

23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Myocardial electrical impedance is influenced by the mechanical activity of the heart.
25 Therefore, the ischemia induced mechanical dysfunction may cause specific
26 changes in the systolic-diastolic pattern of myocardial impedance but this is not
27 known. This study aimed to analyze the phasic changes of myocardial resistivity in
28 normal and ischemic conditions. Myocardial resistivity was measured continuously
29 during the cardiac cycle using 26 different simultaneous excitation frequencies (1
30 kHz-1 MHz) in 7 anesthetized open chest pigs. Animals were submitted to 30
31 minutes regional ischemia by acute left anterior descending coronary artery
32 occlusion. The electrocardiogram, left ventricular (LV) pressure, LV dP/dt and aortic
33 blood flow were recorded simultaneously. Baseline myocardial resistivity depicted a
34 phasic pattern during the cardiac cycle with higher values at the pre-ejection period
35 ($4.19 \pm 1.09\%$ increase above the mean, $p < 0.001$) and lower values during relaxation
36 phase ($5.01 \pm 0.85\%$ below the mean, $p < 0.001$). Acute coronary occlusion induced two
37 effects on the phasic resistivity curve: 1) a prompt (5 min ischemia) holosystolic
38 resistivity rise leading to a bell-shaped waveform and to a reduction of the area
39 under the LV pressure-impedance curve ($1427 \pm 335 \Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$ vs 757 ± 266
40 $\Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$, $p < 0.01$, 41 kHz) and 2) a subsequent (5-10 min ischemia) progressive
41 mean resistivity rise ($325 \pm 23 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ vs $438 \pm 37 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 30 min, $p < 0.01$, 1 kHz). The
42 structural and mechanical myocardial dysfunction induced by acute coronary
43 occlusion can be recognized by specific changes in the systolic-diastolic myocardial
44 resistivity curve. Therefore these changes may become a new indicator (surrogate)
45 of evolving acute myocardial ischemia.

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47

48 **NEW & NOTEWORTHY**

49 This study affords a new method to promptly recognize the presence of acute
50 myocardial ischemia based on the measurement of the local changes in myocardial
51 resistivity elicited during heart contraction and relaxation.

52

53 **KEYWORDS**

54 animal model; bioelectrical impedance; hemodynamics; myocardial ischemia.

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58 **INTRODUCTION**

59 Myocardial electrical resistivity is a passive biophysical property of the heart
60 that is influenced by geometrical cell characteristics and by the structural integrity of
61 the myocardium (16). Classical measurements of myocardium electrical resistivity
62 have usually been performed at a single current frequency, in the 1 kHz - 15 kHz
63 range (6) or using the frequency-sweep Electrical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS)
64 technique, in the 0.1 kHz - 10 MHz range (8) or in the 1 kHz - 1 MHz range (12).
65 With these techniques, stationary characterization of myocardial resistivity in normal
66 and ischemic myocardium was possible (20), but due the time required for the whole
67 impedance spectrum acquisition, only few measurements could be drawn during the
68 cardiac cycle. Therefore, the phasic changes in myocardial resistivity that are close
69 linked to the mechanical activity of the beating heart were not well defined.

70 Recently, with the use of the fast broadband EIS, it is feasible to obtain up to
71 1,000 spectrums/s and therefore a more refined information about the time behavior
72 of myocardial impedance during the mechanical cardiac activity. It is predictable that
73 in the presence of acute myocardial ischemia the resultant structural and mechanical
74 derangements will exert specific changes in the phasic systolic-diastolic resistivity
75 curve, but this is not known.

76 This study aimed to characterize the phasic (systolic-diastolic) changes of
77 myocardial resistivity in normal and ischemic conditions in the in situ pig heart by
78 using fast broadband EIS.

79 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

80 **Study population**

81 Seven female domestic swine (Landrace-Large White cross) weighing 40 kg
82 were premedicated with a combination of midazolam (0.6 mg/kg) and ketamine (12
83 mg/kg), both injected intramuscularly. Anesthesia was induced with intravenous
84 propofol (2-4 mg/kg). After endotracheal intubation, general anesthesia was
85 maintained with sevoflurane inhalation (2.5-3.5 % with oxygen) and the animals
86 were mechanically ventilated. Ventilatory parameters were adjusted to maintain
87 blood gases within physiological ranges. Remifentanyl (0.2 mcg/kg/min) was
88 administered during the procedure for analgesia.

89 The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
90 Committee (IACUC) of our institution, and conformed to the regulation for the
91 treatment of animals established by the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory*
92 *Animals*: Eighth Edition (National Research Council. Washington, DC: the National
93 Academies Press, 2010).

94 **Experimental preparation**

95 A femoral arterial access was established by using the Seldinger technique
96 and a 6F introducer sheath (Cordis Corp., Florida, USA) was introduced
97 percutaneously into the femoral artery. Under fluoroscopic guidance, a 5F Millar
98 micromanometer catheter (Millar Instruments, Inc., Houston, TX, USA) was
99 advanced to the left ventricle (LV) to continuously monitor the LV pressure. The
100 peripheral electrocardiogram (ECG) was recorded (Nihon Kohden Corporation,
101 Japan). The thorax was opened through a midline sternotomy, and the heart was
102 suspended in a pericardial cradle. An ultrasonic flow probe (Transonic Systems Inc.,
103 Ithaca, NY, US) was carefully deployed around the aortic root to monitor the aortic

104 blood flow (ABF). The left anterior descending (LAD) coronary artery was dissected
105 after the first diagonal and was looped with a Prolene 3/0 snare (Ethicon Inc., New
106 Jersey, US).

107 **Electrocardiographic and hemodynamic parameters**

108 In all cases, we recorded the following signals: a) the conventional ECG lead
109 II, b) the LV pressure with an intracavitary Millar micromanometer catheter, and c)
110 ABF. An amplifier system Nihon Kohden Corporation was used to record the LV
111 pressure and ECG and a Transonic Systems Inc. to construct the ABF curve. All
112 signals were digitized at 1 kHz (PowerLab with LabChart, ADInstruments Pty.Ltd,
113 Australia) and stored for subsequent offline analysis. The first derivative of LV
114 pressure was also calculated.

115 **Myocardial electrical impedance**

116 **Theoretical background.** The whole myocardial electrical impedance is an overall
117 estimation of the intra- and extracellular resistances and the cell membrane
118 capacitance (7). Impedance (Z) is defined as the voltage (V) divided by the
119 sinusoidal current (I) of a given frequency (f) applied through a region ($Z(f)=V/I$).
120 Since biological tissues are not purely resistive, there will be a time delay (Δt)
121 between the voltage and current waves which is measured as a phase angle shift
122 ($\Theta=360 \cdot \Delta t \cdot f$). Therefore, myocardial impedance has two components: tissue
123 resistivity (ρ) and phase angle (Θ). Tissue resistivity was calculated from the relation
124 $R=k\rho$, where R is the in phase component of V with respect to I , and k is the cell
125 constant of the electrode determined by measuring the electrical resistance of a
126 0.9% NaCl solution at 25°C, which affords a resistivity of 70 $\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$.

127 **Tissue Impedance Spectroscopy.** Tissue impedance was measured with a four-
128 electrode probe to minimize the electrode–tissue interface impedance (17). The

129 probe consisted of a linear array of four platinum-iridium needle electrodes (5 mm
130 long, 0.4 mm diameter, with a constant interelectrode distance of 1.27 mm). The
131 outer pair of electrodes were used to apply the test currents to the myocardium,
132 while the inner two electrodes were employed to measure the resulting potential
133 difference. The electrode probe was inserted into the LV myocardial wall,
134 perpendicular to the trajectory of the LAD coronary artery (Figure 1). An analog front-
135 end was used to interconnect the electrode array with the signal generation and
136 acquisition system. The impedance measurements were performed using a current
137 excitation consisting of a multisine signal (1 ms duration, 1 mA peak amplitude) of 26
138 frequencies logarithmically spaced in the range from 1 kHz to 1 MHz, obtaining 1000
139 spectra/s. Both current generation and acquisition were synchronized using a
140 custom setup based on a PXI system from National Instruments. The acquired
141 signals were low-pass filtered and then digitized at 5 MHz sampling rate. The
142 physiological signals (LV pressure, ABF, ECG) were acquired synchronously with
143 the impedance measurements, using an additional 8-channel digitizer card included
144 in the PXI system. To compensate for the potential error effects elicited by the cables
145 and the amplifier response, the electrical impedance setup was calibrated at the
146 beginning of each study by measuring the impedance spectrum of a test saline
147 solution of known resistivity.

148 We have analyzed the time course of the resistivity patterns during 3 phases
149 of the cardiac cycle: pre-ejection (1), ejection (2) and relaxation (3). The pre-ejection
150 phase was defined as the interval between the peak of the R wave of the ECG to the
151 start of the steep increase of the ABF (aortic valve opening); the ejection phase was
152 delimited between the last point of previous phase and the moment where ABF
153 dropped rapidly towards zero L/min (aortic valve closure); and the relaxation phase

154 was defined as the rest of the cycle until the next R wave peak. We measured the
155 maximum value of the resistivity during the pre-ejection phase, the mean value of the
156 resistivity during the ejection phase and the minimum value of the resistivity during
157 the relaxation phase at baseline and after coronary occlusion. These measures were
158 performed in 3 consecutive cardiac cycles and data were averaged for statistical
159 analysis. The resistivity values were normalized to their relative change from the total
160 resistivity mean: $(\Delta Z = 100 * (Z_{\text{ph}} - Z_{\text{mean}}) / Z_{\text{mean}})$. Further analyses of
161 resistivity changes in relation to the LV pressure (pressure-impedance curves) were
162 also performed.

163 **Study protocol**

164 The study began after stabilization of the anesthesia level and hemodynamic
165 parameters. Then, the hemodynamic and electrical signals were recorded at
166 baseline and sequentially during 30 min of acute transmural myocardial ischemia in
167 the territory of the implanted impedance electrode by occluding the LAD coronary
168 artery. At the end of the study the animals were euthanized and the heart was
169 removed to verify the appropriate location of the impedance electrode in the
170 ischemic region.

171 **Statistical analysis**

172 Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM).
173 Differences in the study variables were assessed using repeated measures t-test,
174 and analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni correction for post-hoc
175 comparisons, as appropriate. A p value of <0.05 was considered statistically
176 significant. Statistical analyses were performed using the software SPSS v.22.0 (IBM
177 SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

178

179 RESULTS**180 ECG and Hemodynamic parameters**

181 As shown in Figure 1, LAD occlusion induced a visible area of cyanosis in the
182 subtended myocardial region, which was associated with reciprocal ST segment
183 depression in lead II, and a decrease of the LV systolic pressure, negative LV dP/dt,
184 and aortic blood flow (Table 1 and Figure 2). The positive LV dP/dt also followed a
185 decreasing tendency, but this was not statistically significant.

186 Phasic changes in myocardial impedance

187 As illustrated in Figure 3A, electrical resistivity of the normal myocardium
188 depicted phasic changes during the cardiac cycle: a maximal value was attained
189 during the pre-ejection period and a minimal value during the relaxation phase. The
190 lower panel in Figure 3A shows the phasic changes in resistivity at various
191 frequencies expressed as % variation from the mean value in the 7 studied pigs.
192 This analysis indicated that during the pre-ejection period the resistivity at 41 kHz
193 increased by $4.19 \pm 1.09\%$ ($p < 0.001$) over the mean, whereas a decrease of about
194 $5.01 \pm 0.85\%$ ($p < 0.001$) occurred during the relaxation phase. The phasic pattern of
195 resistivity changes was valid for all test current frequencies analyzed.

196 Acute LAD occlusion induced remarkable changes in both the shape of the
197 phasic pattern and magnitude of local tissue resistivity (Figures 3B and 3C). As
198 shown in Figure 3B, soon after coronary occlusion the resistivity curve recorded in
199 the ischemic region evolved to a bell-shaped contour as a result of a sustained
200 resistivity rise that persisted throughout the whole ejection phase. The lower panel of
201 the figure 3 illustrates the phasic changes at various frequencies in the whole
202 experimental series. Thus, at 5 min of LAD occlusion the % change over the mean
203 resistivity at 41 kHz was $3.14 \pm 0.97\%$ at pre-ejection ($p < 0.001$); $2.24 \pm 0.64\%$ during

204 ejection ($p < 0.001$); and $-6.42 \pm 0.89\%$ during the relaxation phase ($p < 0.001$).
205 Thereafter, the changes in the resistivity pattern were accompanied by a progressive
206 increase in the magnitude of the whole tissue resistivity as illustrated in Figure 3C. At
207 30 min of LAD occlusion the mean resistivity increased significantly at 1 kHz and 41
208 kHz (from $325 \pm 23 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ to $438 \pm 37 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$, $p < 0.001$, at 1 kHz and from $276 \pm 21 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$
209 to $339 \pm 27 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$, $p < 0.01$, at 41 kHz).

210 **Myocardial impedance spectroscopy**

211 Figure 4 illustrates the dependence of myocardial resistivity and its phase
212 angle on the frequency of the injected alternating current. In normal conditions
213 (Figure 4A), the magnitude of myocardial resistivity (solid line represents the mean
214 values and dash lines the maximum and minimum values of the whole phasic
215 changes) decreased as the frequency increased (from $325 \pm 23 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 1 kHz to
216 $213 \pm 17 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 1 MHz, $p < 0.001$). Under ischemic conditions, myocardial resistivity
217 followed a similar trend of changes (from $438 \pm 37 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 1 kHz to $231 \pm 18 \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 1
218 MHz, $p < 0.001$) although with a greater mean value (mean resistivity rise of about
219 23% at 41 kHz, $p < 0.01$).

220 The lower panels in Figure 4 illustrate the frequency dependence of the phase
221 angle of myocardial impedance. In the nonischemic myocardium the phase angle
222 followed a progressive decline to more negative values as the frequency of the
223 injected current was increased from 1 kHz to 300 kHz. At frequencies higher than
224 300 kHz, the phase angle depicted less negative values. In the presence of acute
225 myocardial ischemia the phase angle evolved to more negative values than baseline
226 at all current frequencies. Moreover, the figure shows a deepest deviation at 300 kHz
227 and a new relaxation at 5-10 kHz. The current frequencies that better differentiate
228 the resistivity of the healthy and acute ischemic myocardium were those comprised

229 between 1 kHz to 41 kHz. By contrast, the phase angle changes are better
230 differentiated at frequencies ranging from 41 kHz to 1 MHz.

231 **LV pressure-impedance curves**

232 The temporal relationship between the whole cardiac mechanical activity and
233 the concurrent changes in regional myocardial impedance can be better analyzed by
234 constructing the LV pressure-impedance loop (Figure 5B). This shows that during
235 the pre-ejection phase (segment #1 in Figure 5) both the LV pressure and
236 myocardial resistivity increased progressively. However, during the ejection phase
237 (segment #2) resistivity dropped rapidly while the LV pressure remained rather
238 stationary. At the beginning of the relaxation phase (segment #3) both the LV
239 pressure and resistivity decreased progressively but at the end of this period, when
240 the LV pressure dropped to nearly 0 mmHg, the resistivity increased rapidly to the
241 pre-ejection value.

242 The LV pressure-impedance loop suffered marked changes during acute LAD
243 occlusion. As illustrated in Figure 6, the area under the LV pressure-impedance
244 curve (AUC) decreased dramatically 5 min after LAD occlusion (from 1427 ± 335
245 $\Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$ to $733 \pm 157 \Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$ at 41 kHz, $p < 0.01$). This figure reveals that
246 the AUC reduction is likely caused by the lack of changes in resistivity during the
247 plateau rise at the ejection phase. Likewise, the progressive increase in the
248 magnitude of resistivity that was detected in the ensuing stages of ischemia shifted
249 the LV pressure-resistivity loop upwards to higher resistivity values. Figure 6
250 illustrates the shift of the depressed loop at 30 min of LAD occlusion (AUC:
251 $1427 \pm 335 \Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$ vs. $757 \pm 266 \Omega \cdot \text{cm} \cdot \text{mmHg}$ at 41 KHz $p < 0.01$). The shape of
252 the LV pressure-impedance loops was comparable among the different current
253 frequencies analyzed in this study.

254 **DISCUSSION**

255 **Main findings**

256 This study shows that acute transmural myocardial ischemia exerts two well
257 defined effects on local tissue electrical impedance. One effect was already known
258 and consisted of a myocardial resistivity rise that became significant after 5-10 min of
259 ischemia (11, 20). The second effect, which has not been previously reported, was
260 characterized by a fast change in the contour of the local systolic-diastolic resistivity
261 curve. Specifically, within the first 5 min of ischemia the resistivity curve evolved from
262 a biphasic pattern -with higher values at pre-ejection phase and lower values during
263 relaxation- to a bell-shaped contour caused by a sustained resistivity rise during
264 systole. This local holosystolic sustained resistivity rise shared a close time-
265 relationship with the local mechanical systolic bulging that develops during the first
266 minutes of interruption of the LAD coronary flow in the ischemic region, also in the
267 pig heart model I (3). Therefore, this study suggests a close relationship between
268 the morphology of the phasic myocardial resistivity curve obtained by continuous
269 measurement of the tissue resistivity during the cardiac cycle and the local
270 mechanical cardiac activity.

271 **Mechanism of the phasic changes in myocardial impedance**

272 The phasic changes in myocardial resistivity are likely related to the cyclic
273 variations of myocardial cell geometry that occur during cardiac contraction and
274 relaxation. This assumption is based on the fact that myocardial impedance is
275 modulated by changes in cell dimension and structural integrity (16) and, on the
276 other hand, on the observation that cardiac contraction and relaxation induce cyclic
277 changes in myocardial thickness (19) and cell length (2).

278 Recording of the phasic resistivity curve was not feasible until recently. The
279 inability to detect specific impedance differences between systole and diastole was
280 alluded by previous investigators (6, 10) and was mainly due to the low sampling
281 rate imposed by the impedance measuring system. Recently, we (13, 14) reported a
282 novel methodological procedure allowing to detect the evolving temporal changes of
283 bioimpedance during the cardiac cycle by using fast broadband electrical impedance
284 spectroscopy (EIS). Thus, we were able to acquire up to 1,000 spectra per second in
285 healthy porcine myocardium although in that study we could not fully characterize
286 the phasic resistivity curve due to the lack of synchronized physiological parameters.
287 Using the frequency-sweep EIS technique in healthy tissue other authors (17)
288 reported impedance changes during the cardiac cycle in relation to the myocardial
289 fiber orientation: higher longitudinal resistivity values during the ejection phase and
290 higher transverse resistivity values during late diastole. In our study myocardial
291 resistivity was higher in the pre-ejection phase and lower during diastole. These two
292 studies used distinct measurement techniques: a contact epicardial probe in the first
293 study and a four needle electrode inserted 5 mm deep into the myocardium in ours.
294 The intramural electrode encompasses the different myocardial layers of the
295 ventricular wall and would be expected to average the effects of layer fiber
296 orientation. In addition, in the study by Steendijk et al. the impedance spectrum (8
297 current frequencies) was measured stepwise during 30 seconds and as a
298 consequence of the large measuring time required, the temporal variation of the
299 bioimpedance spectrum during the cardiac cycle might be underestimated.

300 The myocardial structure consists of two electrically conducting compartments
301 (the intra and extracellular spaces) separated by insulating membranes. The
302 conductance of the electric current flowing through this structure is highly dependent

303 on the current frequency (8, 12, 20). The present study shows that the average
304 specific myocardial impedance is frequency dependent in the 1 kHz-1 MHz range,
305 but the phasic changes of resistance during the cardiac cycle are not. These
306 observations suggest that the impedance is mainly modulated by the structural
307 and/or morphological changes, whereas the impedance waveform is highly
308 synchronized with changes in wall thickness as reported by Sasaki et al. (15)

309 Myocardial ischemia causes intracellular edema and this results in cellular
310 enlargement and extracellular space volume reduction (18, 21). Under these
311 conditions the average impedance increases at all studied frequencies as reported
312 previously by us and others (4, 6, 12). In addition, our results showed that the
313 frequencies that better differentiate normal from ischemic tissue are 1 and 41 kHz for
314 the resistance and 300 kHz for the phase angle.

315 **LV pressure-impedance curves**

316 We analyzed the temporal relationship between the cyclic changes in
317 myocardial resistivity and the concurrent level of LV pressure by constructing the LV
318 pressure-impedance loop. Establishing a parallelism with the well-known pressure-
319 volume curve that reflects the whole work performed by the corresponding ventricle
320 (1) then, the LV pressure-impedance loop would indicate the LV resistance strength
321 referred to a particular explored area. As a novel contribution our study shows that
322 early after coronary occlusion the area under the LV pressure-impedance began to
323 decrease dramatically and therefore this parameter will further contribute to
324 recognize acute myocardial ischemia. The virtual abolition of the area under the LV
325 pressure-impedance curve during the first 5 minutes of ischemia was due to the lack
326 of resistivity decrease during the ejection period. Lyseggen et al. (9) studied the
327 relationship between LV pressure and local segment length (SL), and observed that

328 regions with depressed motility, characterized by regional work close to 0, showed
329 reduced LV pressure-SL area.

330 Thus, our findings suggest that the LV pressure-impedance loop would allow
331 differentiating the segments that generate active force (healthy tissue) from those
332 ischemic dyskinetic segments that are entirely passive. In fact, active myocardial
333 regions with cell contraction contribute to the pressure changes, whereas passive
334 regions with ischemia-induced local dyskinesia, are not contributing to pressure
335 generation and instead, they suffer tissue deformation as a consequence of the
336 whole intraventricular pressure changes generated by the cardiac beat.

337 **Considerations on the model**

338 The systolic-diastolic impedance patterns described in this study were
339 recorded with intramural needle electrodes in the open chest swine model. Although
340 the direct intramyocardial measurements are the most appropriate for a refined
341 detection of the local tissue resistivity changes, this is an invasive approach which on
342 the other hand required a thoracotomy. An intracavitary approach based on an
343 endocardial contact electrocatheter probe is theoretically feasible and would
344 overcome these limitations. Indeed, we have previously reported in the same
345 experimental model, that the myocardial resistivity changes induced by coronary
346 occlusion can be successfully detected with an electrocatheter based approach in
347 the closed chest (5).

348

349

350 **Conclusions**

351 Acute transmural myocardial ischemia can be promptly recognized by specific
352 changes in the systolic-diastolic pattern of local electrical myocardial resistivity.

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359 **DISCLOSURES**

360 No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the author(s).

361 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

362 J.C., R.B. and J.R.-F. conception and design of research; E.J., G.A.-F., T.G.-
363 S., R.B., J.R.-F. and J.C. performed experiments; E.J. and G.A.-F. analyzed data;
364 E.J., G.A.-F. and J.C. interpreted results of experiments; E.J. and G.A.-F. prepared
365 figures; E.J., G.A.-F. and J.C. drafted manuscript; E.J., G.A.-F., T.G.-S., R.B., J.R.-F.
366 and J.C. edited and revised manuscript.; E.J., G.A.-F., T.G.-S., R.B., J.R.-F. and J.C.
367 approved final version of manuscript.

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436 period of ischemia on myocardial cells. I. Effects on cell volume regulation. *Am*
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438

439 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

440 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the experimental model. A: shows a
441 photograph of the left ventricular anterior wall in an open chest pig heart preparation
442 submitted to occlusion (occl.) of the left anterior descending (LAD) coronary artery.
443 The dotted white line delineates the border between the cyanotic ischemic region
444 (IZ) and the non-ischemic myocardium (NZ). The impedance probe is inserted inside
445 the cyanotic region. B: shows a schematic representation of the system used to
446 record simultaneously the phasic changes of myocardial electrical impedance (Z),
447 left ventricular (LV) pressure, aortic blood flow (ABF) and surface ECG.

448

449 **Figure 2.** Simultaneous recording of myocardial resistivity at 1 kHz, left ventricular
450 (LV) pressure, LV dP/dt, aortic blood flow (ABF) and lead II of the ECG at baseline
451 (A), and after 5 minutes (B) and 30 minutes of LAD coronary occlusion (C).

452

453 **Figure 3.** Time course of the changes in myocardial resistivity during 30 minutes of
454 LAD occlusion at different current frequencies. Panel A (upper) shows the
455 simultaneous recording of baseline resistivity at 1 kHz, ECG and aortic blood flow
456 during the 3 different phases of the cardiac cycle: pre-ejection (1), ejection (2) and
457 relaxation (3), in one anesthetized pig. The lower panel shows the percentage
458 change from the mean resistivity value at different frequencies in the group of 7 pigs.
459 Five minutes after LAD occlusion (panel B) there was a plateau increase of resistivity
460 during the ejection period which was statistically significant in the group of 7 pigs
461 (lower panel). Panel C shows an increase in the myocardial resistivity (upward shift)
462 maintaining the bell-shaped contour seen at 5 minutes occlusion. ***= $p < 0,001$ vs
463 mean.

464

465 **Figure 4.** Myocardial resistivity (upper) and phase angle (lower) at different
466 frequencies (1 kHz-1 MHz) during baseline (A), and after 5 minutes (B) and 30
467 minutes of LAD occlusion (C) in one anesthetized pig. The solid line represents the
468 mean values of the phasic resistivity changes and the dashed lines their maximum
469 and minimum values. Signals in the inset boxes represent the phasic patterns of
470 myocardial electrical resistivity at 41 kHz. Panel D shows the mean value of
471 resistivity and phase angle for the whole group of 7 pigs at four specified excitation
472 frequencies in baseline conditions and after 5 and 30 minutes of LAD occlusion. *** =
473 $p < 0,001$; ** = $p < 0,01$, * = $p < 0,05$.

474

475 **Figure 5.** Time relationship between the changes in myocardial impedance and left
476 ventricular (LV) pressure (left panel) expressed graphically by the LV pressure-
477 impedance curves (right panel) during the pre-ejection (1), ejection (2) and relaxation
478 (3) phases of the cardiac cycle in one anesthetized pig.

479

480 **Figure 6.** Changes in the LV pressure-impedance curve during 30 minutes of LAD
481 occlusion. Panel A shows a drop of the area under the LV pressure-impedance
482 curve (AUC) soon after LAD occlusion (5 minutes) that was followed by an upright
483 deviation towards higher myocardial resistivity values at 1 kHz after 30 minutes LAD
484 occlusion in one anesthetized pig. Panel B shows the LV pressure-impedance curve
485 AUC of the whole group of animals at different excitation frequencies at baseline and
486 after 5 and 30 minutes of ischemia.
487 Loops are divided in three periods: pre-ejection (slim line), ejection (bold line) and
488 relaxation (dashed line), **= $p < 0,01$; *= $p < 0,05$.

489 **TABLES**

490 Table 1. Hemodynamic parameters in seven anesthetized pigs submitted to 30
 491 minutes of left anterior descending (LAD) coronary artery occlusion.

492

	Basal (n=7)	30' LAD occl. (n=7)	p
RR interval (ms)	842±63	804±74	ns
LVSP (mmHg)	83±4	76±4	<0,01
LVEDP (mmHg)	10,0±2	12±2	ns
dP/dt max (mmHg·s ⁻¹)	1410±94	1246±63	ns
dP/dt min (mmHg·s ⁻¹)	-1274±131	-1091±128	<0,01
ABF (L/min)	3,0±0,3	2,3±0,2	<0,05

493 Values are means ± SE; n = 7.

494 Abbreviations: LVSP: Left ventricular systolic pressure; LVEDP: Left ventricular end-diastolic
 495 pressure; dP/dt: First derivative of the left ventricular pressure; ABF: Aortic blood flow.

496











