

1 **Pharmacological modulation of right ventricular endocardial-epicardial gradients**
2 **in Brugada Syndrome**

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Total Word Count 4699

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Subject Headings: autonomic nervous system, electrophysiology, sudden cardiac death

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Acknowledgements:

34

JBA was funded by a *Heart Research UK Fellowship*.

35

MO is funded by a Marie Curie Fellowship.

36

DS funded by an MRC CASE Studentship

37

PDL is supported by UCLH Biomedicine NIHR & Stephen Lyness Memorial Fund.

38

CLHH funded by the British Heart Foundation.

39

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Conflicts of interest: None.

41

42 **ABSTRACT**

43

44 **Background**

45 We explored the hypothesis that increased cholinergic tone exerts its pro-arrhythmic
46 effects in Brugada Syndrome (BrS) through increasing dispersion of transmural
47 repolarisation in patients with spontaneous and drug induced Brugada Syndrome.

48

49 **Methods & Results**

50 Electrophysiological studies in control patients with SVT only demonstrated shorter
51 endocardial than epicardial right ventricular (RV) activation times (AT's) (mean
52 difference: 26 ms, $p < 0.001$). In contrast, BrS patients showed longer endocardial than
53 epicardial AT (mean difference: -15 ms, $p = 0.001$). BrS hearts, compared to controls,
54 showed significantly larger transmural gradients (TMG) in their activation recovery
55 intervals (ARIs) (mean intervals 20.5 vs 3.5 ms; $p < 0.01$), with longer endocardial than
56 epicardial ARIs. Edrophonium challenge increased such gradients in both controls (to a
57 mean of 16 msec ($p < 0.001$) and BrS (to 29.7 ms; $p < 0.001$). However, these were
58 attributable to *epicardial* and *endocardial* ARI prolongations in control and BrS hearts
59 respectively. Dynamic changes in repolarisation gradients were also observed across the
60 BrS RV wall in BrS.

61

62 **Conclusions:**

63 Differential contributions of conduction and repolarisation were identified in BrS which
64 critically modulated transmural dispersion of repolarisation with significant cholinergic
65 effects only identified in the BrS patients. This has important implications for explaining
66 the pro-arrhythmic effects of increased vagal tone in BrS as well as evaluating autonomic
67 modulation & epicardial ablation as therapeutic strategies.

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69 **Key Words:** Brugada Syndrome, Autonomic nervous system, Conduction, Repolarisation

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75 **INTRODUCTION**

76

77 Brugada Syndrome (BrS) remains one of the most important causes of sudden cardiac
78 death in the young, accounting for 20% of such cases¹. Its molecular basis remains
79 uncertain. Ion channel mutations primarily involving the sodium channel have only been
80 identified in up to 30% of subjects². The pathophysiological basis for its associated
81 arrhythmias also remains contentious. BrS is characterised by a triad of right bundle
82 branch block (RBBB), coved ST elevation in the right precordial leads and lethal
83 ventricular arrhythmias. The disease appears localised to the right ventricle (RV) where
84 dynamic changes in ST elevation and ventricular arrhythmias develop in situations of
85 increased vagal tone.

86

87 High density intra-cardiac mapping by our group has identified significant conduction
88 delays in the RV outflow tract (RVOT) compared to the RV body and apex in BrS relative
89 to findings in control patients³. These data have been corroborated and it is now evident
90 that BrS is further associated with marked epicardial conduction abnormalities and
91 increased fibrosis⁴⁻⁷. Such fibrotic changes could lead to electrotonic uncoupling between
92 myocytes with source:sink mismatches between endocardium and epicardium. These
93 could produce the alterations in conduction or repolarisation gradients reported in a
94 recent mechanistic human study⁸. BrS has a more common nocturnal occurrence of
95 ventricular fibrillation which occurs in parallel with a corresponding nocturnal
96 accentuation of its pathognomonic ECG features⁹. These in turn correspond to the
97 increased vagal and diminished sympathetic activity during periods of rest¹⁰. However,
98 the electrophysiological effects of changes in autonomic tone on the BrS substrate
99 remain uncertain.

100 Here we explore the hypothesis that in BrS such increased cholinergic tone induces
101 conduction delay and promotes either intramural or transmural dispersions of
102 repolarisation in the RVOT. We evaluated the effect of cholinergic activation on in vivo
103 electrophysiological properties of the RV endocardium and RV epicardium in BrS
104 patients.

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106

107 **METHODS**

108 The data, analytic methods, and study materials will be made available to other researchers for
109 purposes of reproducing the results or replicating the procedure on direct request.

110 ***Human electrophysiological mapping***

111 The non-contact mapping study and pacing protocol were performed prior to ablation in
112 the control patients or VT stimulation studies in the Brugada Syndrome (BrS) group. All
113 anti-arrhythmic drugs had first been stopped for at least 5 half lives prior to the
114 procedures. The detailed techniques for non-contact mapping in the ventricle are
115 described elsewhere¹². The multi-electrode array (MEA) (*Ensite*, St Jude Medical, St.
116 Paul, Minnesota, USA) was deployed via the left femoral vein in the right ventricular
117 outflow tract (RVOT) (full methodology described previously³). An epicardial 16-pole
118 Pathfinder catheter (Cardima, California, USA) was passed into the distal great cardiac
119 vein in the interventricular groove (Fig. 1). All patients gave informed consent and the
120 study was approved by the University College London Hospital (UCLH) Research Ethics
121 Committee.

122

123 Programmed ventricular stimulation was performed from the right ventricular apex.
124 Three minutes of steady state pacing at a coupling interval of 400 ms was followed by a
125 S₁S₂ restitution protocol using 400 ms drive trains. The extrastimulus was initially
126 extended progressively by 50 ms intervals until consistent fusion with sinus beats
127 occurred. The S₁S₂ interval was thereafter decreased at 20 ms intervals to 300 ms, then
128 by 5 ms until the ventricular effective refractory period (VERP) was reached. The
129 protocol was repeated following intravenous (IV) administration of 10 mg edrophonium
130 to increase cholinergic tone, then followed by a 10 min washout period.

131 **Offline analysis**

132 24 virtual unipolar electrograms were placed in the RVOT in 4 columns of 6 virtuals to
133 obtain local endocardial data within 3 cm of the array directly opposite the position of
134 the 16 pole Cardima catheter (Fig. 1). Endocardial & epicardial electrograms were
135 exported and analysed using semi-automated custom software running in Matlab (The
136 Mathworks Inc., MA, USA) (Figure S1). All electrograms and analyses were manually
137 checked by 3 independent observers (JBA, MF, DS). The time from the earliest
138 electrogram recorded within the right ventricle (RV) to the steepest negative deflection
139 $((dV/dt)_{\min})$ was used as the local activation time (AT). The sinus rhythm AT of the RV
140 was taken as the time from earliest to latest recorded RV activation. During pacing, the
141 time from the pacing artefact to the time corresponding to the $(dV/dt)_{\min}$ was used as the
142 local AT. Two methods have been used to measure repolarisation times during non-
143 contact mapping, respectively termed the classical (Wyatt) method and the alternative
144 method. Both have come under intense theoretical and experimental scrutiny; here we
145 present results using the classical method¹³⁻¹⁶. Activation repolarisation interval (ARI), a
146 well-validated approximation of action potential duration, was defined as the interval
147 between the AT and repolarization time (Figure S1). The slope of ARI restitution was
148 calculated using the least mean squares method^{17,18}. The RVOT was divided into 4
149 anatomical regions (anterior, posterior, lateral septal), and activation and repolarisation
150 dynamics were studied in the RVOT endocardium and epicardium.

151 **Endocardial & Epicardial Regional Delay**

152 **Mean increase of delay (MID) was calculated by dividing the integrated increase of delay**
153 **(area under the curve) by the interval between baseline cycle length and the refractory**
154 **period.¹⁹ The degree of delay was measured from 4 segments in the RVOT and in the**
155 **epicardium.**

156 **Genetic testing**

157 Blood samples (10 mL) were obtained from participating BS subjects. Genomic DNA was
158 isolated from peripheral blood leukocytes with the use of a commercial kit (Gentra
159 System, Puregene). The exons of SCN5A were amplified and analyzed by direct
160 sequencing. Polymerase chain reaction products were purified with Exosap (USB) and
161 were directly sequenced from both directions with the ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator
162 Cycle Sequencing Reaction and the ABI PRISM 3130XL Automatic DNA Sequencer.

163

164 **Statistical analysis**

165 All statistical computing was performed using R software (The Comprehensive R Archive
166 Network (CRAN)). Continuous parametric data are presented as means \pm standard
167 deviations (SD) or, in the case of significance derived from regression models, mean with
168 [95% confidence interval], unless otherwise specified. Comparisons in which a single
169 measurement was taken for each subject, e.g. ventricular effective refractory period
170 (VERP), dispersion of repolarisation time, were made using Student's t-test with post-
171 hoc correction for multiple comparisons. Continuous parametric data derived from
172 electrogram data were modelled using mixed-effects linear regression (software: Linear
173 and Nonlinear Mixed Effects (NLME) package running in R version 2.14) and statistical
174 significance was inferred from the model. Quartile regression with bootstrapping (Quantile
175 Regression Description Estimation and inference (QUANTREG) package) was used to
176 compare non-parametric continuous data.

177

178 **RESULTS**

179 Mapping was performed in 16 patients (BrS group: n = 8, 5M: 2F; mean age 56 y, control
180 group: n=8, 5M: 3F; mean age 48,). The demographic data is shown in Table 1. Four BrS
181 patients had resting type 1 ECGs and two had a family history of sudden cardiac death.
182 No significant structural abnormalities were detected on echocardiography or MRI with
183 MRI excluding gadolinium late enhancement or T1 mapping abnormalities in the right

184 and left ventricles in the 4 scanned cases. Only one patient had an ICD inserted for
185 symptomatic non-sustained VT and none have had any significant ventricular arrhythmic
186 events in 8 years of follow-up.

187

188 Genetic data are available in 4 subjects: BrS cases 3-5 were negative for known
189 pathogenic SCN5A mutations and BrS subject 8 was a carrier of a c.3045_3046delGA,
190 exon 17 SCN5A, which is predicted to cause a frameshift of the amino acid sequence in
191 leading to a premature termination of translation.

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193 The control group of patients had SVT. They had normal resting and signal averaged
194 ECGs, a negative ajmaline challenge test, structurally normal hearts on echocardiography
195 and no family history of sudden cardiac death. Informed consent was obtained following
196 local research ethics committee approval. We used the acetylcholinesterase inhibitor
197 edrophonium to activate muscarinic receptors.

198

199 We made direct measurements of epicardial and endocardial activation times (AT), and
200 activation recovery intervals (ARI), from which we further derived recovery times (RTs)
201 in both control and BrS patients before and following autonomic edrophonium challenge.
202 This permitted us to derive the transmural gradients in AT, ARI and RTs, relating these
203 phenotypic characteristics to findings in BrS or normal patients.

204 During *steady pacing*, epicardial *activation times* (ATs) and *activation recovery*
205 *intervals* (ARIs) were significantly shorter in BrS than in control patients and neither
206 were significantly affected by edrophonium challenge (Fig. S2). In contrast, endocardial
207 AT and ARI were significantly longer in BrS than control patients, and similarly only
208 minimally affected by edrophonium challenge.

209 Measurements made through *varying coupling intervals used to construct restitution*
210 *curves* demonstrated that control patients showed shorter endocardial than epicardial
211 ATs that gave mean AT differences of 26 ms, 95% CI: 21, 32 for endocardium and
212 epicardium respectively, $p < 0.001$ (Fig. 2). In contrast, the BrS patients showed longer
213 endocardial AT than epicardial AT (mean AT difference: 15 ms, 95% CI 11, 20, for
214 endocardium and epicardium respectively; $p = 0.001$). Following edrophonium challenge,
215 both endocardial and epicardial ATs were unchanged in the control but significantly
216 further shortened in the BrS patients. However, neither control nor BrS patients showed
217 significant changes in their transmural activation time differences. **When we measured the**
218 **regional delay to assess conduction reserve, this was greater in the epicardium than**
219 **endocardium in BrS versus controls and was further exaggerated following edrophonium (Fig**
220 **S3).**

221
222 Hearts from the control patients showed minimal transmural gradients (TMG) in their
223 ARIs (mean 3.4 ms, 95% CI: 6.8, 0.02, $p < 0.05$) with endocardial ARIs that were
224 marginally shorter than epicardial ARIs (Fig. 3). In contrast, hearts from the BrS patients
225 showed significantly larger TMG (mean 20.5 ms, 95% CI: 25.5, 15.5, $p < 0.001$), with
226 shorter epicardial ARIs than endocardial ARIs.

227 Following edrophonium challenge, the TMG in hearts from control patients increased to
228 a mean of 16 ms (95% CI: 19.6, 12.6, $p < 0.001$), and this reflected an *epicardial* ARI
229 prolongation. The TMG in hearts from BrS patients increased to 29.7 ms (95% CI: 35.3,
230 24.1, $p < 0.001$), but this reflected *endocardial* as opposed to epicardial ARI prolongation.
231 These effects were particularly evident from contact endocardial and epicardial
232 electrogram recordings illustrating the unipolar electrogram morphologies in hearts
233 from BrS versus control patients and the effects of edrophonium on the degree of ST
234 elevation in the epicardium (Fig. 4).

235

236 In control patients, epicardial repolarisation as reflected in its **repolarisation times (RT)**
237 was completed later than endocardial repolarisation. The resulting RT gradient therefore
238 ran from epi- to endocardium. However, in the BrS patients, epicardial repolarisation
239 was completed earlier than endocardial repolarisation and showed smaller values at
240 long cycle lengths. This resulted in a reversed RT gradient with significantly shorter
241 epicardial versus endocardial RTs. Edrophonium challenge left the RT gradient flat and
242 unaffected across all the coupling intervals in the control patients. In contrast, in the BrS
243 patients, edrophonium challenge resulted in a significant increase in the epicardial RTs
244 which was most pronounced at longer CI's. The RT gradients across the coupling
245 intervals altered particularly at shorter intervals (Fig. 5).

246

247 **Maximum restitution slopes**

248 Epicardial maximum restitution slopes (S_{max}) at baseline were steeper ($p<0.05$) in hearts
249 of patients with BrS (mean 0.887, SEM 0.065) compared with control patients (mean
250 0.728, SEM 0.046) with no significant changes following edrophonium challenge. The
251 values of S_{max} in the anterior RVOT endocardium were similar in hearts from BrS and
252 control patients, and showed no significant changes following edrophonium challenge. In
253 contrast, edrophonium decreased the whole RVOT endocardial S_{max} in hearts from
254 control patients (from mean 0.68, SEM 0.031 to mean 0.544, SEM 0.023, $p<0.001$), but
255 produced no significant corresponding changes in hearts from the BrS patients.

256

257

258 **Discussion**

259 We report the first detailed *in vivo* investigation of the effects of autonomic modulation
260 on right ventricular endocardial and epicardial electrophysiology in BrS. This revealed

261 that the modulation of activation and repolarisation gradients by premature stimuli may
262 be greater in BrS.

263

264 Our studies determined epicardial and endocardial activation times (AT), activation
265 recovery intervals (ARI), and recovery times (RTs) in both control and BrS patients.
266 From these we derived the corresponding transmural gradients in AT, ARI and RTs
267 before and following autonomic edrophonium challenge and related these phenotypic
268 characteristics to findings in BrS or normal patients. We observed significant effects of
269 both *absolute and transmural differences* between both conduction and repolarisation
270 characteristics and differing effects upon these of cholinergic challenge. We thus
271 associated differences in the spatial organisation and heterogeneity of these changes in
272 activation and repolarisation with the BrS condition.

273 Our key findings concerned abnormalities in the transmural gradients of both activation
274 and repolarisation in Brugada syndrome patients and their accentuation by cholinergic
275 stimulation. Thus, whereas in control individuals, the epicardium completed
276 repolarisation before the endocardium, in BrS this sequence was reversed. Edrophonium
277 modulated the abnormal transmural gradient in BrS leading to further delayed epicardial
278 repolarisation. This reflected differential effects of the BrS condition and of cholinergic
279 challenge upon conduction velocity and repolarisation which govern the transmural
280 activation sequence. Thus, prior to cholinergic challenge, the main differences between
281 human BrS and controls reflected epicardial differences with the BrS showing shorter
282 ARI's and the epicardium activating earlier than the endocardium. This parallels the
283 findings of other groups^{7,8,20}. Indeed the largest mean ARI gradient at rest is equivalent:
284 20.5ms versus 24ms in the Langendorff study of a Brugada heart²⁰. This causes a
285 significant reversed repolarisation gradient to arise from endocardium to epicardium

286 which did not exist in controls. Increased cholinergic tone through edrophonium
287 administration exerted additional important effects on conduction-repolarisation
288 dynamics in BrS with significant differences in epi and endocardial electrophysiological
289 responses. There is a reversed ARI gradient in BrS patients with shorter epicardial ARI's
290 compared with a smaller opposite ARI gradient in normal individuals at baseline. These
291 differences are exacerbated by increased cholinergic tone with preferential endocardial
292 ARI prolongation in BrS.

293

294 The findings may reflect a differential distribution of ion channels between the
295 endocardium and epicardium²¹. Differences in sodium channel, calcium channel and
296 potassium channel expression and differential regulation of currents by autonomic
297 pathways are likely to account for the striking endo and epicardial differences. This
298 indicates a loss of endocardial to epicardial conduction reserve which could be due to
299 abnormalities in the Purkinje network preventing rapid endocardial tissue recruitment
300 and subsequent endo-epicardial depolarisation as well as reduced tissue coupling
301 secondary to lack of Na channel recruitment (excitability) and tissue fibrosis.

302

303 The data also show that increased cholinergic tone promotes heterogeneity between epi
304 and endocardium and suggests the main cholinergic effects in BrS are exerted on the
305 endocardial ARI, combined with conduction delays *amplifying transmural repolarisation*
306 *dynamic differences across coupling intervals*. The marked conduction delays especially at
307 short coupling intervals in these studies in conjunction with the shorter ARI's in the
308 Brugada heart create the optimal conditions to promote large endo-epicardial
309 conduction and repolarisation gradients.

310

311 The electrophysiological changes reported here may also bear upon the “conduction and
312 repolarisation hypotheses” explaining the characteristic clinical ECG waveform in BrS²².
313 These variously explain its coved ST elevation by delayed depolarisation from the RV
314 body to RVOT or transmural gradients in repolarisation secondary to a shortened “dip
315 and plateau” action potential morphology in the epicardium. The present findings are
316 consistent with a combination of these mechanisms. This would be compatible with the
317 differential conduction delay between the endocardium and epicardium and the earlier
318 epicardial repolarisation in BrS. Furthermore, changes in coupling interval modulate
319 these features on a beat to beat basis, and this would promote the creation of
320 endocardial-epicardial repolarisation gradients and hence ST elevation in the right
321 precordial leads with the gradients particularly in the presence of electrotonic
322 uncoupling promoted by structural abnormalities^{23,24}.

323

324 The findings also have implications for electrocardiographic changes following
325 conditions of increased cholinergic tone in BrS. Thus, increased vagal tone is known to
326 produce dynamic changes in J point elevation and ventricular arrhythmia. Nakazawa et
327 al. reported that high vagal tone and low sympathetic tone are specific properties of
328 symptomatic BrS on the basis of heart rate variability data²⁵. Their study also suggested
329 these autonomic imbalances were significant in the symptomatic group but not in the
330 asymptomatic group. Dynamic changes in J point elevation are more prominent at night
331 particularly in patients with previous VF. Abnormal ¹²³I-MIBG uptake in patients with
332 BrS is described indicating presynaptic sympathetic dysfunction of the heart shifting the
333 influence to increases in cholinergic tone²⁶. The precise relationship between vagal tone
334 and pro-arrhythmia is subject to debate. Increased vagal tone is thought to reduce the Ca
335 transient during phase 2 of the action potential resulting in increased transmural

336 dispersion of repolarisation and phase 2 re-entry²⁷. The data supporting this hypothesis
337 has been derived from the canine RV wedge preparation of BrS employing
338 pharmacological manipulations to reproduce the Brugada ECG.

339 This study demonstrates that autonomic effects are 2-fold-promoting endocardial ARI
340 prolongation with marked shortening of endo and epicardial AT. These 2 effects will be
341 highly pro-arrhythmic enabling endocardial functional conduction block and promoting
342 a large vulnerable window epicardially to facilitate re-entry.

343 **Limitations**

344 We were unable to biopsy the sites of recording or undertake direct epicardial recording
345 of the substrate so it is possible that more severely diseased areas were not studied.
346 Nevertheless, these findings indicate sufficient pathology was present to enable
347 significant differences in conduction-repolarisation dynamics to be identified. These
348 findings provide evidence of conduction-repolarisation abnormalities in BrS without
349 events but the extent of such changes need to be explored in more severely affected
350 individuals as there is preliminary evidence to suggest that such cases may have more
351 marked conduction abnormalities using ECG Imaging^{28,29}. Indeed the extent of these
352 changes could be used as a risk marker for lethal arrhythmias.

353

354 These data have important clinical implications with recent interest in epicardial
355 substrate ablation to prevent VF in BrS^{30,31}. Ablation appears to normalise the resting
356 ECG and prevent dynamic ST elevation. This may operate by homogenising the substrate
357 such that endo and epicardial gradients can no longer be generated in the RVOT. This
358 will prevent changes in cholinergic tone influencing the gradient & enabling VF initiation
359 if these transmural gradients are primarily responsible for arrhythmogenesis.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Positioning of Mapping Catheters in the RV and great cardiac vein to record RV endocardial and epicardial electrograms.

Figure 2 . Endo and Epicardial Activation time dynamics pre and post edrophonium in control and Brugada hearts.

Figure 3. Endo and Epicardial ARI dynamics pre and post edrophonium in control and Brugada Hearts.

Figure 4. Example of Sinus rhythm ECG and Electrograms Recorded epi and endocardially in a Control and BrS patient. There is a type II coved ST elevation pattern resting ECG of the BrS patient which is reflected in the epicardial unipolar electrograms- these are exaggerated after edrophonium (blue) as well as a decrease in activation times

in the epicardial electrograms . No significant change occurs in the control after the edrophonium.

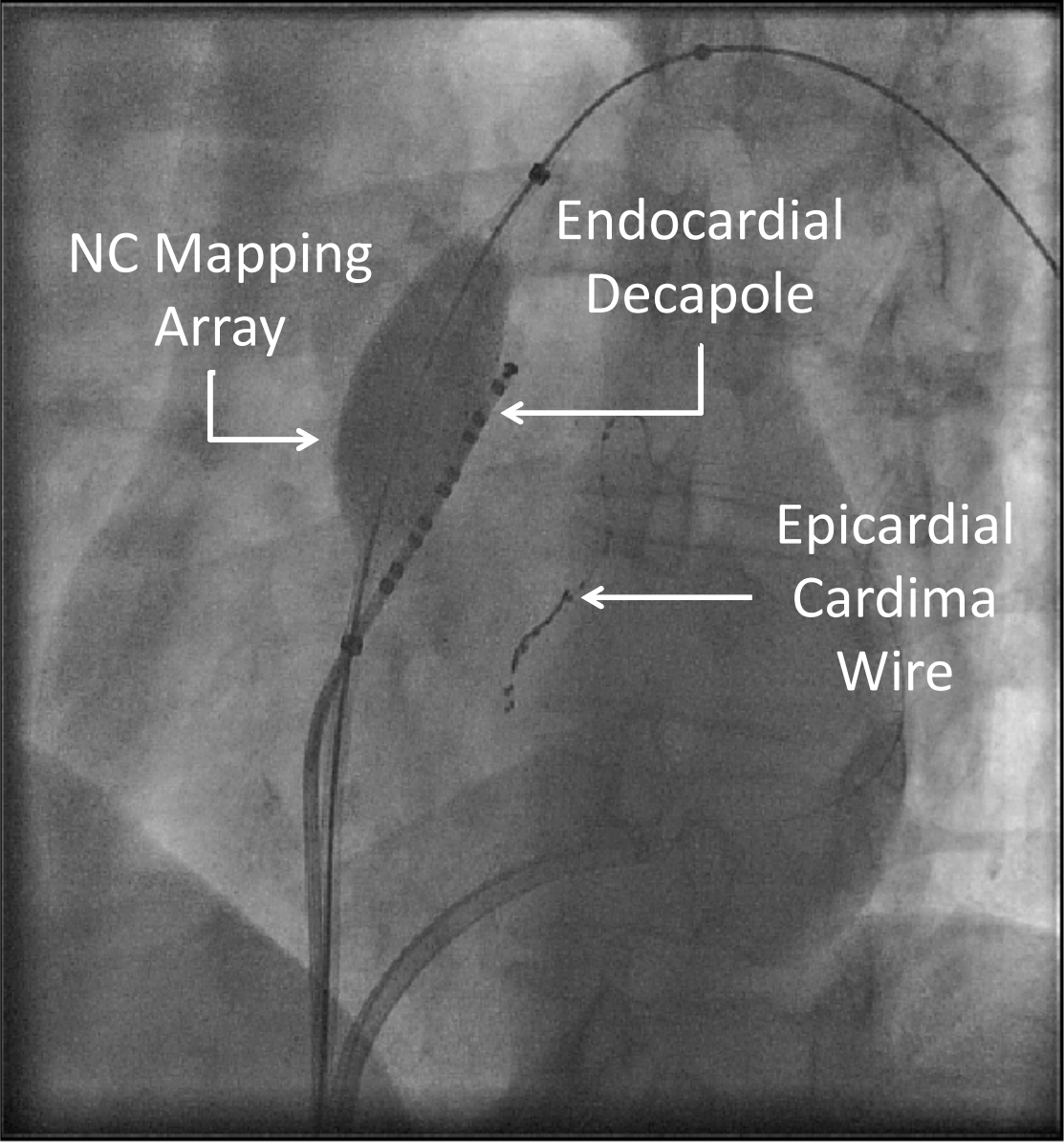
Figure 5. Endo and Epicardial Repolarisation Time dynamics pre and post edrophonium in control and Brugada Hearts.

Supplemental Figure S1 . Example of semi-automated AT, ARI and RT measurements from intracardiac Non-contact unipolar signals. The blue interrupted line is the dV/dt of the solid black line (which is the signal exported from Ensite NC mapping system). The red coloured squares mark activation times (dV/dt min) and the blue dV/dt max of the T wave upstroke to measure ARI: the Wyatt method was used to look at all T waves employing upstroke of the T wave.

Supplemental Figure S2. A. Baseline Epicardial AT, ARI and RT in Controls and BrS during steady state pacing at 400ms. *P<0.05 between control and BrS. **B.** Baseline Endocardial AT, ARI and RT in Controls and BrS during steady state pacing at 400ms. *P<0.05 between control and BrS.

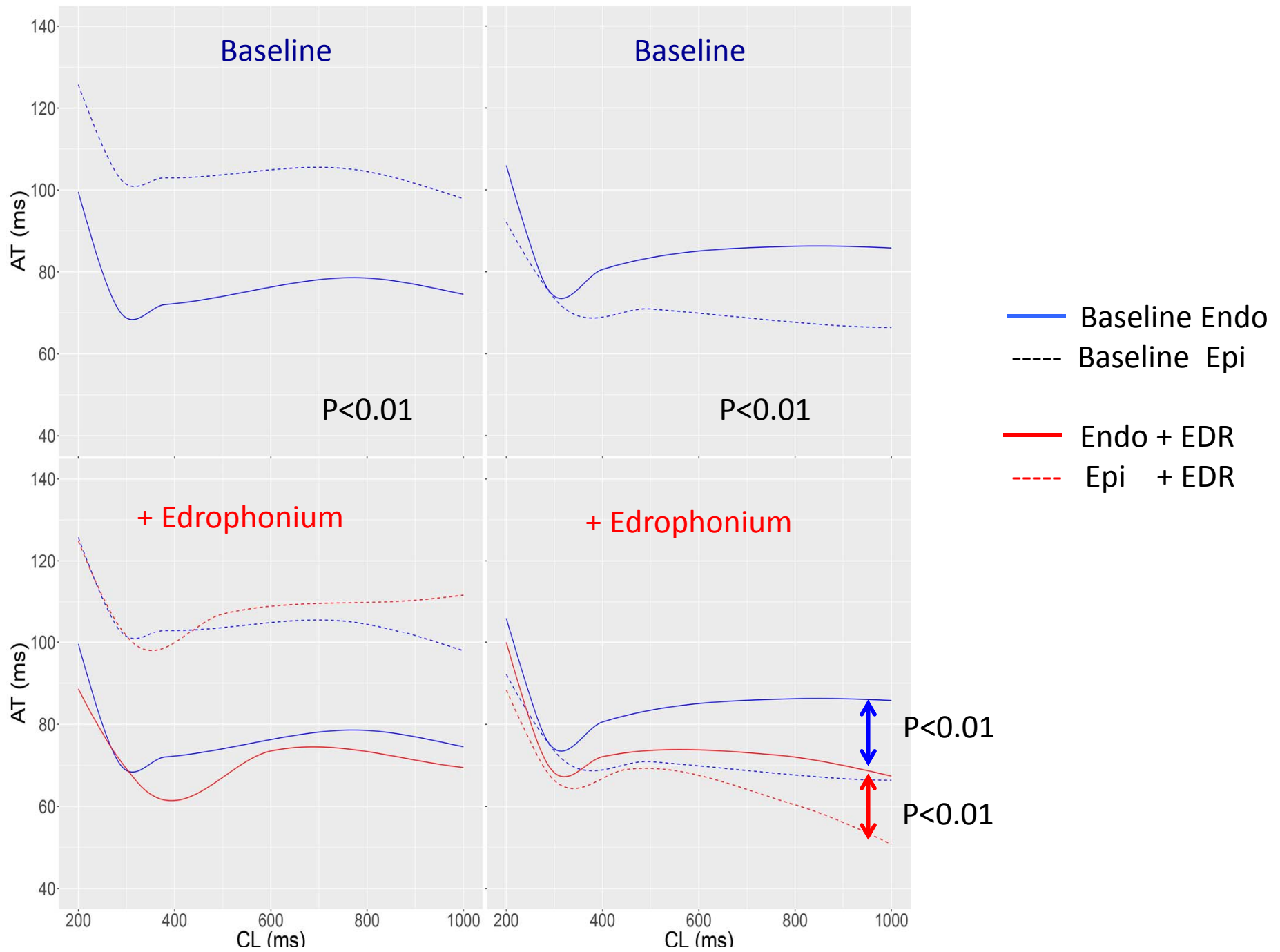
Supplemental Figure S3

Boxplots representing the mean increase delay (MID), endocardially (Endo) and epicardially (Epi), for both Control and Brugada subjects, before (Base) and after Edrophonium (Edr) administration. For the control group, a significant difference in the MID between endocardial and epicardial regions was induced by drug administration. For the Brugada group, a significant difference was already present at baseline and was further exacerbated. These difference were mainly due to a MID prolongation in the epicardium. *P<0.05 **P<0.01 ***P<0.001



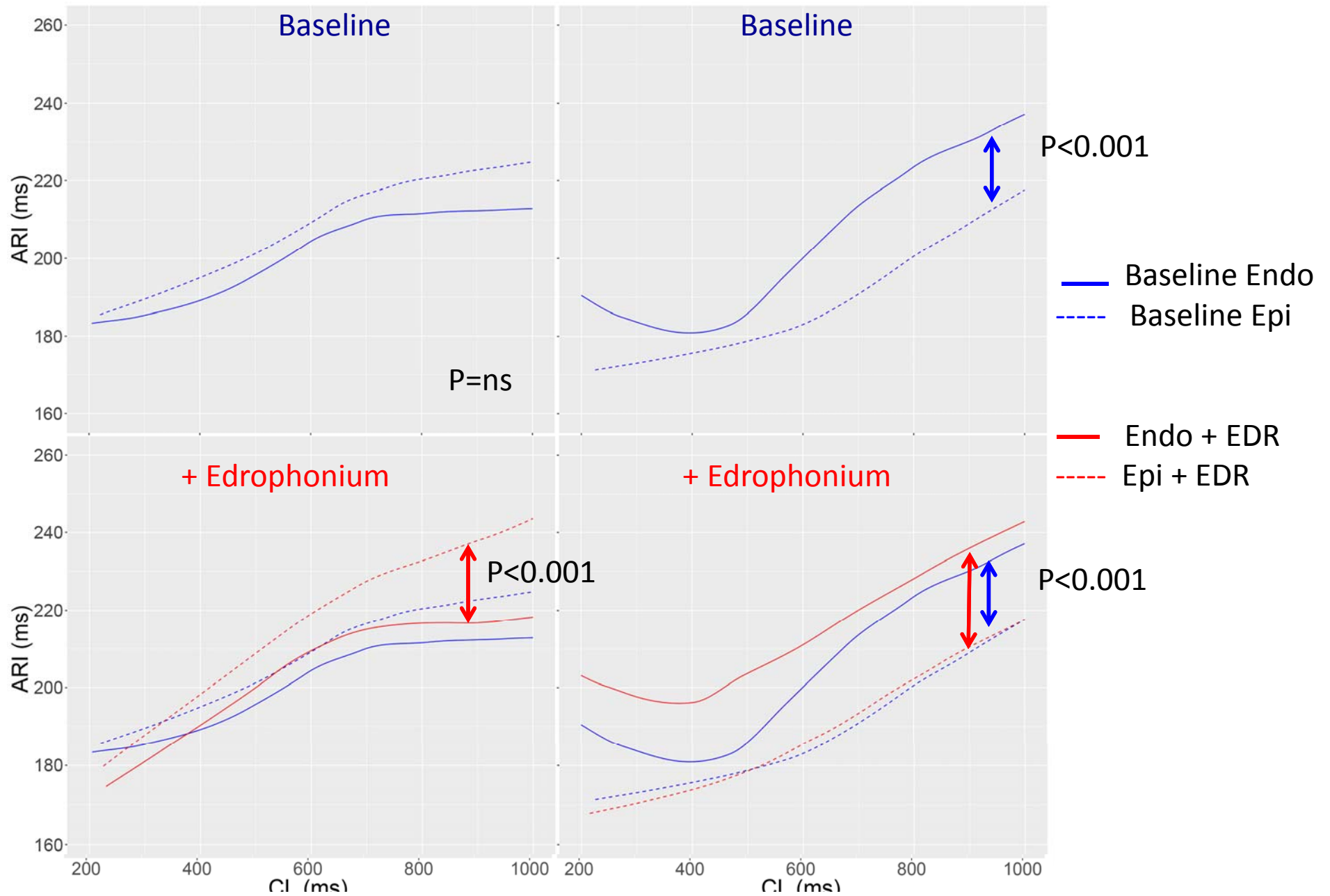
Activation Time Control

Activation Time Brugada

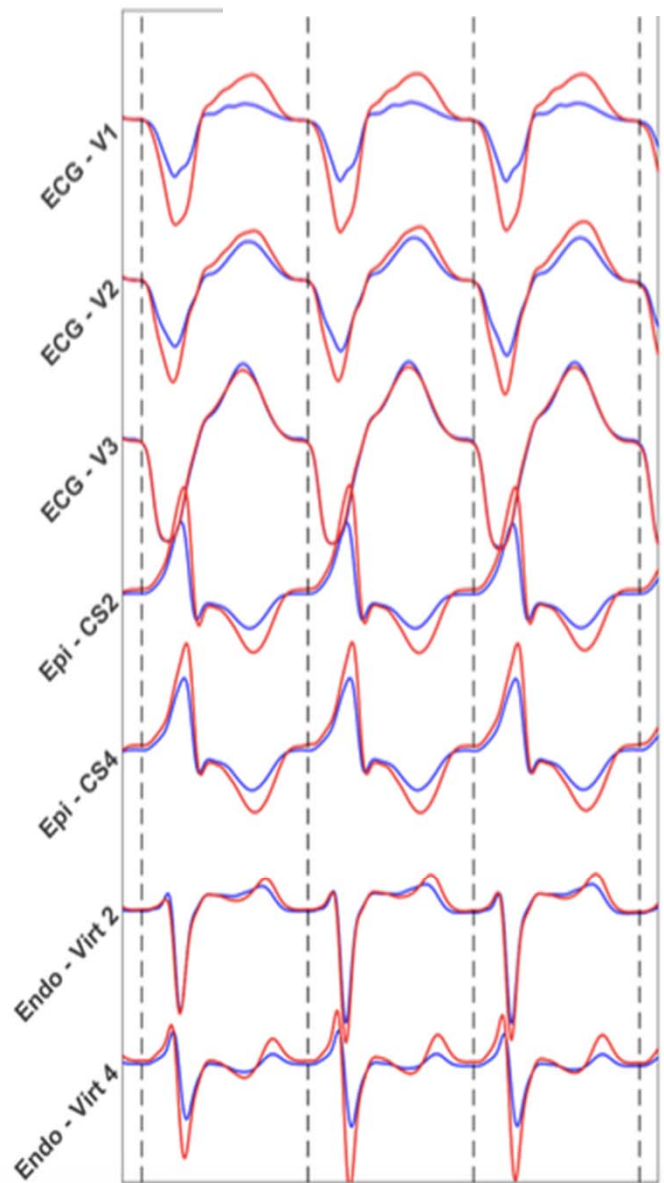


Activation Recovery Interval
Control

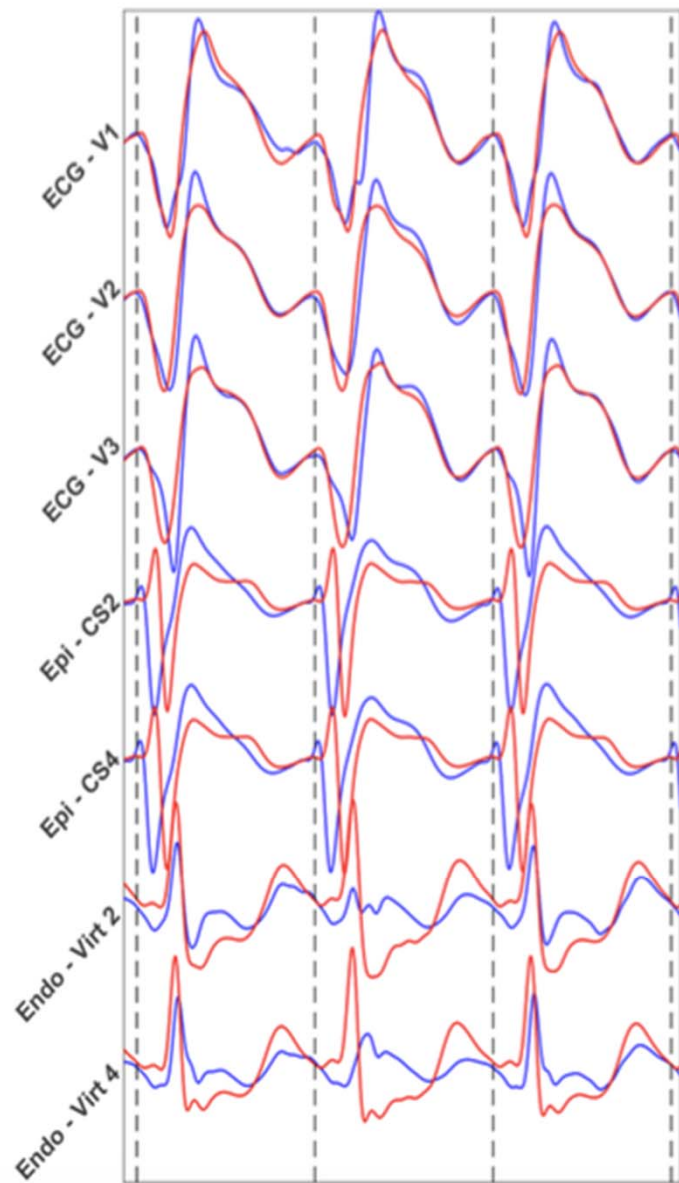
Activation Recovery Interval
Brugada



Control



BrS



— Base
— Edr

Repolarization Time Control

Repolarization Time Brugada

