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Penson, PE, Ford, WR, Kidd, EJ and Broadley, KJ (2008) Activation of beta-adrenoceptors mimics preconditioning of rat-isolated atria and ventricles against ischaemic contractile dysfunction. Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Archives of Pharmacology. 378 (6). ISSN 0028-1298

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Activation of beta-adrenoceptors mimics preconditioning of rat isolated atria and ventricles against ischaemic contractile dysfunction

Journal:	<i>Naunyn-Schmiedeberg Archives of Pharmacology</i>
Manuscript ID:	Naunyn-00087-2008
Manuscript Type:	Original
Keywords:	beta-adrenoceptor, Cardioprotection, Heart, Ischaemia/reperfusion, Preconditioning, Rat



Review

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4 **Activation of β -adrenoceptors mimics preconditioning of**
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7 **rat isolated atria and ventricles against ischaemic**
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19 β -adrenoceptor-mediated cardioprotection
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Abstract

Effects of ischaemia and reoxygenation on cardiac contractile function can be abrogated by ischaemic preconditioning (IPC). We tested whether β -adrenoceptor agonists could mimic IPC and whether IPC was dependent on β -adrenoceptor activation in rat isolated cardiac tissues.

Paced left atria and right ventricular strips were set-up in Krebs' solution and isometric developed tension recorded. Ischaemia was simulated by replacing with hypoxic glucose-free Krebs' solution for 30 minutes. IPC and isoprenaline (10^{-7} M) preconditioning for 10 minutes were examined. Developed tension post-reoxygenation was expressed as a percentage of the pre-ischaemic baseline.

Recovery at 15 minutes was significantly increased by IPC in atria ($47\pm 4.0\%$ v. $29.3\pm 1.7\%$, $p<0.05$) and ventricles ($39.0\pm 5.2\%$ v. $22.4\pm 2.8\%$, $p<0.05$). At 60 minutes, isoprenaline treated atria recovery ($75.8\pm 16.6\%$) was significantly ($p<0.05$) greater than controls ($47.9\pm 2.3\%$). Propranolol (10^{-6} M) abolished both effects.

Therefore, both IPC and β -adrenoceptor agonist-induced improvement of contractile recovery was propranolol-sensitive and β -adrenoceptor mediated.

Keywords: β -adrenoceptor; Cardioprotection; Heart; Ischaemia/reperfusion; Preconditioning; Rat.

Abbreviations: β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning, β P; Ischaemic Preconditioning, IPC; Propranolol, Pro; Protein kinase A, PkA

Introduction

Ischaemic preconditioning is an extremely powerful cardioprotective phenomenon whereby transient periods of ischaemia protect the heart against later more severe ischaemic insult. The phenomenon, first discovered by Reimer's group (Murry et al. 1986) protects the heart against arrhythmias (Ravingerová et al. 2002) and importantly prevents lethal cell injury and reduces infarct size (Jennings 1996). However, controversy exists as to whether preconditioning reduces stunning (contractile dysfunction of a reversible nature) (Jennings 1996). Whilst the salutatory effects of preconditioning are undoubted, induction of ischaemia is impractical for widespread use in the clinic, thus attempts have been made to understand the mechanisms behind this protective phenomenon in order that it can be replicated pharmacologically.

Several groups (Frances et al. 2003; Lange et al. 2006a; Lochner et al. 1999; Marais et al. 2001; Moolman et al. 2006a; Moolman et al. 2006b; Nasa et al. 1997; Robinet et al. 2005; Tong et al. 2005; Yabe et al. 1998). including ourselves (Yates et al. 2003) have demonstrated that a preconditioning-like adapted state can be induced by transient pre-treatment with an agonist of the β -adrenoceptor. However it is unclear whether or not ischaemic preconditioning is dependent on β -adrenoceptor activation (Frances et al. 2003; Iliodromitis et al. 2004; Spear et al. 2007; Tong et al. 2005).

Much of this work has been carried out using the Langendorff perfused heart, an excellent model for studying ischaemic damage and reperfusion injury, as both functional data and infarct-size data can be obtained. However, results obtained from isolated hearts and indeed *in vivo* procedures are complicated by the fact that activation of β_2 -adrenoceptors in the coronary vasculature, leads to coronary vasodilatation (Tune et al. 2004). Activation of β -adrenoceptors in the heart also results in a positive chronotropic

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3 response (Ahlquist, 1948) which may be another confounding factor unless rate is held
4 constant by electrically pacing the preparations.
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10 We therefore utilised electrically paced isolated cardiac tissues which allowed us to study
11 the direct effects of ischaemic preconditioning and drug treatment on contractile function
12 in different regions of the heart. As this model does not involve coronary flow, then true
13 ischaemia cannot be induced, however ischaemia was simulated by using a hypoxic
14 buffer containing no glucose. Reperfusion was simulated by replacing normal buffer and
15 reoxygenating the tissues.
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24 It was therefore our aim to test the hypothesis that ischaemic preconditioning and β -
25 adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning could be demonstrated in isolated paced cardiac
26 tissues which provide a coronary-vascular-independent model of myocardial ischaemia.
27 One would expect β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning to be susceptible to a β -
28 adrenoceptor antagonist, however we also aimed to test the hypothesis that ischaemic
29 preconditioning is dependent on β -adrenoceptor activation by endogenously released
30 catecholamines in this model.
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41 **Methods**

42 **Atrial preparations**

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45 Male Sprague-Dawley rats (Harlan, Bicester, U.K.) were used throughout and weighed
46 250-350g at the time of killing. These studies complied with the guidelines for the care
47 and use of laboratory animals according to the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986.
48 Rats were killed by a blow to the head followed by cervical dislocation. The abdominal
49 cavity was opened using curved scissors and lateral incisions were made on each side of
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3 the rib cage to expose the heart. The pericardium was removed and the heart was clamped
4 at the apex using a pair of Spencer-Wells forceps. The left atrial appendage was lifted
5 using curved forceps and a 5-0 suture was inserted through the tip and tied off for
6 attachment to an isometric transducer (Pioden dynamometer UF1 range ± 55 g). Another
7 suture was inserted at the atrioventricular junction for securing the tissue to a bipolar
8 platinum electrode. The atrial appendage was then cut free from the ventricle and
9 immediately immersed in ice-cold Krebs' solution (composition (in mM): NaCl 118.4;
10 MgSO₄ 1.2; KCl 4.7; CaCl₂.6H₂O 2.5; KH₂PO₄ 1.2; NaHCO₃ 25.0 and glucose 11.7)
11 gassed with 95% O₂ in CO₂. A suture was then inserted into the apical end of the right
12 ventricular muscle and tied off for attachment to an isometric transducer. A strip
13 approximately 4 mm wide and 20 mm long was then cut by dissecting up to the
14 atrioventricular border where another suture was passed through the tissue for attaching
15 the tissue to an electrode. Both tissues were submerged in ice-cold Krebs' whilst they
16 were being tied on to the electrodes before being transferred to a 20 ml organ bath
17 containing Krebs solution at 37°C gassed with 5% CO₂ in O₂. Contractile tension was
18 measured via transducers, the signal was amplified using a Grass model 79D EEG
19 polygraph data recording system (Grass instrument Co. Quincy, Mass., U.S.A.),
20 converted from analogue to digital data using a Powerlab 200 (ADInstruments), and
21 passed to a computer. Data were recorded at a sampling frequency 200 Hz using Chart
22 v.4.1.1 software (ADInstruments). The apparatus was adjusted so that there was an initial
23 resting tension of 1 ± 0.1 g on atrial preparations and 1.5 ± 0.1 g on ventricles. Both tissues
24 received punctuate electrical stimulation via a bipolar platinum electrode at 2Hz and
25 150% of the threshold voltage required to cause contraction. All preparations were left
26 for one hour to stabilise, during which time they were frequently washed.
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49 After the stabilisation period, the tissues were randomised to one of the following
50 treatment groups (Fig. 1). *Control*; tissues underwent a further thirty minutes normoxia,
51 followed by 30 minutes simulated ischaemia, achieved by bathing the tissues in glucose-
52 free Krebs' and gassing with 5% CO₂ in N₂. Glucose-free Krebs' contained choline
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3 chloride 7mM in order to maintain osmolarity (Carr et al. 1997). Normoxic glucose-
4 containing Krebs' was then restored and the contractile function of the tissues was
5 monitored for one hour, during which time the Krebs' was replaced every fifteen minutes.
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8 *Ischaemic preconditioning* (IPC); tissues underwent ten minutes of simulated ischaemia
9 and ten minutes normal oxygenation prior to the index ischaemia. *Ischaemic*
10 *preconditioning in the presence of propranolol* (IPC + Pro). Ischaemic preconditioning
11 was performed as described as above, in the presence of 10^{-6} M propranolol which was
12 added twenty-five minutes prior to the preconditioning ischaemia and maintained
13 throughout simulated ischaemia and throughout the experiment after reoxygenation and
14 glucose replacement. *β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning* (β P). Tissues were
15 exposed to isoprenaline (10^{-6} M) under normoxic conditions for 10 minutes, followed by
16 washout. Simulated ischaemia began twenty minutes later. *β -adrenoceptor-mediated*
17 *preconditioning in the presence of propranolol* (β P + Pro). Tissues were exposed to
18 propranolol (10^{-6} M) for fifteen minutes prior to isoprenaline treatment as described
19 above. Propranolol was maintained throughout the experiment. The protocols for
20 ischaemic and pharmacological preconditioning were chosen based on preliminary data
21 to find the optimum protocols for protection in this model.
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34 The tissues were washed by replacing the Krebs' solution with fresh warmed oxygenated
35 Krebs' three times. Tissues were paced throughout the experiment using a Grass S48
36 stimulator (Grass instrument Co. Quincy, Mass., U.S.A.) with threshold voltage + 50%
37 (typically 1-5 V) at 2 Hz .
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45 Materials

46 All Krebs' components and ascorbic acid were purchased from Fisher Scientific
47 (Loughborough, UK). (-)-Isoprenaline (+)-bitartrate and (\pm)-propranolol were obtained
48 from Sigma Aldrich (Poole, UK). Drugs were prepared daily as fresh solutions in distilled
49 water.
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Data analysis

Prism version 4.02 for windows (GraphPad Software, Inc) was used for production of graphs and statistical analyses. Tension was monitored continuously, enabling calculation of diastolic (baseline) and developed tension. The degree of ischaemic contracture was quantified by measuring the increase in diastolic tension during simulated ischaemia at its maximum point (Fig. 2). The time taken to reach maximal contracture was also recorded. Cardiac function was assessed at fifteen and sixty minutes post reoxygenation. Developed tension at these time points was calculated as a percentage of developed tension at the end of the stabilization period for each preparation. Groups of data were compared by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's *post hoc* test.

Results

Effect of simulated ischaemia on contractile function

In control preparations in both atria and ventricles, simulated ischaemia led to a rapid reduction in developed tension, which fell to near-zero levels after five minutes. Diastolic tension rose during simulated ischaemia reaching a maximum between 20 and 25 minutes and fell thereafter. Maximum contracture was $0.65 \pm 0.1\text{g}$ in atria and $1.94 \pm 0.18\text{ g}$ in ventricles. Upon reoxygenation, recovery of developed tension occurred rapidly during the first 15 minutes, and more slowly thereafter (Fig. 2). Therefore we chose to compare contractile function at 15 and 60 minutes post-reoxygenation.

Effects of ischaemic and β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning on ischaemic contracture

Ischaemic preconditioning in ventricular tissues led to a significant ($p < 0.05$) reduction in maximal ischaemic contracture from $1.95 \pm 0.18\text{g}$ in controls to $0.92 \pm 0.28\text{g}$. A similar trend was evident in atrial tissues although this did not reach significance. β -Adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning did not alter the maximal contracture compared with controls (Fig. 3).

Ischaemic preconditioning led to a significant ($p < 0.01$) reduction in the time taken to achieve maximal contracture in ventricular tissue from 22.5 ± 3.5 minutes in controls to 16.3 ± 1.5 minutes. β -Adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning did not alter the time taken to reach maximal contracture (Fig. 4).

Propranolol alone had no significant effect on either the magnitude of the maximal contracture, or the time taken to achieve this contracture. When ischaemic preconditioning was carried out in the presence of propranolol, the magnitude of ischaemic contracture was neither significantly different from control nor preconditioned ventricular tissues. In atria, however, the combination of ischaemic preconditioning and propranolol led to an ischaemic contracture of $1.58 \pm 0.36\text{g}$ which was significantly ($p < 0.001$) greater than either control atria or those which had undergone ischaemic preconditioning.

Effects of ischaemic preconditioning on contractile recovery

The timecourse of developed tension in atria and ventricles is shown in Figure 5.

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Ischaemic preconditioning led to an improved recovery of developed tension in both atrial and ventricular preparations compared with controls (Fig. 5). The improvement in recovery was significant at fifteen minutes after reoxygenation (Fig. 6). By this time point, developed tension in control (untreated) atrial tissues had recovered to 29.3 ± 1.7 % of the pre-ischaemic developed tension. Recovery of function was significantly ($p < 0.05$) improved to 47.0 ± 4.0 % in tissues that had undergone ischaemic preconditioning. When ischaemic preconditioning was carried out in the presence of propranolol, the protective effect was lost. Tissues thus treated recovered to 26.4 ± 5.1 % which was not significantly different from control, but was significantly ($p < 0.01$) smaller than after ischaemic preconditioning without propranolol. Propranolol alone had no significant effect on the recovery of tissues (Fig. 6a).

A similar picture was observed in ventricular tissues. Untreated tissues recovered to 22.4 ± 2.8 % of pre-ischaemic values in the first fifteen minutes of reoxygenation. Ischaemic preconditioning significantly ($p < 0.05$) increased this value to 39.0 ± 5.2 %. Propranolol had no significant effect on recovery when given alone, however when combined with ischaemic preconditioning, recovery at this time point was significantly ($p < 0.01$) less than ischaemic preconditioning alone, and not significantly different from control (Fig. 6b).

By 60 minutes after reoxygenation, however, the beneficial effect of ischaemic preconditioning upon recovery was lost (Fig. 7).

Effect of β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning on contractile recovery

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Recovery of developed tension in tissues which had received a preconditioning exposure of isoprenaline was not different from control in either tissue at 15 minutes after reoxygenation (Fig. 6). However, after 60 minutes reoxygenation in atria, the isoprenaline treated tissues had recovered to $75.8 \pm 16.6\%$ (Fig. 7a), significantly ($p < 0.05$) greater than controls which recovered to $47.9 \pm 2.3\%$. This increase was blocked in propranolol treated tissues to $44.0 \pm 3.0\%$ which was significantly ($p < 0.05$) smaller than isoprenaline preconditioned tissues, and not significantly different from controls. Propranolol alone had no significant effect on recovery at this time point (Fig. 7a). Isoprenaline treatment did not improve recovery of function in ventricular tissue at either 15 or 60 minutes (Figs. 6b and 7b).

Discussion

We have demonstrated cardioprotection by ischaemic preconditioning in both atria and ventricles. This was manifest by improved functional recovery at 15 minutes after reoxygenation in preconditioned tissues compared with control. Pretreatment of atrial tissues with the non-selective β -adrenoceptor agonist isoprenaline, also resulted in improved functional recovery, although this was manifest later, 60 minutes after reoxygenation. The failure of β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning to protect ventricular tissue in this model is unlikely to reflect the fact that ventricular tissue cannot be preconditioned by β -adrenoceptor activation, because isolated whole-heart models have demonstrated that post ischaemic cardiac function can be improved by β -adrenoceptor preconditioning (Frances et al. 2003), a fact which would necessitate a protective effect on the left ventricle. Thus, the failure to demonstrate protection in this study either reveals a peculiarity of this model or of the right ventricle.

It has been suggested that ischaemia-induced release of catecholamines in the heart is a mechanism by which ischaemic preconditioning induces a protective state (Broadley and

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Penson 2004). Catecholamine release and subsequent activation of β -adrenoceptors has also been implicated in the mechanism of cardioprotection achieved by administration of opioids (β_2) (Huang et al. 2007) and anaesthetics (β_1) (Lange et al. 2006b). However, controversy remains as to whether activation of β -adrenoceptors is an essential part of ischaemic preconditioning, or whether there are redundancies in the pathway which leads to protection. – that is to say, that preconditioning could be activated by β -adrenoceptors, but equally well by unrelated receptors. In the isolated rat heart, depletion of endogenous catecholamines by reserpine does not affect the improved functional recovery or reduction in markers of cell death (creatin kinase and lactate dehydrogenase) in hearts that had undergone ischaemic preconditioning (Frances et al. 2003; Weselcouch et al. 1995). In rabbits *in vivo*, it has been demonstrated that blockade of β_1 -adrenoceptors by esmolol had no effect on the infarct-size limitation afforded by ischaemic preconditioning (Iliodromitis et al. 2004). However, a study in Langendorff perfused rabbit hearts showed protection of ischaemic preconditioning against necrosis was blocked by the β_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist CGP-20712A (Spear et al. 2007). In a mouse Langendorff model, preconditioning protection (improved functional recovery and reduced infarct size) was abolished in knockout animals lacking the β_2 -adrenoceptor (Tong et al. 2005). It would seem likely that the reliance of ischaemic preconditioning on β -adrenoceptor activation varies between species and indeed different models, and the varying conditions and endpoints used in studies account for the apparently contradictory results observed.

A number of other endogenous mediators have been demonstrated to mimic preconditioning, including adenosine (Carr et al. 1997), nitric oxide (Cohen et al. 2006), opioids (Schultz et al. 1995, 1996) and anaesthetics (Cason et al. 1997). Thus, preconditioning may be triggered by a number of independent mechanisms. This is an important question in the clinic, where β -adrenoceptor antagonists are administered for the treatment of angina, hypertension and heart failure (Mehta 2006). Ischaemic preconditioning can be used as a protective strategy prior to cardiac surgery. It is thought that angina attacks may also induce preconditioning that can be protective against the damage sustained during a later myocardial infarction (Kloner and Rezkalla 2006).

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3 Therefore it is important to understand how these protective phenomena may be modified
4 by commonly used β -blocking medication.
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10 It is possible that positive inotropes such as isoprenaline could result in preconditioning
11 by causing the energy demands of the tissue to exceed the capacity of diffusion to supply
12 the substrates, and remove the waste products of metabolism. Indeed, it has been noted
13 that rapid pacing of the heart can mimic preconditioning by inducing ischaemia (Vegh et
14 al. 1991). Such an effect might be exaggerated in a model such as we used, in which there
15 is no flow of buffer through blood vessels in the tissue, and the core of the preparation is
16 entirely dependent on diffusion to receive oxygen and nutrients. However, there is a large
17 body of evidence, from *in vivo* and Langendorff isolated heart experiments, in which the
18 myocardium is inevitably better supplied with perfusate via the coronary vasculature and
19 are therefore less dependent on diffusion, that activation of protein kinases cascades as a
20 result of β -adrenoceptor activation results in the heart undergoing adaptive changes and
21 becoming resistant to later ischaemic damage. Protein kinase A (PKA) has often been
22 implicated in the preconditioning achieved by β -adrenoceptor agonists (Lochner et al.
23 1999; Robinet et al. 2005). This is to be expected, as cAMP is also an essential mediator
24 in classic β -adrenoceptor signalling leading to positive inotropic and chronotropic effects
25 of β -adrenoceptor agonists (May et al. 1985).
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In this study, the beneficial effects of ischaemic preconditioning on post-ischaemic
recovery were blocked by the non-selective β -adrenoceptor antagonist, propranolol,
suggesting an important role for β -adrenoceptors in ischaemic preconditioning in this
model. However, the timecourses of β -adrenoceptor-mediated and ischaemic
preconditioning were different; ischaemic preconditioning led to improved contractile
function early after reoxygenation (15 minutes) but not after 60 minutes. At this later time
point, however, β -adrenoceptor agonist pretreatment led to improved function.
Furthermore, tissues preconditioned by ischaemia and by β -adrenoceptor stimulation

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3 behaved differently from one another during ischaemia. Ischaemic preconditioning led to
4 a reduction in the magnitude of ischaemic contracture which is consistent with a
5 protective effect. Ischaemic contracture is of the rigor type, and develops under
6 conditions where ATP concentrations are insufficiently high to break actin-myosin cross-
7 links (Piper et al. 2003). Rigor contracture can lead to cytoskeletal damage and thus any
8 reduction in the magnitude of contracture is likely to be protective. In contrast, β -
9 adrenoceptor stimulation by isoprenaline did not reduce the magnitude of contracture in
10 either atria or ventricles even in tissues where there was improved recovery at 60
11 minutes. Thus, ischaemic preconditioning may involve wider ranging beneficial effects
12 than those seen with β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning.
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24 In agreement with studies in whole hearts (Kolocassides et al. 1995), ischaemic
25 preconditioning in ventricular preparations reduced the time taken to achieve maximum
26 contracture. It is difficult to make predictions on the recovery of ischaemic tissues based
27 on the profile of ischaemic contracture (Pantos et al. 2006). However, the difference seen
28 in these experiments between ischaemic- and β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning
29 suggest that different mechanisms may be involved in each.
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This study is limited by the fact that it was not possible to measure infarct size in this
model. Thus, we were unable to distinguish between functional impairment as a result of
cell death and reversible contractile dysfunction (stunning). Additionally, the model uses
atrial appendage tissue and right ventricular strips rather than left ventricle which is of
more functional importance. However, these tissues were chosen because of their thin
walls, in order to minimise diffusional limitations into the tissue. We believe that these
preparations provide a convenient model for studying the functional implications of
interventions before, during and after simulated ischaemia. Additionally, our use of a
non-selective β -adrenoceptor agonist and antagonist do not enable us to identify which

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3 receptor subtype is involved in the protection seen, which future studies will examine in
4 more detail.
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11 In conclusion, we have demonstrated that isolated left atria and right ventricles can be
12 used as a convenient model of ischaemic and pharmacological preconditioning.
13 Ischaemic- and β -adrenoceptor-mediated preconditioning both led to an improvement in
14 post ischaemic contractile function. The protective effects in both cases were abrogated
15 by propranolol. However, the timecourse of protection during ischaemia and
16 reoxygenation was different in each case suggesting that ischaemic preconditioning
17 involved more complex mechanisms than the simple release of catecholamines and
18 subsequent signalling activation of β -adrenoceptors. We believe that simulated ischaemia
19 in isolated cardiac tissues, as used in this model, represents an important and valid
20 technique for exploring the effects of interventions upon ischaemic contracture and post-
21 ischaemic contractile dysfunction. In terms of physiological relevance, this model falls
22 between isolated whole hearts and cell culture, but is not subject to the problems of cell
23 differentiation seen in culture and is not complicated by the effects upon coronary flow
24 which would be expected when β -adrenoceptor agonists are administered in a
25 Langendorff heart preparation. Indeed, the effects seen in this model must occur at the
26 level of the myocardium. The most clinically relevant finding of this study was that the
27 functional improvements of ischaemic preconditioning were blocked by propranolol. This
28 finding mirrors the result of other studies (Spear et al. 2007; Tong et al. 2005) in which β -
29 adrenoceptor activation has been shown necessary for the protection by ischaemic
30 preconditioning. However, in our study, the protective effect must be at the level of the
31 myocardium. This requires further investigation *in vivo* and *in vitro* of the β -adrenoceptor
32 subtypes that are involved because many patients with cardiovascular diseases take β -
33 adrenoceptor antagonists which may have the potential to abrogate the effects of
34 ischaemic preconditioning induced prior to cardiac surgery (Laskey 2005) or as a result
35 of angina attacks (Kloner and Rezkalla 2006) .
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Acknowledgement

This work was funded by a British Heart Foundation Studentship (FS-05-075-19397) awarded to P.E.P. for which the authors are grateful.

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Figures

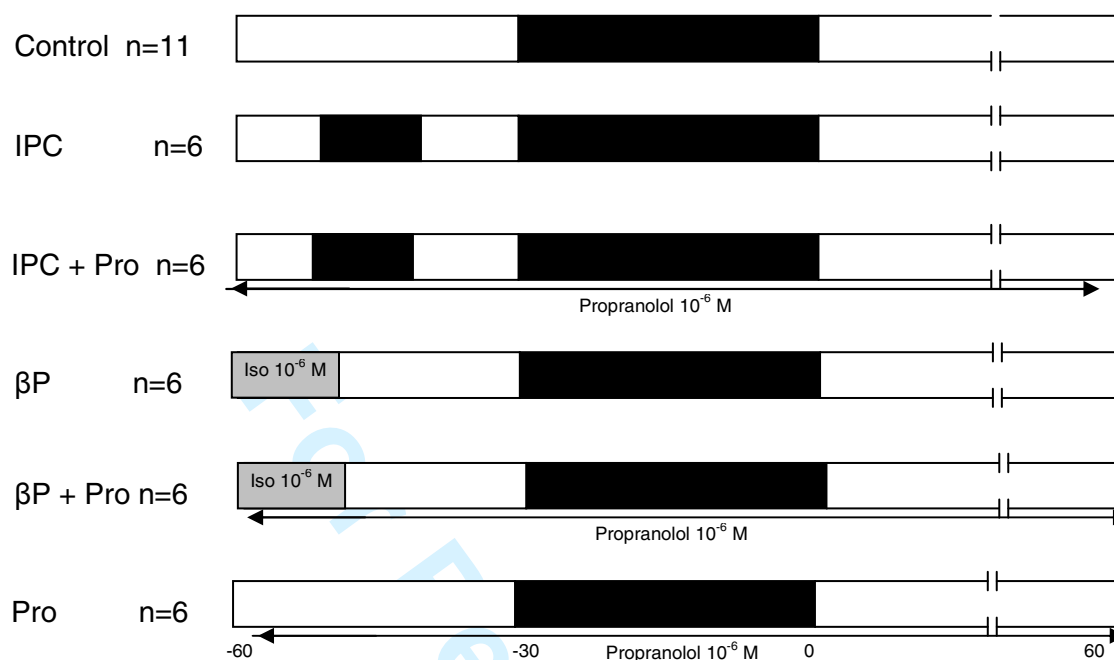


Fig. 1 Experimental Protocols. Time (minutes) is shown along the abscissa with the point of reoxygenation designated 0. White regions correspond to normoxic conditions, black simulated simulated ischaemia and grey, drug treatment.

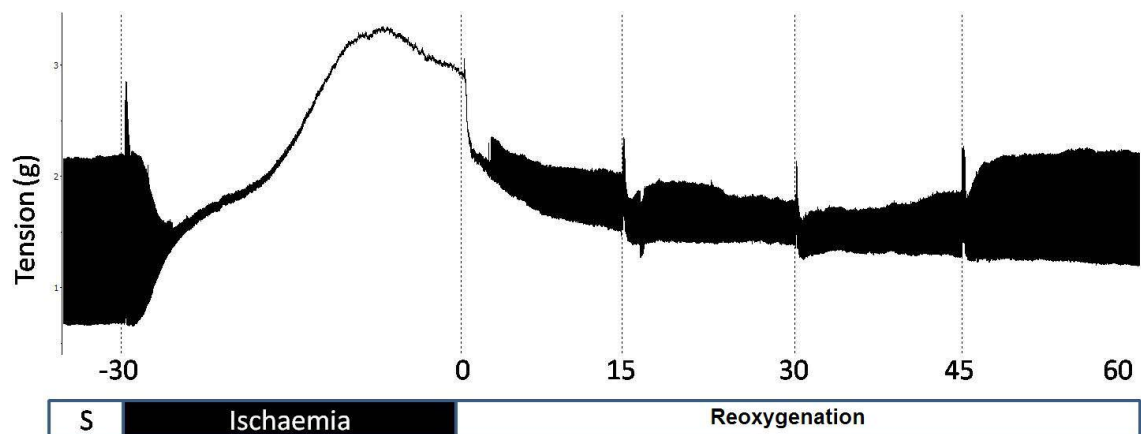
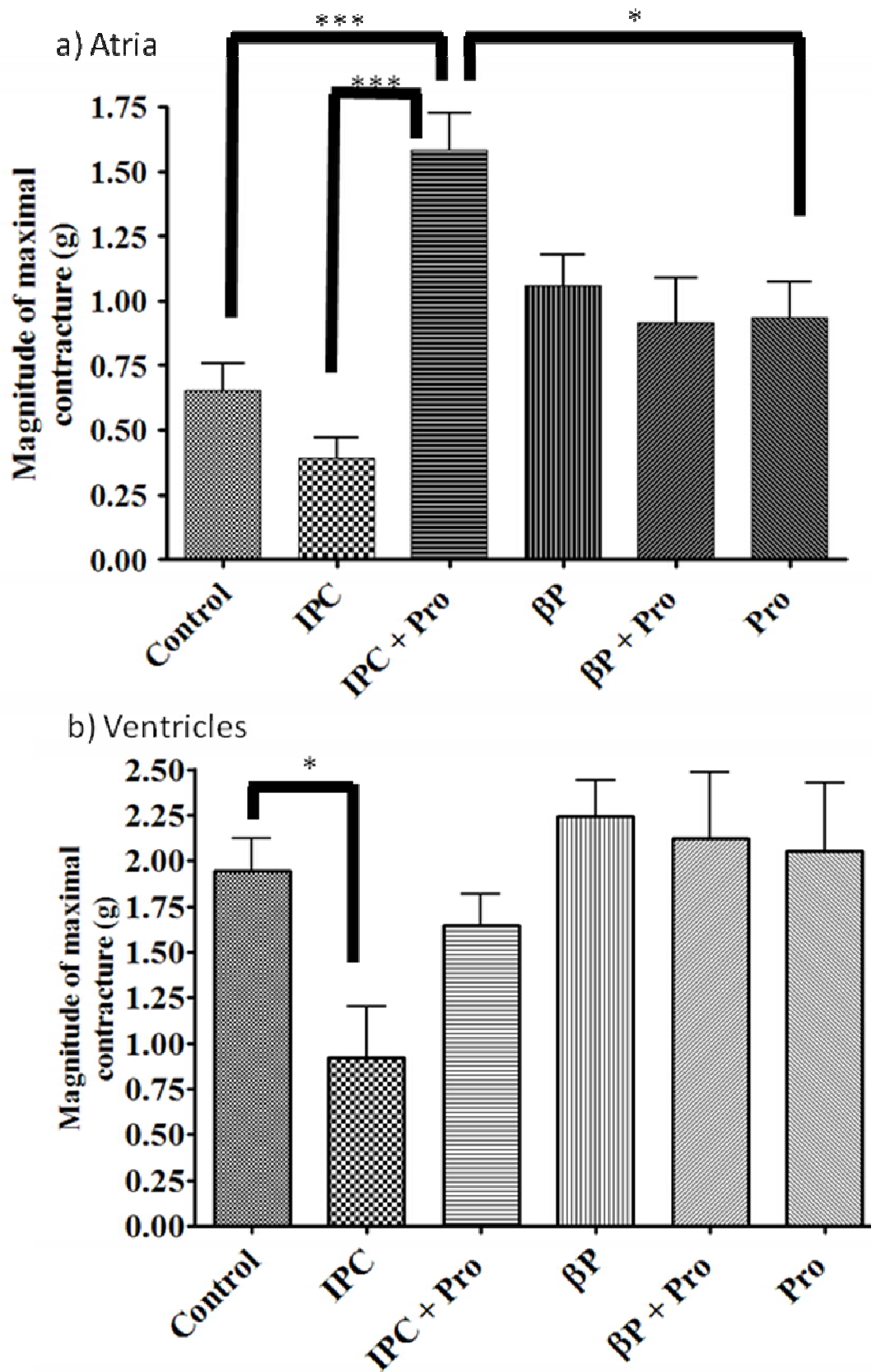
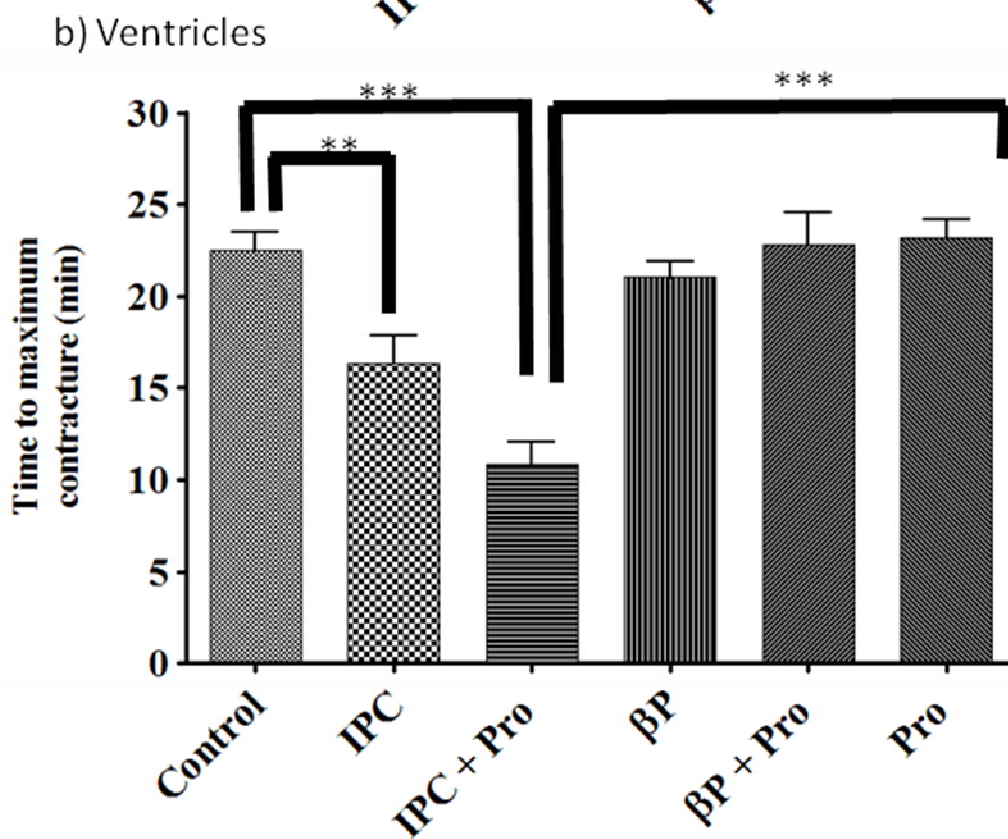
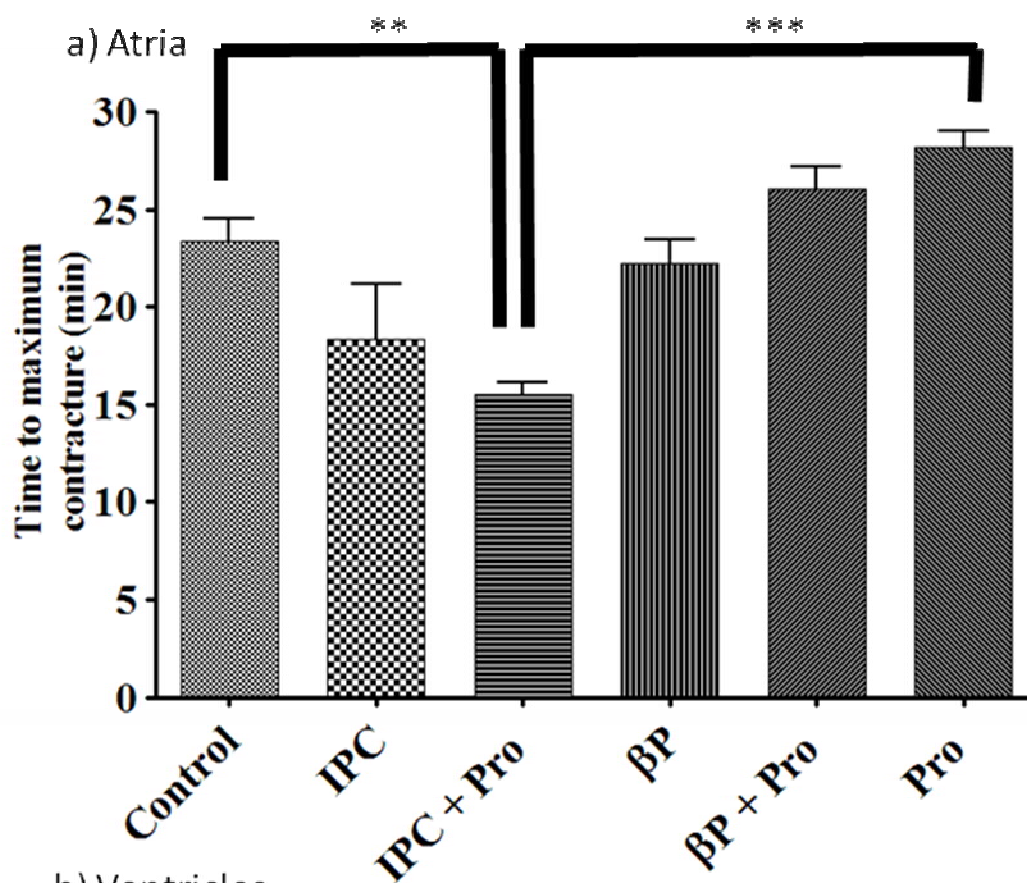


Fig. 2 A representative trace from a ventricular preparation exposed to simulated ischaemia and reoxygenation. S represents the final minutes of the stabilisation period. Time (minutes) from reoxygenation are shown along the abscissa. Note the rapid fall in developed tension during simulated ischaemia and the increased diastolic tension indicating ischaemic contracture. Diastolic and developed tension both recover rapidly over the first 15 minutes of reoxygenation and more slowly thereafter.



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3 **Fig. 3** Mean (\pm SEM) magnitude of ischaemic contracture (maximum increase in
4 diastolic tension (g) during simulated ischaemia) in a) atria and b) ventricular strips. *
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6 indicates $p < 0.05$; *** indicates $p < 0.001$
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3 **Fig. 4** Mean (\pm SEM) time (minutes) into simulated ischaemia at which maximum
4 contracture was reached in a) atria and b) ventricular strips. ** indicates $p < 0.01$; ***
5 indicates $p < 0.001$.
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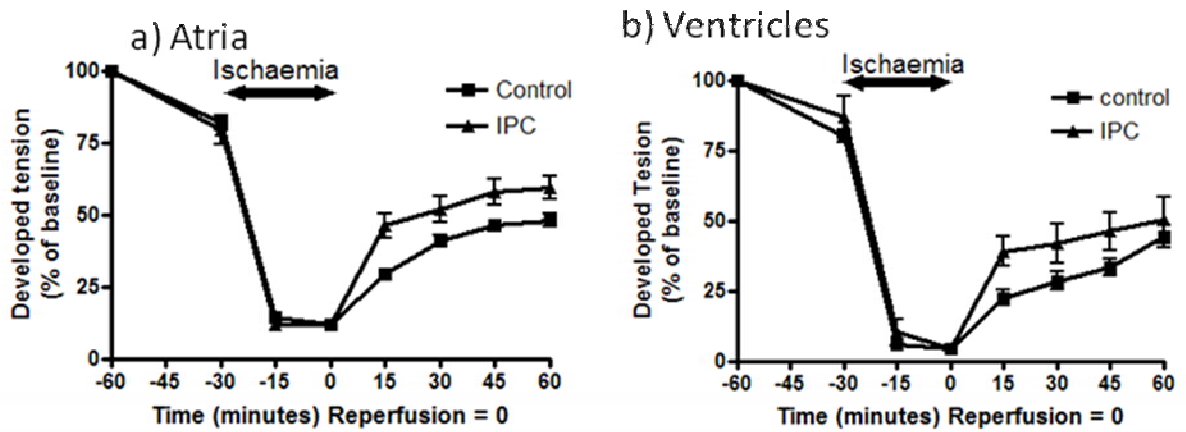
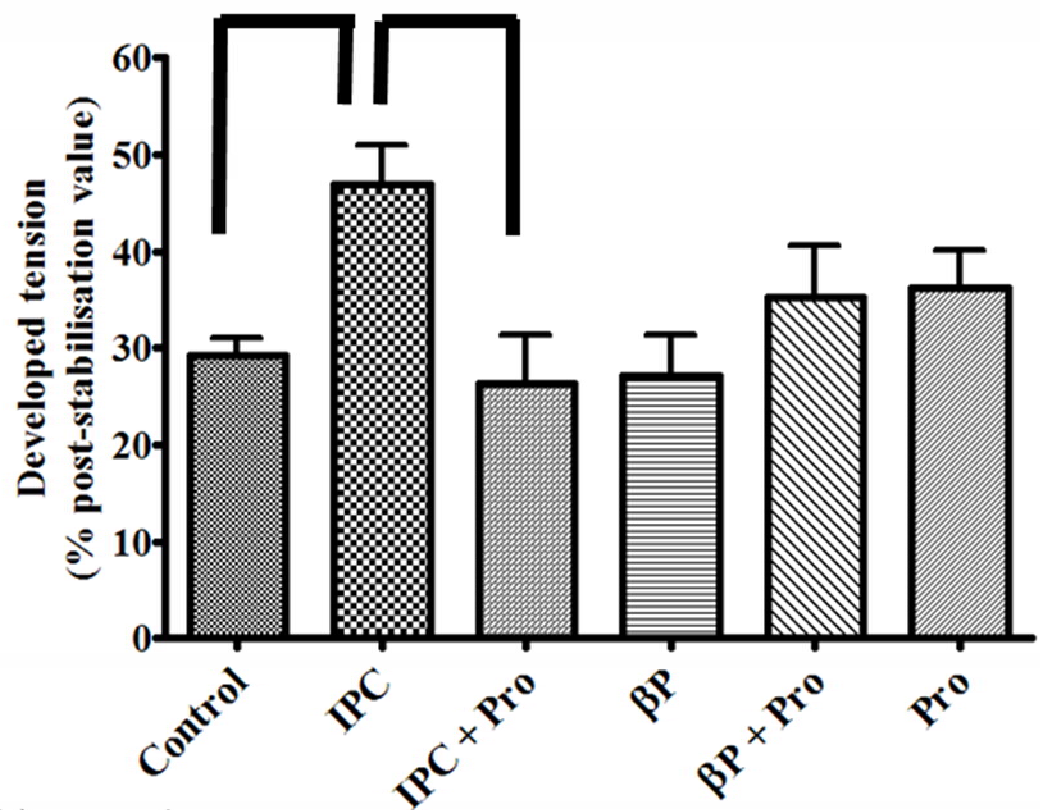


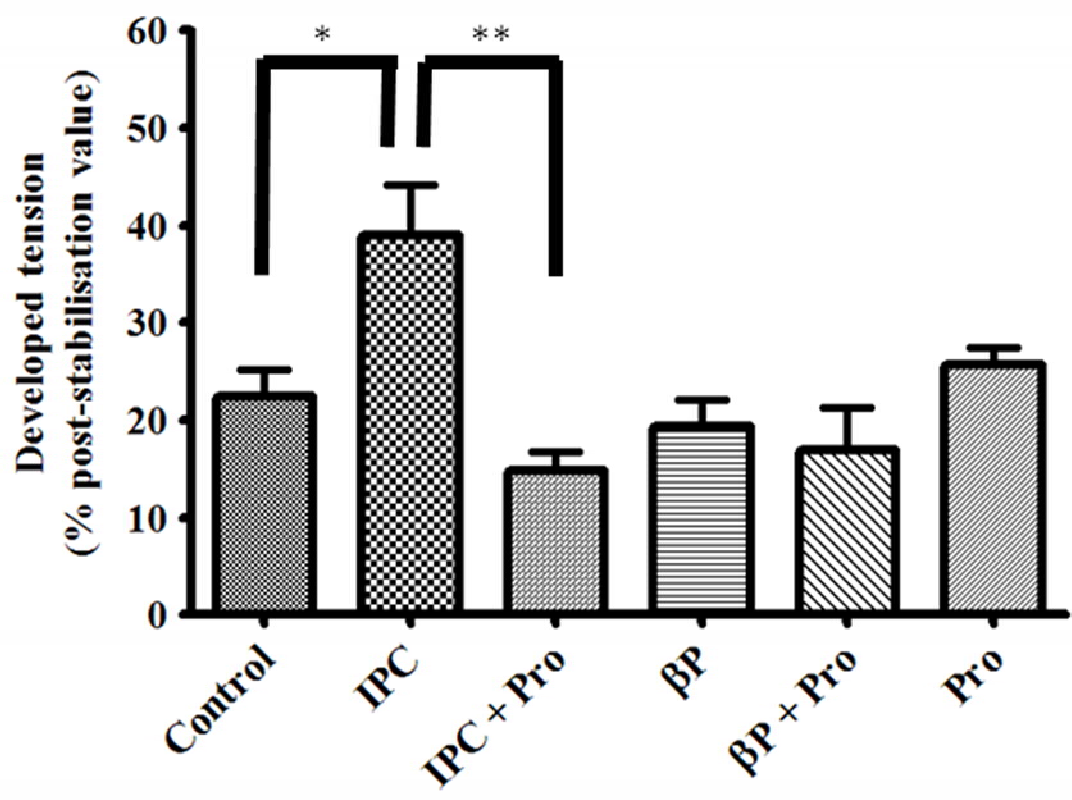
Fig. 5 Timecourse of developed tension throughout ischaemia and reperfusion in control and ischaemic pre-conditioned (IPC) tissues in a) atria and b) ventricles. Mean developed tension (\pm SEM) is expressed as a percentage of the developed tension achieved at the end of the stabilisation period.

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a) Atria



b) Ventricles



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3 **Fig. 6** Mean developed tension (\pm SEM) after 15 minutes reoxygenation in a) atria and
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6 b) ventricular strips. Developed tension is expressed as a percentage of the developed
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8 tension achieved at the end of the stabilisation period. * indicates $p < 0.05$; ** indicates
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10 $p < 0.01$.
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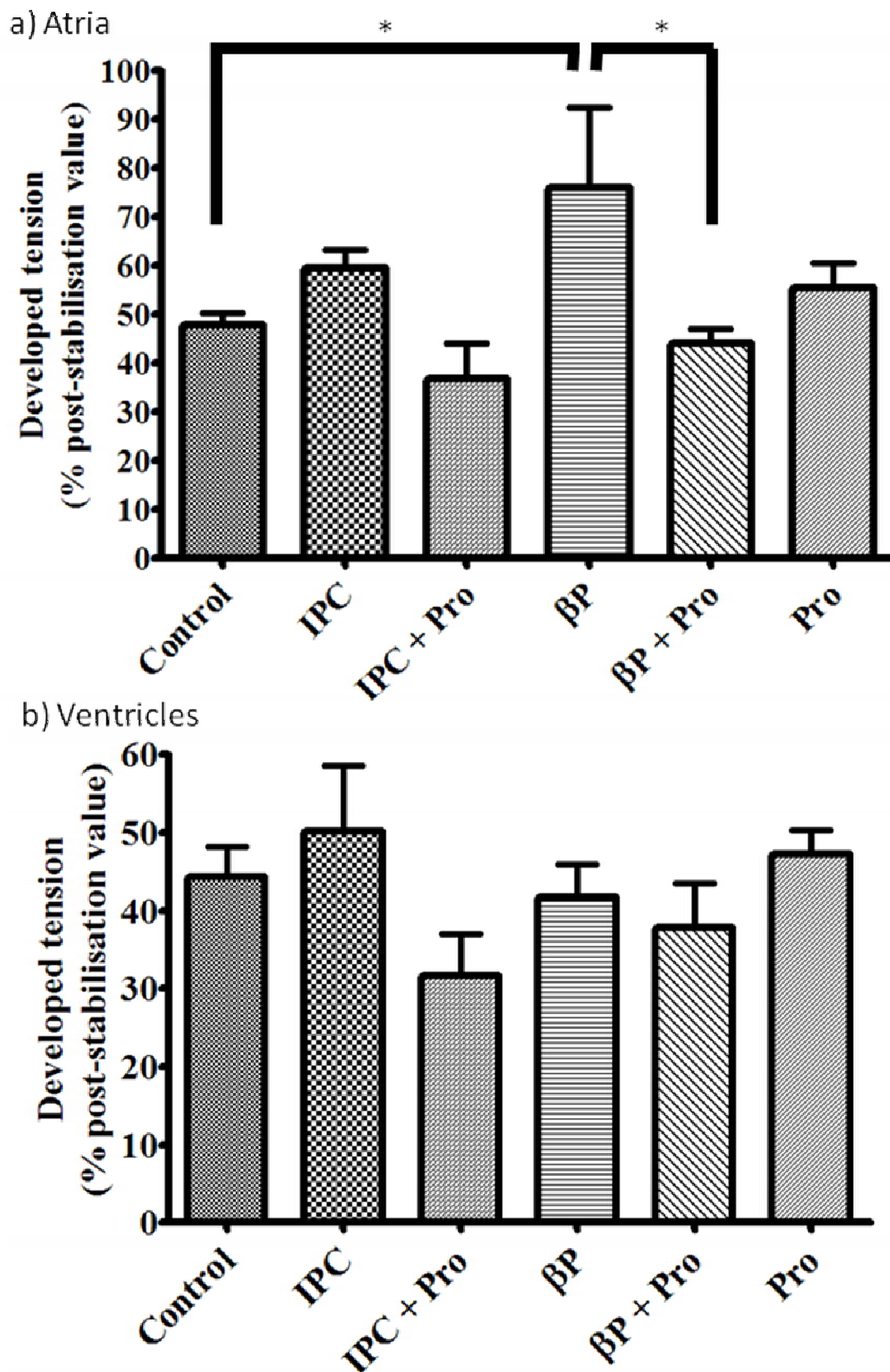


Fig. 7 Mean developed tension (\pm SEM) after 60 minutes reoxygenation in a) atria and

b) ventricular strips. Developed tension is expressed as a percentage of the developed tension achieved at the end of the stabilisation period. * indicates $p < 0.05$.

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