GENERAL PATHOLOGY AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

Acute Effect of Selective Chemical Inactivation of Sympathetic or Parasympathetic Atrial Ganglionated Plexus Structures on Atrial Fibrillation Inducibility in Pigs

D. V. Korolev, D. L. Sonin, M. S. Medved, G. A. Shulmeister,

A. I. Nikiforov, L. A. Murashova, S. E. Voronin, D. V. Mukhametdinova, E. A. Zaitseva, E. N. Mikhailov, D. S. Lebedev, and M. M. Galagudza

Translated from *Byulleten' Eksperimental'noi Biologii i Meditsiny*, Vol. 174, No. 8, pp. 136-142, August, 2022 Original article submitted May 24, 2022

> We studied the role of both parts of the autonomic intracardiac nervous system in the pathogenesis of atrial fbrillation (AF). In 12 pigs weighing 39±3 kg, AF was induced by burst stimulation. Chemical inactivation of intrinsic cardiac neurons within the right atria was performed by transendocardial injections of liposomal neuromodulators into the dorsal part of the right atrial wall. Sympathetic and parasympathetic terminals were inactivated with 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA, *n*=6) and ethylcholine aziridinium ion (AF64A, *n*=6), respectively. Neuromodulators were encapsulated in liposomes (LS) with diameters of 310 ± 50 nm for OHDA and 290±50 nm for AF64A. LS-6-OHDA and LS-AF64A were injected into the ganglionated plexuses after measuring the baseline effective refractory period and assessing myocardial resistance to AF. These measurements were repeated 90 min after the injections. The optimal doses were 0.2 mg/kg for LS-6-OHDA and 0.4 mg/kg for LS-AF64A (in 4 ml of suspension). Immediately after injections of liposomal neuromodulators, almost all pigs showed an increase in HR, and a short-term BP elevation was observed in the LS-AF64A group. At the end of the experiment, similar decrease in the effective refractory period and similar increase in the resistance to AF were observed in all animals. Thus, selective chemical inactivation of cholinergic and adrenergic terminals of the intracardiac nervous system with liposomal neuromodulators increased the resistance to AF in an acute experiment. However, the short observation period does not allow making a defnite conclusion about the role of the autonomic nervous system in the pathogenesis of AF, which requires verifcation of the obtained data in a chronic experiment.

> **Key Words:** *autonomic nervous system; atrial fbrillation; ganglionic plexuses; liposomes; neurotoxins*

Ganglionated plexuses (GP) of the heart are interconnected clusters of neurons that form autonomic ganglia on the surface of the heart, predominantly in the epicardial adipose tissue. GP include both afferent and efferent neurons of the parasympathetic nervous

Institute of Experimental Medicine, V. A. Almazov National Medical Research Center, Ministry of Health of the Russian Federation, St. Petersburg, Russia. *Address for correspondence:* sonin_dl@almazovcentre.ru. D. L. Sonin

system and, presumably, adrenergic neurons [1-3]. It has been proven that increased neuronal activity of GP contributes to both the initiation and maintenance of atrial fbrillation (AF) [4]. AF is a supraventricular tachyarrhythmia characterized by chaotic atrial electrical activity with a contraction rate of 300-700 bpm and irregular ventricular rhythm (in the absence of complete atrioventricular block). AF is the most common tachyarrhythmia in clinical practice, with an incidence of 1-2%. Intracardiac hemodynamic disorders in AF lead to a sharp increase in the risk of thromboembolic complications and, in particular, thromboembolic stroke [5].

Risk factors leading to AF are associated with changes in the tone of the autonomic nervous system and especially with hyperactivation of the sympathetic nervous system [6]. It is known that any autonomic imbalance, namely, vagal or sympathetic activation, predisposes to electrophysiological changes in the atrial myocardium and the occurrence/maintenance of AF [7]. Previous studies have shown the possibility of selective inactivation/destruction of adrenergic or cholinergic structures in the atrial GP to assess the comparative contribution of hyperactivation of local sympathetic or parasympathetic autonomic neurons [3,8].

The aim of this experimental study was a comparative analysis of the role of both parts of the intracardiac autonomic nervous system in the pathogenesis of AF in the corresponding model in pigs. For this purpose, endocardial administration of liposome-incapsulated selective neuromodulators providing inactivation of adrenergic and cholinergic GP neurons was used.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To block sympathetic infuences from the GP, a neuromodulator was used that provides selective destruction of sympathetic terminals, 2,4,5-trihydroxyphenethylamine (6-hydroxydopamine, 6-OHDA) (Sigma-Aldrich) [9,10]. Ethylcholine aziridinium ion (AF64A) was used to block the effect of cholinergic GP neurons. 1-Ethyl-1-(2-hydroxyethyl)aziridinium chloride (SimSon) was used as a precursor [11]. Liposomes (LS) were obtained by hydration of a thin lipid flm. LS with 6-OHDA in a concentration of 2 mg/ml (diameter 310±50 nm) and LS with AF64A in a concentration of 4 mg/ml (diameter 290±50 nm) were prepared.

The study involved 12 domestic pigs weighing 39±3 kg, 6 animals in each group: LS-6-OHDA and LS-AF64A. After induction of anesthesia (20 mg/kg Zoletil, 3 mg/kg xylazine), artificial lung ventilation was performed with an air mixture containing 1.5-2.5% isofurane and 30-40% oxygen. BP and HR were monitored using a system for monitoring physiological parameters (Beneview T5) through an arterial catheter; HR and BP were recorded every 30 min.

After intravenous administration of an anticoagulant (300 U/kg heparin), an electrode for cardiac electrophysiological study (EPS) was positioned into the right atrium using a vascular access to the common femoral vein using a Biotok multichannel complex for EPS and electroanatomical mapping (BIOTOK Medical Electronic Engineering Laboratory). EPS included measuring of the effective refractory period (ERP) and assessing the resistance of the atrial myocardium to AF. When measuring ERP, the electrode was positioned on the free wall of the right atrium (RA), in the RA appendage, and in the interatrial septum. To measure the ERP of the AV node, 9 pulses were applied to the diagnostic electrode, of these 8 cycles were with the same coupling interval (basic stimulation), and the last one was premature (extrastimulus). The coupling interval of the extrastimulus was reduced in increments of 10 msec until the conduction of the action potential to the ventricles ceased.

The frequency and duration of experimentally induced AF episodes were quantitative criteria for sensitivity to AF. AF induction was performed by burst stimulation with 5 blocks with the same set of 4 frequencies of 1200, 1500, 2000 and 3000 pulses per minute with a stimulation duration of 10 sec in the frst block, 20 sec in the second, 30 sec in the third, 60 sec in the fourth, and 120 sec in the ffth block (5 blocks×4 stimulations=20 stimulations). The stimulating electrode was placed on the free wall of the RA. The occurrence of an episode of supraventricular arrhythmia with an irregular *R*-*R* interval lasting more than 1 sec was considered the criterion for the onset of AF [12]; AF episodes lasting >30 sec were considered stable [13]. Myocardial resistance to AF was assessed by the number of AF episodes that occurred after each burst stimulation episode.

Then, through the introducer installed in the femoral vein, the mapping electrode was positioned in the RA to construct a real-time 3D anatomical map of the RA using the Biotok multichannel complex. The next step was transendocardial injections of liposomal neuromodulators into epicardial adipose tissue through the dorsal wall of the RA along the line between the cranial and caudal veins using an injection catheter (MyoStar, Biosense-Webster Inc.) [13]. To this end, the catheter was positioned perpendicular to the endocardial surface of the RA and the needle was advanced by 2 mm. Correct position of the catheter was verifed by X-ray control and evaluation of the position of the electrode according to the 3D navigation mapping system. For each animal, from 20 to 30 injections were performed with a distance between injections of 2-5 mm (total volume 4 ml). Second EPS was performed 90 min after the administration of suspensions of liposomal neuromodulators.

To control the correctness of the injection sites at the end of the experiment, an autopsy was performed with macroscopic and histological examination of the RA wall; three fragments of the RA dorsal wall from the area of endocardial injections were taken for this purpose. Sections (4-5 μm) were stained according to Nissl for subsequent morphometry of atrial GP and conducting nerve bundles, which included measuring the distance from the edge of the hemorrhage (injection site) to the nearest nerve bundle or ganglion.

Statistical analysis of the obtained results was carried out using the nonparametric Wilcoxon's test (Statistica 9.0 software; StatSoft, Inc.). For each parameter, the median and interquartile range were calculated. The differences were considered signifcant at *p*<0.05.

RESULTS

HR. bpm

Baseline BP and HR did not differ signifcantly between the groups. Immediately after endocardial administra-

LS-6-OHDA

tion of liposomal neuromodulators, HR increased in both groups; in the LS-AF64A group, the mean HR did not return to baseline 90 min after the end of injections (Fig. 1, *a*, *b*). BP signifcantly increased only in the LS-AF64A group immediately after transendocardial injections and returned to the baseline values in 60 min (Fig. 1, *c*, *d*). The increase in BP and HR can be a result of stimulation of cardiomyocytes by neurotransmitters released from neurons damaged by neuromodulators. The reaction to injury caused by the catheter needle at the injection site also cannot be ruled out. These reactions make it difficult to assess the expected effect of neuromodulators, but are an inevitable consequence of the procedure.

In all animals, shortening of the ERP by the end of the observation period was noted (Fig. 2). In a similar study [13], the effect of botulotoxin was evaluated after at least a week and an increase in ERP was observed. In our case, the shortening of the ERP can be explained by the acute effect of neurotransmitters on GP neurons and the continued release of

LS-AF64A

HR, bpm

Fig. 1. Dynamics of HR and BP after transendocardial injections of LS-6-OHDA and LS-AF64A. SBP, systolic BP; DBP, diastolic BP. **p*<0.05 in comparison with the baseline.

Fig. 2. Decrease in the effective refractory period of RA at the 90th min after the end of transendocardial injections of LS-6-OHDA and LS-AF64A in comparison with the baseline duration. **p*<0.05 in comparison with baseline. IAS, interatrial septum.

acetylcholine throughout the observation period after neurotransmitter injections, especially in the LS-AF64A group. At the same time, changes in metabolic processes in the atria during the experiment leading to electrolyte imbalance in cardiomyocytes cannot be excluded.

In the baseline, the resistance of pigs to AF widely varied, ranging from the inability to induce AF (1 case) to intractable arrhythmia with subsequent termination of the experiment (2 cases in the pilot study). Due to the high risk of developing sustained AF at the beginning of the experiment (before endocardial injections), we decided to perform the frst block of the AF induction protocol with a duration of 10 sec in half of the pigs (Table 1), and only in one pig, all fve blocks of the AF induction protocol were performed. The infuence of both changes in the frequency of burst stimulation and its duration was observed. The duration of arrhythmia increased with increasing the frequency of burst stimulation from 20 to 25 and 33.3 Hz. In the experiment with the full burst stimulation protocol, a decrease in myocardial resistance to AF and an increase in the duration of arrhythmias were observed with increasing the duration of burst stimulation at the baseline.

In all episodes of AF induced by high-frequency stimulation, we observed rapid transition from AF to atrial futter (AFL), followed by the restoration of the sinus rhythm. The duration of AFL prevailed over the duration of AF. In some cases, ventricular tachycardia episodes were observed, during which sinus rhythm spontaneously recovered.

After endocardial injections of LS-6-OHDA, an increase in myocardial resistance to AF was observed, which manifested itself in the absence of AF episodes lasting more than 3 min (Table 2). All episodes of arrhythmias stopped spontaneously and did not exceed 2 min. Only a quarter of all episodes of AF-AFL were sustained, *i.e*., lasted more than 30 sec.

In the LS-AF64A group, all episodes of supraventricular arrhythmias also spontaneously stopped. The

	Burst stimulation rate, pulses/min				
Pig No.	1200	1500	2000	3000	
1	28	65	93	10	
2	20	>180	32	2	
3	11	7	12	19	
$\overline{4}$	5	33	10	>180	
5	0	10			
6		6			
Median, sec	11	33	22	14.5	
Percentage of sustained AF (>30 sec), %	0	50	50	25	

TABLE 1. Initial AF Resistance under Conditions of Stimulation with 10-sec Bursts (AF duration after induction, sec)

Note. 0, sinus rhythm after AF induction; "—", burst stimulation was not performed at this frequency.

	Burst stimulation rate, pulses/min	Duration of AF after induction, sec					
Duration of induction, sec		LS-6-OHDA		LS-AF64A			
		baseline	90 min after injections	baseline	90 min after injections		
10	1200	20	4	$\pmb{0}$	36		
	1500	>180	0	6	11		
	2000	Termination	10	10	19		
	3000	of AF induction	62	>180	5		
20	1200		32	Termination of AF induction	$\overline{2}$		
	1500		\overline{c}		10		
	2000		34		6		
	3000		60		66		
30	1200		$\mathbf 0$		10		
	1500		122		22		
	2000		$\mathbf 0$		186		
	3000		20		20		
60	1200		35		24		
	1500		\overline{c}		6		
	2000		$\overline{7}$		26		
	3000		9		10		
120	1200		$\mathbf 0$		11		
	1500		14		21		
	2000		14		53		
	3000		6		37		

TABLE 2. Assessment of the Resistance to AF before and after Transendocardial Injections of Liposomal Neuromodulators

Note. In these representative experiments, a short protocol of AF induction was performed before transendocardial injections because of the development of prolonged episodes of arrhythmia (>180 sec), which was the criterion for stopping burst stimulation.

duration of arrhythmias ranged from 6 to 27 sec for all induction frequencies. The frequency of sustained episodes of AF-AFL did not exceed 25% and it developed at all frequencies and durations of stimulation (Table 2).

The data of morphological analysis of RA dorsal wall samples confrm the accuracy of delivery of liposomal neurotoxins to the RA epicardial fat layer adjacent to the myocardial layer and containing the greatest accumulation of nerve bundles and ganglia is observed [1]. There were no cases of bleeding or hemopericardium. Planimetry showed that the density of ganglia is higher in the zone of the cranial vena cava (0.22 ganglions per 1 μ m²), as well as in the zone between the cranial and caudal vena cava (0.17 ganglions per 1 μ m²), in contrast to the zone of the caudal vena cava (0.03 ganglions per 1 μ m²). One ganglion contained from 1 to 30 neurons. The nervous system elements are located at different distances from the endocardium: from 261.72 to $6192.52 \mu m$. The distance from the endocardium to the injection

sites (hemorrhages) ranged from 142.28 to $1716.52 \mu m$. The distance from the edge of the hemorrhage to the nearest nerve bundle or ganglion ranged from 37.87 to 1396.71 µm, which indicates that the tip of the needle had reached the GP.

Thus, the resistance of the atrial myocardium to AF increased and the duration of AF-AFL episodes induced by high-frequency stimulation decreased 90 min after the injections of LS-6-OHDA and LS-AF64A into the epicardial adipose tissue of the dorsal wall of the RA. These results prove the possibility of selective modulation of adrenergic or cholinergic neurons in the GP by liposomal neuromodulators. However, short follow-up period in the acute experiment, prolonged release of neurotoxins, and aseptic infammation at the injection site limit our conclusions about the role of the sympathetic and parasympathetic parts of the intracardiac nervous system in the mechanism of AF onset and maintenance. At the next stage of the study, it is planned to perform an EPS at the end of a 3-week follow-up after the injections of liposomal neuromodulators.

The study was supported by the grant from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Russian Federation (Agreement No. 075-15-2020-800).

REFERENCES

- 1. Hanna P, Dacey MJ, Brennan J, Moss A, Robbins S, Achanta S, Biscola NP, Swid MA, Rajendran PS, Mori S, Hadaya JE, Smith EH, Peirce SG, Chen J, Havton LA, Cheng ZJ, Vadigepalli R, Schwaber J, Lux RL, Efmov I, Tompkins JD, Hoover DB, Ardell JL, Shivkumar K. Innervation and neuronal control of the mammalian sinoatrial node a comprehensive atlas. Circ. Res. 2021;128(9):1279- 1296. doi: 10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.120.318458
- 2. Wake E, Brack K. Characterization of the intrinsic cardiac nervous system. Auton. Neurosci. 2016;199:3-16. doi: 10.1016/j.autneu.2016.08.006
- 3. Jungen C, Scherschel K, Eickholt C, Kuklik P, Klatt N, Bork N, Salzbrunn T, Alken F, Angendohr S, Klene C, Mester J, Klöcker N, Veldkamp MW, Schumacher U, Willems S, Nikolaev VO, Meyer C. Disruption of cardiac cholinergic neurons enhances susceptibility to ventricular arrhythmias. Nat. Commun. 2017;8:14155. doi: 10.1038/ ncomms14155
- 4. Male S, Scherlag BJ. Role of neural modulation in the pathophysiology of atrial fbrillation. Indian J. Med. Res. 2014;139(4):512-522.
- 5. Friberg L, Hammar N, Rosenqvist M. Stroke in paroxysmal atrial fbrillation: report from the Stockholm Cohort of Atrial Fibrillation. Eur. Heart J. 2010;31(8):967-975. doi: 10.1093/eurheartj/ehn599
- 6. Carnagarin R, Kiuchi MG, Ho JK, Matthews VB, Schlaich MP. Sympathetic nervous system activation and its modulation: role in atrial fbrillation. Front. Neurosci. 2019;12:1058. doi: 10.3389/fnins.2018.01058
- 7. Sharifov OF, Fedorov VV, Beloshapko GG, Glukhov AV, Yushmanova AV, Rosenshtraukh LV. Roles of adrenergic and cholinergic stimulation in spontaneous atrial fbrillation in dogs. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 2004;43(3):483-490. doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2003.09.030
- 8. Jiang YH, Jiang P, Yang JL, Ma DF, Lin HQ, Su WG, Wang Z, Li X. Cardiac dysregulation and myocardial injury in a 6-hydroxydopamine-induced rat model of sympathetic denervation. PLoS One. 2015;10(7):e0133971. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0133971
- 9. Varešlija D, Tipton KF, Davey GP, McDonald AG. 6-Hydroxydopamine: a far from simple neurotoxin. J. Neural Transm. (Vienna). 2020;127(2):213-230. doi: 10.1007/ s00702-019-02133-6
- 10. Farzam A, Chohan K, Strmiskova M, Hewitt SJ, Park DS, Pezacki JP, Özcelik D. A functionalized hydroxydopamine quinone links thiol modifcation to neuronal cell death. Redox Biol. 2020;28:101377. doi: 10.1016/j.redox.2019.101377
- 11. Rose M, Dudas B, Cornelli U, Hanin I. Glycosaminoglycan C3 protects against AF64A-induced cholinotoxicity in a dose-dependent and time-dependent manner. Brain Res. 2004;1015(1-2):96-102. doi: 10.1016/j.brainres.2004.04.048
- 12. Clauss S, Schüttler D, Bleyer C, Vlcek J, Shakarami M, Tomsits P, Schneider S, Maderspacher F, Chataut K, Trebo A, Wang C, Kleeberger J, Xia R, Baloch E, Hildebrand B, Massberg S, Wakili R, Kääb S. Characterization of a porcine model of atrial arrhythmogenicity in the context of ischaemic heart failure. PLoS One. 2020;15(5):e0232374. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0232374
- 13. Strel'nikov AG, Yakubov AA, Sergeevichev DS, Artemenko SN, Mikheenko IL, Abashkin SA, Romanov AB, Pokushalov EA. Endocardial botulinum toxin injection into ganglionated plexi in order to reduce atrial fbrillation inducibility. Patol. Krovoobr. Kardiokhir. 2015;19(4):99- 107. Russian.