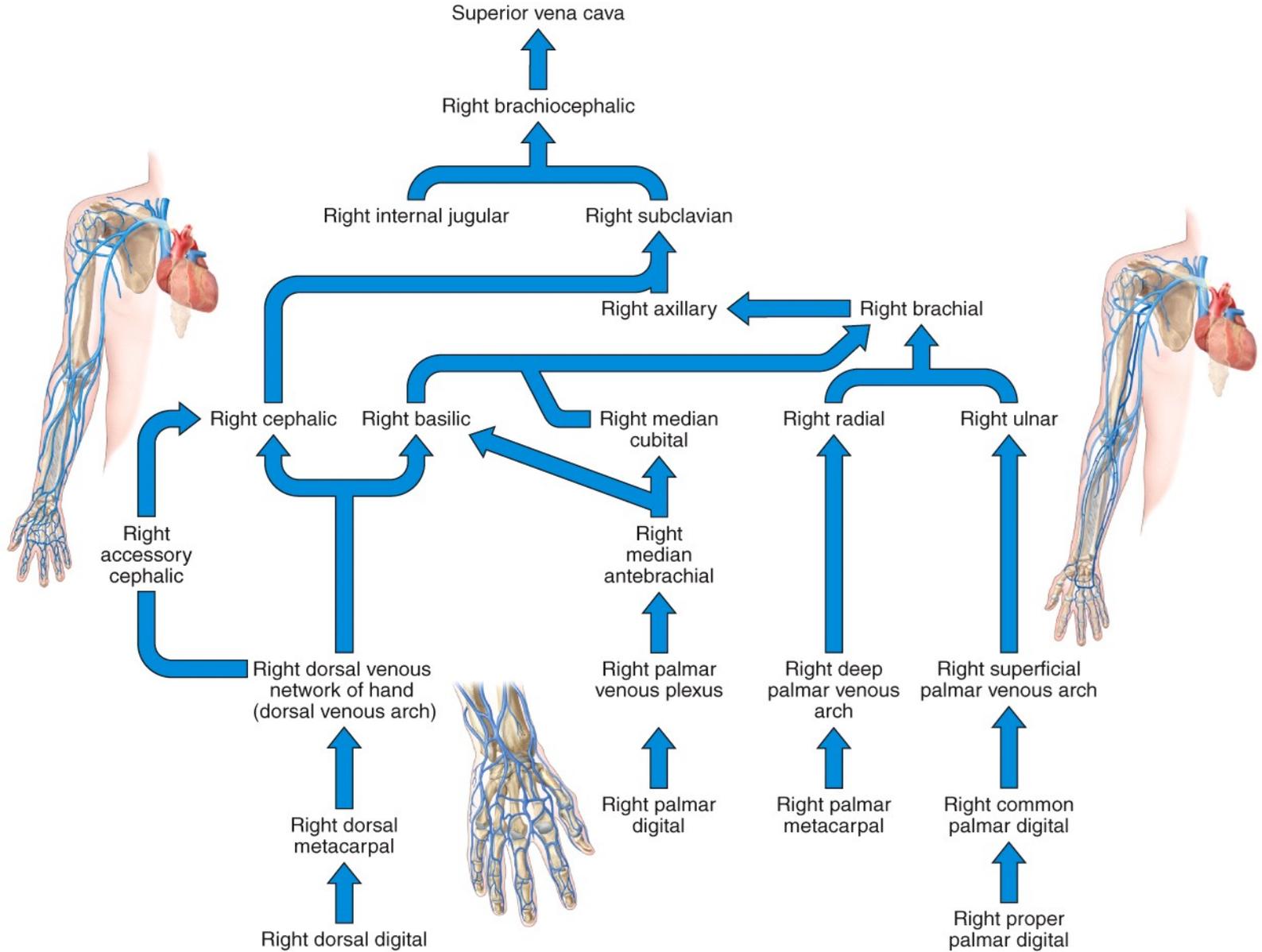
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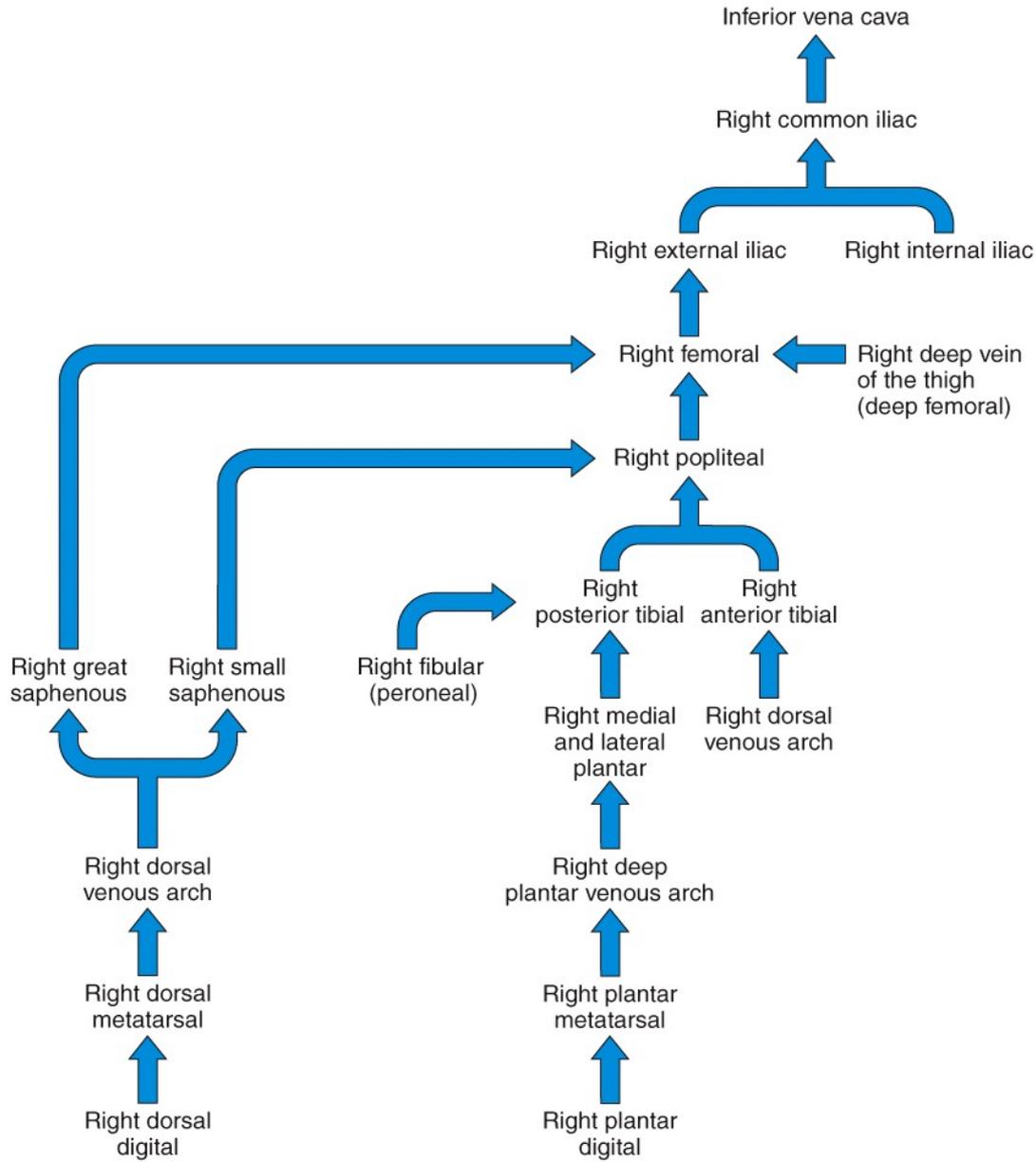
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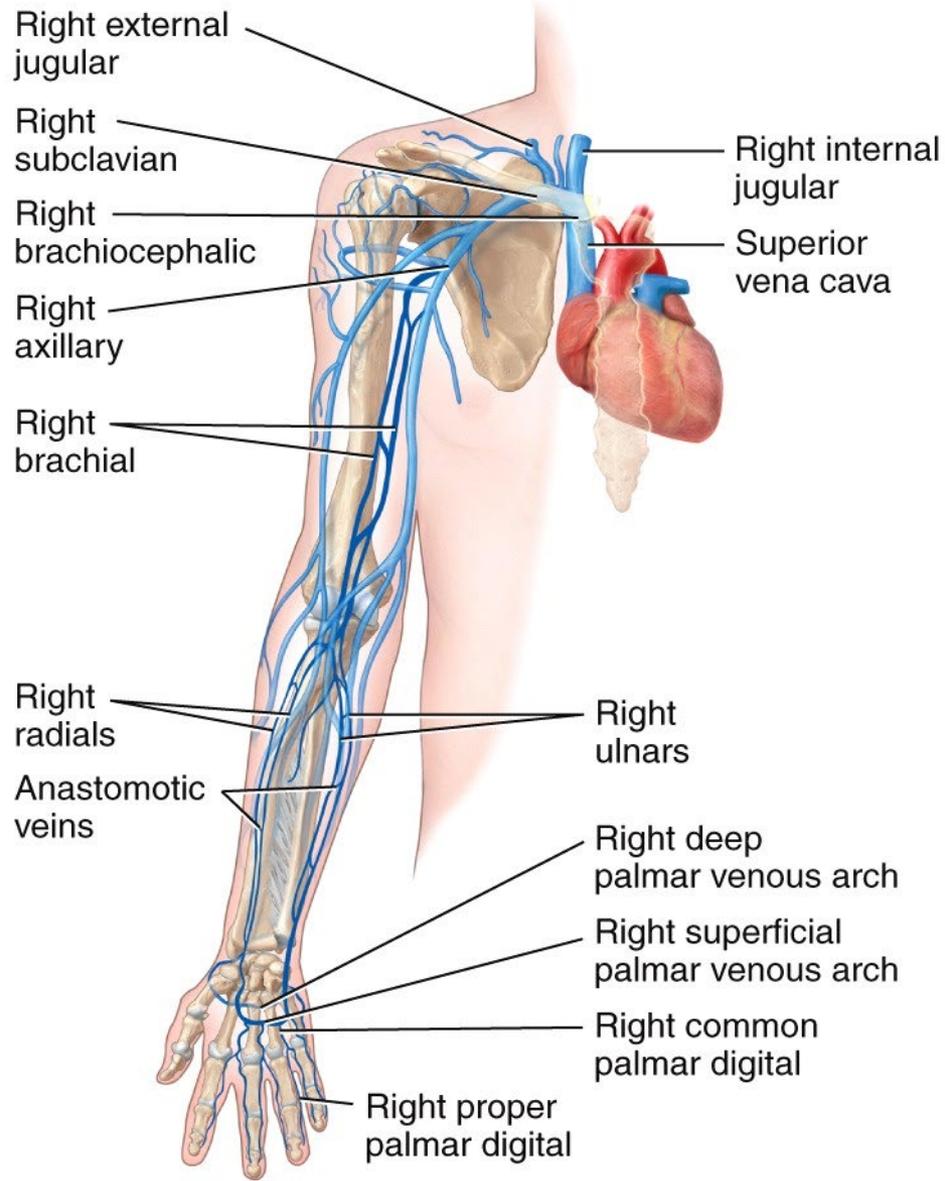


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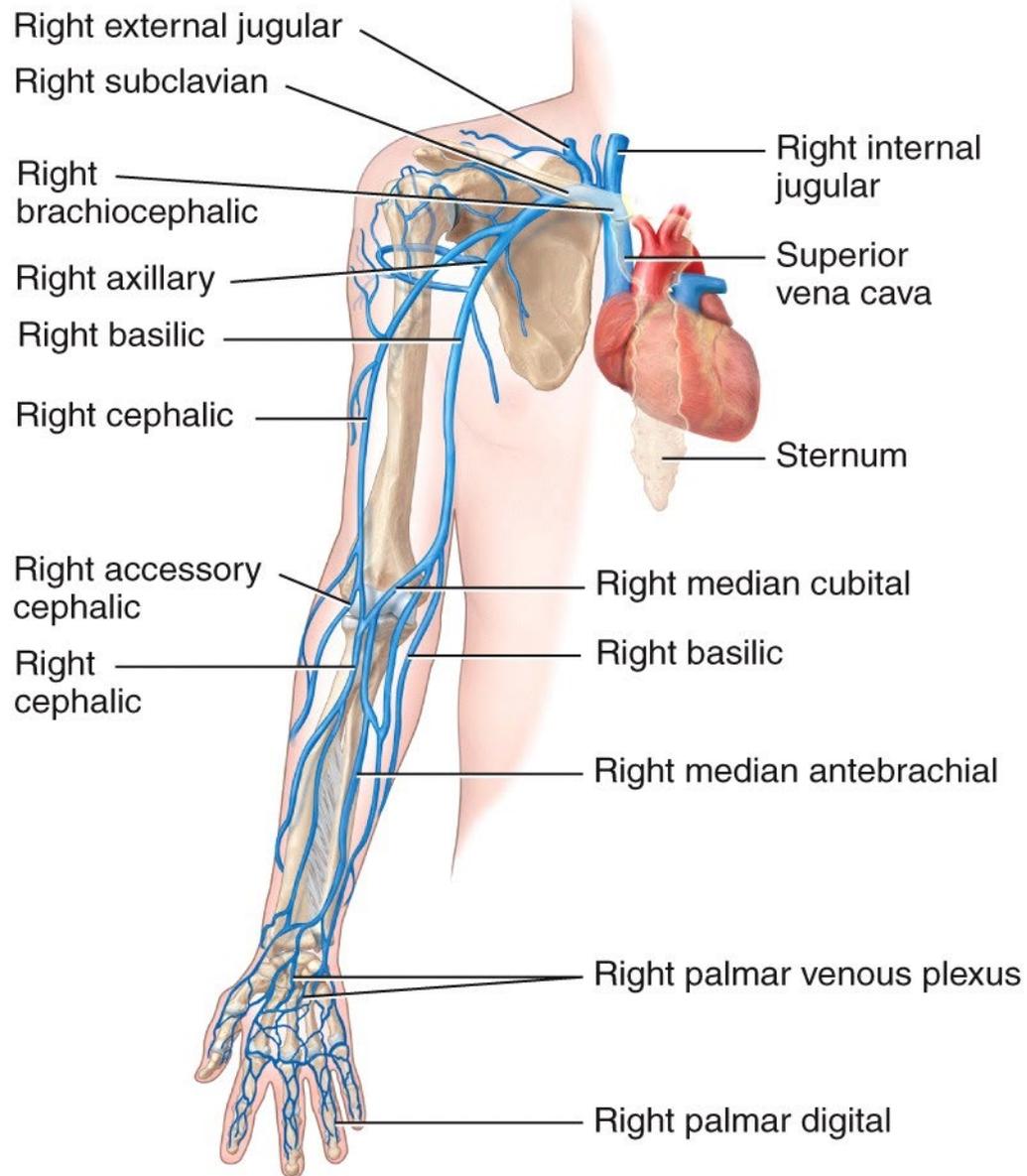


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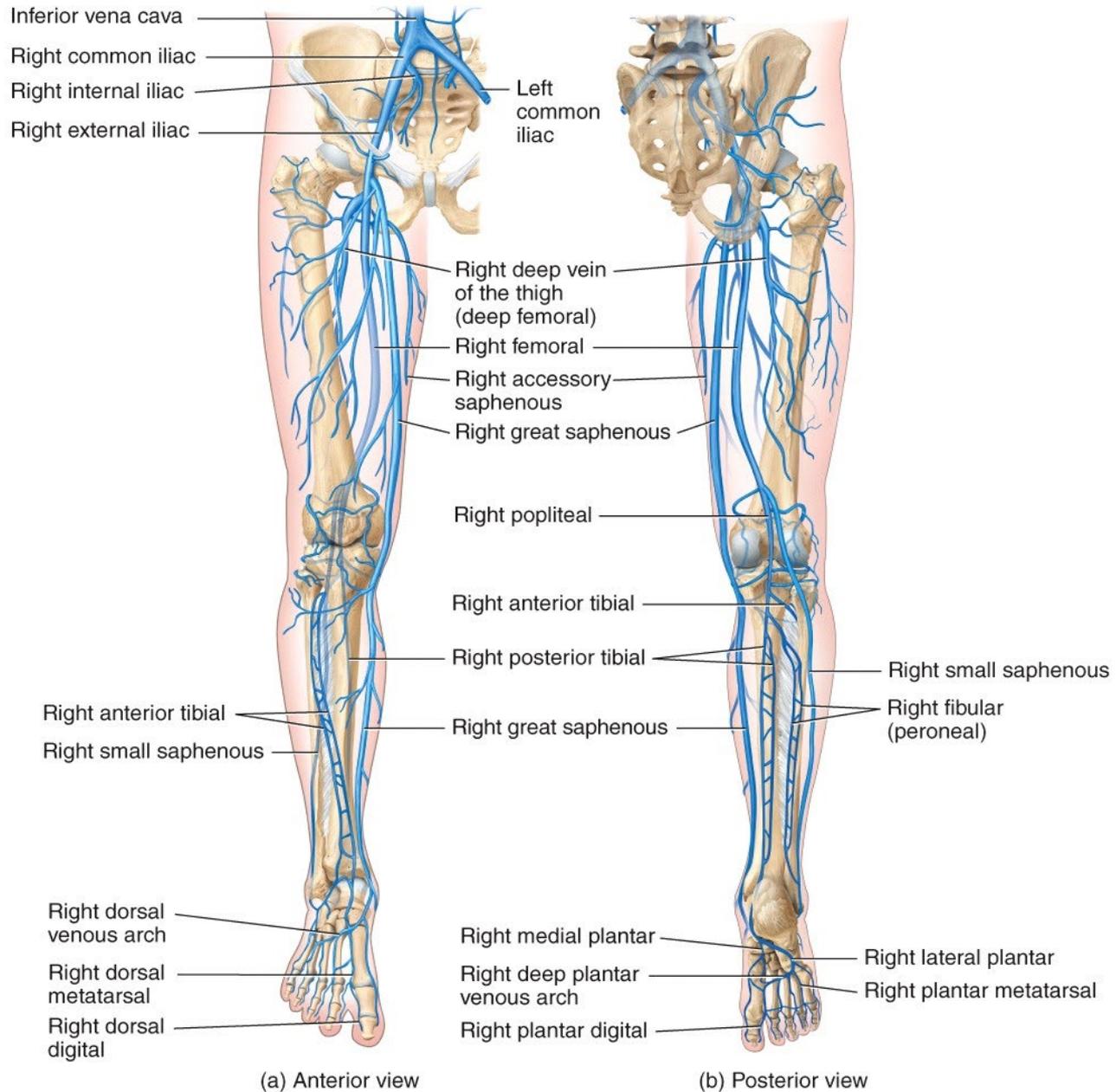




(b) Anterior view of deep veins

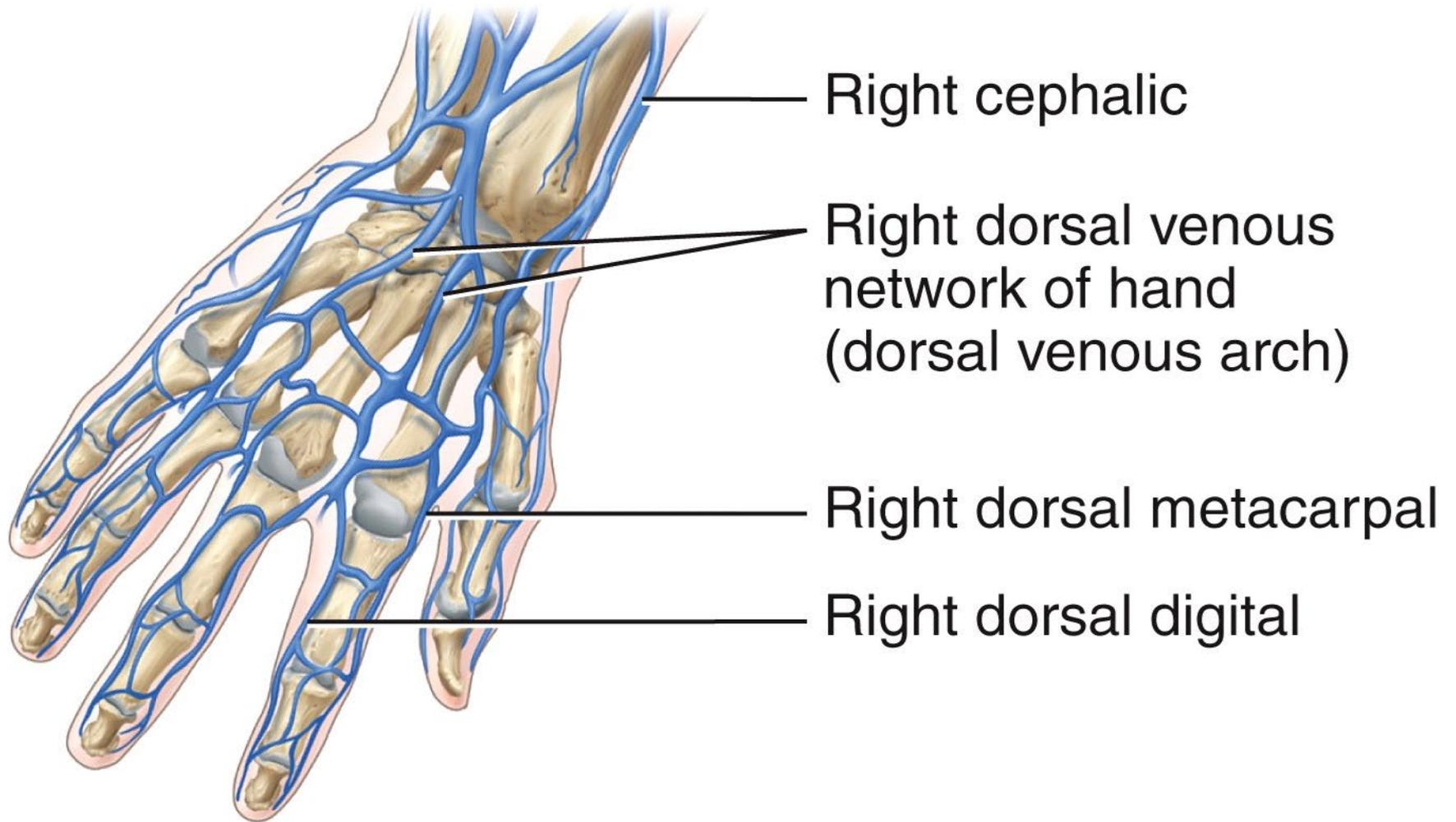


(a) Anterior view of superficial veins

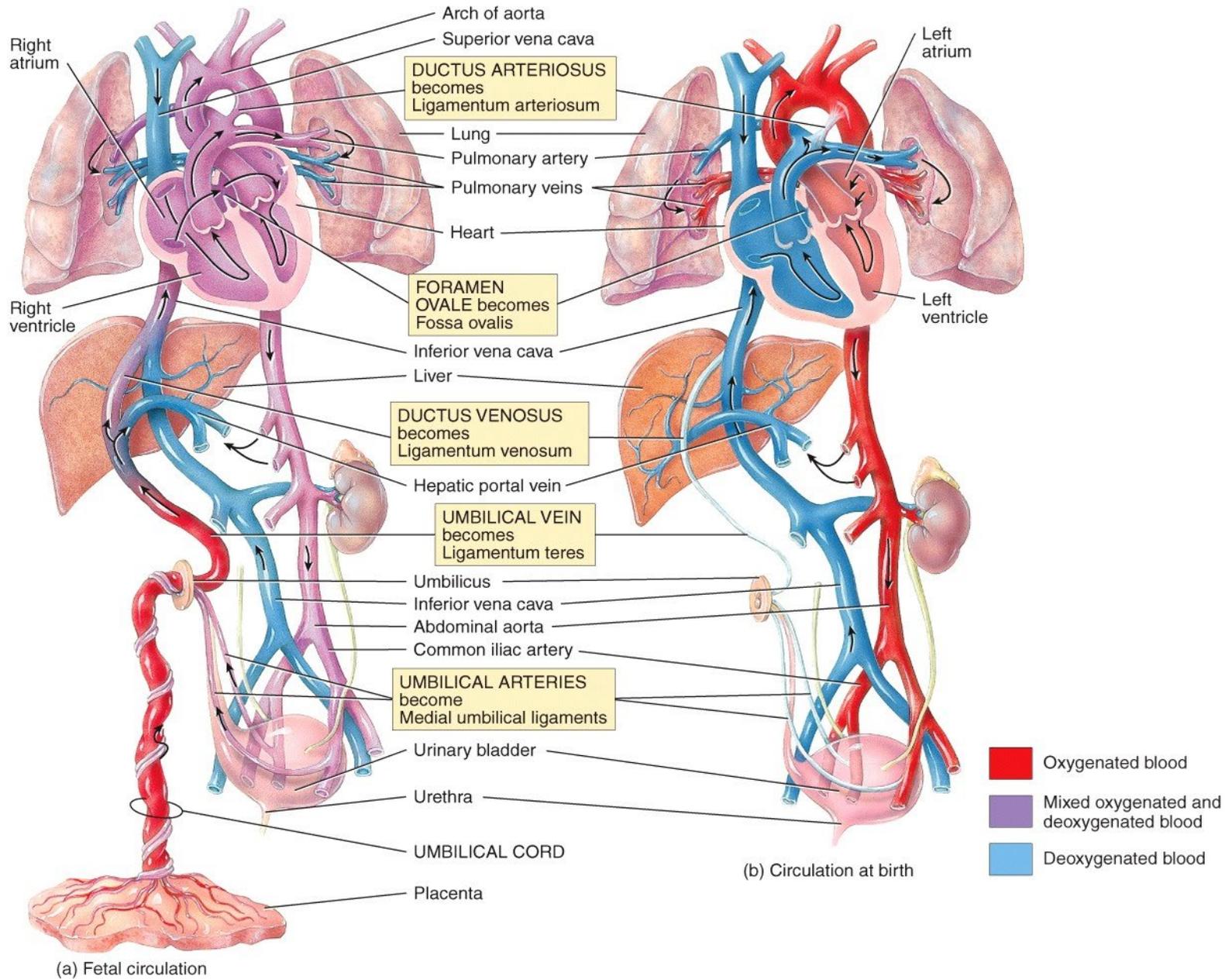


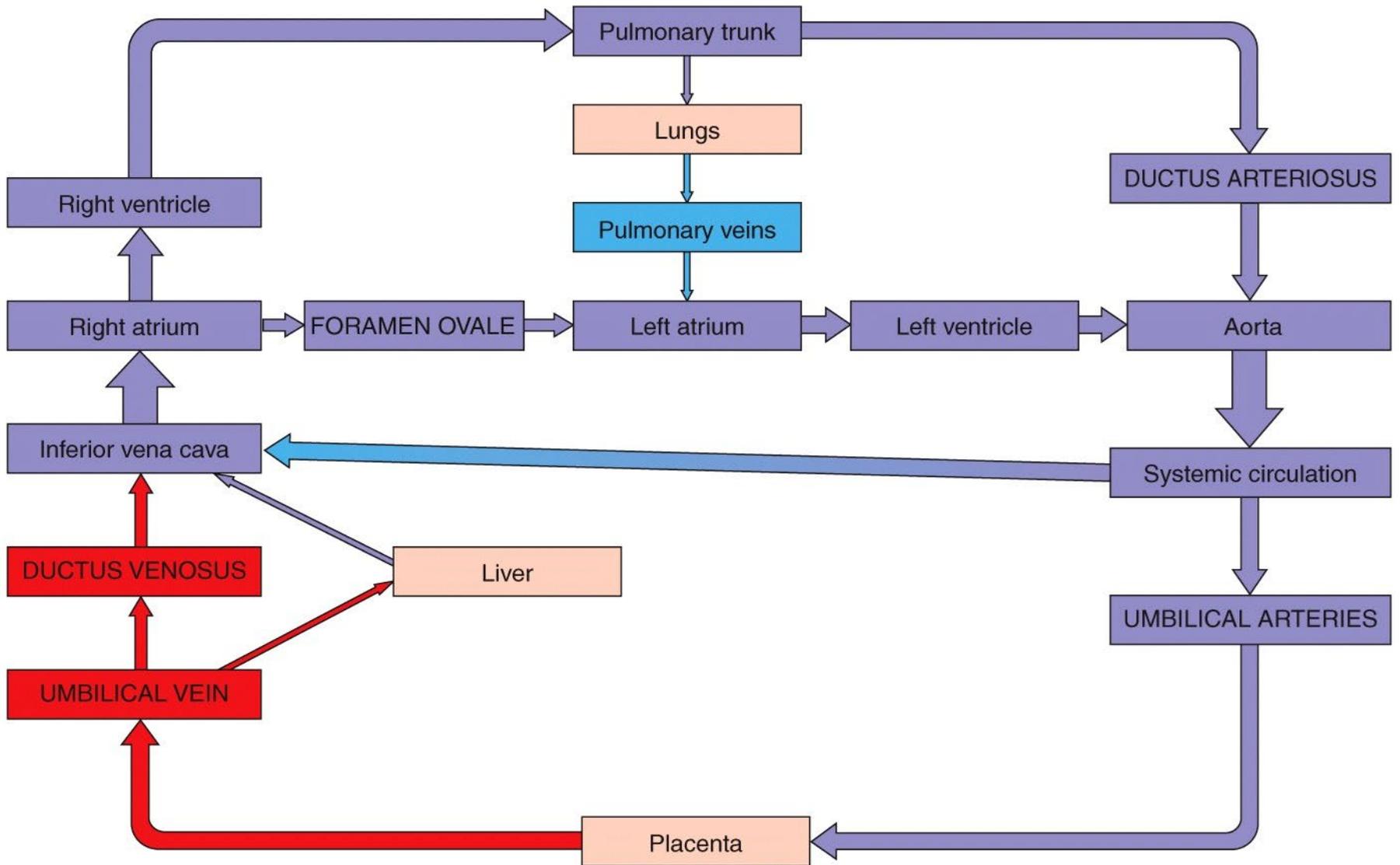
(a) Anterior view

(b) Posterior view

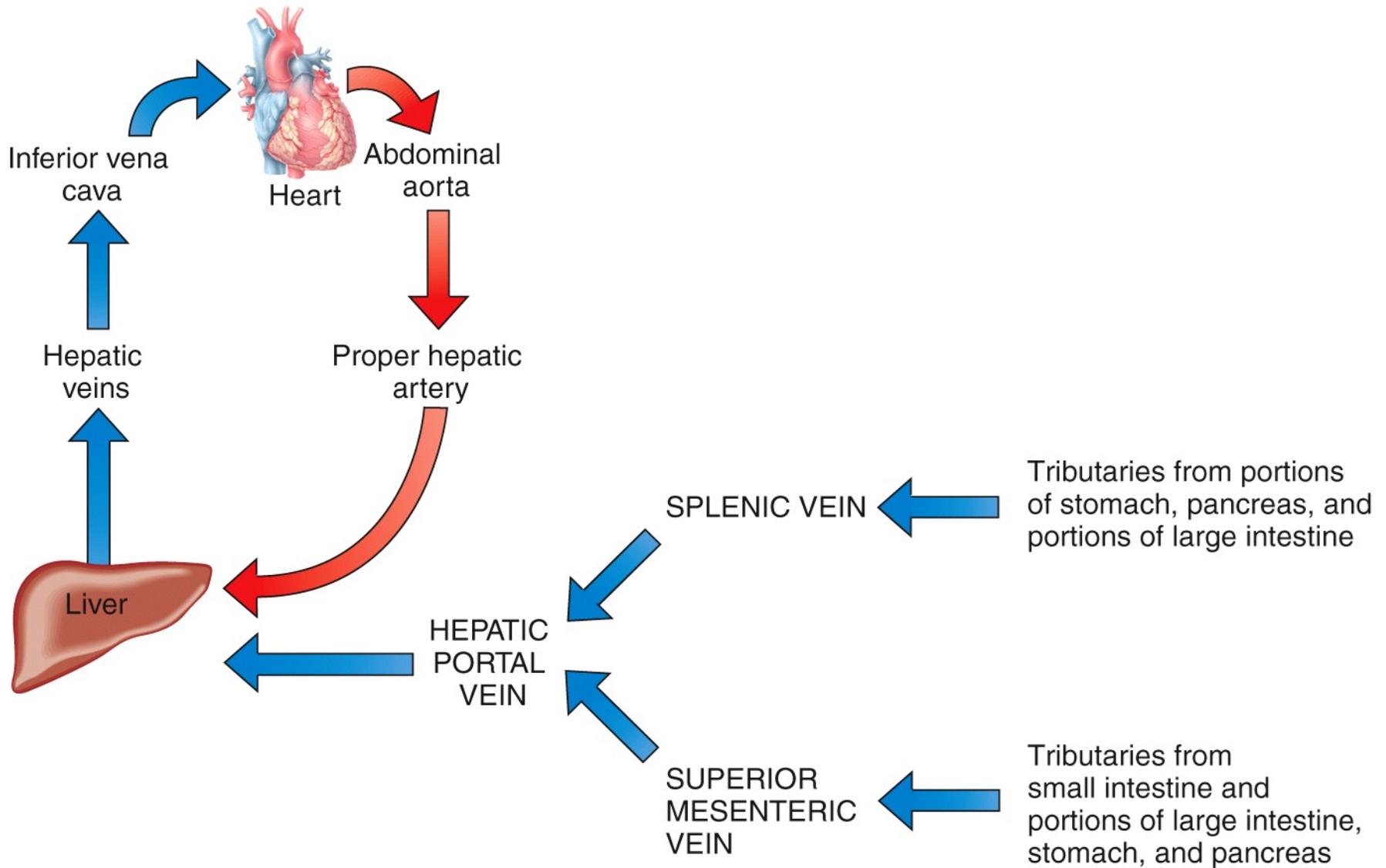


(c) Posterior view of superficial veins of hand

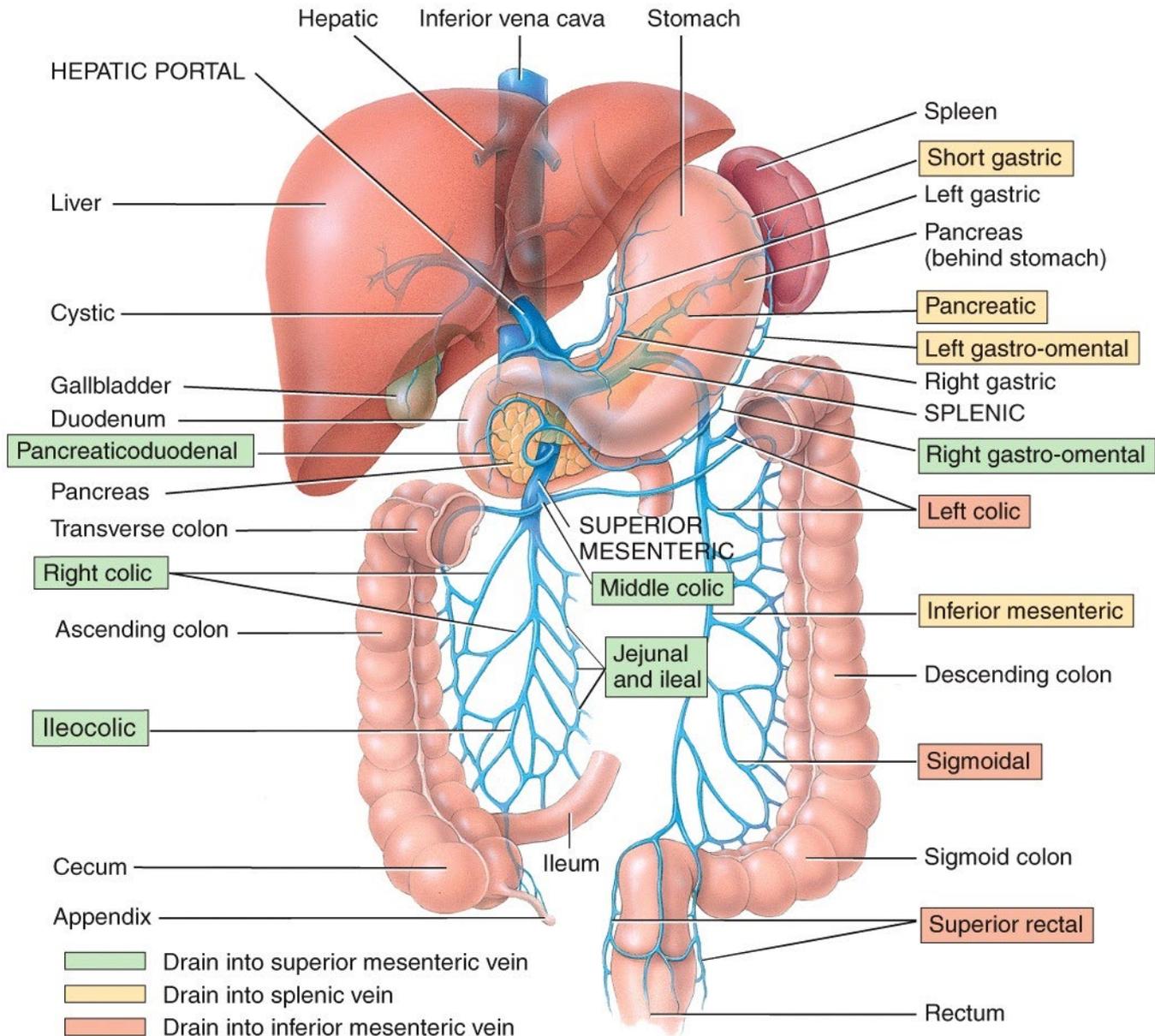




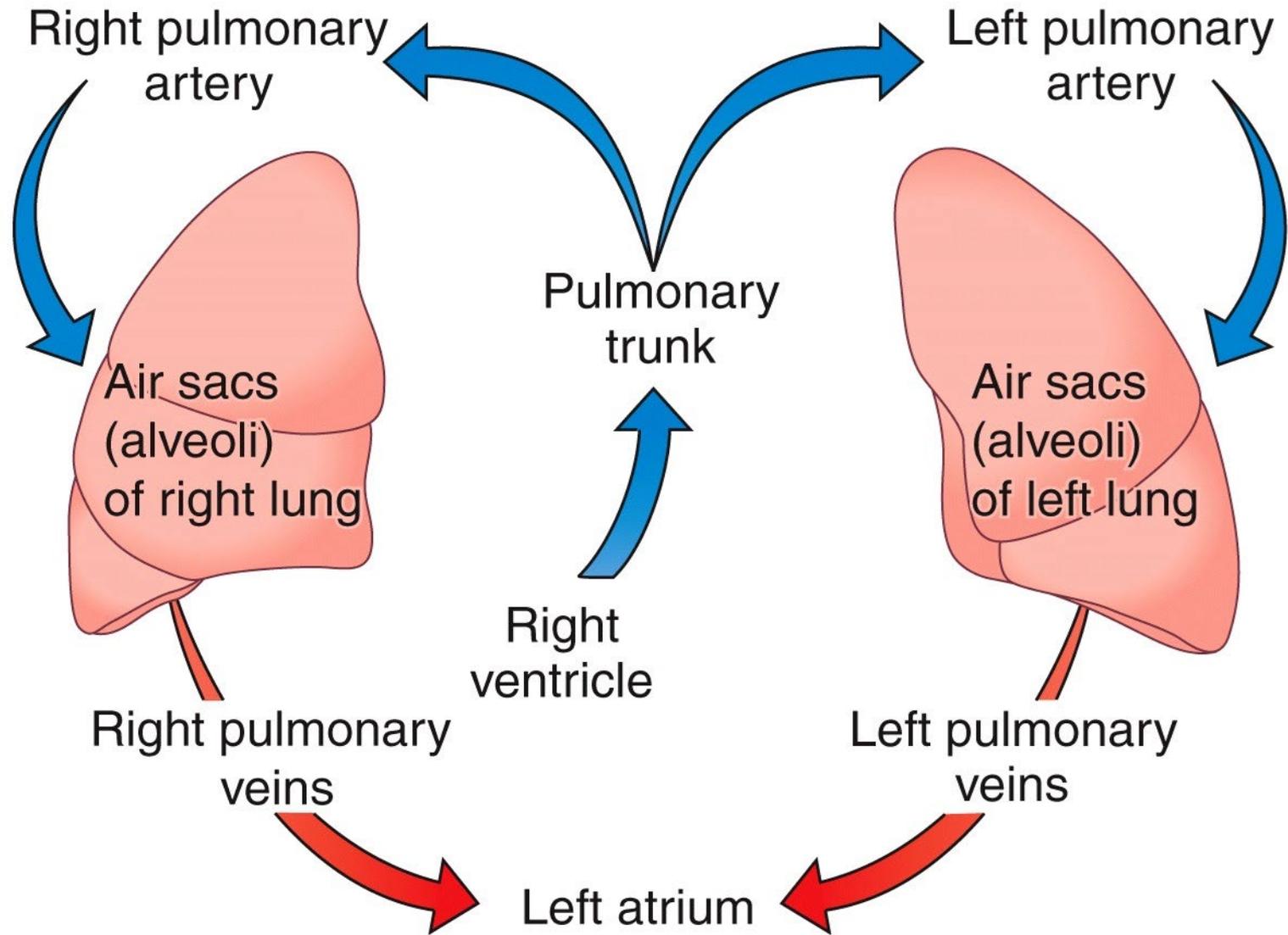
(c) Scheme of fetal circulation



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



(a) Anterior view of veins draining into the hepatic portal vein



(b) Scheme of pulmonary circulation