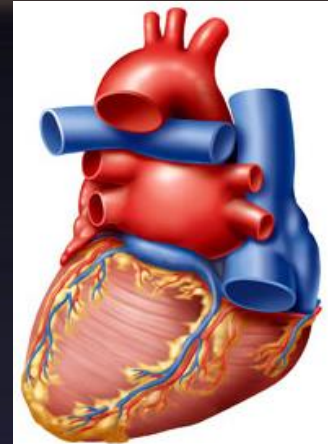
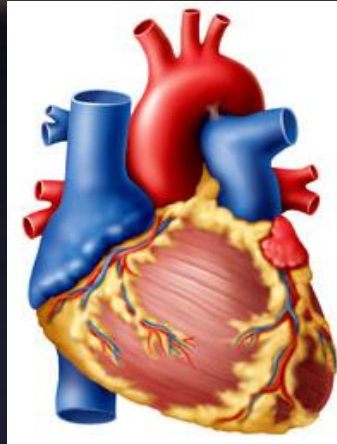




CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM

# STROKE VOLUME



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# OBJECTIVES



❖ **At the end of the lecture you should be able to .....**

- 1. Define stroke volume, cardiac output, venous return, cardiac index & cardiac reserve**
- 2. Understand the concept of preload and afterload**
- 3. Describe the factors affecting the SV & CO**
- 4. Explains how cardiac contractility & rate affects SV**
- 5. Describe and explain the pressure-volume loop**

## **CARDIAC OUTPUT**

**Volume of blood ejected by  
each ventricle in each minute**

**Around 5 liters in an average adult at rest**

## **STROKE VOLUME**

**Volume of blood ejected by  
each ventricle per each beat**

**(SV = EDV - ESV)**

**Around 70 ml in an average adult at rest**

**Cardiac output = Heart Rate × Stroke volume**

**CARDIAC INDEX** is Cardiac Output  
per Square Meter of Body Surface Area

$$CI = CO/m^2$$

**VENOUS RETURN** is the Quantity Of Blood Flowing  
from the Veins into Right Atrium each Minute

$$CO = VR$$

**PRELOAD** is the amount of blood presented  
to the Ventricles

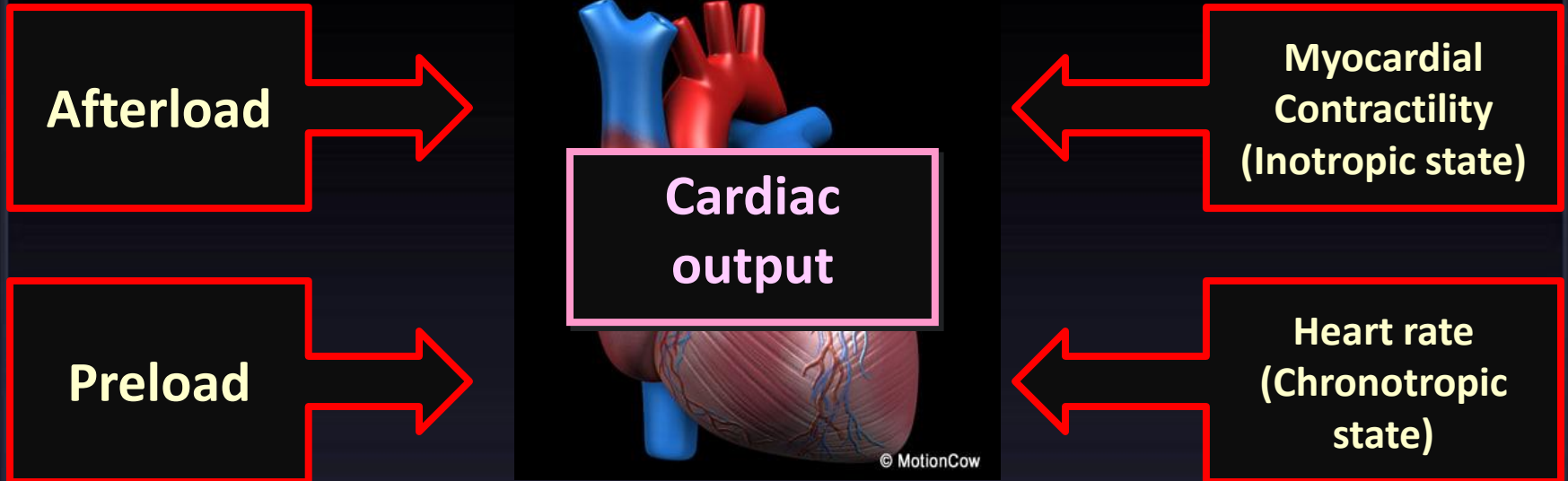
**AFTERLOAD** is the resistance against Which  
the ventricles contract

# CARDIAC RESERVE

During exercise, the CO can increase to 20 - 25 liters/min and to as high as 35 - 40 liters/min in well trained athletes.

The difference between the resting CO and the maximum volume of blood the heart is capable of pumping per minute is known as the cardiac reserve.

# Determinants of the CO



# Determinants of the CO

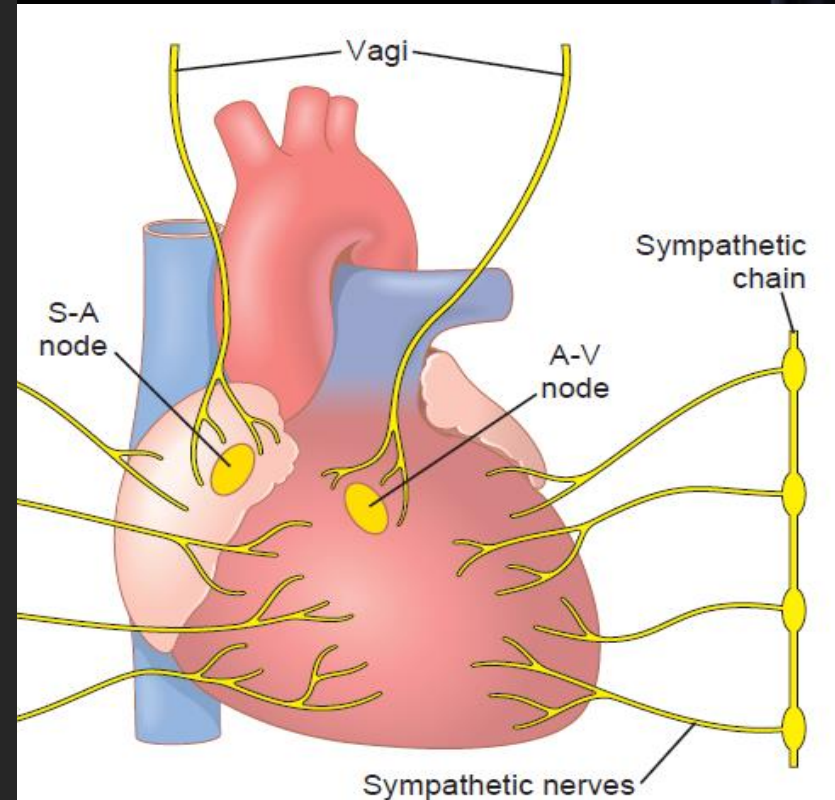
## 1. Heart rate (HR)

- Since the CO is =  $SV \cdot HR$ , as the heart rate increases, CO increases.
- At heart rates up to about 180, ventricular filling is adequate as long as there is enough venous return, and cardiac output per minute is increased by an increase in heart rate.
- However, at very high heart rates, filling may be compromised to such a degree that cardiac output per minute falls.
- **The heart rate has an influence on cardiac contractility as well (Frequency-force relationship).**

## Regulation of heart rate

# Effect of Sympathetic & Parasympathetic Nerves

- Sympathetic nerves innervate the whole heart.
- Sympathetic stimulation increases heart rate (and also the contractility).
- Sympathetic nerves release noradrenaline (adrenaline), which stimulates heart  $\beta_1$ -receptors.
- **Parasympathetic nerves innervate the SA and AV nodes, and the atria and Purkinje system.**
- **Parasympathetic nerves do not innervate most of the ventricular myocardium.**
- **Parasympathetic stimulation slows the heart but has little inotropic action.**
- **Parasympathetic nerves release ACh that stimulates muscarinic ( $M_2$ ) receptors.**



9-13. Cardiac sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves. (The nerves to the heart are parasympathetic nerves.) A-V, atrioven- S-A, sinoatrial.

The SA node, atria, and AV node have vagal innervation, but the ventricles do not.



# **Inotropic Chronotropic & Dromotropic**

## **CONTRACTILITY**

**Positive inotropic agents produce an increase in contractility.**

**Negative inotropic agents produce a decrease in contractility**

## **HEART RATE**

**Positive chronotropic effect**

**Negative chronotropic effect**

## **CONDUCTION VELOCITY**

**Positive dromotropic effect**

**Negative dromotropic effect**

# Parasympathetic effects on heart

## Negative chronotropic effect:

- decreases heart rate by decreasing the rate of phase 4 depolarization.
- Fewer action potentials occur per unit time because the threshold potential is reached more slowly .
- The mechanism is decreased  $I_f$ , the inward  $Na^+$  current that is responsible for phase 4 depolarization in the SA node.

## Negative dromotropic effect

- decreases conduction velocity through the AV node.
- Action potentials are conducted more slowly from the atria to the ventricles. increases the PR interval.
- The mechanism is decreased inward  $Ca^{2+}$  current and increased outward  $K^+$  current.

## Negative inotropism

- ACh via muscarinic receptors decreases the force of contraction in the atria by decreasing the inward  $Ca^{2+}$  current during the plateau of the cardiac action potential.

# Sympathetic effects on heart

## Positive chronotropic effect

- increases heart rate by increasing the rate of phase 4 depolarization.
- More action potentials occur per unit time because the threshold potential is reached more quickly .
- The mechanism is increased  $I_f$ , the inward  $Na^+$  current that is responsible for phase 4 depolarization in the SA node.

## Positive dromotropic effect

- Increases conduction velocity through the AV node.
- Action potentials are conducted more rapidly from the atria to the ventricles, and ventricular filling may be compromised. decreases the PR interval.
- The mechanism of the positive dromotropic effect is increased inward  $Ca^{2+}$  current.

## Positive Inotropism

- Increases the force of contraction by two mechanisms:
  - (1) It increases the inward  $Ca^{2+}$  current during the plateau of each cardiac action potential.
  - (2) It increases the activity of the  $Ca^{2+}$  pump of the SR (by phosphorylation of phospholamban); as a result, more  $Ca^{2+}$  is accumulated by the SR and thus more  $Ca^{2+}$  is available for release in subsequent beats.

# Effect Of Sympathetic and Parasympathetic Stimulation on Prepotential (Pace Maker Potential)

The  $\beta_1$ -adrenoreceptors on SA node cells cause

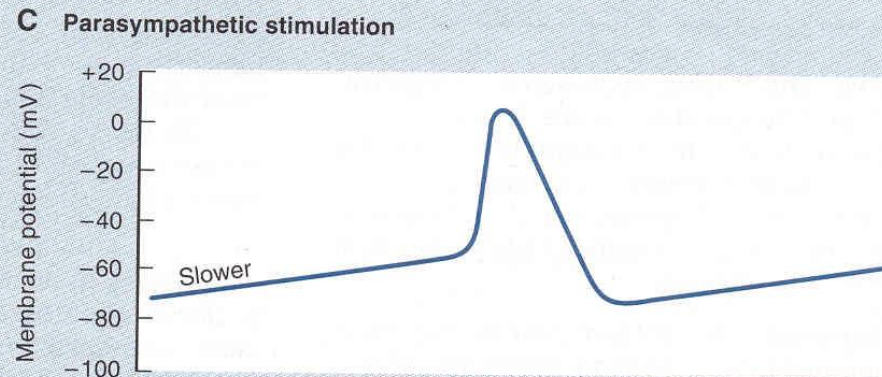
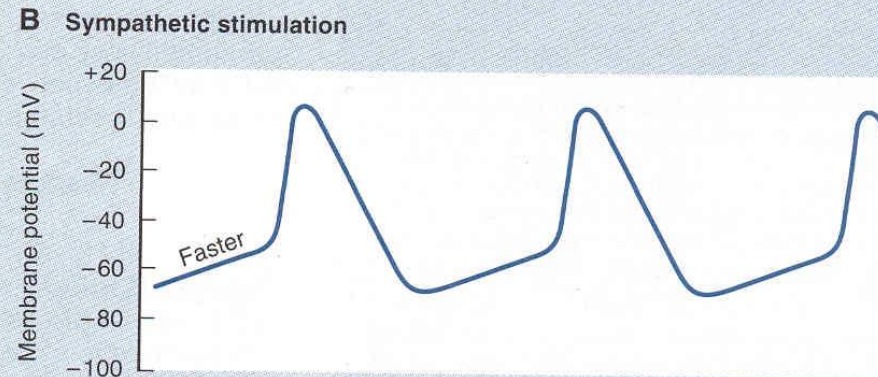
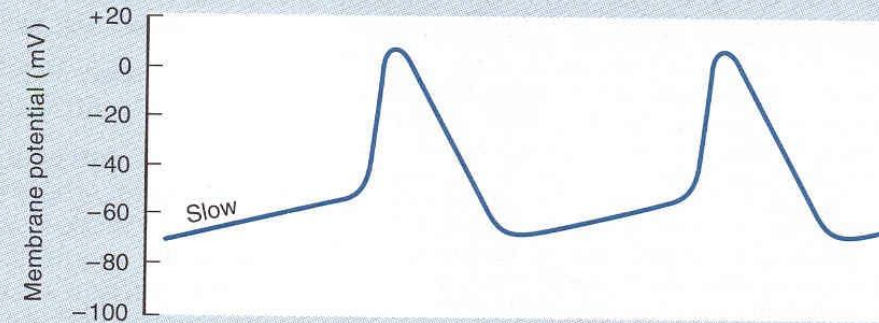
- Opening of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels  $\rightarrow$  speed up the rate of depolarization and hence the heart rate.
- Decrease in  $\text{K}^+$  permeability by accelerating inactivation of the  $\text{K}^+$  channels. Thus, fewer positive potassium ions leave the cell  $\rightarrow$  the inside of the cell becomes less negative  $\rightarrow$  depolarizing effect.

The net effect is:  $\rightarrow$  swifter drift to threshold  $\rightarrow$  greater frequency of action potential  $\rightarrow$  increase the heart rate.

M2 (muscarinic-2) ACh receptors cause:

- closure of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels.
- opening of potassium channels in the cell membrane  $\rightarrow$  hyperpolarises the cell and makes it more difficult to initiate an action potential.

The net effect is:  $\rightarrow$  slower drift to threshold  $\rightarrow$  lesser frequency of action potential  $\rightarrow$  decrease the heart rate.



# Effect of Ions and Temp

- **↑K**... in the extracellular fluids causes the heart to become dilated and **flaccid** and also slows the heart rate... **↑K decreases the resting membrane potential** in the cardiac muscle fibers... the intensity of the action potential also decreases, which makes contraction of the heart progressively weaker
- **↑Ca causes spastic contraction**. This is caused by a direct effect of calcium ions to initiate the cardiac contractile process. **↓ Ca causes flaccidity**.
- **↑ Temp**... causes a greatly increased heart rate, sometimes to as fast as double normal [**↑ permeability** to ions that self-excitation]. Decreased temperature causes a greatly decreased heart rate, falling to as low as a few beats per minute

# FACTORS AFFECTING CONTRACTILITY

- **Positive inotropic effect. (FORCE OF CONTRACTION)**
  - ✓ Sympathetic stimulation
  - ✓ Adrenaline & Noradrenaline
  - ✓ Calcium ion
  - ✓ Caffeine
  - ✓ Drugs e.g. Digitalis (Digoxin)
- **Negative inotropic effect:**
  - ✓ Parasympathetic stimulation
  - ✓ Acetyl choline
  - ✓ Potassium ion
  - ✓ Hypoxia (Decrease oxygen)
  - ✓ Acidosis
  - ✓ Bacterial toxin
  - ✓ Drugs e.g.. Calcium channel blockers,  $\beta$ - Blockers

# Factors affecting myocardial contractility: (Inotropic factors)

1. End-Diastolic Volume [Starling's law of the heart]
2. Cardiac innervation [SNS → ↑, PNS → ↓]
3. Oxygen supply [Hypoxia → ↓ contractility]
4. Calcium ↑ & potassium ions ↓ contractility.
5. Physical factors [Warming → ↑, Cooling → ↓]
6. Mechanical factors [syncytium, cannot be tetanized]
7. Hormonal & chemical factors (drugs).

**Positive inotropic:** (Adrenaline, noradrenaline, alkalosis, digitalis, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and caffeine)

**Negative inotropic:** (Acetylcholine, acidosis, ether, chloroform, some bacterial toxins (e.g. diphtheria toxins), K<sup>+</sup>, ...)

# What is the influence of heart rate on myocardial contractility?

## Frequency-force relationship

**Increasing heart rate increases contractility.**

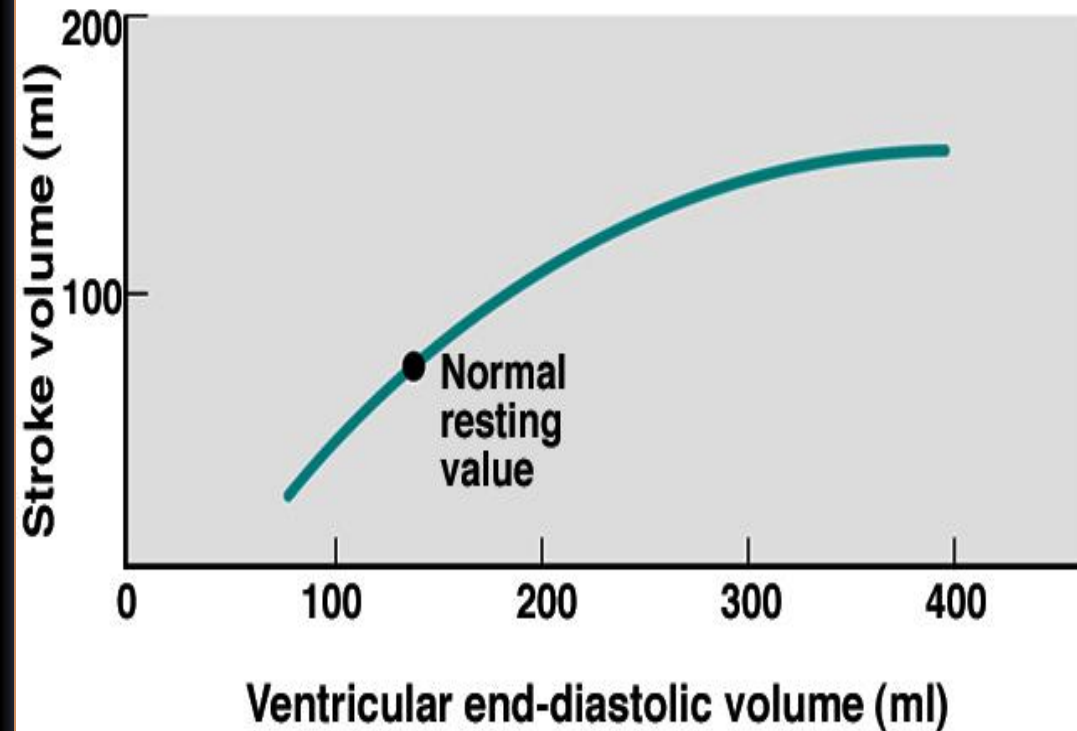
- This frequency dependency of force generation in the heart is probably due to accumulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions within the myocytes as a result of:
  - The increased in number of depolarizations/min  $\rightarrow$  more frequent plateau phases  $\rightarrow$  more  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry.
  - The magnitude of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  current is also increased  $\rightarrow$  increases the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stores.
  - Both effects enhance the release and uptake of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by the sarcoplasmic reticulum, thus  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  availability to the contractile proteins with more force generation through cross-bridge cycling.



# Determinants of the CO

## 2. Stroke volume (SV)

Ventricular function curve



The **intrinsic relationship** between EDV and SV is known as Starling's Law of the heart. It reflects the ability of the heart to change its force of contraction and therefore stroke volume in response to changes in venous return.

# FRANK – STARLING'S LAW

**Within physiologic limits, the heart pumps all the blood that returns to it by the way of the veins.**

**OR**

**The greater the stretch of the cardiac muscle the greater would be the force of contraction.**

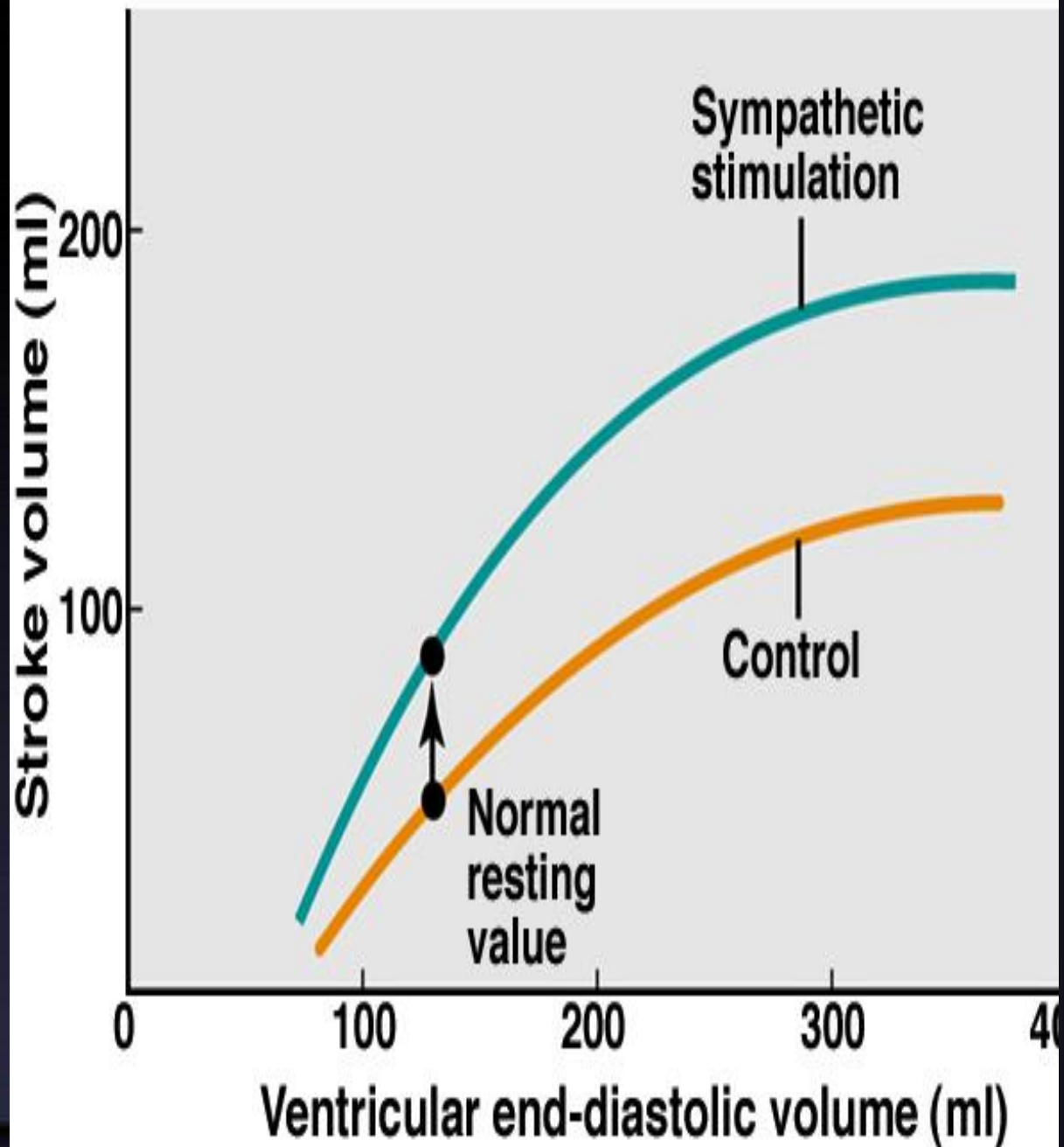
**OR**

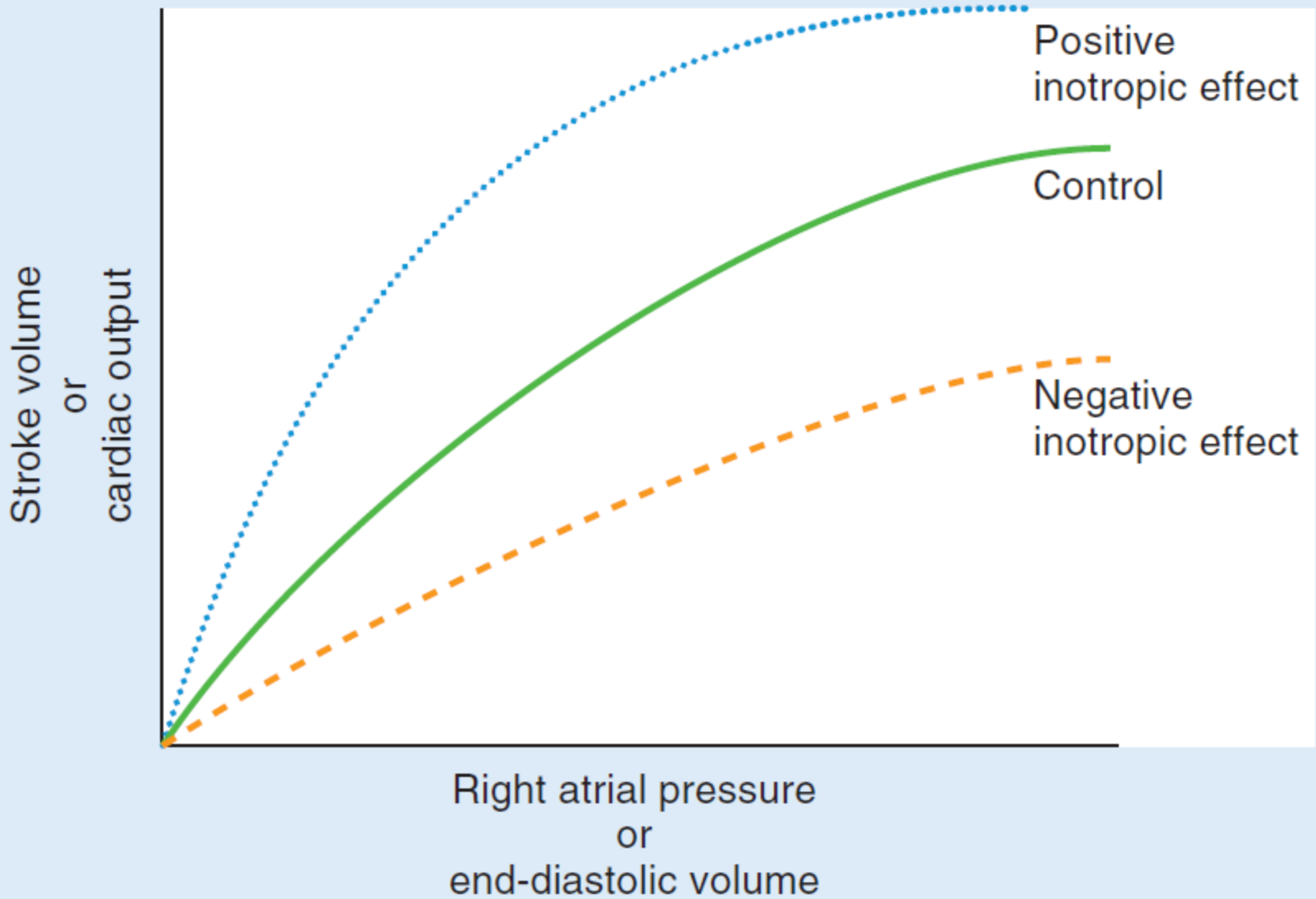
**“The energy of contraction is proportional to the initial length of the cardiac muscle fibers” and for the muscle is proportional to the End Diastolic Volume.**

Because Actin & Myosin filaments are brought to more optimal degree of sliding therefore increase force of contraction.

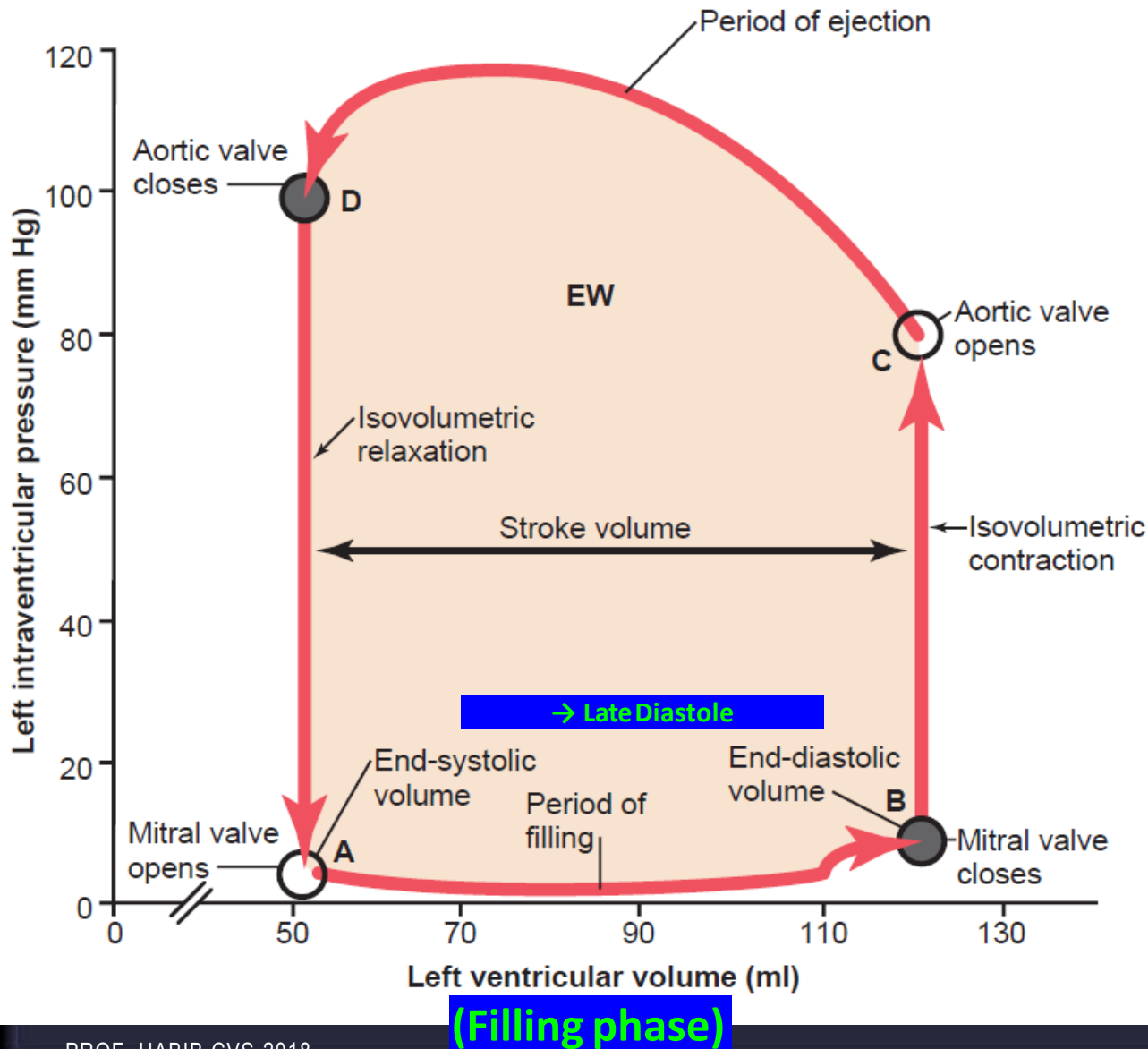
❑ When the mean RAP is about 0 mmHg (note that RAP normally fluctuates with atrial contraction and respiration), the cardiac output in an adult human is about 5 L/min.

❑ Because of the steepness of the cardiac function curve, very small changes in RAP (just a few mmHg), can lead to large changes in cardiac output.





# VENTRICULAR PRESSURE - VOLUME LOOP



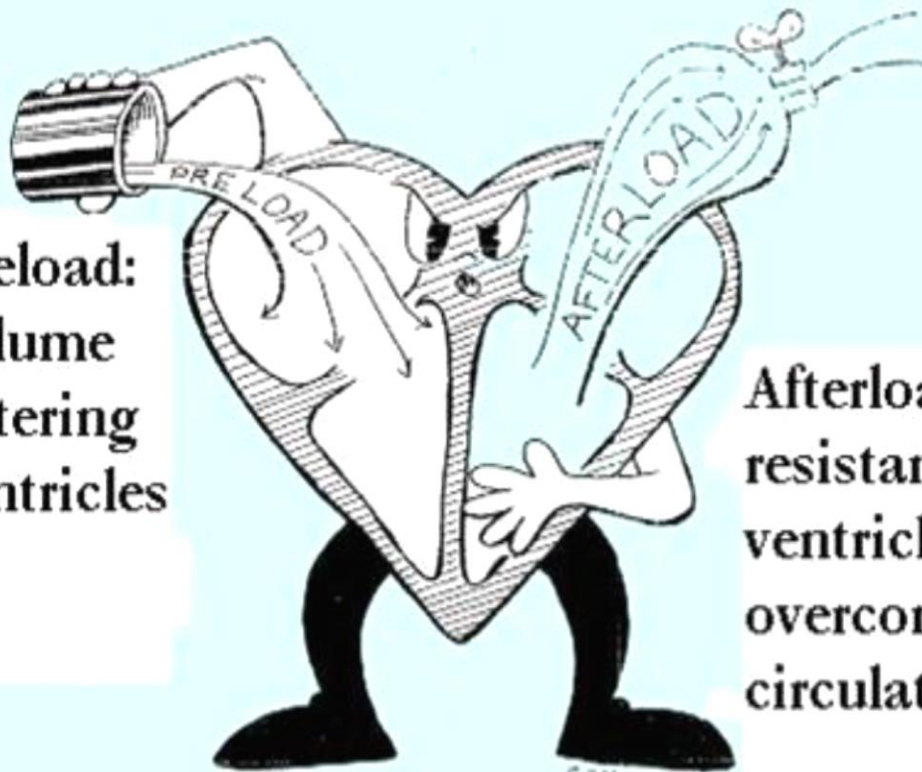
Plots LV pressure against LV volume through one complete cardiac cycle

**Systole:** divided into Early systole Late systole

**Diastole:** divided into Early diastole Late diastole

# Preload and Afterload

**Preload:**  
volume  
entering  
ventricles



**Afterload:**  
resistance left  
ventricle must  
overcome to  
circulate blood

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# Preload & Afterload

**Preload:** It is the amount of blood that returns to the heart from veins.

Preload is the load on the muscle in the relaxed state.

Is end-diastolic volume, which is related to right atrial pressure. When venous return increases, end-diastolic volume increases and stretches or lengthens the ventricular muscle fibers

**Afterload:** It is the resistance against which the ventricles contract.

For the left ventricle is aortic pressure. Increases in aortic pressure cause an increase in afterload on the left ventricle and for the right ventricle is pulmonary artery pressure. Increases in pulmonary artery pressure cause an increase in afterload on the right ventricle.

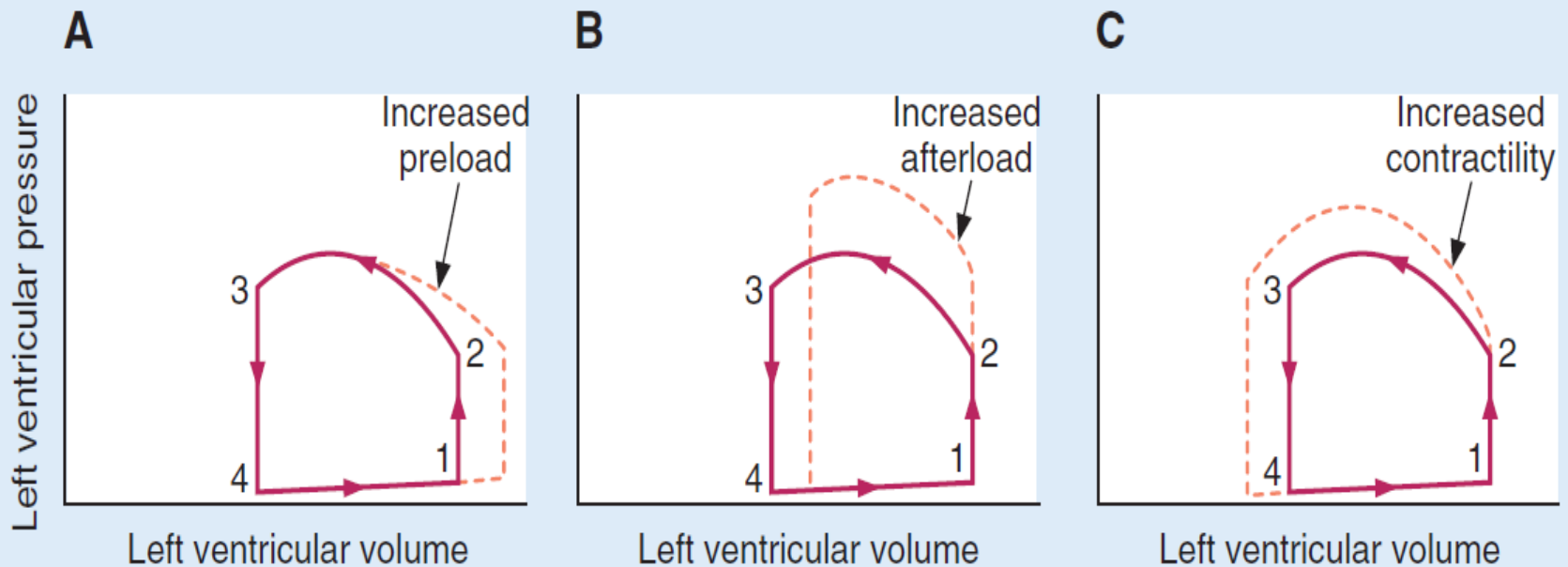
a. **Increased preload:** refers to an increase in end-diastolic volume and is the result of increased venous return.

causes an **increase in stroke volume** based on the Frank–Starling relationship....reflected in **increased width** of the pressure–volume loop.

b. **Increased afterload** refers to an increase in aortic pressure.

The ventricle must eject blood against a higher pressure, resulting in a decrease in stroke volume....is reflected in **decreased width** of the pressure–volume loop.

The decrease in stroke volume results in an **increase in end-systolic volume**.



**FIGURE 3-10** Effects of changes in (A) preload, (B) afterload, and (C) contractility on the ventricular pressure–volume loop.



# Factors affecting preload (EDV)

EDV is ↑ with:

- Increased total blood volume.
- Increased venous return.
- Increased venous tone.
  - Increased skeletal muscle pump (exercise).
  - Increased negative intrathoracic pressure.
- Stronger atrial contraction.

EDV is ↓ with:

- Standing.
- Decreased venous return.
- Increased intrapericardial pressure.
- Decreased ventricular compliance.

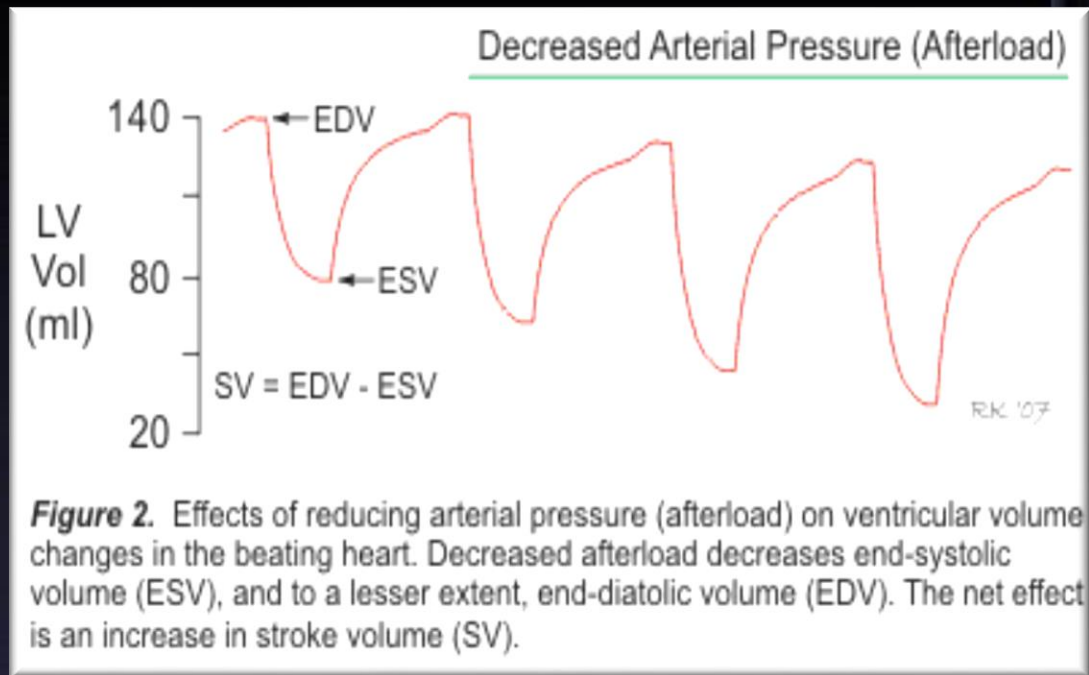
Indices of left ventricular preload:

- Left ventricular end-diastolic volume (LVEDV).
- Left ventricular end-diastolic pressure (LVEDP).

# Factors affecting Afterload

Left ventricular afterload represents the force that the muscle must generate to eject the blood into the aorta.

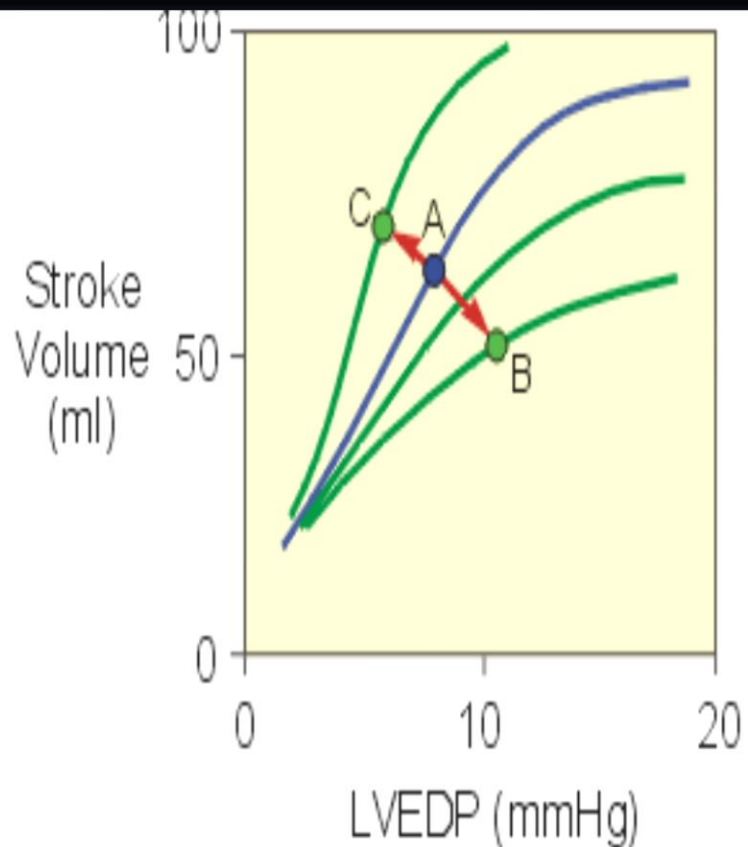
- When the aortic pressure is reduced, the velocity of shortening of the LV myocardial fibers increases.
- Hence, with reduced after load, the LV can eject blood more rapidly  $SV \uparrow \rightarrow \downarrow ESV$ .
- The opposite is true with increased LV after load.



LV afterload is increased in conditions of aortic stenosis, arterial hypertension & vasoconstriction.

# Effect of Afterload on Frank Starling Curve

- An increase in afterload leads to an increase in ESV and a decrease in SV. An increase in afterload shifts Starling's curve down and to the right (from A to B).
- A decrease in afterload shifts Starling's curve up and to the left (A to C).



**Figure 1.** Effects of changes in afterload on Frank-Starling curves. A shift from A to B occurs with increased afterload, and from A to C with decreased afterload.

**Explanation:** an increase in afterload decreases the velocity of fiber shortening. This reduces the rate of volume ejection so that more blood is left within the ventricle at the end of systole → ↑ ESV.



**THANKS**