SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL Supplemental Methods

All procedures were carried out in accordance with the UK Animals Scientific Procedures Act (1986). Male Wistar rats (weight 200 g; Charles River, UK) were arbitrarily assigned to either a control or monocrotaline group. On day 0 the monocrotaline group received monocrotaline (Sigma-Aldrich Ltd, UK) 60 mg/kg by intraperitoneal injection and the control group received a volume matched 0.9% saline intraperitoneal injection (3 ml/kg). Monocrotaline was dissolved in 1 M hydrochloric acid and then made up to a concentration of 20 mg/ml with 0.9% saline, the pH corrected to 7.4 using 4 M NaOH. The animals were weighed and their clinical condition was assessed twice weekly in the first 18 days, and daily thereafter. The control and monocrotaline-injected animals were paired. Animals were sacrificed on the day that the following pre-specified endpoints were met, namely evidence of clinical deterioration with reduced movement, increased respiratory rate, piloerection and weight loss of >10 g over two days. The paired animal was sacrificed within 24 h. Animals that did not meet these criteria were electively sacrificed on day 28. The animals were sacrificed by stunning and cervical dislocation; the heart and lungs were excised and weighed.

In vivo **ECG and echocardiography**

Echocardiography and ECG recording was carried out under general anaesthesia with 2% isoflurane. Echocardiography images were acquired on an ACUSON Sequoia (Acuson Universal Diagnostics Solution, USA) with a 15 MHz 15L8 transducer. All images were stored on optical media disks for subsequent offline analysis. M-mode recordings were taken in the parasternal short axis view allowing recording of left ventricle anterior and posterior wall thickness and the internal diameter of the left ventricle in both systole and diastole. Right ventricle wall thickness was measured from M-mode recordings in the parasternal long axis view. Continuous wave Doppler recordings through the pulmonary artery were used to assess the pulmonary velocity profile. The maximum pulmonary velocity, time from the onset of pulmonary outflow to maximal flow (PAAT) and the rate of deceleration of pulmonary flow (PAD) were measured. ECG electrodes were inserted subcutaneously with the negative electrode in the right forepaw, the positive electrode in the left forepaw and the ground electrode in the right hindpaw. The electrodes were connected to a Bioamp and Powerlab analog to digital converter (AD Instruments, New Zealand). Signals were recorded using LabChart (AD Instruments, New Zealand) and analysed offline. Echocardiography and ECG recording was carried out on day 0 immediately prior to injection, day 21 and immediately prior to termination.

Telemetry

Telemetric recordings of ECGs from conscious and unrestrained male Wistar rats were made as part of an on-going study at the University of Leeds with UK Home Office and local ethical approval. For data included in this publication, animal source, monocrotaline treatment and experimental end points were the same as those described above with the additional voluntary ingestion of 2 ml/day blackcurrant juice placebo in the ongoing study. Implantation of recording devices and ECG acquisition were as previously described by Benoist *et al.*¹ Data were analysed using Chart 7 software (AD Instruments, New Zealand). Twenty-one days after injection of monocrotaline, ECGs were recorded 24 h per day.

Langendorff experiments

The heart was mounted on a Langendorff column and retrogradely perfused with oxygenated Tyrode's solution at a temperature of 36.5°C with a fixed flow rate of 0.11 ml/g/min. Tyrode's solution contained: NaCl, 120 mM; CaCl₂, 1.2 mM; KCl, 4 mM; MgSO₄, 1.3 mM; NaH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM; NaHC0₃, 25.2 mM; glucose, 5.8 or 11 mM. The solution was equilibrated with $95\%O_2$ and 5% CO₂. Widely spaced extracellular electrodes were placed on the right atrium and left ventricle. The electrodes were connected via a headstage (NL100AK, Digitimer, UK) to an amplifier (NL104A, Digitimer, UK). The signal was then filtered between 50-500 Hz (NL125/6, Digitimer, UK). The amplified and filtered signal was then converted to a digital signal using a data acquisition unit (Micro 1401, Cambridge Electronic Design, UK) and recorded and analysed using Spike 2 software (Cambridge Electronic Design, UK). The electrodes record a 'pseudo-ECG' from the Langendorff-perfused heart which is equivalent to the *in vivo* ECG. The recording from 19-20 min (i.e. immediately prior to stimulation) was exported and analysed using LabChart software. This allowed an averaged ECG of the last 100 beats before stimulation to be inspected. The RR, PR and QT intervals and the QRS duration were measured. Pacing protocols were performed to measure atrial and ventricular effective refractory periods, atrioventricular (AV) node effective and functional refractory periods (AVERP and AVFRP, respectively) and Wenckebach cycle length. The pacing protocol for AVERP and AVFRP involved pacing the atrium with a drive train of 8 beats with a 180 ms coupling interval with an extra-stimulus with a progressively shortening coupling interval until failure of conduction between the atrium and ventricles was seen. The pacing protocol for Wenckebach cycle length used burst pacing of the atrium for 30 s at a fixed cycle length with a sequentially shortening cycle length until Wenckebach conduction was seen between the atrium and the ventricle.

Isolated AV node experiments

The heart was excised from the thorax and retrogradely perfused with oxygenated Tyrode's solution chilled to 4˚C. The heart underwent dissection in a dissection chamber whilst being constantly superfused with oxygenated Tyrode's solution. The AV node preparation was placed in a perfusion bath with recirculated Tyrode's solution at a flow rate of 50 ml/min and temperature of 36.5°C. Custom made bipolar electrodes with an interelectrode spacing of 0.2 mm were used to record signals in the atrium and at the His bundle. Signals were amplified and filtered as per the Langendorff experiments. The preparation was stimulated with pacing protocols to determine AVERP, AVFRP and Wenckebach cycle length. The pacing protocol for AVERP and AVFRP involved pacing the atrium with a drive train of 15 beats with a coupling interval of 150 or 200 ms with an extra-stimulus with a progressively shortening coupling interval until failure of conduction between the atrium and ventricles was seen. The pacing protocol for determination of the Wenckebach cycle length used burst pacing of the atrium for 30 s at a fixed cycle length with a sequentially shortening cycle length until Wenckebach conduction was seen between the atrium and the His bundle.

Intracellular action potential recordings

Isolated AV node preparations were stimulated at 5 Hz at the level of the sinus node using 2 ms, $2\times$ threshold, constant voltage rectangular pulses. Intracellular action potentials were recorded using sharp microelectrodes (20 to 40 MΩ resistances) filled with 3 M KCl as described previously by Atkinson *et al*. 2 Briefly, data acquired at 0.005 ms intervals using WinEDR V3.3.6 software (Dr J. Dempster, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK) were passed through a 10 kHz low-pass Bessel filter, amplified 10 times (Axon Instruments GeneClamp 500) and digitised (Axon Instruments Digidata 1440A) for storage on a computer for later analysis.

AV node microdissection and reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)

Hearts were excised and the AV node dissection was carried out in the same way as for the isolated AV node experiments. The AV node was sectioned at 50 µm in a cryostat. Sections 300 µm apart were immunolabelled for HCN4 and Cx43 and stained with Masson's trichrome (Fig. S1). The immunolabelling and staining allowed six regions in and around the AV node to be identified: atrial septal myocardium, transitional tissue, inferior nodal extension, compact node, penetrating bundle and ventricular septal myocardium. A haematoxylin and eosin stain was performed on the remaining tissues and the six different regions were identified using a Nikon SMZ800 dissecting microscope (Nikon, Japan) with x63 magnification and were dissected with a sharp needle (Fig. S1). mRNA was extracted using the MirVana kit (Life Technologies, USA) and was treated with TurboDNAse (Life Technologies) to remove any residual genomic DNA. The concentration of mRNA in each sample was measured using the Qubit system (Life Technologies) and the samples were diluted so that 16 ng of total mRNA were used for reverse transcription. SuperScript VILO Mastermix (Life Technologies) with random hexamers was used to reverse transcribe the samples to cDNA. Prior to quantification, the cDNA underwent a preamplification process (Life Technologies); see below. The cDNA was quantified using the TaqMan low density array card system (TLDA; Life Technologies) using predesigned primer sequences with a hydrolysis probe detection system. Data were analysed using a combination of ExpressionSuite (Life Techonolgies) and RealTime Statminer (Integromics, S.L., USA) software. Samples that had failed to amplify for all or most targets were omitted. Where individual targets had not amplified in a sample where the majority of targets had amplified well, the undetermined values were replaced with a C_t value of 40 to represent an assumed very low abundance of the target within that sample. Expression was normalised to the abundance of a pair of housekeeper genes, B2M and PKG1, selected from 16 potential housekeeper genes as the most stable.

Preamplification

Because the tissues making up the AV node are small, the amount of RNA could be small (16 ng; less than the recommended minimum of 30 ng for Taqman low-density array cards) and therefore a preamplification step was performed after the RNA had been reverse transcribed to produce cDNA.^{3,4} Preamplification of the cDNA was carried out using PCR and the combination of the specific primer sets for the genes of interest. The process of preamplification has been shown to increase the sensitivity of qPCR in several tissues, $3,4$ but has not previously been used with heart tissue. To validate preamplification, 25 atrial and ventricular samples were used: 6 atrial and 7 ventricular samples from control rats and 6 atrial and 6 ventricular samples from monocrotaline-injected rats. Atrial and ventricular samples were used because relatively large amounts of RNA were isolated. From the samples, two cDNA dilutions were prepared from each: one with an effective initial total RNA of 16 ng (which was preamplified) and another with an effective initial total RNA of 160 ng (which was not preamplified). qPCR using Taqman low-density array cards was then used to

measure the expression of the 95 transcripts of interest in the samples using both dilutions. Expression was normalised to the abundance of the housekeeper genes, B2M and PKG1 ($\Delta C_t=C_t$ housekeeper–C_t target). If preamplification is effective, the ΔC_t value for a target transcript should be the same for the unamplified and preamplified samples. Fig. S2 shows the relationship between the ΔC_t values from the unamplified and preamplified samples for all transcripts and all tissue samples. The ΔC_t values for the unamplified and preamplified samples are significantly correlated (P<0.0001) with an R^2 value of 0.61. The correlation is excellent for abundantly expressed transcripts $(\Delta C_f \le 0)$; transcript of interest more abundant than housekeeper). However, there is deviation from a 1:1 relationship for poorly expressed transcripts ($\Delta C \ge 0$; transcript of interest less abundant than housekeeper). It is likely that low concentrations of cDNA for targets in the unamplified samples were at the limit of detection of qPCR and therefore inaccurate quantification of these targets in the unamplified samples caused deviation from the 1:1 relationship. These findings support the validity of the preamplification methodology and show the need for preamplification with the low concentrations of mRNA in the microdissected tissue samples from the AV node.

Immunohistochemistry

Whole hearts were cryosectioned, the different regions of the cardiac conduction system including the AV node identified by histology and neurofilament 150 and HCN4 immunolabelled as described previously.⁵⁻⁷

Computer modelling

mRNA is an important determinant of protein (and therefore function), although not the only determinant (it can account for ~40% of variation⁸⁻¹⁰). In the cardiac conduction system, we have usually (but not always) seen a correlation between mRNA and protein.^{e.g.11} We and others have successfully used biophysicallydetailed action potential models to predict potential changes in electrical activity based on changes in mRNA expression for ion channels etc.¹¹⁻¹⁶ We scale the conductance for a particular ionic current based on the change in the corresponding mRNA. This is not a method of generating definitive biophysically-detailed action potential models, but instead is a form of bioinformatics to explore the *possible* consequences of changes in transcripts and we have used this approach in the present study. A one-dimensional (1D) strand model of cardiac tissue was constructed in order to simulate the functional effects of pulmonary hypertension (PHT) on action potential conduction. The 1D model is 52.5 mm in length and consists of segments of atrium (15 mm), AV node (12.5 mm), Purkinje fibre (20 mm) and ventricle (10 mm). The segments were simulated by well-established models of the action potential of an atrial cell, 17 AV node cells, 18 Purkinje cell and left ventricular cell¹⁹ of the rabbit heart (action potential models are not available for other species). Details of the dimensions and coupling conductances of the 1D strand model are summarised in Table S4. For simplicity, we chose to only consider the fast pathway (the normal pathway) through the AV node. For initiation of cardiac excitation, a series of supra-threshold stimuli were applied at the beginning of the strand of atrium; each stimulus evoked an action potential that propagated from the atrium to the AV node, and then to the Purkinje fibres and ventricular muscle. The PHT condition was simulated based on regional changes in mRNA expression, which we assumed to reflect changes in the corresponding ion channel current density as we and others have done previously.¹¹⁻¹⁶ The ratio of an ionic conductance in PHT to the same ionic conductance in control, g'_{ion} , was calculated as follows:

$$
g'_{ion} = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{ion}^{i} d_{ion}^{i}\right)_{PHT}}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{ion}^{i} d_{ion}^{i}\right)_{control}},
$$

where γ_{ion} is the single channel conductance (values used listed in Table S5) and d_{ion} is the density (or expression) of the relevant ion channel. In many cases, more than one ion channel contributes to an ionic conductance and the ionic conductance was calculated by summing the contribution of the different ion channels. Details of the calculations are shown in Tables S6-S10. The changes made to simulate PHT are summarised in Table S11. The 1D cable equation was solved using the Forward-Time Central-Space scheme with a space step of 0.1 mm and time step of 0.005 ms.

Supplemental Discussion

Validation of the monocrotaline model

There are several animal models of PHT and the monocrotaline model is the best characterised and most widely used.^{20,21} Monocrotaline is a pyrrolizidine alkaloid, extracted from the plant *Crotalaria spectabilis*, and a single injection has been shown to generate severe pulmonary arterial hypertension in several species, notably the rat.^{e.g.22,23} Experiments using the monocrotaline model have given positive results from drug therapies including ERAs, sildenafil, statins and β -blockers that have gone on to become the mainstay of therapy for patients with pulmonary arterial hypertension.²⁴⁻²⁸ The monocrotaline model has been used to investigate arrhythmias in the working myocardium.^{1,16,29} Although the monocrotaline model is widely used

there remain some concerns over its representativeness as a model of PHT.³⁰ Histological examination of the lungs of monocrotaline-injected rats shows medial thickening and muscular hypertrophy, but not the characteristic plexiform lesions that are seen in patients with PHT ³⁰. There is also concern regarding the possibility that monocrotaline may have a direct effect on the heart and therefore any changes seen in cardiac function may be attributable to a direct effect of monocrotaline and not PHT. One study demonstrated inflammation in the right ventricular free wall, interventricular septum and posterior left ventricular wall in response to monocrotaline injection with some evidence of inflammation in the posterior left ventricle wall prior to the development of PHT. The authors argue that this demonstrates a direct toxic effect of monocrotaline on the heart.³¹ In contrast to this, another study using both *in vivo* single-photon emission computed tomography imaging and *ex vivo* histological and PCR techniques demonstrated that inflammation was largely confined to the right ventricle and interventricular septum. The authors argue that inflammation is part of the pathogenesis of right heart failure secondary to PHT rather than a direct monocrotaline effect. 32 Support for this view comes from the finding of right ventricular inflammation in a rat model of pulmonary embolism and PHT.³³ The conflicting findings regarding left ventricular involvement in the monocrotaline model may in part be explained by which areas of the left ventricle were studied; the study reporting inflammation in the left ventricle looked at the posterior wall which is in close proximity to the septum and posterior attachment of the right ventricle.³¹ There are several arguments that support the use of the monocrotaline model to investigate the effects of PHT. The success of several pharmacological therapies showing beneficial effects on respiratory physiology and cardiac function in both the monocrotaline model and in humans would not be expected if the deleterious effects on cardiac function seen in the monocrotaline model were purely due to a direct toxic effect of monocrotaline.^{24-26,34} In our study, we are interested in the effects of PHT on the heart and therefore concerns regarding the lack of plexiform lesions in the monocrotaline model are less relevant given the known increases in right heart pressures with the monocrotaline model. The monocrotaline model is technically simple (with a single subcutaneous injection developing a severe PHT phenotype in 3-4 weeks), well characterised and has previously been used to investigate arrhythmias in the working myocardium.

Site of conduction block

The experimental data in Fig. 3 and Table S1 shows that heart block most often occurs in the compact node in PHT. However, whereas many significant changes in ion channel expression were observed in the inferior nodal extension, fewer were observed in the compact node (Table S3). However, the same trend of downregulation of L-type Ca^{2+} channels was observed in the compact node as in the inferior nodal extension (Fig. 4). The computer model, which was based on the measured changes in ion channel expression, predicted block in the compact node (Fig. 8). There is therefore a reasonable correlation between observation and prediction.

Limitations of the study

In vivo the AV node dysfunction was generally relatively modest (Table 1). As argued above, in part this is because AV node function may be supported *in vivo* by an increase in sympathetic tone. However, in addition, the animal legislation in the UK does not permit animals reaching end stage heart failure. In this study, gene expression has been measured at the mRNA level. Determination of protein expression is difficult. For example, many ion channel antibodies are poor and the specialised tissues of the heart of small mammals are too small for Western blot. However, in a pilot experiment we confirmed that there is a downregulation of HCN4 protein in the AV node in PHT (Fig. S8) consistent with the downregulation of HCN4 mRNA (Fig. 4).

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Table S1. Normal and abnormal electrical conduction through the isolated AV node from control and PHT rats.

Table S2. Expression of all transcripts. Expression of a transcript is given as a percentage of the expression of the same transcript in the control atrial sample. Significant differences (FDR<0.2) between the control and PHT groups are marked with arrows. A red highlighted arrow indicates significant downregulation in the PHT group and a green highlighted arrow indicates significant upregulation in the PHT group. MCT, monocrotaline.

Table S2 (continued).

Table S2 (continued).

Table S2 (continued).

Table S3. Summary of transcripts significantly (FDR<0.2) altered in the different regions of the AV node in PHT. Red downward arrow, downregulation in PHT; green upward arrow, upregulation. *P* value from limma test and FDR-corrected *P* value given.

Table S3 (continued).

Table S4. Summary of cell models used in 1D strand, strand dimensions and intercellular conductances.

Table S5. Single channel conductances used in calculations.

Table S6. Calculation of ionic conductances in PHT in atrial muscle.

Table S7. Calculation of ionic conductances in PHT in transitional tissue.

Table S8. Calculation of ionic conductances in PHT in the compact node.

Table S9. Calculation of ionic conductances in PHT in the penetrating bundle.

Table S10. Calculation of ionic conductances in PHT in ventricular muscle.

Table S11. Summary of remodelling of ionic currents in PHT in different cell types. *I*f, funny current; I_{Na} , Na⁺ current; *I*_{Ca,L}, L-type Ca²⁺ current; *I*_{Ca,T}, T-type Ca²⁺ current; *I*_{to}, transient outward K⁺ current; *I*_{to,slow}, slow component of I_{to} ; $I_{\text{to, fast}}$, fast component of I_{to} ; $I_{\text{K,ur}}$ (or I_{sus} or $I_{\text{K,p}}$), ultra-rapid delayed rectifier K⁺ current; $I_{K,r}$, rapid delayed rectifier K⁺ current; $I_{K,s}$, slow delayed rectifier K⁺ current; $I_{K,1}$, background inward rectifier K⁺ current; J_{rel}, sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ release; J_{up}, sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ uptake; *I*_{NaCa}, Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchange current; $I_{\text{Ca,p}}$ (or I_{SLCap}), sarcolemmal Ca²⁺ pump current; I_{NaK} (or I_p), Na⁺-K⁺ pump current.

Fig. S1. Images demonstrating hand microdissection of the AV node. A, AV node section double immunolabelled for HCN4 (green) and Cx43 (red). The ringed area shows high levels of HCN4 and low levels of Cx43 and corresponds to the penetrating bundle (PB). B, Masson's trichrome staining of a 'sister section'. The area of interest demonstrated in panel A can be seen to be bordered by the central fibrous body (stained bright blue). The combination of high levels of HCN4, low levels of Cx43 and the presence of the central fibrous body identifies this area as the penetrating bundle (PB). C, haematoxylin and eosin stained section before microdissection. This reveals the area of interest identified from the 'map' created by the images in panels A and B. D, the same slide as C post-microdissection with the area of interest (in this case the penetrating bundle) removed. AS, atrial septum; CFB, central fibrous body; VS, ventricular septum.

Fig. S2. Correlation of mRNA abundance (relative to that of the housekeeper; ΔCT) in unamplified and preamplified samples from the atrium and ventricle. See text for details. Linear regression analysis showed a significant correlation between the two $(R^2 = 0.62 \cdot P \le 0.001)$ showed a significant correlation between the two $(R^2 = 0.62; P < 0.001)$.

Fig. S3. Expression of miscellaneous transcripts in atrial muscle (A; A), transitional tissue (B; TT), inferior nodal extension (C; INE), compact node (D; CN), penetrating bundle (E; PB) and ventricular muscle (F; V) from control (black bars) and PHT (PHT; red bars) rats. In this and similar figures, means (+SEM) shown (n=6-8) and bars and asterisks indicate significant differences between the control and PHT rats assessed by the limma test (FDR-corrected *P*<0.2, i.e. 20%); for the control tissues only, letters indicate a significant difference from the appropriately lettered region (lower case letters, FDR-corrected $P<0.2$, i.e. 20%; upper case letters, FDR-corrected $P<0.05$, i.e. 5%).

 Ca_v α2δ2

Fig. S4. Expression at the mRNA level of Ca^{2+} channel subunits in atrial muscle $(A; A)$, transitional tissue $(B; TT)$, inferior nodal extension $(C; INE)$, **compact node (D; CN), penetrating bundle (E; PB) and ventricular muscle (F; V) from control (black bars) and PHT (red bars) rats.**

Fig. S5. Expression at the mRNA level of Na⁺-K⁺ pump subunits in atrial muscle (A; A), transitional tissue (B; TT), inferior nodal extension (C; INE), **compact node (D; CN), penetrating bundle (E; PB) and ventricular muscle (F; V) from control (black bars) and PHT (red bars) rats.**

Fig. S6. Expression at the mRNA level of receptors in atrial muscle (A; A), transitional tissue (B; TT), inferior nodal extension (C; INE), compact node (D; CN), penetrating bundle (E; PB) and ventricular muscle (F; V) from control (black bars) and PHT (red bars) rats.

Fig. S7. Immunohistochemical labelling of neurofilament 150 (red signal; sympathetic neurone marker) in four parts of the cardiac conduction system including the AV node in control and PHT rats. The His bundle in the control rat is outlined in yellow.

Fig. S8. Immunohistochemical labelling of HCN4 (green signal) in four parts of the cardiac conduction system including the AV node in control and PHT rats.