

# Principles of Hemodynamics

Aslı AYKAÇ

# Learning Objectives

- 1. Define pressure and its units.
- 2. Understand pressure in a fluid at rest and its variation with depth.
- 3. State Pascal's principle and discuss its implications in the human body.
- 4. Know the special considerations that apply to pressure in flowing fluids.
- 5. State Poiseuille's formula for blood flow and know the physical variables which determine the flow rate of a liquid through a tube. Explain why vessel diameter has such a significant impact on resistance to flow.

# Learning Objectives

- 6. Understand the relation between volume flow rate and the velocity of flow and describe how the total cross-sectional area of the vascular system influences the velocity of flow.
- 7. Explain the factors that affect viscosity of blood.
- 8. Define laminar flow and turbulent flow. State Reynold's formula and understand the effect of turbulence on flow at a given pressure.

# Hemodynamics

- ***Hemodynamics*** is the study of fluid flow in the vascular system

# Pressure

Pressure : Force/ Area      F/A

Newton/ m<sup>2</sup> = Pascal      = Pa

1 atm      =      1.013 X 10<sup>5</sup> Pa

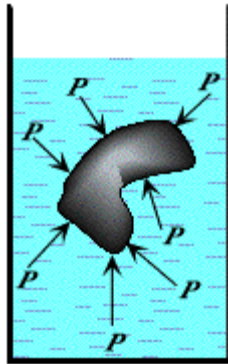
            =      1.013 bar

            =      760 torr

            =      760 mm Hg

# Pressure in a fluid at rest

- The magnitude of the force  $F$  exerted by the fluid on the surface divided by the surface area  $A$  is defined to be the pressure at that point.
- Fluid: A substance that can flow: gases and liquids



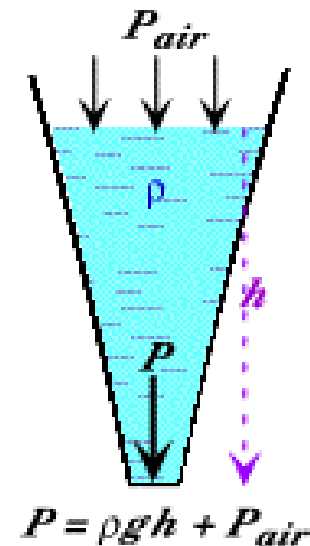
# Basic Hydrostatic Laws which Apply to Incompressible Fluids

- 1. Fluid pressure is equal in every direction.
- 2. At different points in the same horizontal plane, pressures are equal.
- 3. Pressure increases with depth.



# Variation of Pressure with Depth in an Incompressible Fluid

- $P_h = h \times d_w = \rho gh$
- $d_w =$  weight density
- $\rho =$  mass / volume, density of the fluid,  $\text{kg} / \text{m}^3$
- $g =$  acceleration due to gravity ( $9.8 \text{ m} / \text{sec}^2$ )
  
- $h =$  depth (m)
- $P = P_o + \rho gh$   
where  $P_o$  is atmospheric pressure at sea level
- **The pressure at a given depth in a static liquid is a result the weight of the liquid acting on a unit area at that depth plus any pressure acting on the surface of the liquid.**





# Pascal's Principle

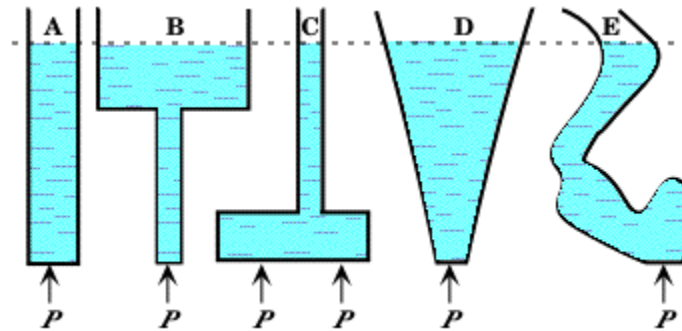
- **Any external pressure applied to a fluid is transmitted as undiminished throughout the liquid and onto the walls of the containing vessel.**
- Exactly true for only stationary fluids



# Pascal's Principle

- None of the body's fluids are strictly static or enclosed, as they are continually being replaced in a normally functioning body
- Body's enclosed fluids: cerebrospinal fluid, urine in bladder, fluid in the eyeball, amniotic fluid, synovial fluid

# Pascal's Principle



- The pressure at a point in a liquid is determined solely by the depth of that point below the surface. The volume of water or shape of container has no effect.

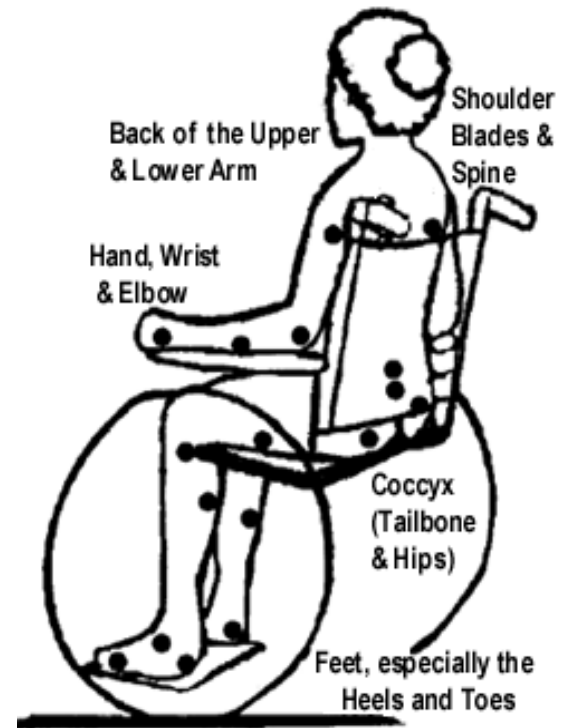
# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle: Decubitus Ulcers

Chronically ill patients confined to an ordinary mattress for a long time tend to have bed sores.

Bony projections not adapted to bear weight (buttocks, heels, shoulders). Weight supported on a small area.  $P \propto \frac{F}{A}$  capillary  $P$ .

Collapse of capillaries, prevent blood flow.

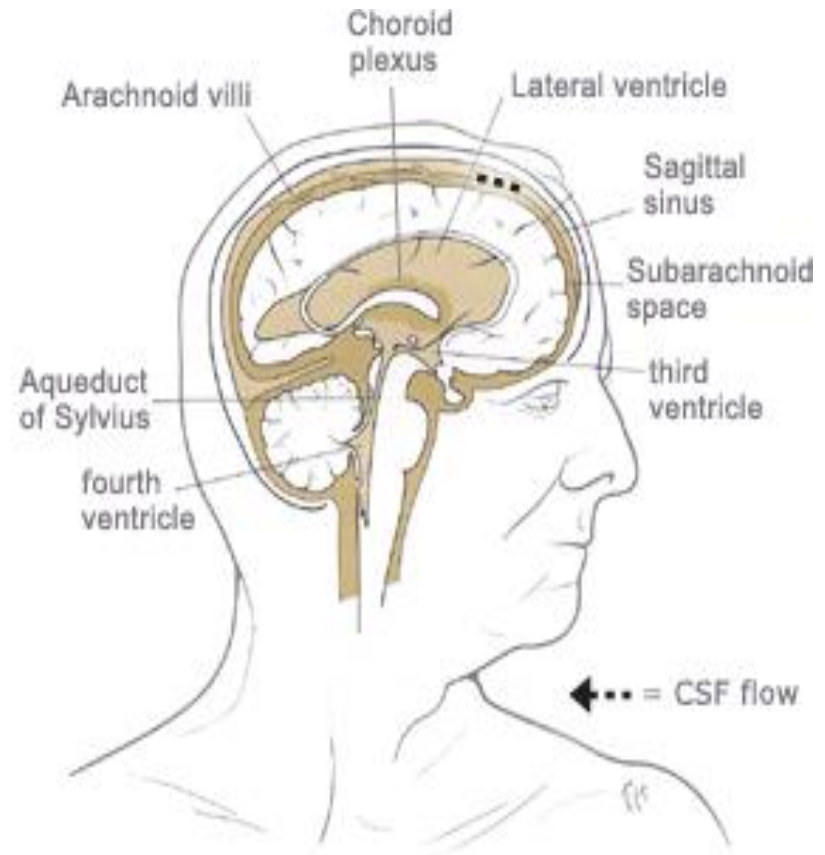
Use of an air or water mattress (closed fluid system) helps to prevent the formation of Decubitus Ulcers.



# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle: Cerebrospinal Fluid

An increase in  $P$  in any part of the fluid will increase the  $P$  in all parts of the fluid.

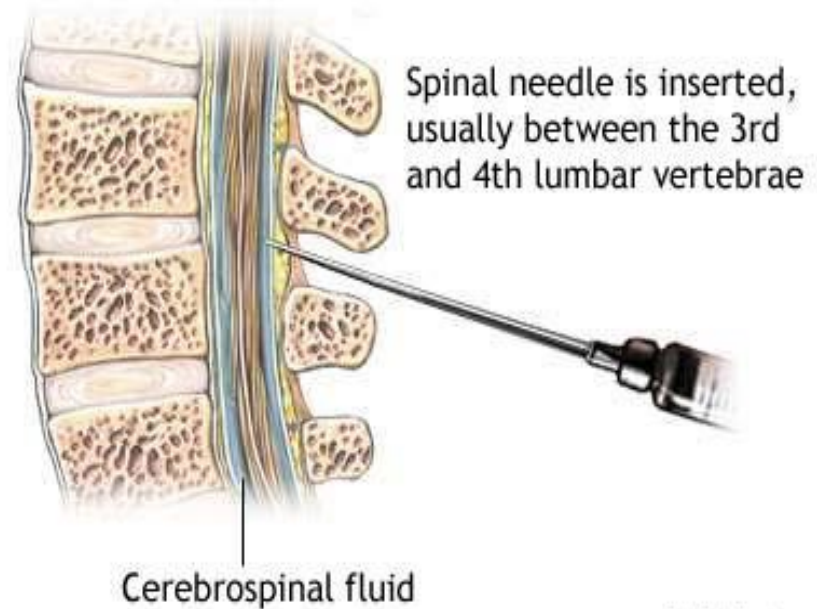
- CSF is normally at a pressure of about 0.8 to 1.8 kPa ( 6 mm to 14 mmHg).



# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle: Cerebrospinal Fluid

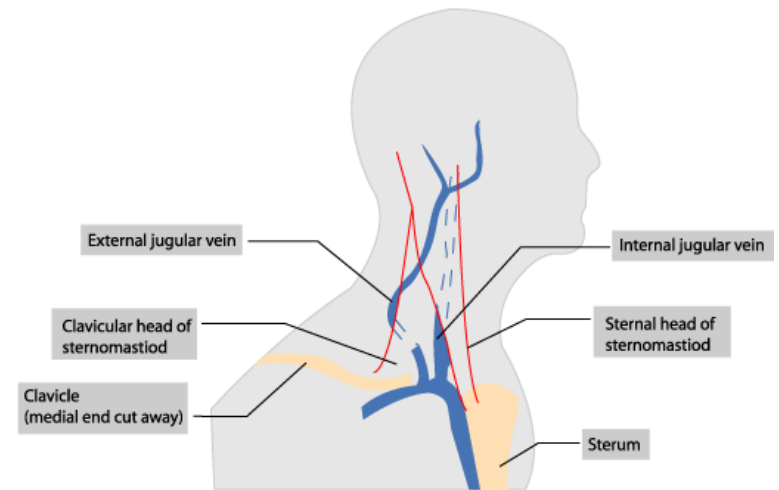
Brain tumors, inflamed meninges, haemorrhage or infection can increase the pressure of the CSF to between 3.9 and 5.9 kPa ( 30 to 45 mmHg). Pascal's principle can be used to determine if fluid flow in the spinal canal has been blocked:

Queckenstedt's test



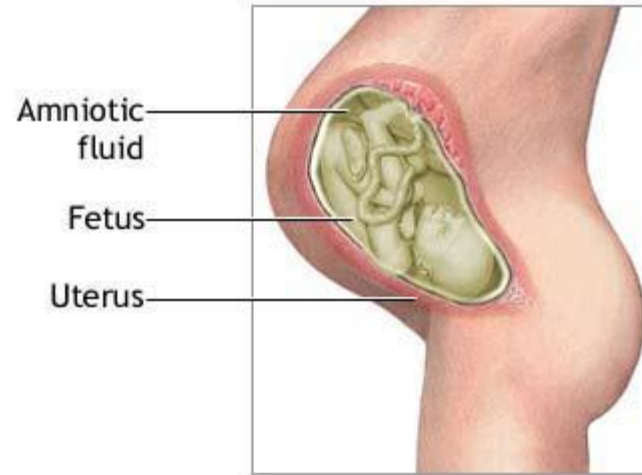
# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle: Queckenstedt's Test

- If the jugular vein is squeezed, intracranial P increases. Transmitted to all parts of the fluid
- If spinal tap manometer unaffected, obstruction indicated



# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle : Unborn Fetus

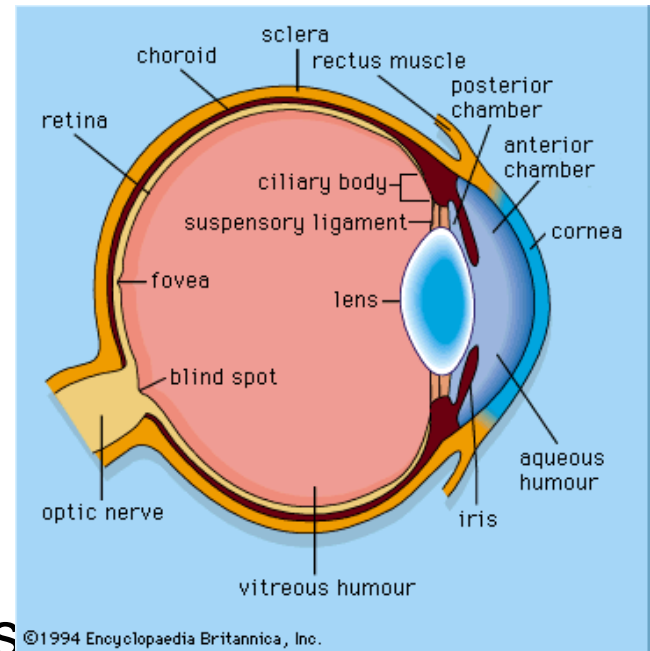
Amniotic fluid tends to distribute the effect of a force exerted on the abdominal area.





# Clinical Applications of Pascal's Principle: Eye

- Contains enclosed fluid.
- Aqueous humor is at a  $P$  of about 2 kPa ( 15 mm Hg) but ranges from 1.3 to 4.0 kPa ( 10 to 30 mmHg).
- Eye pressure is measured by a tonometer. Glaucoma: increased pressure in the eye.
- Any blow to the front of the eye will transmit  $P$  to the back of the eye and harm delicate structures ( blood vessels, retina, optic nerve ).



# Pressure of Flowing Fluids

- The pressure in flowing fluids depends on the details of the flow process in contrast to the case of the static liquid.
- When a liquid flows through a tube, there will be a pressure drop.
- Pressure drop per unit length =  $\frac{P_1 - P_2}{L}$

## Poiseuille's Law

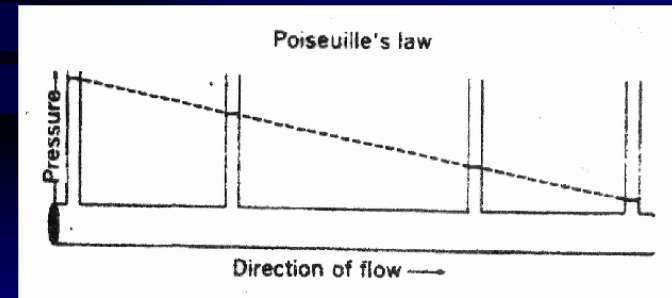
$$\text{Flow (Q)} = (P_1 - P_2) \frac{\pi r^4}{8\eta L}$$

$P_1 - P_2$  = pressure gradient per unit length

$L$  = length of tube

$r$  = radius of tube

$\eta$  = viscosity



# Volume Flow Rate

- $\mathcal{J}$  or Q      volume flow rate

$$\mathcal{J} = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{R}$$

Ohm's Law for fluid flow

$P_1$  = pressure upstream end

$P_2$  = pressure downstream end

R = resistance to flow

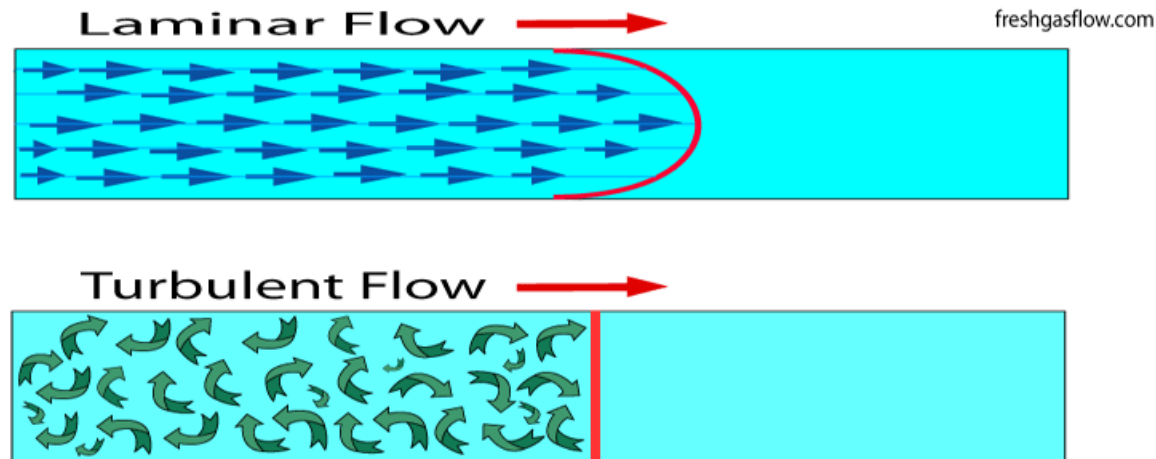
- $$\mathcal{J} = v \cdot A$$
$$\frac{\text{volume}}{\text{time}} = \frac{\text{length}}{\text{time}} \cdot \frac{\text{volume}}{\text{length}}$$

# Resistance to Flow

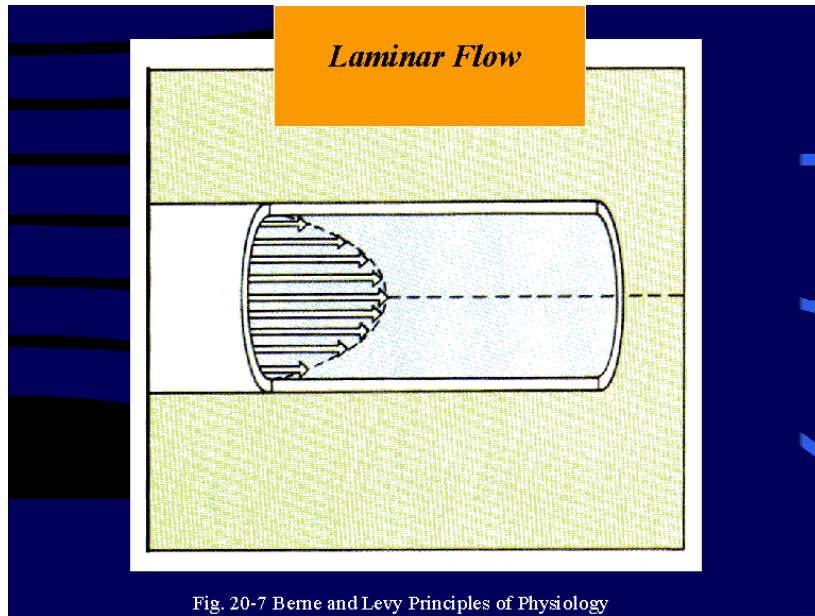
- fluids always flow from regions of high pressure to regions of lower pressure
- ***resistance*** to fluid flow is caused by friction between the molecules in the fluid and the walls of the tube
- ***frictional resistance always reduces flow***

# Resistance

- **A.** ↓ with the diameter of the tube  
↑ with the length of the tube  
↑ with the viscosity of the fluid
- **B.** Flow pattern of the liquid: Laminar flow or/ turbulent flow

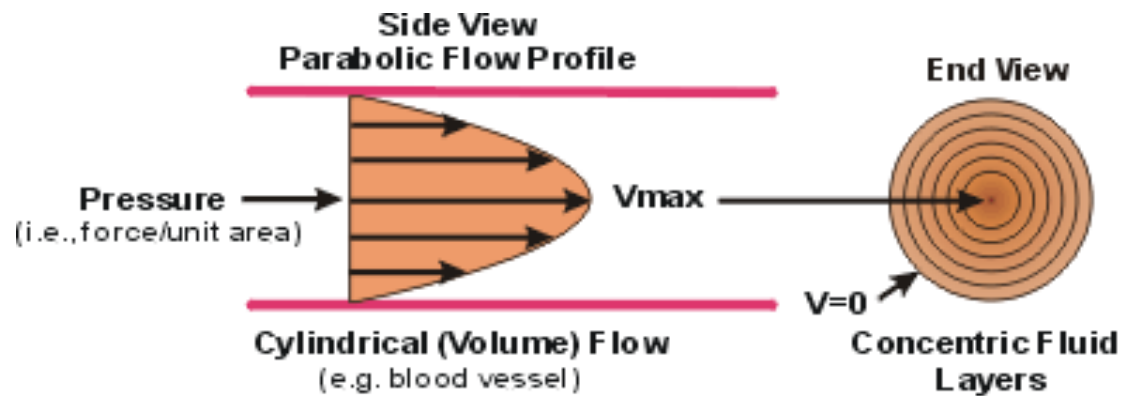


# Laminar Flow



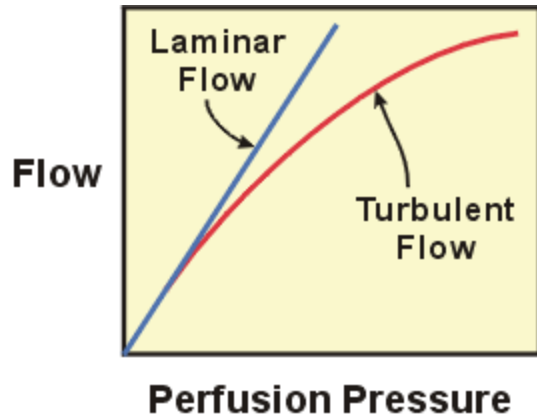
- Layered, streamline flow
- Velocity in each layer constant but less than that of the more axial layers; highest in the center
- Minimum energy loss

# Laminar Flow



1999-2003 Richard E. Klabunde

# Turbulent Flow



Effects of turbulence on pressure-flow relationship. Turbulence decreases flow at any given perfusion pressure.

- Caused by the momentum of the fluid
- Flow rate smaller than laminar flow, for the same P difference



# Poiseuille's Law

- Applies to steady, laminar flow of Newtonian (ideal) fluids.

- $\mathfrak{V} = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{\mathfrak{R}}$                        $\mathfrak{R} = \frac{8 \eta L}{\pi r^4}$

$\eta$  = viscosity

L = length of the tube

r = inside radius of the tube

$P_1 - P_2 = \Delta P$  = pressure gradient

- **UNITS :**

P : dynes / cm<sup>2</sup>

L : cm

$\mathfrak{V}$  : cm<sup>3</sup> / sec

$\eta$  : dyne-sec / cm<sup>2</sup>

- **I.U.**

Pa

m

m<sup>3</sup> / sec

Pa - sec

# Poiseuille's Law

- $\mathfrak{I}$  (laminar flow) =  $\frac{P_1 - P_2 (\pi r^4)}{8 \eta L}$  =  $\frac{\Delta P (\pi r^4)}{8 \eta L}$

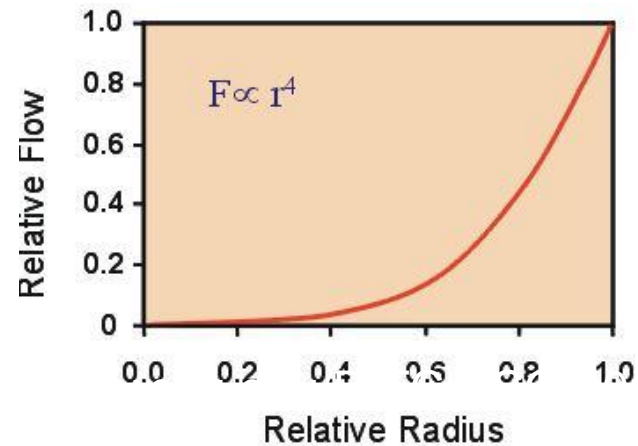
$$\mathfrak{I} = A \bar{v} \Rightarrow$$

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\Delta P r^2}{8 \eta L}$$

Jean-Louis Marie **Poiseuille**



# Volume Flow Rate and Radius



Note that the volume flow rate depends upon the fourth power of the tubing radius

# Relation between Flow Rate and Velocity

- $\mathcal{J} = A v$

If the pipe is rigid, the fluid that enters one end will be the amount that exits from the other end.

- Assuming the fluid incompressible

$$V = A_1 \cdot L_1 = A_2 \cdot L_2 \quad L_1 = v_1 \cdot t \quad L_2 = v_2 \cdot t$$

- Therefore  $A_1 \cdot v_1 t = A_2 \cdot v_2 t$

$$A_1 \cdot v_1 = A_2 \cdot v_2 = \text{constant}$$

- $A v = \mathcal{J}$

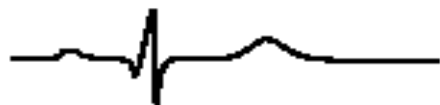
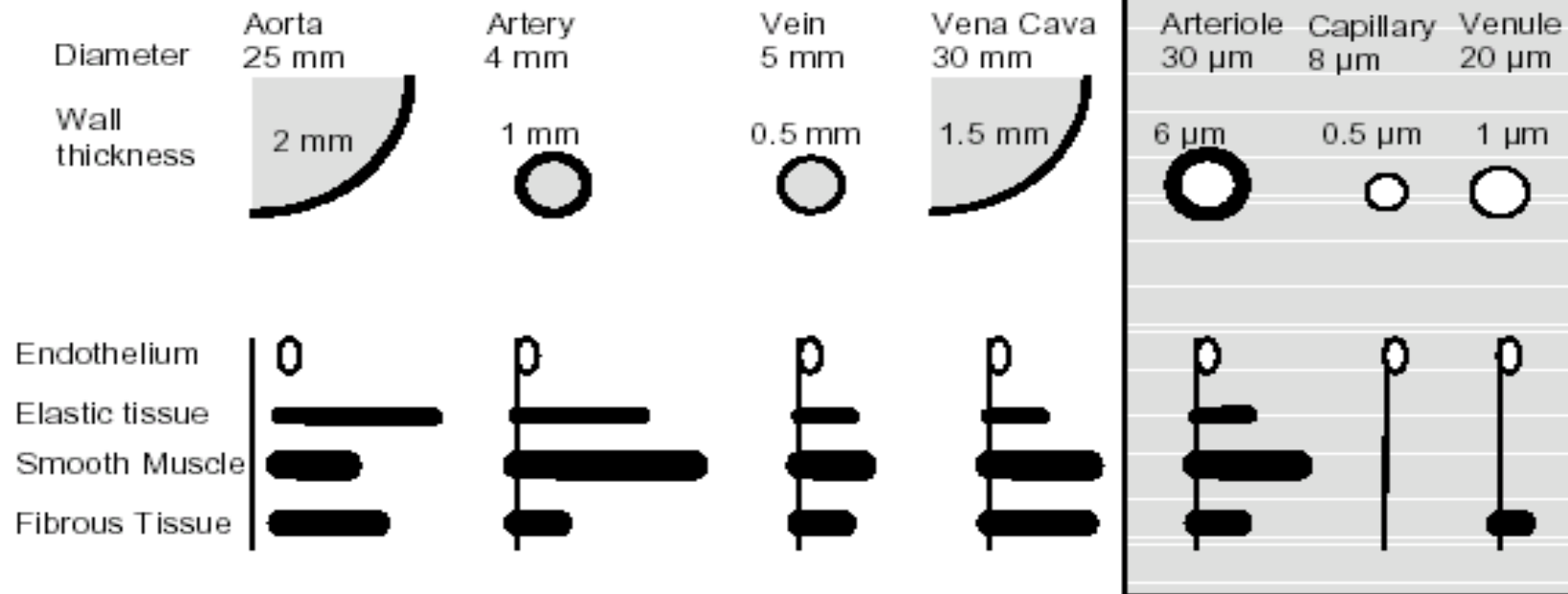
$$\frac{V \cdot L}{L \cdot \text{time}} = \frac{V}{\text{time}}$$

# Flow rate and Velocity. Equation of Continuity

$$v_2 = \frac{A_1}{A_2} v_1$$

- The velocity of the liquid is inversely proportional to the cross-sectional area of the pipe.
- This rule holds whether a given cross sectional area applies to a single large tube or to several smaller tubes in parallel.
- Equation of continuity holds where  $\mathfrak{S}$  is the same everywhere in the pipe.

# Circulation overview



Hemodynamics

# Relative Velocities

- Velocity of blood:
- Aorta 30 cm/s
- Arterioles 1.5 cm/s
- Capillaries 0.04 cm/s
- Venules 0.5 cm/s
- Venae cavae 8 cm/s
- Artery 4 mm
- Aorta 25 mm
- Arteriole 30  $\mu\text{m}$
- Terminal arteriole 10  $\mu\text{m}$
- Vein 5 mm
- Capillary 8  $\mu\text{m}$
- Venule 20  $\mu\text{m}$
- Venacava 30 mm

# Applicability of Poiseuille's Law *in vivo*

- "The problem of treating the pulsatile flow of blood through the cardiovascular system in precise mathematical terms is insuperable" (Berne and Levy)
- - Blood is not Newtonian (viscosity is not constant)
- - Flow is not steady but pulsatile
- - Vessels are elastic, multibranched conduits of constantly changing diameter and shape.

Hemodynamics *Bioengineering 6010- Cardiovascular Physiology*



# Critical Velocity- Reynold's Number

$$v_c = \frac{R\eta}{\rho r}$$

$\eta$  = viscosity

$\rho$  = density

$R$  = Reynold's number  
(experimental constant)

$$R = \frac{r v \rho}{\eta}$$

$\eta$  = viscosity

$\rho$  = density of fluid

$r$  = radius

-

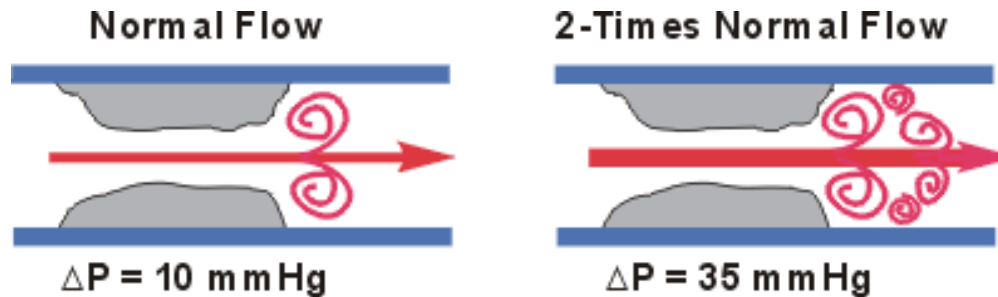
$v$  = mean velocity

- $R$  is 1000 for water and slightly less for blood.
- $R > 1000 \Rightarrow$  turbulence

# Critical Velocity

- In humans critical velocity is sometimes exceeded in the ascending aorta at the peak of systolic ejection.
- Turbulent flow fluid of low viscosity velocity, relatively great develops first in large vessels
- Turbulence occurs more frequently in anemia

# Turbulent Flow



- In turbulent flow, some energy is dissipated as sound and some as heat.
- Noise facilitates blood pressure measurements and makes possible the detection of some heart abnormalities.
- Example: heart and aorta of anemic patients. cardiac murmurs heard with the stethoscope
- Poiseuille and Reynolds experiments were for homogeneous fluids.
- Blood  $\Rightarrow$  not homogeneous, flow is pulsatile, arteries are elastic

# Changes in Blood Speed during Circulation

Speed maximum in the aorta, minimum in capillaries.

$\mathfrak{S} \Rightarrow 5 \text{ liters / min}$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{v}_{\text{aorta}} &= \frac{(5000 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{min}) (1 / 60 \text{ min / sec})}{\pi (0.9 \text{ cm})^2} \\ &= 32.8 \text{ cm / sec} \end{aligned}$$

Area of the pipes  $\downarrow$        $v$  (speed)  $\uparrow$

Total area of the system must be used

Total area of the capillary system is  $\sim 1000$  x as large as the aorta

# Blood Distribution

- Velocities/Flows
  - Aorta: 300 mm/s
  - Capillaries: 0-3 mm/s or 5.5 hours/mm<sup>3</sup>
- Blood mass: 8% of body mass
- Volumes (percent of total blood volume)
  - Systemic: 83%
    - Arteries: 11%
    - Capillaries: 5%
    - Veins: 67%
  - Pulmonary: 12%
  - Heart: 5%

