

# Lecture 2 – Cardiovascular Response to Stress

## Course objectives:

- Understand that the cardiovascular responses to physiological stressors are diverse and depend on the stimulus
- Understand that these adjustments involve intrinsic, neural and hormonal mechanisms
- Understand the basic principles underlying cardiovascular control
- Understand how intrinsic mechanisms such as autoregulation and reactive hyperaemia operate

## Summary:

- Challenges to cardiovascular homeostasis by changes to blood/central blood volume
  - Reductions
    - Haemorrhage: need to maintain adequate arterial pressure and perfusion of the brain and heart while cardiac output falls, due to loss of blood volume
    - Head-up tilt: pooling of blood → lower central blood volume → decreased CO
  - Increased
    - Blood or plasma transfusion: increased blood volume → cardiac output increases
    - Head-out water immersion: increase pressure → increased venous return → increased central blood volume → increased CO
  - Changes in energy/organ blood flow requirements
    - Exercise: increased O<sub>2</sub> and nutrient delivery to muscles via increased blood flow
    - Diving: conservation of oxygen by limiting blood flow to non-essential organs
    - Alerting responses
  - Similarities and differences that need to be considered
    - Control of cardiac output
    - Organ-specific control of vascular resistance
  - Control mechanism
    - Intrinsic, neural and hormonal → Gain, latency and duration of these control mechanisms
- Basic principles
  - Key formulae
    - Arterial pressure (**AP**) = **CO x TPR** or  $AP = CO / \text{total peripheral conductance}$
    - **Local blood flow** = **AP / Organ vascular resistance** or  $AP \times \text{organ vascular conductance}$
    - Cardiac output (**CO**) = **HR x SV**
    - Poiseuille's Equation: Resistance =  $[\text{Constant (K)} \times \text{Length (L)} \times \text{Viscosity (n)}] / \text{Radius (r)}^4$ 
      - Flow is proportional to length of tube, proportional to viscosity but inversely proportional to diameter → the main factor given the 4 fold change
  - Control of cardiac output
    - **CO** is controlled by HR and SV
    - **HR** is controlled by neural (symp. and parasymp. NS) and hormonal (Adr + NA) factors
      - Sympathetic nerves → NA → SA node + atrium (contractility) → increase HR
        - Adrenaline from the adrenal medulla → beta-adrenoceptors → HR ↑
      - Parasympathetic (vagal) nerves → Ach → SA node → decrease HR
    - **SV** is controlled by contractility (neural and hormonal influence) and intrinsic factors (e.g. end-diastolic volume [Frank-Starling law])
  - Control of blood pressure and vascular resistance
    - At large arteries → little fall in pressure BUT steep fall at arterioles given they are the critical blood vessels in the control of vascular resistance
      - Arterioles are the most important due to **TWO** critical properties
        - Small diameter + smooth muscle (change diameter → change resistance)
    - NOTE: venous vascular tone does play a role in the control of venous return → CO
- Factors that alter the diameter of resistance vessels
  - Local/metabolic/intrinsic factors
  - Nerves → mainly sympathetic
  - Hormones → endocrine, paracrine and autocrine
  - Structural properties, e.g. thickness of smooth muscle
  - Pathology, e.g. arteriosclerosis, endothelial damage (NO?)
- Myogenic/intrinsic mechanisms
  - **Local control** of blood flow (NOT arterial pressure)
  - Matching blood flow to **metabolic demand**

- Active hyperaemia: blood flow  $\uparrow$  with increasing metabolic need (response to activity)
  - Reactive hyperaemia: repayment of blood flow debt (after starvation)
- Matching blood flow to **organ function**  $\rightarrow$  autoregulation of blood flow to the kidney and brain
- Metabolic demand
  - *Active hyperaemia*: Linear relationship between O<sub>2</sub> consumption and (coronary) blood flow  $\rightarrow$  increased diameter
  - *Reactive hyperaemia*: After occluding blood flow for 2 or 4 minutes  $\rightarrow$  debt, then blood returned  $\rightarrow$  big overshoot  $\rightarrow$  arterioles dilate  $\rightarrow$  increased blood flow
    - More time occluded  $\rightarrow$  more debt  $\rightarrow$  more dilation  $\rightarrow$  more blood flow
  - Factors contributing to active and reactive hyperaemia are essentially the same
    - Carbon dioxide (potent vasodilator); Hypoxia; Lactic acid (severe exercise + ischaemia); reduced pH (acidic; due to lactate and increase CO<sub>2</sub>); adenosine (= ATP consumption); endothelial derived nitric oxide
    - BUT, these are paracrine and autocrine hormones acting in proximity, not *really* intrinsic
- Autoregulation  $\rightarrow$  truly intrinsic
  - Particularly important in organs requiring tight control of blood flow, e.g. brain, kidney, heart
  - Increased blood flow (and/or pressure)  $\rightarrow$  stretch tissue  $\rightarrow$  stretch smooth muscle  $\rightarrow$  release of calcium from within cells  $\rightarrow$  increased cross-bridges  $\rightarrow$  increased contraction  $\rightarrow$  decrease flow to within desired/normal limits
    - Counterintuitive, increased BP  $\rightarrow$  constrict  $\rightarrow$  increase resistance; decrease BP  $\rightarrow$  dilation
  - Local mechanisms tightly control the level of blood flow in response to perfusion pressure
- Acute blood loss (AP = CO  $\times$  TPR)
  - Cardiac output falls as blood is lost
    - To maintain AP  $\rightarrow$  TPR must increase
  - Blood flow/AP must be maintained to some critical organs (e.g. brain + kidneys), this cannot be achieved by the arterioles in these organs by more peripherally
  - Mechanisms: local (metabolic/myogenic; short-term), neural (short) and hormonal (long-term)
- Response to haemorrhage (Barcroft et al. 1945)
  - **Phase 1** = Early in the bleeding
    - Vasoconstriction  $\rightarrow$  blood pressure maintained
    - BUT was associated with decreased CO, increased HR and TPR
  - **Phase 2** = Once  $\sim 1/3$  of blood volume is removed (decompensation + circulatory shock)
    - Vasodilation  $\rightarrow$  blood pressure plummets
    - The body is no longer able to increase TPR or HR any more  $\rightarrow$  syncope to lie down
    - Massive drop in MAP, TPR, HR, associated with vasovagal syncope (paras. involvement)
- Long-term recovery from acute blood loss (restoring CO to normal) is mediated by;
  - Increased salt and fluid intake  $\rightarrow$  increase blood volume
  - Reduced salt and fluid output (urination)  $\rightarrow$  retain blood volume
  - Fluid shifts into vascular compartment from extracellularly
  - Hormone-induced vasoconstriction  $\rightarrow$  longer lasting  $\uparrow$  TPR  $\rightarrow$   $\uparrow$  BP
- Cardiovascular response to changes in central blood volume
  - Reduced (e.g. haemorrhage)  $\rightarrow$  reduced venous return  $\rightarrow$  reduced cardiac output
    - Increase HR; vasoconstriction (except brain and heart); increased salt appetite and thirst; reduced urinary salt and water excretion; movement of ECF  $\rightarrow$  plasma
  - Increased (e.g. water immersion)  $\rightarrow$  increased venous return  $\rightarrow$  increased cardiac output
    - Reduced HR; vasodilation (except brain and heart); reduced salt appetite and thirst; increased urinary salt and water excretion; movement from plasma  $\rightarrow$  ECF
- Cardiovascular response to exercise and diving
  - Exercise  $\rightarrow$  increased demands from muscle for oxygen and nutrients  $\rightarrow$  increased CO; vasoconstriction to gut, kidneys and skin; vasodilation in skeletal muscle
  - Diving  $\rightarrow$  conservation of oxygen while maintaining blood flow to vital organs  $\rightarrow$  reduced CO; vasoconstriction everywhere but the brain