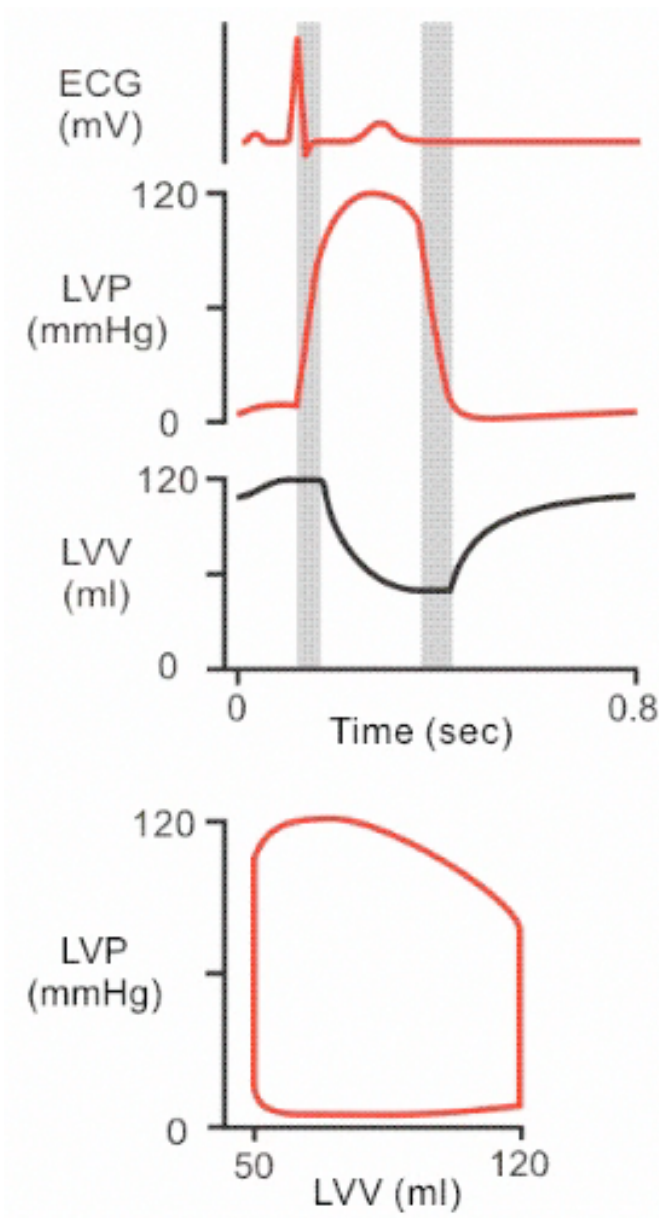


CV BSc Module 1
Molecular and Cellular Cardiology
Steven Marston, Cesare Teracciano, Ralph Knöll



Introduction: mechanisms of contractility in the heart
Basic equations for rates and equilibria



Basic mechanics of the heart

Work= force x distance

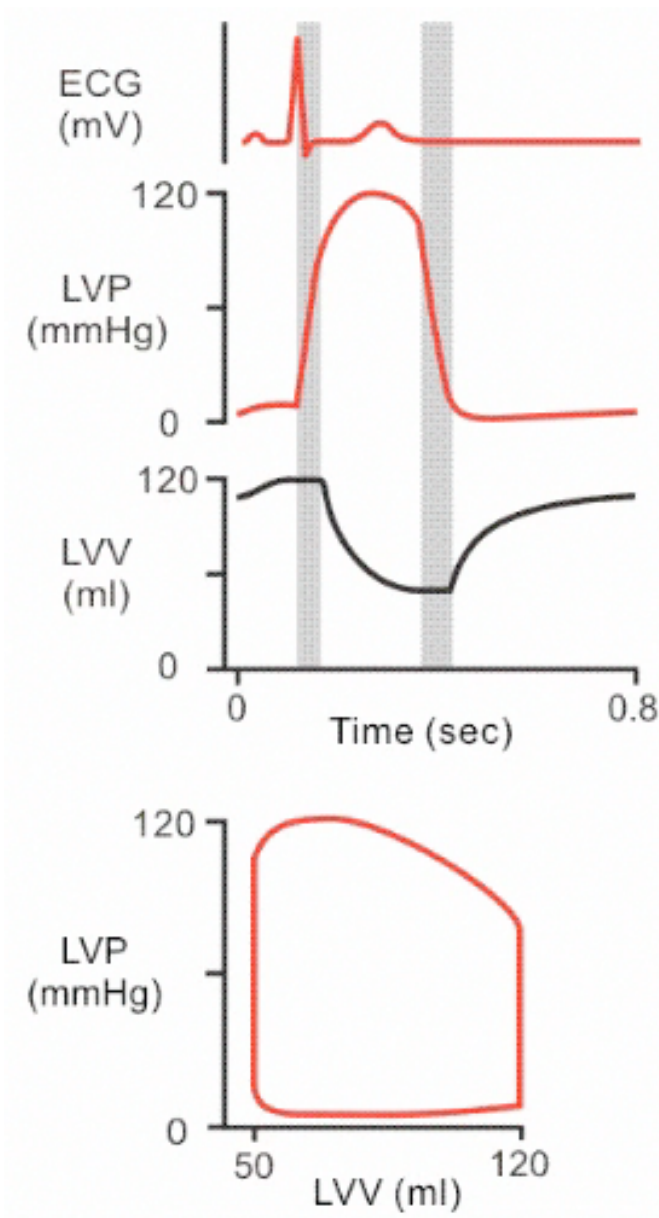
= pressure x volume

= area of PV loop

= about 1 Joule per beat

Power= work/time

= 1 to 5 Watts



Energy conversion

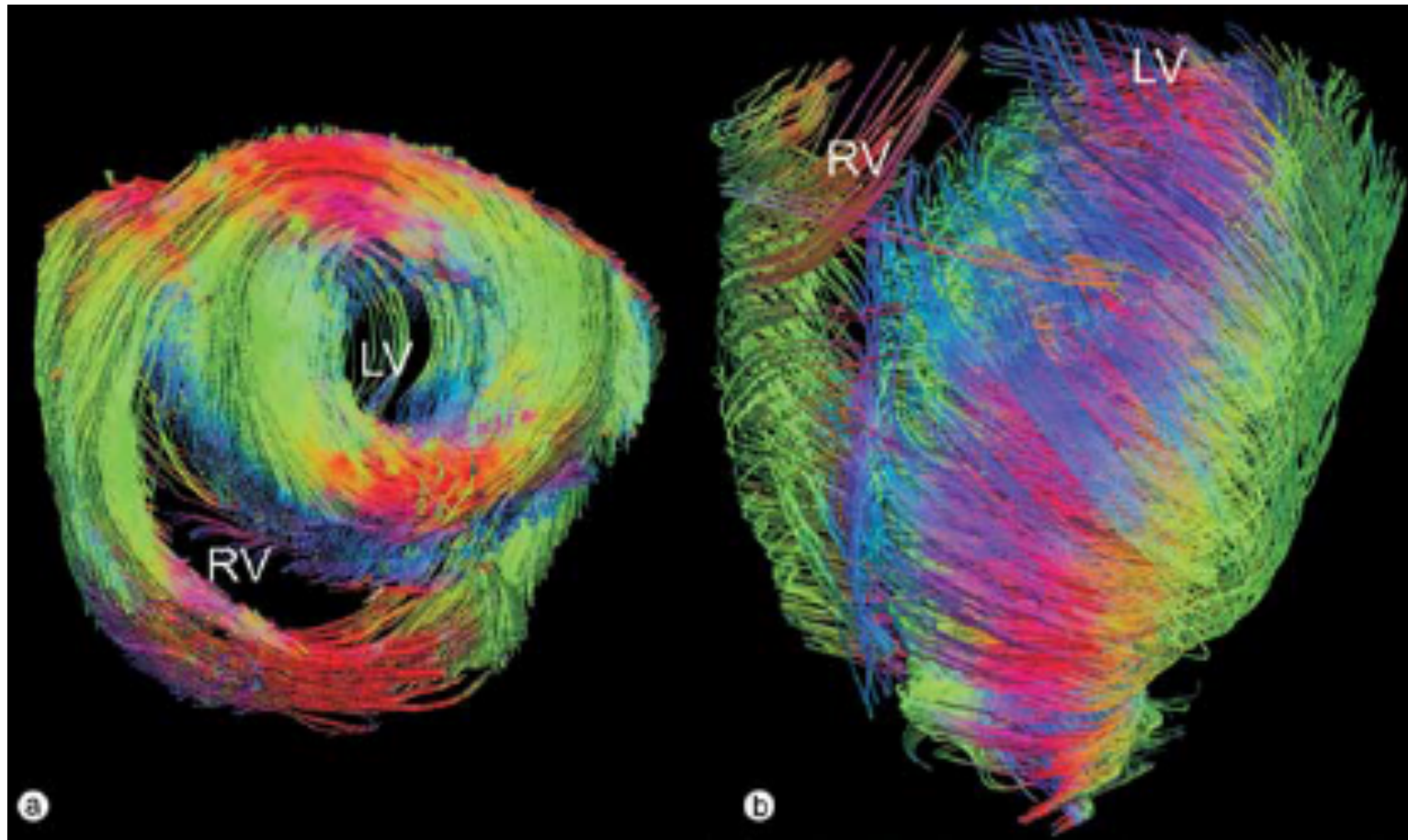
Chemical energy in the form of high-energy phosphate bonds of ATP is converted into mechanical work by motor proteins

$ATP > ADP + P_i + \text{work} + \text{heat}$

$\Delta G = 60 \text{ kJ per mole of ATP}$

Muscle is a linear motor

Linear motion is converted to changes in heart chamber volume by the spiral arrangement of muscle fibres (wringer-like action)



Schmid et al., Eur J Cardiol 2005
doi:10.1016/j.ejcts.2004.11.036

Contraction of a single human cardiac myocyte stimulated at 0.5 Hz

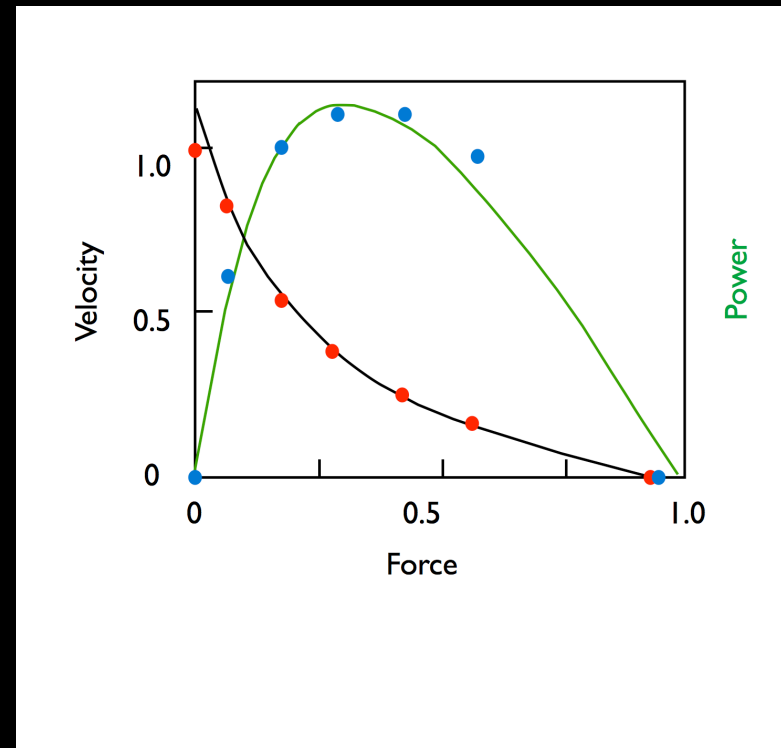


mechanics of
contractility

switching on and off

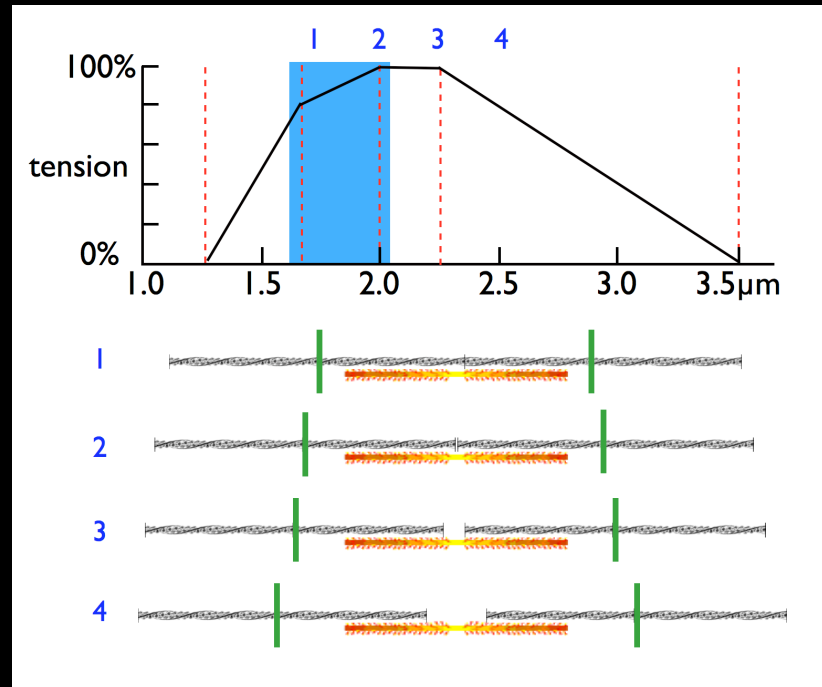
fuel supply

Force-velocity relationship



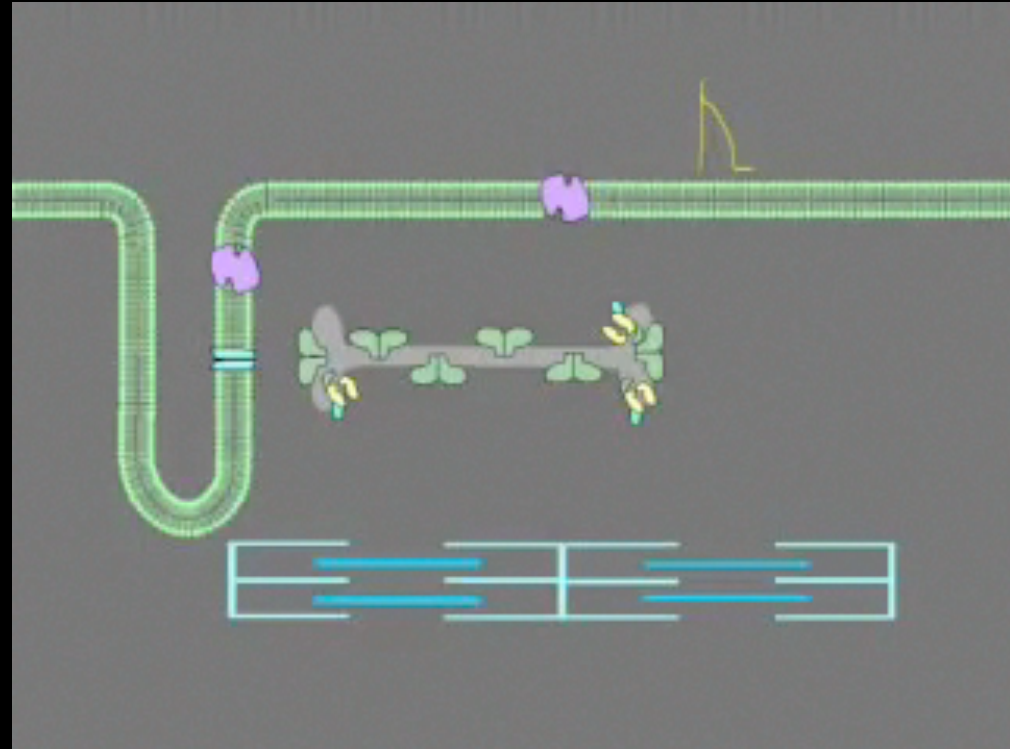
Maximum force is isometric
maximum speed is unloaded
maximum power is at an intermediate speed

Length-tension relationship



This relationship is due to the sliding filament mechanism of muscle contraction
Heart muscle contracts in the length range below optimum
The length-tension and force-velocity relationships are net result of the action of a large number of independent force generating molecules

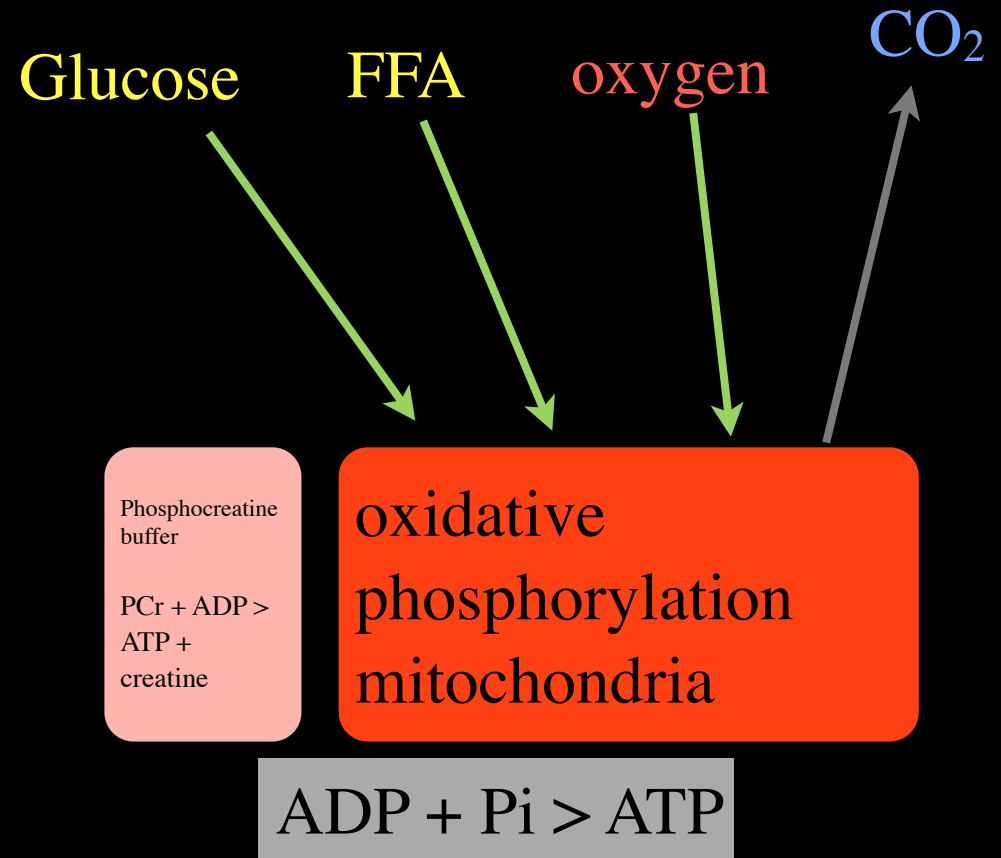
Excitation-contraction coupling



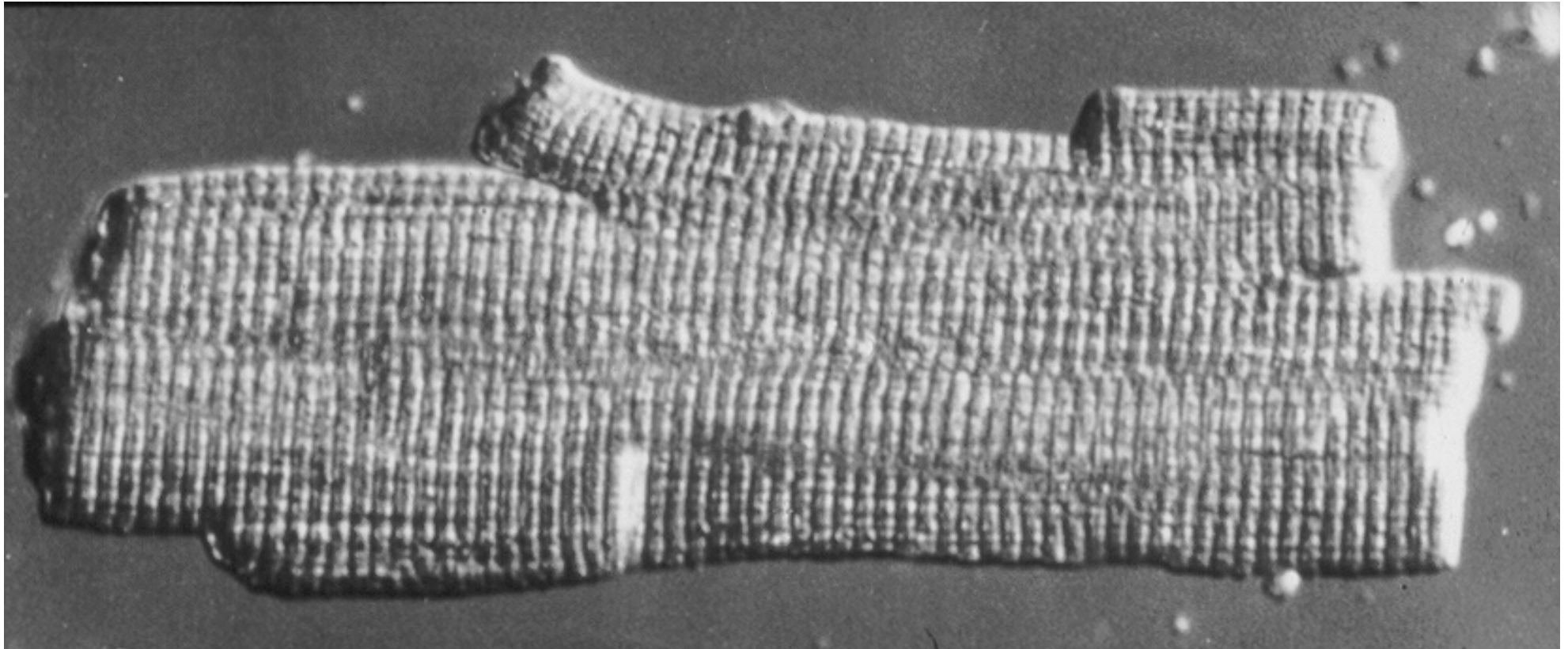
animation by Cesare Teracciano

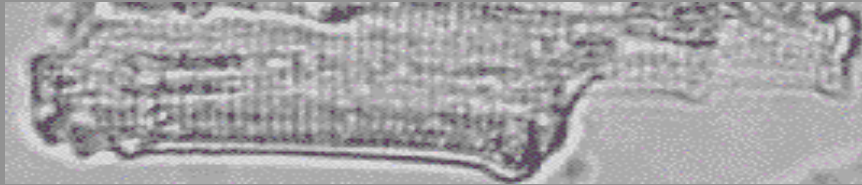
The action potential switches on contraction via release of Ca^{2+} into the cytoplasm which then activates the contractile proteins. Relaxation is due to pumping Ca^{2+} out of the cytoplasm into the sarcoplasmic reticulum

Energy for contraction is generated by oxidative phosphorylation



Mechanism of cardiac muscle contractility

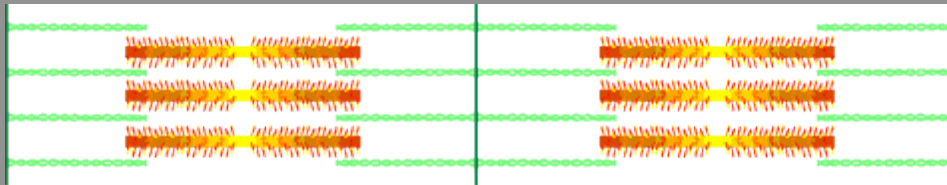




Myocyte



Myofibril



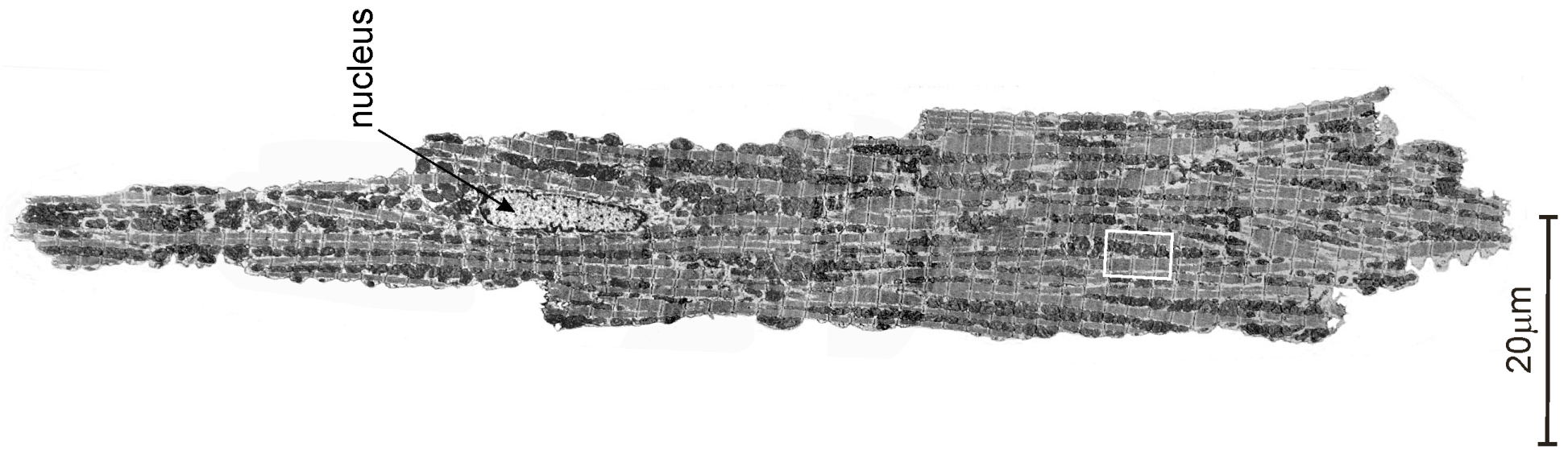
Sarcomere

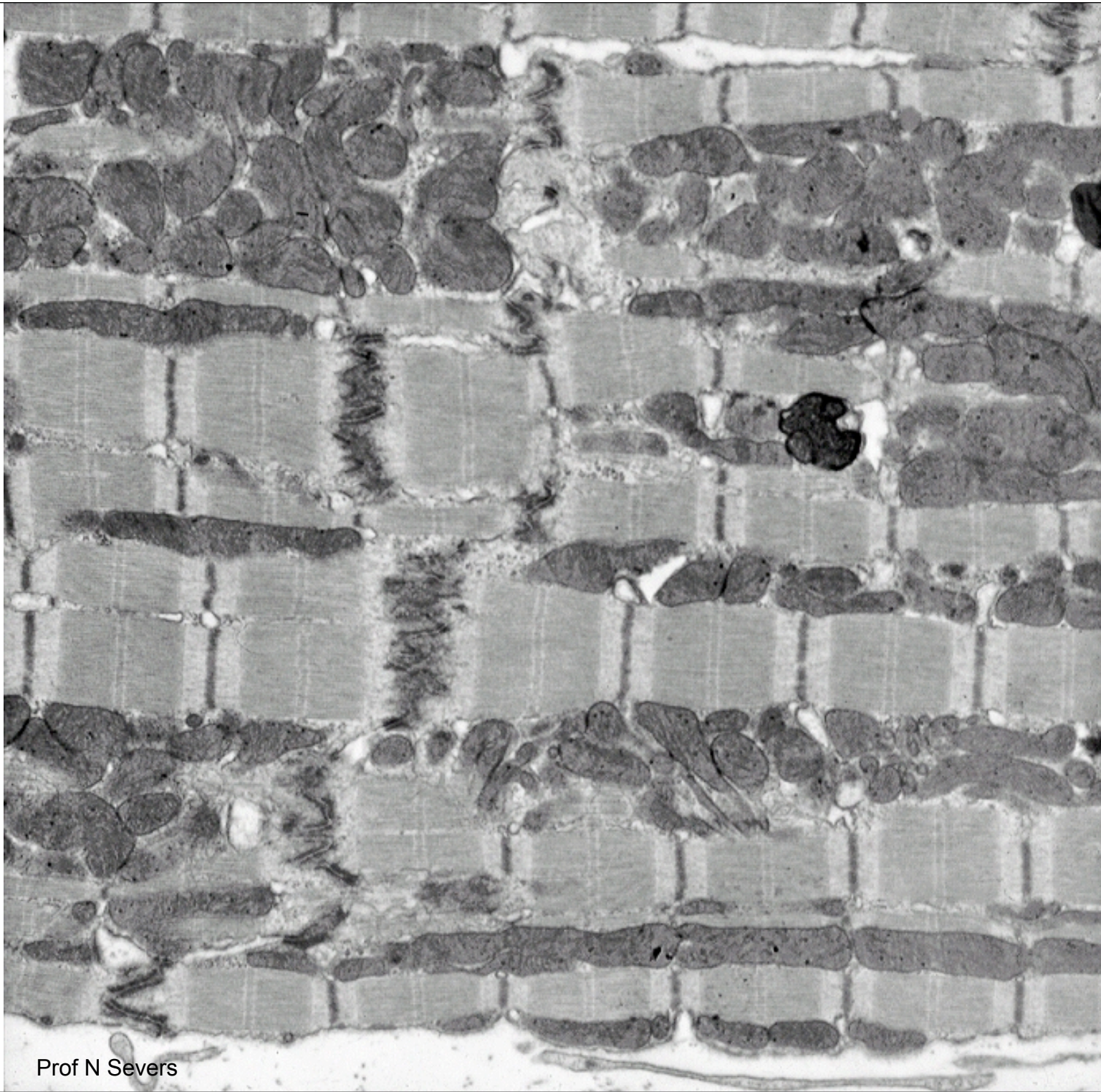


Actomyosin

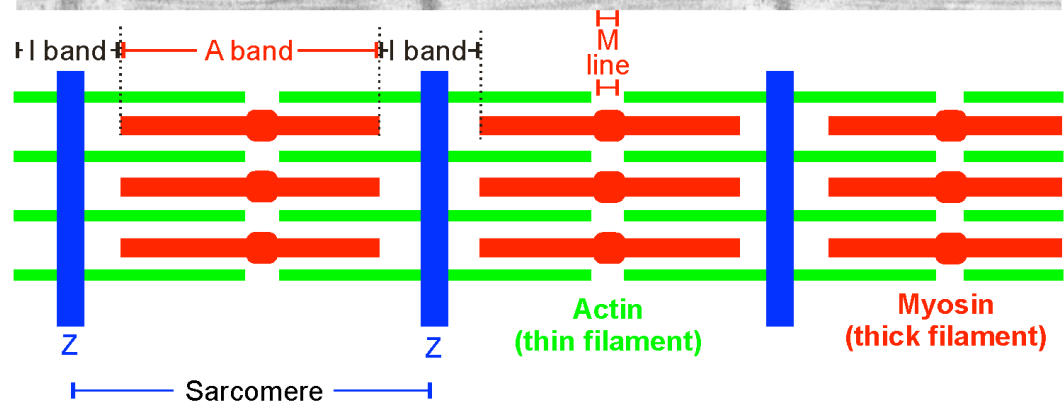
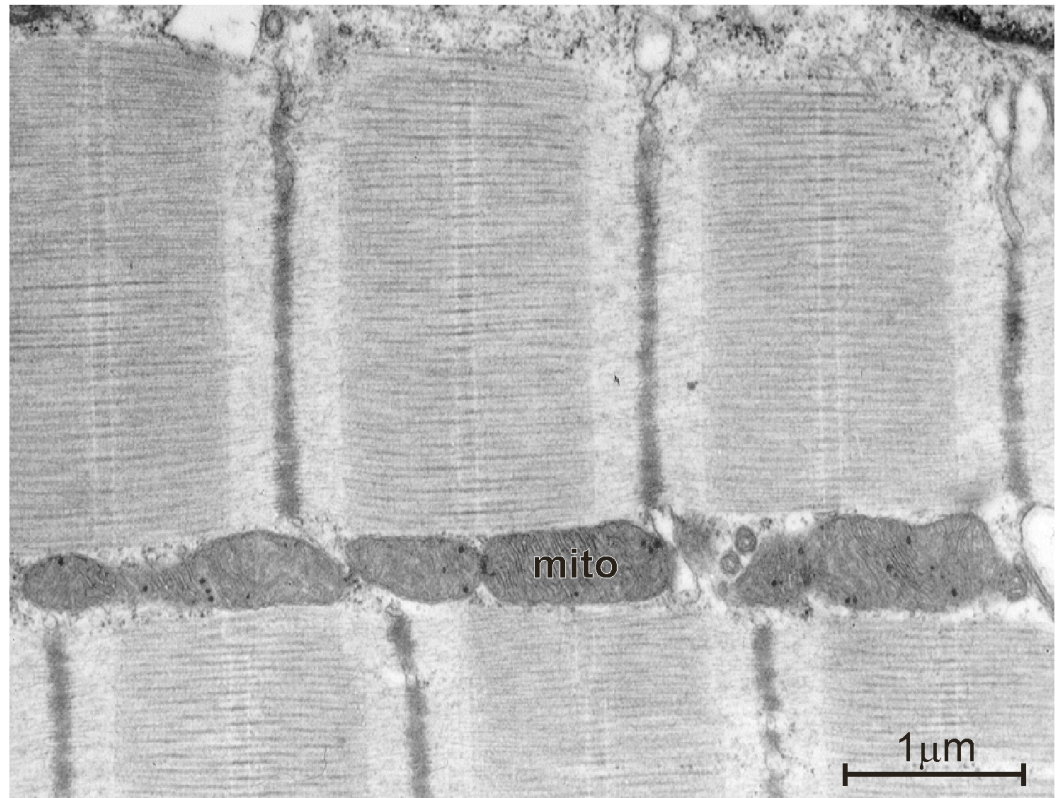
Isolated cardiomyocytes

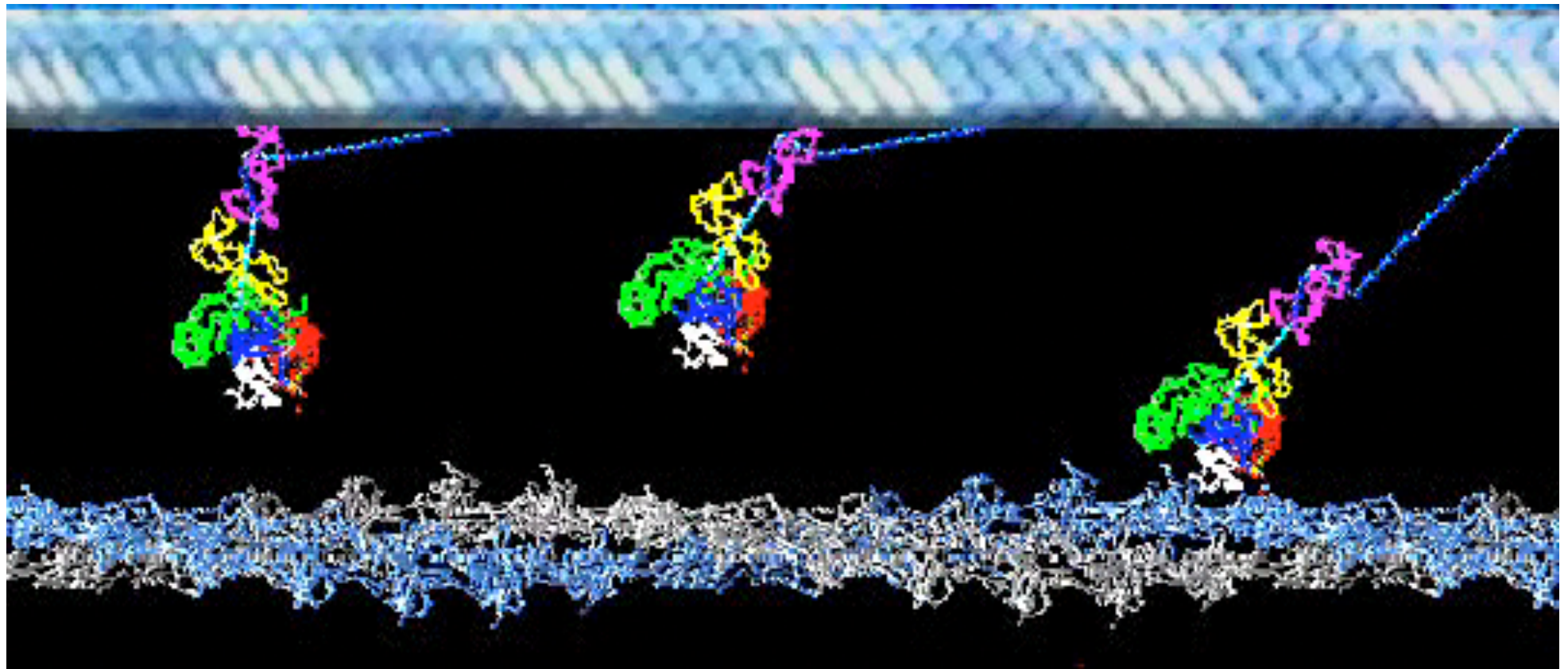
Prof N Severs



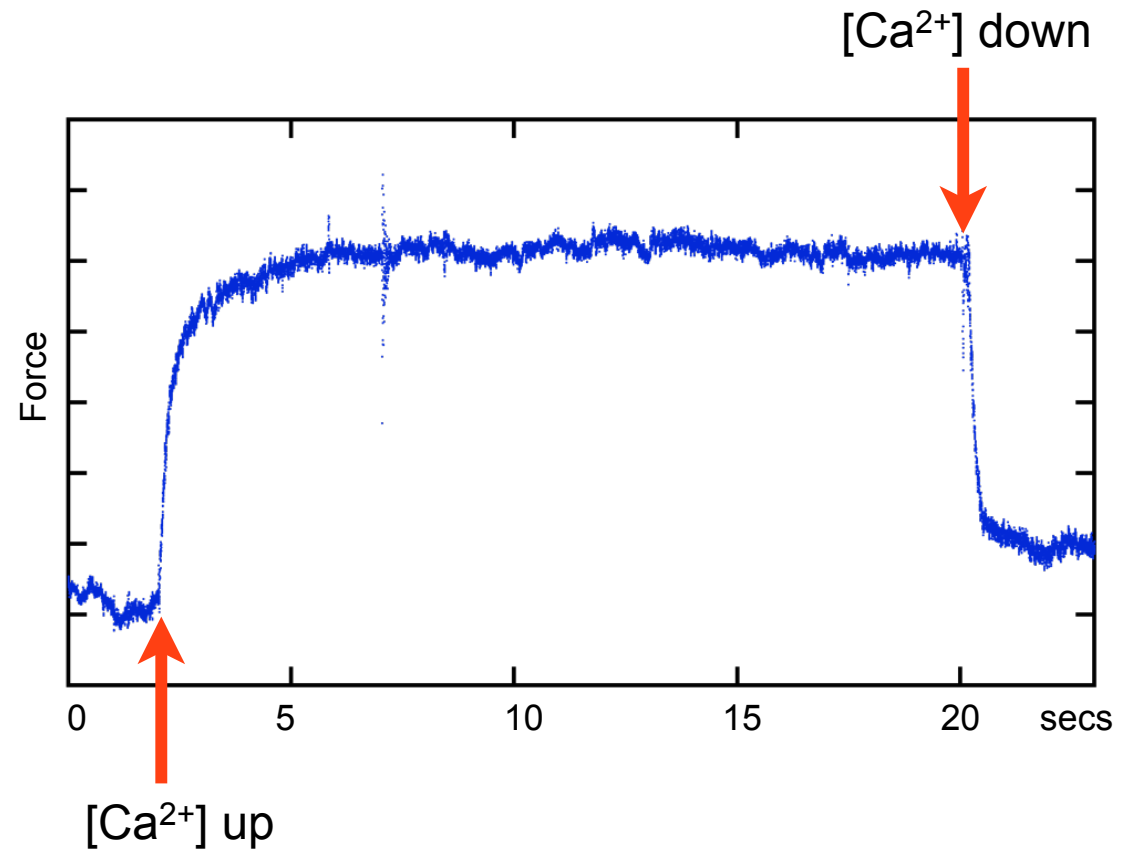
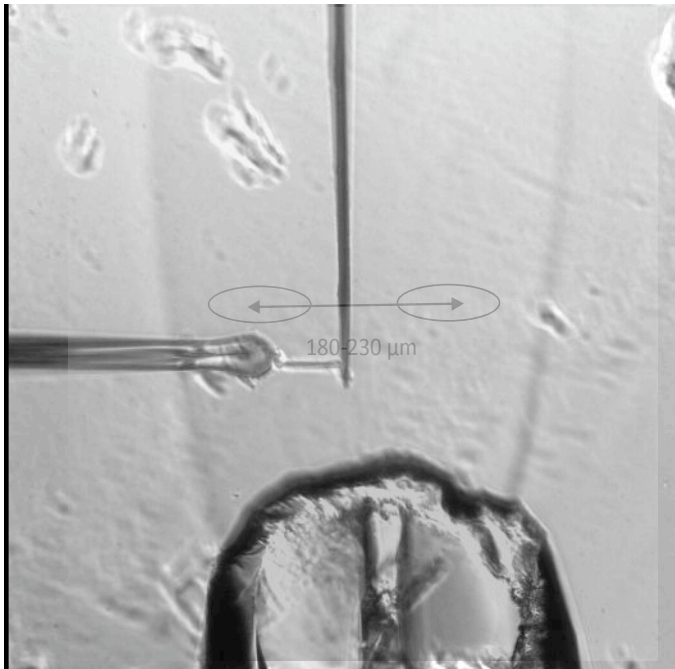


Prof N Severs

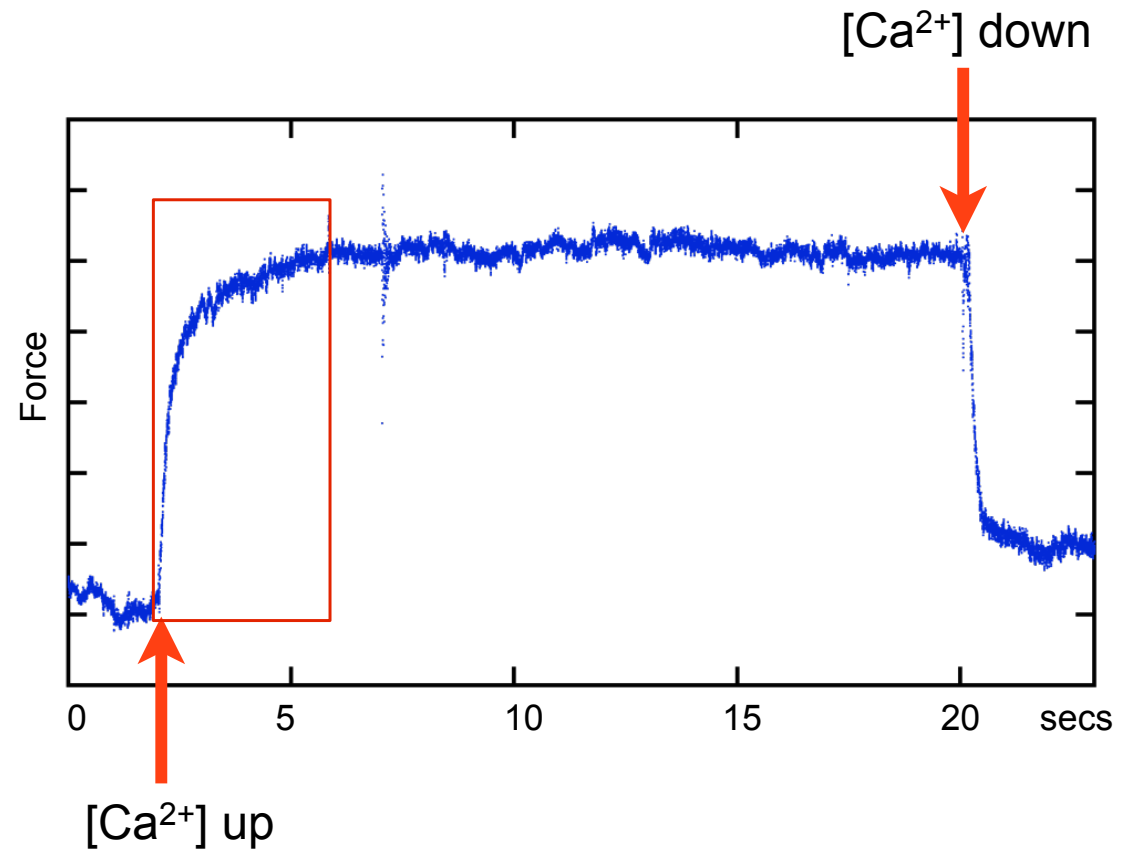
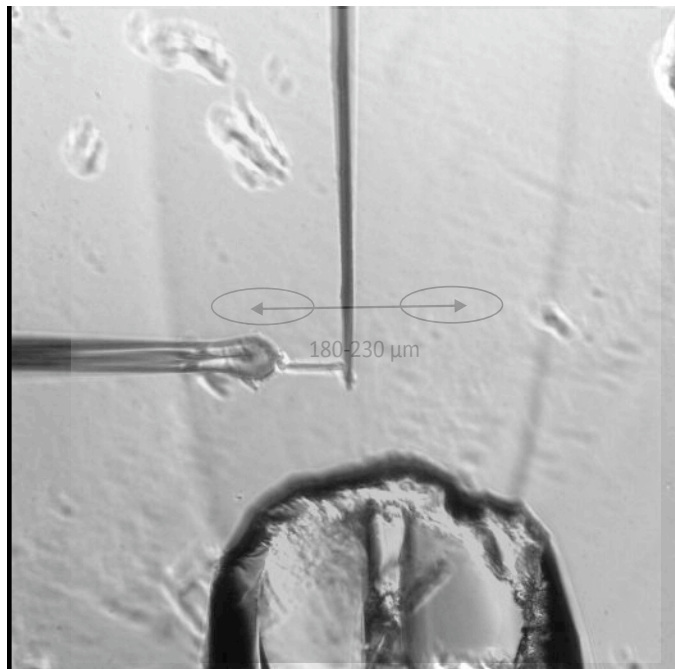




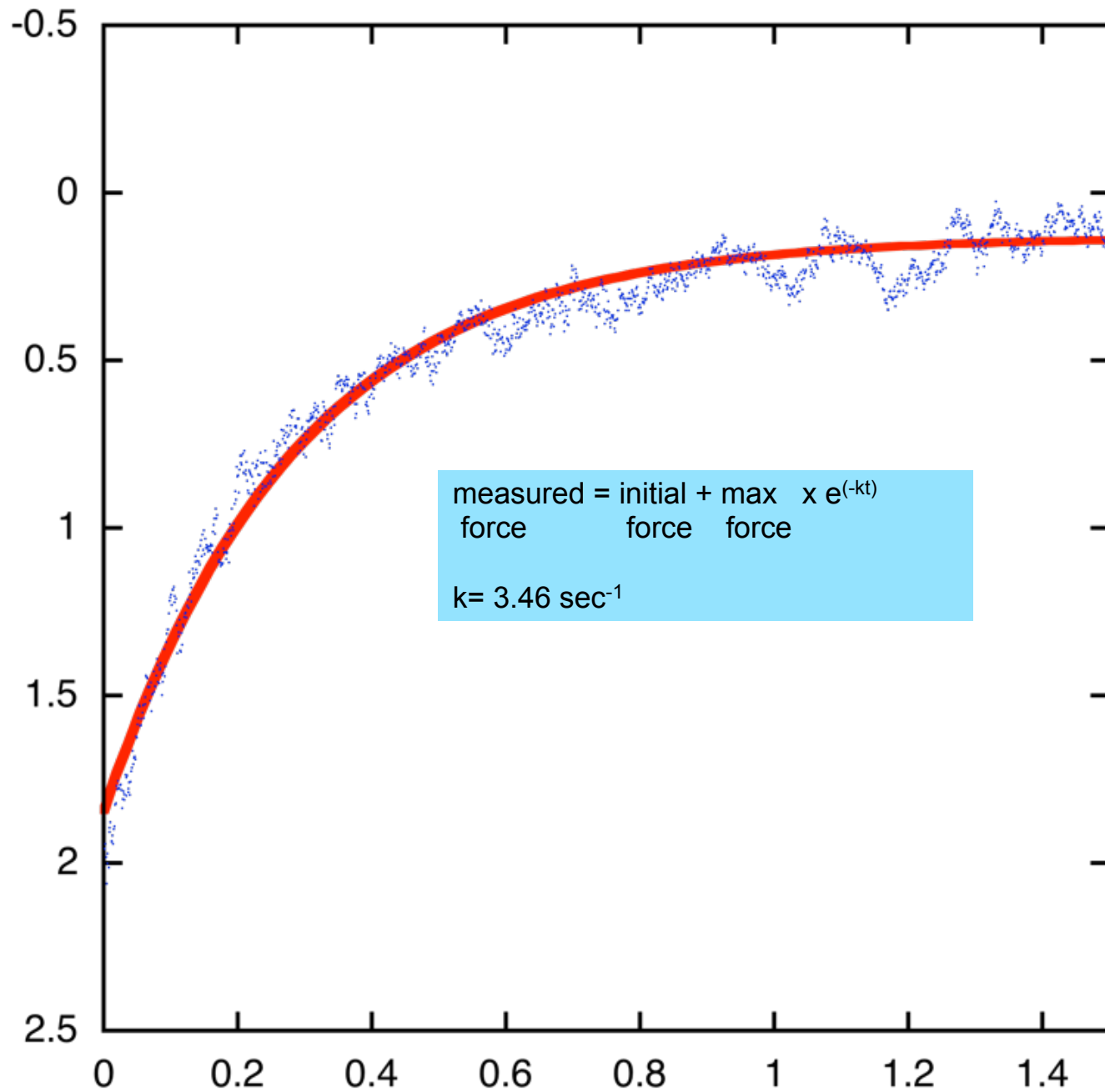
Rates and equilibrium: Ca^{2+} activation of contraction and relaxation



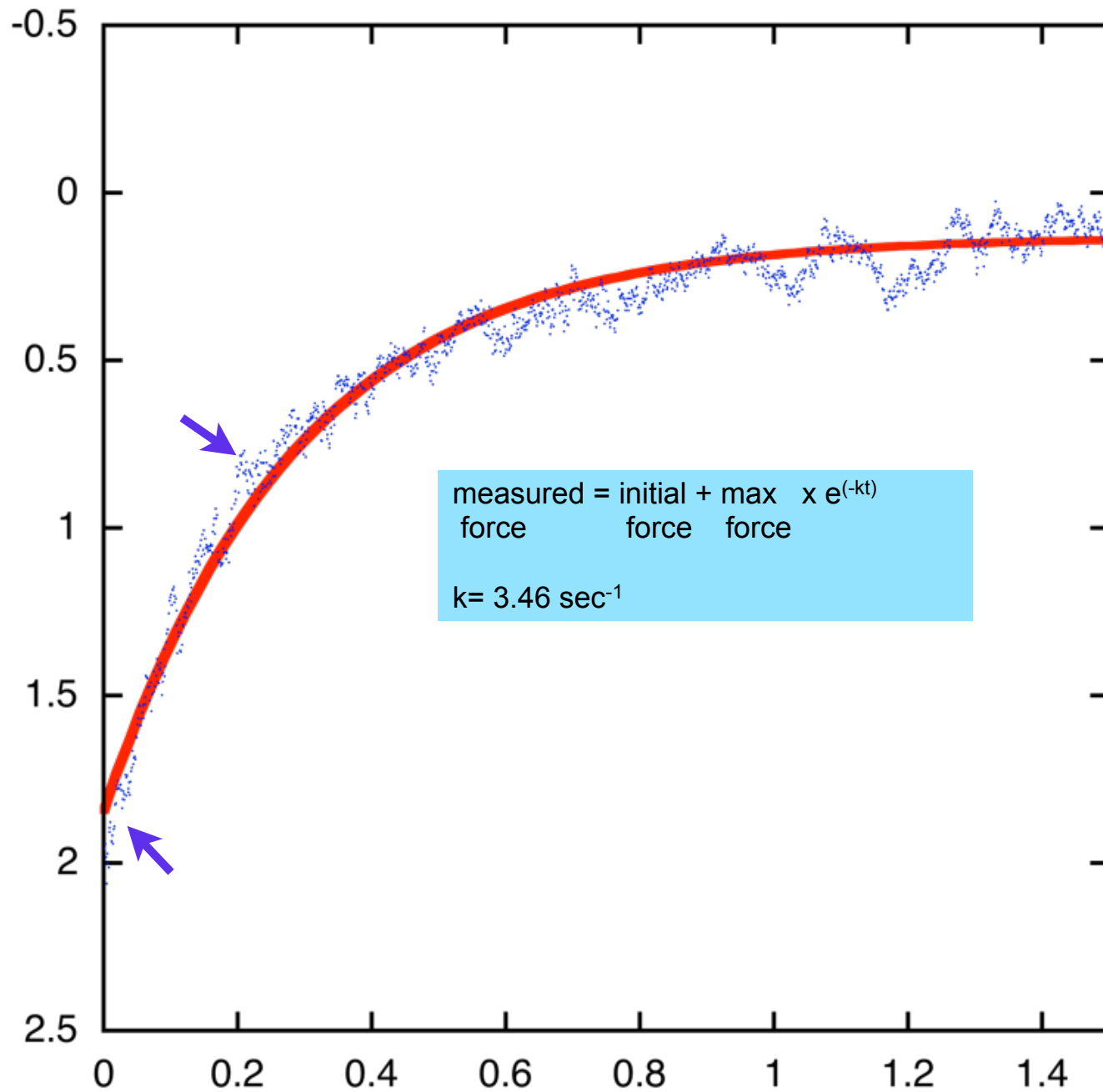
Rates and equilibrium: Ca^{2+} activation of contraction and relaxation



measurement of rate of a process

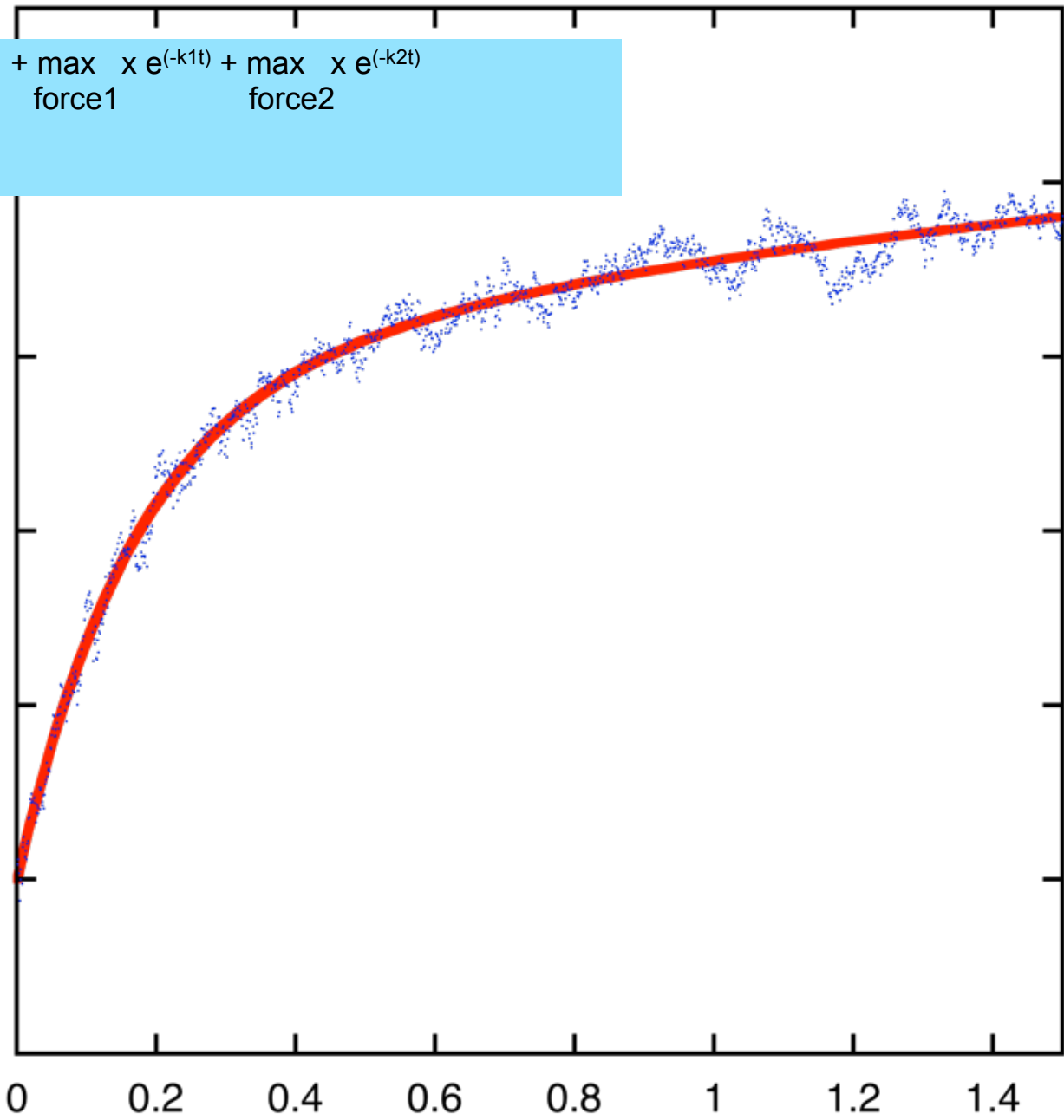


measurement of rate of a process: single exponential



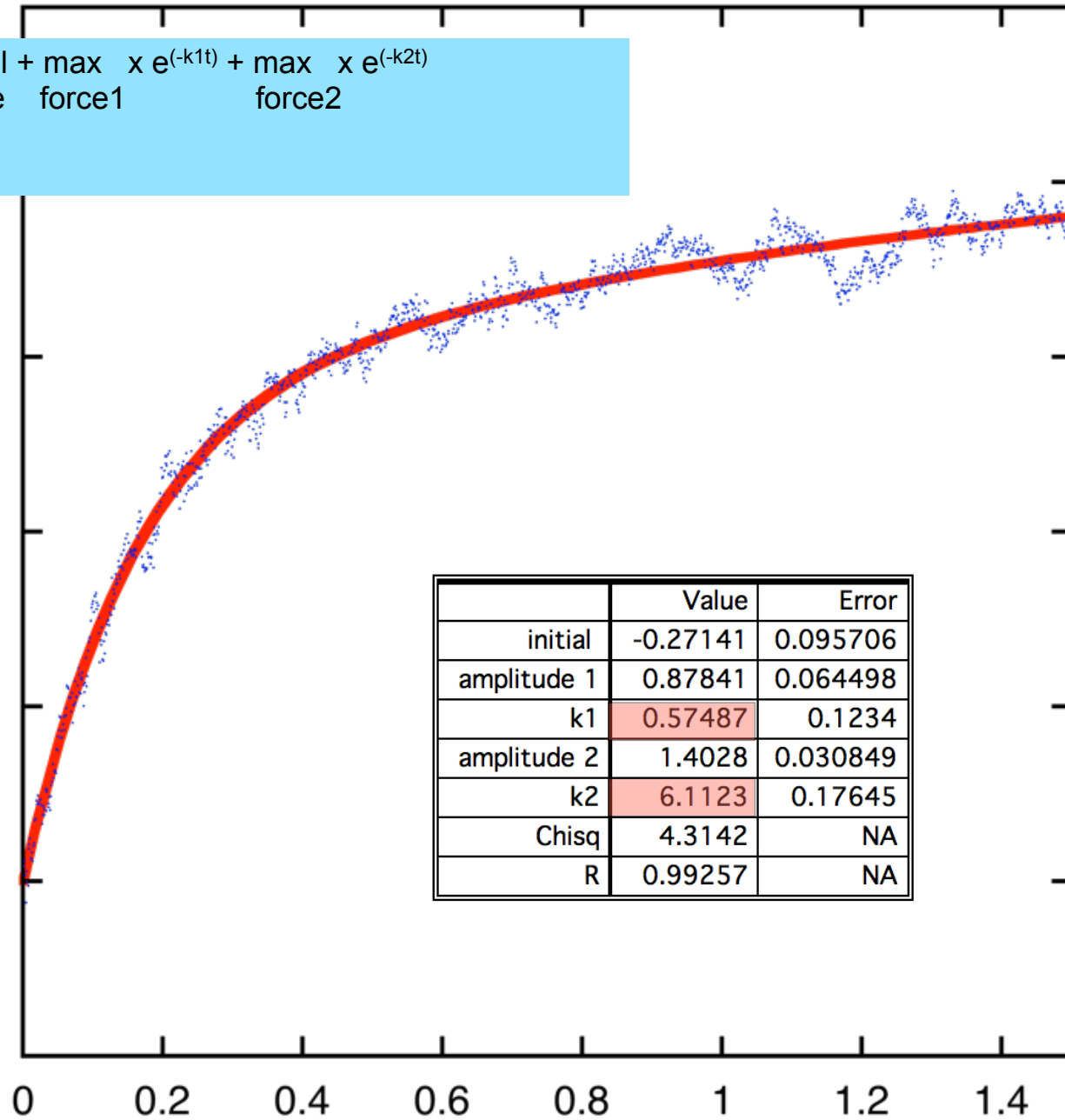
measurement of rate of a process: single exponential

$$\text{measured force} = \text{initial force} + \text{max force1} \times e^{-k_1 t} + \text{max force2} \times e^{-k_2 t}$$



measurement of rate of a process: double exponential fit ²⁰

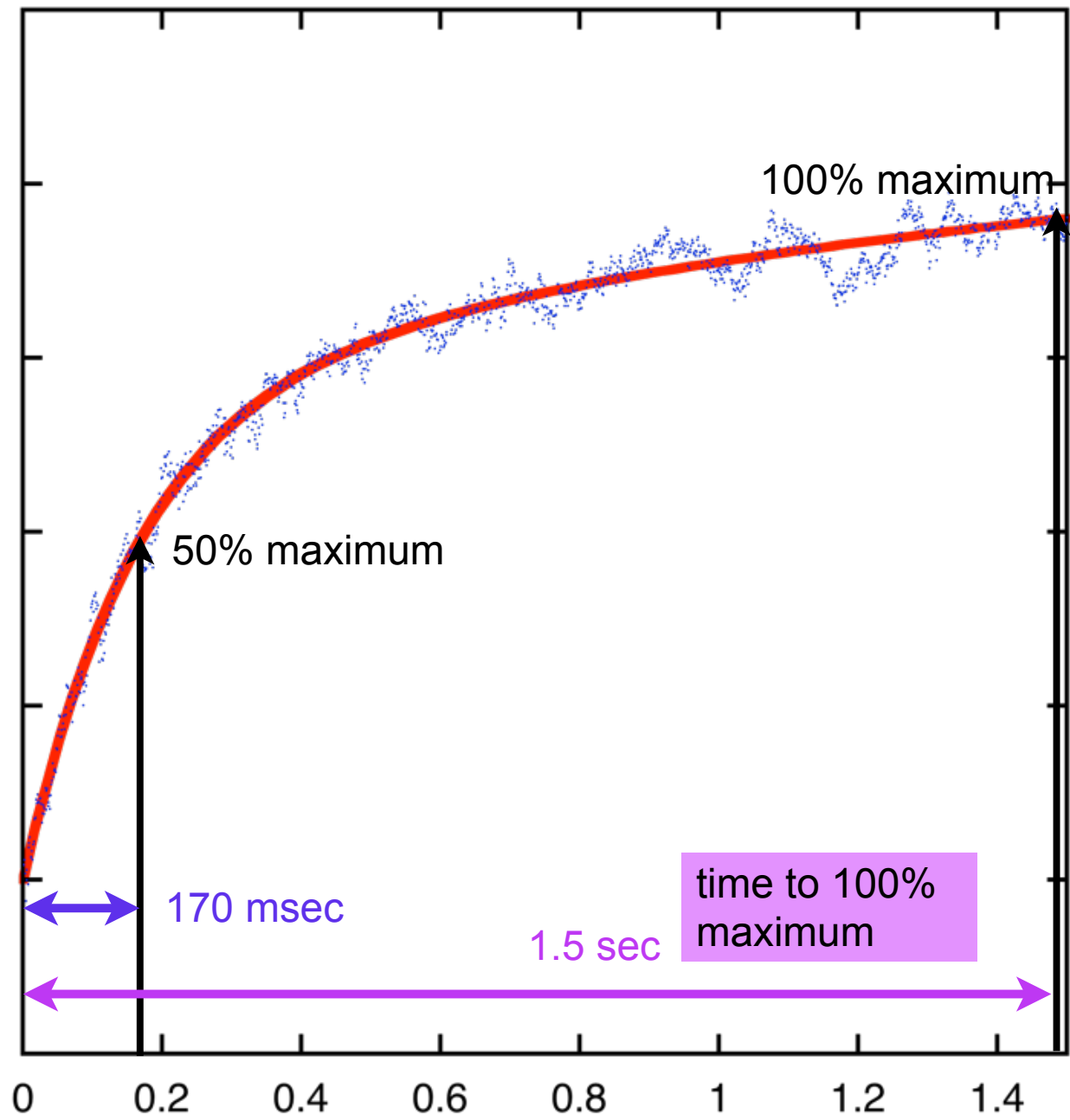
$$\text{measured} = \text{initial} + \frac{\text{max force}}{\text{force1}} \times e^{-k_1 t} + \frac{\text{max force}}{\text{force2}} \times e^{-k_2 t}$$



	Value	Error
initial	-0.27141	0.095706
amplitude 1	0.87841	0.064498
k1	0.57487	0.1234
amplitude 2	1.4028	0.030849
k2	6.1123	0.17645
Chisq	4.3142	NA
R	0.99257	NA

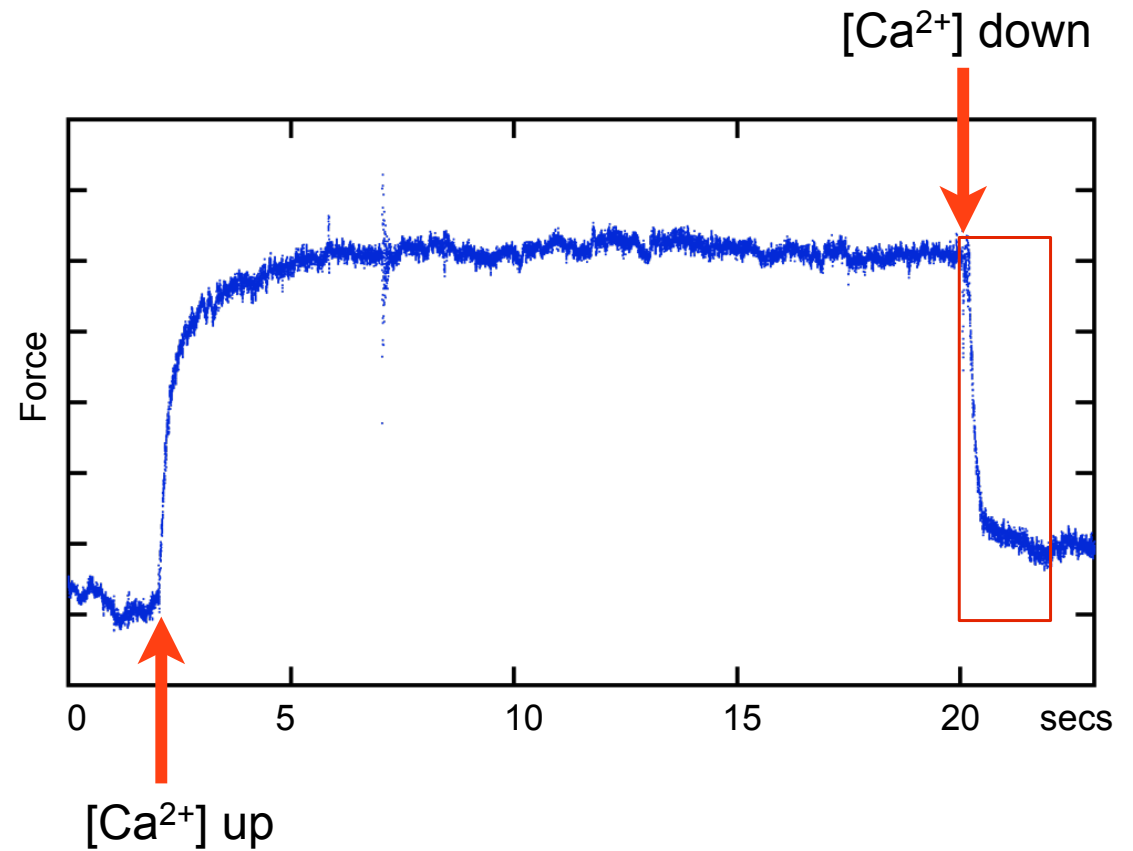
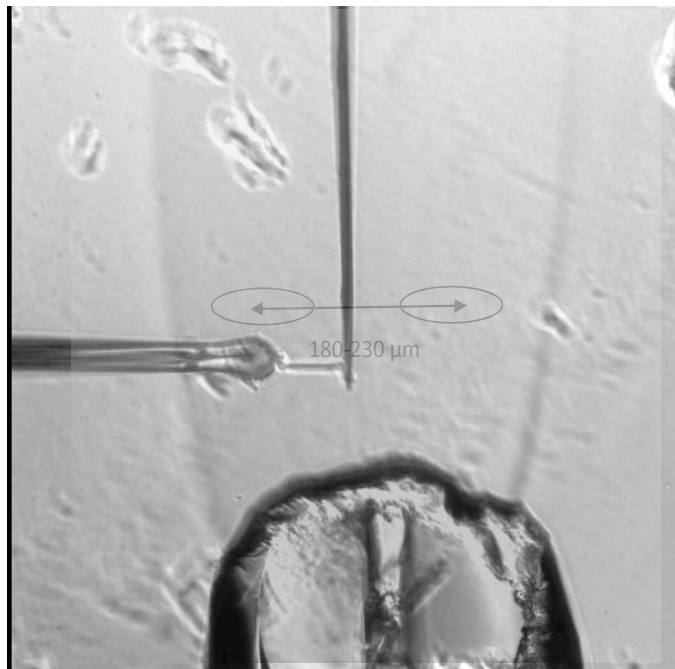
measurement of rate of a process: double exponential fit ²¹

time to 50% maximum or half-life
= $\ln 2/k$ if a single exponential process

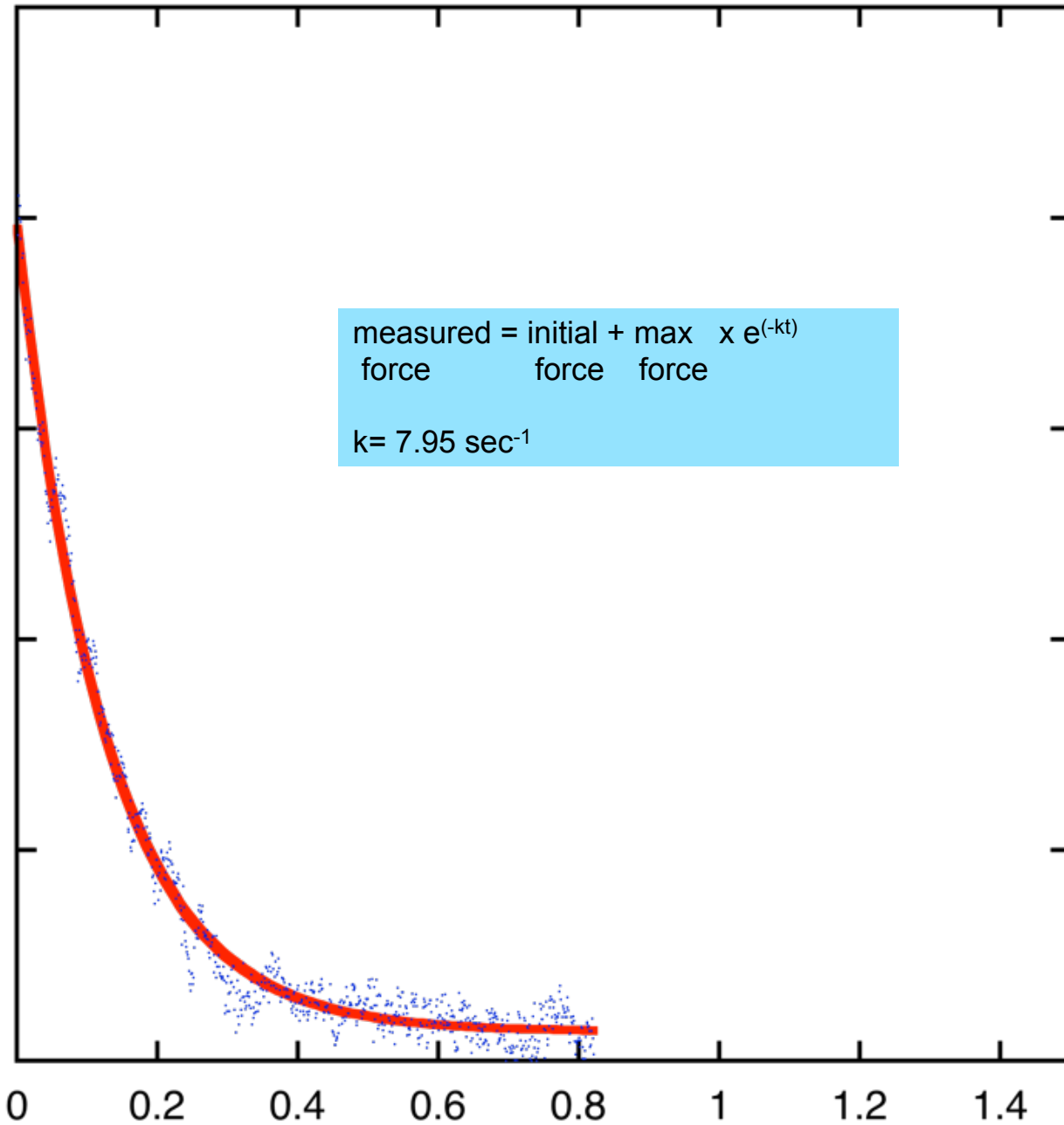


measurement of rate of a process: half life, time to maximum²²

Rates and equilibrium: Ca^{2+} activation of contraction and relaxation



measurement of rate of a process



measurement of rate of a process: single exponential

time to 50%
decay
= $\ln 2/k$ if a single
exponential
process

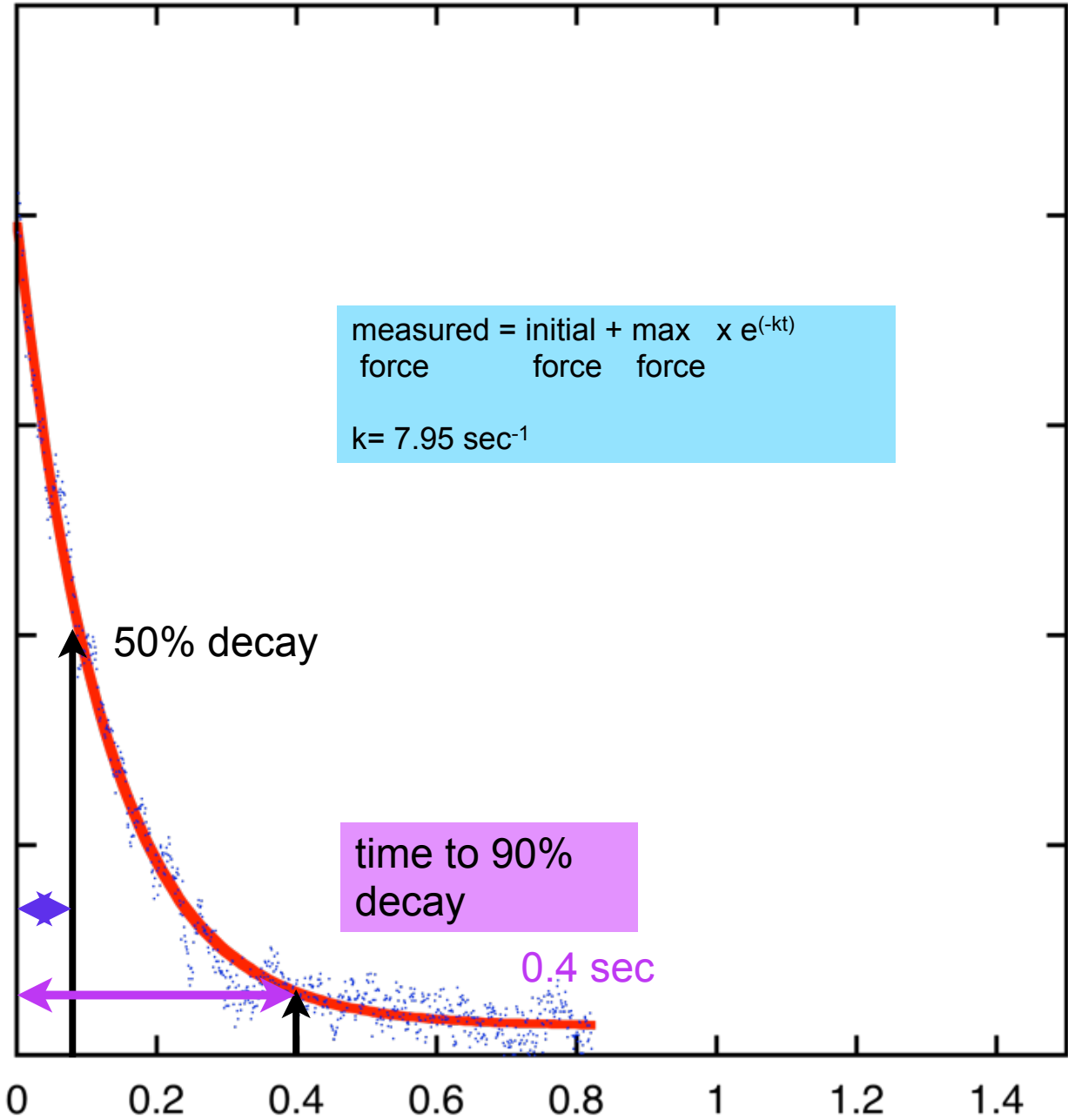
measured = initial + max $\times e^{-kt}$
force force force
 $k = 7.95 \text{ sec}^{-1}$

87 msec

50% decay

time to 90%
decay

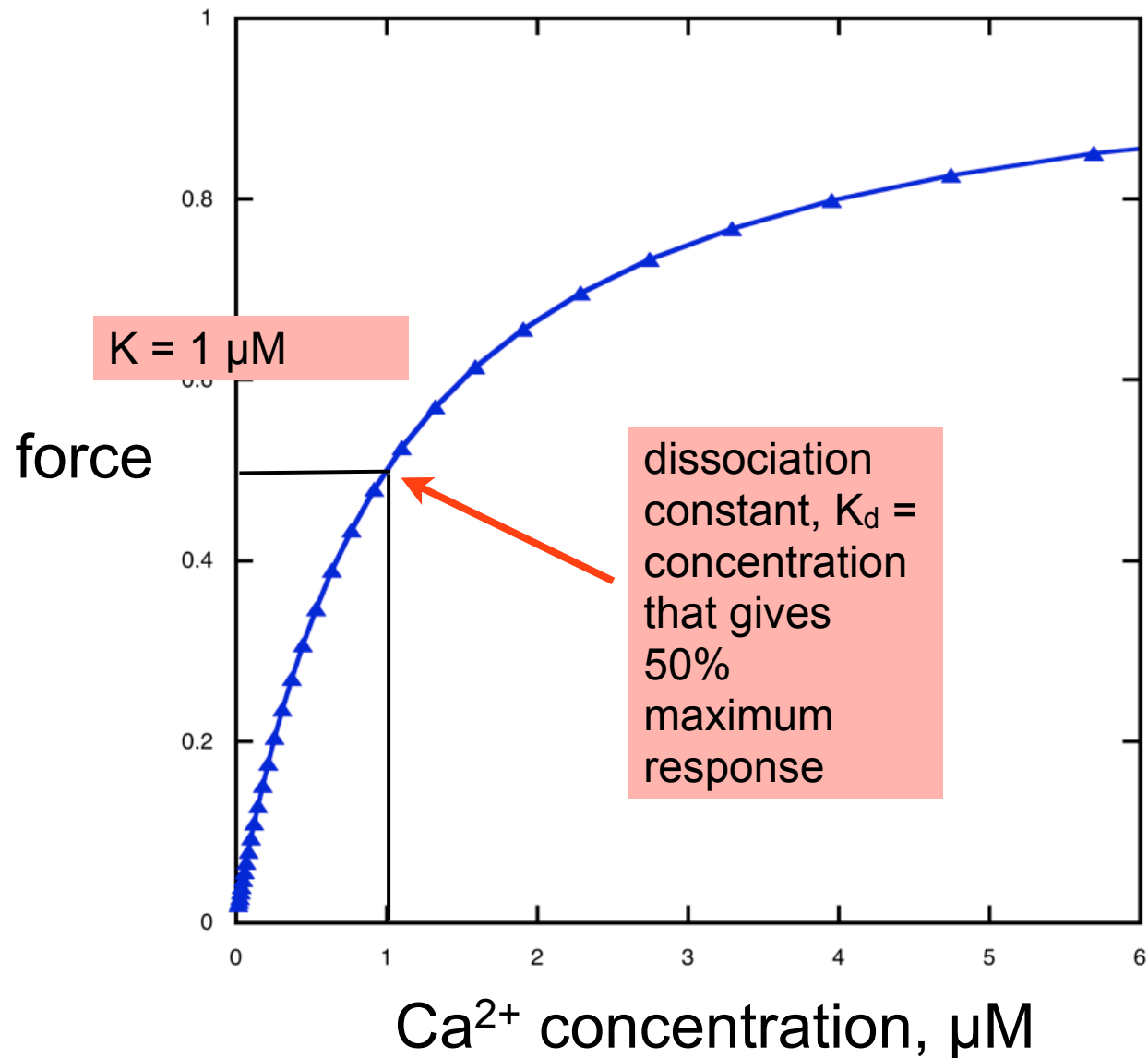
0.4 sec



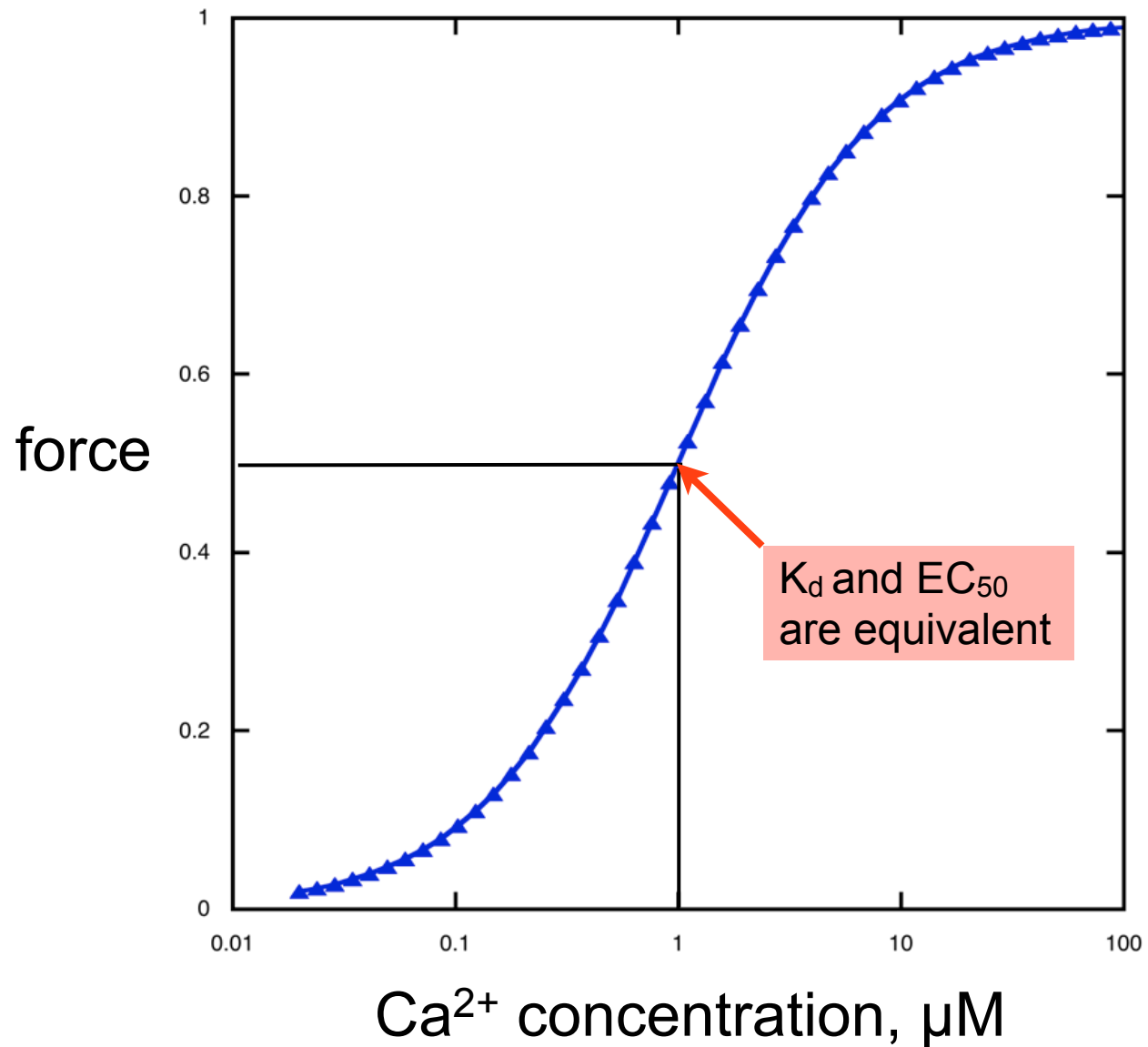
measurement of rate of a process: time to 50% and 90% decay

simple dose-response curve e.g Ca^{2+} dependence of force is defined by equation

$$y = \frac{\text{Max response} \times \text{dose}}{\text{constant} + \text{dose}}$$

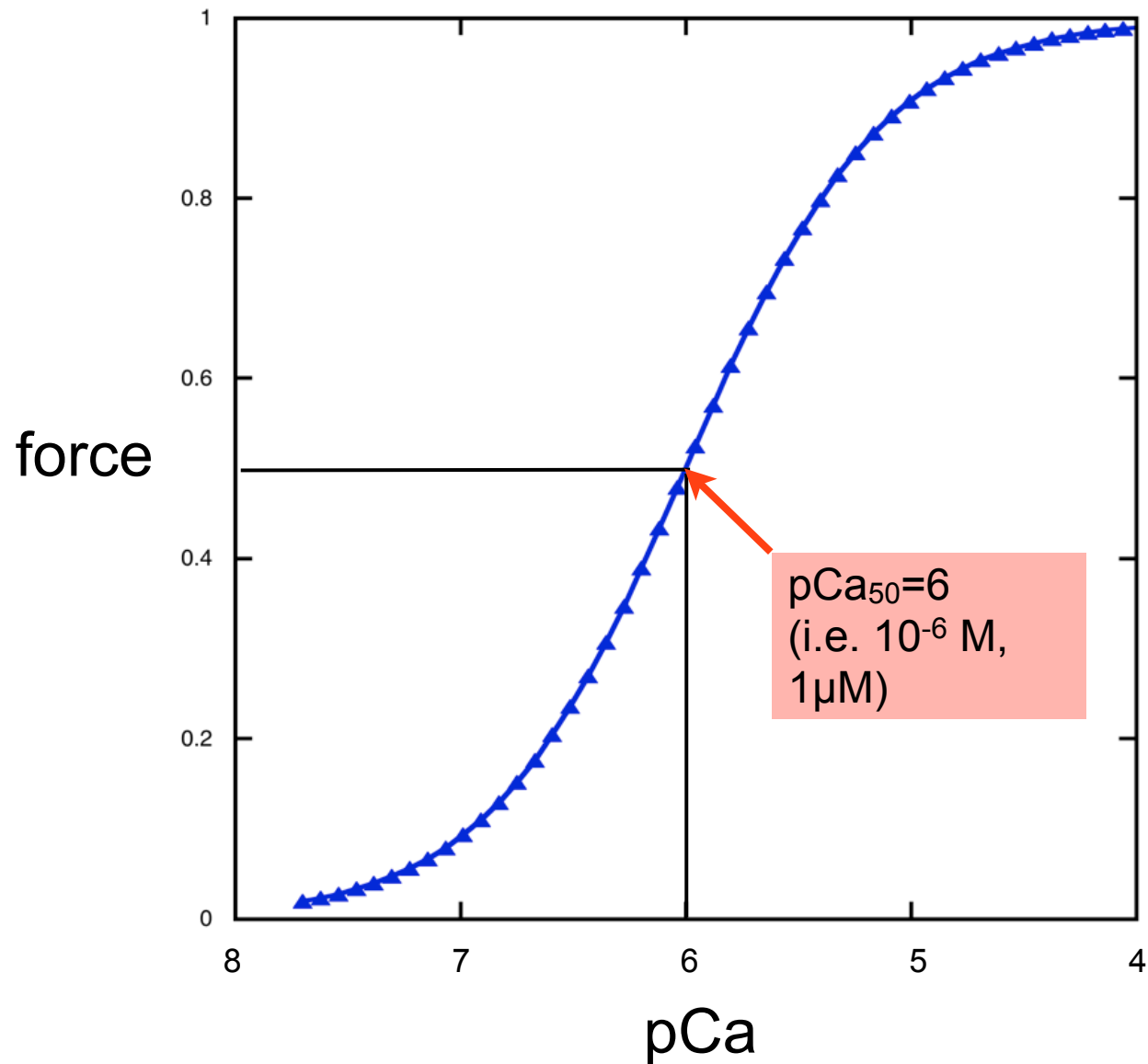


simple dose-response curve is often plotted on a log scale
The curve then appears sigmoid

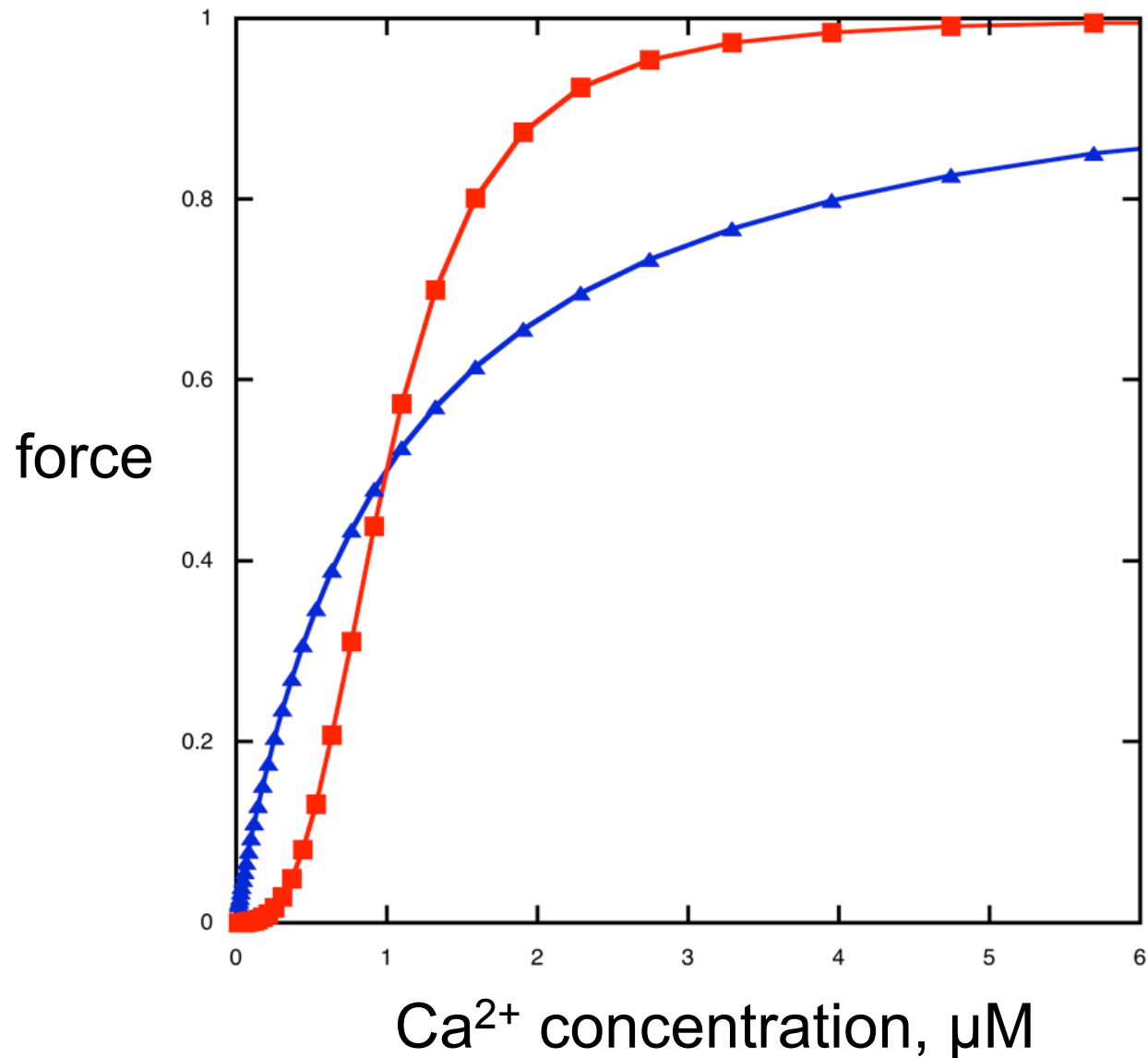


simple dose-response curve is often plotted on a log scale
 Ca^{2+} concentration is often shown as pCa

pCa = - log Ca^{2+} concentration

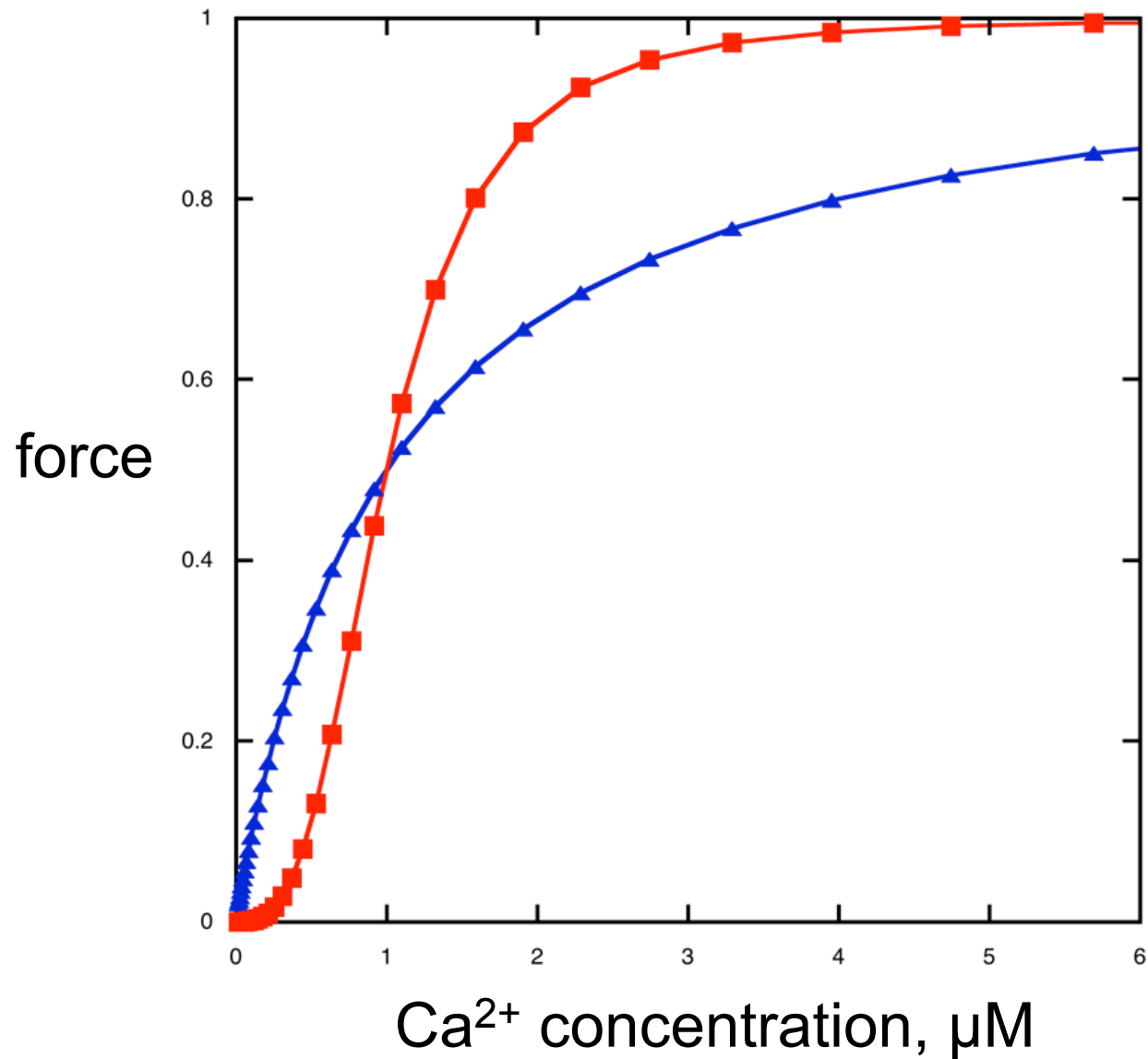


Often the dose-response curve cannot be described by a single constant. Most dose-response curves can be described by the **Hill equation** which introduces an extra constant, nH to account for cooperative interactions

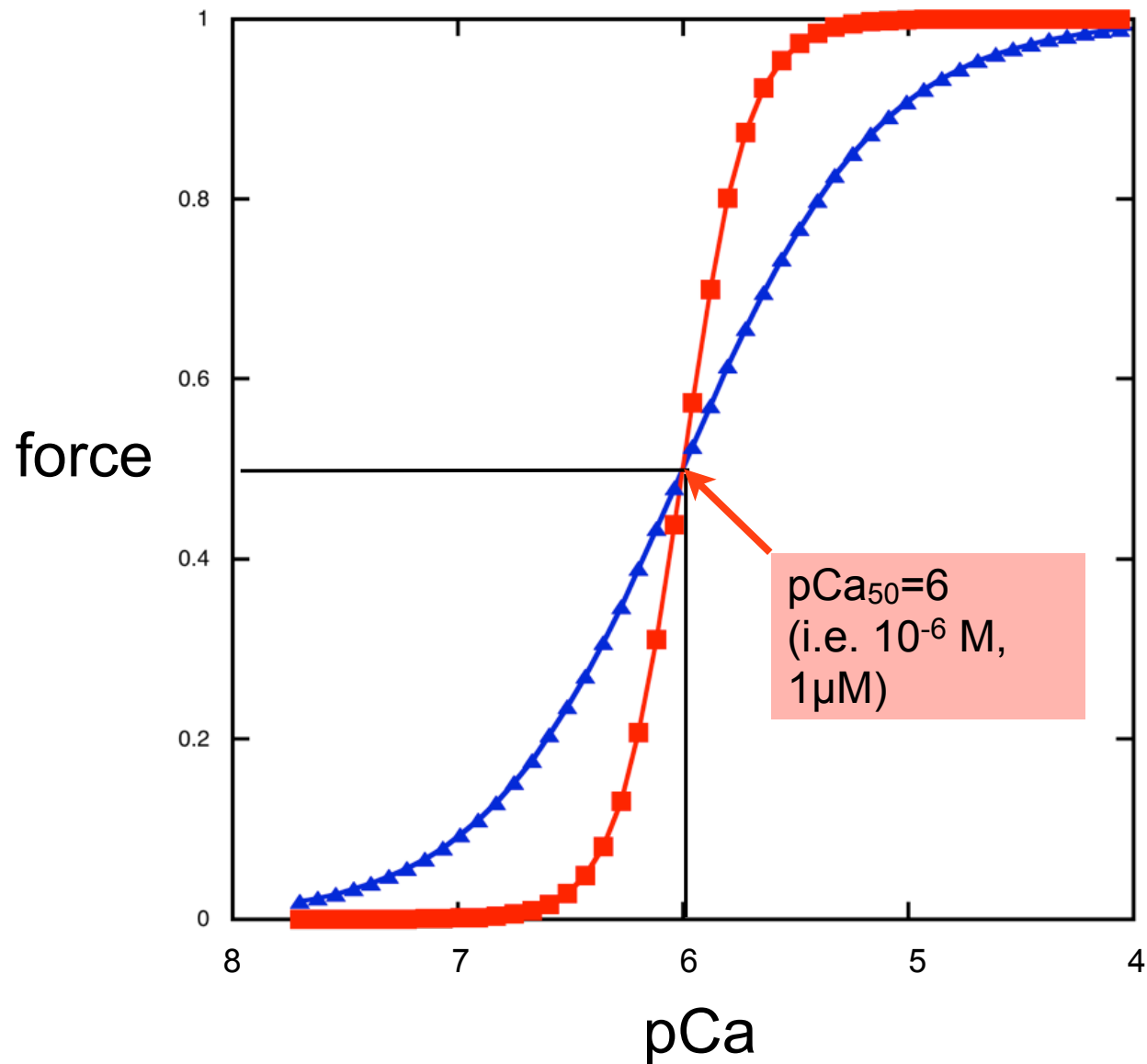


Hill equation: $y = \frac{\text{Max response} \times \text{dose}^{nH}}{\text{constant}^{nH} + \text{dose}^{nH}}$

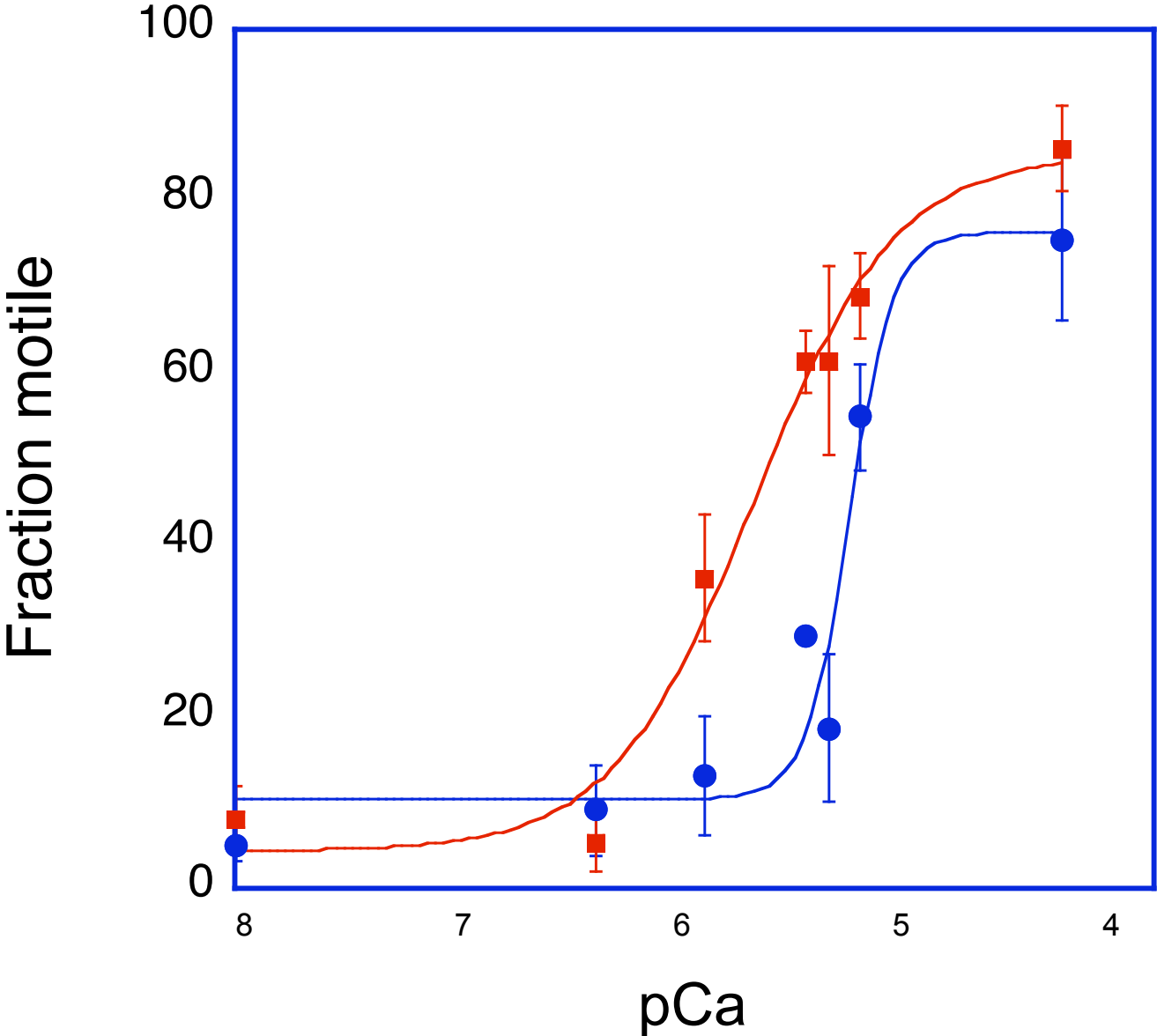
In this simulation $nH = 3$



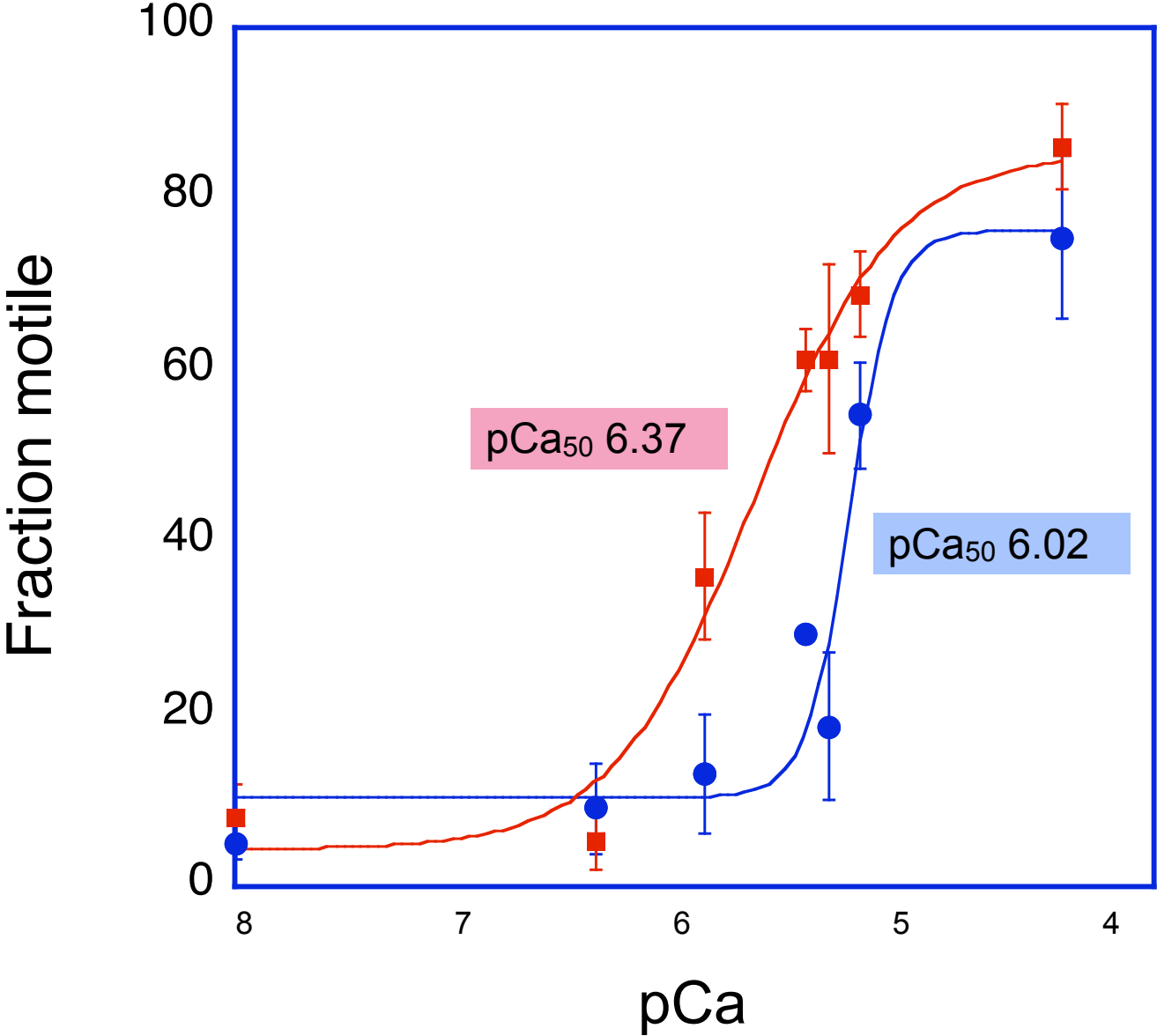
On a log scale the curve is still sigmoid but steeper. The gradient of the line at pCa_{50} equals n^H



A practical example- The Ca^{2+} activation of a reconstituted actomyosin in the in vitro motility assay. Wild-type is compared with a mutant troponin T (red) that causes hypertrophic cardiomyopathy: pCa_{50} is higher (i.e. EC_{50} is lower, Ca^{2+} -sensitivity is higher)



A practical example- The Ca^{2+} activation of a reconstituted actomyosin in the in vitro motility assay. Wild-type is compared with a mutant troponin T (red) that causes hypertrophic cardiomyopathy: pCa_{50} is higher (i.e. EC_{50} is lower, Ca^{2+} -sensitivity is higher)



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