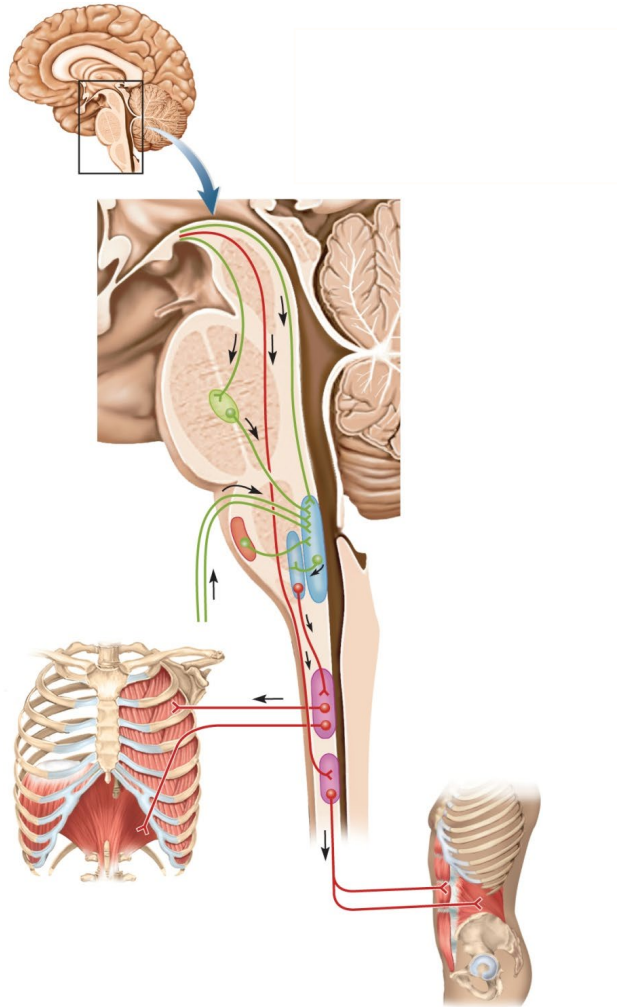


Chapter 22.3

Neural Control of Breathing



Neural Control of Breathing

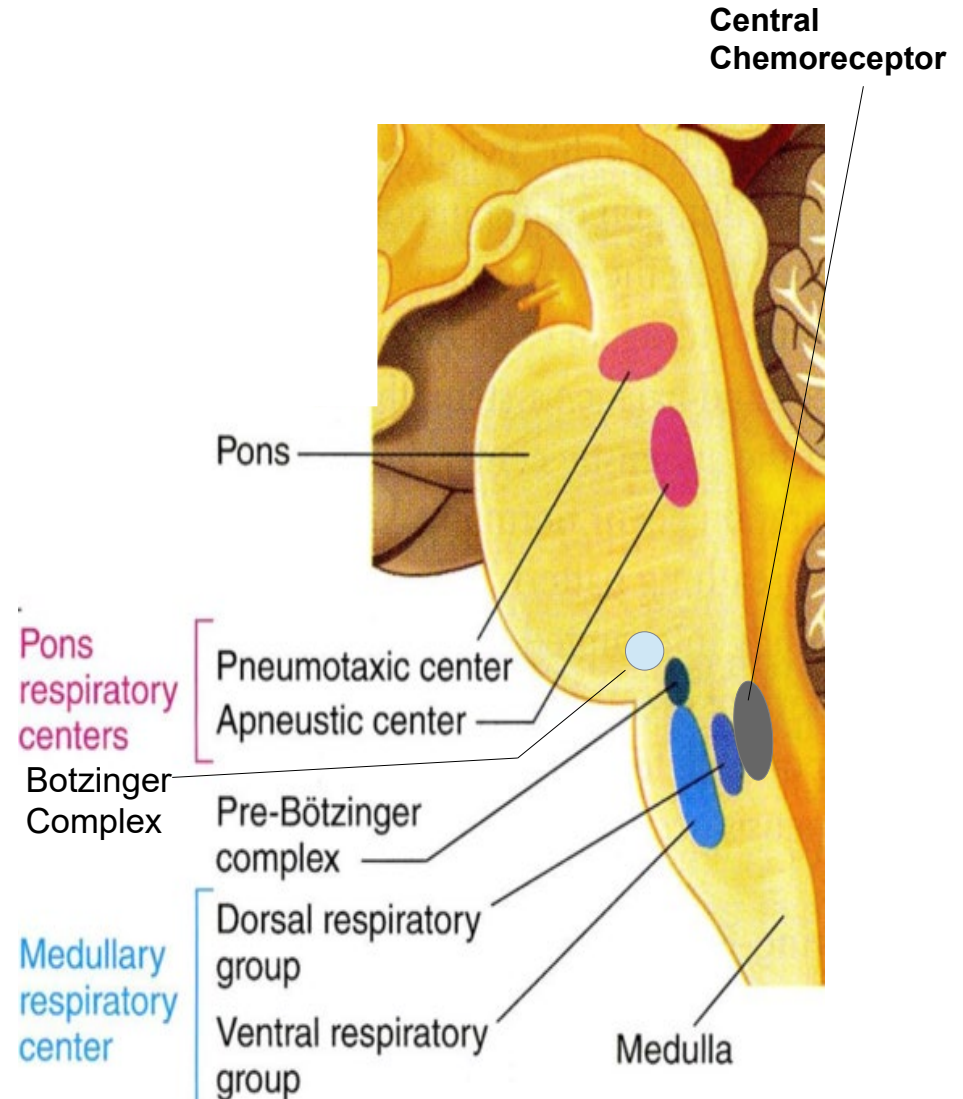
Breathing is the movement of air in and out of the lungs

Somatic motor pathways may initiate inspiration, however

Nuclei in the brain stem regulate rhythmic breathing // Two primary centers are the **Pons Respiratory Center** and **Medullary Respiratory Center**

Breathing is also influenced by higher brain centers, central and peripheral chemo-receptors, stretch receptors, irritant receptors, and proprioceptors.

No air moves in the transition between inspiration (air in) vs expiration (air out)



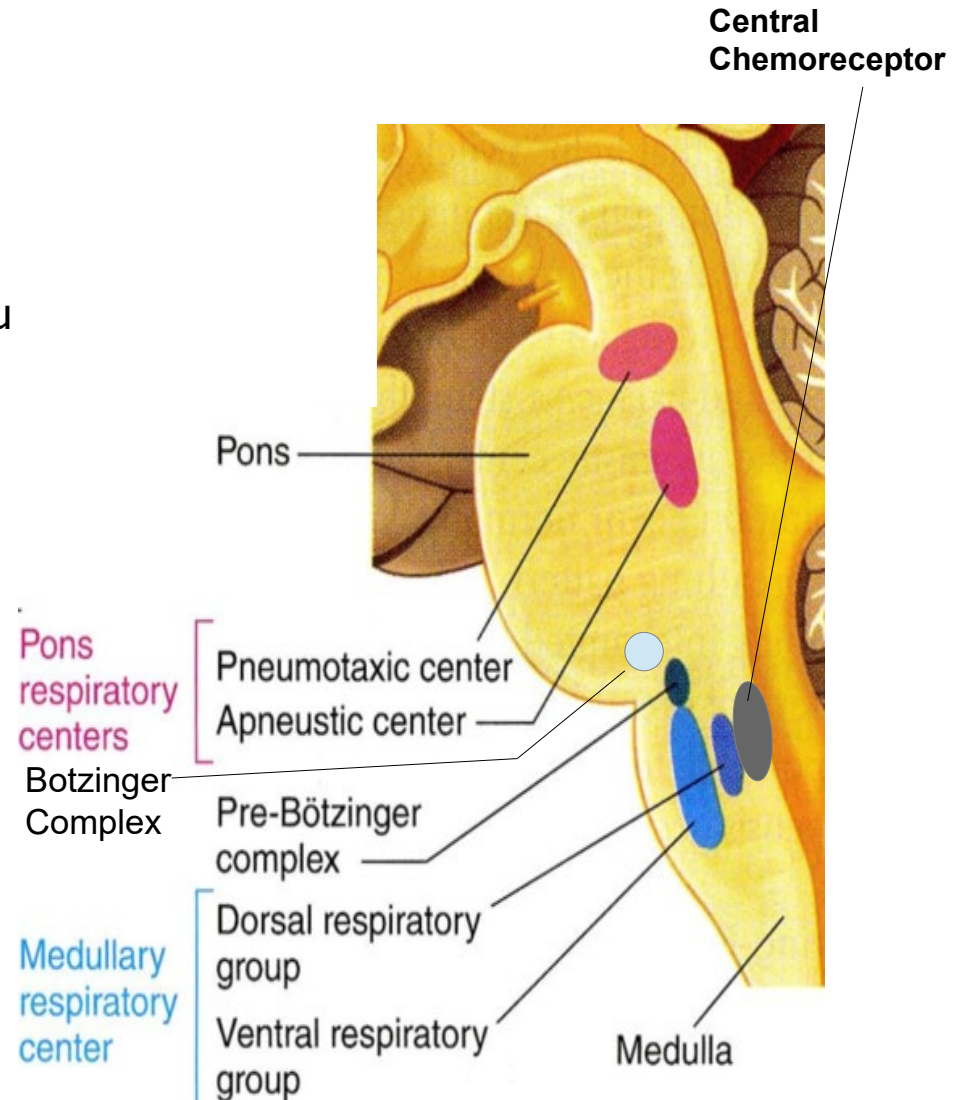
Neural Control of Breathing

Pneumotaxic center fine tunes the transition between inspiration and expiration by inhibiting inspiration.

Apneustic center prolongs inspiration // if you destroy the pneumotaxic center then you get prolonged inspiration // called apneustic breathing.

Central chemoreceptors monitor CO₂ in cerebral spinal fluid // increase in CO₂ stimulates inspiration // decrease CO₂ inhibits inspiration

Dorsal respiratory group receives signals to regulate breathing from lung stretch & irritant receptors, proprioceptors, central and peripheral chemoreceptors // send signals to spinal cord integrating centers and to the ventral respiratory group // Influence both inspiration and forced expiration



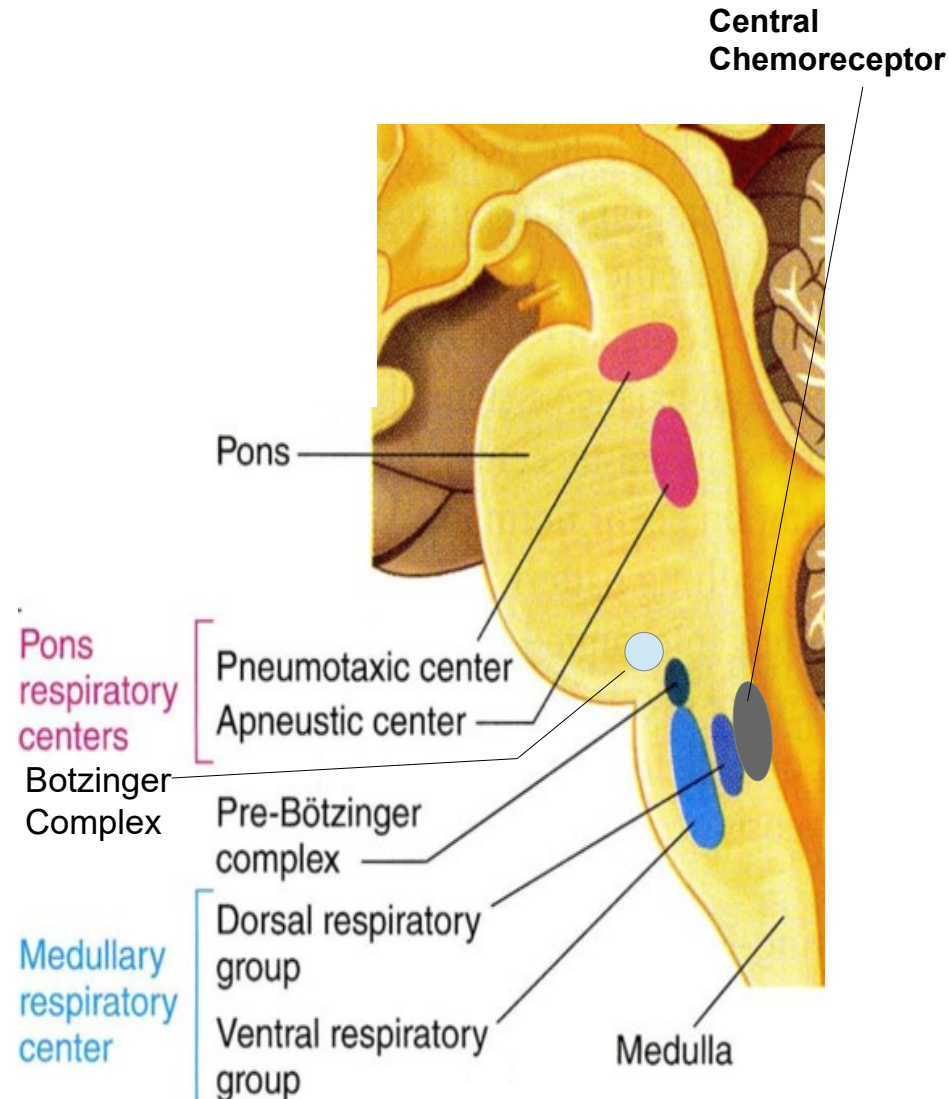
Neural Control of Breathing

Ventral respiratory center receives signals from the dorsal respiratory group // send descending inspiratory and inhibitory action potentials to intercostal muscles and diaphragm

Pre-Botzinger Complex is a nuclei unable to maintain a resting membrane potential // leaks cations // this becomes the pacemaker for inspiration by sending action potential to the ventral respiratory group.

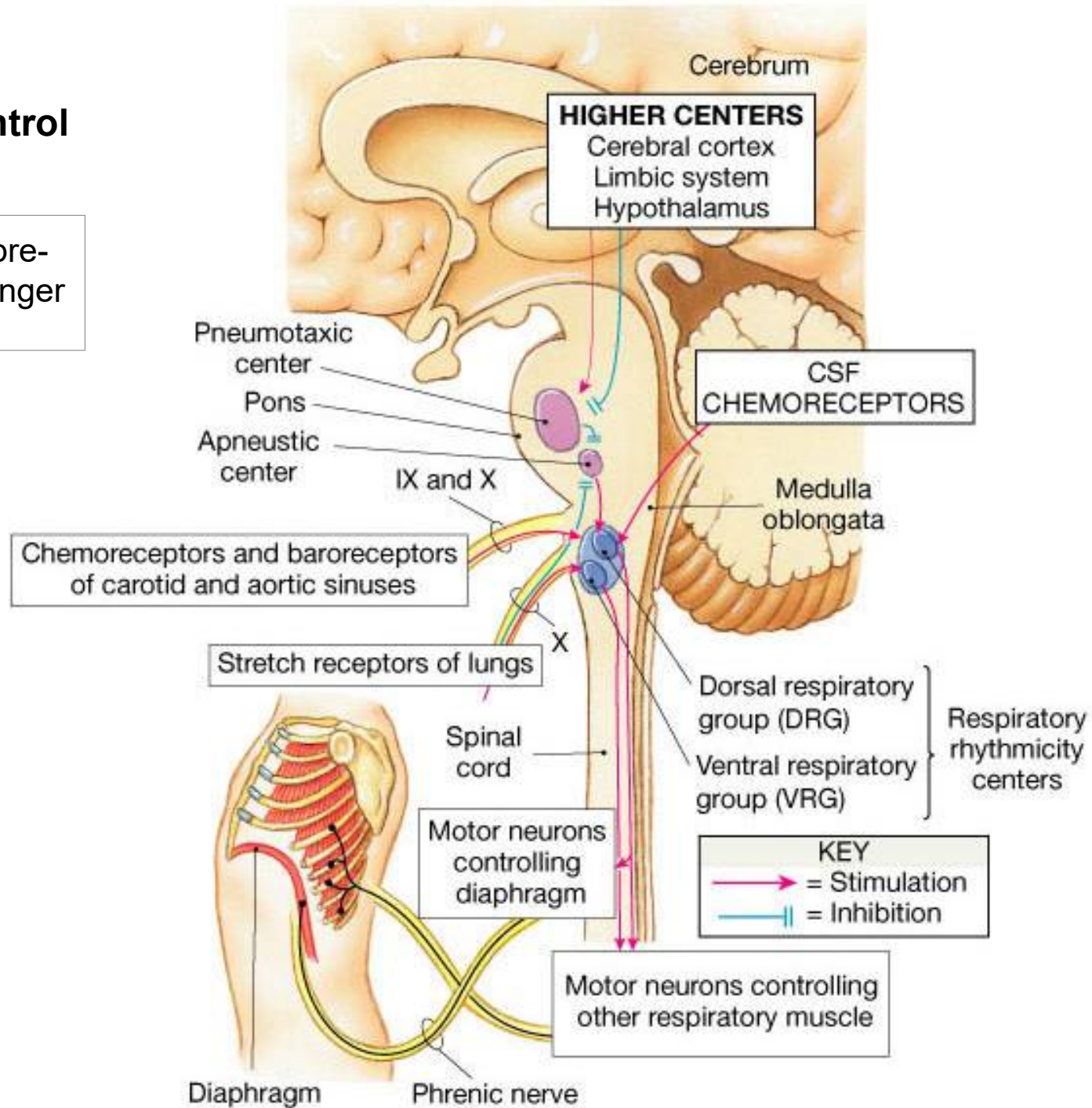
Botzinger complex // inhibits the pre-Botzinger complex

Dorsal and ventral respiratory group send Inspiratory neurons to spinal cord anterior Horn // C3 to C5 lower motor pathway To phrenic nerve (diaphragm) and T1 to T11 Lower motor pathway to intercostal muscles



Respiratory Control Centers

Not shown are the pre-Botzinger and Botzinger centers.



Neural Control of Breathing

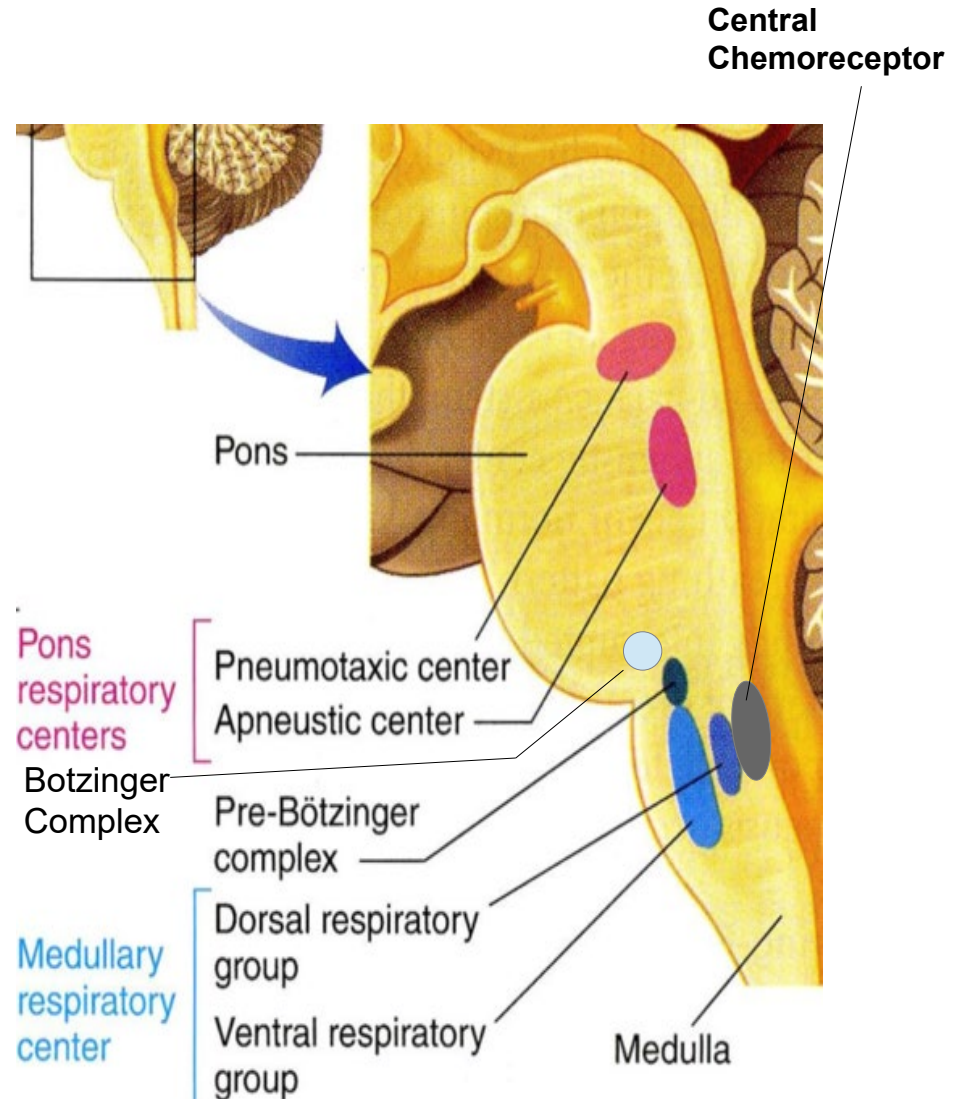
Just superior to the ventral respiratory center are the

pre-Botzinger complex //
pacemaker // depolarize for two
seconds

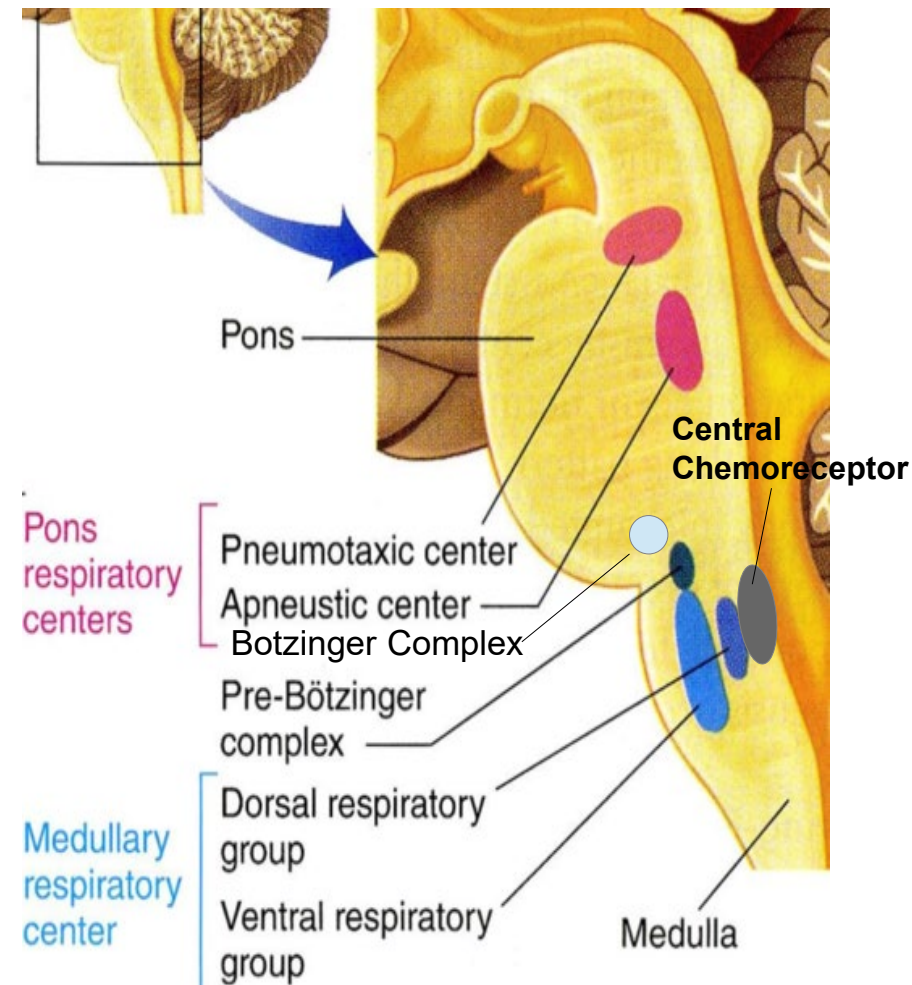
Botzinger complex // inhibits
Inspiration for three seconds

Respiratory cycle is five
seconds // 12 cycles per min

These two nuclei set the respiratory
rate during the resting state by
sending action potentials to the
ventral respiratory group



Neural Control of Breathing



The **ventral respiratory group (VRG)** in the **medulla** sets the **respiratory rate** and rhythm for breathing. There are inspiratory nuclei and expiratory nuclei in the VRG.

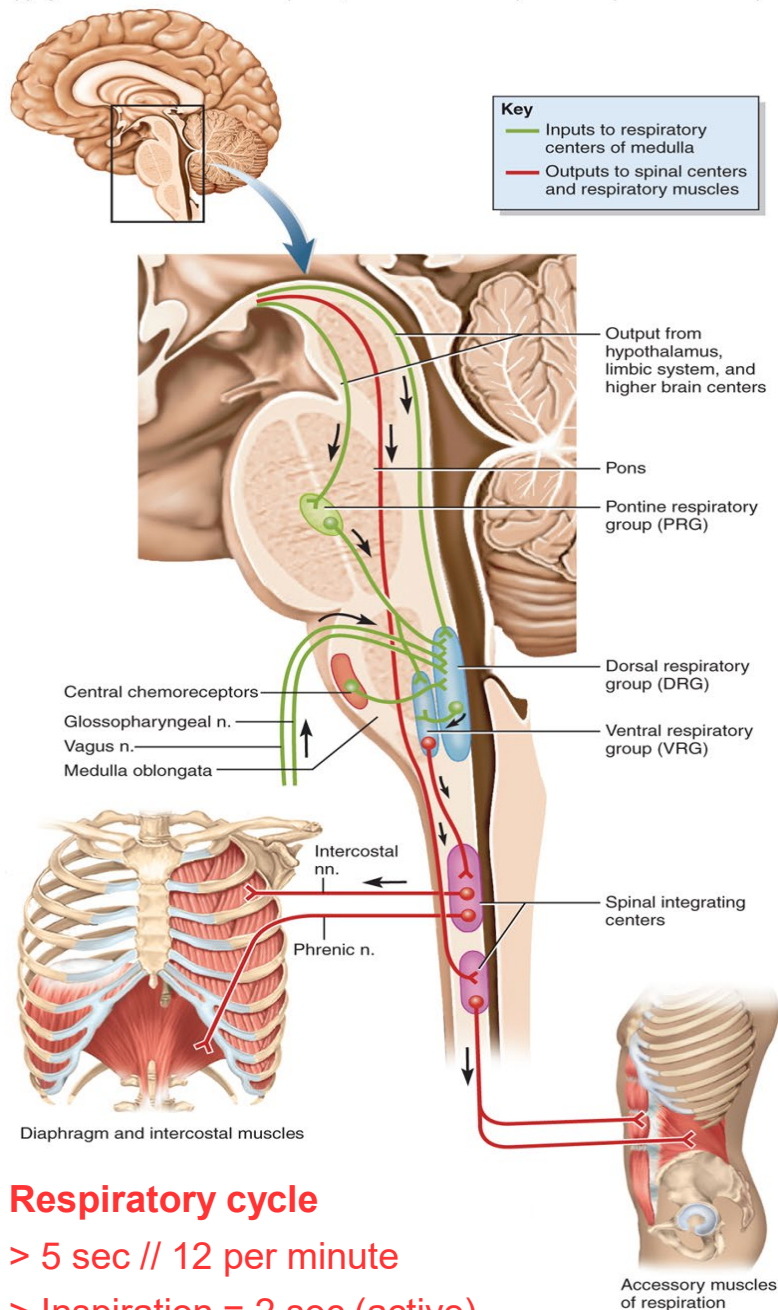
Inspiratory nuclei (pre-Botzinger complex) leak sodium to reach threshold and depolarize to create an action potential. These nuclei are the **pacemaker** for breathing.

Expiratory nuclei in the VRG (Botzinger complex) inhibit the inspiratory nuclei to stop inspiration. The passive recoil of the lung's elastic tissue forces the air out of the lungs.

Inspiration is active and expiration is passive.

The pre-Botzinger complex influence the rate of depolarization of the VRG pacemaker to regulate inspiration

The Botzinger complex regulates expiration.



Respiratory cycle

> 5 sec // 12 per minute

> Inspiration = 2 sec (active)

> Expiration = 3 sec (passive)

Ventral Respiratory Group

The VRG action potentials are sent to the **spinal cord integration center**. Action potentials travel along the phrenic nerve to the diaphragm.

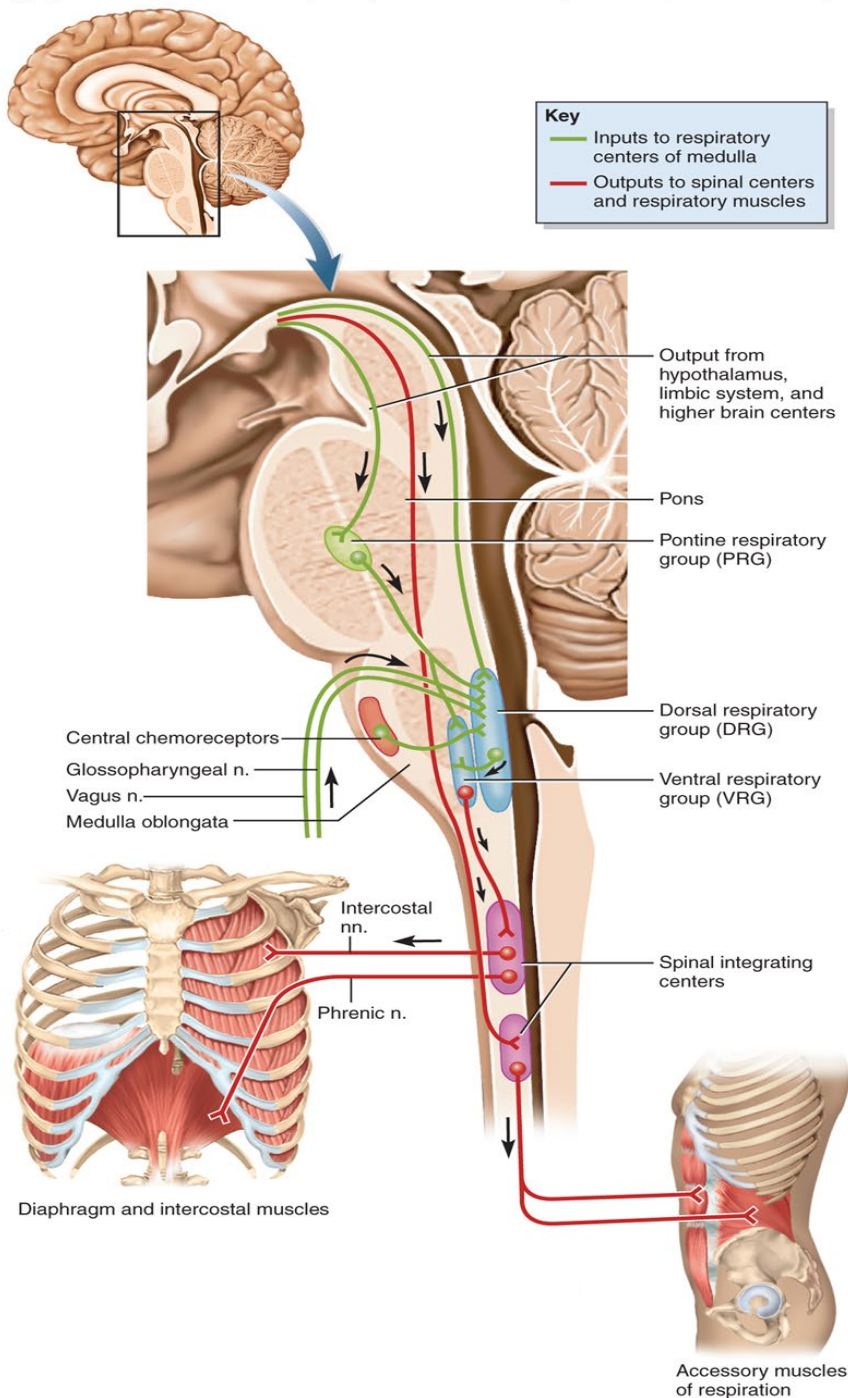
In a resting state, the phrenic nerve will cause the diaphragm to contract.

VRG inspiratory nuclei send action potentials for **2 seconds** to the diaphragm which results in inspiration.

VRG expiratory nuclei inhibit the inspiratory nuclei for **3 seconds** to cause the diaphragm and external intercostal muscles to relax

Passive elastic recoil of lung tissue moves air out of the lungs

In forced respiration the, the DRG send action potentials through the intercostal nerves will contract the external intercostal muscles to increase respiratory volume.



Dorsal Respiratory Groups in the Medulla

DRG receives signals from the pons respiratory center, central and peripheral chemo-receptors, stretch receptors, irritant receptors, cerebral cortex, and Limbic system.

DRG signals are used to modify the VRG respiratory rate. These signals adjust breathing to be faster, slower, shallower, or deeper.

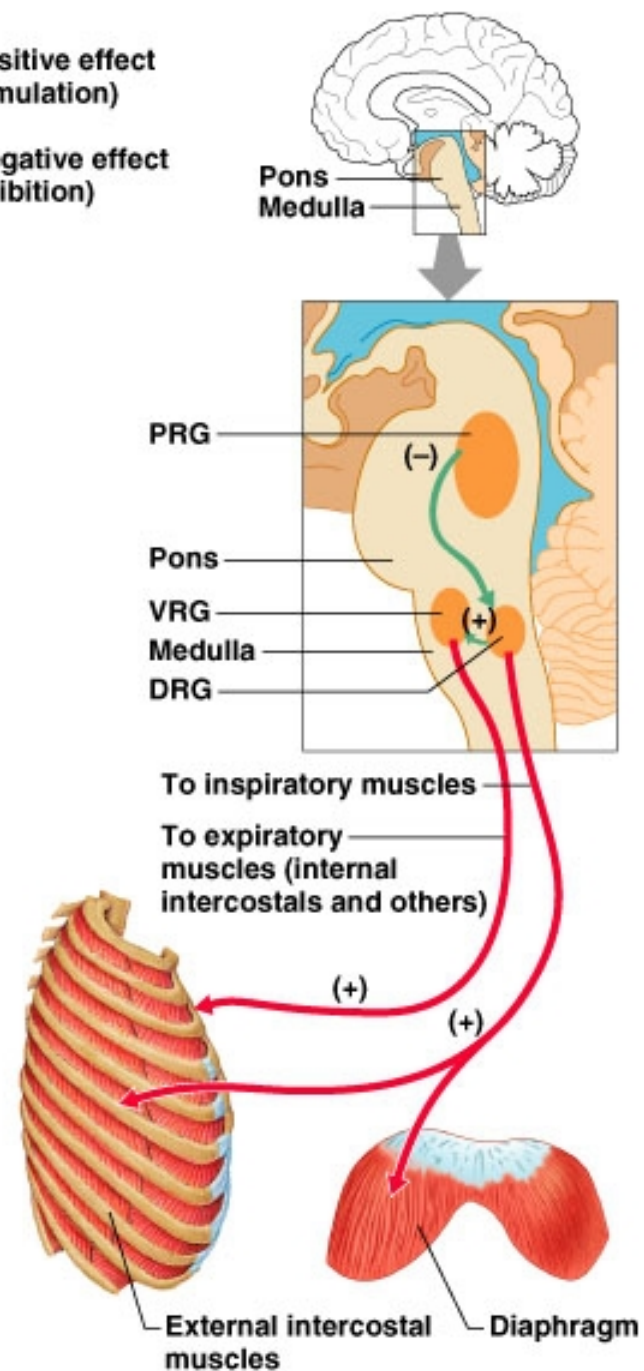
DRG may also send motor pathways directly to spinal cord integration center that then continue to the intercostal muscles and the diaphragm by lower motor neurons.

Respiratory Control Centers

Key:

(+) = Positive effect
(stimulation)

(-) = Negative effect
(inhibition)

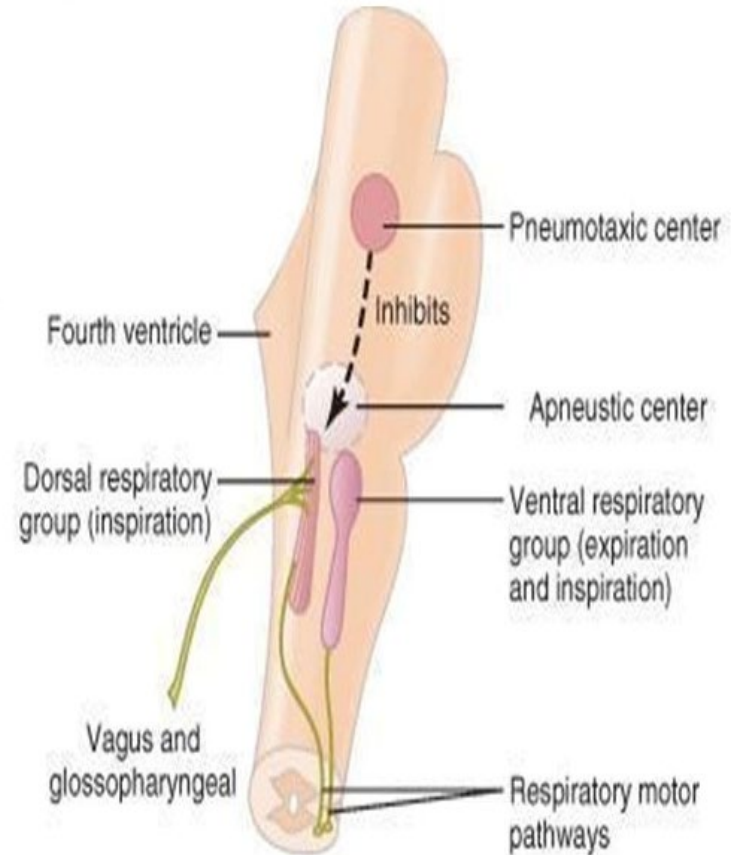


Neural Control of Breathing

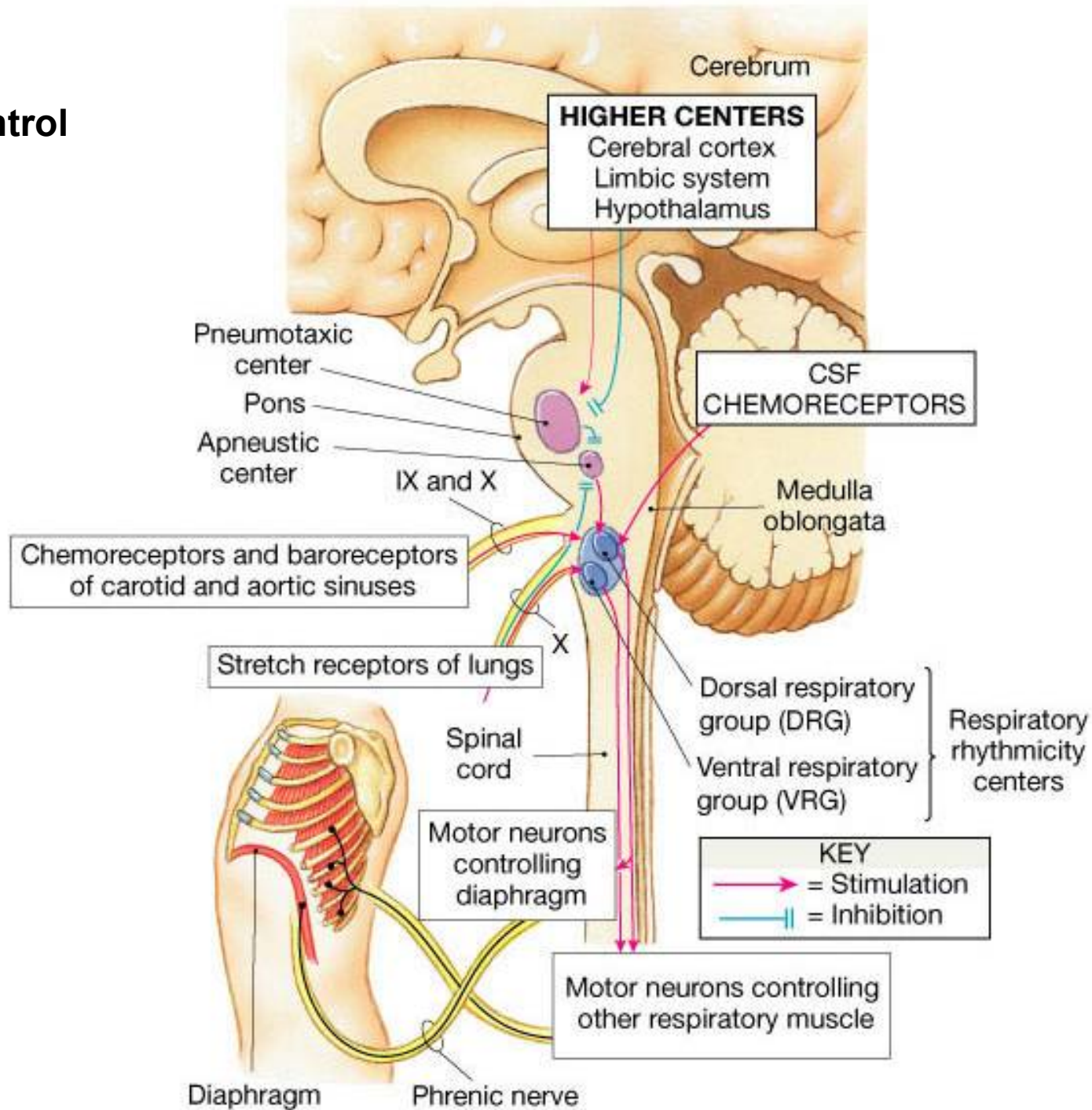
Pneumotaxic Center

Strong stimulation may reduce inspiratory phase by 0.5 seconds and inspiratory rate increase to 30 to 40 per min

Weak stimulation may increase inspiratory phase by 5 seconds or more and respiratory rate drops to 3 to 5 per min



Respiratory Control Centers

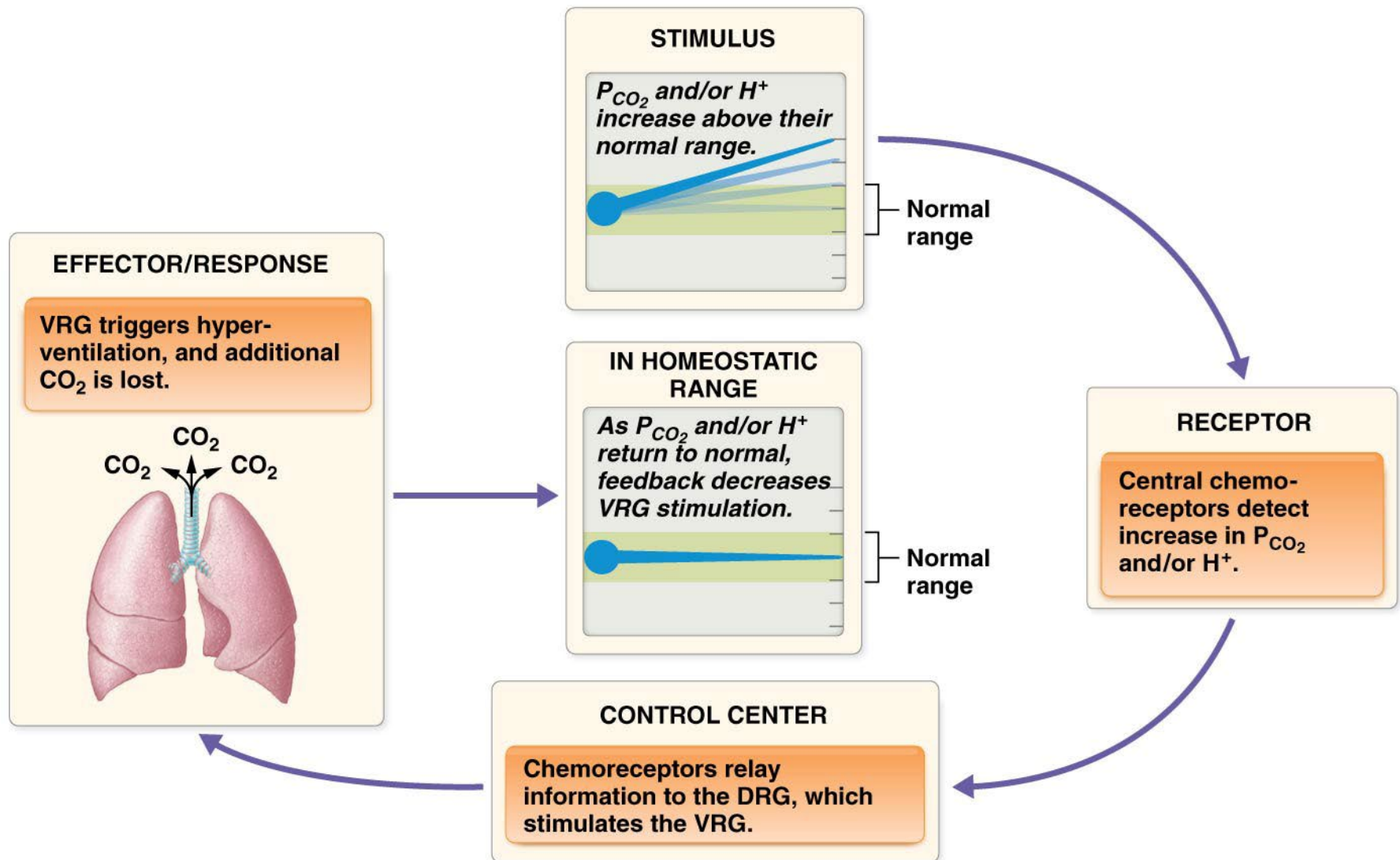


Physiologic States May Influence Neural Control of Breathing

Many factors may regulate breathing to match our physiological state

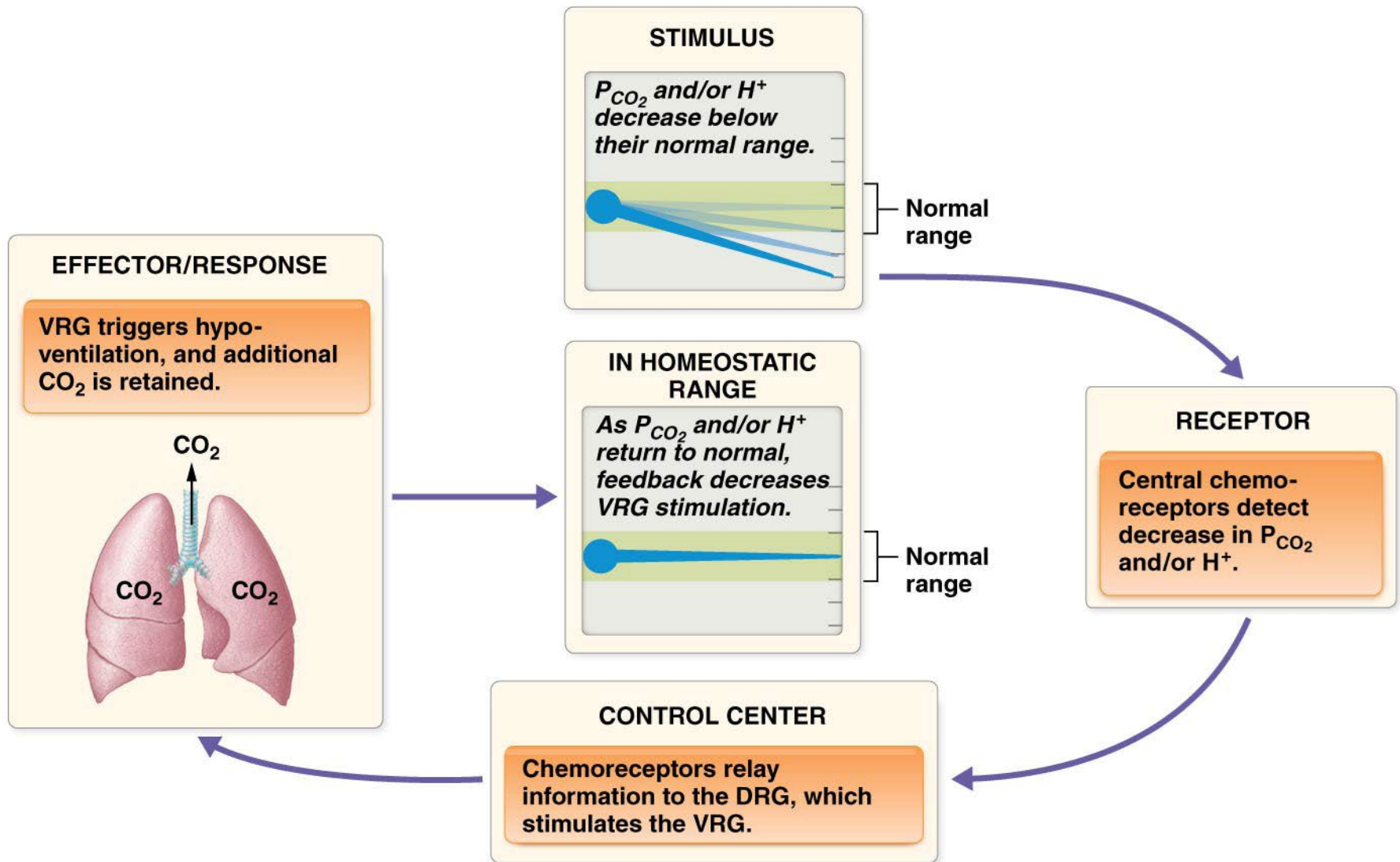
- central chemoreceptors
- peripheral chemoreceptors
- proprioceptors
- lung stretch receptors (Hering-Breuer reflex)
- irritant reflex receptors
- limbic system
- temperature
- pain
- stretching the anal sphincter
- blood pressure (minor)

Role of the central chemoreceptors in regulation of blood pH via breathing rate.



(a) Response to increased arterial P_{CO_2} and/or H^+ concentration by a negative feedback loop

Role of the central chemoreceptors in regulation of blood pH via breathing rate.



(b) Response to decreased arterial P_{CO_2} and/or H^+ concentration by a negative feedback loop

Other Respiratory Regulators

Irritant receptors

nerve endings amid the epithelial cells of the airway

respond to smoke, dust, pollen, chemical fumes, cold air, and excess mucus

trigger protective reflexes //

bronchoconstriction, shallower breathing, breath-holding (apnea) followed by strong coughing

Other Respiratory Regulators

Stretch receptors

found in the smooth muscles of bronchi and bronchioles, and in the visceral pleura

respond to inflation of the lungs

known as the inflation reflex or **Hering-Breuer Reflex**

triggered by excessive inflation

protective reflex

inhibits inspiratory neurons therefore able to stop inspiration

Other Respiratory Regulators

Hyperventilation

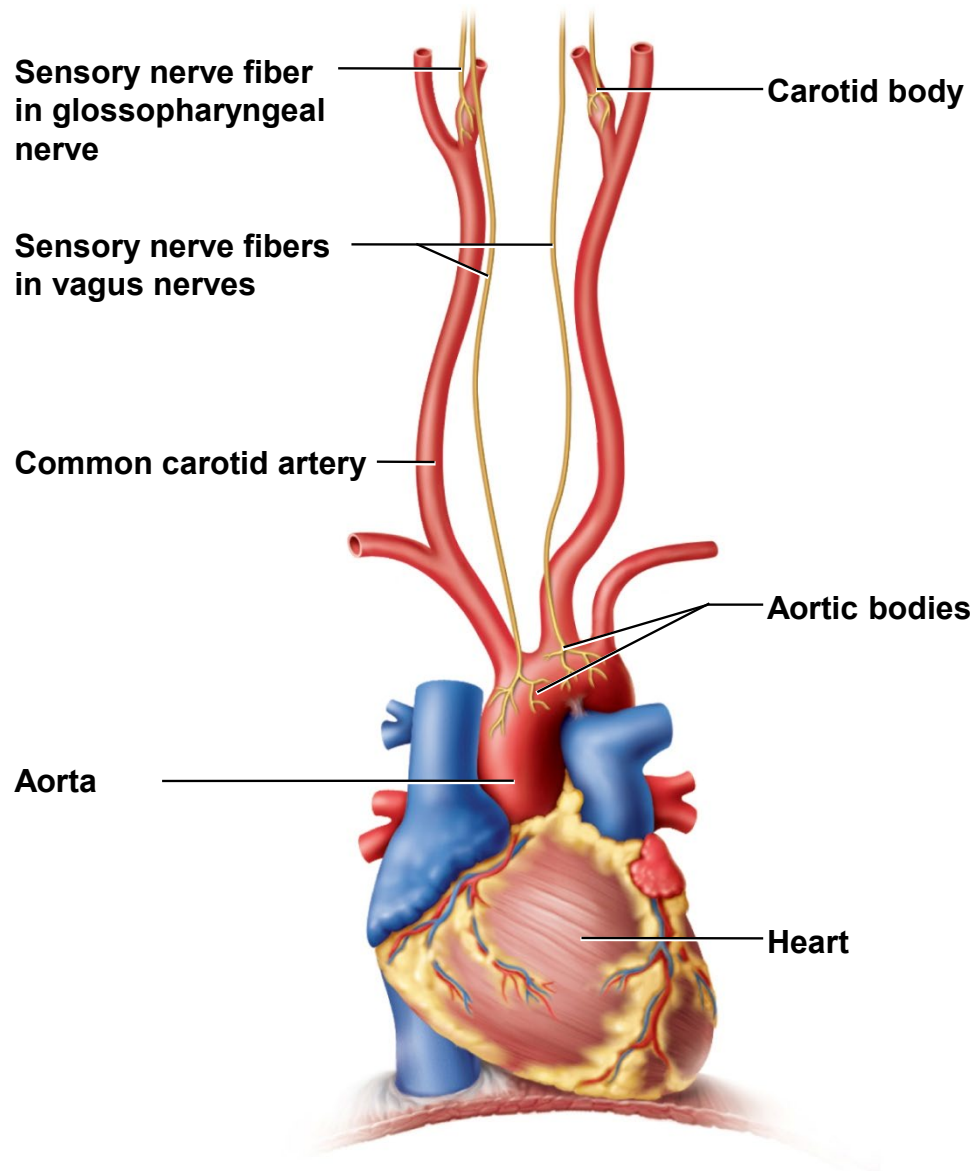
anxiety triggered state in which breathing is so rapid that it expels CO_2 from the body faster than it is produced

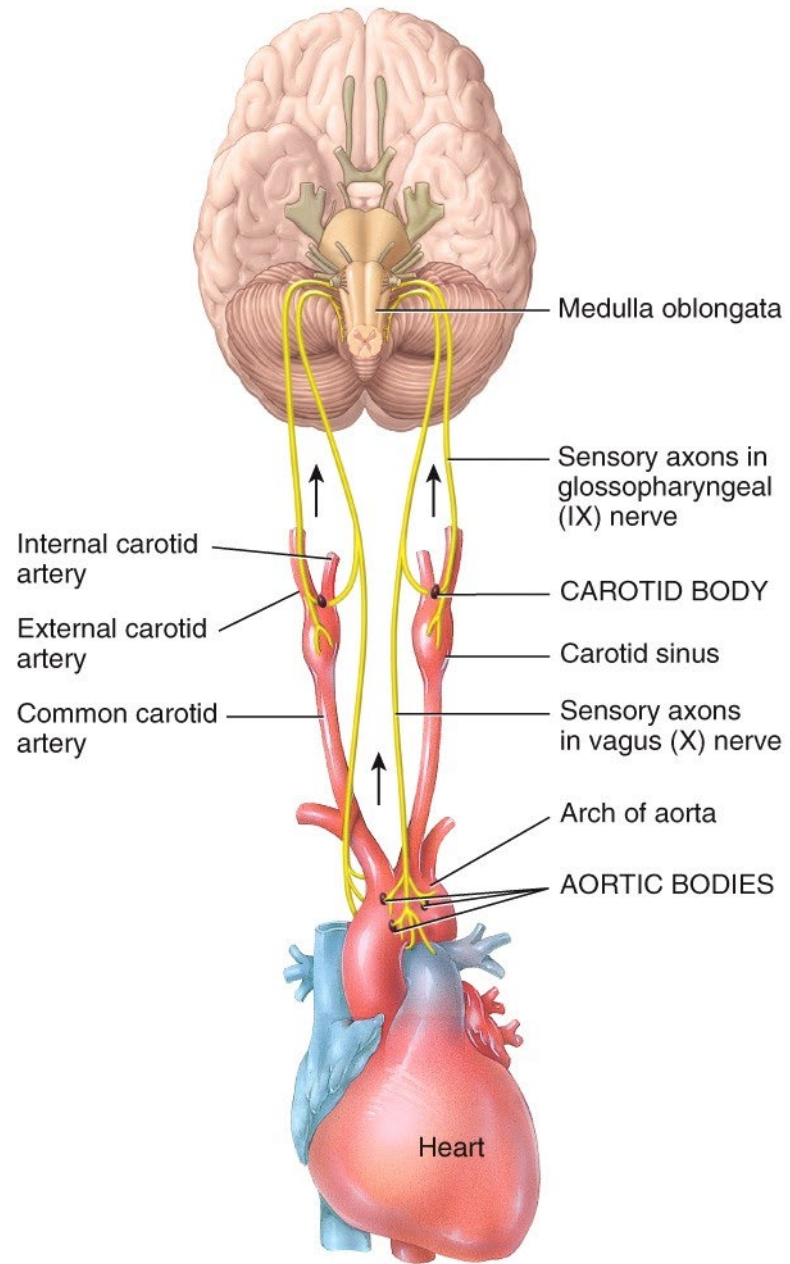
blood CO_2 levels drop (i.e. fewer protons = higher pH number = more alkaline)

as pH number rises (i.e. more alkaline) this then **causes the cerebral arteries to constrict** /// reducing cerebral perfusion which may cause dizziness or fainting

can be brought under control by having the person re-breathe the expired CO_2 from a paper bag

Peripheral Chemoreceptors





Voluntary Control May Also Modify Breathing

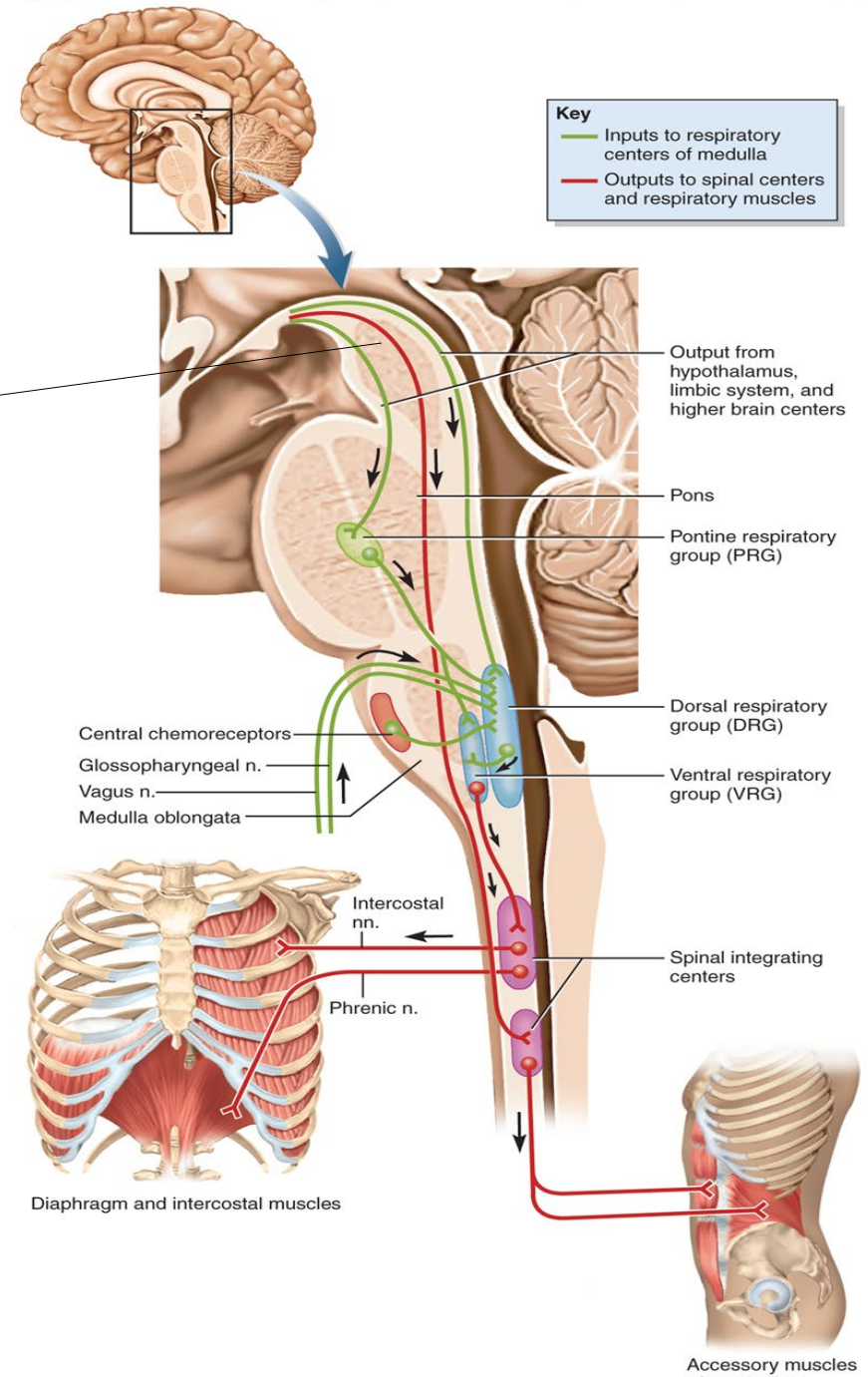
Originates in the motor cortex of frontal lobe of cerebrum

Descending signal sent via corticospinal tracts to respiratory neurons in spinal cord /// **Note: this track bypasses brain stem regulation**

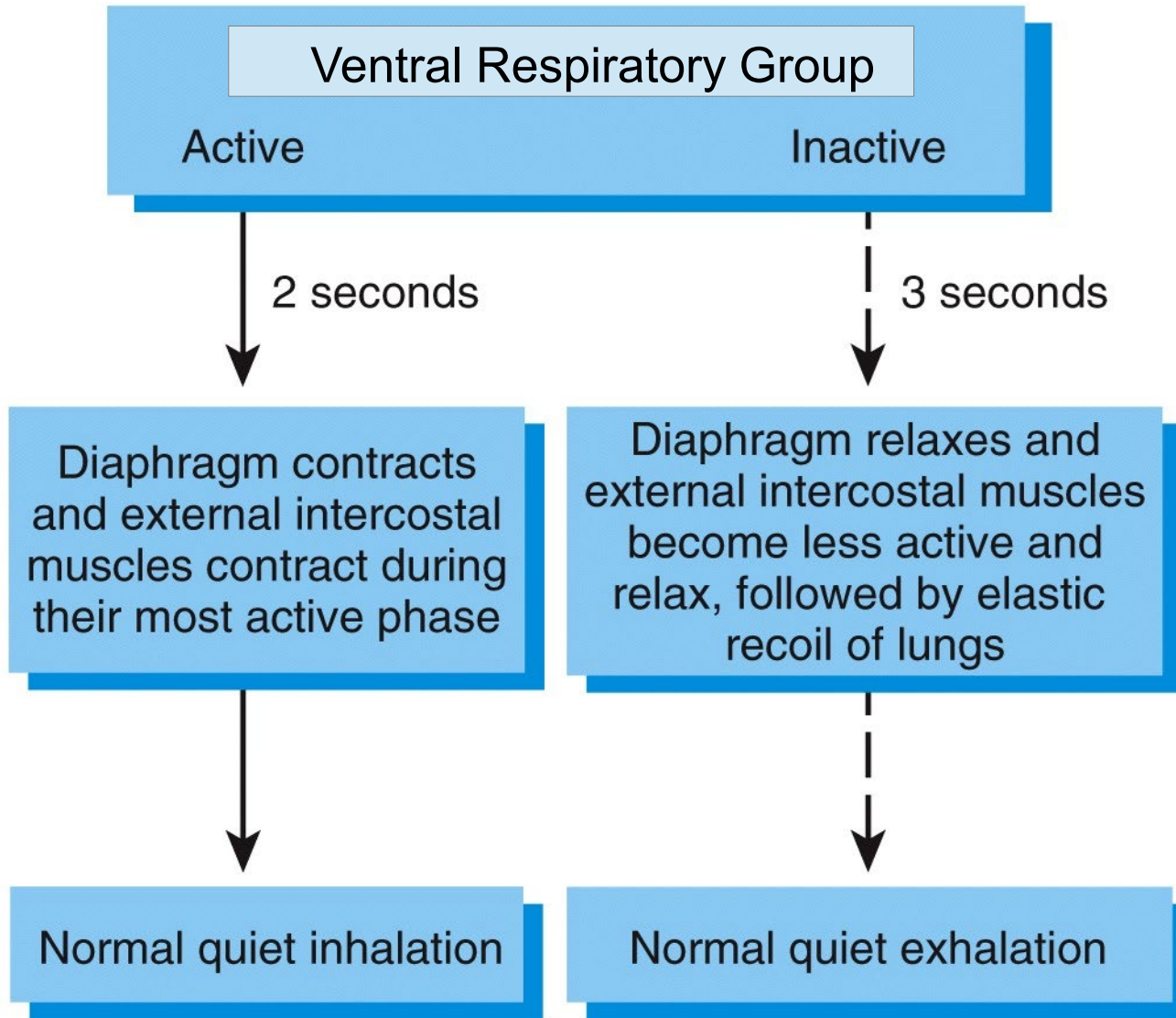
There is a limits to voluntary control /// called the **breaking point** // when CO₂ levels will rise to a point then the automatic controls override your will power not to breath

Voluntary Control May Also Modify Breathing

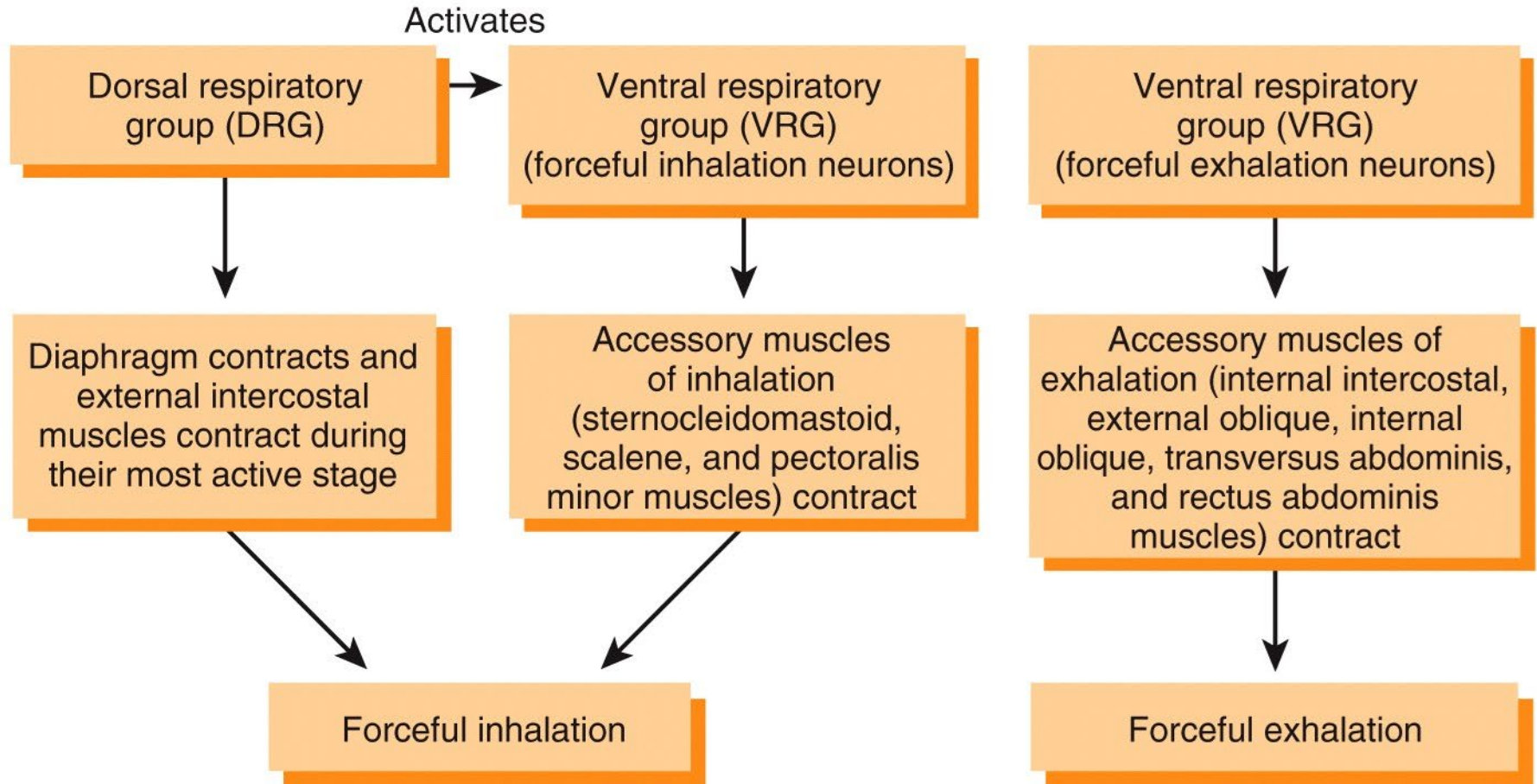
Note: this track bypasses brain stem regulation



Quiet Breathing



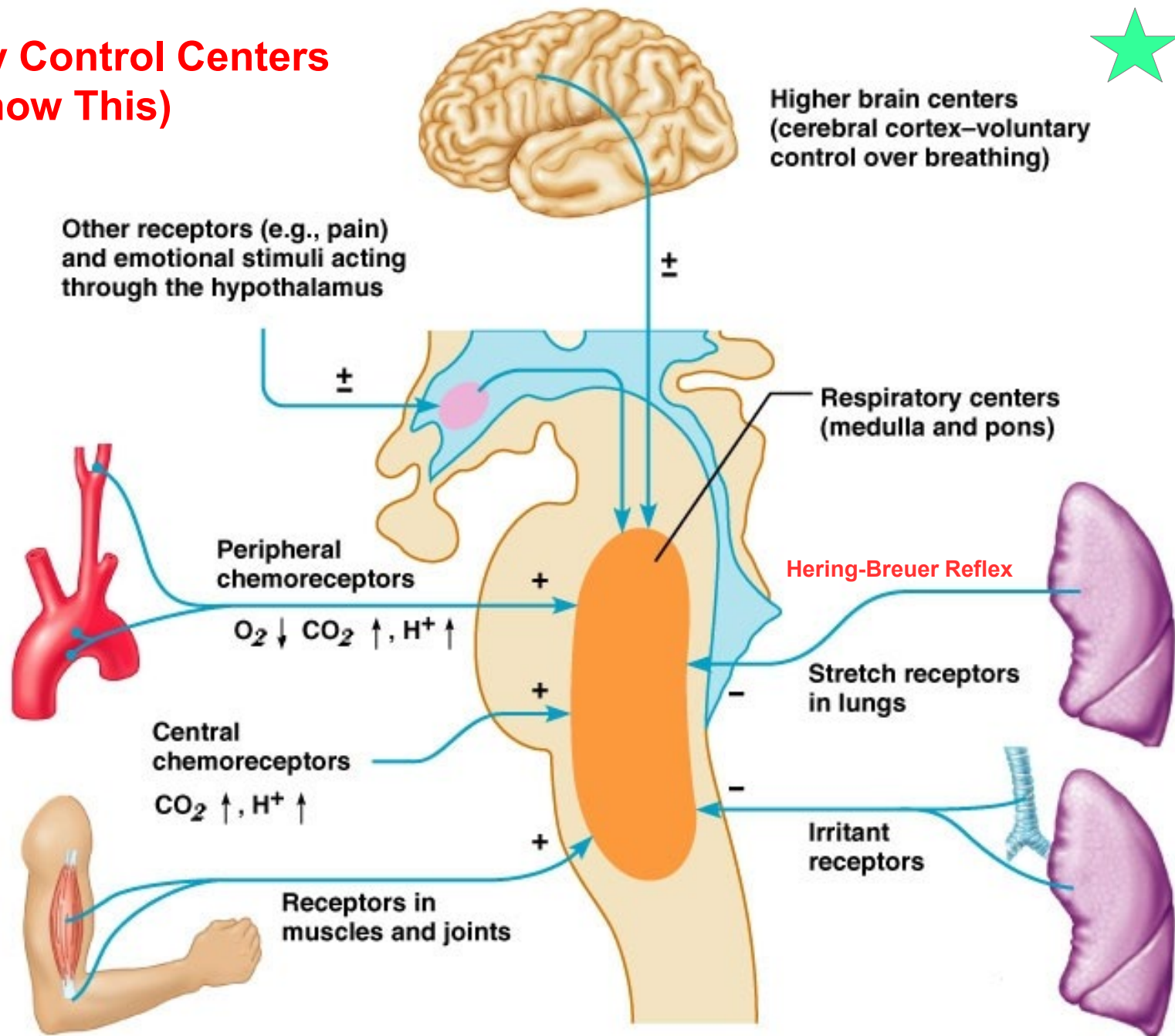
Forceful Breathing or Breathing During Exercise



Control mechanisms of ventilation.

STIMULI	CONTROL MECHANISM	EFFECT ON RESPIRATORY CENTERS	EFFECT ON VENTILATION
Cerebral cortex inputs (e.g., emotion)	Voluntary control 	+/-	Varied
Changes in arterial P_{CO_2}, H^+ concentrations	Central chemoreceptors 	+/-	Hyperventilation when P_{CO_2} and/or H^+ concentrations increase; hypoventilation when P_{CO_2} and/or H^+ decrease
Changes in arterial P_{O_2}	Peripheral chemoreceptors 	+	Hyperventilation when arterial P_{O_2} decreases

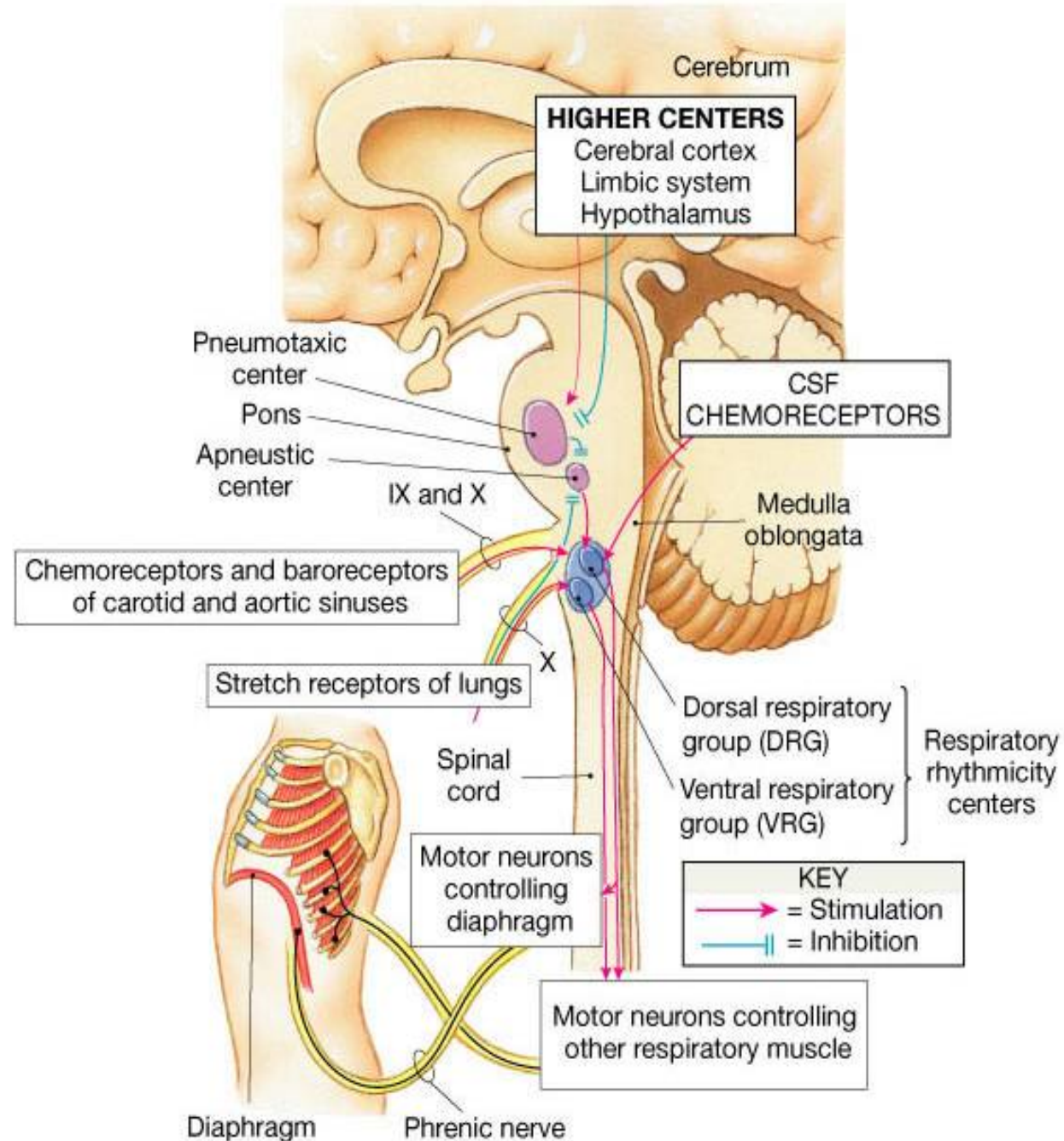
Respiratory Control Centers (Know This)

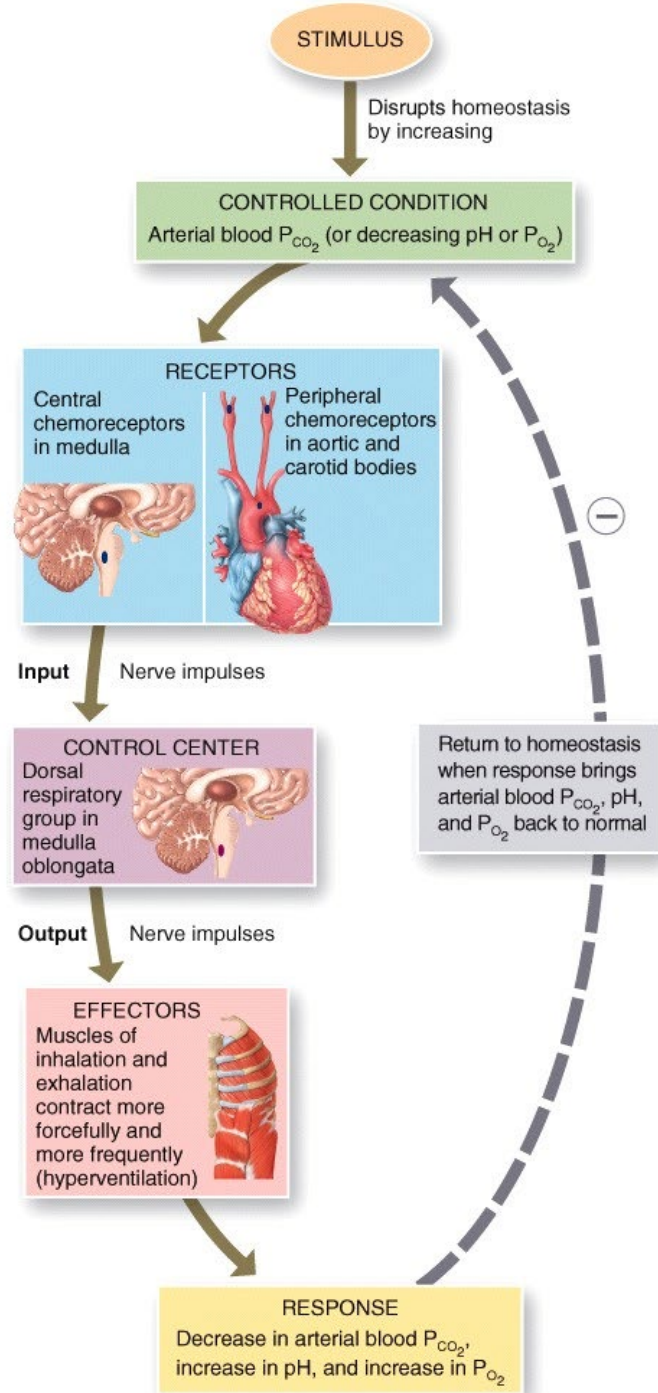


Respiratory Control Centers

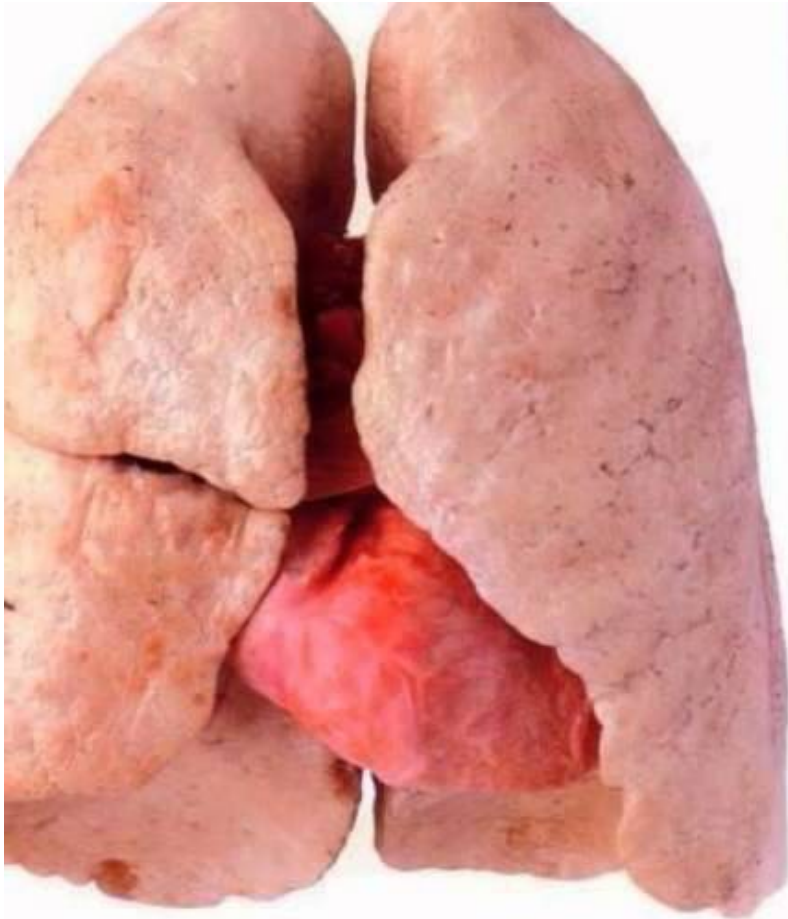
When you speak or sing the cerebral cortex must adjust breathing.

Your breathing rate will also change as you get ready to board a spaceship.





Non-Smoker's Lungs VS Smoker's Lungs



What Happens When A Smoker Quits

20 minutes after quitting

The heart rate and blood pressure drop back to normal levels.

1-3 months after quitting

Circulation improves and lung function increases

1 year after quitting

The risk of getting coronary heart disease is half as high as a smoker's. The risk of heart attack drops dramatically.

10 years after quitting

The risk of dying from lung cancer is about half that of a person who is still smoking. The risk of cancer of the larynx (voice box) and pancreas decreases.

12 hours after quitting

The level of carbon monoxide in the blood drops to normal.

1-9 months after quitting

Coughing and shortness of breath decrease. Tiny hair-like structures that move mucus out of the lungs (called cilia) start to regain normal function.

5 years after quitting

The risk of cancers of the mouth, throat, esophagus, and bladder are cut in half. Cervical cancer risk falls to that of a non-smoker.

15 years after quitting

The risk of coronary heart disease is that of a non-smoker's.



Central and Peripheral Input to Respiratory Centers

Central chemoreceptors (responsible for 75% of CO₂ drive)

brainstem neurons respond to changes in pH of cerebrospinal fluid

pH of cerebrospinal fluid reflects the CO₂ level in the blood

by regulating respiration to maintain stable pH /// respiratory center also ensures stable CO₂ level in the blood

Peripheral chemoreceptors (responsible for 25% of CO₂ drive)

located in the carotid and aortic bodies of the large arteries above the heart

peripheral chemoreceptors are sensitive to both PCO₂ and low arterial PO₂

under normal conditions central chemoreceptors primary regulator of respiration

Following chronic high CO₂ – PCR senses low PO₂ and this becomes primary stimulus for respiration

Hypoxic Drive

Under normal conditions, PCO_2 is the stimulus used to start inspiration.

If high PCO_2 becomes a chronic condition, then chemoreceptors in medulla become insensitive to PCO_2

Then peripheral chemoreceptor (which monitor arterial PO_2) stimulate inspiration if arterial blood has low PO_2 levels

This theory also suggest that high PO_2 will then inhibit inspiration.

Therefore, apparent danger if you give oxygen to COPD patient if they are under hypoxic drive /// high PO_2 will stop inspiration !!!!!

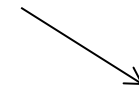
Hypoxic Drive

Chronic Elevation of CO₂ Levels

Medullary Chemoreceptors
Become Insensitive to High PCO₂



PCO₂ Increases
PO₂ Decreases



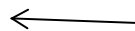
No Increase
In Respiration



Marked Decrease
In O₂ Levels



Very Low PO₂ Stimulates
Peripheral Chemoreceptors



Inspiratory
Muscles Stimulated



Increased Respiration



Remove CO₂ / Take in O₂



PCO₂ Decreases
PO₂ Increases



Respiration Slows

