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20. Kawada T, Zheng C, Miyamoto T, Uemura K, Shishido T, Li M, Sugimachi M. Angiotensin II Attenuates Dynamic Vagal Control of Heart Rate. The 71st Annual Scientific Meeting of the Japanese Circulation Society.
21. 川田 徹、山崎 登自、秋山 剛、穴戸 稔聡、神谷 厚範、水野 正樹、杉町 勝. アンジオテンシンⅡは迷走神経刺激時の心筋間質におけるアセチルコリン放出を抑制する. 第 84 回日本生理学会大会 Program 2007.
22. Smizu S, Shishido T, Uemura K, Kamiya A, Kawada T, Sugimachi M. New Physiological Classification for Surgical Management of Hypoplastic Right Ventricle in Pulmonary Atresia With Intact Ventricular Septum. 56th Annual Scientific Session, ACC.07.
23. Li M, Zheng C, Kawada T, Inagaki M, Shishido T, Sato T, Sugimachi M. Restoration of Vagal Tone by Donepezil Markedly Prevents Progression of Ventricular Remodeling and Dysfunction in Rats With Extensive Myocardial Infarction. 56th Annual Scientific Session, ACC.07

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Kamiya A, Kawada T, Mizuno M, Miyamoto T, Uemura K, Seki K, Shimizu S, Sugimachi	Baroreflex increases correlation and coherence of muscle sympathetic nerve activity (SNA) with renal and cardiac SNAs.	J Physiol Sci	56	325-33	2006
Kawada T, Miyamoto T, Miyoshi Y, Yamaguchi S, Tanabe Y, Kamiya A, Shishido T, Sugimachi M	Sympathetic neural regulation of heart rate is robust against high plasma catecholamines	J Physiol Scil	56	235-45	2006
Kawada T, Yamazaki T, Akiyama T, Uemura K, Kamiya A, Shishido T, Mori H, Sugimachi M.	Effects of Ca ²⁺ channel antagonists on nerve stimulation-induced and ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial acetylcholine release in cats	Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol	291	H2187-91	2006
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Uemura K, Kamiya A, Hidaka I, Kawada T, Shimizu S, Shishido T, Yoshizawa M, Sugimachi M, Sunagawa K.	Automated drug delivery system to control systemic arterial pressure, cardiac output, and left heart filling pressure in acute decompensated heart failure.	J Appl Physiol.	100	1278-86	2006

Hypothermia reduces ischemia- and stimulation-induced myocardial interstitial norepinephrine and acetylcholine releases

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Kawada T, Kitagawa H, Yamazaki T, Akiyama T, Kamiya A, Uemura K, Mori H, Sugimachi M. Hypothermia reduces ischemia- and stimulation-induced myocardial interstitial norepinephrine and acetylcholine releases. *J Appl Physiol* 102: 622–627, 2007. First published November 2, 2006; doi:10.1152/jappphysiol.00622.2006.—Although hypothermia is one of the most powerful modulators that can reduce ischemic injury, the effects of hypothermia on the function of the cardiac autonomic nerves in vivo are not well understood. We examined the effects of hypothermia on the myocardial interstitial norepinephrine (NE) and ACh releases in response to acute myocardial ischemia and to efferent sympathetic or vagal nerve stimulation in anesthetized cats. We induced acute myocardial ischemia by coronary artery occlusion. Compared with normothermia ($n = 8$), hypothermia at 33°C ($n = 6$) suppressed the ischemia-induced NE release [63 nM (SD 39) vs. 18 nM (SD 25), $P < 0.01$] and ACh release [11.6 nM (SD 7.6) vs. 2.4 nM (SD 1.3), $P < 0.01$] in the ischemic region. Under hypothermia, the coronary occlusion increased the ACh level from 0.67 nM (SD 0.44) to 6.0 nM (SD 6.0) ($P < 0.05$) and decreased the NE level from 0.63 nM (SD 0.19) to 0.40 nM (SD 0.25) ($P < 0.05$) in the nonischemic region. Hypothermia attenuated the nerve stimulation-induced NE release from 1.05 nM (SD 0.85) to 0.73 nM (SD 0.73) ($P < 0.05$, $n = 6$) and ACh release from 10.2 nM (SD 5.1) to 7.1 nM (SD 3.4) ($P < 0.05$, $n = 5$). In conclusion, hypothermia attenuated the ischemia-induced NE and ACh releases in the ischemic region. Moreover, hypothermia also attenuated the nerve stimulation-induced NE and ACh releases. The Bezold-Jarisch reflex evoked by the left anterior descending coronary artery occlusion, however, did not appear to be affected under hypothermia.

vagal nerve; sympathetic nerve; cardiac microdialysis; cats

HYPOTHERMIA IS ONE OF THE most powerful modulators that can reduce ischemic injury in the central nervous system, heart, and other organs. The general consensus is that hypothermia induces a hypometabolic state in tissues and balances energy supply and demand (25). With respect to the myocardial ischemia, the size of a myocardial infarction correlates with temperature (6), and mild hypothermia can protect the myocardium against acute ischemic injury (9). The effects of hypothermia on the function of the cardiac autonomic nerves in terms of neurotransmitter releases, however, are not fully understood. Because autonomic neurotransmitters such as norepinephrine (NE) and ACh directly impinge on the myocardium, they would be implicated in the cardioprotection by hypothermia.

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In previous studies from our laboratory, Kitagawa et al. (16) demonstrated that hypothermia attenuated the nonexocytotic NE release induced pharmacologically by ouabain, tyramine, or cyanide. Kitagawa et al. (15) also demonstrated that hypothermia attenuated the exocytotic NE release in response to vena cava occlusion or to local administration of high K^+ . The effects of hypothermia on the ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial NE release, however, were not examined in those studies. In addition, the effects of hypothermia on the ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial ACh release have never been examined. Because both sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves control the heart, simultaneous monitoring of the myocardial interstitial releases of NE and ACh (14, 31) would help integrative understanding of the autonomic nerve terminal function under hypothermia in conjunction with acute myocardial ischemia.

In the present study, the effects of hypothermia on the ischemia-induced and nerve stimulation-induced myocardial interstitial neurotransmitter releases were examined. We implanted a dialysis probe into the left ventricular free wall of anesthetized cats and measured dialysate NE and ACh levels as indexes of neurotransmitter outputs from the cardiac sympathetic and vagal nerve terminals, respectively. Based on our laboratory's previous results (15, 16), we hypothesized that hypothermia would attenuate the neurotransmitter releases in response to acute myocardial ischemia and to electrical nerve stimulation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Surgical Preparation and Protocols

Animals were cared for in accordance with the *Guiding Principles for the Care and Use of Animals in the Field of Physiological Sciences*, approved by the Physiological Society of Japan. All protocols were reviewed and approved by the Animal Subjects Committee of National Cardiovascular Center. Adult cats were anesthetized via an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (30–35 mg/kg) and ventilated mechanically through an endotracheal tube with oxygen-enriched room air. The level of anesthesia was maintained with a continuous intravenous infusion of pentobarbital sodium (1–2 mg·kg⁻¹·h⁻¹) through a catheter inserted from the right femoral vein. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was measured using a pressure transducer connected to a catheter inserted from the right femoral artery. Heart rate (HR) was determined from an electrocardiogram.

Protocol 1: acute myocardial ischemia. We examined the effects of hypothermia on the ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial releases of NE and ACh. The heart was exposed by partially removing the left fifth and/or sixth rib. A dialysis probe was implanted transversely into

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the anterolateral free wall of the left ventricle perfused by the left anterior descending coronary artery (LAD) to monitor myocardial interstitial NE and ACh levels in the ischemic region during occlusion of the LAD (13). Another dialysis probe was implanted transversely into the posterior free wall of the left ventricle perfused by the left circumflex coronary artery to monitor myocardial interstitial NE and ACh levels in a nonischemic region. Heparin sodium (100 U/kg) was administered intravenously to prevent blood coagulation. Animals were divided into a normothermic group ($n = 8$) and a hypothermic group ($n = 6$). In the hypothermic group, surface cooling with ice bags was performed until the esophageal temperature decreased to 33°C (15, 16). A stable hypothermic condition was obtained within ~2 h. In each group, we occluded the LAD for 60 min and examined changes in the myocardial interstitial NE and ACh levels in the ischemic region (i.e., the LAD region) and nonischemic region (i.e., the left circumflex coronary artery region). Fifteen-minute dialysate samples were obtained during the preocclusion baseline condition and during the periods of 0–15, 15–30, 30–45, and 45–60 min of the LAD occlusion.

Protocol 2: sympathetic stimulation. We examined the effects of hypothermia on the sympathetic nerve stimulation-induced myocardial interstitial NE release ($n = 6$). A dialysis probe was implanted transversely into the anterolateral free wall of the left ventricle. The bilateral cardiac sympathetic nerves originating from the stellate ganglia were exposed through a second intercostal space and sectioned. The cardiac end of each sectioned nerve was placed on a bipolar platinum electrode for sympathetic stimulation (5 Hz, 10 V, 1-ms pulse duration). The electrodes and nerves were covered with mineral oil to provide insulation and prevent desiccation. A 4-min dialysate sample was obtained during the sympathetic stimulation under the normothermic condition. Thereafter, hypothermia was introduced using the same cooling procedure as in *protocol 1*, and a second 4-min dialysate sample was obtained during the sympathetic stimulation.

Protocol 3: vagal stimulation. We examined the effects of hypothermia on the vagal nerve stimulation-induced ACh release ($n = 5$). A dialysis probe was implanted transversely into the anterolateral free wall of the left ventricle. The bilateral vagi were exposed through a midline cervical incision and sectioned at the neck. The cardiac end of each sectioned nerve was placed on a bipolar platinum electrode for vagal stimulation (20 Hz, 10 V, 1-ms pulse duration). To prevent severe bradycardia and cardiac arrest, which can be induced by the vagal stimulation, the heart was paced at 200 beats/min using pacing wires attached to the apex of the heart during the stimulation period. A 4-min dialysate sample was obtained during the vagal stimulation under the normothermic condition. Thereafter, hypothermia was introduced using the same cooling procedure as in *protocol 1*, and a second 4-min dialysate sample was obtained during the vagal stimulation.

Because of the relatively intense stimulation of the sympathetic or vagal nerve, the stimulation period in *protocols 2* and *3* was limited to 4 min to minimize gradual waning of the stimulation effects. At the end of the experiment, the animals were killed by increasing the depth of anesthesia with an overdose of pentobarbital sodium. We then confirmed that the dialysis probes had been threaded in the middle layer of the left ventricular myocardium.

Dialysis Technique

The dialysate NE and ACh concentrations were measured as indexes of myocardial interstitial NE and ACh levels, respectively. The materials and properties of the dialysis probe have been described previously (2, 3). Briefly, we designed a transverse dialysis probe. A dialysis fiber (13-mm length, 310- μ m outer diameter, 200- μ m inner diameter; PAN-1200, 50,000 molecular weight cutoff; Asahi Chemical) was connected at both ends to polyethylene tubes (25-cm length, 500- μ m outer diameter, 200- μ m inner diameter). The dialysis probe

was perfused with Ringer solution containing a cholinesterase inhibitor eserine (10^{-4} M) at a rate of 2 μ L/min. We started dialysate sampling from 2 h after the implantation of the dialysis probe(s), when the dialysate NE and ACh concentrations had reached steady states. The actual dialysate sampling was delayed by 5 min from the collection period to account for the dead space volume between the semipermeable membrane and the sample tube. Each sample was collected in a microtube containing 3 μ L of HCl to prevent amine oxidation. The dialysate ACh concentration was measured directly by HPLC with electrochemical detection (Eicom). The *in vitro* recovery rate of ACh was ~70%. With the use of a criterion of signal-to-noise ratio of higher than three, the detection limit for ACh was 3 pg per injection. The dialysate NE concentration was measured by another HPLC-electrochemical detection system after the removal of interfering compounds by an alumina procedure. The *in vitro* recovery rate of NE was ~55%. With the use of a criterion of signal-to-noise ratio of higher than three, the detection limit for NE was 200 fg per injection.

Statistical Analysis

All data are presented as means and SD values. For *protocol 1*, we performed two-way repeated-measures ANOVA using hypothermia as one factor and the dialysate sampling periods (the effects of ischemia) as the other factor. For *protocols 2* and *3*, we compared stimulation-induced releases of NE and ACh before and during hypothermia using a paired *t*-test. For all of the statistics, the difference was considered significant when $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Figure 1A illustrates changes in myocardial interstitial NE levels in the ischemic region during LAD occlusion obtained from *protocol 1*. The *inset* shows the magnified ordinate for the

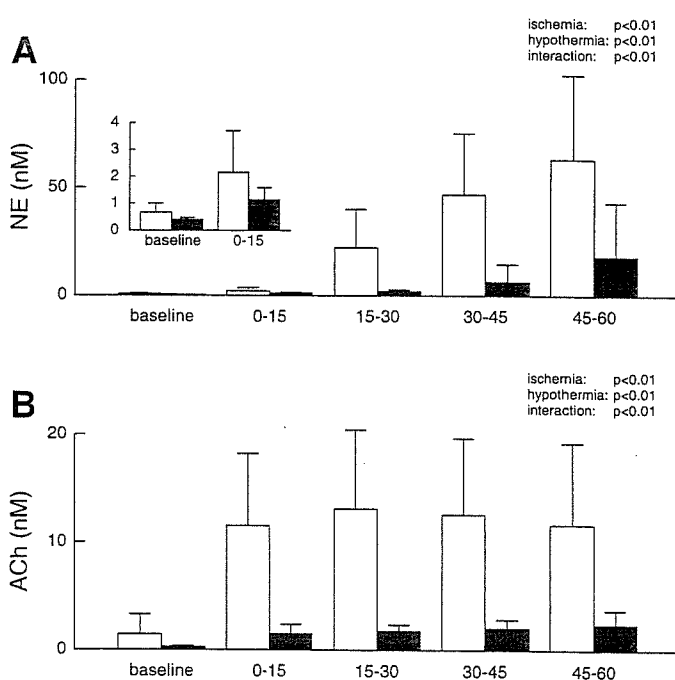


Fig. 1. *A*: ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial norepinephrine (NE) release in the ischemic region. Acute myocardial ischemia caused a progressive increase in the level of myocardial interstitial NE. Hypothermia attenuated the ischemia-induced NE release. *Inset*: magnified ordinate for the baseline and the 0- to 15-min period of ischemia. *B*: ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial ACh release in the ischemic region. Acute myocardial ischemia increased the myocardial interstitial ACh levels. Hypothermia attenuated the ischemia-induced ACh release. Open bars: normothermia; solid bars: hypothermia.

baseline and the 0- to 15-min period of ischemia. In the normothermic group (open bars), the LAD occlusion caused an ~94-fold increase in the NE level during the 45- to 60-min interval. In the hypothermic group (solid bars), the LAD occlusion caused an ~45-fold increase in the NE level during the 45- to 60-min interval. Compared with normothermia, hypothermia suppressed the baseline NE level to ~59% and the NE level during the 45- to 60-min period to ~29%. Statistical analysis indicated that the effects of both hypothermia and ischemia on the NE release were significant, and the interaction between hypothermia and ischemia was also significant.

Figure 1B illustrates changes in myocardial interstitial ACh levels in the ischemic region during the LAD occlusion. In both the normothermic (open bars) and hypothermic (solid bars) groups, the LAD occlusion caused an approximately eightfold increase in the ACh level during the 45- to 60-min interval. Compared with normothermia, however, hypothermia suppressed both the baseline ACh level and the ACh level during the 45- to 60-min period of ischemia to ~20%. Statistical analysis indicated that the effects of both hypothermia and ischemia on the ACh release were significant, and the interaction between hypothermia and ischemia was also significant.

Figure 2A illustrates changes in myocardial interstitial NE levels in the nonischemic region during the LAD occlusion. Note that scale of the ordinate is only one-hundredth of that in Fig. 1A. The LAD occlusion decreased the NE level in the normothermic group (open bars); the NE level during the 45- to 60-min interval was ~59% of the baseline level. The LAD occlusion also decreased the NE level in the hypothermic

Table 1. Mean arterial pressure during acute myocardial ischemia obtained in protocol 1

	Baseline	5 min	15 min	30 min	45 min	60 min
Normothermia	108 (23)	102 (28)	101 (24)	101 (20)	102 (21)	102 (21)
Hypothermia	108 (11)	80 (17)	87 (10)	85 (10)	86 (10)	91 (11)

Values are means (SD) (in mmHg) obtained during preocclusion baseline period and 5-, 15-, 30-, 45-, and 60-min periods of coronary artery occlusion. Ischemia: $P < 0.01$; hypothermia: not significant; interaction: $P < 0.01$.

group (solid bars); the NE level during the 45- to 60-min interval was ~64% of the baseline level. Although the LAD occlusion resulted in a decrease in the NE level under both conditions, the NE level under hypothermia was nearly twice that measured under normothermia. The statistical analysis indicated that the effects of both hypothermia and ischemia on the NE release were significant, whereas the interaction between hypothermia and ischemia was not significant.

Figure 2B illustrates changes in myocardial interstitial ACh levels in the nonischemic region during the LAD occlusion. The LAD occlusion caused an ~3.4-fold increase in the ACh level during the 0- to 15-min interval in the normothermic group (open bars). The LAD occlusion caused an approximately ninefold increase in the ACh level during the 0- to 15-min interval in the hypothermic group (solid bars). These effects of ischemia on the ACh release were statistically significant. Although hypothermia seemed to attenuate the baseline ACh level, the overall effects of hypothermia on the ACh level were insignificant.

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the MAP and HR data, respectively, obtained in protocol 1. Acute myocardial ischemia significantly reduced MAP ($P < 0.01$) and HR ($P < 0.01$). Hypothermia did not affect MAP but did decrease HR ($P < 0.01$). The interaction between ischemia and hypothermia was significant for MAP but not for HR by the two-way repeated-measures ANOVA.

For protocol 2, hypothermia significantly attenuated the sympathetic stimulation-induced NE release to ~70% of the level observed during normothermia (Fig. 3A). Under normothermia, the sympathetic stimulation increased MAP from 114 mmHg (SD 27) to 134 mmHg (SD 33) ($P < 0.01$) and HR from 147 beats/min (SD 9) to 207 beats/min (SD 5) ($P < 0.01$). Under hypothermia, the sympathetic stimulation increased MAP from 117 mmHg (SD 11) to 136 mmHg (SD 22) ($P < 0.05$) and HR from 125 beats/min (SD 16) to 164 beats/min (SD 10) ($P < 0.01$).

For protocol 3, hypothermia significantly attenuated the vagal stimulation-induced ACh release to ~70% of the level observed during normothermia (Fig. 3B). Hypothermia did not change MAP [117 mmHg (SD 18) vs. 118 mmHg (SD 27)] but

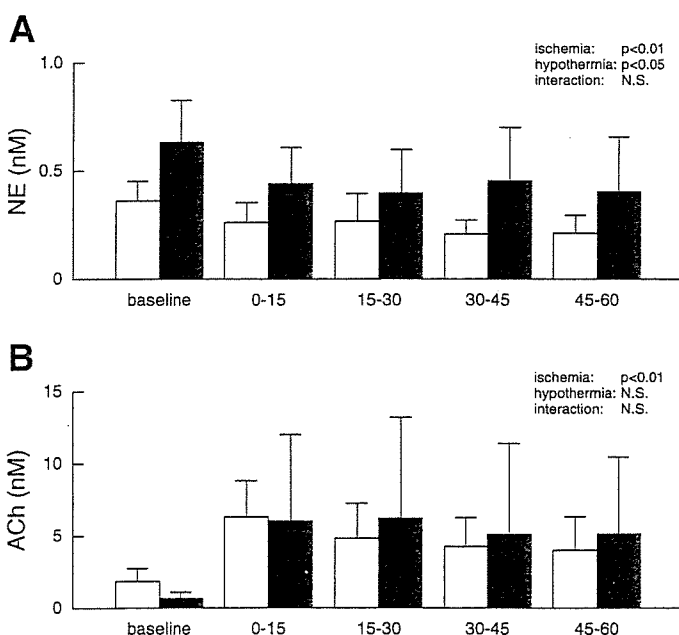


Fig. 2. A: changes in the myocardial interstitial NE levels in the nonischemic region. Acute myocardial ischemia decreased the level of myocardial interstitial NE from the baseline level. Hypothermia increased the myocardial interstitial NE levels in the nonischemic region. B: changes in the myocardial interstitial ACh levels in the nonischemic region. Acute myocardial ischemia increased the myocardial interstitial ACh level. Hypothermia did not attenuate the increasing response of ACh to the left anterior descending coronary artery occlusion. Open bars: normothermia; solid bars: hypothermia. NS, not significant.

Table 2. Heart rate during acute myocardial ischemia obtained in protocol 1

	Baseline	5 min	15 min	30 min	45 min	60 min
Normothermia	183 (26)	160 (18)	163 (16)	163 (18)	166 (20)	165 (21)
Hypothermia	146 (25)	116 (19)	113 (19)	126 (39)	112 (20)	97 (31)

Values are means (SD) (in beats/min) obtained during preocclusion baseline period and 5-, 15-, 30-, 45-, and 60-min periods of coronary artery occlusion. Ischemia: $P < 0.01$; hypothermia: $P < 0.01$; interaction: not significant.

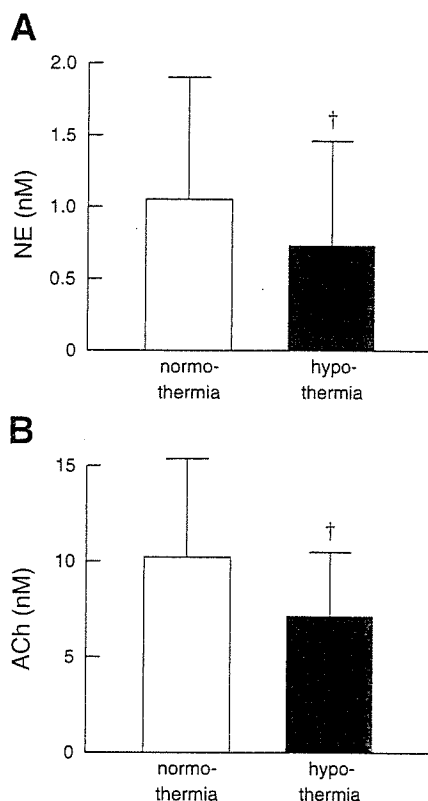


Fig. 3. *A*: efferent sympathetic nerve stimulation-induced release of myocardial interstitial NE before and during hypothermia. †Hypothermia significantly attenuated the stimulation-induced NE release. *B*: efferent vagal nerve stimulation-induced release of myocardial interstitial ACh before and during hypothermia. †Hypothermia significantly attenuated the stimulation-induced ACh release.

did decrease HR from 202 beats/min (SD 24) to 179 beats/min (SD 15) ($P < 0.05$) during the prestimulation, unpaced condition. MAP during the stimulation was 105 mmHg (SD 19) under normothermia and 93 mmHg (SD 33) under hypothermia.

DISCUSSION

A cardiac microdialysis is a powerful tool to estimate neurotransmitter levels in the myocardial interstitium *in vivo* (2, 3, 14, 19, 20, 31). The present study demonstrated that hypothermia significantly attenuated the myocardial interstitial releases of NE and ACh in the ischemic region during the LAD occlusion. In contrast, the increasing response in the ACh level from its baseline level and the decreasing response in the NE level from its baseline level observed in the nonischemic region were maintained under hypothermia. To our knowledge, this is the first report showing the effects of hypothermia on the myocardial interstitial releases of NE and ACh during acute myocardial ischemia *in vivo*. In addition, the present study showed that hypothermia significantly attenuated nerve stimulation-induced myocardial interstitial NE and ACh releases *in vivo*.

Effects of Hypothermia on Ischemia-induced NE and ACh Releases in the Ischemic Region

Acute myocardial ischemia causes energy depletion, which leads to myocardial interstitial NE release in the ischemic

region (Fig. 1A). The NE release can be classified as exocytotic or nonexocytotic (18, 24). Exocytotic release indicates NE release from synaptic vesicles, which normally occurs in response to nerve discharge and subsequent Ca^{2+} influx through voltage-dependent Ca^{2+} channels. On the other hand, nonexocytotic release indicates NE release from the axoplasm, such as that mediated by a reverse transport through the NE transporter. A neuronal uptake blocker, desipramine, can suppress the ischemia-induced NE release (19, 24). Whereas exocytotic release contributes to the ischemia-induced NE release in the initial phase of ischemia (within ~ 20 min), carrier-mediated nonexocytotic release becomes predominant as the ischemic period is prolonged (1). Hypothermia significantly attenuated the ischemia-induced NE release (Fig. 1A). The NE level during the 45- to 60-min period of ischemia under hypothermia was $\sim 20\%$ of that obtained under normothermia. The NE uptake transporter is driven by the Na^+ gradient across the cell membrane (23). The loss of the Na^+ gradient due to ischemia causes NE to be transported out of the cell by reversing the action of the NE transporter. Hypothermia inhibits the action of the NE transporter and also suppresses the intracellular Na^+ accumulation (8), thereby reducing nonexocytotic NE release during ischemia. The present results are in line with an *in vitro* study that showed hypothermia suppressed nonexocytotic NE release induced by deprivation of oxygen and glucose (30). The present results are also consistent with a previous study from our laboratory that showed hypothermia attenuated the nonexocytotic NE release induced by ouabain, tyramine, or cyanide (16).

Acute myocardial ischemia increases myocardial interstitial ACh level in the ischemic region, as reported previously (Fig. 1B) (13). The level of ischemia-induced ACh release during 0- to 15-, 15- to 30-, 30- to 45-, or 45- to 60-min period of ischemia is comparable to that evoked by 4-min electrical stimulation of the bilateral vagi (Fig. 3B). Compared with the normothermic condition, hypothermia significantly attenuated the ischemia-induced myocardial interstitial release of ACh in the ischemic region. Our laboratory's previous study indicated that intracellular Ca^{2+} mobilization is essential for the ischemia-induced release of ACh (13). Hypothermia may have prevented the Ca^{2+} overload, thereby reducing the ischemia-induced ACh release. Alternatively, hypothermia may reduce the extent of the ischemic injury, which in turn suppressed the ischemia-induced ACh release. Because ACh has protective effects on the cardiomyocytes against ischemia (11), the suppression of ischemia-induced ACh release during hypothermia itself may be unfavorable for cardioprotection.

There is considerable controversy regarding the cardioprotective effects of β -adrenergic blockade during severe ischemia, with studies demonstrating a reduction of infarct size (10, 17) or no effects (7, 27). The β -adrenergic blockade seems effective to protect the heart only when the heart is reperfused within a certain period after the coronary occlusion. The β -adrenergic blockade would reduce the myocardial oxygen consumption through the reduction of HR and ventricular contractility and delay the progression of ischemic injury. Hence the infarct size might be reduced when the heart is reperfused before the ischemic damage becomes irreversible. The ischemia-induced NE release reached nearly 100 times the baseline NE level under normothermia (Fig. 1A), which by far exceeded the NE level attained by electrical stimulation of the

bilateral stellate ganglia (Fig. 3A). Because high NE levels have cardiotoxic effects (22), ischemia-induced NE release might aggravate the ischemic injury. However, catecholamine depletion by a reserpine treatment fails to reduce the infarct size (26, 29), throwing a doubt on the involvement of catecholamine toxicity in the progression of myocardial damage during ischemia. It is, therefore, most likely that the hypothermia-induced reductions in NE and ACh are the result of reduced myocardial damage or a direct effect on nerve endings.

Van den Doel et al. (28) showed that hypothermia does not abolish necrosis, but rather delays necrosis during sustained ischemia, so that hypothermia protected against infarction produced by a 30-min occlusion but not against infarction produced by a 60-min occlusion in the rat heart. At the same time, they mentioned that hypothermia was able to reduce the infarct size after a 60-min coronary occlusion in the dog, possibly because of the significant collateral flow in the canine hearts. Because the feline hearts are similar to the canine hearts in that they have considerable collateral flow compared with the rat hearts (21), hypothermia should have protected the feline heart against the 60-min coronary occlusion in the present study.

Effects of Hypothermia on the NE and ACh Releases in the Nonischemic Region and on the Electrical Stimulation-induced NE and ACh Releases

The NE and ACh levels in the nonischemic region may reflect the sympathetic and parasympathetic drives to this region. As an example, myocardial interstitial ACh levels increase during activations of the arterial baroreflex and the Bezold-Jarisch reflex (14). In the present study, acute myocardial ischemia decreased the NE level from its baseline level, whereas it increased the ACh level from its baseline level (Fig. 2). Ischemia also decreased MAP and HR (Tables 1 and 2), suggesting that the Bezold-Jarisch reflex was induced by the LAD occlusion under both normothermia and hypothermia. Taking into account the fact that electrical stimulation-induced ACh release was attenuated to ~70% (Fig. 3), similar ACh levels during ischemia imply the enhancement of the parasympathetic outflow via the Bezold-Jarisch reflex under hypothermia. These results are in line with the study by Zheng et al. (32), where pulmonary chemoreflex-induced bradycardia was maintained under hypothermia. Hypothermia increased the NE level in the nonischemic region, suggesting that sympathetic drive to this region also increased. Hypothermic stress is known to cause sympathetic activation, accompanying increases in MAP, HR, plasma NE, and epinephrine levels (4). In the present study, because the effect of hypothermia on MAP was insignificant (Table 1) and HR decreased under hypothermia (Table 2), the sympathetic activation observed in the nonischemic region might have been regional and not systemic.

Hypothermia attenuated the releases of NE and ACh in response to respective nerve stimulation to ~70% of that observed under normothermia (Fig. 3). The suppression of the exocytotic NE release by hypothermia is consistent with a previous study from our laboratory, where hypothermia attenuated the myocardial interstitial NE release in response to vena cava occlusion or to a local high K^+ administration (15). The suppression of NE release by hypothermia is consistent with an

in vitro study by Kao and Westhead (12) in which catecholamine secretion from adrenal chromaffin cells induced by elevated K^+ levels increased as the temperature increased from 4 to 37°C. On the other hand, because hypothermia inhibits the neuronal NE uptake, the NE concentration at the synaptic cleft is expected to be increased if the level of NE release remains unchanged. Actually, Vizi (30) demonstrated that hypothermia increased NE release in response to field stimulation in vitro. In the present study, however, the suppression of NE release might have canceled the potential accumulation of NE due to NE uptake inhibition. The present study also demonstrated that the ACh release was suppressed by hypothermia. In the rat striatum, hypothermia decreases the extracellular ACh concentration and increases the choline concentration (5). Hypothermia may inhibit a choline uptake transporter in the same manner as it inhibits a NE uptake transporter. The inhibition of the choline transporter by hypothermia may have hampered the replenishment of the available pool of ACh and thereby contributed to the suppression of the stimulation-induced ACh release.

Limitations

In *protocol 1*, because we did not measure the infarct size in the present study, the degree of myocardial protection by hypothermia was undetermined. Whether the reduction of ischemia-induced neurotransmitter release correlates with the reduction of infarct size requires further investigations. In *protocols 2* and *3*, baseline NE and ACh levels were not measured. The reduction of stimulation-induced NE and ACh release by hypothermia might be partly due to the reduction of baseline NE and ACh levels. However, because transection of the stellate ganglia (31) or vagi (3) reduces the baseline NE and ACh levels, changes in the baseline NE and ACh levels by hypothermia in *protocols 2* and *3* could not be as large as those observed under innervated conditions in *protocol 1* (Figs. 1 and 2).

In conclusion, hypothermia attenuated the ischemia-induced releases of NE and ACh in the ischemic region to ~30 and 20% of those observed under normothermia, respectively. Hypothermia also attenuated the nerve stimulation-induced releases of NE and ACh to ~70% of those observed during normothermia. In contrast, hypothermia did not affect the decreasing response in the NE level and the increasing response in the ACh level in the nonischemic region, suggesting that the Bezold-Jarisch reflex evoked by the LAD occlusion was maintained.

GRANTS

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Baroreflex Increases Correlation and Coherence of Muscle Sympathetic Nerve Activity (SNA) with Renal and Cardiac SNAs

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Abstract: Despite accumulating data of muscle sympathetic nerve activity (SNA) measured by human microneurography, whether neural discharges of muscle SNA correlates and coheres with those of other SNAs controlling visceral organs remains unclear. Further, how the baroreflex control of SNA affects the relations between these SNAs remains unknown. In urethane and α -chloralose anesthetized, vagotomized, and aortic-denervated rabbits, we recorded muscle SNA from the tibial nerve using microneurography and simultaneously recorded renal and cardiac SNAs. After isolating the carotid sinuses, we produced a baroreflex closed-loop condition by matching the isolated intracarotid sinus pressure (CSP) with systemic arterial pressure (CLOSE). We also fixed CSP at operating pressure (FIX) or altered CSP widely (WIDE: operating pressure \pm 40 mmHg). Under these conditions, we calculated time-domain and frequency-domain measures of the correlation between muscle

SNA and renal or cardiac SNAs. At CLOSE, muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz correlated with both renal ($r^2 = 0.71 \pm 0.04$, delay = 0.10 ± 0.004 s) and cardiac SNAs ($r^2 = 0.58 \pm 0.03$, delay = 0.13 ± 0.004 s) at optimal delays. Moreover, muscle SNA at CLOSE strongly cohered with renal and cardiac SNAs (coherence >0.8) at the autospectral peak frequencies, and weakly (0.4–0.5) at the remaining frequencies. Increasing the magnitude of CSP change from FIX to CLOSE and further to WIDE resulted in corresponding increases in correlation and coherence functions at nonpeak frequencies, and the coherence functions at peak frequencies remained high (>0.8). In conclusion, muscle SNA correlates and coheres approximately with renal and cardiac SNAs under closed-loop baroreflex conditions. The arterial baroreflex is capable of potentially homogenizing neural discharges of these SNAs by modulating SNA at the nonpeak frequencies of SNA autopsectra.

Key words: sympathetic nerve activity, muscle, baroreflex.

Sympathetic nerve activity (SNA) has the crucial role of controlling circulation [1] and thus has been a major target in the research of circulatory physiology and pathophysiology. In humans, microneurography is the only direct method to measure SNA discharge [2]. By this technique, numerous human studies measured the activity of sympathetic nerves innervating the blood vessels in skeletal muscles (muscle SNA) [2–5] and used it as systemic SNA [3, 6–10]. However, since the measurable region in humans by this technique is almost limited to upper and lower extremities [2], the relation between muscle SNA and the SNAs controlling visceral organs such as the kidney and heart is not fully understood.

Arterial baroreflex is a major controller of SNA and thus may affect the relations between these SNAs. We previously reported that static-nonlinear and dynamic-linear baroreflex control of muscle SNA is similar to that of renal and cardiac SNAs under physiological pressure change in rabbits [11, 12]. Consistent with this finding, we have indeed observed that muscle SNA averaged over 1

minute parallels renal and cardiac SNAs in response to forced baroreceptor pressure change [11]. However, the relation between these SNAs in a time domain faster than 1 min and the relation in frequency domain remain unknown, despite the importance of their physiological and clinical relevance. First, the relation between these SNAs under conditions in which arterial pressure is regulated to normal level by a closed-loop baroreflex system is unclear. Next, the effects of baroreflex on the homogeneity in SNAs have not been analyzed quantitatively. Although canceling and enlarging the changes in baroreceptor pressure under open-loop baroreflex conditions are speculated to decrease and increase the homogeneity, respectively, how much muscle SNA correlates and coheres with other SNAs under these conditions remains unknown.

In the present study, we tested two hypotheses: (i) muscle SNA correlates and coheres with renal and cardiac SNAs under a closed-loop baroreflex condition, and (ii) the arterial baroreflex is capable of homogenizing neural discharges of these SNAs. In anesthetized rabbits with ca-

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rotid sinuses isolated from systemic circulation, we simultaneously recorded muscle SNA from the tibial nerve by microneurography as well as renal and cardiac SNAs. We investigated the relation of muscle SNA with renal and cardiac SNAs under closed-loop baroreflex conditions and determined the proportions of the variance components of muscle SNA correlating and not correlating with renal and cardiac SNAs. Further, we also investigated these relations under two open-loop baroreflex conditions: fixed and widely fluctuating baroreceptor pressure.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Surgical preparations. The animals were cared for in strict accordance with the Guiding Principles for the Care and Use of Animals in the Field of Physiological Sciences approved by the Physiological Society of Japan. Ten Japanese white rabbits weighing 2.4–3.3 kg were anesthetized by intravenous injection (2 ml/kg) of a mixture of urethane (250 mg/ml) and α -chloralose (40 mg/ml) and mechanically ventilated with oxygen-enriched room air. Supplemental anesthetics were injected as necessary (0.5 ml/kg) to maintain an appropriate level of anesthesia. We isolated the bilateral carotid sinuses vascularly from the systemic circulation by ligating the internal and external carotid arteries and other small branches originating from the carotid sinus regions. The isolated carotid sinuses were filled with warmed physiological saline through catheters inserted via the common carotid arteries. The intracarotid sinus pressure (CSP) was controlled by a servo-controlled piston pump (model ET-126A, Labworks; Costa Mesa, CA). Bilateral vagal and aortic depressor nerves were sectioned at the midlevel of the neck to eliminate baroreflexes from the cardiopulmonary region and the aortic arch. The systemic arterial pressure (AP) was measured using a high-fidelity pressure transducer (Millar Instruments; Houston, TX) inserted retrograde from the right common carotid artery below the isolated carotid sinus region. Body temperature was maintained at approximately 38°C with a heating pad.

We exposed the left renal sympathetic nerve retroperitoneally and the left cardiac sympathetic nerve through a middle thoracotomy. We attached a pair of stainless steel wire electrodes (Bioflex wire AS633, Cooner Wire) to each of these nerves to record renal and cardiac SNAs. To eliminate afferent signals, we tightly ligated and crushed the nerve fibers peripheral to the electrodes. To insulate and fix the electrodes, we covered the nerve and electrodes with a mixture of silicone gel (Silicon Low Viscosity, KWIK-SIL, World Precision Instrument, Inc., FL). We band-pass filtered the preamplified nerve signals at 150–1,000 Hz.

We exposed the left tibial nerve at the right popliteal fossa by incising the flexors of the dorsal middle thigh. We inserted a tungsten microelectrode (model 26-05-1,

Federick Haer and Co., Bowdoinham, ME) to the right tibial nerve to record muscle SNA according to the microneurographic technique reported in humans [2, 13] and animals [14]. We identified muscle SNA according to the following discharge characteristics: (i) afferent activity being induced by tapping of the calf muscles but not by gently touching the skin, and (ii) excitatory and inhibitory responses to decreasing and increasing CSP, respectively. Then we tightly ligated and crushed the nerve fibers peripheral to the electrodes to eliminate afferent signals from the muscles. We fed the nerve signals into a preamplifier (Kohno Instruments, Nagoya) with active band-pass filters set from 480 to 5,000 Hz and continuously monitored these signals through a sound speaker.

We full-wave rectified and low-pass filtered the SNA signals with a cutoff frequency of 30 Hz to quantify the nerve activity. Pancuronium bromide (0.1 mg/kg) was administered to prevent a contamination of muscular activity in these SNA recordings.

Protocols. After the surgical preparation, we kept the animal horizontally in a supine position. To test the first hypothesis that a neural discharge of muscle SNA parallels that of renal and cardiac SNAs, we measured the three SNAs while closing the baroreflex negative feedback loop by matching CSP with systemic AP (CLOSE protocol). We recorded CSP, SNAs, and systemic AP for 15 min at a sampling rate of 200 Hz, using a 12-bit analog-to-digital converter. After stabilizing the condition for at least 5 min, we recorded the data for 10 min and stored them on the hard disk of a dedicated laboratory computer system for later analysis. We also calculated the actual operating pressure by averaging systemic AP from the data.

To test the second hypothesis that baroreflex contributes to homogeneous sympathetic activation, we eliminated and greatly widened the baroreceptor pressure changes by the FIX and WIDE protocols, respectively, in baroreflex open-loop conditions. In the FIX protocol, we fixed CSP at the operating pressure [15, 16]. In the WIDE protocol, we randomly assigned CSP at 40 mmHg either above or below the operating pressure every 500 ms according to a binary white noise sequence [15, 17], where the input power spectrum of CSP was reasonably flat up to 1 Hz. The FIX and WIDE protocols were conducted serially in a randomized order at intervals of at least 5 min between protocols. During each protocol, we recorded measurements for 10 min and stored the data for analysis.

Data analysis. Under each baroreceptor pressure condition of CLOSE, WIDE, and FIX, we calculated the time domain (correlation coefficient) and frequency domain measures (coherence function) between muscle and renal or cardiac SNAs. In the time-domain analysis, we resampled SNA data at 1 Hz, assigned 100 arbitrary units (a.u.) to the maximal value during 10 min of CLOSE, and normalized other SNA signals to this value.

We scatter-plotted muscle SNA at 1 Hz against renal and cardiac SNAs with variable delays from renal and cardiac SNAs to muscle SNA (range: from 0 to 0.30 s at increments of 0.01 s) and calculated the correlation coefficient (r) [18] with optimal delays that maximized the square of correlation coefficient (r^2). The delays reflected the distances from the brain to the sites of measurement of these SNAs. The r^2 shows how perfectly a linear regression line describes the relationship between the two SNAs [19].

We also calculated the variance of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz [19]. The variance may include two components, one that correlates (correlative variance) and the other that does not correlate (noncorrelative variance) with other SNAs. Therefore we defined correlative and noncorrelative variance of muscle SNA to renal or cardiac SNA as follows (see APPENDIX) [18, 19]:

$$\text{Correlative variance} = \text{SNA variance} \cdot r^2$$

$$\text{Noncorrelative variance} = \text{SNA variance} \cdot (1 - r^2)$$

where SNA variance was the variance of muscle SNA, and r^2 was the correlation coefficient of muscle SNA against renal or cardiac SNA.

In the frequency-domain analysis, we calculated the coherence functions between muscle SNA and renal or cardiac SNA. We resampled SNA data at 10 Hz, and segmented them into 10 sets of 50% overlapping bins of 2^{10} data point each. SNA signals were similarly normalized as mentioned above. The segment length was 102.4 s, which yields the lowest frequency bound of 0.01 (0.0097) Hz. For each data set, we performed a fast Fourier transform while subtracting a linear trend and applying a Hanning window for each segment. We performed fast Fourier transform and ensemble averaged the power of muscle SNA [$S_{xx}(f)$], the power of renal or cardiac SNA [$S_{yy}(f)$], and the cross power between muscle SNA and renal or cardiac SNA [$S_{yx}(f)$] over the 10 segments. We derived a magnitude-squared coherence function [$Coh(f)$] of muscle SNA versus renal and cardiac SNAs as follows [17]:

$$Coh(f) = \frac{|S_{yx}(f)|^2}{S_{xx}(f)S_{yy}(f)}$$

The coherence value ranges from zero to unity. Unity coherence indicates a perfect linear correlation between muscle SNA and other SNAs, whereas zero coherence indicates total independence of the two SNAs. In an SNA autospectrum, when the power was three times greater than the averaged power of SNA from 0.01 to 1 Hz, we defined it as a peak. We separately calculated the averaged coherence function at the peak frequencies of muscle SNA autospectra and that at the remaining frequencies.

Statistic analysis. We presented all data as means \pm SD. We used a repeated-measures analysis of variance with post hoc multiple comparisons to compare variables

among experimental baroreceptor pressure conditions (FIX, CLOSE, WIDE) [19]. We considered differences significant when $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Relation between muscle SNA and cardiac or renal SNA in closed-loop baroreflex condition of CLOSE protocol

Time-domain analysis. In the CLOSE protocol (CSP matched with systemic arterial pressure), typical neural discharges of muscle SNA at 10 Hz appeared roughly the same as those of renal and cardiac SNAs (Fig. 1A). When the delay from renal and cardiac SNAs to muscle SNA was determined in individual animals to maximize r^2 (a typical example is shown in Fig. 1), muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz correlated with both renal and cardiac SNAs with r^2 of 0.81 (delay = 0.10 s) and 0.64 (delay = 0.13 s), respectively (Fig. 1, B and C). The averaged data of all animals also showed that muscle SNA correlated with renal SNA ($r^2 = 0.71 \pm 0.04$, delay = 0.10 ± 0.004 s) and with

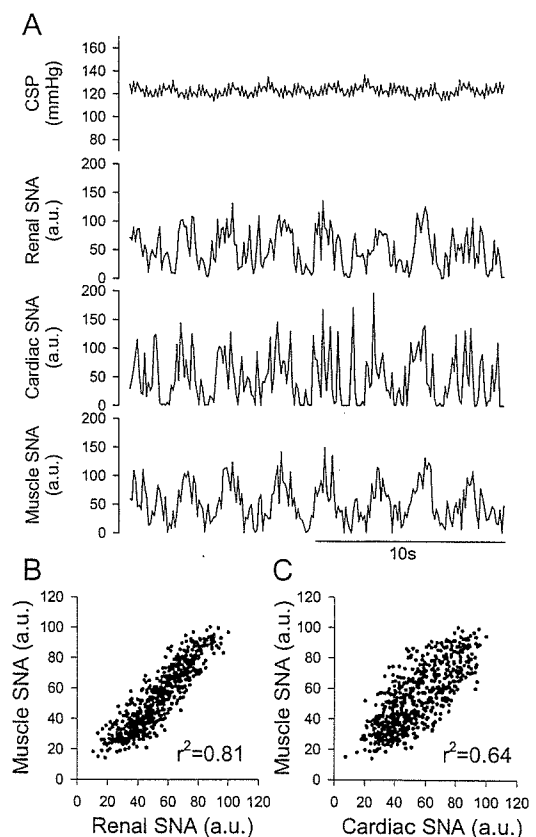


Fig. 1. (A) Representative time series for CSP, renal, cardiac, and muscle SNAs resampled at 10 Hz under the baroreflex closed-loop condition of CLOSE (CSP was matched to systemic AP). (B) Scatter plot of muscle SNA against renal SNA. (C) Scatter plot of muscle SNA against cardiac SNAs. The SNA signals were further resampled at 1 Hz. The delay from renal (0.10 s) or cardiac SNA (0.13 s) to muscle SNA was determined as the value that maximized r^2 .

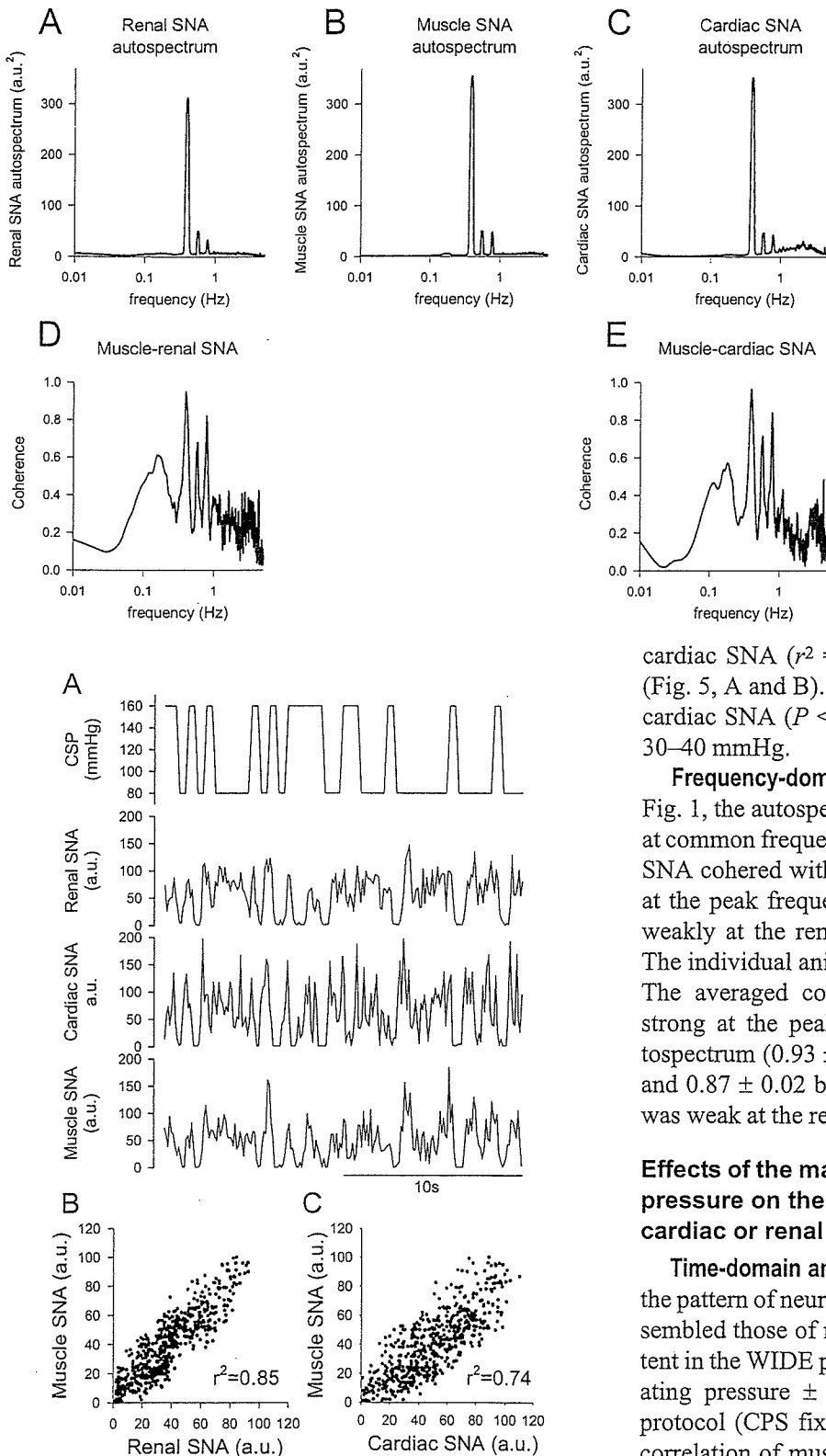


Fig. 3. (A) Representative time series for CSP, renal, cardiac, and muscle SNAs resampled at 10 Hz under the baroreflex open-loop condition of WIDE (CSP was varied according to a binary white noise sequence at 40 mmHg either above or below the operating pressure). (B) Scatter plots of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz against renal SNA (delay = 0.10 s). (C) Scatter plots of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz against cardiac SNA (delay = 0.13 s).

Fig. 2. Autospectra of renal (A), muscle (B), and cardiac SNAs (C) resampled at 1 Hz, and the coherence function of muscle SNA against renal (D) and cardiac SNAs (E) under the baroreflex closed-loop condition of CLOSE (CSP was matched to systemic AP), using the same data as in Fig. 1.

cardiac SNA ($r^2 = 0.58 \pm 0.03$, delay = 0.13 ± 0.004 s) (Fig. 5, A and B). The r^2 was greater with renal than with cardiac SNA ($P < 0.05$). The pulse pressure of CSP was 30–40 mmHg.

Frequency-domain analysis. In the same animal as in Fig. 1, the autospectra of these SNAs showed a few peaks at common frequency ranges (Fig. 2, A, B, and C). Muscle SNA cohered with both renal and cardiac SNAs strongly at the peak frequencies of muscle SNA autospectra, but weakly at the remaining frequencies (Fig. 2, D and E). The individual animals all showed similar characteristics. The averaged coherence function of the animals was strong at the peak frequencies of the muscle SNA autospectrum (0.93 ± 0.01 between muscle and renal SNAs and 0.87 ± 0.02 between muscle and cardiac SNAs), but was weak at the remaining frequencies (0.5) (Fig. 8).

Effects of the magnitude of change in baroreceptor pressure on the relation between muscle SNA and cardiac or renal SNA

Time-domain analysis. In the same animal as in Fig. 1, the pattern of neural discharge of muscle SNA at 10 Hz resembled those of renal and cardiac SNAs to a greater extent in the WIDE protocol (CPS fluctuating between operating pressure ± 40 mmHg) (Fig. 3) than in the FIX protocol (CPS fixed at operating pressure) (Fig. 4). The correlation of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz with renal and cardiac SNAs was higher in WIDE ($r^2 = 0.85$, delay = 0.10 s, and $r^2 = 0.74$, delay = 0.13 s, respectively) (Fig. 3, B and C) than in CLOSE, but was lower in FIX (with the same delays, Fig. 4, B and C). Compared with CLOSE, the averaged data of all animals showed a higher correlation of muscle SNA with renal and cardiac SNAs in WIDE ($r^2 = 0.79 \pm 0.03$, delay = 0.10 ± 0.004 s, and $r^2 =$

0.76 ± 0.02, delay = 0.13 ± 0.004 s, respectively), but lower correlation in FIX ($r^2 = 0.53 \pm 0.04$, delay = 0.10 ± 0.004 s, and $r^2 = 0.46 \pm 0.04$, delay = 0.13 ± 0.004 s, respectively) (Fig. 5, A and B). In WIDE, the r^2 was higher with renal than with cardiac SNA ($P < 0.05$). Similar re-

sults were observed when SNAs were resampled at slower and faster frequencies than 1 Hz (Fig. 6). In both SNA pairs, the r^2 was greater in WIDE than in CLOSE and FIX at frequencies from 0.01 to 5 Hz ($P < 0.05$), whereas it was greater in CLOSE than in FIX at frequencies from 0.3 to 5 Hz ($P < 0.05$).

The variance of muscle SNA sampled at 1 Hz increased from FIX to CLOSE and further to WIDE (Fig. 5, C and D; gray plus black column). The variance component of

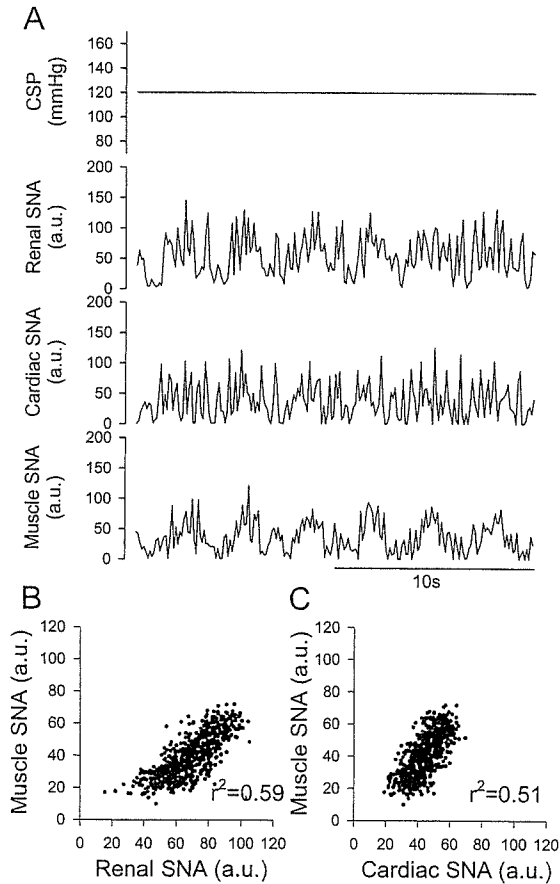


Fig. 4. (A) Representative time series for CSP, renal, cardiac, and muscle SNAs resampled at 10 Hz under the baroreflex open-loop condition of FIX (CSP was fixed at the operating pressure). (B) Scatter plot of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz against renal SNA (delay = 0.10 s). (C) Scatter plots of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz against cardiac SNA (delay = 0.13 s).

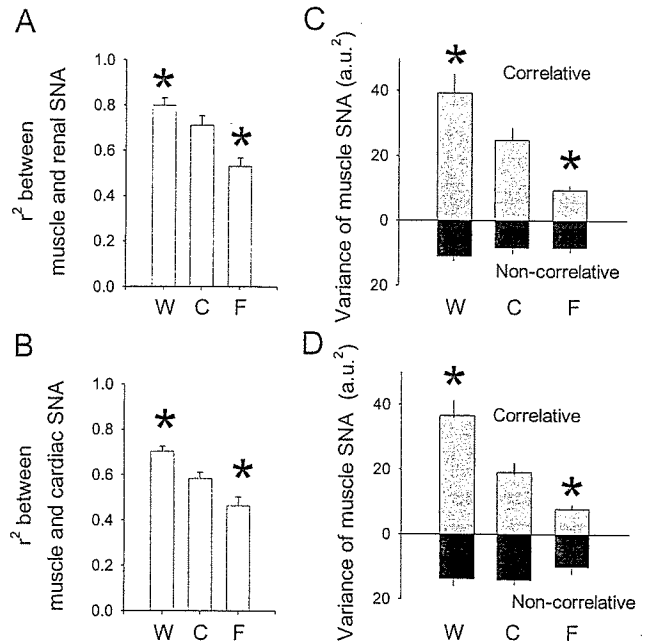


Fig. 5. The square of correlation coefficient (r^2) between muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz and renal (A) or cardiac SNA (B) under baroreceptor pressure conditions of WIDE, CLOSE, and FIX. Floating columns show the averaged (\pm SD) correlative (gray top column) and noncorrelative (black bottom column) variance of muscle SNA versus renal (C) or cardiac SNA (D) resampled at 1 Hz in WIDE, CLOSE, and FIX. Correlative: variance component of muscle SNA correlating with other SNA; Noncorrelative: variance component of muscle SNA not correlating with other SNA; W: WIDE; C: CLOSE; F: FIX. *: $P < 0.05$, vs. CLOSE.

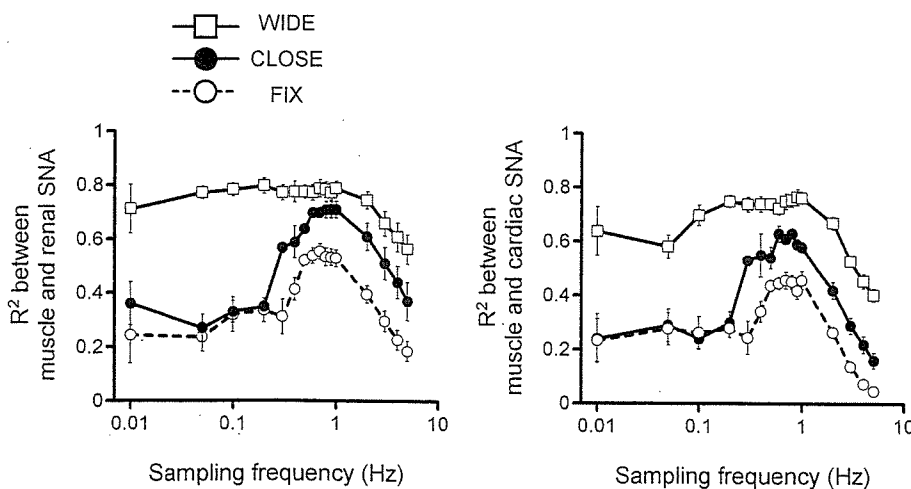


Fig. 6. The square of correlation coefficient (r^2) over SNA sampling frequency (0.01–5.0 Hz) between muscle SNA and renal (A) or cardiac SNA (B) under baroreceptor pressure conditions of WIDE (open square), CLOSE (closed circle), and FIX (open circle). In both SNA pairs, the r^2 was greater in WIDE than in CLOSE and FIX at frequencies observed ($P < 0.05$), whereas it was greater in CLOSE than in FIX at frequencies from 0.3 to 5.0 Hz ($P < 0.05$).

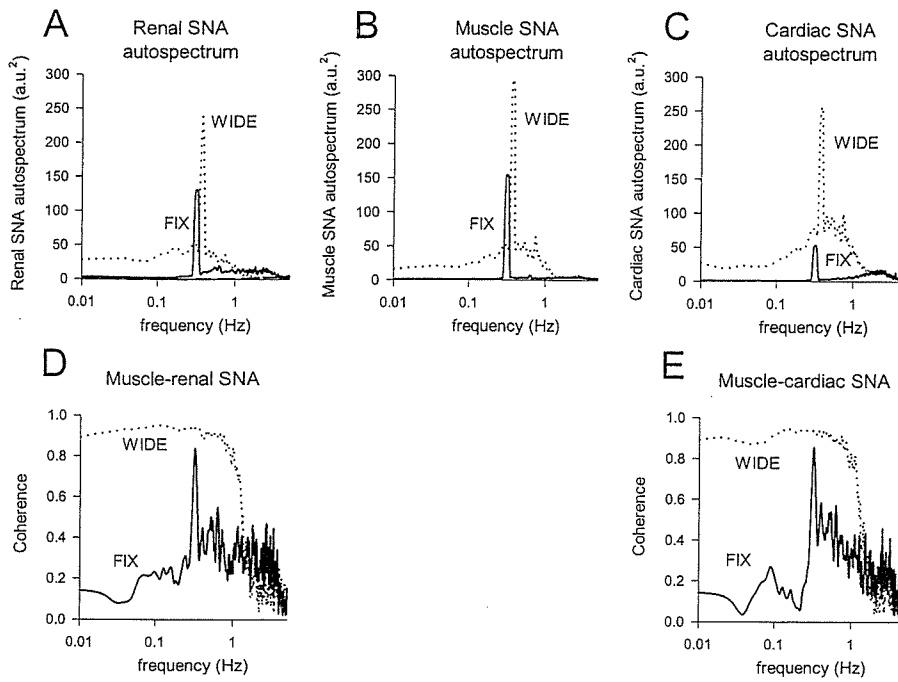


Fig. 7. Autospectra of renal (A), muscle (B), and cardiac SNAs (C), and the coherence function of muscle SNA against renal (D) and cardiac SNAs (E) under baroreflex open-loop conditions of WIDE (broken line) and FIX (solid line), using the same data as in Figs. 3 and 4.

muscle SNA that correlates with other SNAs, calculated as muscle SNA variance $\cdot r^2$ ranked in the order of WIDE > CLOSE > FIX (Fig. 5, C and D; gray column), indicating a contribution of baroreflex-dependent regulation in maintaining homogeneity between muscle SNA and other visceral SNAs. In contrast, the variance component of muscle SNA that does not correlate with other SNAs, calculated as variance $\cdot (1 - r^2)$, was similar among FIX, CLOSE, and WIDE (Fig. 5, C, D; black bottom column).

Frequency-domain analysis. In the same animal as in Fig. 1, the autospectra of muscle, renal, and cardiac SNAs peaked at exactly the same frequencies both in the WIDE and FIX protocols (Fig. 7, A, B, and C). Muscle SNA strongly cohered with both renal and cardiac SNAs both in WIDE and FIX at peak frequencies of the muscle SNA autospectra; however, the correlation was strong in WIDE but weak in FIX at the remaining frequencies (Fig. 7, D and E). The data of individual animals showed similar characteristics. The averaged coherence functions of all animals was consistently strong (>0.8) at peak frequencies of the muscle SNA autospectra regardless of baroreceptor pressure conditions of WIDE, CLOSE, and FIX (Fig. 8, black column). In contrast, the averaged coherence functions at the remaining frequencies were higher in WIDE (>0.8) compared with CLOSE or FIX (0.4–0.5) (Fig. 8, gray column).

DISCUSSION

Despite the accumulating data on muscle SNA measured by microneurography in human studies, whether the neural discharge of muscle SNA correlates and coheres with that of other SNAs controlling visceral organs remains unclear. The major new findings in this study are (i) under

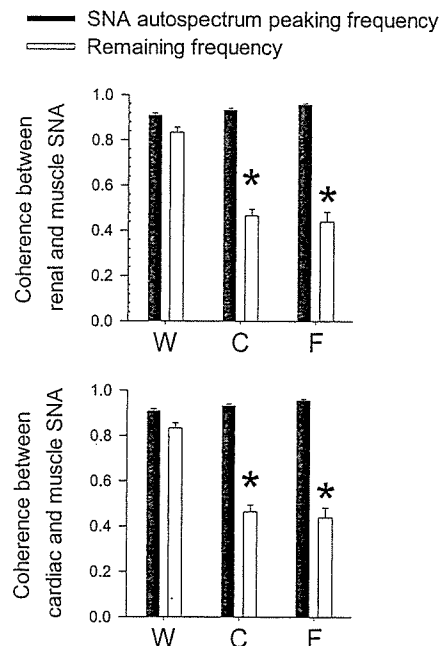


Fig. 8. Averaged coherence functions of muscle SNA against renal and cardiac SNAs at muscle SNA autospectral peak frequencies (black column) and at the remaining frequencies (gray column) under baroreceptor pressure conditions of WIDE, CLOSE, and FIX. W: WIDE; C: CLOSE; F: FIX. * $P < 0.05$, WIDE vs. CLOSE and FIX.

the baroreflex closed-loop condition when CSP is matched with the systemic arterial pressure (CLOSE), muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz correlates with both renal and cardiac SNAs in time-domain analysis (r^2 : 0.6–0.7, with proper delay), and (ii) muscle SNA coheres with renal and cardiac SNAs in frequency domain analysis, particularly at peak frequencies of the SNA autospectra.

These results support our first hypothesis and indicate that muscle SNA correlates and coheres approximately with renal and cardiac SNAs under closed-loop baroreflex condition.

Next, although the baroreflex is known to strongly regulate muscles [3], renal and cardiac SNA [15, 20], the contribution of baroreflex to the homogeneous SNA discharges has not been elucidated quantitatively. The other major new findings in this study are as follows. When the change in baroreceptor pressure is increased from FIX (fixed CSP, no change) to CLOSE (CSP matching systemic arterial pressure, pulse pressure 30–40 mmHg) and further to WIDE (CSP fluctuating between ± 40 mmHg), there are corresponding increases in the time domain correlation (r^2) of muscle SNA resampled at 1 Hz with renal and cardiac SNAs, from approximately 0.5 (FIX), to 0.6–0.7 (CLOSE), and to 0.8 (WIDE) (Fig. 5, A and B). The baroreflex dependent characteristics were also observed when SNAs were resampled at a frequency from 0.3 to 5.0 Hz (Fig. 6). This is also consistent with increases in the variance component of muscle SNA correlating with renal and cardiac SNAs (Fig. 5, C and D). These results agree with the concept that the baroreflex is important in generating harmonized SNA discharges [5, 21]. Moreover, the results indicate that arterial baroreflex has the ability to increase the homogeneity between these SNAs by nearly twofold. They support our second hypothesis and indicate that the arterial baroreflex potently homogenizes neural discharges of these SNAs.

Our results indicate that baroreflex increases the homogeneity between these SNAs by modulating SNA at non-peak frequencies of SNA autospectra. The frequency domain correlation (coherence function) of muscle SNA with renal and cardiac SNAs was increased from approximately 0.4–0.5 (FIX), to 0.5 (CLOSE), to 0.9 (WIDE) at nonpeak frequencies, not peaking frequencies, of the SNA autospectra (Fig. 8). This suggests that other mechanisms other than baroreflex govern SNA at the nonpeak frequencies.

Our results quantitatively indicate that baroreflex-independent factors contribute to one-half of the homogeneity between muscle SNA and cardiac or renal SNA. Time-domain data show that even under a condition in which CSP is fixed at operating pressure, one-half of the variance of muscle SNAs correlates with other SNAs (Fig. 5, C and D; gray top column), with r^2 of approximately 0.5 (Fig. 5, A and B). These data indicate the presence of a baroreflex-independent component of SNA homogeneity. Although some noises may be included in the variance component of muscle SNA correlating with other SNAs, this is negligible in the calculation of variance, since the signal/noise ratio in SNA is $>1,000$ (noise was measured as the signal obtained after an individual animal died). The baroreflex-independent component of SNA homogeneity may be related to the strong coherence function between the SNAs

at autospectral peak frequencies, since the coherence is consistently high regardless of the magnitude of baroreceptor pressure changes (Figs. 7, D and E, and 8). This component may partially be associated with the respiratory-related rhythm in sympathetic nerve discharge, a concept of central respiratory rhythm generator [21–23]. At the autospectral peak frequencies, these mechanisms may keep the coherence sufficiently high (0.9) independent of the baroreflex, and thus the baroreflex cannot increase the coherence further.

In contrast to the homogeneous sympathetic activation, the heterogeneity of muscle SNA versus renal or cardiac SNA does not relate with baroreflex. The proportions of the variance component of muscle SNA not correlating with renal and cardiac SNAs are constant regardless of the magnitude of change in baroreceptor pressure (Fig. 5, C and D). Mechanisms other than baroreflex may be involved in heterogeneous sympathetic activation. For example, chemoreflex [24], nitric oxide synthesis [25], and osmolarity [26] have been reported to produce regional differences in sympathetic activations.

Our data may strengthen the interpretation and the impact of the accumulated data on the involvement of human muscle SNA in circulatory physiology [3, 6–8, 10] and cardiovascular diseases [27, 28]. The recording of human microneurography is limited to the limbs, and there is so far little direct experimental evidence to support that muscle SNA parallel the other SNAs controlling visceral organs. The present study addresses this issue as an initial step and demonstrates the similarity between muscle SNA discharge and renal or cardiac SNA. Further study is needed to investigate the relations between SNAs in response to stimuli other than baroreflex.

Earlier studies have reported the coherence between pairs of SNA discharges for cardiac, renal, splanchnic, splenic, and lumbar SNAs in animals [29–31]. However, most of the studies focused on the coherence at frequencies faster than 1 Hz (0–15 Hz), in contrast to the present study. Furthermore, the previous studies did not measure muscle SNA or quantitatively investigate the effects of baroreflex on homogeneous SNA discharges.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations. First, anesthetic agents tend to inhibit efferent SNA and depress the gain of baroreflex control of SNA. Second, we excluded the efferent vagal nerve activities, which could affect SNA and baroreflex. Third, artificial respiration and surgical procedures used in this study may affect SNA and baroreflex. Last, based on most of the frequency domain studies of human muscle SNA [32–35], we focused on sympathetic discharge at frequencies of up to 1 Hz. And because of the low-pass characteristics of transfer function from SNA to arterial pressure (baroreflex peripheral arc) [20], the dynamic property of pressure response to

SNA becomes smaller as the frequency of SNA discharge increases. Future studies are needed to investigate the relation of muscle SNA with other SNAs at faster SNA rhythms, including a cardiac-related SNA rhythm at a frequency of 2 to 6 Hz [36] and an SNA rhythm of 10 Hz [37].

In conclusion, 1-Hz muscle SNA correlated with both renal and cardiac SNAs in time-domain analysis and cohered with renal and cardiac SNAs in frequency-domain analysis. Accompanying an increase in the magnitude of baroreceptor pressure change, both the correlation coefficient and the coherence function increased. These results indicate that muscle SNA correlates and coheres approximately with renal and cardiac SNAs under the closed-loop baroreflex condition and that the arterial baroreflex is capable of potentially homogenizing neural discharges of these SNAs by modulating SNA at nonpeak frequencies of SNA autospectra.

APPENDIX

When y is scatter-plotted against x , a linear regression line can be drawn between the two variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) between variables has the following relationship with variance (Eq. 1) [19]

$$r^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{V_y} \quad (1)$$

where SS_{res} is the sum of squared deviations (residuals) from the regression line and V_y is the total sum of squared deviations from the mean of the dependent variable (y), that is, the total variance of y .

Equation 1 indicates that the square of correlation coefficient, r^2 , is a fraction of the total variance in the dependent variable (y), which is explained by a linear regression relation [18, 19]. Equation 1 leads to the following relations in Eqs. 2 and 3.

$$V_y \cdot r^2 + SS_{\text{res}} = V_y \quad (2)$$

$$SS_{\text{res}} = V_y \cdot (1 - r^2) \quad (3)$$

$V_y \cdot r^2$ indicates the component of total variance in y that is explained by a linear regression relation (correlative variance in y). SS_{res} indicates the residual component of total variance in y that is not explained by linear regression relation (noncorrelative variance in y).

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Sympathetic Neural Regulation of Heart Rate Is Robust against High Plasma Catecholamines

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Abstract: The sympathetic regulation of heart rate (HR) may be attained by neural and humoral factors. With respect to the humoral factor, plasma noradrenaline (NA) and adrenaline (Adr) can reportedly increase to levels approximately 10 times higher than resting level during severe exercise. Whether such high plasma NA or Adr interfered with the sympathetic neural regulation of HR remained unknown. We estimated the transfer function from cardiac sympathetic nerve stimulation (SNS) to HR in anesthetized and vagotomized rabbits. An intravenous administration of NA ($n = 6$) at 1 and 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ increased plasma NA concentration (pg/ml) from a baseline level of 438 ± 117 (mean \pm SE) to 974 ± 106 and $6,830 \pm 917$ ($P < 0.01$), respectively. The dynamic gain (bpm/Hz) of the transfer function did not change significantly (from 7.6 ± 1.2 to 7.5 ± 1.1 and 8.1 ± 1.1),

whereas mean HR (in bpm) during SNS slightly increased from 280 ± 24 to 289 ± 22 ($P < 0.01$) and 288 ± 22 ($P < 0.01$). The intravenous administration of Adr ($n = 6$) at 1 and 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ increased plasma Adr concentration (pg/ml) from a baseline level of 257 ± 86 to 659 ± 172 and $2,760 \pm 590$ ($P < 0.01$), respectively. Neither the dynamic gain (from 8.0 ± 0.6 to 8.4 ± 0.8 and 8.2 ± 1.0) nor the mean HR during SNS (from 274 ± 13 to 275 ± 13 and 274 ± 13) changed significantly. In contrast, the intravenous administration of isoproterenol ($n = 6$) at 10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ significantly increased mean HR during SNS (from 278 ± 11 to 293 ± 9 , $P < 0.01$) and blunted the transfer gain value at 0.0078 Hz (from 5.9 ± 1.0 to 1.0 ± 0.4 , $P < 0.01$). In conclusion, high plasma NA or Adr hardly affected the dynamic sympathetic neural regulation of HR.

Key words: systems analysis, neuro-humoral interaction, noradrenaline, adrenaline, isoproterenol.

The sympathetic regulation of heart rate (HR) may be attained by neural and humoral factors. One unique feature of the neural regulation, which is in contrast to the humoral regulation, is its quickness. The quickness of regulation may be best quantified by identifying dynamic characteristics of the input-output or stimulus-response relationship of a given system [1, 2]. Although we have identified the dynamic characteristics of the HR regulation by the cardiac sympathetic nerve by using a transfer function analysis [3, 4], we ignored the possible effects of plasma catecholamines on the transfer function. Plasma concentrations of noradrenaline (NA) and adrenaline (Adr) can increase during systemic sympathetic activation. For instance, plasma NA and Adr both increase to approximately 10 times their respective resting levels during severe exercise [5]. They increase to approximately 6 and 20 times, respectively, during acute myocardial infarction [5]. Whether such high plasma NA or Adr interfered with the dynamic sympathetic neural regulation of HR remained unanswered.

Two mutually opposing hypotheses can be put forward

regarding interactions between the humoral and neural factors in the sympathetic regulation of HR. The activation of presynaptic (or prejunctional) α_2 -adrenergic receptors located on the postganglionic sympathetic nerve terminals inhibits NA release [6], which would result in the attenuated HR response to cardiac sympathetic nerve stimulation (SNS). In contrast, the activation of presynaptic (or prejunctional) β_2 -adrenergic receptors located on the postganglionic sympathetic nerve terminals facilitates NA release [7], which would result in the augmented HR response to cardiac SNS. Besides these interactions, high plasma NA can increase the cardiac uptake of NA [8], which would modify the HR response to cardiac SNS.

The aim of the present study was to test the hypothesis that high plasma NA or Adr alters the dynamic sympathetic neural regulation of HR. Using anesthetized rabbits, we examined the HR response to random cardiac SNS under the condition of elevated plasma NA or Adr induced by exogenous administration. We also examined the effects of an intravenous administration of a β -adrenergic agonist isoproterenol on the HR response to SNS. The results of

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the present study indicated that high plasma NA or Adr hardly affected the dynamic sympathetic neural regulation of HR in anesthetized rabbits.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal preparation. The animals were cared for in strict accordance with the Guiding Principles for the Care and Use of Animals in the Field of Physiological Sciences approved by the Physiological Society of Japan. Eighteen Japanese white rabbits weighing from 2.4 to 3.2 kg were anesthetized by a mixture of α -chloralose (40 mg/ml) and urethane (250 mg/ml), initiated with a bolus injection of 2 ml/kg and maintained with a continuous administration at $0.5 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$. The rabbits were intubated and mechanically ventilated with oxygen-enriched room air. The right cardiac postganglionic sympathetic nerve was identified in the right thoracic cavity and sectioned. Usually, HR dropped immediately after the sectioning of the right cardiac sympathetic nerve, suggesting the importance of the right cardiac sympathetic nerve in determining baseline HR. A pair of platinum electrodes was attached to the cardiac end of the sectioned nerve for stimulation. The nerve and electrodes were secured by silicone glue (Kwik-Sil, World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA). The left cardiac sympathetic nerve and other sympathetic branches to the heart were kept intact. The carotid sinus nerves and aortic depressor nerves were sectioned bilaterally to minimize changes in systemic sympathetic activity induced by baroreflexes. The vagal nerves were also sectioned bilaterally to eliminate the vagal effect on the heart. The vagotomy did not change HR significantly at this stage, possibly because of the vagolytic effects of the anesthesia. Arterial pressure (AP) was measured by a micro-manometer (Millar Instruments, Houston, TX, USA) inserted into the thoracic aorta from the right femoral artery. HR was measured with a cardi tachometer (AT-601G, Nihon Kohden, Tokyo, Japan). An arterial catheter was inserted into the left femoral artery to sample blood for plasma catecholamine measurements. A double-lumen venous catheter was introduced into the right femoral vein for continuous anesthetic infusion and exogenous catecholamine administration.

Protocols. We quantified the dynamic sympathetic neural regulation of HR by using a transfer function analysis [3, 4]. To estimate the transfer function from cardiac SNS to HR, we dynamically stimulated the right cardiac sympathetic nerve as follows. The pulse duration was set at 2 ms, and the pulse amplitude was adjusted to obtain an HR increase of approximately 50 bpm (beats/min) during a 5-Hz constant stimulation in each animal. The resulting amplitude ranged from 0.8 to 2.0 V among animals. With these settings, the stimulation frequency was randomly assigned at either 0 or 5 Hz every 2 s, according to a binary white noise sequence (see appendix A for additional information). The average stimulation frequency was therefore 2.5 Hz. The input power spectral density of SNS was relatively flat up to 0.25 Hz.

In *Protocol 1* ($n = 6$), physiological saline was infused intravenously at $1 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ for 30 min after the end of surgical preparation (Fig. 1). A 300- μl volume of arterial blood was sampled under control conditions (designated as NA_0 condition) for plasma catecholamine measurements. Following the blood sampling, dynamic SNS was applied for 15 min to estimate the transfer function from SNS to HR. Arterial blood was sampled during the last minute of dynamic SNS under the NA_0 condition. Next, $1\text{-}\mu\text{g/ml}$ NA solution was infused at $1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (NA_1). Fifteen min after the initiation of NA_1 administration, when AP and HR had reached new steady states, arterial blood sampling and 15-min dynamic SNS were repeated. Third, a $10\text{-}\mu\text{g/ml}$ NA solution was administered at $10 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (NA_{10}). Fifteen min after the initiation of NA_{10} administration, arterial blood sampling and 15-min dynamic SNS were repeated.

In *Protocol 2* ($n = 6$), experimental procedures similar to those in *Protocol 1* were conducted, using the Adr solution instead of the NA solution. The transfer function from SNS to HR was estimated under control condition (designated as Adr_0 condition), as well as during the administration of $1\text{-}\mu\text{g/ml}$ Adr solution at $1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Adr_1) and $10\text{-}\mu\text{g/ml}$ Adr solution at $10 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Adr_{10}).

In *Protocol 3* ($n = 6$), we examined the effects of an intravenous administration of a β -adrenergic agonist isoproterenol on the transfer function from SNS to HR. Using experimental procedures similar to those in *Protocol 1*, we

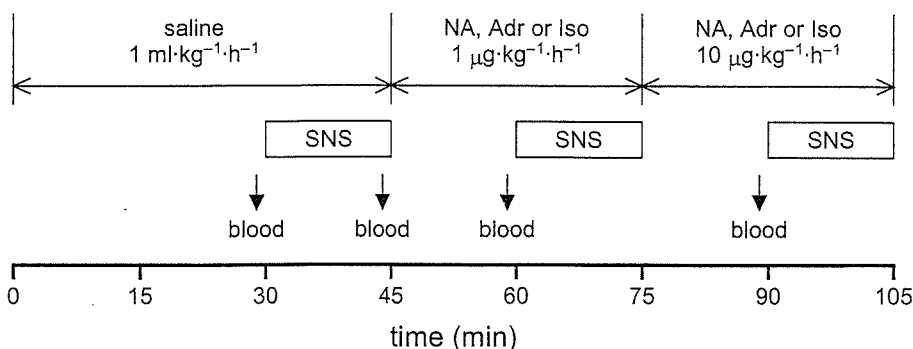


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram showing the experimental protocol. The downward arrows indicate the timings of blood sampling for catecholamine measurements (for *Protocols 1* and *2*). SNS: sympathetic nerve stimulation. NA: noradrenaline; Adr: adrenaline; Iso: isoproterenol.