

**Author(s):** Louis D'Alecy, 2009

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# Hemodynamics

M1 – Cardiovascular/Respiratory  
Sequence

Louis D'Alecy, Ph.D.

Fall 2008



Monday 11/03/08, 9:00

# Hemodynamics

26 slides, 50 min

1. Pressure & pressure pulses
2. Pressure gradient (perfusion pressure)
3. Determinants of Blood Flow
4. Resistance in series and in parallel

# Hemodynamics

"Hemodynamics is concerned with the forces generated by the heart and the motion of blood through the cardiovascular system."

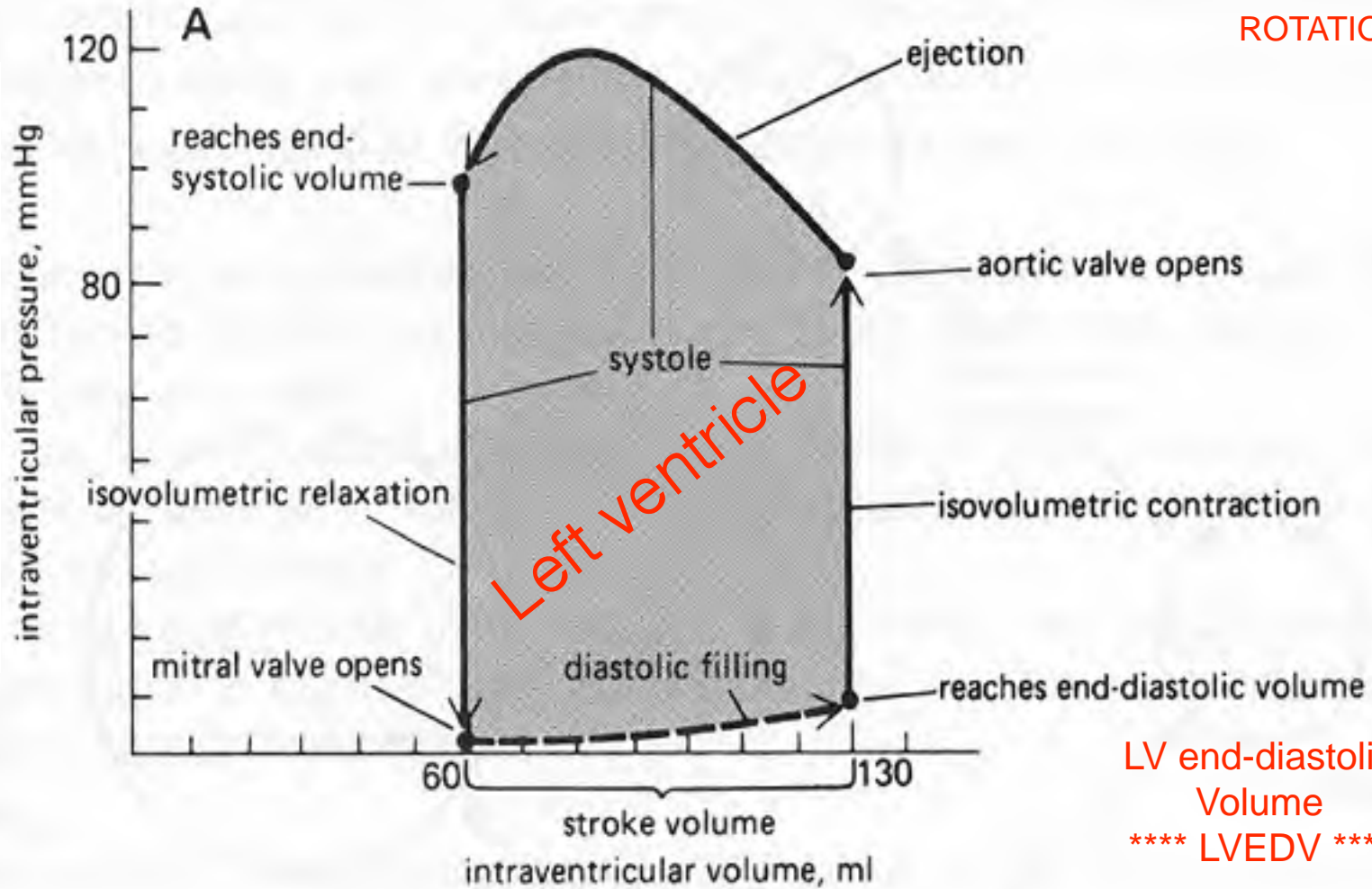
from [ucdavis.edu](http://ucdavis.edu)

**Blood Pressures and Blood Flow**

← Flow out

COUNTER  
CLOCKWISE  
ROTATION

Pressure down ↓



Pressure up ↑

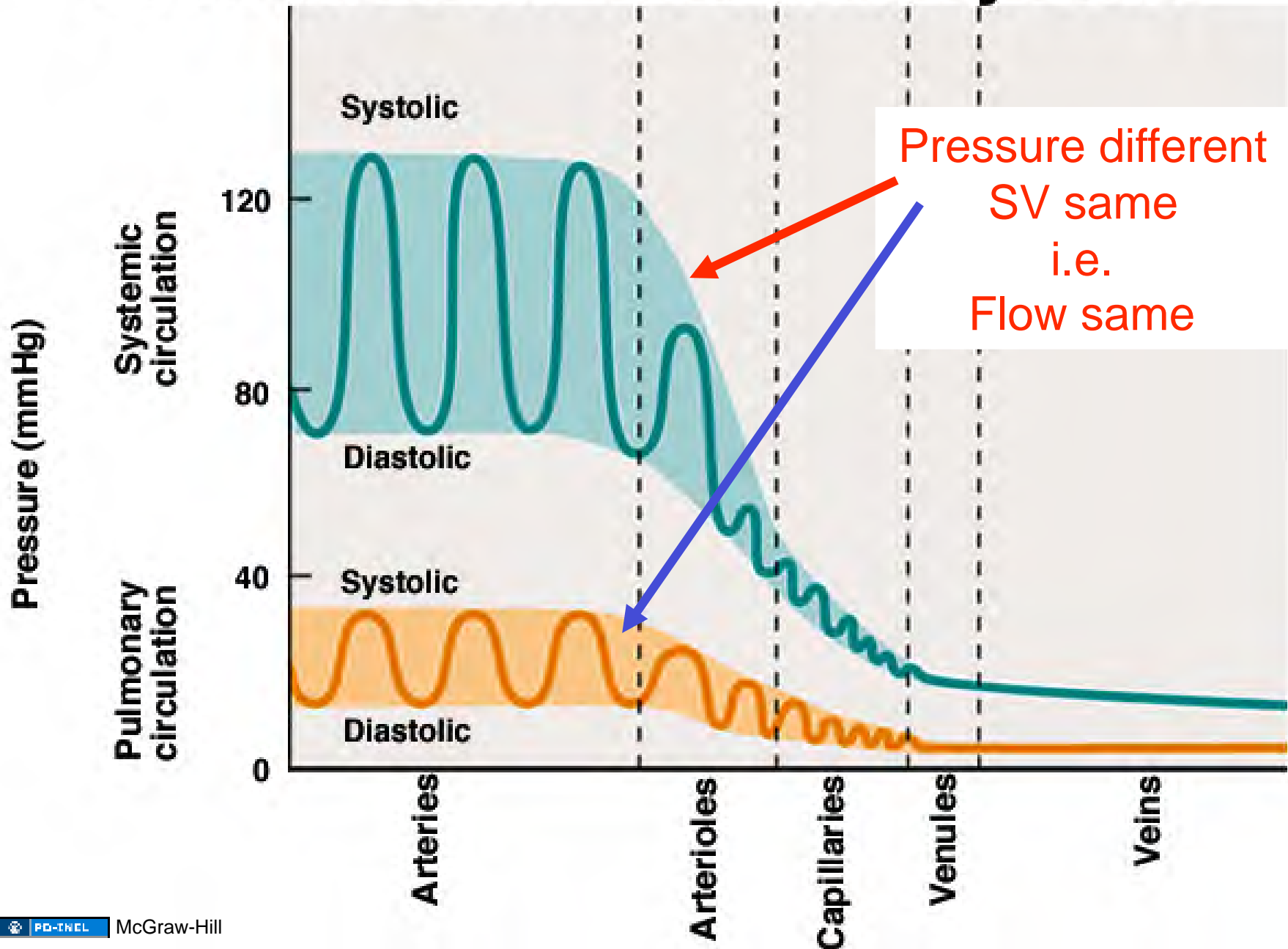
Flow in →

# Pressures in right ventricle/pulmonary artery

- 1 = Ventricular filling
- 2 = Isovolumetric ventricular contraction
- 3 = Ventricular ejection
- 4 = Isovolumetric ventricular relaxation



# Pressures in vascular system





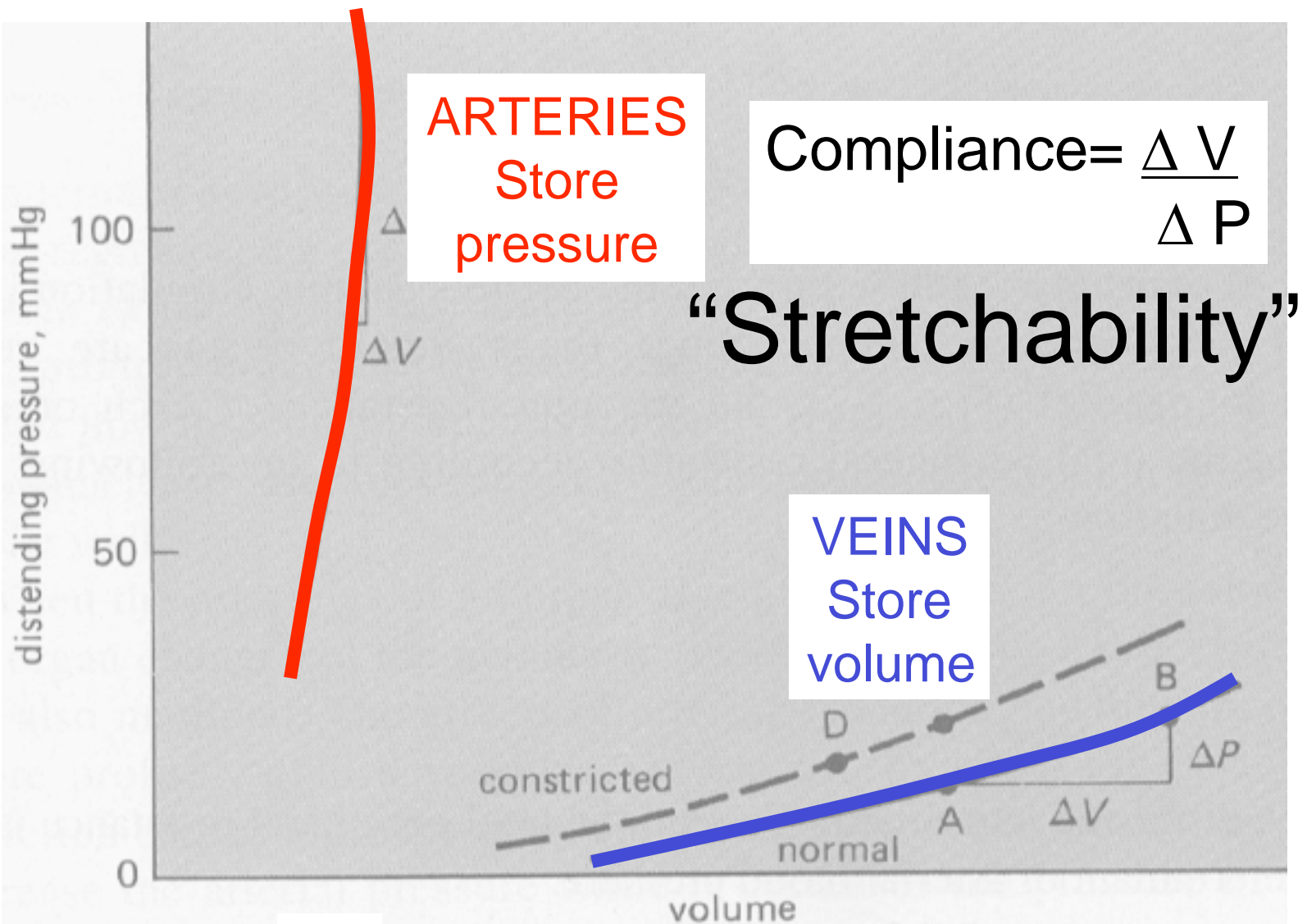
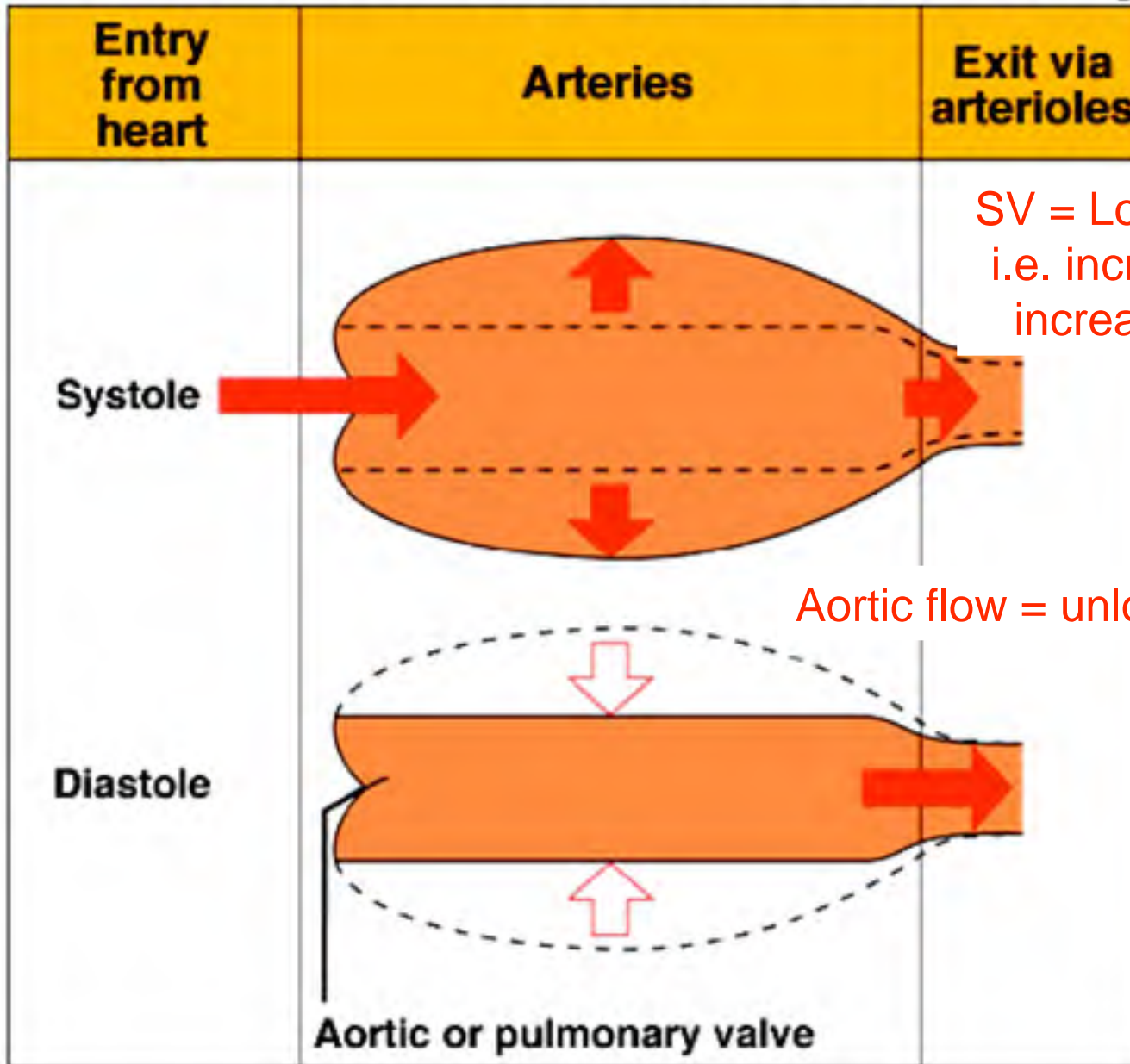


Figure 6.8 Volume-pressure curves of arteries and veins.

Veins are more compliant than arteries.

# Movement of blood/cardiac cycle

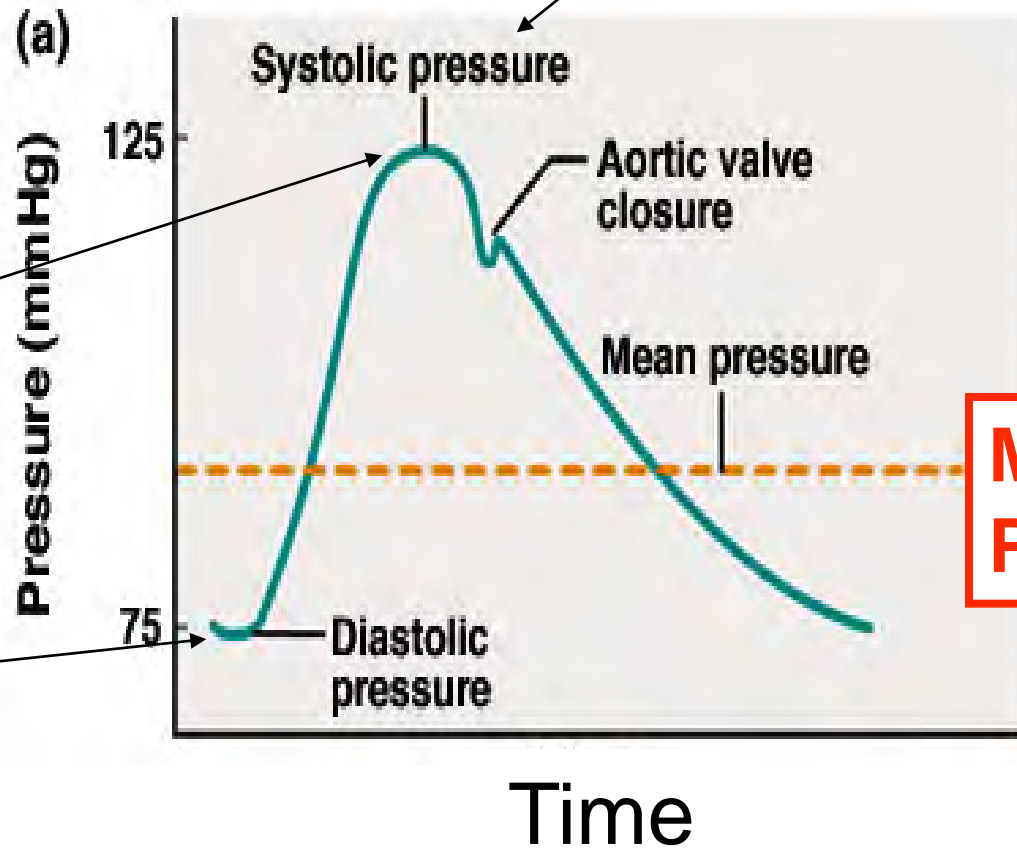


SV = Loads the spring,  
i.e. increased volume  
increases pressure

Aortic flow = unloads the spring

# Arterial pressure

1



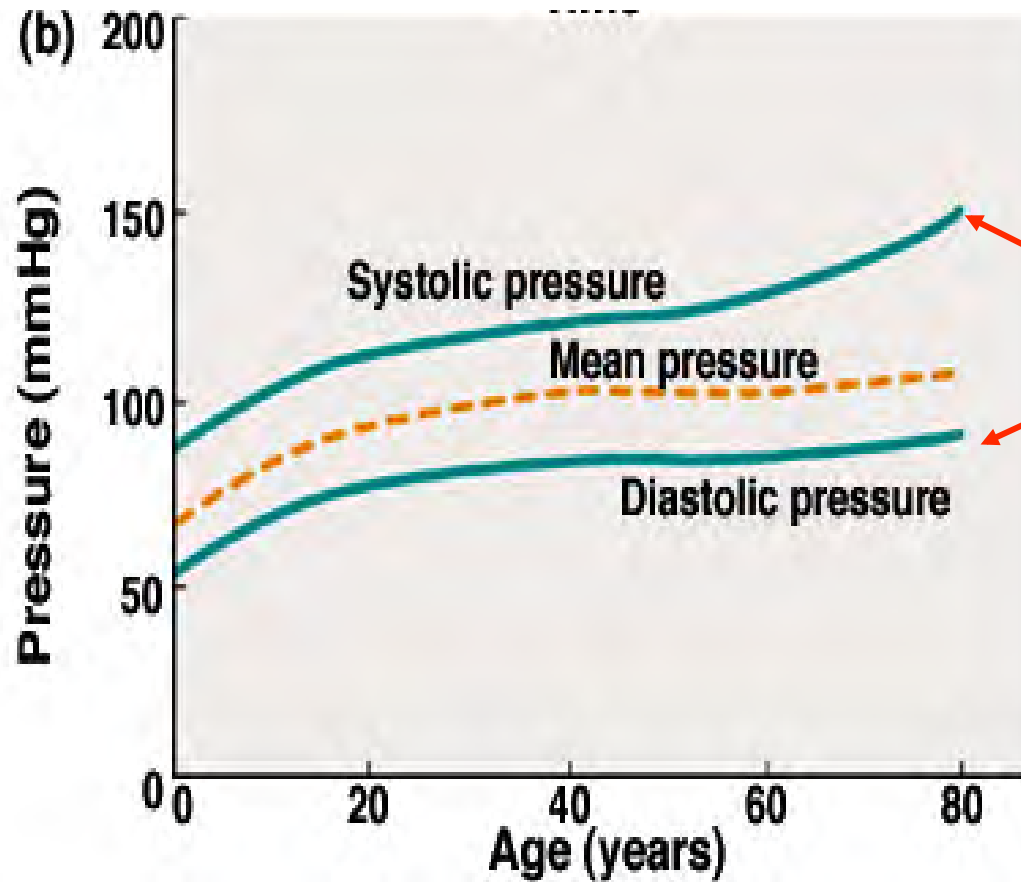
2

4

$$\text{MAP} = P_d + \frac{1}{3}P_p$$

3

$$\text{Pulse Pressure} = (\text{Systolic} - \text{Diastolic})$$



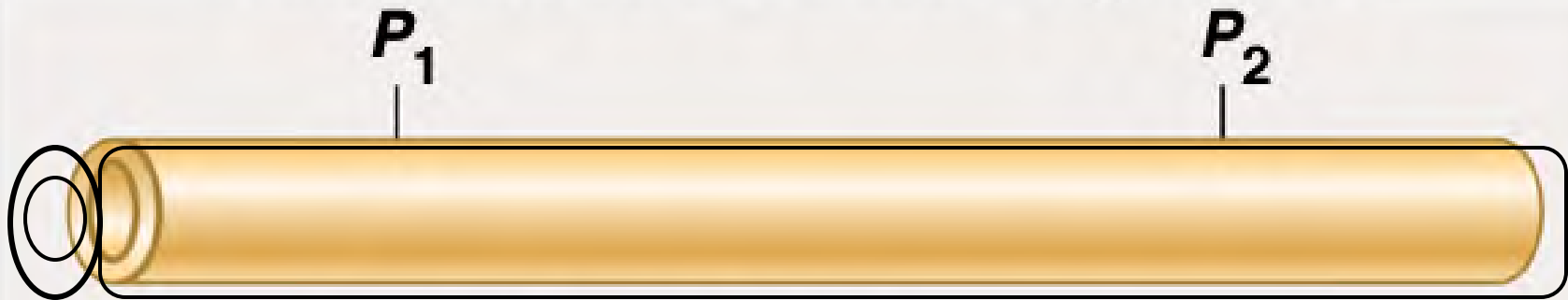
Pulse Pressure  
Increases  
with age

$$\text{Flow} = \frac{P_{\text{artery}} - P_{\text{vein}}}{R}$$

Flow is directly proportional to the pressure difference.

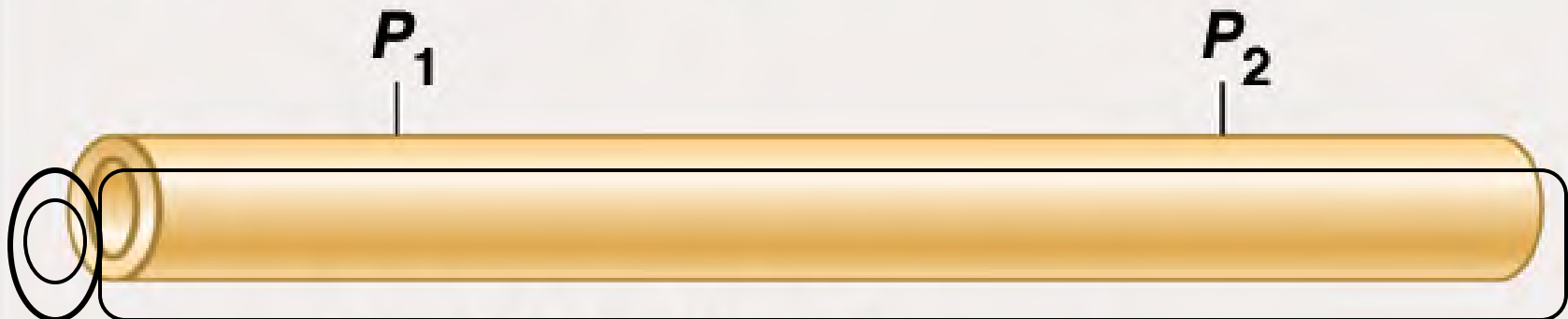
“pressure gradient” or  $\Delta P$

# Flow between two points



$P_1 = 100 \text{ mmHg}$   
 $P_2 = 10 \text{ mmHg}$   
Flow rate = 10 ml/min

}  $\Delta P = 90 \text{ mmHg}$

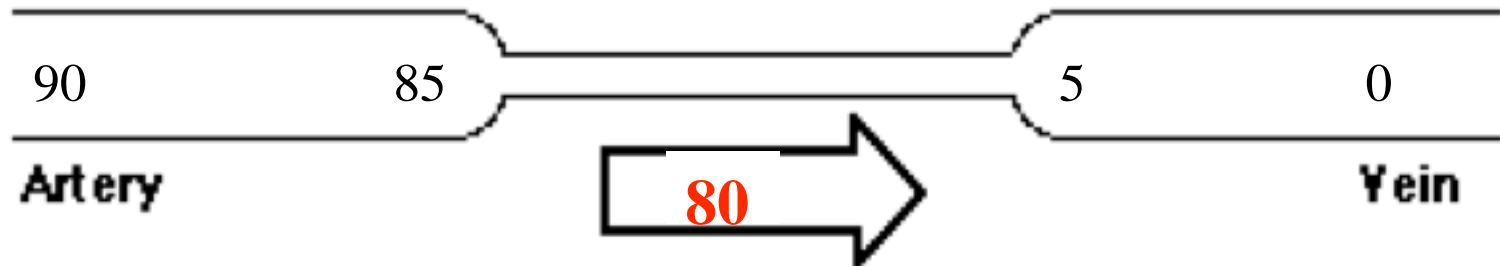


$P_1 = 500 \text{ mmHg}$   
 $P_2 = 410 \text{ mmHg}$   
Flow rate = 10 ml/min

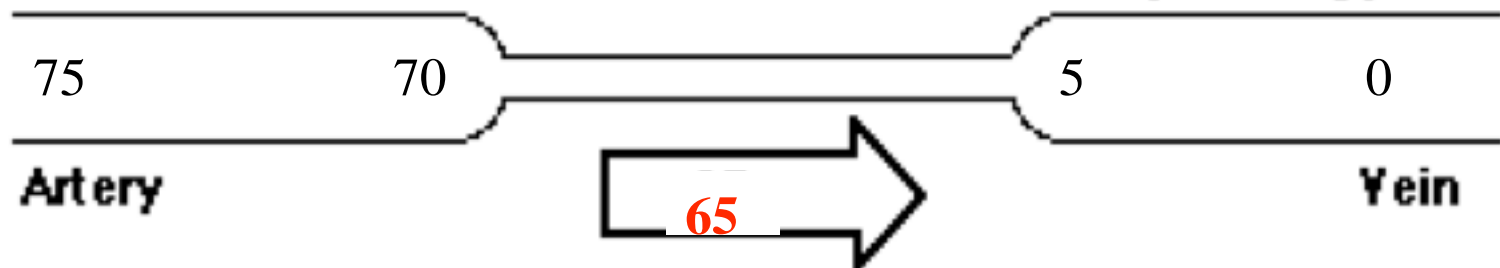
}  $\Delta P = 90 \text{ mmHg}$

# Arterial Determinants of Perfusion Pressure

**NORMAL PERFUSION PRESSURE (mmHg)**



**HYPOTENSIVE PERFUSION PRESSURE (mmHg)**

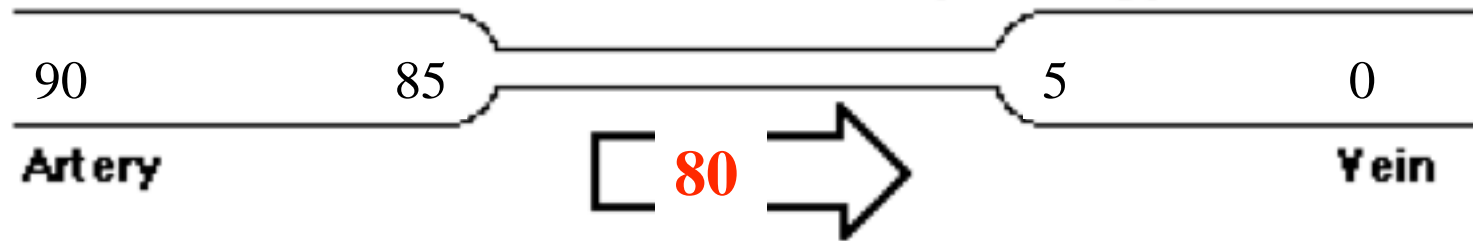




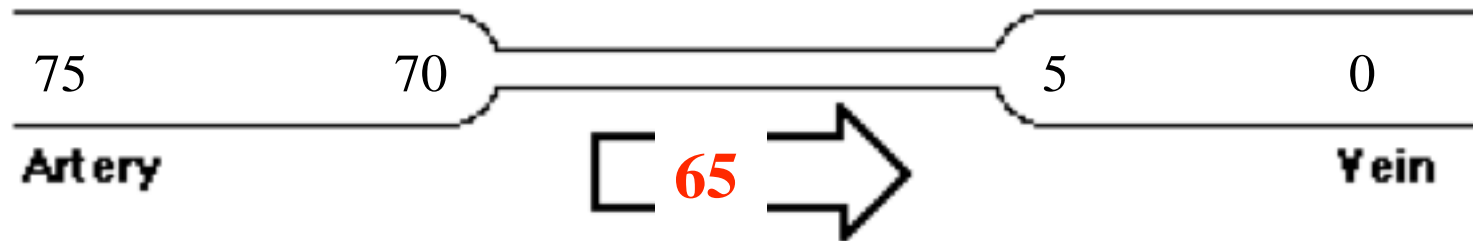


# DETERMINANTS OF PERFUSION PRESSURE

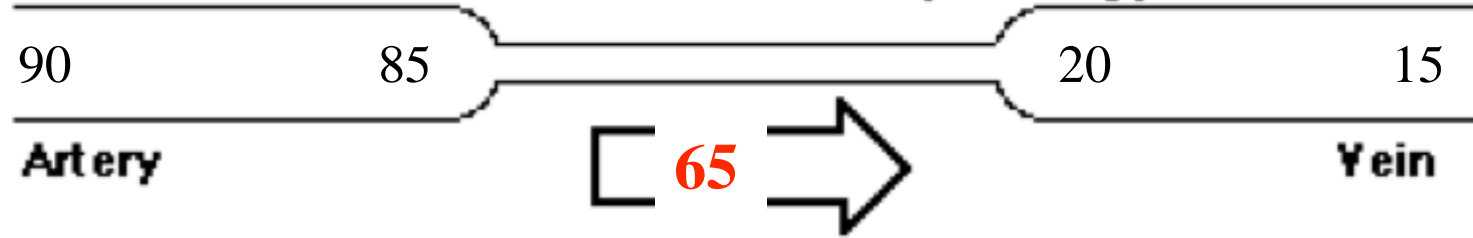
## NORMAL PERFUSION PRESSURE (mmHg)



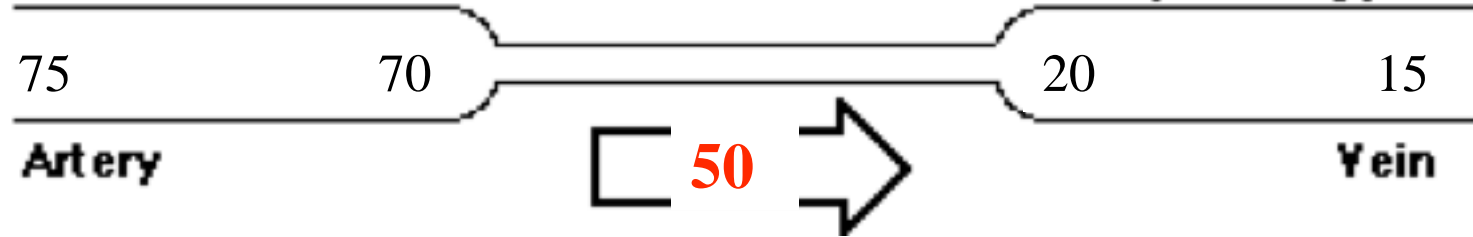
## HYPOTENSIVE PERFUSION PRESSURE (mmHg)



## INCREASED VENOUS PRESSURE (mmHg)



## HYPOTENSION & ↑ VENOUS PRESSURE (mmHg)



$$\text{Flow} = \frac{P_{\text{artery}} - P_{\text{vein}}}{R}$$

Flow is

**directly** proportional to  $\Delta P$

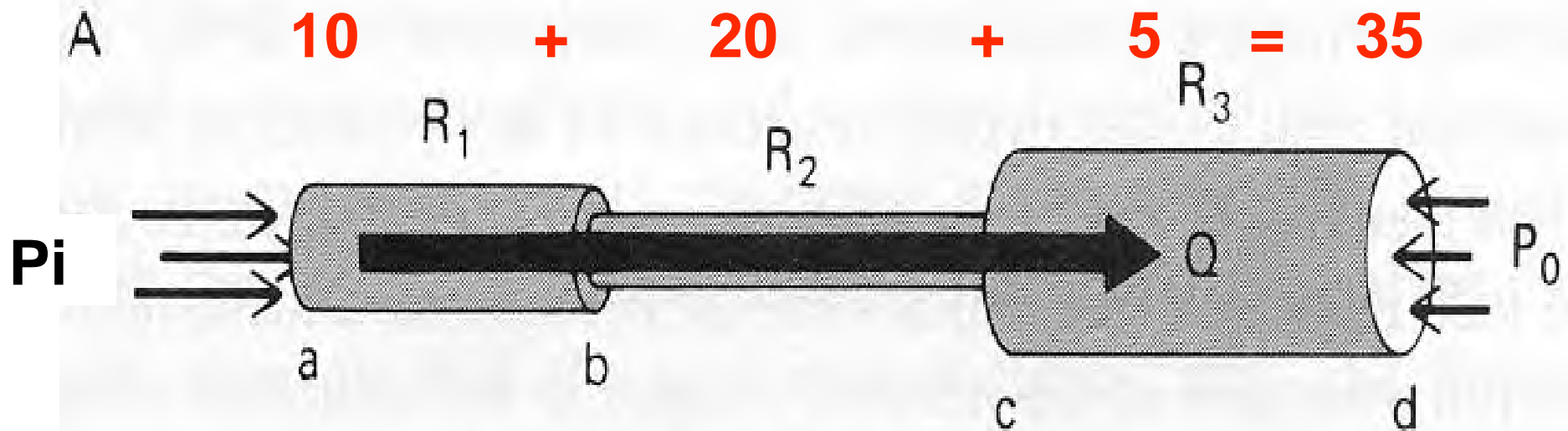
and

**inversely** proportional to **R**

**R = resistance**

# Resistance ~ hindrance to flow

## Series Resistance Add

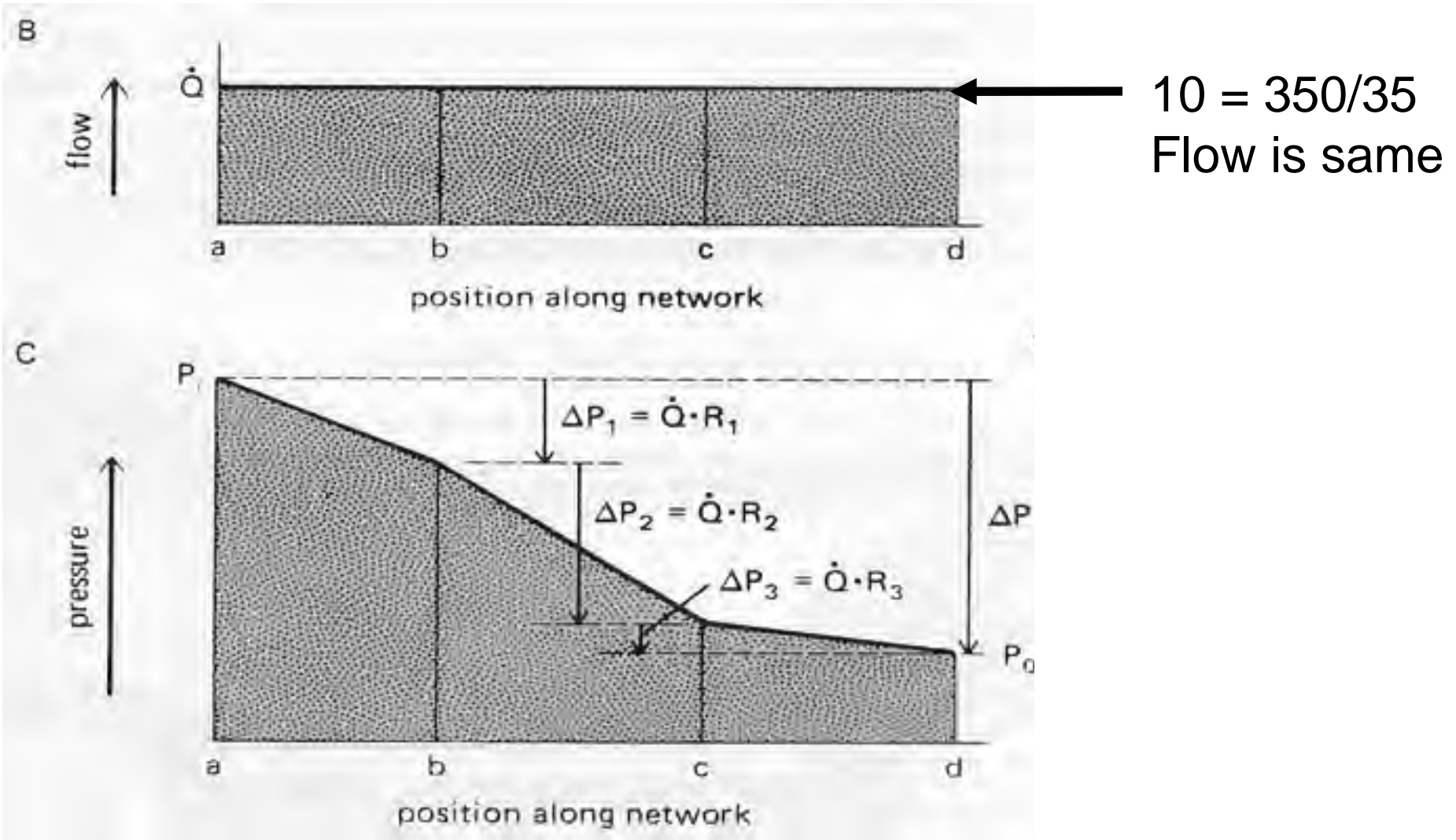


$$R_s = R_1 + R_2 + R_3$$

**Q = flow**

$$\Delta P = P_i - P_o$$
$$\dot{Q} = \Delta P / R_s$$

$$F = \Delta P/R \quad 10 = 100/10 \quad 10 = 200/20 \quad 10 = 50/5$$



**\*\*Measure flow and pressure drop and calculate resistance.**


**R = Resistance**      **r = radius**

$$R = \frac{8 \eta L}{\pi r^4}$$

L = length  
eta = viscosity  
r = radius

$$R = \frac{\cancel{8} \cancel{\eta} \cancel{L}}{\pi r^4} \approx \frac{1}{r^4}$$

**Flow =  $\frac{\text{Perfusion Pressure}}{\text{Resistance}}$**

$$\approx \text{PP} \times r^4$$


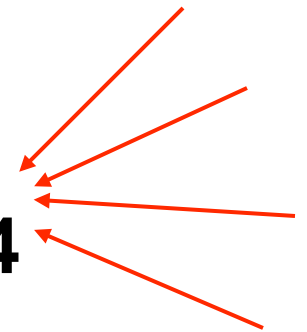
**Thus 2X r produces 16X flow!!**

Flow is

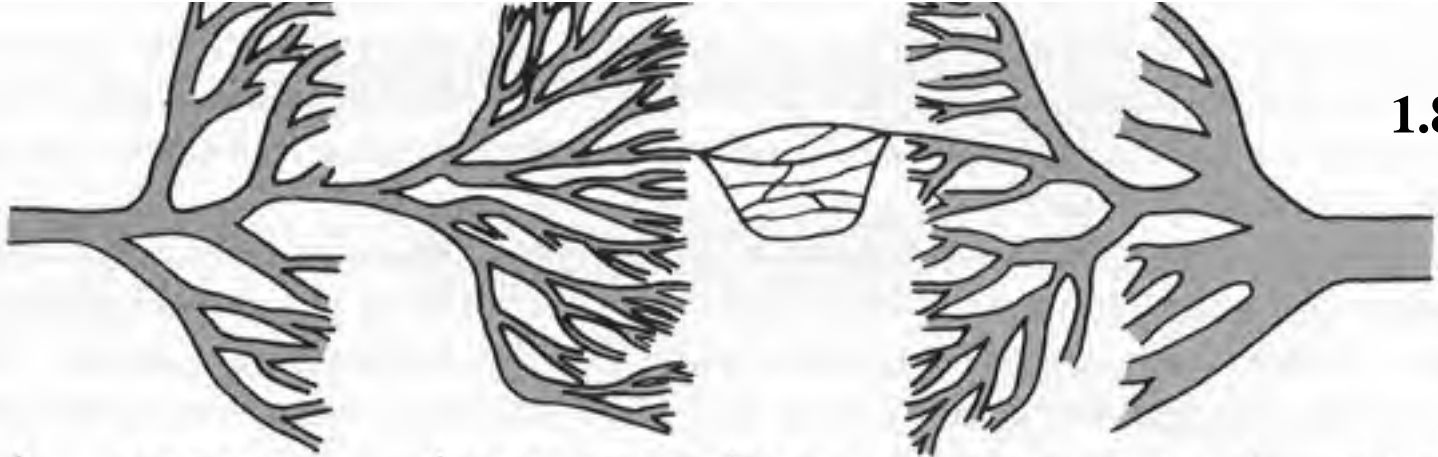
**directly** proportional to  $\Delta P$

and

**directly** proportional to  $r^4$



i.e. the 4th power of the radius



25,000  $\mu\text{m}$  range

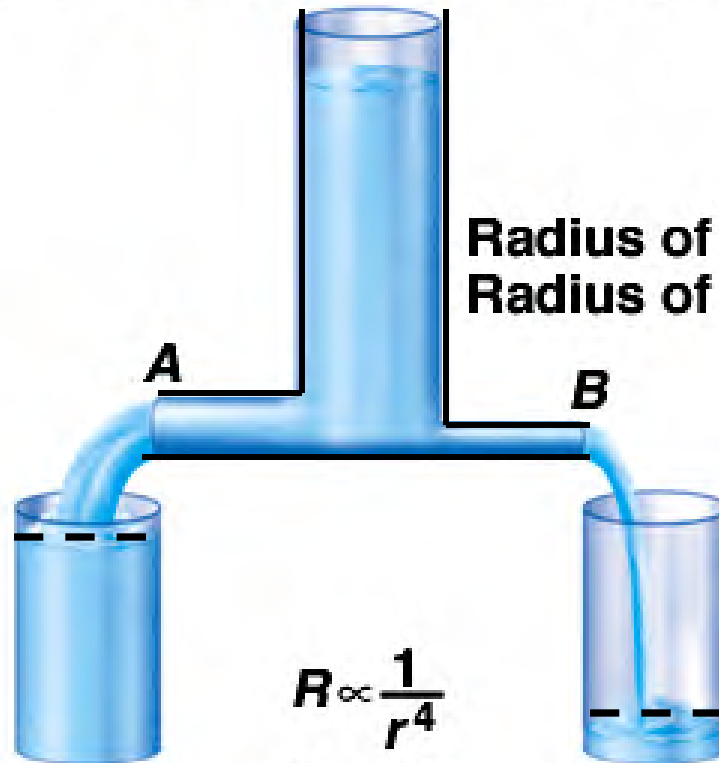
X 5,000

one-way valves

	ARTERIES		ARTERIOLES	CAPILLARIES	VENULES	VEINS	
	Aorta						Venae cavae
internal diameter	2.5 cm	0.4 cm	30 $\mu\text{m}$	5 $\mu\text{m}$	70 $\mu\text{m}$	0.5 cm	3 cm
wall thickness	2 mm	1 mm	20 $\mu\text{m}$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	2 $\mu\text{m}$	0.5 mm	1.5 mm
number	1	160	$5 \times 10^7$	$10^{10}$	$10^8$	200	2
total cross-sectional area	4.5 $\text{cm}^2$	20 $\text{cm}^2$	400 $\text{cm}^2$	4500 $\text{cm}^2$	4000 $\text{cm}^2$	40 $\text{cm}^2$	18 $\text{cm}^2$

# Effect of tube radius

Same  $\Delta P$



Radius of A ( $r_A$ ) = 2  
Radius of B ( $r_B$ ) = 1

$$R \propto \frac{1}{r^4}$$

$$R_A \propto \frac{1}{(r_A)^4} = \frac{1}{2^4} = \frac{1}{16} = 0.0625$$

$$R_B \propto \frac{1}{(r_B)^4} = \frac{1}{1^4} = \frac{1}{1} = 1.0$$

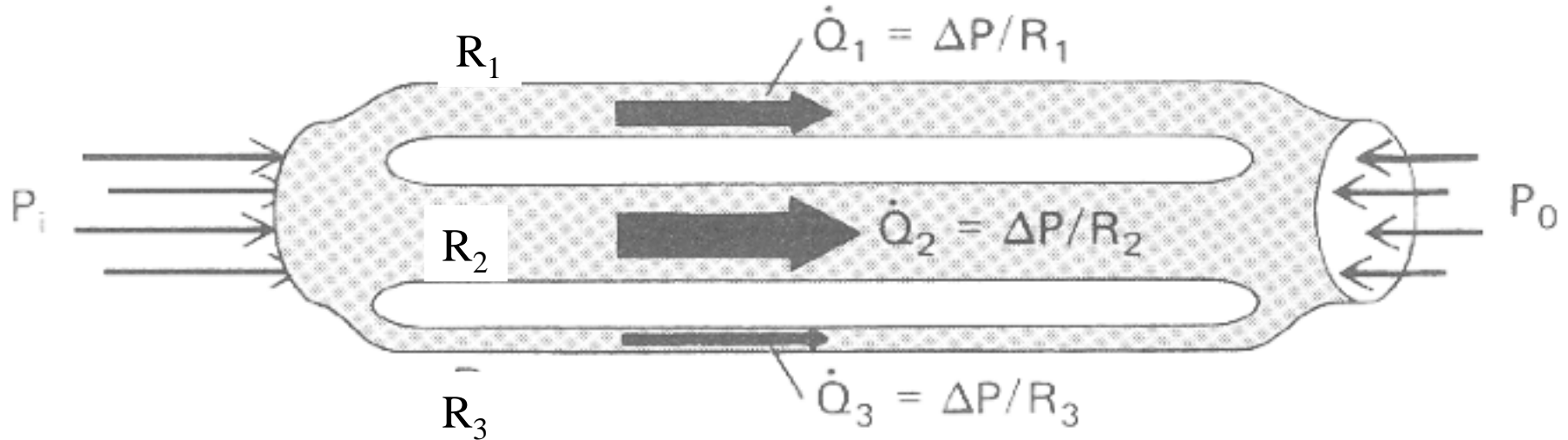
Therefore  $R_B = 16 R_A$

$$\text{Flow} = \frac{\Delta P}{R}$$

Therefore flow in B =  $\frac{1}{16}$  th of flow in A



# Parallel Resistance Network With different individual resistances



$$\frac{1}{R_p} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

$$\Delta P = P_i - P_0$$

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{total}} = \dot{Q}_1 + \dot{Q}_2 + \dot{Q}_3$$

Flow adds

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{total}} = \Delta P / R_p$$

**Another example:**

**Parallel Resistance Network**  
With identical individual resistances

**Assume you have four vessel paths**  
**in parallel and each has the same**  
**individual resistance of 4.**

**What is the overall resistance**  
**of this parallel network?**

$$\frac{1}{R_t} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_4}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_t} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_t} = \frac{4}{4}$$

$$R_t = 1$$

**COMBINED (Total)**  
The parallel resistance network  
has less resistance than  
any individual component.

# Parallel Resistance Network

More checkout lines means that there is less resistance to ‘flowing’ out of the store.

**Parallel resistances add as reciprocals.**

# Tissue Blood Flow and Tissue Vascular Resistance

(\*\*\*Assume Perfusion Pressure is Constant \*\*\*)

- **Vasoconstriction**

- $\Rightarrow \Downarrow r \Rightarrow \Uparrow R_{\text{tissue}} \Rightarrow \Downarrow F_{\text{tissue}}$

- **Vasodilation**

- $\Rightarrow \Uparrow r \Rightarrow \Downarrow R_{\text{tissue}} \Rightarrow \Uparrow F_{\text{tissue}}$

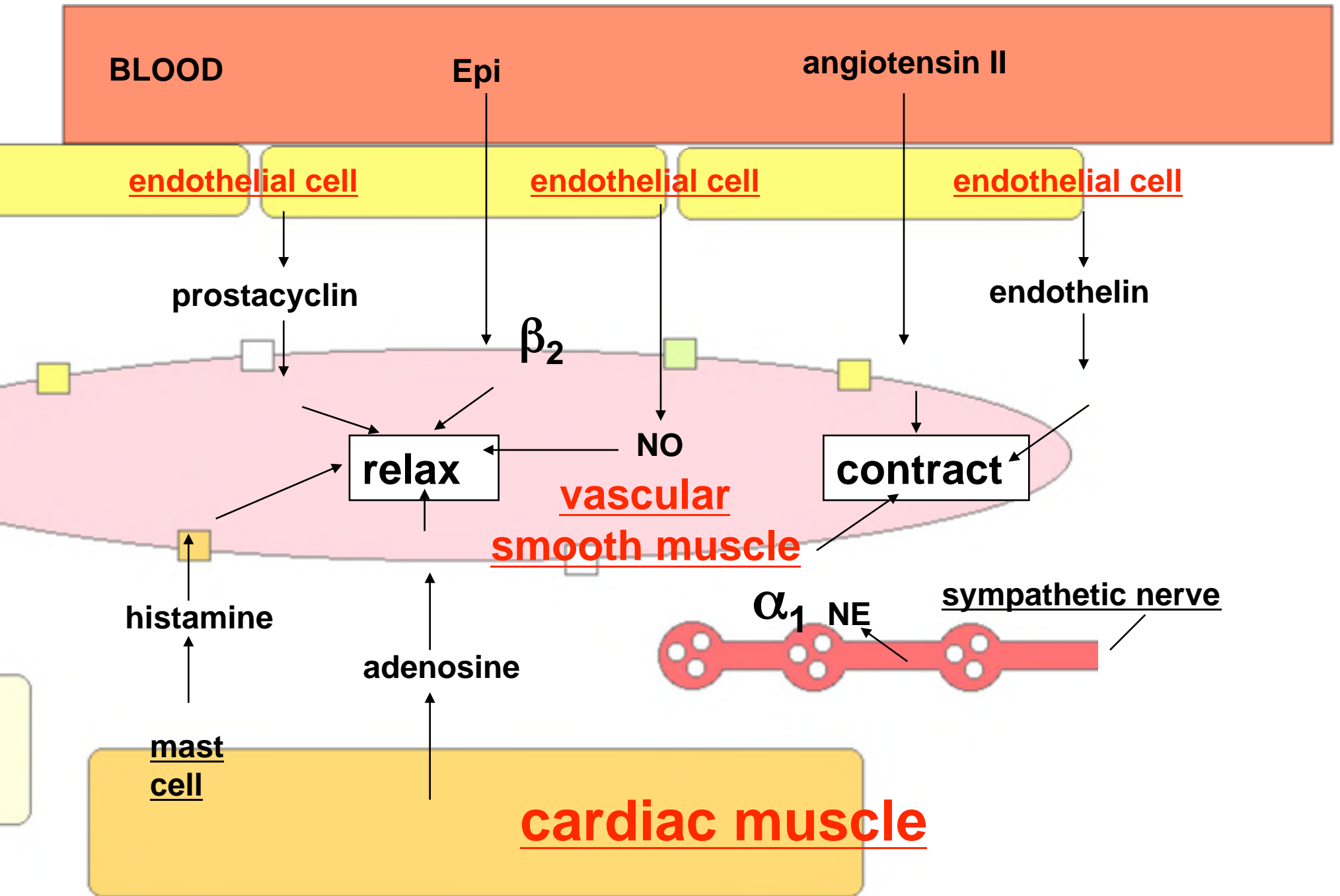
$$F_{\text{tissue}} = \frac{\text{Perfusion Pressure}}{R_{\text{tissue}}}$$

# Monday 11/03/08, 10:00

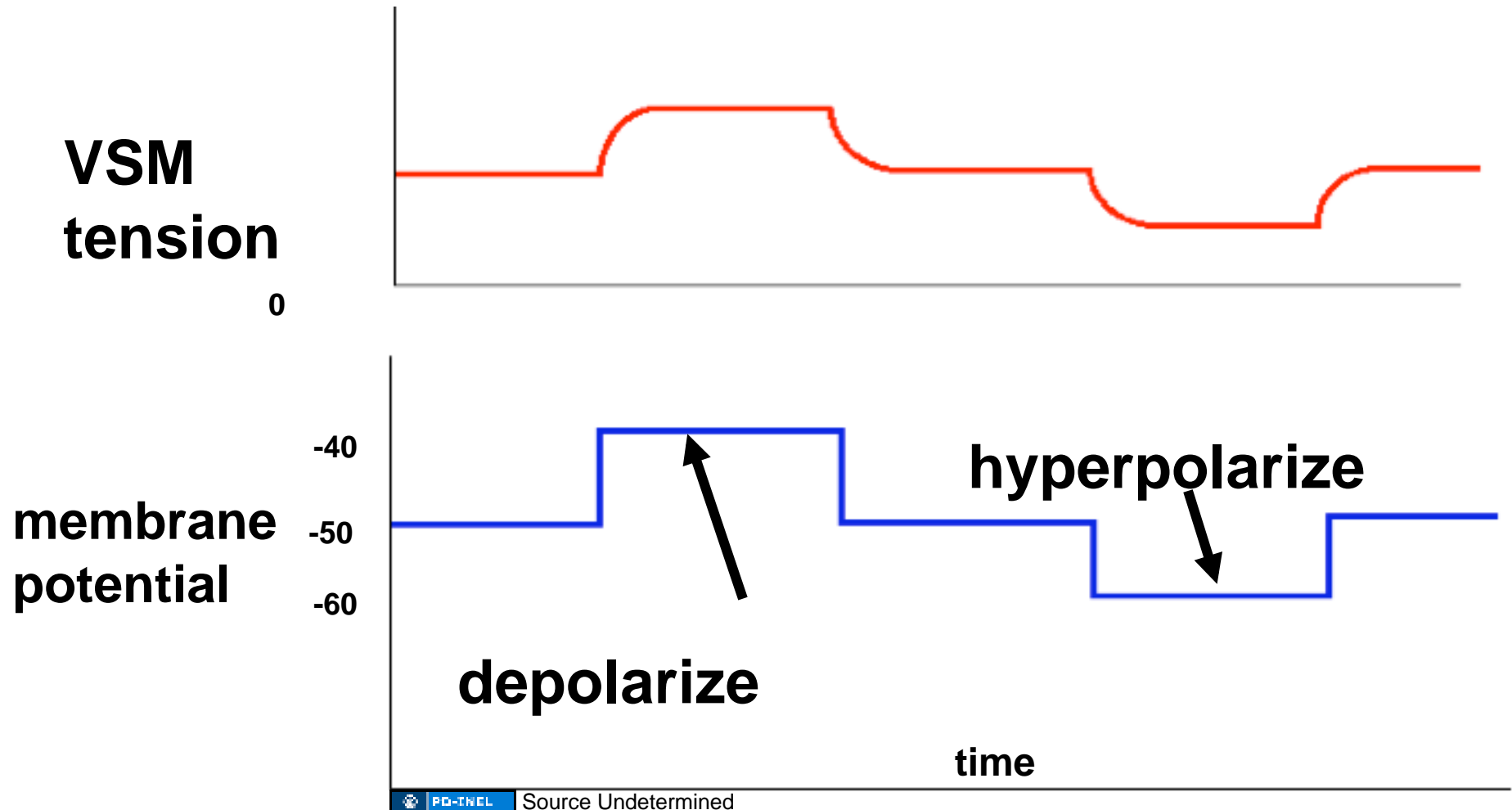
## Vascular Smooth Muscle

33 slides, 50 min.

1. Vasoconstrictors and Vasodilators
2. Neural control of **resistance**
3. Humoral control of **resistance**
4. Local control of **resistance**
5. Nitric oxide, Nitric oxide synthase (NOS)
6. Asymmetrical dimethylarginine



# VSM can change tension **without** action potentials

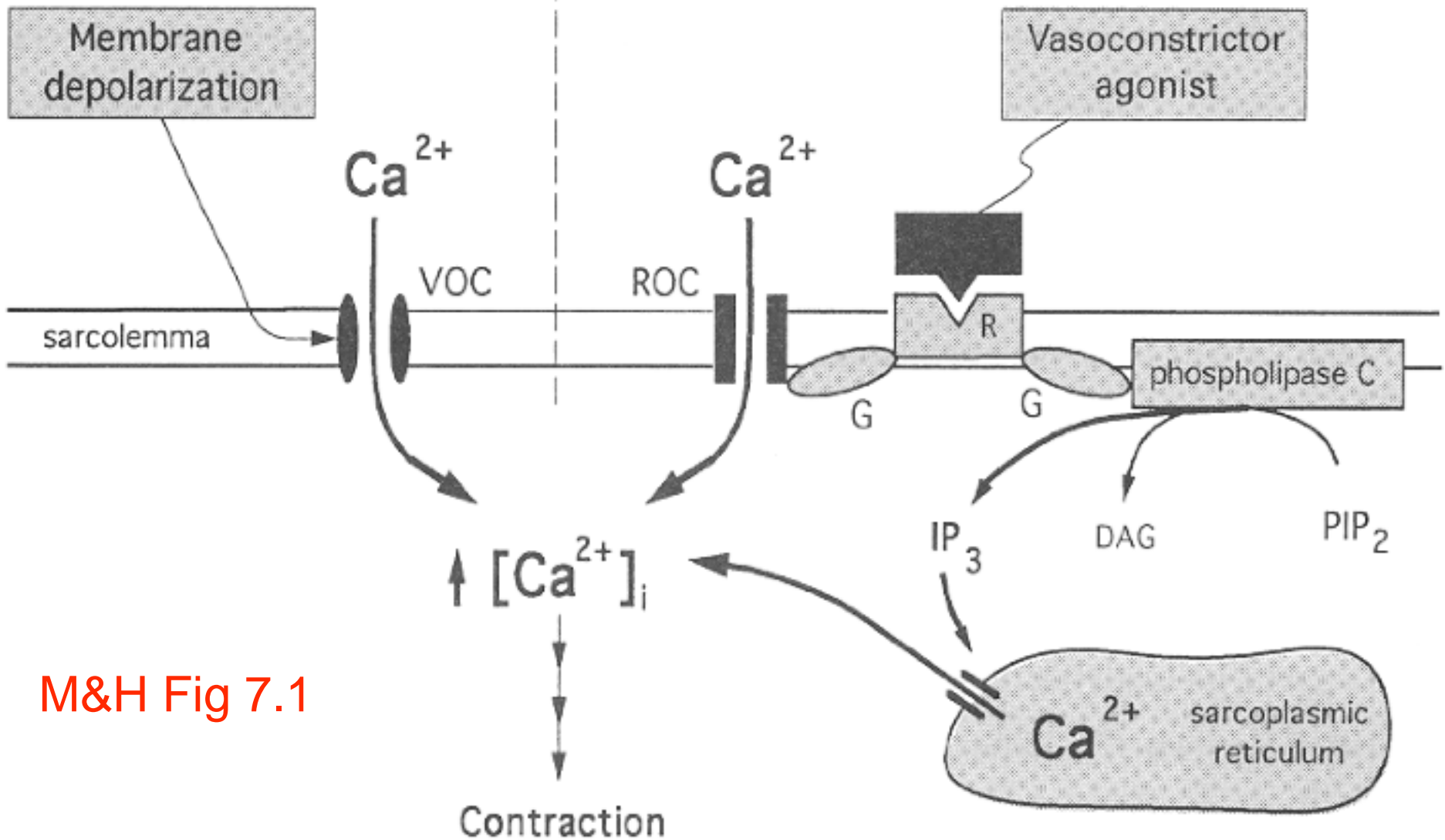


A change in VSM **tension** causes **vasodilation** or **vasoconstriction**

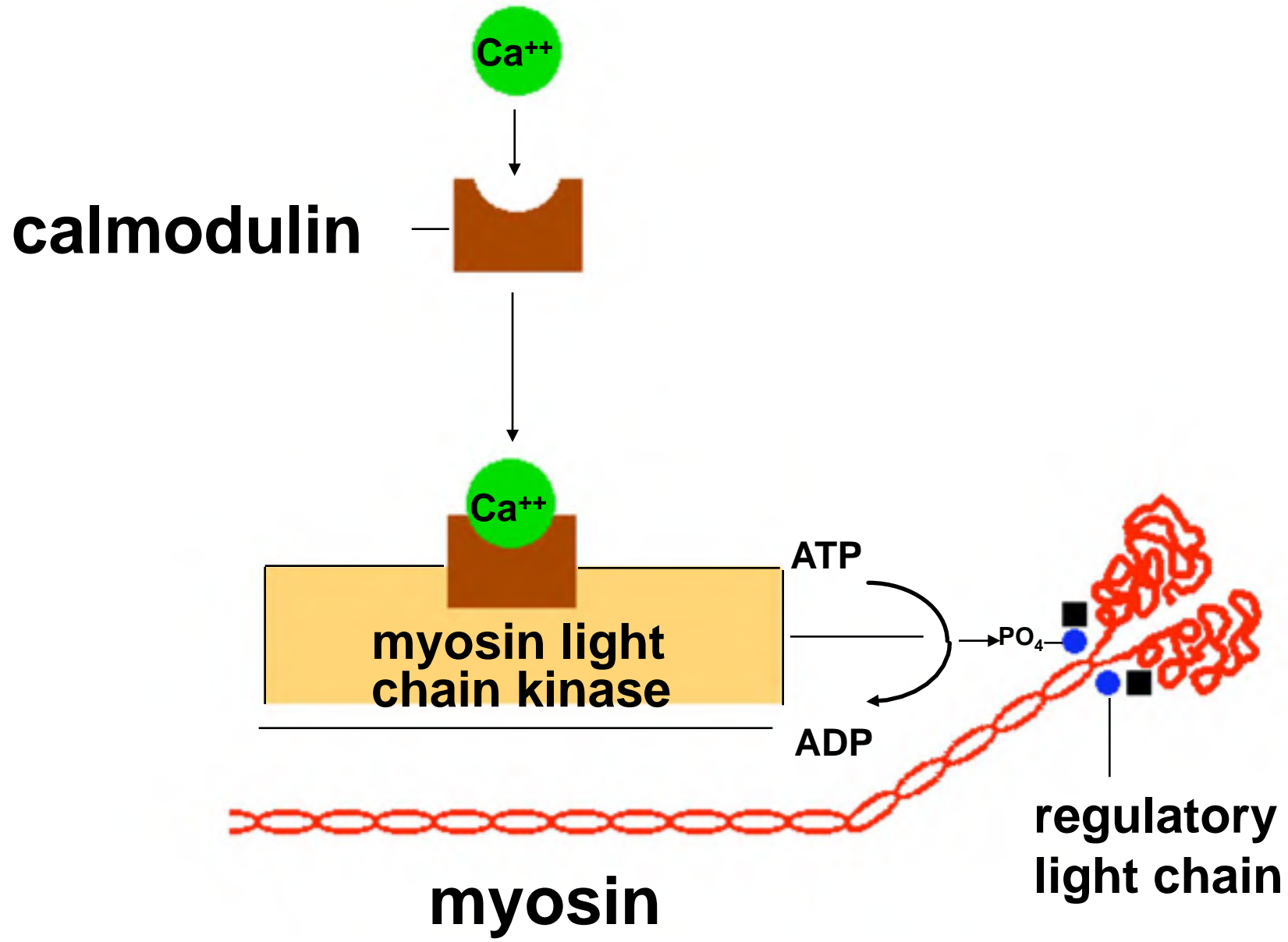


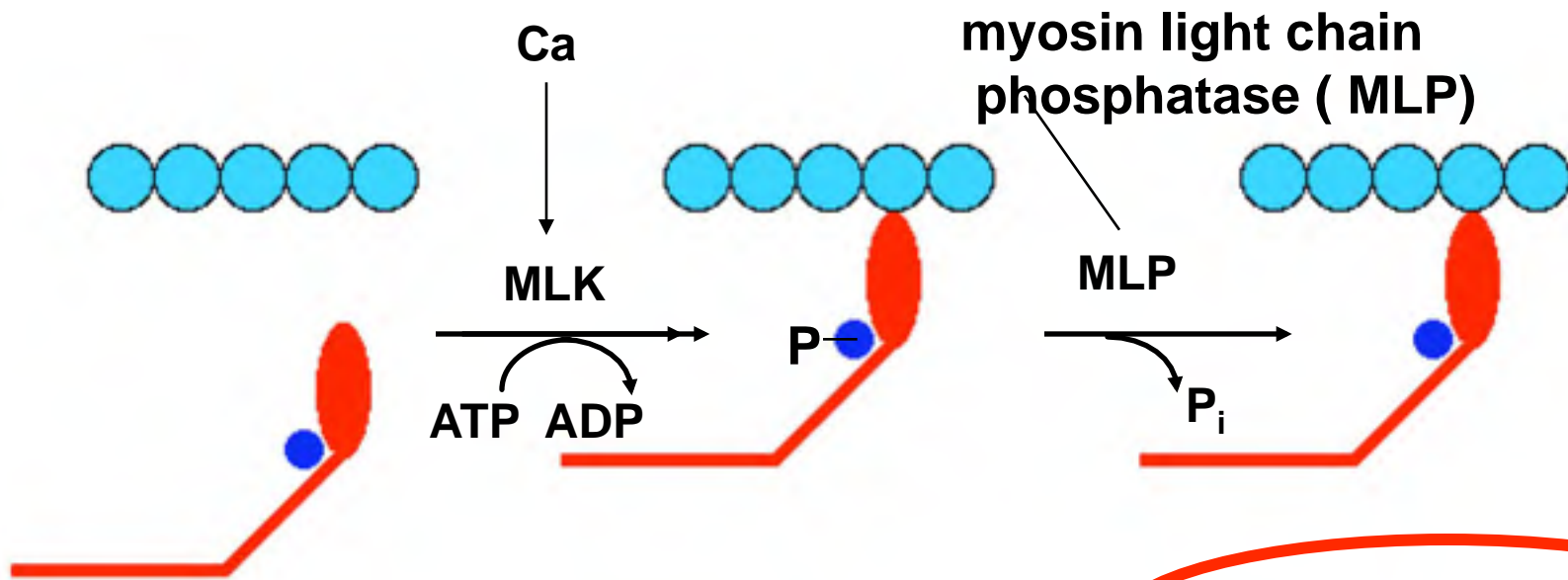
ELECTROMECHANICAL  
COUPLING

PHARMACOMECHANICAL  
COUPLING



M&H Fig 7.1





## At rest

myosin can not bind to actin in absence of light chain phosphorylation

## Cycling bridges

myosin rapidly dissociates from actin upon binding ATP during each cycle

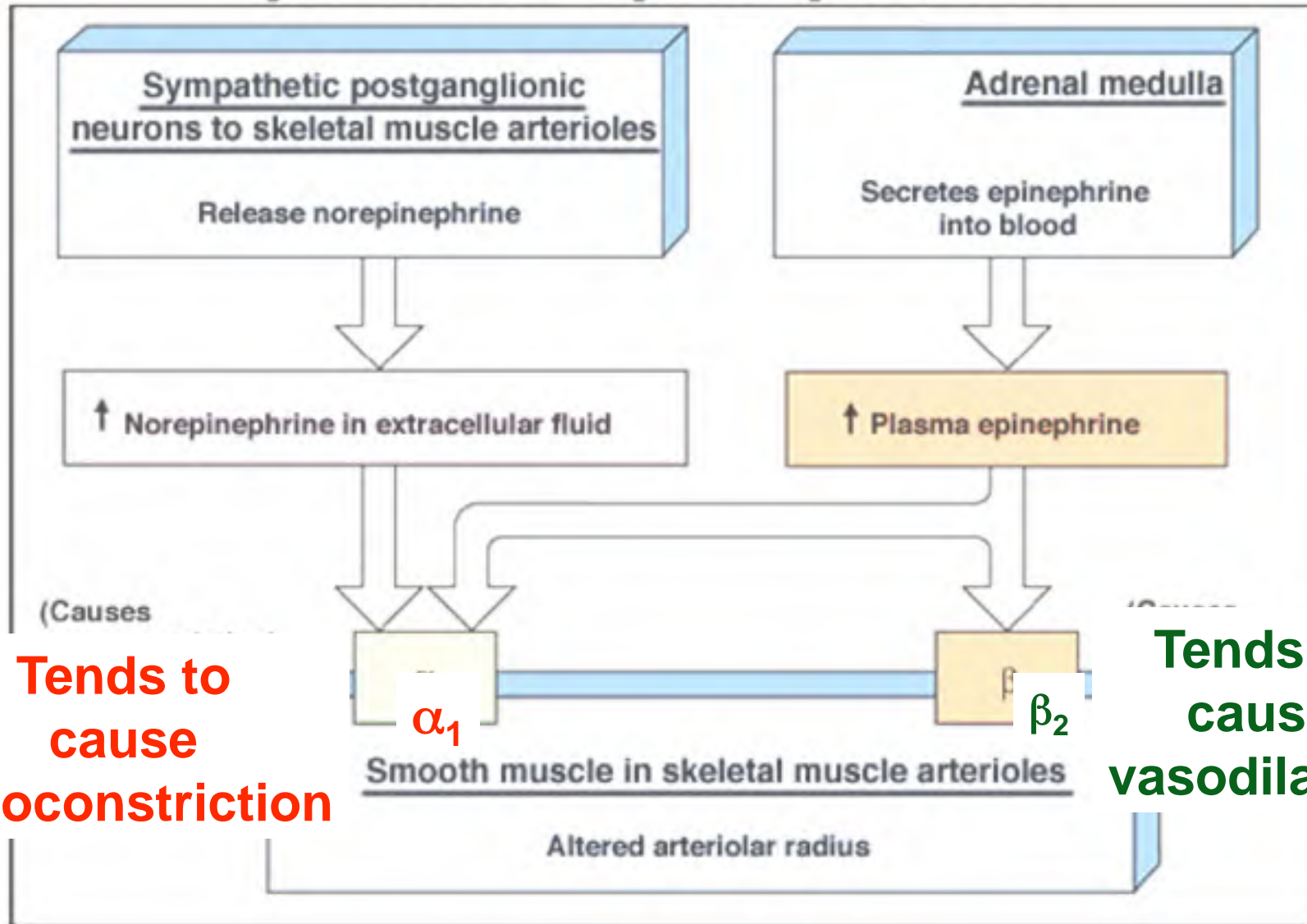
initial rise in muscle tension

## Latch bridges

dephosphorylated myosin dissociates from actin very slowly producing slow bridge cycling

maintained tension tonic contraction

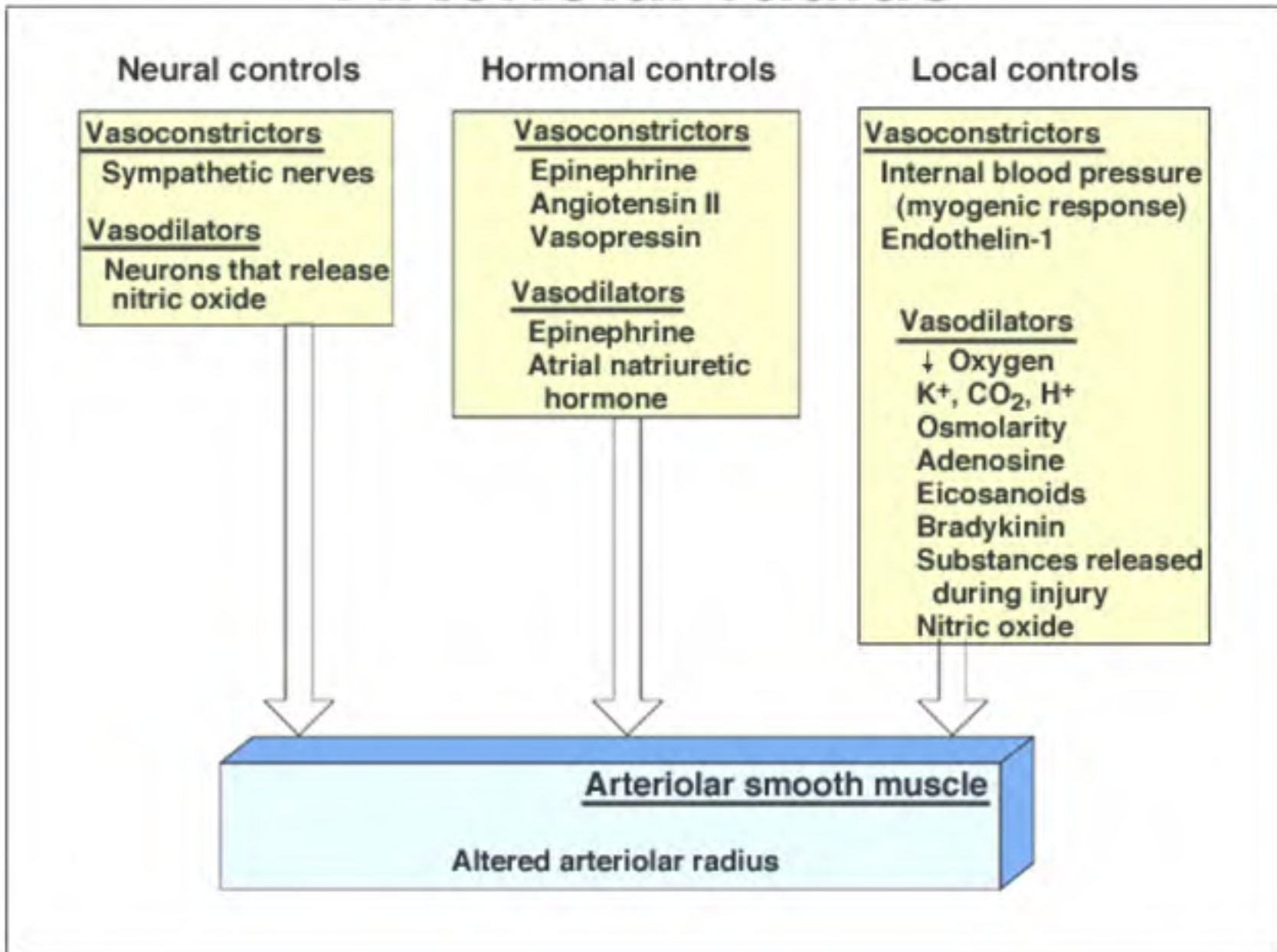
# Sympathetic nerves/ plasma epinephrine



**Tends to  
cause  
vasoconstriction**

**Tends to  
cause  
vasodilation**

# Arteriolar radius



# Local Influences on Arterioles

(Local = no neural or humoral control)

Active Hyperemia

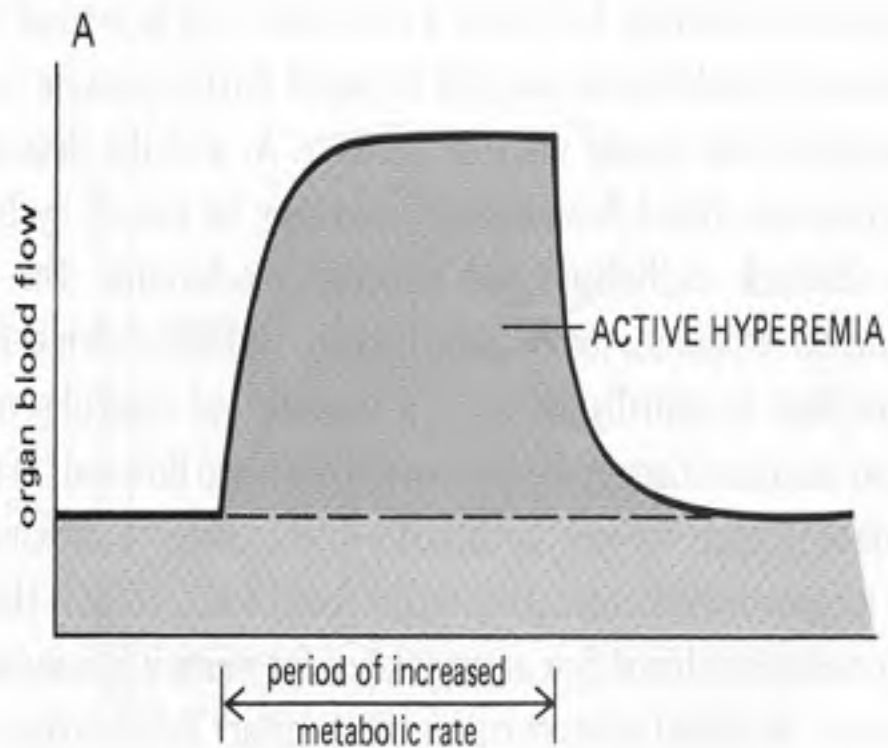
Reactive Hyperemia

Autoregulation

Think of accumulation of vasodilator metabolites.

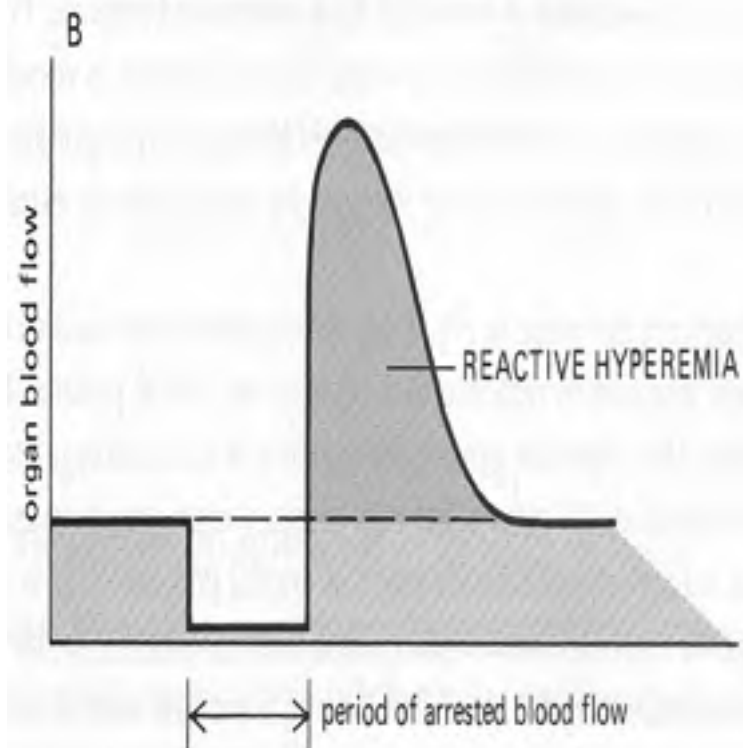
### Active hyperemia

= increased blood flow in response to increased **metabolic** demand



### Reactive Hyperemia

= increased blood flow following a period of **no flow**



**M&H 7.3**

**39**

# Reactive Hyperemia

## Vascular Biology

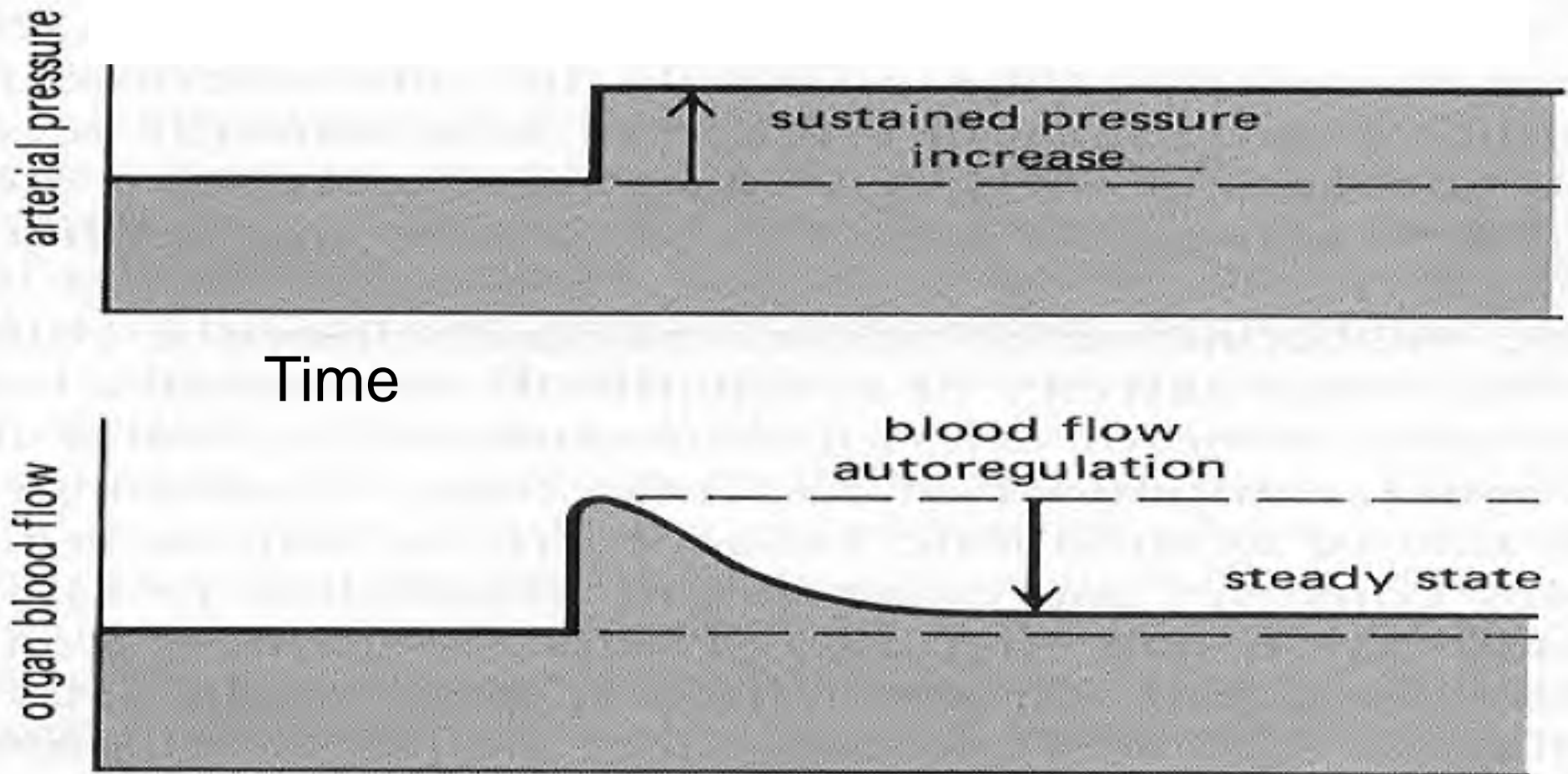
### **Predictive Value of Reactive Hyperemia for Cardiovascular Events in Patients With Peripheral Arterial Disease Undergoing Vascular Surgery**

*(Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2007;27:2113-2119.)*

*Conclusions*—Thus, lower reactive hyperemia is associated with increased cardiovascular risk in patients with peripheral arterial disease. Furthermore, flow-mediated dilation and reactive hyperemia incrementally relate to cardiovascular risk, although impaired flow-mediated dilation was the stronger predictor in this population. These findings further support



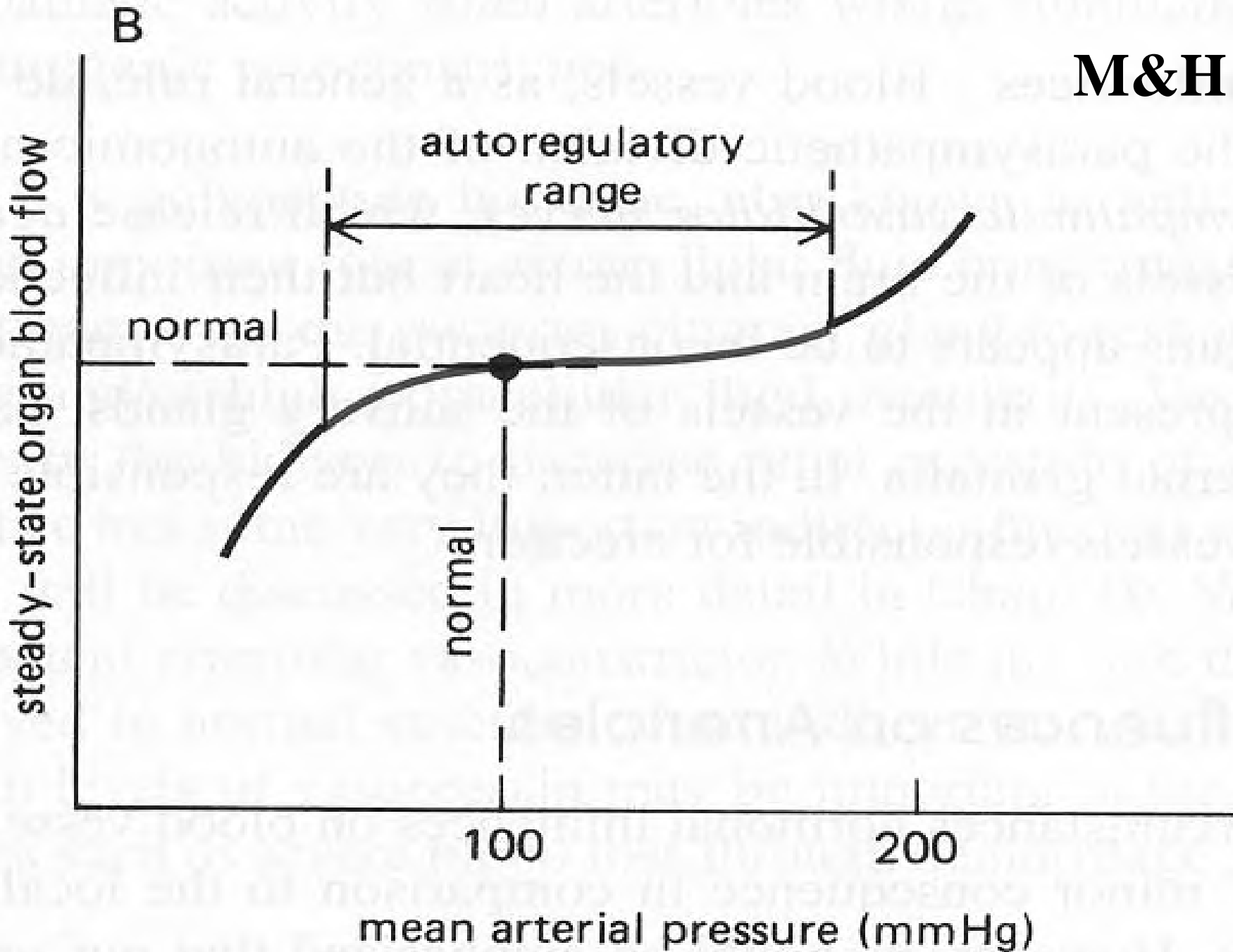
**Autoregulation = relatively constant blood flow in the face of changed perfusion pressure**



PD-TNEL Mohrman and Heller. Cardiovascular Physiology. McGraw-Hill, 2006. 6<sup>th</sup> ed.

Think of vasodilator metabolite washout.

# M&H 7.4



## Local controls

### Vasoconstrictors

Internal blood pressure  
(myogenic response)  
Endothelin-1

### Vasodilators

↓ Oxygen  
 $K^+$ ,  $CO_2$ ,  $H^+$   
Osmolarity  
Adenosine  
Eicosanoids  
Bradykinin  
Substances released  
during injury  
Nitric oxide

# Other Smooth Muscles

## Vascular

arteries, arterioles, venuoles, veins, lymphatic

## Gastrointestinal

longitudinal vs circular, esophageal, gastric, intestinal  
sphincter smooth muscles, gallbladder  
bile and pancreatic ducts

## Pulmonary

tracheal, bronchial, bronchiolar

## Urinary System

bladder, ureters, urethra

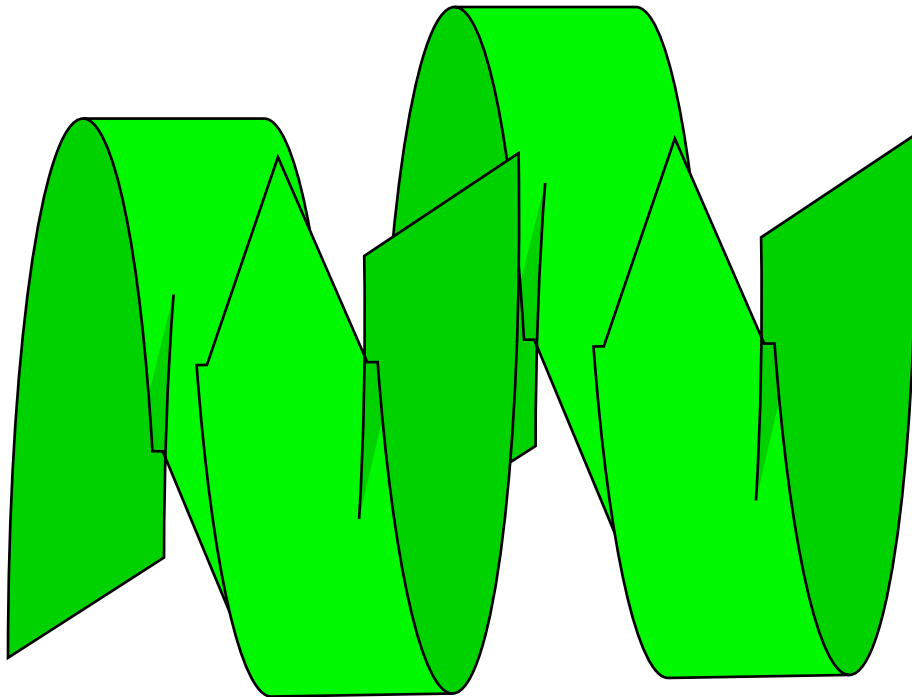
## Reproductive System

uterus, vagina, oviducts, vas deferens, prostate capsule

## Miscellaneous

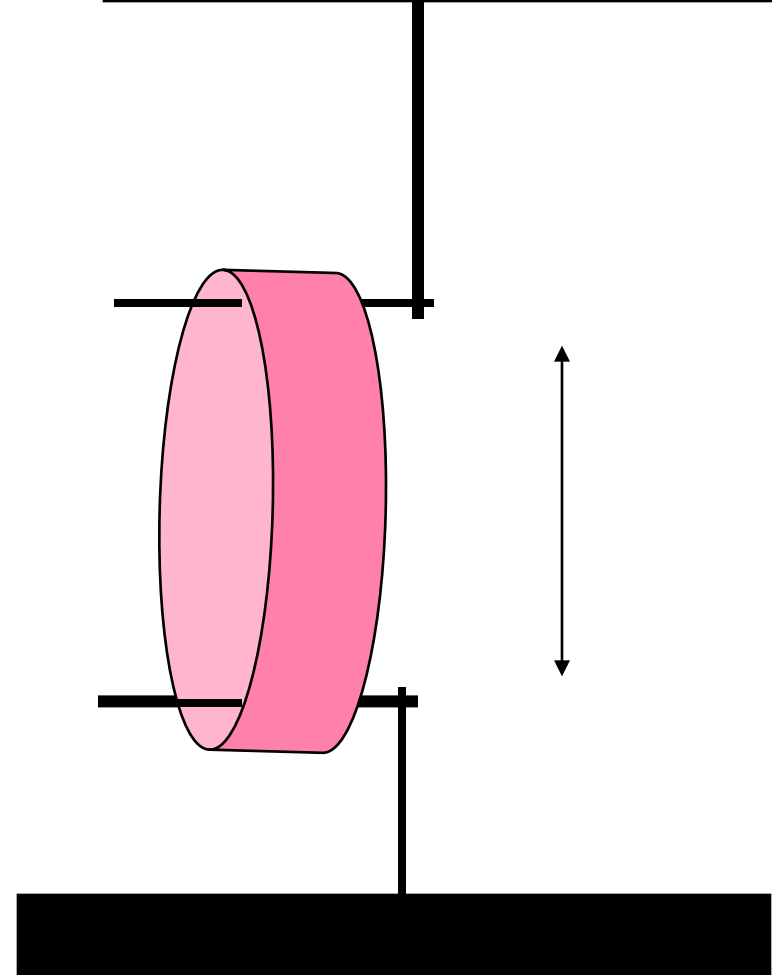
iris of eye  
capsule of spleen  
piloerector muscles of skin hairs  
myoepithelial cells of glands

# Spiral cut vessel strip



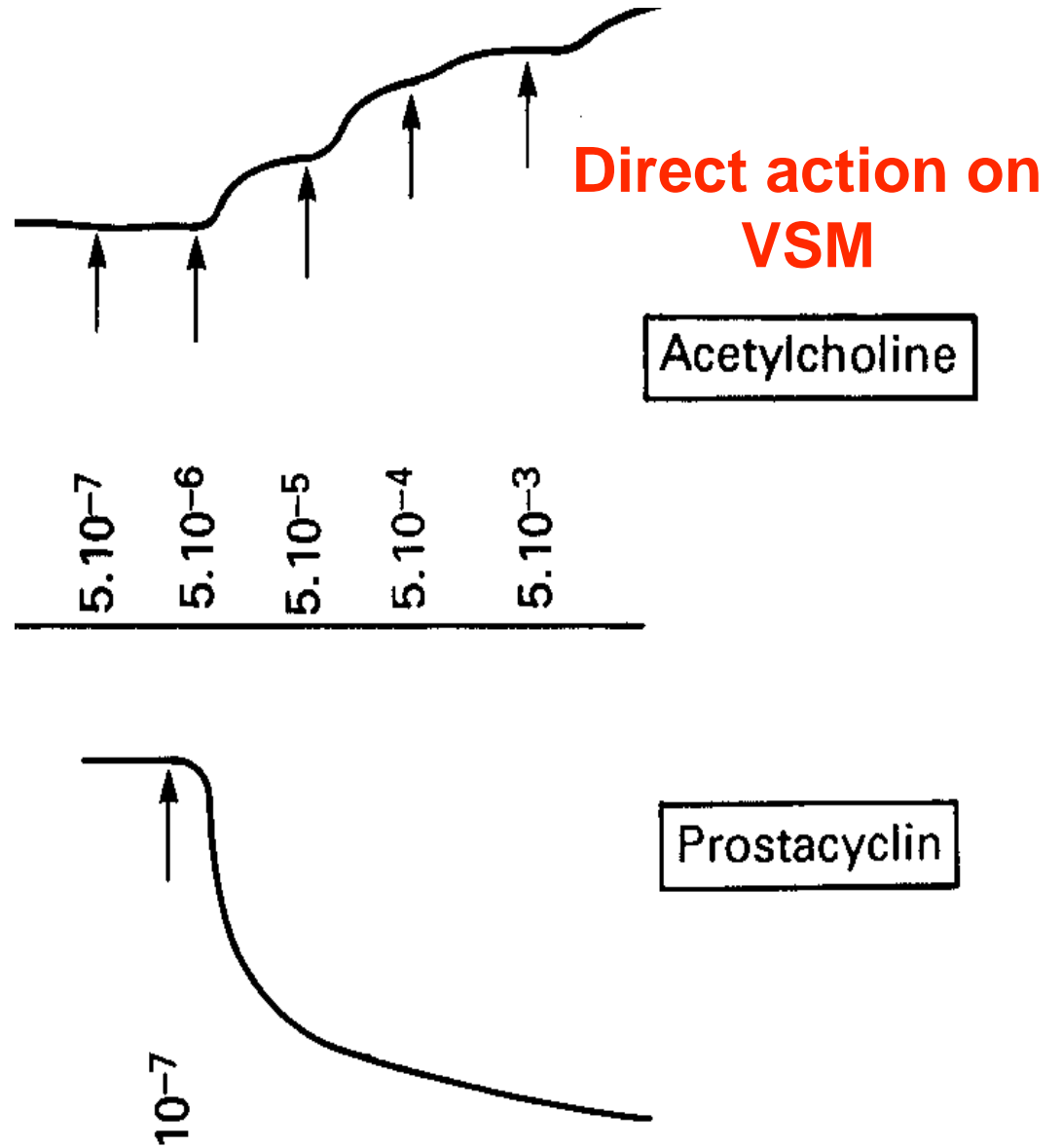
# Vessel Ring

Tension measurement

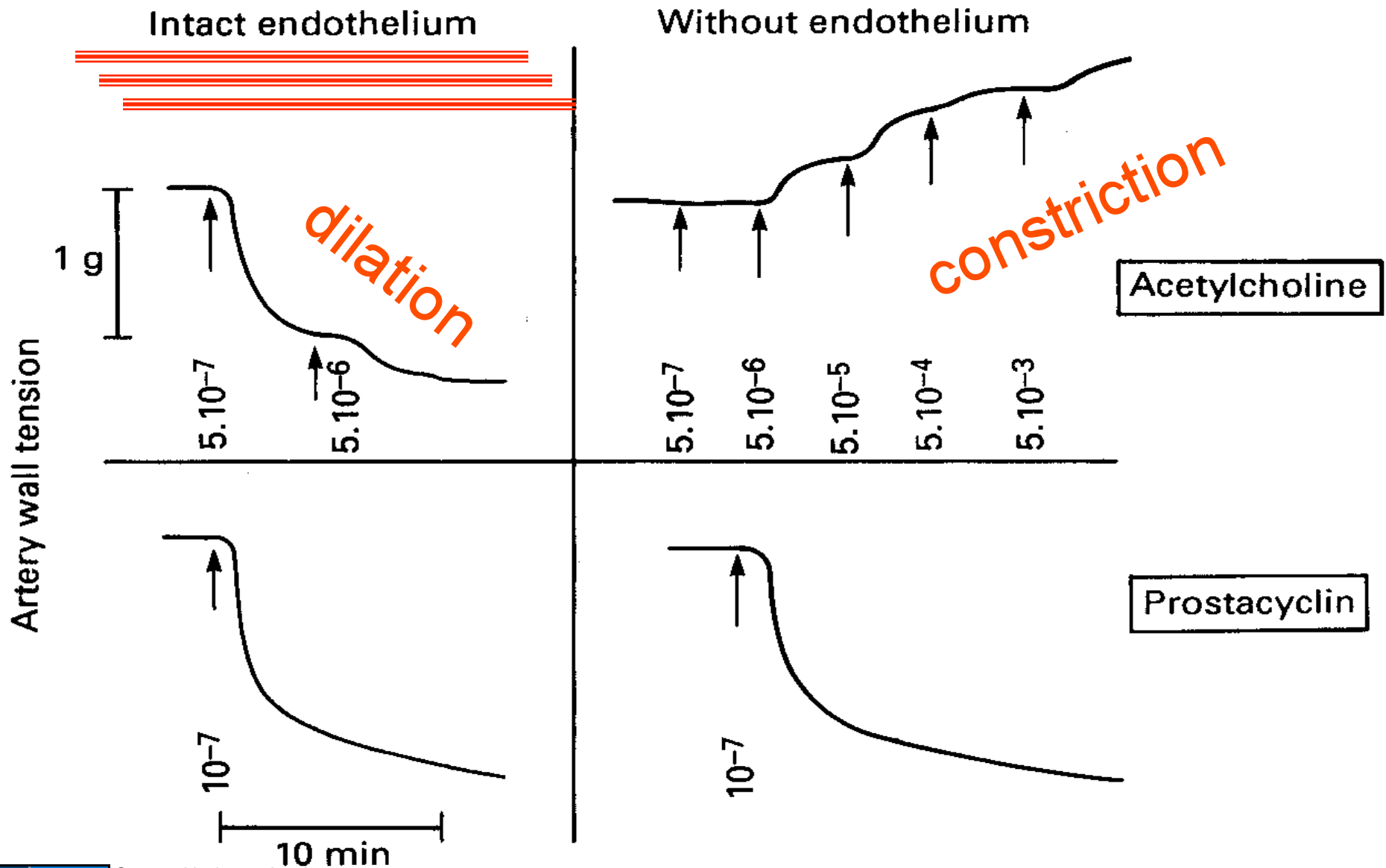


# Historical Response to Ach = contraction !!

Artery wall tension



# Vessel with intact endothelium relaxes to Ach !!!!! Via NO release from EC



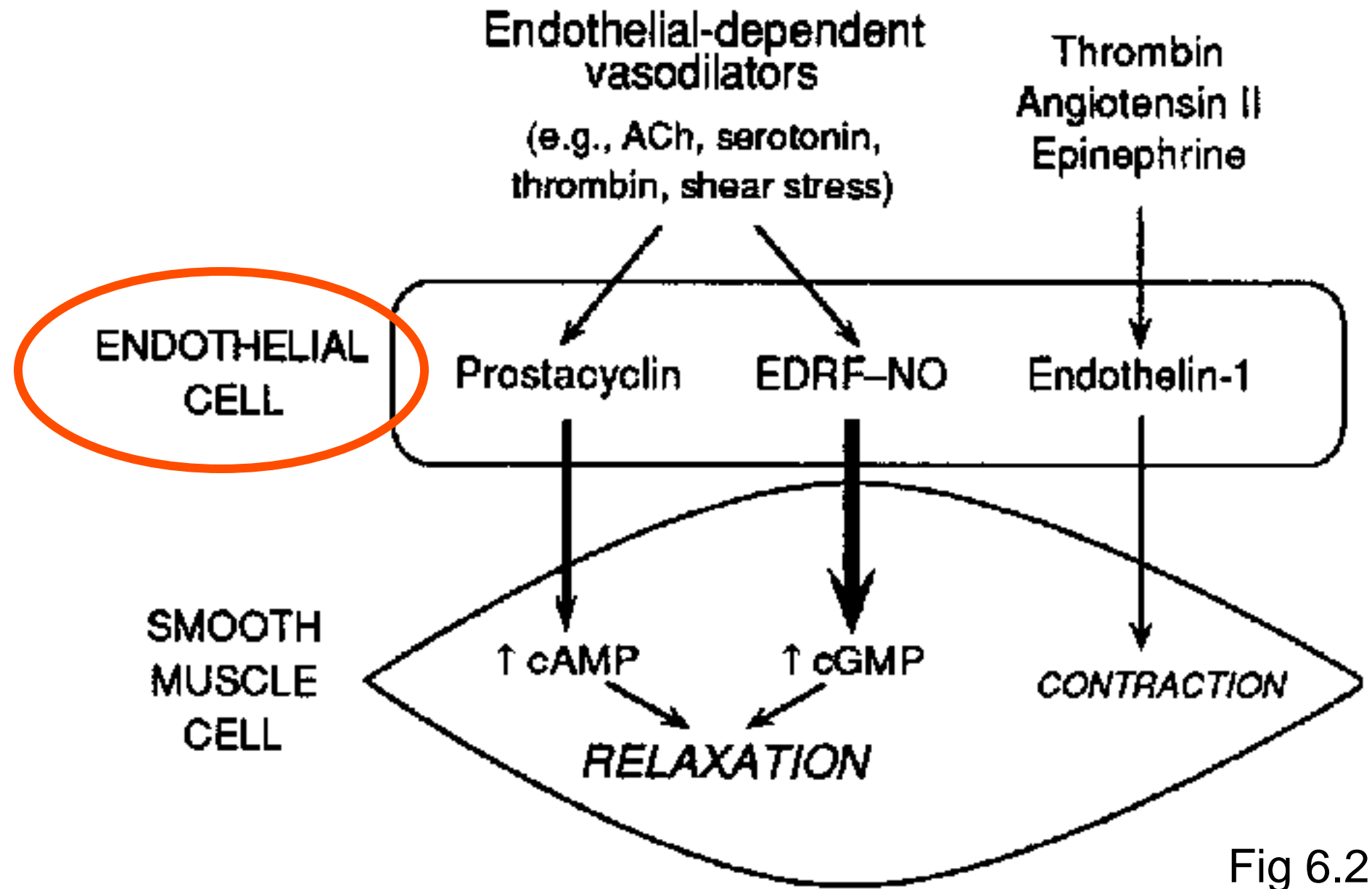
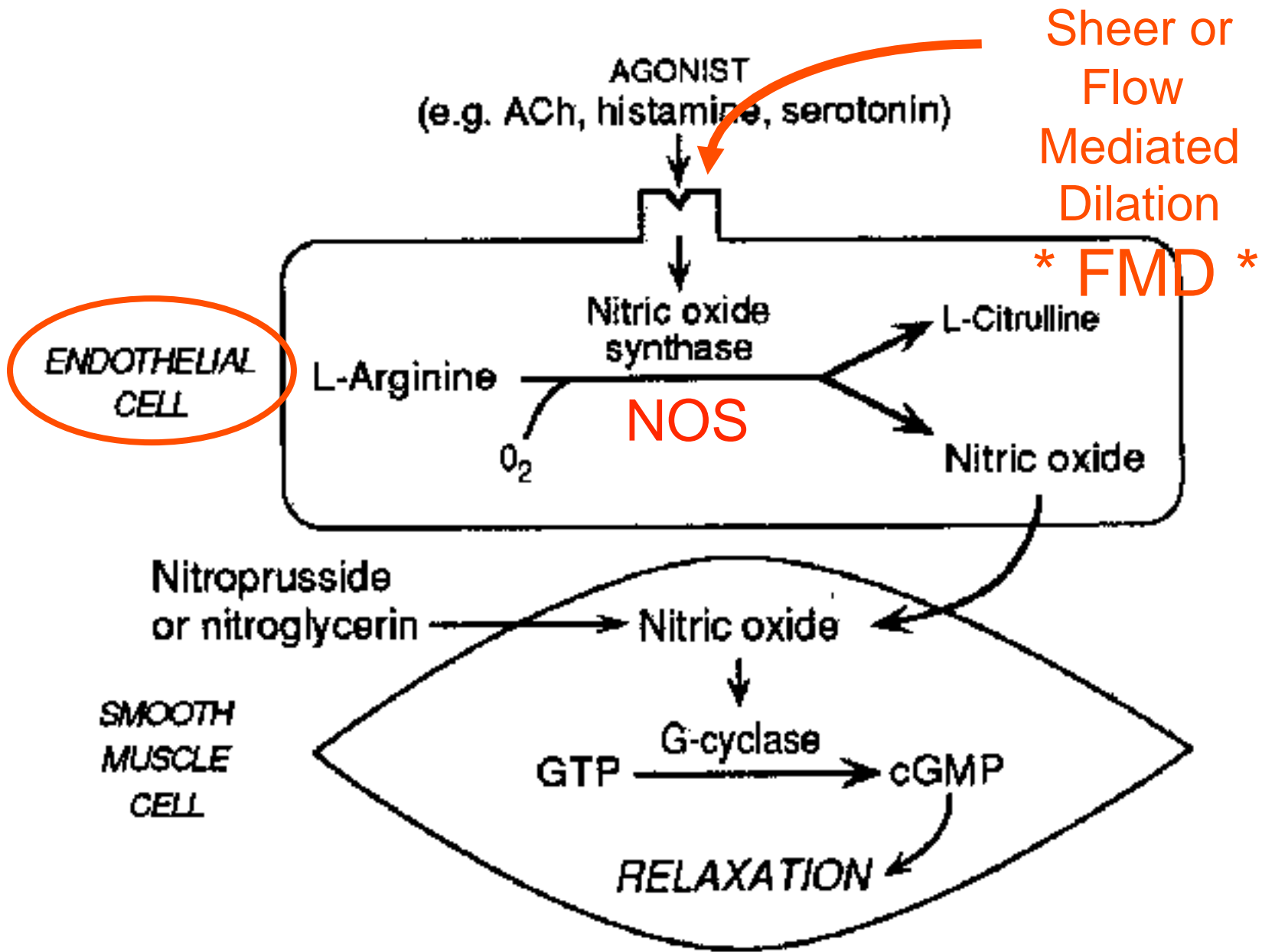


Fig 6.2



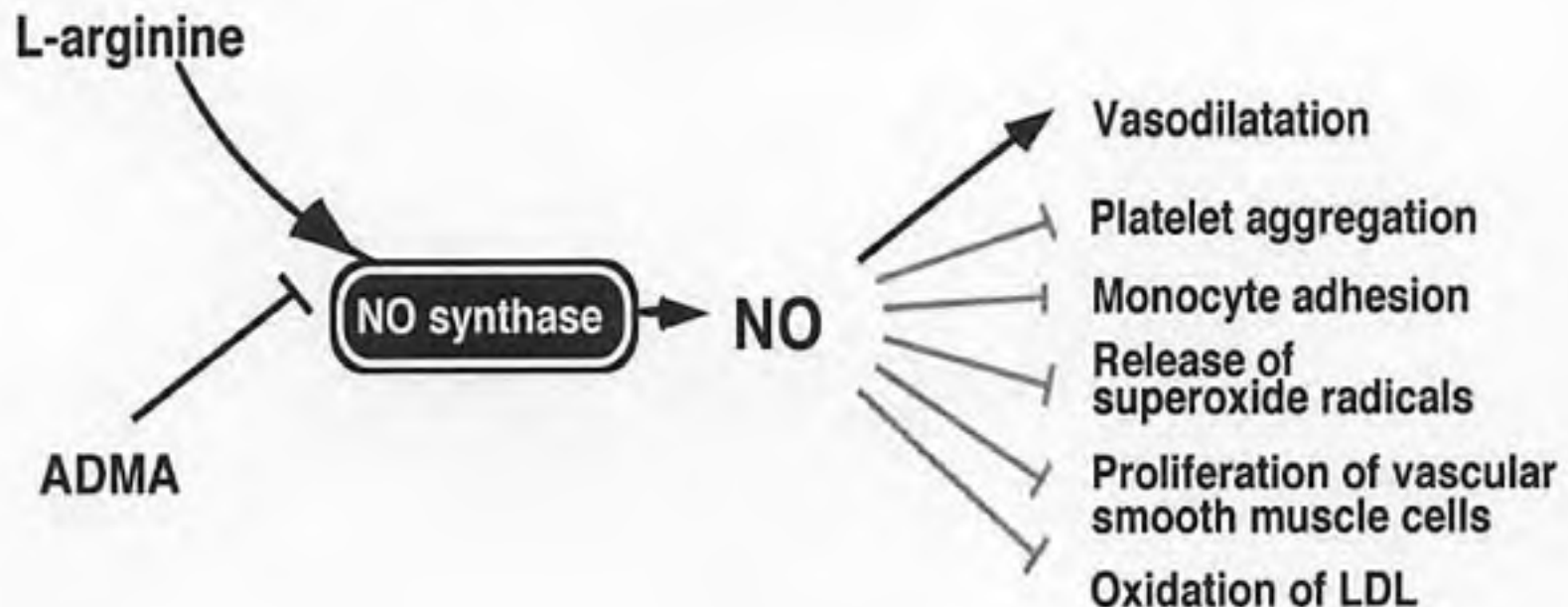


# NOS Isoforms, Activity and Inhibition

- Three isoforms: endothelial, neuronal and inducible
- Catalyze formation of NO and citrulline from L-arg
- NO production in endothelium produces-----
  - Vasodilation, inhibition of platelet aggregation & inhibition of pro-inflammatory response
- Inhibit NOS  $\Rightarrow$   $\Downarrow$ NO  $\Rightarrow$  endothelial dysfunction  $\Rightarrow$ 
  - vasoconstriction
  - atherogenesis
  - cardiovascular disease

# ADMA the newest “bad guy”; maybe?

*R.H. Böger et al. / Atherosclerosis Supplements 4 (2003) 1–3*



# Asymmetrical Dimethylarginine (ADMA)

- What is it?
- What can it do?
- Where does it come from?
- Where does it go?
- What does it really do?
- Can we mimic or block it to therapeutic advantage?

# The Cast of Players

ADMA = Asymmetrical dimethylarginine  
(more abundant NOS inhibitor)

SDMA = Symmetrical dimethylarginine  
(?? Inactive on NOS)

L-NMMA = Monomethylarginine  
(less abundant NOS inhibitor)

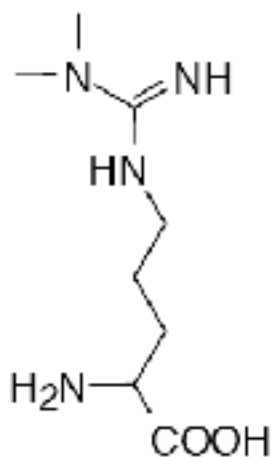
DDAH = Dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase  
(hydrolyzes ADMA)

PRMT = Protein arginine methyltransferase  
(makes ADMA and SDMA)

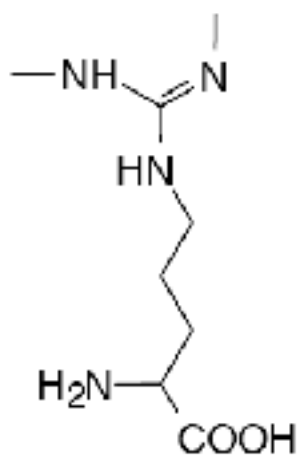
## Arginine and endogenous derivatives

# What is ADMA?

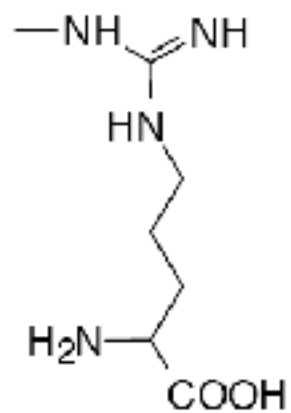
ADMA



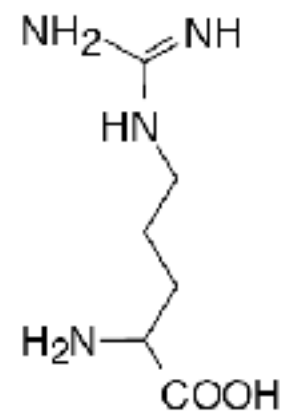
SDMA



NMMA



L-Arginine



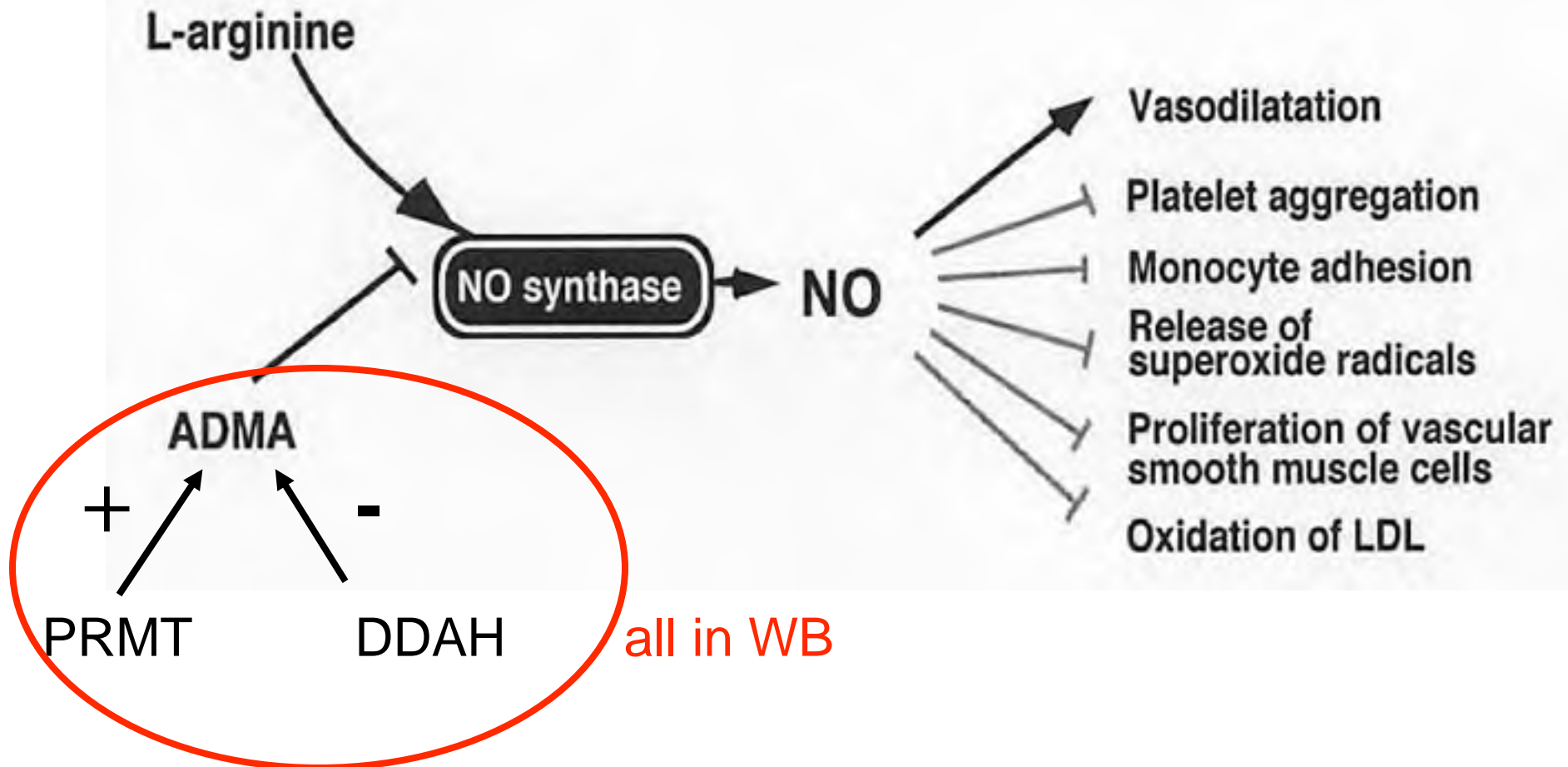
NOS Inhibitor  
DDAH Substrate

NOS-Inactive  
Regioisomer

NOS Inhibitor  
DDAH Substrate

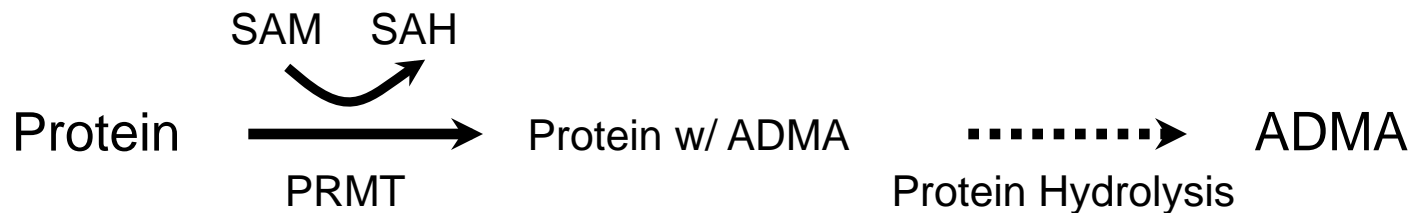
NOS Substrate

# Major control for NO??



# ADMA: Formation/Release

- Protein-incorporated arginine residues are dimethylated by protein arginine methyltransferases (PRMTs)
  - No methylation of free arginine reported
- Free ADMA released via “normal protein turnover”



- Questions: Where does free plasma ADMA originate and how is it released in WB *ex vivo*?



**Plasma concentration of asymmetrical dimethylarginine  
and mortality in patients with end-stage renal disease:  
a prospective study**  
*Lancet* 2001; 358: 2113–17

Zoccali C. et al tested the predictive power of ADMA for mortality and cardiovascular outcomes and **concluded “ADMA is a stronger independent predictor of all-cause mortality and cardiovascular outcomes... in patients with CRF...”**

**“Predictor”**

# Where does ADMA come from?

- Elevated plasma ADMA in :
  - Hypercholesterolemia
  - Hypertension
  - Hyperhomocyst(e)inemia
  - Tobacco exposure ,
  - Peripheral arterial occlusive disease
  - Experimental hemorrhage (**acute**)
  - Pre-eclampsia
  - Hyperglycemia
  - Insulin resistance in patients --- and so on

# Methods

- Incubation of rat whole blood (WB) and WB fractions
  - Sample placed in vial and incubated at 37°C
- HPLC analysis of blood ADMA/SDMA
- Acid hydrolysis of blood components
  - Liberates free amino acids for their quantification

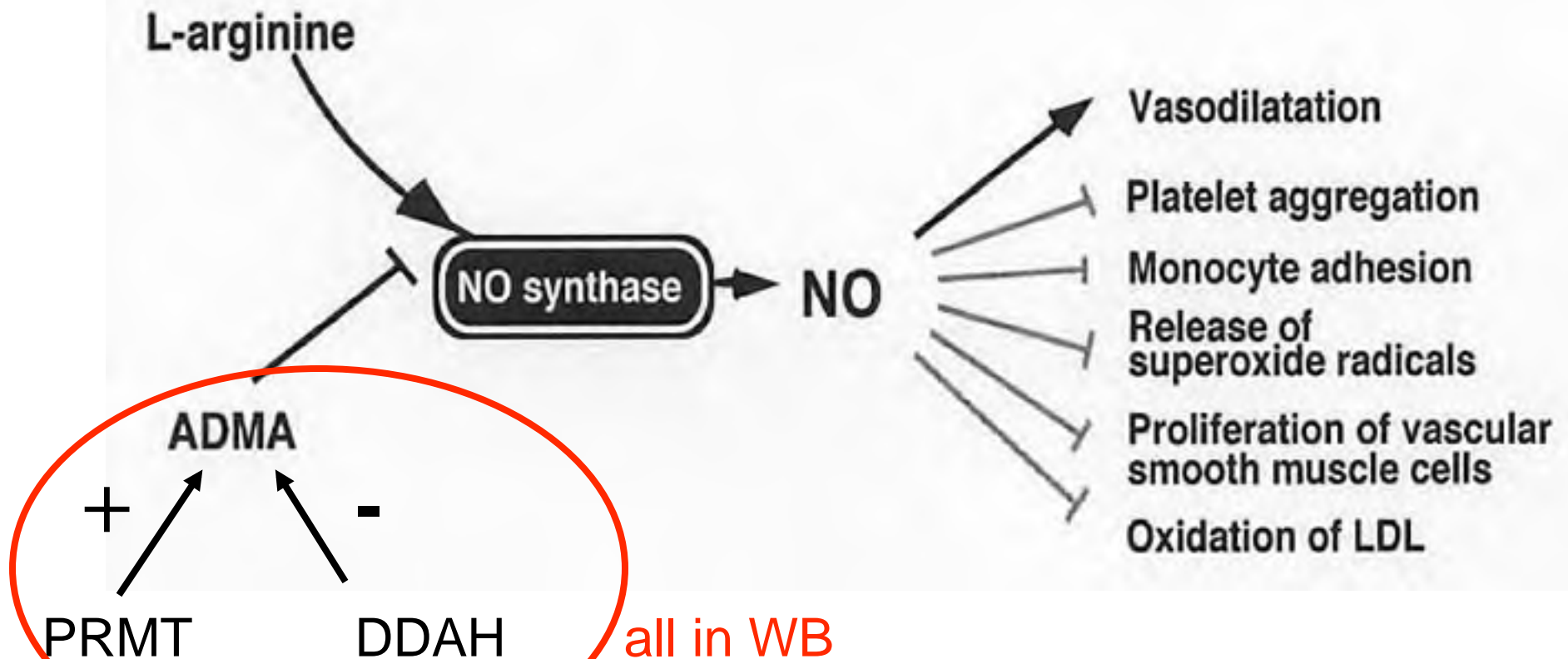
# Summary

- WB **plasma** contains free ADMA at  $< 1 \mu\text{M}$
- WB contains  $> 40 \mu\text{M}$  protein-incorporated ADMA with the majority ( $>95\%$ ) in RBCs
- WB possesses the proteolytic machinery necessary for ADMA release into the plasma
- Inhibition of protease activity attenuates ADMA release from blood *ex vivo*

# Conclusion

- WB can be considered a 5 kg “liquid organ” in intimate contact with the vascular endothelium.
- WB has the capacity to release physiologically and pathophysiologically relevant amounts of ADMA *ex vivo*.
- WB is an independent source of ADMA and as such may play an etiological role in vascular disease.

# ADMA-NOS-NO pathway the newest drug target?



# Additional Source Information

for more information see: <http://open.umich.edu/wiki/CitationPolicy>

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Slide 51: R.H. Boger et. Al, Atherosclerosis Supplements 4 (2003) 1-3

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