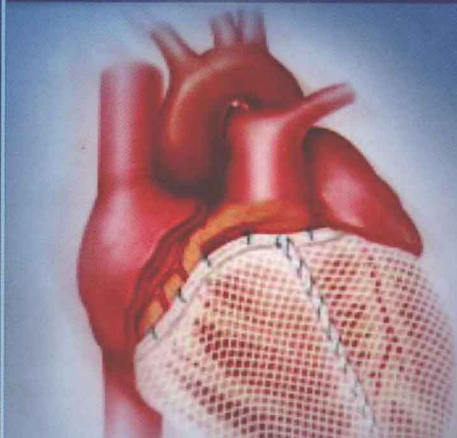


KOHL SACHS FRANZ

CARDIAC MECHANO-ELECTRIC FEEDBACK & ARRHYTHMIAS

From Pipette to Patient



CARDIAC MECHANO-ELECTRIC FEEDBACK *and* ARRHYTHMIAS

F r o m P I P E T T E T o P A T I E N T

PETER KOHL MD, PhD, RSRF

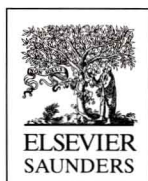
Reader in Cardiac Physiology
Director of the Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback Lab
Oxford University Laboratory of Physiology, Oxford
Adjunct Associate Professor
Medical Biotechnology Center
University of Maryland, Baltimore
Fellow and Tutor in Biomedical Sciences
Balliol College, Oxford

FREDERICK SACHS, PhD

Distinguished Professor of Biophysics
Center for Single Molecule Biophysics
Department of Physiology and Biophysics
State University of New York at Buffalo, NY

MICHAEL R. FRANZ, MD, PhD, FACC

Professor, Department of Pharmacology
Georgetown University Medical Center
Director, Arrhythmia Service
Nation Capital Veteran Affairs Medical Center, Washington, DC



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FOREWORD

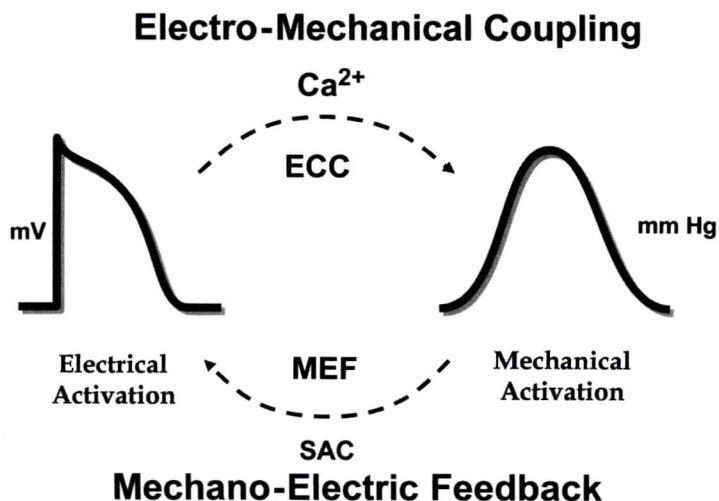
Stretching Our Views of Cardiac Control

The transduction of electrical impulses into changes in the rate and mechanical force of muscle contraction, known as excitation-contraction coupling (ECC), is a fundamental concept essential to both a basic and clinical understanding of the heart. Modulators of ECC, and hence of cardiac muscle performance, include neurohumoral transmitters such as catecholamines, as well as many other regulators, notably those that affect intracellular calcium handling. This affects actin-myosin interactions and adjusts hemodynamics in accord with changing requirements on a beat-by-beat, year-by-year basis.

The complementary concept that cardiac mechanical function changes that occur in response to neural and hormonal influences impact on the excitatory and conductive electrical properties of the heart, i.e., mechano-electric coupling or feedback (MEF) is a less established idea whose role in normal and pathological physiology has become an exciting new chapter in contemporary biology. Mechanisms and pathways whereby mechanical events, changes in tension and force, and spatial displacement alter the heart's electri-

cal properties are now recognized as an important dimension for development of new approaches in therapeutic cardiac control.

The figure provides a simplified but conceptually useful view of this emerging bi-directional dynamic. Although the left-to-right pathway, ECC, is a familiar element in current therapeutic strategies, the right-to-left pathway, MEF, has only recently begun to be explored as a topic of medical interest. However, although it has become well established that dysfunction in pathways of ECC is important in a number of cardiac pathologies (e.g., in various cardiomyopathies), there are only a few clues for a parallel influence of factors in pathways of MEF. This situation appears likely to change as greater attention is given to mechanisms involved in acute and chronic processes of cardiac remodeling. These include some of the most common forms of heart disease such as dilative failure, atrial fibrillation, and post-infarction scarring. Although we now suspect MEF to play a role in both electrical and mechanical pathological remodeling, direct evidence of this has remained elusive. Thus, although much basic



Simplified conceptual view of the complementarity in coupling between electrical activation of contraction and the influence of mechano-electric feedback (MEF) in cardiac muscle. Electrical activation and excitation-contraction coupling (ECC) are believed to be mediated by convergence of signaling pathways altering cellular calcium (Ca^{2+}) levels, resulting in activation and alterations in actin-myosin interactions. Pathways by which mechanical influences and changes in tension, length, and directional displacement alter cardiac electrical function are believed in many cases to be mediated by stretch-activated ion channels (SAC), which affect intracellular electrical potential and excitation. (Modified from a figure provided by Michael Franz, with permission.)

information is becoming available on topics such as how MEF may facilitate normal physiological processes, we still have few clues on how they may be applied in prevention or reversal of disease.

This book represents an important step in documenting the elusive yet important role of MEF. Here, assembled in one source, are the current thoughts and findings of many of the leading investigators in the field. As one reads the pages that follow, it becomes apparent that MEF is indeed a topic whose "time to shine" has arrived, and that this volume contributes much to lighting this path. The three editors are among the field's pioneers, and their selection of topics has resulted in an excellent summary of much of the world's current thinking. The book continues the momentum established by their leadership of a number of important international symposia on MEF that addressed many of the field's outstanding questions in forums encompassing most of its working investigators. The synthesis and distillation of these efforts have contributed much to the pages that follow by providing coverage of important concepts that proceed from basic physiology and move toward an integrated understanding of cardiac control and the exploration of new targets of largely unexplored therapeutic potential.

Classic studies on MEF and how it might contribute to well established events are discussed, such as the Bainbridge response, the function of stretch-activated channels, and the fatal phenomena of *commotio cordis*. In addition, new approaches by many of today's cutting edge MEF exponents employ a wide range of molecular, biophysical, and genetic tools. Thus, the various sections of the book detail not just the potential impact, influence, and implications of MEF, but they also provide clues to future directions.

The core concepts of cardiac MEF are covered in the initial sections of the book, and there are many interesting additional clinical presentations. Highlights are likely to be different for each reader. For this observer, the chapters that explore chronic influences, as well as the more well-known acute influences of MEF, and those that pertain to atrial fibrillation and other arrhythmias, were highlights. Here is the groundwork that illustrates how changes in MEF may determine disease reversibility and refractoriness to various thera-

pies. Other unique and fascinating topics include how MEF responses vary in different cardiac cell types, (e.g., cardiac myocytes versus cardiac fibroblasts), and several that touch on new questions about the sub-membranous cardiac cell architecture.

The network of filamentous cytoskeletal proteins has recently been recognized as important in diseases as varied as inherited monogenic arrhythmias and rare forms of cardiomyopathy. Yet, we have little idea of how these phenotypes arise at a cellular or physiological level. Are they parts of the MEF response mediated by alterations in process, such as the organization or anchoring of cell surface receptors and signaling complexes, or even interactions among various ion channel subunits that may be involved? Lastly, this reader noted several intriguing new approaches in studies that deal with still mysterious topics, such as how changes in transcellular electrical and physical communication influence expression of specific proteins that, in turn, determine "who says what to whom" in the close world of *in situ* cardiobiology.

In conclusion, I'd like to express the personal view that further discoveries concerning the integration of pathways of cardiac mechanical and electrical control, between ECC and MEF, are likely to provide new clues to the treatment and prevention of many forms of recalcitrant cardiac disease, especially those causative of life-threatening arrhythmias. Given that bias, it also seems worth suggesting that work on cardiac MEF, within all its extensions in man, should be supported nationally and internationally with elevated level of priority than has been the case recently. Despite decades of attempts at developing efficacious therapies for disturbances in the heart's electrical system, effective treatment and prevention options are few, and either problematic with respect to efficacy and side effects or increasingly more difficult to justify on a cost-effectiveness/resource utilization basis. The imperative for improvements in arrhythmia therapy is, nevertheless, but one of a number of reasons that speak to a need to expand fundamental and model studies on cardiac control to improve clinical translation and therapy. This book presents an excellent view of how such progress can be successfully achieved, and it illustrates its potential applications.

PETER M. SPOONER, PhD
BALTIMORE
MARCH 2005

PREFACE

Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback: From Pipette to Patient

• • • •

Peter Kohl, Frederick Sachs, and Michael R. Franz

The heart is a mechano-sensitive organ.

Stretching of cardiac tissue affects a wide range of structural and functional characteristics including gene expression, protein turnover, connective tissue properties, electrical and mechanical coupling, contractility, and electrophysiology. This book focuses on mechanically induced changes that, directly or indirectly, affect heart rate and rhythm.

Effects of stretch in man range from heart rate responses to changes in venous return, mechanical induction of premature ventricular beats (e.g., during cardiac catheterization) and tachyarrhythmia (e.g., *commotio cordis*), to chronic rhythm disturbance during cardiac volume or pressure overload and the use of mechanical intervention (e.g., pre-cordial thump) to reset dysrhythmic hearts.

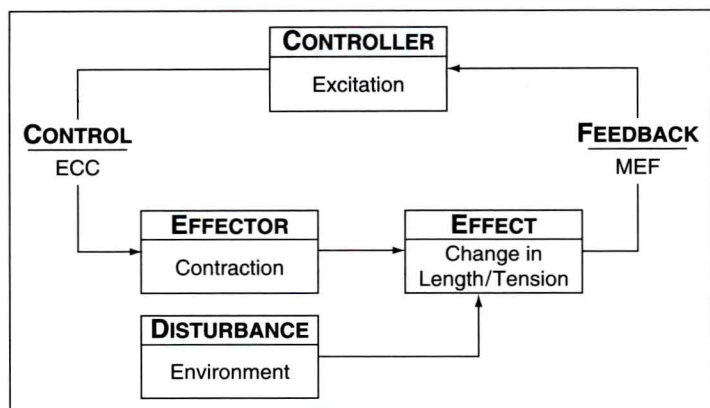
Documented reports of cardiac mechanosensitivity date back well over a century. One of the earliest descriptions of mechanical effects on cardiac function is from 1763, when Akenside gave an account of heart rhythm disturbance after a chest impact.¹ His case report involved severe tissue trauma, however, and it was not until 1882 that Riedinger and colleagues highlighted that, under certain conditions, chest impacts may induce arrhythmia in the absence of structural damage—*commotio cordis*.² In 1915, Bainbridge reported his famous observation of a mechanically-induced increase in cardiac beating rate,³ and five years later, Schott described “pre-cordial percussion” as an effective means of keeping Stokes-Adams sufferers conscious during periods of complete atrio-ventricular block.⁴

The notion of cardiac mechanosensitivity rings a bell with any life sciences student who had an opportunity to conduct practical classes involving Langendorff heart preparations that, quite literally, can be kick-started when quiescent by a finger tap. Similar taps are employed by cardiac surgeons to restart a heart upon weaning from induced arrest.

What are the underlying mechanisms of these phenomena? Are there tools to study them quantitatively? Is there a conceptual framework for cardiac mechanosensitivity?

The last question may, perhaps, best be approached on the basis of regulation theory, which would view mechanosensitivity not as a peculiar, but a necessary, property of any electrically controlled mechanical system. As illustrated in the figure, electro-mechanical control (excitation–contraction coupling, ECC) must be accompanied by a feedback pathway (mechano-electric feedback, MEF) to form a regulatory loop. This concept was first applied to stretch-induced augmentation of spontaneous and ectopic automaticity in atrial and ventricular multicellular preparations by Kaufmann and Theophile (a.k.a. Ravens) in 1967, who labeled their observations as a manifestation of “*mechano-elektrische Rückkoppelung*”—MEF.⁵

The mechanisms underlying cardiac MEF have begun to be explored by both intracellular and extracellular electrical recording techniques. The latter, monophasic action potential recordings, are most helpful in studying stretch effects in the intact heart.⁶ Transmembrane recordings, most notably patch clamping, have identified stretch-activated ion channels⁷ in



Simplified scheme of the cardiac electro-mechanical regulatory loop. The process of electrical excitation controls cardiac contraction via excitation-contraction coupling (ECC). The resulting changes in cell length and/or tension affect the process of excitation via mechano-electric feedback (MEF). MEF occurs independently of whether a mechanical effect is caused by cardiac contraction itself, or through changes in the mechanical environment of the heart; in the absence of MEF, the system would therefore not be stable. (From Kohl P, Hunter P, Noble D: *Stretch-induced changes in heart rate and rhythm: Clinical observations, experiments and mathematical models. Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 71(1):91–138, 1999, with permission.)

many cardiac cells, including pacemaker cells, atrial and ventricular myocytes, and fibroblasts. Their clinical relevance is starting to emerge,⁶ aided significantly by the identification of a first selective blocker for these channels.⁸ Advanced optical imaging and molecular techniques have helped to further establish cellular calcium handling and second messengers, such as nitric oxide, as key players in cardiac MEF.

While acute stretch effects are well documented, chronic cardiac pathology involving mechanically induced electrical and structural tissue remodeling is more complex and multifactorial, making it difficult to establish a causal chain of response.

There is strong evidence to suggest that chamber dilatation plays a key role in the development of atrial fibrillation. Similarly, arrhythmogenesis in heart failure and ventricular overload have been linked to the changed mechanical environment. In keeping with this concept, clinical interventions that reduce cardiac distension (such as diuretics and afterload-reducing agents or active and passive cardiac assist devices) and cardiac resynchronization therapy have beneficial effects, not only on pump function, but also on cardiac electrophysiology. Future studies hold the promise of revealing more specific pathways of these phenomena, as there is virtually *no* aspect of cardiac

function that is insensitive to the heart's mechanical environment.⁹

Cardiac mechanosensitivity and its effect on electrical function undoubtedly form a very complex system. Increasingly, fragments of this jigsaw are falling into place, as illustrated by the chapters in this book. There are, however, still large gaps to be filled, and we are far from a comprehensive understanding of the detailed mechanisms, physiological role, and clinical relevance of MEF.

The editors are indebted to the many contributors who investigate and clarify the role of MEF. Their work is truly interdisciplinary and translational, and it emphasizes the importance of a field that has gone relatively unnoticed for many decades. Research into MEF has developed from many different perspectives, from *E. coli* to cardiac myocytes, from computer modelling to clinical observations, from hitherto under-appreciated causes of cardiac arrhythmias to potentially providing new therapies.

In presenting the combined insight from basic science and clinical research, this book provides an up-to-date account of the current state of the MEF puzzle. There are potentially far-reaching cardiovascular health implications of a better understanding of the heart as an integrated electrical and mechanical closed-loop

system. The editors hope that the readers will be as provoked as we are and that this text will stimulate further study into the many undiscovered facets of the mechanosensitive heart.

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CONTRIBUTORS

Maurits Allesie, MD, PhD

Professor, Department of Physiology, University of Maastricht, Maastricht, The Netherlands.

The Substrate of Atrial Fibrillation in Chronically Dilated Atria

Angelo Auricchio, MD, PhD

Professor, Division of Cardiology, University Hospital, Magdeburg, Germany.

Cardiac Resynchronization Therapy for Patients with Heart Failure with Ventricular Conduction Delay

Clive M. Baumgarten, PhD

Professor of Physiology, Internal Medicine (Cardiology) and Biomedical Engineering, Department of Physiology, Medical College of Virginia, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia.

Cell Volume-Sensitive Ion Channels and Transporters in Cardiac Myocytes

Donald M. Bers, PhD

Professor and Chair, Department of Physiology, Loyola University Chicago, Maywood, Illinois.

The Response of Cardiac Muscle to Stretch: The Role of Calcium

Meenakshi A. Bhalla, MD

Internal Medicine Resident, Department of Medicine, SUNY at Buffalo GME Consortium, Buffalo, New York.

Natriuretic Peptide and Sudden Cardiac Death in Patients with Congestive Heart Failure

Vikas Bhalla, MBBS

Postdoctoral, Heart Failure Research Fellow, Department of Medicine, Division of Cardiology, Veterans Affairs Medical Center, University of California San Diego, San Diego, California.

Natriuretic Peptide and Sudden Cardiac Death in Patients with Congestive Heart Failure

Frank Bode, MD

Senior Physician, Medizinische Klinik II, Universitätsklinikum Schleswig-Holstein Campus Luebeck, Luebeck, Germany.

Stretch Channel Blockers: A New Class of Antiarrhythmic Drugs?

Thomas K. Borg, PhD

Carolina Distinguished Professor and Chair, Department of Cell and Developmental Biology and Anatomy, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina.

Cardiac Fibroblasts: Origin, Organization, and Function

Christian Boulin, PhD

Unit Coordinator, Senior Scientist, Scientific Core Facilities, Services and Technology, European Molecular Biology Laboratory, Heidelberg, Germany.

Antiarrhythmic Effects of Acute Mechanical Stimulation

Günter Breithardt, MD

Professor of Medicine (Cardiology), Department of Cardiology and Angiology, University of Münster, Münster, Germany.

Drugs Interacting with Mechano-Electric Feedback: Proarrhythmia, Remodeling, and Apoptosis

Daniel Burkhoff, MD, PhD

Associate Professor of Medicine, Department of Medicine, Columbia University, New York, New York.

Cardiac Assist Devices: Effects on Reverse Remodeling

A. John Camm, QHP, BSc, MD, FRCP, FESC, FACC, FAHA, FCGC, CStJ

British Heart Foundation Prudential Chair in Cardiology, Department of Cardiac and Vascular Sciences, St. George's Hospital Medical School, London, United Kingdom.

Atrial Fibrillation and Dilated Cardiomyopathy

Peter Carson, MD

Associate Professor of Medicine, Department of Cardiology, Georgetown University Hospital; Chief, Coronary Care Unit, Department of Cardiology, Washington Veteran's Administration Medical Center, Washington, District of Columbia.

Neurohormonal Antagonists in Relation to Sudden Death in Heart Failure

Barbara Casadei, MD, DPhil, FRCP

Reader in Cardiovascular Medicine; Senior Fellow of the British Heart Foundation, Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, University of Oxford; Honorary Consultant in Cardiovascular Medicine, John Radcliffe Hospital, Oxford, United Kingdom.

Non-neural Component of Respiratory Sinus Arrhythmia

Patricia J. Cooper, MSc, Cand PhD

Senior Research Assistant, The Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback Lab, Laboratory of Physiology, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.

Mechanical Modulation of Sinoatrial Node Pacemaking

Harry J.G.M. Crijns, MD, PhD

Professor of Cardiology; Head, Department of Cardiology, Cardiovascular Research Institute Maastricht, Academic Hospital Maastricht, Maastricht, The Netherlands.

Electro-Mechanical Remodeling in Hypertrophy

Dirk W. Donker, MD

Resident in Cardiology, Department of Cardiology, Cardiovascular Research Institute Maastricht, Academic Hospital Maastricht, Maastricht, The Netherlands.

Electro-Mechanical Remodeling in Hypertrophy

Harish Doppalapudi, MD

Fellow, Department of Cardiology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, Alabama.

Mechanical Modulation of Defibrillation Efficacy by Preload Changes

N.A. Mark Estes III, MD

Director, Cardiac Arrhythmia Center; Director, Cardiac Electrophysiology and Pacemaker Laboratory; Department of Medicine, Tufts-New England Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts.

Ventricular Fibrillation Secondary to Nonpenetrating Chest Wall Impact (Commotio Cordis); Sudden Death Caused by Chest Wall Trauma (Commotio Cordis)

Michael R. Franz, MD, PhD, FACC

Professor, Department of Pharmacology, Georgetown University Medical Center; Director, Arrhythmia Service, Nation Capital Veteran Affairs Medical Center, Washington, District of Columbia.

Preface: Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback: From Pipette to Patient; Mechanical Triggers and Facilitators of Cardiac Excitation and Arrhythmias; Stretch Channel Blockers: A New Class of Antiarrhythmic Drugs?; Mechano-Electric Feedback: New Directions, New Tools

Eric Honoré, PhD

Director of Research, Institut de Pharmacologie Moléculaire et Cellulaire, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Valbonne, France.

Potassium-Selective Cardiac Mechanosensitive Ion Channels

Peter J. Hunter, PhD

Professor, Bioengineering Institute, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

Distributions of Myocyte Stretch, Stress, and Work in Models of the Normal and Infarcted Ventricles.

Raymond E. Ideker, MD, PhD

Jeanne V. Marks Professor of Medicine, Department of Medicine; Professor, Department of Physiology, Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, Alabama.
Mechanical Modulation of Defibrillation Efficacy by Preload Changes

Michiel J. Janse, MD

Professor, Experimental and Molecular Cardiology Group, Academic Medical Center, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
Mechano-Electric Feedback in Atrial Fibrillation

Jonathan M. Kalman, MBBS, FRACP, PhD, FACC

Professor of Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of Melbourne; Director of Cardiac Electrophysiology, Department of Cardiology, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Melbourne, Australia.
Mechanically Induced Electrical Remodeling in Human Atrium

Pamela Karasik, MD

Assistant Professor of Medicine, Department of Cardiology, Georgetown University Hospital; Assistant Chief of Cardiology, Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Washington, District of Columbia.
Mortality from Heart Failure: Hemodynamics Versus Electrical Causes

David A. Kass, MD

Abraham and Virginia Weiss Professor of Cardiology; Professor of Medicine; Professor of Biomedical Engineering, Department of Medicine, Division of Cardiology, Johns Hopkins University Medical Institutions, Baltimore, Maryland.
Passive Ventricular Containment: A New Treatment Concept for Dilated Cardiomyopathy

Angie M. King, BA

Research Assistant/Lab Manager, The Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback Lab, University Laboratory of Physiology, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.
Antiarrhythmic Effects of Acute Mechanical Stimulation

Paulus Kirchhof, MD

Fellow, Department of Cardiology and Angiology, Hospital of the University of Münster; Fellow, Institute for Atherosclerosis Research; Project Leader, Interdisciplinary Center for Clinical Research, University of Münster, Münster, Germany.
Drugs Interacting with Mechano-Electric Feedback: Proarrhythmia, Remodeling, and Apoptosis

André G. Kléber, MD

Professor, Department of Physiology, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland.
Effects of Mechanical Signals on Ventricular Gap Junction Remodeling

Stefan Klotz, MD

Postdoctoral Research Fellow, Department of Medicine, Division of Circulatory Physiology, Columbia University, New York, New York.
Cardiac Assist Devices: Effects on Reverse Remodeling

Peter Kohl, MD, PhD, RSRF

Reader in Cardiac Physiology, Director of the Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback Lab, Oxford University Laboratory of Physiology, Oxford; Adjunct Associate Professor, Medical Biotechnology Center, University of Maryland, Baltimore; Fellow and Tutor in Biomedical Sciences, Balliol College, Oxford.
Preface: Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback: From Pipette to Patient; Mechanical Modulation of Sinoatrial Node Pacemaking; Antiarrhythmic Effects of Acute Mechanical Stimulation; Mechano-Electric Feedback: New Directions, New Tools

Andrew Kramer, PhD

Scientific Fellow, Basis Research, Cardiac Rhythm Management, Guidant Corporation, St. Paul, Minnesota.
Cardiac Resynchronization Therapy for Patients with Heart Failure with Ventricular Conduction Delay

Max J. Lab, MD, PhD

Professor, National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College; Senior Research Investigator, Clinical Research Centre, Medical Research Council, London, United Kingdom.
Regional Stretch Effects in Pathological Myocardium

Ulrike Laitko, PhD

Postdoc, Department of Neurosciences, Ottawa Civic Hospital; Ottawa Health Research Institute, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada.

The Mechanosensitivity of Voltage-Gated Channels May Contribute to Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback

Mark S. Link, MD

Associate Professor of Medicine; Co-Director of the Cardiac Arrhythmia Laboratory, Department of Medicine, Tufts-New England Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts.

Ventricular Fibrillation Secondary to Nonpenetrating Chest Wall Impact (Comotio Cordis); Sudden Death Caused by Chest Wall Trauma (Comotio Cordis)

Alan Maisel, MD

Professor of Medicine, University of California; Director, CCU and Heart Failure Program, VA Healthcare, System San Diego, California.

Natriuretic Peptide and Sudden Cardiac Death in Patients with Congestive Heart Failure

Vladimir S. Markhasin, MD, PhD, DSc

Professor, Chief Researcher, Laboratory of Mathematical Physiology, Institute of Immunology and Physiology, Ekaterinburg, Russia.

Mechano-Electric Heterogeneity in Physiologic Function of the Heart

Barry J. Maron, MD

Director, Hypertrophic Cardiomyopathy Center, Minneapolis Heart Institute Foundation, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Ventricular Fibrillation Secondary to Nonpenetrating Chest Wall Impact (Comotio Cordis); Sudden Death Caused by Chest Wall Trauma (Comotio Cordis)

Andrew D. McCulloch, PhD

Professor and Vice Chair of Bioengineering, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, California.

The Effects of Wall Stretch on Ventricular Conduction and Refractoriness in the Whole Heart

Elliot McVeigh, PhD

Principal Investigator, Laboratory of Cardiac Energetics, NHLBI, National Institutes of Health, DHHS, Bethesda, Maryland.

Evolving Concepts in Measuring Ventricular Strain in the Human Heart

Robert W. Mills, Cand PhD

Graduate Student Researcher, Department of Bioengineering, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, California.

The Effects of Wall Stretch on Ventricular Conduction and Refractoriness in the Whole Heart

Catherine E. Morris, PhD

Professor, Department of Medicine, University of Ottawa; Senior Scientist, Department of Neuroscience, Ottawa Health Research Institute, Ottawa Hospital, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada.

The Mechanosensitivity of Voltage-Gated Channels May Contribute to Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback

Joseph B. Morton, MB, BS, PhD

Senior Fellow, Department of Medicine, University of Melbourne; Cardiologist, Department of Cardiology, Royal Melbourne Hospital, Melbourne, Australia.

Mechanically Induced Electrical Remodeling in Human Atrium

Sanjiv M. Narayan, MB, MD, MRCP

Assistant Professor, Department of Medicine, University of California; Director of Electrophysiology, Department of Medicine/Cardiology, VA Healthcare System, San Diego, California.

The Effects of Wall Stretch on Ventricular Conduction and Refractoriness in the Whole Heart; Natriuretic Peptide and Sudden Cardiac Death in Patients with Congestive Heart Failure

Martyn P. Nash, PhD

Senior Lecturer, Bioengineering Institute, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

Distributions of Myocyte Stretch, Stress, and Work in Models of the Normal and Infarcted Ventricles

Michel Ovize, MD, PhD

Professor of Physiology, INSERM E 0226,
Laboratoire de Physiologie Lyon-Nord, Université
Claude Bernard-Lyon I and Service d'Explorations
Fonctionnelles Cardiovasculaires, Hôpital Louis
Fradel, Hospices Civils de Lyon, Lyon, France.
Mechanical Versus Ischemic Preconditioning

Amanda Jane Patel, PhD

Senior Research Scientist, Institut de Pharmacologie
Moléculaire et Cellulaire, Centre National de la
Recherche Scientifique, Valbonne, France.
*Potassium-Selective Cardiac Mechanosensitive Ion
Channels*

Karin Przyklenk, PhD

Professor, Departments of Emergency Medicine and
Anesthesiology, University of Massachusetts Medical
School, Worcester, Massachusetts.
Mechanical Versus Ischemic Preconditioning

Michael J. Reiter, MD, PhD

Professor of Medicine-Cardiology, University of
Colorado Health Sciences Center, Denver, Colorado.
*Volume and Pressure Overload and Ventricular
Arrhythmogenesis*

Espen W. Remme, PhD

Research Scientist, Institute for Surgical Research,
Rikshospitalet University Hospital, Oslo, Norway.
*Distributions of Myocyte Stretch, Stress, and Work in
Models of the Normal and Infarcted Ventricles*

John Jeremy Rice, PhD

Research Staff Member, Functional Genomics and
Systems Biology Group, IBM T.J. Watson Research
Center, Yorktown Heights, New York; Adjunct
Faculty Member, Department of Biomedical
Engineering, The Johns Hopkins University,
Baltimore, Maryland.
*The Response of Cardiac Muscle to Stretch: The Role of
Calcium*

Frederick Sachs, PhD

Distinguished Professor of Biophysics, Centre for
Single Molecule Biophysics, Department of
Physiology and Biophysics, State University of New
York at Buffalo, New York.

*Preface: Cardiac Mechano-Electric Feedback: From
Pipette to Patient; Stretch-Activated Channels in the
Heart; Membrane-Cytoskeleton Interface and
Mechanosensitive Channels; Mechano-Electric Feedback:
New Directions, New Tools*

Jeffrey E. Saffitz, MD, PhD

Paul E. Lacy and Ellen Lacy Professor of Pathology
and Immunology, Department of Pathology,
Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis,
Missouri.

*Effects of Mechanical Signals on Ventricular Gap
Junction Remodeling*

**Prashanthan Sanders, MBBS (Hons),
PhD, FRACP**

Clinical and Research Associate, Service de
Rythmologie, Hôpital Cardiologique du Haut-
Levêque, Bordeaux, France.
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Atrium*

Ulrich Schotten, MD, PhD

Assistant Professor, Department of Physiology,
University of Maastricht, Maastricht, The
Netherlands.
*The Substrate of Atrial Fibrillation in Chronically
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**Abdulhalim Salim Serafi, MBChB, MSc,
FESC**

Assistant Professor, Medical Department, Umalqura
University; Consultant Cardiologist, Cardiology
Department, Alnoor General Hospital, Kingdom of
Saudi Arabia; Research Registrar, Cardiology
Department, Bristol Royal Infirmary; Doctoral
Student, Cardiology Department, University of
Bristol, United Kingdom.
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Steven N. Singh, MD

Chief of Cardiology, Veterans Affairs Medical Center;
Professor of Medicine and Pharmacology, Georgetown
University, Washington, District of Columbia.
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Olga Solovyova, PhD

Head, Laboratory of Mathematical Physiology,
Institute of Immunology and Physiology,
Ekaterinburg, Russia.
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Peter M. Spooner, PhD

Executive Director, D.W. Reynolds Cardiovascular
Clinical Research Center, Johns Hopkins University;
Associate Professor, Division of Cardiology, Johns
Hopkins University Medical Institutions, Baltimore,
Maryland; Director (Emeritus), Arrhythmia, Ischemia
and Sudden Cardiac Death Research Program,
National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute, NIH,
Bethesda, Maryland.
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Thomas M. Suchyna, PhD

Doctor, Department of Physiology and Biophysics,
Hughes Center for Single Molecule Studies, SUNY at
Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.
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Borys Surawicz, MD

Professor Emeritus, Department of Medicine, Indiana
University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, Indiana.
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Peter Sutton, PhD

Associate Director, Hatter Institute, Department of
Cardiology, University College Hospital; Senior
Lecturer, Department of Physiology, University
College London, London, England.
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Toru Suzuki, MD, PhD

Specially Appointed Faculty Member, Departments of
Clinical Bioinformatics and Cardiovascular Medicine,
The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.
*Stretch Effects on Second Messengers and Early Gene
Expression*

Peter Taggart, MD, DSc, FRCP

Reader in Cardiology, Hatter Institute, Department
of Cardiology, University College Hospital, London,
United Kingdom.
*Load Dependence of Ventricular Repolarization;
Termination of Arrhythmias by Hemodynamic
Unloading*

John V. Tyberg, MD, PhD

Professor, Department of Medicine and Physiology
and Biophysics, University of Calgary, Calgary,
Alberta, Canada.
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John Vann Jones, PhD, FRCP

Professor, Department of Cardiology, Bristol Royal
Infirmary, Bristol, United Kingdom.
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Ventricular Hypertrophy, Dilation, or Both*

Paul G.A. Volders, MD, PhD

Co-Principal Investigator, Department of Cardiology,
Cardiovascular Research Institute Maastricht,
Maastricht University; Medical Doctor, Department
of Cardiology, Academic Hospital Maastricht,
Maastricht, The Netherlands.
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Ed White, PhD

Reader in Cellular Cardiology, School of Biomedical
Sciences, University of Leeds, Leeds, United
Kingdom.
*Temporal Modulation of Mechano-Electric Feedback in
Cardiac Muscle*

Tsutomu Yamazaki, MD

Professor, Department of Clinical Bioinformatics,
Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo,
Japan.

*Stretch Effects on Second Messengers and Early Gene
Expression*

**Shamil Yusuf, BSc (Hons), MbChb
(Hons), MCOptom, MRCP**

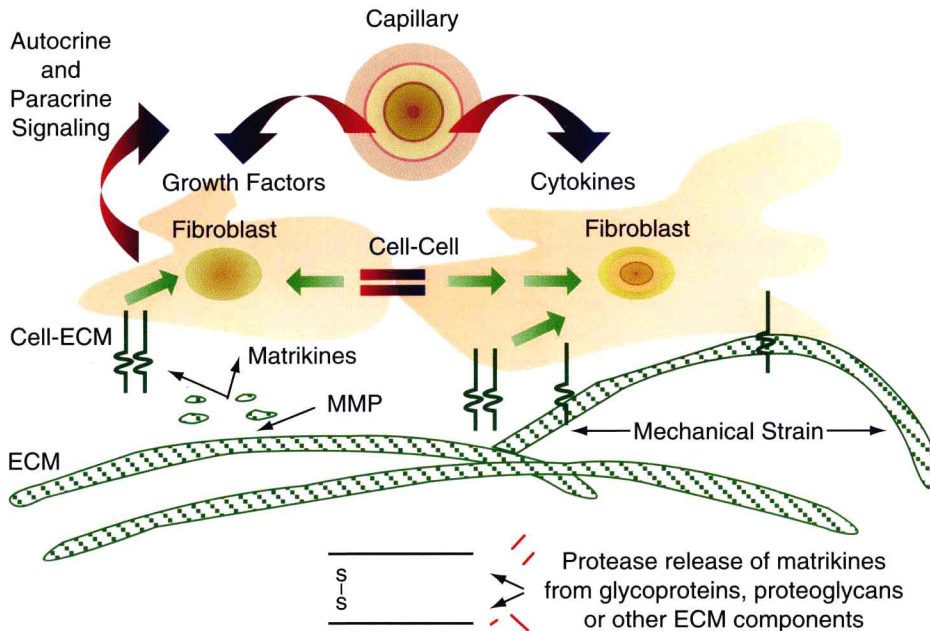
British Heart Foundation Research Fellow in
Cardiology, Department of Cardiac and Vascular
Sciences, St. George's Hospital Medical School,
London, United Kingdom.

Atrial Fibrillation and Dilated Cardiomyopathy

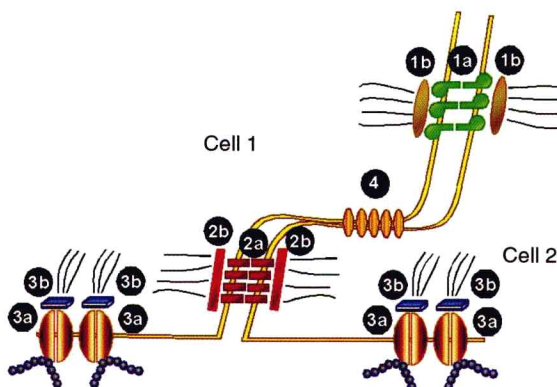
Markus Zabel, MD

Registrar, Head of Cardiac Electrophysiology and
Rhythmology, Medical Cardiology and Pulmologie,
Free University, Berlin, Germany.

*Mechanical Triggers and Facilitators of Cardiac
Excitation and Arrhythmias*



■ **Figure 10–2** Schematic representation of the dynamic interaction among components of the acellular extracellular matrix (ECM) and the cardiac fibroblasts. MMP, matrix metalloproteinases; s-s, fibronectin disulfide bond.



■ **Figure 11–1** The cell membranes of two adjacent cardiomyocytes are connected by fascia adherens junctions (1), desmosomes (2), and gap junctions (4). The surface membranes are connected to extracellular matrix proteins through cell adherens molecules (3). Fascia adherens junctions consist of the transmembrane-spanning Ca^{2+} -dependent adherens proteins (N-cadherins, 1a) that are anchored in a submembranous scaffold (1b) consisting of several proteins (plakoglobin, catenins). The submembranous complex binds to the microfilaments of the cytoskeleton (actin). Desmosomes are formed by the transmembrane-spanning proteins desmocollin and desmoglein (2a) and are anchored in a submembranous scaffold of plakoglobin and desmoplakin (2b). The latter proteins are bound to intermediate filaments (desmin). Gap junctions (4) consist of clustered gap junction channels each formed by two juxtaposed hemi-channels (each formed by six connexin proteins). The extracellular matrix is connected to integrin (3a) through fibronectin. Intracellularly, integrins bind to cytoskeletal proteins through a number of intermediate proteins (3b) that cluster integrin molecules and can induce intracellular signals when activated by extracellular mechanical stimuli.

■ **Figure 14-2** Activation time fields (A) and conduction velocity vector fields (B) before and during application of 30 mm Hg ventricular volume load in isolated rabbit heart, using methods from Sung and colleagues.²⁹ The *small solid circle* indicates the approximate position of pacing. The ellipses outline a region in which the apparent direction of conduction has been changed by application of load.

