#### MINIREVIEW

# Isoforms of Troponin in Normal and Diseased Myocardium

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#### Summary

The regulatory protein troponin (Tn) located on actin filament consists of three subunits: TnT - binds troponin to tropomyosin, TnC - binds divalent calcium ions, and TnI - affects myosin-actin interactions. Tn subunits display several molecular and calcium binding variations. During ontogenetic development of cardiac and skeletal muscles the synthesis of multiple isoforms of Tn subunits was detected. Expression of Tn isoforms and the extent of phosphorylation of both TnT and TnI via protein kinase C or protein kinase A under different pathological situations (e.g. ischemia, congenital heart disease, heart failure) can affect the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-stimulated contraction function and the myofibrillar ATPase activity of the heart.

#### Key words

Troponin • Isoforms of troponin • Myocardium • Heart failure • Congenital heart disease • Ontogeny

#### Introduction

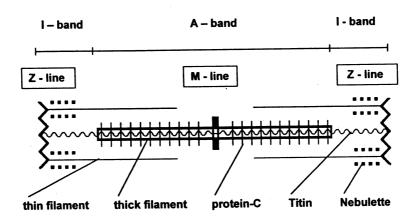
The contractility of skeletal and cardiac muscles is determined by the interaction of contractile proteins (actin and myosin) and regulatory proteins (troponin and tropomyosin) in the presence of calcium ions and ATP; binding of Ca-ions to regulatory proteins (tropomyosintroponin complex) enhances the ATPase-activity of the actomyosin complex (AM). Furthermore, the structure of individual proteins of AM is affected by the modulatory proteins of myofibrils (C-, F-, M-proteins, myomesin, actinins, titin, CapZ protein, nebulette) and by the extracellular matrix proteins (different types of interstitial components collagens, glycoproteins,

glycosaminoglycans, elastins) (Pollack 1990, Pelouch et al. 1993, Malhotra 1994, Pelouch 1995, Schaub et al. 1997, 1998). Extracellular proteins affect the deposition of individual contractile proteins during perinatal development of myofibrils. Moreover, these collagenous proteins play a role during remodeling of muscle fibers under different pathological conditions. It has been demonstrated that treatment of embryonic cardiomyocytes cis-hydroxy-L-proline ethyl-3,4dihydroxybenzoate disrupt myofibrillogenesis (Fisher and Periasamy 1994). Furthermore, these inhibitors of collagen synthesis alter the expression of muscle specific genes. Therefore, collagen synthesis plays an essential role in maintaining the differentiated phenotype of

cardiomyocytes not only during normal development but also during protein remodeling under different pathological conditions.

Regulatory proteins (RP) are responsible for both transducing the effect of calcium ions on the contractile machinery and modulation of molecular interactions between myosin and actin filaments. They serve a dual role: in the presence of calcium ions, RP transform the effect of these divalent ions on the activation of the contractile machinery, while in the absence of calcium ions, RP inhibit myosin-actin interaction by blocking the attachment of myosin cross-bridges to actin. RP are composed of troponin (Tn) and tropomyosin (Tm). Both Tn and Tm display multiple isoforms which are encoded by distinct genes. They are

tissue-specific and developmentally regulated (Brenner 1991). Whereas the function and structure of both myosin and actin have been the subject of numerous reviews (Swynghedauw 1986, Schaub *et al.* 1998), the structure and different isoforms of Tm-Tn proteins have yet been less studied. There are two isotypes of Tm  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  which were found in both skeletal and cardiac muscles. Their proportion and phosphorylation concern an important molecular mechanism regulating the contractility during the development of muscles and under different pathological conditions (Humphreys and Cummins 1984, Perry 1985). However, this short review analyzes the existing literature on Tn isoforms. Special attention was given to cardiac muscle under physiological condition and in different cardiac diseases.



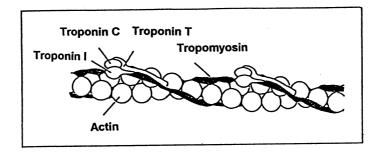


Fig. 1. Upper part: Molecular mechanisms of contraction. Localization of protein in thick (A-band) and thin (I-band) filament: The myosin molecules in the two halves of each thick filament are oriented in opposite direction; C protein, myosin binding proteins, is located at most of transverse stripes; M line is formed from M protein, creatine kinase isoforms and myomesin; Z lines contains many different proteins: such  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -, and  $\gamma$ -actinins, titin is bound by N-terminus to Z line and by C terminus to M line. Nebullete (or nebulin) is part of actin structure in the thin filament. Lower part: Two helical chains of actin molecules form the primary structure of thin filaments; two chains of tropomyosin in a thin filament block cross-bridge binding sites on actin. Molecule of troponin bound to tropomyosin chains has three subunits: troponin C, troponin I and troponin T. For details see text. (Data derived from Pelouch 1995, Schaub et al. 1997, Schaub et al. 1998).

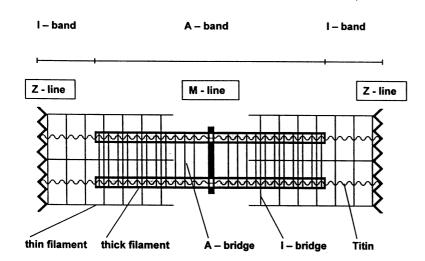
The first report on troponin appeared in 1969 (Ebashi *et al.* 1969). Later, it was discovered that this regulatory protein located on the actin filament (Fig. 1) has three subunits and the nomenclature proposed by Greaser *et al.* (1972) was adopted: troponin T (TnT) – binds Tn subunits to tropomyosin, troponin C (TnC) – binds divalent covalent ions and troponin I (TnI) – affects myosin-actin interactions. It has recently been shown that troponins display several molecular and calcium binding variations described on the basis of antibody studies and molecular cloning (Campbell *et al.* 1992, Schiaffino *et al.* 1993, Farah and Reinach 1995, Townsend *et al.* 1995, Mair 1997).

# Subunits of troponin regulatory complex

Troponin T (m.w. 37-39 kDa) is an asymmetric protein with globular C-terminal domain. It has a binding site for Tm and is thought to be responsible for the binding of Tn molecules to Tm, thereby positioning the complex on the thin filament. It has been demonstrated

that the binding site for both TnI and TnC is at its C-terminus. On the other hand, the binding site for Tm is on its N-terminus (Chen et al. 1997). A new study of the properties of the isolated proteins suggests that an important role of TnT is to change the TnC/TnI complex from a calcium insensitive to a calcium sensitive form in the Mg-ATPase system. It can do this by reducing the binding constant for the TnI/TnC complex in the absence of calcium (Perry 1999).

Troponin C (m.w. 18 kDa) is a dumbbell-shaped protein with two globular heads (N-terminal and C-terminal domains) connected by a long central helix; it belongs to the helix-loop-helix calcium binding protein family. It binds calcium ions which subsequently relieve the inhibition of actin-myosin interaction by inducing a steric shift and reversing the inhibitory activity of TnI. On the basis of recent findings (Solaro 1995, Solaro and Rarick 1998), the control of the actin-myosin formation has been shown to be more complex: interference of all myofibrillar proteins and different covalent and non-covalent mechanisms have to be taken into consideration.



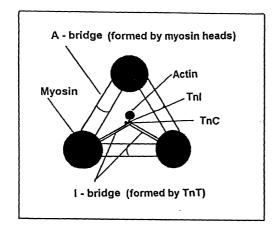


Fig. 2. Structure of both I-band and A-band (for protein composition see Fig. 1 and text). Formation of A-bridges (HMM - myosin heavy chains: head of myosin molecule) and I-bridges (formed by troponin T). For details see text. (Data derived from Pollack 1990 and Wünsch 1992).

Troponin I (TnI, m.w. 24-26.5 kDa) is a key component of the actin-filament regulatory complex. In the absence of calcium ions, TnI interacts with actin and inhibits Mg-ATPase activity of AM. This clearly demonstrates that in some way TnI blocks the interaction of action and myosin that is responsible for activation of Mg-ATPase. It has yet to be determined whether TnI acts directly as inhibitor or indirectly by interacting with associated proteins to facilitate their role in the regulatory system. According to the steric hypothesis, tropomyosin has a direct inhibitory role. Perhaps the most significant property of TnI is its ability to induce different conformational changes in each of the proteins with which it interacts (i.e. actin, tropomyosin, TnC and TnT) in order to facilitate their function. With TnC it increases the affinity for calcium so that this cation effectively triggers contraction (Perry 1999).

# Localization of troponins in sarcomeres

Tn underlies intracellular compartmentation (Katus et al. 1991). There are two pools of Tn: the majority of Tn is myofibril bound (in the thin filaments), the minority of Tn is found as a soluble, cytoplasmic pool, which probably serves as a precursor pool for the synthesis of the Tn complex. The cytoplasmic fraction of cardiac TnT (cTnT) is estimated to be 6 % of total TnT (Katus et al. 1991). However, cytosolic pool for cardiac TnI (cTnI) is only 2.8 % (Mair et al. 1996). However, based on Pollack's new theory, the localization of troponin is more complex (Pollack 1990). TnT forms I-bridges (Fig. 2) that are responsible for the connection between thin filaments (where actin is dominant) and thick filaments (where myosin is dominant).

# Troponin in skeletal and cardiac muscle

The functional differences between various muscle types are based on important structural differences of contractile and regulatory proteins including Tn. However, in smooth muscles, the Tn's are not present, the same functional role being played by calmodulin. As far as striated muscles are concerned, TnT and TnI exist in three different isoforms unique in structure, one for slow-twitch skeletal muscle, one for fast-twitch skeletal muscle and one for the cardiac muscle (Wilkinson and Grand 1978, Pearlstone *et al.* 1986). The three isoforms are encoded by three different genes. TnC has only two isoforms – one specific for fast-twitch skeletal muscles and one that is coexpressed in the myocardium and slow-

twitch skeletal muscles (Pharmacek and Leiden 1991). Recently, the determination of both cardiac TnT and cardiac TnI have been considered to be one of the most specific and sensitive methods for diagnosis of myocardial damage (Mair 1997, Keffer 1996, Adamcová et al. 1995, 1996, 1997). However, TnC can not be used as a marker of cardiac muscle damage.

Cardiac troponin T (cTnT) differs only by the 6-11 amino acid residues from its skeletal muscle isoforms. When comparing the cTnT amino acid sequence with the sequences of both skeletal TnT isoforms, only 10-30 % of its amino acid sequences show a homology with skeletal TnT isoforms (Pearlstone et al. 1986). The human cTnT gene was located on 1q32 (Mesnard et al. 1995).

The human cardiac troponin C (cTnC) gene was located on 3p14.3-p21.3 (Barton et al. 1998). Although 70 % of the cardiac TnC is identical to that of fast skeletal TnC, there are significant differences in the first 40 residues, the most crucial being the inactivation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> binding site I due to an insertion of valine (Val<sup>28</sup>) and substitutions of key ligands relative to skeletal TnC (Leu<sup>29</sup> and Ala<sup>31</sup> in cardiac TnC, instead of Asp<sup>30</sup> and Asp<sup>32</sup> in skeletal TnC). The regulatory domain exists in a closed conformation even in the Ca2+-bound (the on) state, differing significantly from the calcium-induced structure observed in skeletal TnC (Sia et al. 1997). Skeletal TnC binds four calcium ions (two at the high affinity sites III and IV - located at the C-terminal end, two at low affinity sites I and II - located at N-terminal end), while cardiac TnC binds only three calcium ions (two at high affinity sites III and IV and one at the single low affinity site II). The high affinity sites III and IV are located in the C-terminal end (association constant 2.10' and 3.108 M for skeletal and cardiac muscle, respectively), sites II and I are located in the N-terminal end (association constant 2.105 and 2.106 M for skeletal and cardiac muscle, respectively) (Campbell et al. 1992).

Cardiac TnI (cTnI) has an extra 31 amino acid residues at the N-terminus and its amino sequence show about 40 % dissimilarity from both skeletal isoforms (Wilkinson and Grand 1978). The gene of cTnI has been assigned to chromosome 19p13.2–19q13.2 (MacGeoch et al. 1991).

The inhibitory regions of TnI in both cardiac and skeletal muscles are identical - except for a single aminoacid substitution of proline at position 110 in skeletal sequence and for threonine at position 143 in the cardiac sequence; these regions are extremely basic (Campbell *et al.* 1992). The major structural difference between the

slow skeletal and cardiac isoforms is the absence of cardiac-specific amino terminus in the slow skeletal isoform. The amino terminus has an important functional role: in the presence of protein kinase A it could be

phosphorylated. This phosphorylation decreases calcium sensitivity of myofibrils (Holroyde *et al.* 1979, Wattanapermpool *et al.* 1995).

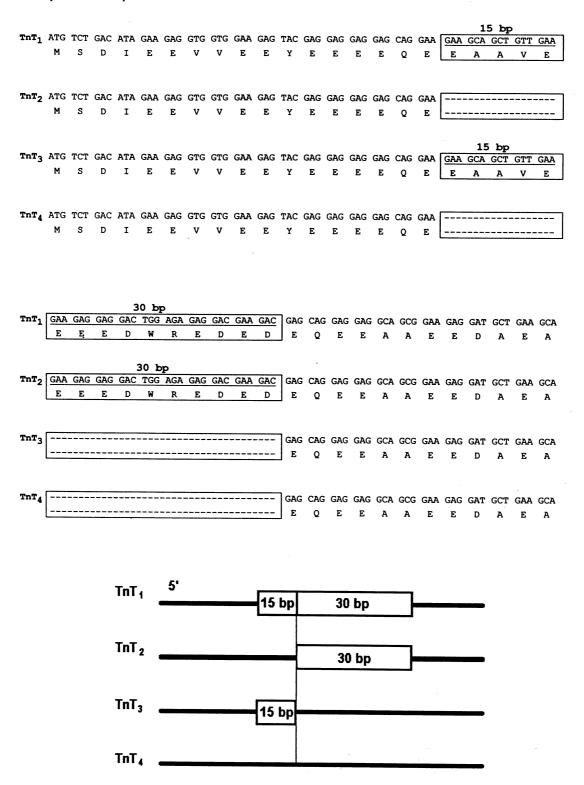


Fig. 3. Upper part: Human cardiac troponin T (TnT) 5'heterogeneity. Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences are shown of the variably included or excluded 15- and 30-nt sequences identified by sequencing reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction products of the 5'end of cardiac TnT cDNA. The sequences were confirmed by sequencing full-length cDNAs. (Data are taken from Anderson et al. 1995). Lower part: Missing 15 base pairs and 30 base pairs sequences of  $TnT_1 - TnT_4$  are schematically shown.

# Isoforms of cardiac troponins

Multiple cTnT isoforms whose expression correlated with ATPase activity of myofibrils, the sensitivity of myofilaments to calcium and also the binding capacity of myofilaments for calcium ions (Saba et al. 1996) are expressed in the mammalian heart (Anderson et al. 1988, Sabry and Dhoot 1989), whereas cTnC (Toyota et al. 1989) and cTnI (Murphy et al. 1991, Hunkeler et al. 1991) are expressed as single isoforms in the adult heart. Based on the existence of a single cTnT gene, the various isoforms with individual functional significance are the products of alternative splicing of a primary RNA transcript. Four variable regions in human cTnT have been detected: the first variable domain at the 5' end of cDNA is composed of two joined cassettes of 15 and 30 base pairs (bp), the latter being potentially excised at the first codon, the second is a single codon at amino-acid 45, and the third is a box of 9 bp (Mesnard-Rouiller et al. 1997). The fourth variable domain is in the central region of cDNA. Although the actual number of protein isoforms is not yet known, Anderson et al. (1991, 1995) have shown four human cTnT isoforms at the protein level. It was determined that these four isoforms (cTnT<sub>1</sub> through cTnT<sub>4</sub> numbered in the order of decreasing molecular size) are generated by combinatorial alternative splicing of two 15 and 30 base pairs (Anderson et al. 1995). Both exons encode highly acidic peptides, the inclusion of either peptide would add an overall negative charge to the cTnT protein. The isoform cTnT<sub>1</sub> and cTnT<sub>2</sub>, are expressed in the fetal heart, with cTnT<sub>2</sub> being expressed at a very low level. Furthermore, TnT<sub>4</sub> is expressed in the fetal heart and re-expressed in the failing adult heart, whereas cTnT3 is the dominant isoform in the adult heart (Fig. 3). It was demonstrated that the 5-residue peptide altered the sensitivity of ATPase activity to calcium (Tobacman and Lee 1987). Studies of Nassar et al. (1991) and McAuliffe et al. (1990) suggest that the presence of isoforms containing the 10-residue peptide increases myofilament sensitivity to calcium, which may be functionally important in the immature myocardium, where the peak cytosolic calcium concentration transient is significantly less than that of the adult (Anderson et al. 1993). Interestingly, it was found that in human left ventricular myocardium, peak myofibrillar ATPase activity correlated with cTnT4 expression (Anderson et al. 1991).

#### troponin **Ontogenetic** development of isoforms

It seems that Tn's are distributed uniformly throughout atrial and ventricular chambers (Cummins et al. 1987, Voss et al. 1995). Both cardiac and skeletal TnT are coexpressed in the fetal heart (Anderson et al. 1991), but the skeletal isotype is subsequently suppressed during the perinatal period. However, cTnT is downregulated during the prenatal development of skeletal muscle: the expression of cTnT in normal adult skeletal muscles varied widely, ranging from no expression (quadriceps femoris) to expression of up to 20 % of the muscle fibers (diaphragm) (Bodor et al. 1997a). Recent studies suggest that cTnT could also be expressed in regenerating human skeletal muscles (Bodor et al. 1997a).

fetal human myocardium contains predominantly slow-twitch troponin I. The presence of slow skeletal TnI (where phosphorylation sites are lacking) even persisted in the first months after birth. Later, from the ninth postnatal month, cTnI is expressed exclusively in both healthy and diseased human myocardium (Bhavsar et al. 1991, Hunkeler et al. 1991). It could be speculated that this might explain the absence of relaxation after β-adrenergic stimulation in neonatal hearts and the relative insensitivity of neonatal myofilament activity to acidic pH (Park et al. 1980, Martin et al. 1991). In the rat heart, slow-skeletal and cTnI isoforms are also coexpressed and regulated in opposite directions during fetal and neonatal development and cTnI becomes specific after the neonatal period. (Murphy et al. 1991). cTnI is neither expressed in adult skeletal muscle, nor in other tissues (Bodor et al. 1995).

However, the relative amount of the adult cTnT isoform increased significantly around the time of birth, this increase being significantly more prominent in left than in right ventricles (Gao et al. 1995). On the other hand, cTnI isoform transition was significantly more rapid in right than in left fetal rabbit ventricles (Gao et al. 1995). An injection of phenylephrine to pregnant animals facilitated TnT but not TnI isoform transition in the fetal heart. This result indicates that the developmental transition of rabbit cTnI and cTnT isoforms is not coordinated and might be regulated by different mechanisms. This study also provided evidence that the cTnT isoform population is influenced by adrenergic stimulation and stress on the cardiovascular system during development (Gao et al. 1995).

Less information is available about the ontogenetic development of cTnC, but similarly to cTnT, TnC is expressed predominantly as a skeletal muscle isoform during fetal life (Toyota and Shimada 1981).

# Phosphorylation states of troponin isoforms

The phosphorylation state of Tn *via* protein kinase C (PKC) or protein kinase A (PKA) affected the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-stimulated contraction function and the myofibrillar ATPase activity of the heart. Two phoshorylated sites were detected in bovine cardiac TnT: the first site is on the N-terminal serine, the second is on the C-terminal in CN 4 (cyanogen bromide fragment) (Swiderek *et al.* 1990). Phoshorylation of TnT in the presence or absence of TnC and TnI led to a lower affinity for binding of tropomyosin to F actin (Noland and Kuo 1992).

The interaction between myosin and actin seems to be more likely when TnI is in its dephosphorylated form (Malhotra *et al.* 1997). Phosphorylation of cTnI at two adjacent N-terminal residues has been shown to reduce the Ca<sup>2+</sup> affinity of the single Ca<sup>2+</sup>-specific regulatory site of cTnC and to increase the rate of Ca<sup>2+</sup> dissociation from this site. β-adrenergic stimulation of intact heart elevated phosphorylation of TnI on serine in positions 23 and 24 (Swiderek *et al.* 1990). The study of Zhang *et al.* (1995) suggest that one of Ser<sup>23</sup> may be constitutively phosphorylated and that Ser<sup>24</sup> may be functionally more important. It is possible that the increased availability of PKA phosphorylation sites on TnI could affect TnT isoform switching (McConnel *et al.* 1997). However this hypothesis remains to be tested.

# Troponin in various pathological situations

Although regulatory proteins may play a major role in the altered function of diseased myocardium, very few direct links of molecular alterations in troponin to pathological function have so far been demonstrated. Molecular mechanisms that may influence the expression of troponin genes also remain to be determined.

#### Myocardial ischemia

Ischemia induces many cellular disturbances. The extent of damage of cardiac cells depends on the presence of preformed collateral anastomoses. Whereas brief periods of ischemia (range of minutes) are tolerated, longer periods of ischemia induce leakage of metabolites and macromolecules due to elevated intracellular calcium, activation of phospholipases, endonucleases and the soluble protease - calpain. Furthermore, cardiac ischemia induces an increase in the blood levels of TnI, TnT, creatine kinase, transaminases, lactate dehydrogenase, glycogen phosphorylase BB (Keffer 1996, Adamcová et al. 1997, Mair 1997). Irreversible phase is characterized by very low concentrations of both cardiac creatine phosphate and ATP, cessation of glycolysis and by depletion of glycogen stores. Creatine kinase, a key enzyme that transfers energy from mitochodria to the vicinity of myofibrils, and myoglobin are upregulated following cellular damage (Voss et al. 1995); the structural and regulatory protein cTnT does not govern a mechanism for replacement of lost protein following cell injury and necrosis.

Table 1. Comparison of selected biochemical markers of myocardial damage

Marker	Molecular weight (D)	Range of times to initial elevation (h)	Mean time to peak elevations (non-thrombolysi	Time to return to normal range s)
cTnT	37 000	3 - 12	24 h	5 – 14 d
cTnI	24 000	3 - 12	24 h	5 – 10 d
CK-MB	86 000	3 - 12	24 h	48 – 72 h
Myoglobin	17 800	1 - 4	6 – 7 h	24 h
LD	135 000	10	24 – 48 h	10 – 14 d

CK-MB -MB isoenzyme of creatine kinase LD – lactate dehydrogenase (Data derived from Adams et al. 1993)

Cardiac troponin T concentrations in patients with confirmed acute myocardial ischemia show roughly biphasic release kinetics, with the initial peak closely

paralleling that of the mass creatine kinase MB concentration during the first 24 h after the onset of symptoms. The second peak occurs on about the fourth

day after admission. Despite the short biological half-life (2 h), the diagnostic window of cTnT is unusually wide, ranging from a few hours to several weeks after the acute episode. The biphasic release profile of cTnT is probably the result of intracellular compartmentation. appearance of cTnT within the first few hours after myocardial infarction is the consequence of a rapid loss of the cytoplasmic pool superimposed on prolonged myofibrillar degradation that results in a long plateau effect several days after the onset of pain (Adamcová et al. 1997, Mair 1997). The time course of cTnI release is very similar. A recent study gave evidence that the predominant form of cTnI in the circulation is associated with troponin subunits cTnC and cTnT (Morjana 1998). The presence of the troponin complex in the serum suggests that assays that measure TnI or TnT are in fact measuring the same circulating complex with different levels of detection. A comparison of selected biochemical markers of myocardial damage is shown in Table 1.

#### Heart failure

In failing human myocardium, a significant amount of TnT4 is present; it recapitulates the fetal pattern (Anderson et al. 1991). The proportion of TnT4 in the failing and non-failing human myocardium is inversely correlated with myofibrillar ATPase activity. It has been suggested that alterations in TnT isoforms may underlie the depressed myofibrillar ATPase activity which is characteristic for the failing myocardium and is thought to constitute one of the major pathophysiological aberrations in this condition. The results of Chen et al. (1997) supported the idea that the shift in TnT isoforms towards a more "fetal" pattern occurs during mild left ventricular hypertrophy of rabbit myocardium and is therefore, likely to be a general feature of the response to hemodynamic stress rather than a phenomenon confined to the final stage of the disease.

In contrast, there is no qualitative change in TnI isoforms expression associated with end-stages of heart failure (Hunkeler et al. 1991). Low skeletal muscle mRNA TnI was not detectable in any sample of right and left ventricular muscle in end-stage heart failure either from pulmonary hypertension, ischemic heart disease, or dilated cardiomyopathy. This means that alterations in the TnI isoform content can not be considered as an underlying mechanism for the altered characteristics of contractility associated with the failing ventricle. Cumulative evidence suggests that the same is true for

TnC expression, which remains constant in the diseased myocardium.

Bodor et al. (1997b) demonstrated that the failing myocardium contains significantly larger amounts of dephosphorylated cTnI than the control tissue. The extent of TnI phosphorylation can be responsible for enhanced myofibrillar calcium sensitivity of the failing myocardium. The functional consequence of this difference may be an adaptive or maladaptive response to the lower and longer calcium concentration transient of the failing heart (enhancing force development or producing ventricular diastolic dysfunction).

#### Congenital heart diseases

In recent years, there has been a trend towards earlier repair of congenital cardiac defects in neonates and infants. The data obtained from studies in animals imply that the juvenile myocardium is more resistant to the effect of ischemia and reperfusion than the adult myocardium (Taggart et al. 1996). We have shown that both hypoxemic and normoxemic congenital heart diseases affect the pattern of contractile proteins: the changes were detected predominantly on the light chains of myosin (Pelouch et al. 1995). Taggart et al. (1996) concluded that cardiac troponins are more specific markers of myocardial injury in pediatric cardiac surgery for all cardiac operations. However, they did not support the opinion that myocardium of children is more resistant to ischemic injury. The percentage of TnT4 isoform expression was significantly higher in hearts with congenital defects that caused congestive failure than in hearts with Fallot's tetralogy (Saba et al. 1996). In congenital heart malformations the skeletal isoform of TnI was detectable up to 2 years after birth (Hunkeler et al. 1991). Therefore, it is possible to conclude that congenital malformations result in a retarded postnatal TnI transition. The different troponin isoform expression may be functionally important after surgical repair. It can affect the response of the child myocardium to ischemia, acidosis and \( \beta\)-adrenergic inotropic support.

# Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy

Recent findings (Moolman et al. 1997) have focused attention on the role of cTnT gene mutations, which may account for at least 15 % of cases of familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy. This represents the most common cause of sudden cardiac death in the young. The gene mutation is facilitated by the relatively small coding sequence of the cardiac troponin T gene and the presence of the mutation hotspot (cytosine:guanine doublet within codon 92).

# Diabetes mellitus

No significant changes in troponin I content have been observed in right and left ventricles from diabetic rats. However, the phosphorylation of TnI was higher (approximately 40 %) in the diabetic hearts. This change was reversible with insulin treatment. Increased phosphorylation of TnI and also the changes of troponin T (Malhotra et al. 1995, Malhotra and Sanghi 1997) contribute toward the depression in cardiac myofibrillar ATPase activity in chronic diabetes (Liu et al. 1996) due to glycation of different myofibrillar proteins (Syrový and Hodný 1993).

# Effect of thyroid hormones

Thyroid hormone levels in the early postnatal period influence the transcriptional activity of a variety of genes including those encoding cardiac myosin (Izumo et al. 1986, Černohorský et al. 1998) and TnI in the neonatal hearts (Sasse et al. 1993). Hypothyroidism in adulthood does not change the TnT isoforms profile of the rat ventricles (Saggin et al. 1990). In contrast, hypothyroidism was associated with the delay of the expected isoform switching of TnI in myocardium of rats during the postnatal period (Averyhart-Fullard et al. 1994, Dieckman and Solaro 1990).

The changes in the phosphorylation status of TnI or TnC correlated with alterations in the speed of myocardial relaxation and contraction in response to the altered thyroid states (Jakab *et al.* 1994). Left ventricular

contraction was significantly higher in hyperthyroid than in euthyroid animals and this was associated with an increase in basal phosphorylation levels of both TnI and TnC in the myofibrils. In hypothyroid rats, the basal phosphorylation levels of cTnI and cTnC were significantly lower than in euthyroid animals.

# Pharmacological intervention

It should be noted that therapeutic intervention may itself influence troponin expression, given that cardiac gene expression can be altered by a variety of pharmacological agents (Nadal-Ginard and Mahdavi 1989). It has been shown that cardiac troponin I is phosphorylated in response to adrenergic stimulation of the heart (Solaro *et al.* 1976). This mechanism is involved in phosphorylation-mediated control under  $\beta$ -sympathetic stimulation and it may be responsible for the increased rate of relaxation. The absence of phosphorylation sites in the slow skeletal isoform, present in the myocardium during the first months after birth, might explain the absence of augmented relaxation with  $\beta$ -adrenergic stimulation in neonatal hearts (Park *et al.* 1980).

Cardiac TnC is, probably, a potential target in therapy of patients with acute myocardial infarctions and subsequent congestive heart failure, where the diseased myocardium is "desensitized" to increased cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels. A novel group of positive inotropic agents (known as calcium sensitizers) increases the affinity of cardiac TnC for Ca<sup>2+</sup>, possibly by binding them to a hydrophobic patch in the N-domain of cardiac TnC (Sia *et al.* 1997)

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