Cardiac cycle and heart sound Cardiac output



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LEARNING OUTCOMES

As a result of the lesson you will be able to:

- **Describe the relationship between blood pressure and blood flow**
- Summarize and explain the connection between the various events of the cardiac cycle
- **Compare atrial and ventricular systole and diastole**
- Relate heart sounds detected by auscultation to action of heart's valves
- Define cardiac output and Describe factors that effect cardiac output and be able to calculate it
- Identify cardiovascular centers and cardiac reflexes that regulate heart function
- □ Summarize factors affecting stroke volume, heart rate and cardiac output;

Cardiac Cycle

- cardiac cycle one complete contraction and relaxation of all four chambers of the heart
- atrial **systole** (contraction) occurs while ventricles are in **diastole** (relaxation)
- atrial diastole occurs while ventricles in systole
- quiescent period all four chambers relaxed at same time
- questions to solve how does pressure affect blood flow? and how are heart sounds produced?

Principles of Pressure and Flow

- two main variables that govern fluid movement:
- **pressure** causes a fluid to flow (fluid dynamics)
 - pressure gradient pressure difference between two points
 - measured in mm Hg with a manometer or sphygmomanometer
- resistance opposes fluid flow
 - great vessels have positive blood pressure
 - ventricular pressure must rise above this resistance for blood to flow into great vessels



Figure 19.18

Pressure Gradients and Flow

- fluid flows only if it is subjected to more pressure at one point than another which creates a pressure gradient
 - fluid flows down its pressure gradient from high pressure to low pressure
- events occurring on left side of heart
 - when ventricle relaxes and expands, its internal pressure falls
 - if bicuspid valve is open, blood flows into left ventricle
 - when ventricle contracts, internal pressure rises
 - AV valves close and the aortic valve is pushed open and blood flows into aorta from left ventricle
- opening and closing of valves are governed by these pressure changes
 - AV valves limp when ventricles relaxed
 - semilunar valves under pressure from blood in vessels when ventricles relaxed

Operation of Heart Valves

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Atrioventricular valves open

Atrioventricular valves closed

(a)

(b)



Figure 19.19

Valvular Insufficiency

- valvular insufficiency (incompetence) any failure of a valve to prevent reflux (regurgitation) the backward flow of blood
 - valvular stenosis cusps are stiffened and opening is constricted by scar tissue
 - result of rheumatic fever autoimmune attack on the mitral and aortic valves
 - heart overworks and may become enlarged
 - heart murmur abnormal heart sound produced by regurgitation of blood through incompetent valves
 - mitral valve prolapse insufficiency in which one or both mitral valve cusps bulge into atria during ventricular contraction
 - hereditary in 1 out of 40 people
 - may cause chest pain and shortness of breath

Heart Sounds

- auscultation listening to sounds made by body
- first heart sound (S₁), louder and longer "lubb", occurs with closure of AV valves, turbulence in the bloodstream, and movements of the heart wall
- second heart sound (S₂), softer and sharper "dupp" occurs with closure of semilunar valves, turbulence in the bloodstream, and movements of the heart wall
- S₃ rarely heard in people over 30
- exact cause of each sound is not known with certainty

Phases of Cardiac Cycle

- ventricular filling
- isovolumetric contraction
- ventricular ejection
- isovolumetric relaxation

 all the events in the cardiac cycle are completed in less than one second!

Ventricular Filling

- during diastole, ventricles expand
 - their pressure drops below that of the atria
 - AV valves open and blood flows into the ventricles
- ventricular filling occurs in three phases:
 - rapid ventricular filling first one-third
 - blood enters very quickly
 - diastasis second one-third
 - marked by slower filling
 - P wave occurs at the end of diastasis
 - atrial systole final one-third
 - atria contract
- end-diastolic volume (EDV) amount of blood

contained in each ventricle at the end of ventricular filling

– 130 mL of blood

Isovolumetric Contraction

- atria repolarize and relax
 - remain in diastole for the rest of the cardiac cycle
- ventricles depolarize, create the QRS complex, and begin to contract
- AV valves close as ventricular blood surges back against the cusps
- heart sound S_1 occurs at the beginning of this phase
- 'isovolumetric' because even though the ventricles contract, they do not eject blood
 - because pressure in the aorta (80 mm Hg) and in pulmonary trunk (10 mm Hg) is still greater than in the ventricles
- cardiocytes exert force, but with all four valves closed, the blood cannot go anywhere

Ventricular Ejection

- ejection of blood begins when the ventricular pressure exceeds arterial pressure and forces semilunar valves open
 - pressure peaks in left ventricle at about 120 mm Hg and 25 mm Hg in the right
- blood spurts out of each ventricle rapidly at first rapid ejection
- then more slowly under reduced pressure reduced ejection
- ventricular ejections last about 200 250 msec
 - corresponds to the plateau phase of the cardiac action potential
- **T wave** occurs late in this phase
- stroke volume (SV) of about 70 mL of blood is ejected of the 130 mL in each ventricle
 - ejection fraction of about 54%
 - as high as 90% in vigorous exercise
- end-systolic volume (ESV) the 60 mL of blood left behind

Isovolumetric Relaxation

- early ventricular diastole
 - when T wave ends and the ventricles begin to expand
- elastic recoil and expansion would cause pressure to drop rapidly and suck blood into the ventricles
 - blood from the aorta and pulmonary briefly **flows backwards**
 - filling the semilunar valves and closing the cusps
 - creates a slight pressure rebound that appears as the dicrotic notch of the aortic pressure curve
 - heart sound S₂ occurs as blood rebounds from the closed semilunar valves and the ventricle expands
 - 'isovolumetric' because semilunar valves are closed and AV valves have not yet opened
 - ventricles are therefore taking in no blood
 - when AV valves open, ventricular filling begins again

Timing of Cardiac Cycle

- in a resting person
 - atrial systole last about 0.1 sec
 - ventricular systole about 0.3 sec
 - quiescent period, when all four chambers are in diastole, 0.4 sec
- total duration of the cardiac cycle is therefore 0.8 sec in a heart beating 75 bpm

Major Events of Cardiac Cycle





- ventricular filling
- isovolumetric contraction
- ventricular ejection
- isovolumetric relaxation

Figure 19.20

Overview of Volume Changes end-systolic volume (ESV) 60 ml

- -passively added to ventricle during atrial diastole +30 ml -added by atrial systole +40 ml total: end-diastolic volume (EDV) 130 ml stroke volume (SV) ejected
- by ventricular systole -70 ml
- leaves: end-systolic volume (ESV) 60 ml
- both ventricles must eject same amount of blood

Unbalanced Ventricular Output

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pulmonary edema

Figure 19.21a

Unbalanced Ventricular Output

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peripheral edema

Figure 19.21b

Congestive Heart Failure

- congestive heart failure (CHF) results from the failure of either ventricle to eject blood effectively
 - usually due to a heart weakened by myocardial infarction, chronic hypertension, valvular insufficiency, or congenital defects in heart structure.
- left ventricular failure blood backs up into the lungs causing pulmonary edema
 - shortness of breath or sense of suffocation
- **right ventricular failure** blood backs up in the vena cava causing systemic or generalized edema
 - enlargement of the liver, ascites (pooling of fluid in abdominal cavity), distension of jugular veins, swelling of the fingers, ankles, and feet
- eventually leads to total heart failure

Cardiac Output (CO)

- cardiac output (CO) the amount ejected by ventricle in 1 minute
- cardiac output = heart rate x stroke volume
 - about 4 to 6 L/min at rest
 - a RBC leaving the left ventricle will arrive back at the left ventricle in about 1 minute
 - vigorous exercise increases CO to 21 L/min for fit person and up to 35 L/min for world class athlete
- cardiac reserve the difference between a person's maximum and resting CO
 - increases with fitness, decreases with disease
- to keep cardiac output constant as we increase in age, the heart rate increases as the stroke volume decreases

Heart Rate

- pulse surge of pressure produced by each heart beat that can be felt by palpating a superficial artery with the fingertips
 - infants have HR of 120 bpm or more
 - young adult females avg. 72 80 bpm
 - young adult males avg. 64 to 72 bpm
 - heart rate rises again in the elderly
- tachycardia resting adult heart rate above 100 bpm
 - stress, anxiety, drugs, heart disease, or fever
 - loss of blood or damage to myocardium
- bradycardia resting adult heart rate of less than 60 bpm
 in sleep, low body temperature, and endurance trained athletes
- **positive chronotropic agents** factors that raise the heart rate
- **negative chronotropic agents** factors that lower heart rate

Chronotropic Effects of the Autonomic Nervous System

- autonomic nervous system does not initiate the heartbeat, it modulates rhythm and force
- cardiac centers in the reticular formation of the medulla oblongata initiate autonomic output to the heart
- cardiostimulatory effect some neurons of the cardiac center transmit signals to the heart by way of sympathetic pathways
- cardioinhibitory effect others transmit parasympathetic signals by way of the vagus nerve

Chronotropic Effects of the Autonomic Nervous System

- sympathetic postganglionic fibers are adrenergic
 - they release norepinephrine
 - binds to β -adrenergic fibers in the heart
 - activates c-AMP second-messenger system in cardiocytes and nodal cells
 - leads to opening of Ca²⁺ channels in plasma membrane
 - increased Ca²⁺ inflow accelerated depolarization of SA node
 - cAMP accelerates the uptake of Ca²⁺ by the sarcoplasmic reticulum allowing the cardiocytes to relax more quickly
 - by accelerating both contraction and relaxation, norepinephrine and cAMP increase the heart rate as high as 230 bpm
 - diastole becomes too brief for adequate filling
 - both stroke volume and cardiac output are reduced

Chronotropic Effects of the Autonomic Nervous System

- parasympathetic vagus nerves have cholinergic, inhibitory effects on the SA and AV nodes
 - acetylcholine (ACh) binds to muscarinic receptors
 - opens K+ gates in the nodal cells
 - as K⁺ leaves the cells, they become hyperpolarized and fire less frequently
 - heart slows down
 - parasympathetics work on the heart faster than sympathetics
 - parasympathetics do not need a second messenger system
- without influence from the cardiac centers, the heart has a intrinsic "natural" firing rate of 100 bpm
- vagal tone holds down this heart rate to 70 80 bpm at rest
 - steady background firing rate of the vagus nerves

Inputs to Cardiac Center

- cardiac centers in the medulla receive input from many sources and integrate it into the 'decision' to speed or slow the heart
- higher brain centers affect heart rate
 - cerebral cortex, limbic system, hypothalamus
 - sensory or emotional stimuli
- medulla also receives input from muscles, joints, arteries, and brainstem
 - proprioceptors in the muscles and joints
 - inform cardiac center about changes in activity, HR increases before metabolic demands of muscle arise
 - baroreceptors signal cardiac center
 - pressure sensors in aorta and internal carotid arteries
 - blood pressure decreases, signal rate drops, cardiac center increases heart rate
 - if blood pressure increases, signal rate rises, cardiac center decreases heart rate

Inputs to Cardiac Center

chemoreceptors

- in aortic arch, carotid arteries and medulla oblongata
- sensitive to blood pH, CO₂ and O₂ levels
- more important in respiratory control than cardiac control
 - if CO₂ accumulates in blood or CSF (hypercapnia), reacts with water and causes increase in H⁺ levels
 - H^+ lowers the pH of the blood possibly creating acidosis (pH < 7.35)
- hypercapnia and acidosis stimulate the cardiac center to increase heart rate
- also respond to hypoxemia oxygen deficiency in the blood
 - usually slows down the heart
- chemoreflexes and baroreflexes, responses to fluctuation in blood chemistry, are both negative feedback loops

Chronotropic Chemicals

- chemicals affect heart rate as well as neurotransmitters from cardiac nerves
 - blood born adrenal catecholamines (NE and epinephrine) are potent cardiac stimulants
- drugs that stimulate heart

 nicotine stimulates catecholamine secretion
 - thyroid hormone increases number adrenergic receptors on heart so more responsive to sympathetic stimulation
 - caffeine inhibits cAMP breakdown prolonging adrenergic effect

Chronotropic Chemicals

- electrolytes
 - K⁺ has greatest chronotropic effect
 - hyperkalemia excess K⁺ in cardiocytes
 - myocardium less excitable, heart rate slows and becomes irregular
 - hypokalemia deficiency K+ in cardiocytes
 - cells hyperpolarized, require increased stimulation
 - calcium
 - hypercalcemia excess of Ca²⁺
 - decreases heart rate and contraction strength
 - hypocalcemia deficiency of Ca²⁺
 - increases heart rate and contraction strength

Stroke Volume (SV)

- the other factor that in cardiac output, besides heart rate, is **stroke volume**
- three variables govern stroke volume:
 - 1. preload
 - 2. contractility
 - 3. afterload
- example
 - increased preload or contractility causes increases stroke volume
 - increased afterload causes decrease stroke volume

Preload

- preload the amount of tension in ventricular myocardium immediately before it begins to contract
 - increased preload causes increased force of contraction
 - exercise increases venous return and stretches myocardium
 - cardiocytes generate more tension during contraction
 - increased cardiac output matches increased venous return

• Frank-Starling law of heart - $SV{\propto}$ EDV

- stroke volume is proportional to the end diastolic volume
- ventricles eject as much blood as they receive
- the more they are stretched, the harder they contract

Contractility

- **contractility** refers to how hard the myocardium contracts for a given preload
- positive inotropic agents increase contractility
 - hypercalcemia can cause strong, prolonged contractions and even cardiac arrest in systole
 - catecholamines increase calcium levels
 - glucagon stimulates cAMP production
 - digitalis raises intracellular calcium levels and contraction strength
- negative inotropic agents reduce contractility
 - hypocalcemia can cause weak, irregular heartbeat and cardiac arrest in diastole
 - hyperkalemia reduces strength of myocardial action potentials and the release of Ca²⁺ into the sarcoplasm
 - vagus nerves have effect on atria but too few nerves to ventricles for a significant effect

Afterload

- afterload the blood pressure in the aorta and pulmonary trunk immediately distal to the semilunar valves
 - opposes the opening of these valves
 - limits stroke volume
- hypertension increases afterload and opposes ventricular ejection
- anything that impedes arterial circulation can also increase afterload
 - lung diseases that restrict pulmonary circulation
 - cor pulmonale right ventricular failure due to obstructed pulmonary circulation
 - in emphysema, chronic bronchitis, and black lung disease

Exercise and Cardiac Output

- exercise makes the heart work harder and increases cardiac output
- proprioceptors signal cardiac center
 - at beginning of exercise, signals from joints and muscles reach the cardiac center of brain
 - sympathetic output from cardiac center increases cardiac output
- increased muscular activity increases venous return
 - increases preload and ultimately cardiac output
- increase in heart rate and stroke volume cause an increase in cardiac output
- exercise produces ventricular hypertrophy
 - increased stroke volume allows heart to beat more slowly at rest
 - athletes with increased cardiac reserve can tolerate more exertion than a sedentary person