TITLE

The cardiac TRPA1 channel drives calcium-mediated mechano-arrhythmogenesis

AUTHORS

Breanne A. Cameron[1,2]

Matthew R. Stoyek[1]

Jessi J. Bak[1]

Michael S. Connolly[1]

Emma A. DeLong[1]

Joachim Greiner[2]

Rémi Peyronnet[2]

Peter Kohl[2,3]

*T Alexander Quinn[1,4]

AFFILIATIONS

[1]Department of Physiology and Biophysics, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Canada

[2]Institute for Experimental Cardiovascular Medicine, University Heart Center Freiburg · Bad

Krozingen and Faculty of Medicine, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[3]Faculty of Engineering, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

[4]School of Biomedical Engineering, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Canada

SUMMARY PARAGRAPH

Maintenance of cardiac function involves a regulatory loop in which electrical excitation

causes the heart to contract through excitation-contraction coupling (ECC),[1] and the

mechanical state of the heart directly affects its electrical activity through mechano-electric

coupling (MEC).[2] However, in pathological states such as acute ischaemia that alter early or

late electro-mechanical coordination (*i.e.*, disturbances in ECC or repolarisation-relaxation

coupling, RRC), MEC may contribute to the initiation and / or sustenance of arrhythmias

(mechano-arrhythmogenesis).[3] The molecular identity of specific factor(s) underlying

mechano-arrhythmogenesis in acute ischaemia, however, remain undefined.[4] By rapid

stretch of rabbit single left ventricular cardiomyocytes, we show that upon ATP-sensitive

potassium channel-induced alterations of RRC, overall vulnerability to mechano-

arrhythmogenesis is increased, with mechano-sensitive[5-11] transient receptor potential kinase

ankyrin 1 (TRPA1) channels[12] acting as the molecular driver through a Ca^{2+}-mediated

mechanism. Specifically, TRPA1 activation drives stretch-induced excitation and creates a

substrate for self-sustained arrhythmias, which are maintained by increased cytosolic free

Ca^{2+} concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) and spontaneous $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ oscillations. This TRPA1-dependent

mechano-arrhythmogenesis involves microtubules, and can be prevented by block of TRPA1

or buffering of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. Thus, in cardiac pathologies with disturbed RRC dynamics and / or

augmented TRPA1 activity, TRPA1 may represent an anti-arrhythmic target with untapped

therapeutic potential.[13-17]

MAIN TEXT

Feedback is an essential element of biological function and fundamental to the adaptation of

physiological activity to varying demands. A prime example is found in the heart, an electro-

mechanical pump wherein electrical excitation causes mechanical contraction of cardiomyocytes

(CM) through a feedforward mechanism involving triggered release of calcium (Ca^{2+}) from

intracellular stores, known as excitation-contraction coupling.[1] Feedback in the heart involves

effects of the mechanical state of CM on their electrical activity, by a process termed mechano-

electric coupling.[2] While this feedback is important for maintaining and fine-tuning normal cardiac

function, mechano-electric coupling can also contribute to arrhythmogenesis through

mechanically-induced electrophysiological alterations and responses (mechano-

arrhythmogenesis).[18]

In physiological conditions, the heart is protected from mechano-arrhythmogenesis at all phases

of the cardiac cycle, in part through the tight coordination of normal cardiac electro-mechanical

activity and transient electrical refractoriness following initiation of the action potential (AP). In

disease, disruption of electro-mechanical coordination, haemodynamic overload (either preload or

afterload), and / or altered myocardial mechanical properties can elicit arrhythmogenic mechano-

electric coupling effects.[3] While the influence of mechano-electric coupling on cardiac

electrophysiology in health and disease is well established,[2] the molecular identity of specific

driver(s) underlying mechano-arrhythmogenesis is still being explored.[4]

Recent results from rabbit isolated heart studies indicate that ventricular mechano-

arrhythmogenesis in acute regional ischaemia (as occurs with obstruction of a coronary artery)

involves a mechano-sensitive Ca^{2+}-mediated mechanism.[20] The arrhythmogenic role of Ca^{2+} may

be facilitated by a pathological disruption of normal electro-mechanical coordination during the

late phase of the AP.[20-22] Specifically, ischaemia can induce a dissociation of the otherwise well-

synchronised post-excitation recovery of membrane potential and cytosolic free Ca^{2+}

concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$). This process, which we henceforth refer to as 'repolarisation-relaxation

coupling' (RRC), describes the period in which membrane repolarisation prevents further voltage-

mediated trans-sarcolemmal Ca^{2+} influx, and existing cytosolic Ca^{2+} is sequestered into

intracellular stores or extruded from the cell, thereby eliciting relaxation. With reduced oxygen

availability in ischaemia, activation of ATP-sensitive potassium (K_{ATP}) channels causes rapid

cellular repolarisation and an associated shortening of the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient. The resulting decrease

in action potential duration (APD) is greater, however, than that in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient duration

(CaTD), resulting in a disturbance of normal RRC.[20-22] This may be arrhythmogenic, as it results

in the emergence of a potentially vulnerable period (VP_{RRC}) for Ca^{2+}-mediated arrhythmogenesis

during late repolarisation, when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ remains elevated in progressively re-excitable tissue. Such

a VP_{RRC} has been shown to occur during beta-adrenergic stimulation in failing human hearts.[23]

In the present study, we utilised a cell-level approach that allows for the control of single cell

mechanical load with a carbon fibre-based system[19] to investigate the effects of disturbed RRC

and the resultant VP_{RRC} on the susceptibility of rabbit left ventricular CM to mechano-

arrhythmogenesis. This was combined with fluorescence imaging of trans-membrane voltage and

$[Ca^{2+}]_i$, video-based measurement of sarcomere dynamics, and pharmacological interrogation of

mechanisms suspected to be involved in triggering and / or sustaining arrhythmic activity upon

cell stretch.

To mimic ischaemic changes in AP morphology, K_{ATP} channels were activated by application

of pinacidil (50 µM, continuous superfusion), a well-established agonist of sulfonylurea receptor

(SUR)2A / $K_{ir}6.2$ in cardiac and skeletal muscle.[24] To assess effects of K_{ATP} channel activation on

relative post-activation recovery-times of voltage (APD at 50 % repolarisation, APD_{50}) and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$

(CaTD at 80 % return to diastolic levels, $CaTD_{80}$), as well as on the duration of the resultant VP_{RRC},

we used a single-excitation / dual-emission fluorescence imaging approach.[25] The voltage-

sensitive dye di-4-ANBDQPQ and the Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Fluo-5F, AM (whose high K_d value

[~2.3 μM] limits its buffering of near-diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and potential artefactual effects on $CaTD_{80}$)

were used to simultaneously measure AP and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transients in electrically-paced rabbit left

ventricular CM under carbon fibre control (Fig. 1a). Upon pinacidil exposure, both APD and CaTD

decreased (Fig. 1b, c). The decrease of APD, however, was significantly greater than that of CaTD,

resulting in the formation of a cellular VP_{RRC}. This period spans the time during which a CM starts

to become re-excitable (repolarisation past APD_{50}) while $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ remains elevated (above $CaTD_{80}$;

Fig. 1b, d). This response mimics behaviour previously observed in whole hearts during acute

ischaemia,[20,21] as well as with hypoxia alone.[22] After 5 min of pinacidil exposure, there were no

further significant alterations in APD, CaTD, or the VP_{RRC} (Fig. 1c, d).

Having established a means to reliably evoke a cellular VP_{RRC} by pharmacological K_{ATP}

activation, we sought to determine whether normal coordination of electro-mechanical dynamics

– as seen in cells exposed to physiological solution (Fig. 1b, c) – protects ventricular CM from

mechano-arrhythmogenesis during different phases of the AP (specifically, during late

repolarisation and in diastole), and whether disruption of normal RRC increases arrhythmogenic

responses to cell stretch. Acute stretch – as occurs in ischaemically weakened myocardium in the

whole heart[26] – was applied at three magnitudes with carbon fibres attached to either end of single

cells under piezo-electric actuator control (Fig. 2a). Each stretch (average sarcomere stretch levels

were 8 ± 1 %, 13 ± 1 %, and 17 ± 1 %) was timed from the electrical pacing stimulus to occur

during the VP_{RRC} or in diastole (Fig. 2b, c). Stretch effects were assessed within one and the same

cell, exposed to either physiological or pinacidil-containing solutions. Stretch resulted in a variety

of changes in cellular mechanical activity (revealed by tracking sarcomere length), including

stretch-induced premature contractions (sometimes followed by a second contraction out of sync

with the continuing electrical stimulation; Fig. 2d and Supplementary Video 1) and other self-

sustained arrhythmic responses. These sustained arrhythmic events included transient

refractoriness towards electrical stimulation that resulted in single (Fig. 2e) or multiple (Fig. 2f,

Supplementary Video 2) missed beat(s), or sustained activity that either resolved spontaneously

(Fig. 2g) or was terminated by application of an additional stretch (Fig. 2h, Supplementary Video

3). Arrhythmia incidence was greater in pinacidil-treated cells than in control, both with stretch

applied during diastole or the VP_{RRC}. This finding suggests that normal electro-mechanical

coordination does indeed protect CM from arrhythmogenesis during late phases of the AP, and

that disturbed RRC dynamics increases overall susceptibility to mechano-arrhythmogenesis (Fig.

3a).

As previous work in the whole heart had shown that the magnitude of tissue deformation is a

key determinant of mechano-arrhythmogenesis,[27] we assessed effects of stretch amplitude on

arrhythmia incidence. Increasing the piezo-electric actuator displacement amplitude from 20 to

40 μm resulted in an increase in the percent sarcomere stretch (along with peak sarcomere length),

as well as maximum applied stress (Extended Data Fig. 1). These increases in applied load raised

the incidence of stretch-induced arrhythmias in pinacidil-treated cells, while arrhythmia incidence

remained low in control cells (Extended Data Fig. 2), indicating that the increase in mechano-

arrhythmogenesis that occurs with pinacidil-induced RRC disruption scales with the degree of cell

stretch.

To assess whether arrhythmias could be the result of stretch-induced cellular damage,

contractile function was assessed before and after stretch application of each magnitude. Both in

control and in pinacidil-treated cells, diastolic sarcomere length and maximum rate and percent of

sarcomere shortening were not significantly different during contractions from resting length,

before and after stretch applications of any tested amplitude (Extended Data Fig. 3). These

parameters were also not significantly different before and after return to steady state, following

periods of self-sustained rhythm disturbances (Extended Data Fig. 4), suggesting that cellular

damage may not explain mechano-arrhythmogenesis in our model.

We next sought to determine mechanisms underlying the triggering and / or sustenance of

cellular mechano-arrhythmogenesis (*i.e.*, stretch-induced single excitations and self-sustained

rhythm disturbances) in cells with disturbed RRC. K$_{ATP}$ channels are normally quiescent, but if

pre-activated (such as by a reduction in ATP levels during ischaemia or by pinacidil), their open

probability is also increased by stretch.[28] As K$_{ATP}$ channels are highly selective for potassium, they

have a reversal potential of about -90 mV and conduct an outward current over the entire working

range of the ventricular CM membrane potential. As a result, their activation will always contribute

to re-/hyperpolarisation. So, K$_{ATP}$ channels may shorten APD, but they cannot account for stretch-

induced excitation seen in this and other studies. Interestingly, while pinacidil is generally thought

of as a specific activator of K$_{ATP}$ channels, it has been shown to also increase the activity of

transient receptor potential kinase ankyrin 1 (TRPA1) channels in HEK293 cells, resulting in a

depolarising trans-membrane current and Ca^{2+} influx.[29] Importantly in the context of mechano-

arrhythmogenesis, TRPA1 channels: (i) are inherently mechano-sensitive[5] and contribute to

mechanically-evoked electrical responses (measured as trans-membrane currents and deduced

from AP initiation) in sensory neurons,[6-8] astrocytes,[9] and vertebrate hair cells;[10] (ii) have been

found to be functionally expressed in murine ventricular CM[30] (although not all studies have found

this)[31] and to drive changes in *Drosophila* heart rhythm in response to mechanical stimulation;[11]

and (iii) are important for cardiovascular function and disease progression.[13] We hypothesised that,

if TRPA1 channels are functionally expressed in rabbit left ventricular CM, then they could

contribute to the increase in mechano-arrhythmogenesis seen with pinacidil treatment.

To assess the presence and function of TRPA1 channels in the rabbit left ventricle, we first

measured TRPA1 protein expression in tissue from the left ventricular free wall by Western

blotting, which revealed robust expression (Extended Data Fig. 5a). Next, functional expression

of TRPA1 channels in left ventricular CM was evaluated by measuring ion channel activity in cell-

attached patches during application of the TRPA1 channel-specific agonist, allyl isothiocyanate

(AITC; 50 µM).[32] AITC exposure caused an increase in total inward current, while there was no

significant change in time-matched control cells (Extended Data Fig. 5b, c).

Having shown that TRPA1 channels are functionally expressed in rabbit ventricular CM, we

explored their possible involvement in the mechano-arrhythmogenesis observed in our model. This

was done by applying either a non-specific blocker of cation non-selective mechano-sensitive ion

channels (streptomycin;[33] 50 µM), or a specific TRPA1 channel blocker (HC-030031;[34] 10 µM,

which has been shown to inhibit TRPA1 current and mechanically-induced excitation in sensory

neurons[6-8]) to pinacidil-treated cells. Streptomycin and HC-030031 reduced the incidence of

cellular arrhythmias with pinacidil treatment, both with stretch during diastole and in the VP$_{RRC}$

(Fig. 3a; arrhythmia incidence remained low in control cells, Extended Data Fig. 6). This finding

suggests that mechano-sensitive channels are involved in mechano-arrhythmogenesis across

phases of the AP when there is disruption of normal electro-mechanical coordination. More

specifically, with disruption of RRC, mechano-sensitive channels appear to contribute to the

increase in both single triggers and self-sustained rhythm disturbances, as their block (compared

in pooled data from diastolic and VP$_{RRC}$ stretches in cells exposed to streptomycin- or HC-030031)

in pinacidil-treated cells was able to prevent the increase of both classifications of arrhythmias

(Fig. 3a, inset; incidence remained low in control cells, Extended Data Fig. 6). Importantly,

streptomycin and HC-030031 appeared to have no other functional effects, as there was no

significant change in diastolic sarcomere length or contractile function with their application to

control cells (Extended Data Fig. 7).

Next, as activation of TRPA1 channels is known to increase Ca^{2+} influx,[12,35] we assessed

whether cytosolic Ca^{2+} contributes to the mechano-arrhythmogenesis seen in our study. This was

achieved by buffering cytosolic Ca^{2+} with BAPTA-AM (1 μM, $K_d \approx 0.5$ μM), which has

previously been shown in ventricular CM to prevent stretch-induced changes in cardiac

electrophysiology driven by changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.[36] In pinacidil treated cells, BAPTA-AM reduced

arrhythmia incidence with stretch both during diastole and in the VP$_{RRC.}$ As stretch is also known

to increase sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} leak through ryanodine receptors[37] (an effect that is

enhanced in ischaemia[38]), we investigated its possible contribution to the dependence of mechano-

arrhythmogenesis on cytosolic Ca^{2+} by stabilising ryanodine receptors in their closed state with

dantrolene (1 μM, which has been shown to not affect Ca^{2+}-induced Ca^{2+} release or contraction[39]).

However, dantrolene had no significant effect on the incidence of stretch-induced arrhythmias,

suggesting that Ca^{2+} influx *via* TRPA1, but not mechano-sensitive Ca^{2+} release from the

sarcoplasmic reticulum, is involved in mechano-arrhythmogenesis (Fig. 3a). Yet, in contrast to

mechano-sensitive channels, which contribute to both single triggers and self-sustained rhythm

disturbances in pinacidil-treated cells, cytosolic Ca^{2+} appears to be involved only in the observed

increase in self-sustained rhythm disturbances, as BAPTA-AM did not decrease the incidence of

single excitations (compared in pooled data from diastolic and VP$_{RRC}$ stretches in BAPTA-AM-

treated cells; Fig. 3a, inset). In control cells treated with either BAPTA-AM or dantrolene, the

incidence of stretch-induced arrhythmias remained low (Extended Data Fig. 6) and there was no

significant change in diastolic sarcomere length or maximum rate of systolic sarcomere shortening.

There was, however, a significant decrease in the percent systolic sarcomere shortening with both

interventions, presumably due to a reduction in peak systolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (by buffering with BAPTA-

AM or reduced sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} release with dantrolene; Extended Data Fig. 7).

We then sought to more specifically explore whether TRPA1 channels are indeed a source of

mechano-arrhythmogenesis. Control cells were exposed to AITC (10 µM), which enhances the

response of TRPA1 channels to mechanical stimulation,[8] and then subjected to diastolic stretch (as

there was no K$_{ATP}$-induced disturbance of RRC in these cells, no VP$_{RRC}$ stretch was applied). AITC

caused an increase in both stretch-induced single excitations and self-sustained events compared

to control cells (Fig. 3b). As with pinacidil exposure, application of HC-030031 to AITC-treated

cells prevented this increase in mechano-arrhythmogenesis. However, unlike in pinacidil-treated

cells, BAPTA-AM also prevented the increase in both types of rhythm disturbances during AITC

exposure (Fig. 3b, inset).

While the above findings strongly suggest a role of TRPA1 channels in mechano-

arrhythmogenesis, we did not find an increase in TRPA1 current in our patch-clamp experiments

when the cell membrane within the pipette was stretched by negative pressure application. As there

is a large body of evidence demonstrating that interactions between TRP channels and

microtubules are important for TRP channel function,[40] we hypothesised that microtubule-

mediated mechano-transduction during axial cell stretch may be necessary for a mechanically-

induced response, which would not have been engaged during local membrane stretch *via* the patch

pipette. To test for the importance of microtubules in TRPA1-dependent mechano-

arrhythmogenesis, cells were exposed to paclitaxel (10 µM) to increase polymerisation and

stabilisation of microtubules,[41] which has been shown to increase the probability of stretch-induced

arrhythmias in isolated rabbit hearts.[42] Immunofluorescence imaging revealed that paclitaxel

increased the density of the microtubule network (Extended Data Fig. 8a-c), which was associated

with an increased incidence of single excitations upon stretch in diastole (Extended Data Fig. 8d).

That this increase in mechano-arrhythmogenesis involves interactions with TRPA1 channels was

supported by a reduction in the incidence of stretch-induced arrhythmias in paclitaxel -treated cells

during block of TRPA1 with HC-030031 (Extended Data Fig. 8d).

Our results up to this point suggest that an inward current, passing (at least in part) through

mechano-sensitive TRPA1 channels, acts as a trigger for stretch-induced excitations and

contributes to a substrate for self-sustained rhythm disturbances. While a transient inward

depolarising current with stretch may explain the role of TRPA1 in single excitations, its

contribution to the formation of an arrhythmogenic substrate for self-sustained rhythm

disturbances warranted further investigation. TRPA1 channel activity has been shown to cause an

increase in diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in ventricular CM.[43] This increase in diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ can contribute to

sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} release, creating an arrhythmogenic substrate,[44] and can further

activate TRPA1 channels.[45] We therefore hypothesised that TRPA1-mediated effects on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$

may account for the observed increase in stretch-induced self-sustained rhythm disturbances. We

measured $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ with a ratiometric fluorescence imaging technique (using the Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye

Fura Red, AM; $K_d \approx 400$ nM), which showed that both pinacidil and AITC application increase

$[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in diastole (Extended Data Fig. 9). However, despite the anti-arrhythmic effect of blocking

TRPA1 channels both in AITC and in pinacidil-treated cells, HC-030031 reduced the increase in

diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ only during AITC treatment (Extended Data Fig. 9). This finding suggests that the

increase in diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ with AITC and pinacidil may be occurring through different

mechanisms. As chelating cytosolic Ca^{2+} with BAPTA-AM was also anti-arrhythmic in both

pinacidil- and AITC-treated cells (Fig. 3a, b), this suggests that increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ may be necessary

for sustenance, but not sufficient for induction of mechano-arrhythmogenesis. Unfortunately, we

could not measure the effects of BAPTA-AM on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, as the combined buffering of Ca^{2+} by

BAPTA-AM and the Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Fura Red greatly diminished cell contraction.

Explicit evidence for a direct role of Ca^{2+} in the self-sustained rhythm disturbances came from

dual voltage-Ca^{2+} fluorescence imaging, which revealed an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, along with Ca^{2+}

oscillations that precede changes in voltage, indicating that oscillations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ can drive

sustained aberrant electrical behaviour (Fig. 4a, Supplementary Video 4). It is worth noting here

that changes in repolarisation can also destabilise the electrical activity of ventricular CM. Thus,

in pinacidil-treated cells, a stretch-induced increase in K_{ATP} channel current may have directly

contributed to the ability to sustain arrhythmic activity by shortening APD, thereby increasing the

diastolic interval and the duration of the excitable period between paced beats.[28]

Finally, with an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, there is the possibility that a change in cellular mechanics

may also contribute to mechano-arrhythmogenesis by enhancing mechano-transduction or altering

the characteristics of stretch. However, we observed no significant effect of pinacidil on diastolic

or systolic cell stiffness, measured (respectively) as the slopes of end-diastolic and end-systolic

stress-sarcomere length relationship in mechanically loaded (*via* carbon fibres) contracting cells

(Extended Data Fig. 10). Furthermore, we found no significant effect of pinacidil on percent

sarcomere stretch, stretched sarcomere length, or maximum applied stress during stretch (Extended

Data Fig. 1). This suggests that changes in cellular mechanics may not be a major contributor to

observed effects (note: there was a significant shift in the stiffness curves to the right in pinacidil-

treated cells, which may relate to reduced affinity of myofilaments for Ca^{2+} through TRPA1-

induced phosphorylation of troponin I;[43] Extended Data Fig. 10). In a subset of pinacidil-treated

cells for which two consecutive stretches of the same magnitude (occurring either during diastole

or the VP_{RRC}) first did, and then did not, result in an arrhythmia, the characteristic effects of each

stretch were not significantly different (Extended Data Fig. 11), suggesting that passive cell

mechanical properties were not affected by acute stretch application.

Taken together, our results suggest that TRPA1 channels contribute both to acute triggering and

to Ca^{2+}-mediated sustenance of ventricular mechano-arrhythmogenesis. Figure 4b summarises our

findings and presents a working model of TRPA1's role in triggering stretch-induced excitation

(through a depolarising trans-sarcolemmal current) and in creating a substrate for sustained

arrhythmic activity (through increased diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$).

TRPA1 channels are mechano-sensitive and thus allow for a trans-sarcolemmal influx of

cations upon stretch (specifically Ca^{2+} when TRPA1 channels are pre-activated),[12,35] which

depolarises membrane potential. An increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ may result in further membrane

depolarisation *via* electrogenic forward-mode sodium-Ca^{2+} exchanger activity.[44] If the

depolarisation is sufficiently large, it will cause excitation and premature contraction of the cell,

with arrhythmic activity sustained if $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ remains sufficiently elevated for a period of time.

Importantly, TRPA1 channel activity is directly modulated by $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. Specifically, an increase in

$[Ca^{2+}]_i$ potentiates TRPA1 channel activity, but at a certain level of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ TRPA1 channels are

progressively inactivated, thus limiting the degree of Ca^{2+} overload and, perhaps, preventing lethal

cell damage.[46] In our experiments, exposure to AITC caused direct activation of TRPA1 channels

and subsequent diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ loading, while pinacidil either directly activated TRPA1 channels,

or did so indirectly *via* an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

In conclusion, our results suggest that TRPA1 activation leads to enhanced microtubule-

dependent, stretch-induced depolarising currents and increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. As such, block of TRPA1

channels reduces both the triggering and self-sustenance of mechano-arrhythmogenesis, while

buffering diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ only reduces arrhythmia sustenance. These findings have potentially

important implications for anti-arrhythmic strategies in cardiac pathologies associated with

augmented TRPA1 channel expression or activity.[13] This is especially true for cases in which

additional factors activate TRPA1 channels (*e.g.*, oxidative stress),[47] as the response of TRPA1 to

mechanical stimulation is enhanced by an increase in their baseline activity.[8] For instance, acute

myocardial ischaemia is associated with TRPA1-mediated myocardial damage[14] (which can be

reduced by TRPA1 inhibition[15]), along with lethal ventricular arrhythmias that are thought to

involve contributions of altered tissue mechanics, intracellular Ca^{2+} handling, and oxidative

stress.[26] Thus, targeting TRPA1 channels in that setting may help in preventing multiple

detrimental outcomes. This could also be true in chronic pathologies in which lethal arrhythmias

occur, and which are associated with changes in cardiac mechanics, intracellular Ca^{2+} dynamics,

oxidative stress, and other TRPA1 modulating factors,[12] such as ventricular pressure overload. In

keeping with this suggestion, TRPA1 inhibition in chronic hypertension has been shown to reduce

hypertrophy and fibrosis.[16] Overall, these observations, combined with our current findings,

suggest TRPA1 channels may represent a novel, underappreciated anti-arrhythmic target with

exciting therapeutic potential.[17]

MAIN REFERENCES

1. Bers, D. M. Cardiac excitation-contraction coupling. *Nature*. **415**, 198-205 (2002).

2. Quinn, T. A. & Kohl, P. Cardiac mechano-electric coupling: acute effects of mechanical stimulation on heart rate and rhythm. *Physiol. Rev.* **101**, 37-92 (2021).

3. Quinn, T. A. The importance of non-uniformities in mechano-electric coupling for ventricular arrhythmias. *J. Interv. Card. Electrophysiol.* **39**, 25-35 (2014).

4. Peyronnet, R., Nerbonne, J. M. & Kohl, P. Cardiac mechano-gated ion channels and arrhythmias. *Circ. Res*. **118**, 311-29 (2016).

5. Moparthi, L. & Zygmunt P. M. Human TRPA1 is an inherently mechanosensitive bilayer-gated ion channel. *Cell Calcium* **91**, 102255 (2020).

6. Kerstein, P.C., del Camino, D., Moran, M. M. & Stucky, C. L. Pharmacological blockade of TRPA1 inhibits mechanical firing in nociceptors. *Mol. Pain* **5**, 19 (2009).

7. Vilceanu, D. & Stukcy, C. L. TRPA1 mediates mechanical currents in the plasma membrane of mouse sensory neurons. *PLoS One* **5**, e12177 (2010).

8. Brierly S. M., *et al*. TRPA1 contributes to specific mechanically activated currents and sensory neuron mechanical hypersensitivity. *J. Physiol*. **589**, 3575-93 (2011).

9. Oh, S-J. *et al*. Ultrasonic neuromodulation via astrocytic TRPA1. *Curr. Biol*. **29**, 3386-401 (2019).

10. Corey, D. P., *et al*. TRPA1 is a candidate for the mechanosensitive transduction channel of vertebrate hair cells. *Nature* **432**, 723-30 (2004).

11. Sénatore S., Reddy, V. R., Sémériva, M., Perrin, L. & Lalevée, N. Response to mechanical stress is mediated by the TRPA channel painless in the *Drosophila* heart. *PLoS Genet.* **6**, e1001088 (2010).

12. Meents, J. E., Ciotu, C. I. & Fischer, M. J. M. TRPA1: a molecular view. *J. Neurophysiol.*

121, 427-443 (2019).

13. Wang, Z. *et al*. The TRPA1 channel in the cardiovascular system: promising features and

challenges. *Front*. *Pharmacol.* **10**, 1253 (2019).

14. Conklin, D. J., *et al*. TRPA1 channel contributes to myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury.

Am. J. Physiol. Heart. Circ. Physiol. **316**, H889-99 (2019).

15. Li, R., Liu, R., Yan, F., Zhuang, X., Shi, H. & Gao, X. Inhibition of TRPA1 promotes cardiac

repair in mice after myocardial infarction. *J. Cardiovasc. Pharmacol.* **75**, 240-9 (2020).

16. Wang, Z. *et al*. TRPA1 inhibition ameliorates pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy

and fibrosis in mice. *E. Bio. Medicine* **36**, 54-62 (2018).

17. Moran, M. M. TRP channels as potential drug targets. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* **58**,

309-30 (2018).

18. Quinn, T. A. Cardiac mechano-electric coupling: a role in regulating normal function of the

heart? *Cardiovasc. Res*. **108**, 1-3 (2015).

19. Iribe, G., Helmes, M. & Kohl, P. Force-length relations in isolated intact cardiomyocytes

subjected to dynamic changes in mechanical load. *Am. J. Physiol. Circ. Physiol.* **292**, H1487-

97 (2007).

20. Baumeister, P., *et al.* Mechanically-induced ventricular arrhythmias during acute regional

ischemia. *J. Mol. Cell. Cardiol*. **124,** 87-8 (2018).

21. Tang, L., Joung, B., Ogawa, M., Chen, P. S. & Lin S. F. Intracellular calcium dynamics,

shortened action potential duration, and late-phase 3 early afterdepolarization in Langendorff-

perfused rabbit ventricles. *J. Cardiovasc. Electrophysiol.* **12**, 1364-71 (2012).

22. Takahashi, M., Yokoshiki, H., Mitsuyama, H., Watanabe, M., Temma, T., Kamada, R.,

Hagiwara, H., Takahashi, Y., Anzai, T. SK channel blockade prevents hypoxia-induced

ventricular arrhythmias through inhibition of Ca^{2+}/voltage uncoupling in hypertrophied hearts.

Am. J. Physiol. Heart. Circ. Physiol. **320**, H1456-69 (2021).

23. Lang, D., *et al*. Arrhythmogenic remodeling of β2 versus β1 adrenergic signaling in the human

failing heart. *Circ. Arrhythm. Electrophysiol.* **8**, 409-19 (2015).

24. Fujita, A. & Kurachi, Y. Molecular aspects of ATP-sensitive K^+ channels in the cardiovascular

system and K^+ channel openers. *Pharmacol. Ther.* **85**, 39-53 (2000).

25. Quinn, T. A., *et al*. Electrotonic coupling of excitable and nonexcitable cells in the heart

revealed by optogenetics. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A.* **113**:14852-7 (2016).

26. Carmeliet, E. Cardiac ionic currents and acute ischemia: from channels to arrhythmias.

Physiol. Rev. **79**, 917-87 (1999).

27. Quinn, T. A., Jin, H., Lee, P. & Kohl, P. Mechanically induced ectopy via stretch-activated

cation-nonselective channels is caused by local tissue deformation and results in ventricular

fibrillation if triggered on the repolarization wave edge (*Commotio cordis*). *Circ. Arrhythm.*

Electrophysiol. **10**, e004777 (2017).

28. Van Wagoner, D. R. Mechanosensitive gating of atrial ATP-sensitive potassium channels.

Circ. Res. **72**: 973–83 (1993).

29. Ma, L. H., *et al*. Pinacidil, a K_{ATP} channel opener, identified as a novel agonist for TRPA1.

Chinese Sci. Bull. **57**, 1810-7 (2012).

30. Andrei, S. R., Sinharoy, P., Bratz, I. N. & Damron, D. S. TRPA1 is functionally co-expressed

with TRPV1 in cardiac muscle: co-localization at z-discs, costameres and intercalated discs.

Channels **10**, 395-409 (2016).

31. Hoebart, C., Rojas-Galvan, N. S., Ciotu, C. I., Aykac, I., Reissig, L. F., Weninger, W. J., Kiss,

A., Podesser, B. K., Fischer, M. J. M., Heber, S. No functional TRPA1 in cardiomyocytes.

Acta. Physiol. (Oxf.) **5**, e13659 (2021).

32. Jordt, S-E., *et al*. Mustard oils and cannabinoids excite sensory nerve fibres through the TRP

channel ANKTM1. *Nature*. **427**, 260-5 (2004).

33. White, E. Mechanosensitive channels: therapeutic targets in the myocardium? *Curr Pharm*

Des. **12**, 3645-63 (2006).

34. McNamara, C. R. *et al*. TRPA1 mediates formalin-induced pain. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S*

A. **104**,13525-30 (2007).

35. Nilius, B., Appendino, G., & Owsianik, G. Bobkov, Y. V., Corey, E. A, & Ache, B. W. The

transient receptor potential channel TRPA1: from gene to pathophysiology. *Pflugers Arch*.

464, 425-58 (2012).

36. Calaghan, S. C., Belus, A., White, E. Do stretch-induced changes in intracellular calcium

modify the electrical activity of cardiac muscle? *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.* **82**, 81-95 (2003).

37. Iribe, G. *et al.* Axial stretch of rat single ventricular cardiomyocytes causes an acute and

transient increase in Ca^{2+} spark rate. *Circ Res* **104**, 787–795 (2009).

38. Cameron, B. A., Kai, H., Kaihara, K., Iribe, G. & Quinn, T. A. Ischemia enhances the acute

stretch-induced increase in calcium spark rate in ventricular myocytes. *Front Physiol* **11**, 289

(2020).

39. Hartmann, N., *et al*. Antiarrhythmic effects of dantrolene in human diseased cardiomyocytes.

Heart Rhythm **14**, 412-9 (2017).

40. Smani, T., Dionisio, N., López, J. J., Berna-Erro, A., Rosado, J. A. Cytoskeletal and

scaffolding proteins as structural and functional determinants of TRP channels. *Biochim.*

Biophys. Acta. **1838**, 658-64 (2014).

41. Schiff, P. B., Fant, J., Horwitz, S. B. Promotion of microtubule assembly in vitro by taxol.

Nature **277**, 665-7 (1979).

42. Parker, K. K., Taylor, L. K., Atkinson, J. B., Hansen, D. E., Wikswo, J. P. The effects of

tubulin-binding agents on stretch-induced ventricular arrhythmias. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* **417**,

131-40 (2001).

43. Andrei, S. R. *et al*. TRPA1 ion channel stimulation enhances cardiomyocyte contractile

function via a CaMKII-dependent pathway. *Channels* **11**, 587-603 (2017).

44. Landstrom, A. P., Dobrev D. & Wehrens, X. H. T. Calcium signaling and cardiac arrhythmias.

Circ. Res. **120**, 1969-93 (2017).

45. Zurborg, S., Yurgionas, B., Jira, J. A., Caspani, O. & Heppenstall, P. A. Direct activation of

the ion channel TRPA1 by Ca^{2+}. *Nat. Neurosci.* **10**, 277-9 (2007).

46. Wang, Y. Y., Chang R. B., Waters, H. N., McKemy, D. D. & Liman, E. R. The nociceptor ion

channel TRPA1 is potentiated and inactivated by permeating calcium ions. *J. Biol. Chem.* **21**,

32691-32703 (2008).

47. Andersson, D. A., Gentry, C., Moss, S. & Bevan, S. Transient receptor potential A1 is a

sensory receptor for multiple products of oxidative stress. *J. Neurosci.* **28**, 2485-94 (2008).

FIGURES

Figure 1 | Disruption of repolarisation-relaxation coupling (RRC) in rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes by activation of ATP-sensitive potassium channels with pinacidil. a, Schematic of the single-excitation/dual-emission fluorescence imaging approach, utilising a single camera-image splitter system. **b,** Representative traces of action potentials (AP, blue) and calcium transients (CaT, red), simultaneously recorded by fluorescence imaging in a single ventricular cardiomyocyte before (left) and after (right) 5 min of pinacidil exposure (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels), showing RRC disruption. The associated vulnerable period (VP$_{RRC}$; highlighted in green) is the interval during which cardiomyocytes start to become re-excitable, while cytosolic calcium concentration ([Ca^{2+}]$_i$) remains elevated (calculated as the difference between the time of recovery of cytosolic Ca^{2+} to 80 % [CaTD$_{80}$, red dashed line] and membrane potential to 50 % [APD$_{50}$, blue dashed line] of diastolic levels), plus the excitation contraction coupling time (ECC). **c,** APD$_{50}$ (blue), CaTD$_{80}$ (red), and **d**, VP$_{RRC}$ duration (green) during 10 min of Tyrode (NT, solid) or pinacidil (PIN, dashed) superfusion. Differences assessed by one-way ANOVA with Tukey *post-hoc* tests. *$p < 0.05$ for NT compared to PIN; †$p < 0.05$ for the change within either NT or PIN over time; #$p < 0.05$ for the change over time of APD$_{50}$ compared to CaTD$_{80}$. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group.

Figure 2 | **Arrhythmias elicited by acute stretch of rabbit single left ventricular cardiomyocytes. a,** Representative brightfield image of a ventricular cardiomyocyte before (left) and during (right) axial stretch, applied using a carbon fibre-based system. Scale bar: 10 μm. **b,** Schematic of the stretch protocol. **c,** Representative measurement of sarcomere length in a cell exposed to pinacidil (50 μM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels) during 1 Hz pacing (orange dots) and stretched (green segments of trace) in diastole (stretches 1 and 3) or during the vulnerable period (VP_{RRC}, stretches 2 and 4), which did not result in an arrhythmia (normal paced rhythm, NPR, was maintained). **d,** Premature contraction (blue segment) upon VP_{RRC}-timed stretch. **e,** Refractoriness after a diastolic stretch. **f** premature contraction after a diastolic stretch, followed by refractoriness and multiple missed beats (red segment). **g,** Self-sustained arrhythmic activity (red segment) after a VP_{RRC}-timed stretch that spontaneously resolved. **h,** Self-sustained arrhythmic activity (red segment) after a diastolic stretch that was terminated by an additional stretch (second green bar).

Figure 3 | Effects of pharmacological interventions on mechano-arrhythmogenesis. a, Incidence of arrhythmias (purple) in rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes with acute stretch applied during diastole or the vulnerable period (VP$_{RRC}$) in cells exposed to one of the following treatments: Tyrode (NT); pinacidil (PIN, 50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels); PIN + streptomycin (STP, 50 µM, to additionally non-specifically block mechano-sensitive channels, MSC); PIN + HC-030031 (10 µM, to additionally block TRPA1 channels); PIN + BAPTA (1 µM, to additionally buffer cytosolic Ca^{2+}, [Ca^{2+}]$_i$) or PIN + dantrolene (DNT, 1 µM, to additionally stabilise ryanodine receptors). **Inset:** of the total arrhythmia incidence (measured as the sum of diastolic and VP$_{RRC}$ incidence), the proportion of arrhythmias that were premature contractions (blue, left) or self-sustained arrhythmic events (shades of red, right), and the effect of blocking either MSC (measured as the pooled data from stretches in the PIN + STP and PIN + HC-030031 interventions) or chelating [Ca^{2+}]$_i$ (measured as the pooled data from stretches in the PIN + BAPTA intervention) on their incidence in cells with activated ATP-sensitive potassium channels. Differences assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$ for diastole; #$p < 0.05$, ##$p < 0.01$, ###$p < 0.001$ for VP$_{RRC}$. **b,** Incidence of arrhythmias with stretch during diastole in cells exposed to one of the following treatments: NT; allyl isothiocyanate (AITC, 10 µM, to activate TRPA1 channels); AITC + HC-030031; or AITC + BAPTA. **Inset:** of the total diastolic arrhythmia incidence, the proportion of those that were premature contractions (blue, left) or self-sustained arrhythmic events (shades of red, right), and the effect of blocking MSC (measured as the AITC + HC-030031 intervention) or chelating [Ca^{2+}]$_i$ (measured as the AITC + BAPTA intervention) on their incidence in cells with activated TRPA1 channels. Differences assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group, m = stretch stimuli applied.

Figure 4 | Role of TRPA1 channels and cytosolic calcium ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) in ventricular mechano-arrhythmogenesis. a, Example trace of voltage (blue) and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (red), simultaneously recorded by fluorescence imaging in a rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocyte exposed to pinacidil (PIN, 50 μM, to activate K_{ATP} channels). Rapid stretch in the vulnerable period (VP_{RRC}, green) resulted in sustained arrhythmic activity, initiated by sustained depolarisation and an associated increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ above normal systolic levels, prompting spontaneous oscillations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (which subsequently resolved, followed by normal paced beats; not shown). **Blue inset**: Scaled voltage and Ca^{2+} fluorescence curves (top) and phase plot of the first beat (bottom) showing that, prior to stretch, changes in voltage preceded Ca^{2+}. **Red inset**: Scaled voltage and Ca^{2+} fluorescence curves (top) and phase plot of the first beat (bottom) showing $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ oscillations preceding changes in voltage during sustained arrhythmia after stretch, suggesting aberrant Ca^{2+} handling as a driving mechanism. **b,** Schematic representation of mechanisms underlying TRPA1 channel driven mechano-arrhythmogenesis. Effects of stretch (black) on cell electrophysiology (blue), Ca^{2+} (red), or a combination of stretch and Ca^{2+} (purple). TRPA1 agonists (green) and targets of pharmacological antagonists (orange) are indicated. AITC, Allyl isothiocyanate; NCX, Na^+-Ca^{2+} exchanger; PIN, pinacidil; STP, streptomycin; TAX, paclitaxel.

METHODS

Animal model. Experiments involved the use of female New Zealand White rabbits (2.1 ± 0.2 kg, Charles River) – the most relevant small animal model for cardiac arrhythmia research[48] – and were conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care as well as the German legislation for animal welfare, with protocols approved by the Dalhousie University Committee for Laboratory Animals, or by the local Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Freiburg (Regierungspräsidium Freiburg, X-16/10R). Details have been reported following the Minimum Information about a Cardiac Electrophysiology Experiment (MICEE) reporting standard.[49]

Cell isolation. Animals were euthanised by ear vein injection of pentobarbital (140 mg/kg) and heparin (1,500 units/kg, Sigma-Aldrich), followed by rapid excision of the heart, aortic cannulation, and Langendorff perfusion (20 mL/min) with 37 °C modified Tyrode (NT) solution (containing, in mM: 120 NaCl, 4.7 KCl, 1 MgCl$_2$, 1.8 CaCl$_2$, 10 glucose, 10 HEPES [Sigma-Aldrich], with pH adjusted to 7.40 ± 0.05 with NaOH and an osmolality of 300 ± 5 mOsm/L) bubbled with 100 % oxygen. After a rest period of 15 min, the perfusate was switched to calcium (Ca^{2+})-free cardioplegic solution for 5 min (containing, in mM: 117 NaCl, 10 KCl, 1 MgCl$_2$, 10 creatine, 20 taurine, 5 adenosine, 2 L-carnitine, 10 glucose, 10 HEPES [Sigma-Aldrich], with pH adjusted to 7.40 ± 0.05 with NaOH and an osmolality of 300 ± 5 mOsm/L), with an addition of 0.018 mM EGTA (Sigma-Aldrich). The perfusate was then switched to digestion solution, comprised of Ca^{2+}-free solution with the addition of 200 U/mL Collagenase II (Worthington Biochemical Corporation), 0.06 mg/mL Protease XIV (from *Streptomyces griseus*, Sigma Aldrich), and 100 μM CaCl$_2$. After 5 min, the perfusion rate was reduced to 15 mL/min until the heart became flaccid and jelly-like (~10-12 min). The left ventricular free wall was removed and

placed into 50 mL of stop solution, comprised of the Ca^{2+}-free cardioplegic solution described

above without EGTA, but with an addition of 0.5 % bovine serum albumin (Sigma Aldrich) and

100 μM $CaCl_2$. The tissue was agitated, the solution filtered through a 300 μm pore nylon mesh,

the tissue returned to fresh stop solution and re-agitated, and the solution filtered in duplicate. The

cell-containing filtered solution was divided into 2 mL microcentrifuge tubes and maintained at

room temperature.

Carbon fibre method. Cells were stretched using the carbon fibre method, adapted from previous

work.[19] Briefly, single carbon fibres (12-14 μm in diameter,) were mounted with cyanoacrylate

adhesive into a pair of borosilicate glass capillaries, pulled from glass tubes (1.12 mm

inner / 2 mm outer diameter, World Precision Instruments) and bent at 30 ° to allow near-parallel

alignment of the fibres with the bottom of the experimental chamber. Carbon fibres were trimmed

to a length of either 1.2 mm or 0.6 mm from the end of the glass capillary and used in combination

so that one fibre was relatively compliant and the other relatively stiff. Each carbon fibre-

containing capillary was mounted in a microelectrode holder (MEH820, World Precision

Instruments), coupled to a three-axis water hydraulic micromanipulator (MHW-103, Narishige)

on top of a linear piezo-electric translator (PZT, P-621.1CD, Physik Instrumente). The carbon fibre

position was controlled by a piezo amplifier / servo controller (E-665.CR, Physik Instrumente),

driven by a voltage signal generated from a data acquisition (DAQ) device (USB-6361; National

Instruments) and custom-written routines in LabVIEW (National Instruments). Prior to use on CM,

carbon fibre stiffness was calibrated by pressing a fibre against a force transducer system (406A,

Aurora Scientific), measuring the force for given displacements of the PZT, and fitting the data by

linear regression to the formula: stiffness = force / carbon fibre bending (where bending = PZT

displacement). This allowed measurement of passive and active forces of CM by tracking carbon

fibre bending (monitoring fibre tips and prescribing PZT position; described below). Force was

calculated as: force = stiffness × (change in distance between carbon fibre tips - change in distance

between PZT positions). Stress was assessed by dividing force by the stretched cross-sectional

area (CSA) of the CM, determined by assuming that the cross section is an ellipse with CSA =

π × (cell width / 2) × (cell thickness / 2), where cell thickness is assumed to be = width / 3.[50]

Single cell stretch. Before use, half of the supernatant from the cell-containing microcentrifuge

tube was removed and replaced by room temperature NT for 10 min (so that cells were exposed to

50 % of normal extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration), after which all of the supernatant was removed

and replaced by NT. A drop of cell-containing solution was added to an imaging chamber (RC-

27NE2, Warner Instruments) containing 1 mL of NT maintained at 35 °C by a temperature

controller (TC-344C, Warner Instruments) and mounted on an inverted fluorescence microscope

(IX-73, Olympus) with a 40× objective (UPLFLN40X, Olympus). The surface of the coverslip on

the bottom of the chamber was coated with poly-2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate (poly-HEMA,

Sigma-Aldrich) to prevent cell adhesion. Once the cells had settled, 1 Hz biphasic electrical field

stimulation (100 mA, 2 ms square pulse duration; SIU-102, Warner Instruments) was commenced

and homogeneously contracting, rod-shaped CM with clear striations and well-defined membranes

lacking signs of blebbing were selected. Electrical stimulation was stopped, and one long and one

short carbon fibre were positioned above either end of a CM and gently lowered onto the cell

surface using the hydraulic micromanipulators. Adhesion of the CM to carbon fibres was

confirmed by raising the cell off the coverslip. Once cell attachment was established, electrical

stimulation was recommenced, and cells contracted against the mechanical afterload imposed by

carbon fibres for ~1-2 min, which improved cell adhesion. Cells were then superfused at

2.1 mL/min through an inline heater (SF-28, Warner Instruments) with either NT or pinacidil-

containing solution (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium, K_{ATP}, channels) for 5 min. To

approximate stretch of ischaemically weakened myocardium during acute regional ischaemia,[51-55]

transient stretch (20 µm PZT displacement, applied and removed at a rate of 0.7 µm/ms) was

applied (Fig. 2a). Stretch was timed from the electrical stimulus, to occur at two times during the

AP, with 10 s between each stretch: first during mid-diastole (600 ms delay after an electrical

stimulus), and then during the vulnerable period of the repolarisation-relaxation coupling interval

(VP$_{RRC}$; 150 ms delay, so that a majority of stretches – whose duration increased with greater PZT

displacement – would occur within the VP$_{RRC}$, based on the timing measured by simultaneous

voltage-Ca^{2+} imaging; described below). These two differentially timed stretches were then

duplicated, such that there was a total of four stretches at each magnitude of PZT displacement.

This protocol was repeated with increasing magnitudes of PZT displacement (30 and 40 µm) to

generate a range of stretch-induced changes in sarcomere length within a cell (30 s between

repetitions, for a total of 12 stretches; Fig. 2b).

Assessment of stretch effects. Throughout the protocol, sarcomere length, PZT location, and

carbon fibre tip positions were monitored and recorded at 240 Hz (Myocyte Contractility

Recording System, IonOptix). From this, CM contractile function (diastolic sarcomere length, and

maximum rate and percent sarcomere shortening), as well as characteristics of cell stretch (percent

sarcomere stretch, peak sarcomere length, and maximum applied stress) were obtained.

Arrhythmic activity was assessed from sarcomere length measurements, which revealed stretch-

induced premature contractions (defined as 1 or 2 unstimulated contractions after stretch), or other

self-sustained arrhythmic activity (including refractoriness, resulting in single or multiple missed

beats, or sustained activity that either spontaneously resolved, or was terminated by an additional

stretch). Examples of each type of stretch-induced arrhythmia are provided in Fig. 2. Any stretch

that resulted in carbon fibre detachment, or a sustained arrhythmia that did not spontaneously

resolve or could not be terminated by a maximum of two additional stretch applications was

excluded (< 1 % of all cells).

Pharmacological interventions. Pharmacological agents dissolved as stock solutions in distilled

water, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), or ethanol, as appropriate, were added to the perfusate and

continuously perfused for 5 min before any recordings. Agents included: BAPTA-AM (1 µM from

a stock concentration of 10 mM in DMSO, to buffer cytosolic Ca^{2+}, with the concentration

determined in preliminary experiments by titrating to a value that caused a ~ 10 % decrease in

percent sarcomere shortening during contraction, Abcam), dantrolene (1 µM from a stock

concentration of 5 mM in DMSO, to stabilise ryanodine receptors, Abcam), streptomycin (50 µM

from a stock concentration of 15 mM in distilled water, to non-specifically block mechano-

sensitive channels, Sigma-Aldrich), HC-030031 (10 µM from a stock concentration of 50 mM in

DMSO, to block TRPA1 channels, Abcam), allyl isothiocyanate (AITC, 10 µM from a stock

concentration of 1 M in DMSO, to activate TRPA1 channels, Sigma-Aldrich), and paclitaxel

(10 µM from a stock concentration of 10 mM in DMSO, to increase the polymerisation and

stabilisation of microtubules, Abcam). For BAPTA-AM, HC-030031, and paclitaxel, cells were

incubated for 20, 30, or 90 min respectively, after introduction to NT but prior to superfusion.

Dual parametric voltage-Ca^{2+} fluorescence imaging. The Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Fluo-5F, AM

(5 µM from a stock concentration of 1 mM in DMSO, ThermoFisher Scientific) and Pluronic F-

127 (0.02 % from a stock concentration of 20 % in DMSO, Biotium) were added to the cell-

containing microcentrifuge tube during cellular suspension in the 50 % Ca^{2+} solution, and cells

were incubated in the dark for 20 min. The supernatant was then replaced with fresh NT, the

voltage-sensitive dye di-4-ANBDQPQ (20 µM from a stock concentration of 28.8 mM in ethanol,

University of Connecticut Health Centre) was added to the tube, and the cells were incubated in

the dark for 14 min. The supernatant was again replaced with fresh NT, probenecid (1 mM from a

stock concentration of 250 mM in distilled water, Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the tube, and the

cells were from there on maintained in the dark at room temperature. For imaging, the solution

containing dye-loaded cells was gently agitated with a transfer pipette and a drop of solution was

added to 1 mL of NT in the imaging chamber. Carbon fibres were attached to a cell as described

above (carbon fibres reduced motion artefact associated with cell translocation in the vertical plane

during contractions, allowing measurements to be made without an excitation-contraction

uncoupler). Fluorescence was excited by light from a mercury lamp (U-HGLGPS, Olympus),

passed through a 466 / 40 nm bandpass filter (FF01-466/40, Semrock) and reflected onto the

sample by a 495 nm dichroic mirror (FF495-Di03, Semrock). For simultaneous measurement of

trans-membrane voltage and cytosolic 'free' Ca^{2+} concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$), each fluorescent signal

was projected onto one-half of a 128×128-pixel, 16-bit electron-multiplying charge-coupled

device (EMCCD) camera sensor (iXon3, Andor Technology) using an emission image splitter

(Optosplit II; Cairn Research), and recorded at 500 fps with 2 ms exposure time and maximum

electron-multiplying gain. The two signals were split with a 685 nm dichroic mirror (FF685-Di02,

Semrock) and Fluo-5F emission was collected with a 525 / 50 nm bandpass filter (FF03-525 / 50,

Semrock) and di-4-ANBDQPQ emission with a 700 nm long-pass filter (HQ700lp; Chroma

Technology). A schematic of the imaging setup is provided in Fig. 1a.

Analysis of voltage and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signals was performed using custom routines in Matlab

(R2018a, MathWorks). Fluorescence for each signal was averaged over the entire cell, a temporal

filter (50 Hz low-pass Butterworth) was applied, and effects of bleaching were corrected by fitting

the resulting signal with a second-order polynomial and subtracting the result. From the corrected

signals, time to 50 % or 80 % recovery of the action potential (action potential duration, APD_{50} or

APD_{80}) or the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient duration, $CaTD_{50}$ or $CaTD_{80}$) were averaged over

3 consecutive cardiac cycles. The VP_{RRC} was calculated as the difference between $CaTD_{80}$ and

APD_{50}, plus the difference between the timing of the action potential and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient

upstrokes, measured at the point of maximum upstroke velocity for each signal (excitation-

contraction coupling time, ECC, see Fig. 1b, d): $VP_{RRC} = (CaTD_{80} - APD_{50}) + ECC$.

Ratiometric $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ fluorescence imaging. Imaging of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels was performed using the

ratiometric Ca^{2+}-sensitive dye Fura Red, AM ($K_d \approx 400$ nM, AAT Bioquest). Cells were incubated

in the dark for 20 min with 5 μM of the dye (from a stock concentration of 1 mM in DMSO),

0.02 % Pluronic F-127, and 1 mM probenecid. Fluorescence was excited by alternating light pulses

from two white light-emitting diodes (CFT-90-W; Luminus Devices), one with a 420 / 10 nm

bandpass filter (FF01-420 / 10, Semrock) and the other with a 531 / 22 nm bandpass filter (FF02-

531/22, Semrock), which were combined into the microscope excitation light path with a 455 nm

dichroic mirror (AT455dc, Chroma Technology) and reflected onto the sample by a 562 nm

dichroic mirror (T562lpxr, Chroma Technology). Fluorescence was measured through a

632 / 60 nm bandpass filter (AT635 / 60m, Chroma Technology) with the EMCCD camera at

500 fps with 2 ms exposure time and maximum electron-multiplying gain. Light pulses and camera

frame acquisition were synchronised with a custom control box (provided by Dr. Ilija Uzelac,

Georgia Institute of Technology) so that alternating frames corresponded to the signal generated

by each of the two excitation wavelengths.[56]

Analysis of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was performed using custom routines in Matlab. Fluorescence was averaged

over the entire cell and a temporal filter (50 Hz low-pass Butterworth) was applied. The two Ca^{2+}

signal emissions were separated, and the ratio of the signals was calculated. Any remaining

bleaching was corrected by fitting the resulting signal with a second-order polynomial and
subtracting the result. From the corrected signals, the minimum value for each cardiac cycle
(representing a relative measurement of diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$) was established and averaged over 3
consecutive cardiac cycles.

Cell immunofluorescence. Coverslips (22 mm round; VWR) were coated with laminin
(100 µg/mL from Engelbreth-Holm-Swarm murine sarcoma basement membrane diluted in PBS,
Sigma-Aldrich) and stored in a 12-well plate (VWR). Isolated CM in NT were added to each well
and maintained at room temperature for 3 hours to seed. In half of the wells, paclitaxel (10 µM)
was added for the final 90 min. Cells were then fixed by removing the NT and submerging the
cover slips in ice cold methanol and incubating for 7 min at -20 ºC. Methanol was removed and
cover slips were rinsed 5 times with phosphate buffered saline (PBS, Sigma-Aldrich) to remove
excess methanol. Cover slips were stored in PBS until staining.

For staining, coverslips were bathed in blocking solution (5 % BSA in PBS, Sigma-Aldrich) at
room temperature for 1 hour. Coverslips were then transferred to a custom-built humidity chamber
(a glass Petri dish lined with a PBS-soaked piece of tissue placed on upside down on top of a piece
of Parafilm). Diluted primary antibody (100 µL of 1:200 rat anti-rabbit a-tubulin, Clone YL1 / 2,
Invitrogen) was pipetted onto the Parafilm and the coverslips were placed cell-side down on top
of the solution and incubated at 4 ºC for 1 hour. Coverslips were subsequently washed in
quadruplicate (5 min each) with PBS and diluted secondary antibody (1:500 goat anti-rat IgG
Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate, Invitrogen) was applied as above. Following secondary antibody
staining, coverslips were mounted cell-side down to glass slides with mounting medium (ProLong
Glass Antifade Mountant with NucBlue Stain, ThermoFisher).

Imaging of fixed and stained CM was performed on an inverted confocal microscope system

(TCS SP8, Leica) with a 40x oil immersion, 1.3 NA objective (HC Plan APOCHROMAT CS2,

Leica) and Lightning deconvolution software to obtain super-resolution images. Samples were

illuminated with a 488 nm solid state laser at 1.2 % intensity and the photomultiplier tube (PMT)

detectors were set to collect between 503-577 nm. A z-stack of 3 images, spaced at 1.5 μm, was

obtained. Maximum projections were generated using Leica LAS X 3D viewer software. Images

were then analysed in a blinded fashion, using custom software in Fiji (kindly shared by Drs

Matthew Caporizzo and Benjamin Prosser, Department of Physiology, University of Pennsylvania

Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, USA) to determine microtubule density, calculated as

the fraction of cell area.[57] Briefly, cells were manually traced and a threshold for microtubule

positive pixels was determined from a background region within the cell with no visible

microtubule fluorescence. This was used to generate a binary image of the cell to calculate the

microtubule positive fraction of the total cell area.

Tissue Western blotting. Boiled samples of left ventricular free wall (20 μg) were separated (4 %

stacking gel) and resolved *via* 7.5 % sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

(Mini-PROTEAN SDS-PAGE, BioRad). Samples were loaded alongside 10 μL protein ladder

(Precision Plus Protein Standards Kaleidoscope ladder, BioRad). Self-cast gels (Mini-PROTEAN,

BioRad) were run on ice at 90 V for 30 min and then at 120 V until the dye front migrated to the

opposite edge of the gel on ice in 1X Tris / Glycine / SDS electrophoresis buffer (BioRad).

Samples were wet-transferred to nitrocellulose (0.2 μm, BioRad) at 100 V for 1.5 hours buried in

ice. Membranes were briefly rinsed in double-distilled water and equal protein transfer was

confirmed by incubating the membranes in stain (Pierce Reversible Memcode Stain, Thermo

Scientific) for 5 min. The stained blot was labelled and imaged (ChemiDoc MP Imaging System,

BioRad) before removing the stain (Pierce Stain Eraser, Thermo Scientific). Membranes were then

blocked in 5 % skim-milk in 1X Tris-Buffered-Saline-Tween 20 (TBS-T, Sigma-Aldrich) for 60

min. Membranes were subsequently incubated overnight at 4 ºC with primary antibodies (1:2,000

monoclonal mouse anti-TRPA1 antibody, Sigma-Aldrich, and 1:3,000 MF20 mouse anti-myosin

heavy chain antibody, Hybridoma Bank), diluted in 1 % skim-milk in TBS-T with sodium azide.

Next, blots were incubated with secondary antibody (1:4000 horseradish peroxidase HRP-

conjugated anti-mouse produced in goat, Jackson Labs) for 1 hour in 5 % skim-milk at room

temperature. Immunoreactivity was then measured (Clarity Western Enhanced

Chemiluminescence Substrate, with a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System, BioRad). Membranes were

stripped by incubation in 25 mL 0.5 M Tris-HCl / SDS buffer supplemented with 125 µL 2-

mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 hour and re-probed.

Patch-clamp current recordings. Cells for patch clamp experiments were isolated from

ventricular slices according to a previously published protocol.[58] Briefly, animals were

anaesthetised by intramuscular injection of esketamine hydrochloride (0.5 mL/kg) and 2 %

xylazine hydrochloride (0.2 mL/kg). Under sedation, an anaesthetic mixture of sodium-heparin

(1,000 units/mL) and esketamine hydrochloride (25 mg/mL) were injected intravenously.

Euthanasia was induced by intravenous injection of sodium-thiopental (25 mg/mL) until apnoea.

The heart was then swiftly excised, cannulated, and Langendorff perfused (20 mL/min) for 2 min

with 37 °C modified NT solution (containing, in mM: 137 NaCl, 4 KCl, 10 $MgCl_2$, 1.8 $CaCl_2$, 10

glucose, 10 HEPES, 10 creatine, 20 taurine, 5 adenosine, 2 L-carnitine; with pH adjusted to

7.30 ± 0.05 with NaOH) bubbled with 100 % oxygen, followed by 2 min with 37 °C cutting

solution (containing, in mM: 138 NaCl, 5.4 KCl, 0.33 NaH_2PO_4; 2.0 $MgCl_2$, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES,

30 2,3-butanedione 2-monoxime (BDM); with pH adjusted to 7.30 ± 0.05 with NaOH) bubbled

with 100 % oxygen. The left ventricular free wall was cut into approximately 0.8 mm x 0.8 mm

wide transmural tissue chunks, embedded in 4 % low melting point agarose dissolved in cutting

solution. Left ventricular blocks were cut into 300 μm thick live tissue slices, using a vibrating

microtome (7000 smz-2, Campden Instruments Ltd) with stainless-steel blades (7550-1-SS,

Campden Instruments Ltd) at 4 °C, with 60 Hz horizontal blade displacements of 1.5 mm, at a

blade progression velocity of 0.05 mm/s (Z-deflection values were below 1 μm). Slices were

stored at 4 °C in cutting solution until digestion.

Slices were digested at 37 °C in Petri dishes (Ø 35 mm) placed on a heated orbital shaker (50-

65 rpm). Slices were washed three times (1 min for each wash) with the solution used for cell

isolation, but without digestive enzymes (containing, in mM: 100 NaCl, 15 KCl, 2.5 KH_2PO_4, 2

$MgCl_2$, 10 glucose, 10 HEPES, 20 taurine, 20 L-glutamic acid monopotassium salt, 30 BDM; with

2 mg/mL bovine serum albumin; pH adjusted to 7.30 ± 0.05 with NaOH). Slices were then digested

for 12 min by including proteinase type XXIV (0.5 mg/mL; Sigma-Aldrich) to the cell isolation

solution mentioned above, followed by three more washes. Digestion was continued by adding

200 μL of Liberase^{TM} TL Research Grade (0.25 mg/mL; Hoffmann-La Roche) per 2 mL of cell

isolation solution, supplemented with 5 μM $CaCl_2$. When slices started to show a corrugated

appearance (~ 25 - 50 min), they were washed three times with the solution used for cell isolation,

without enzymes but containing 10 mg/mL bovine serum albumin, and mechanically dissociated

using forceps and gentle pipetting with Pasteur pipettes. The Ca^{2+} concentration was increased in

a stepwise fashion every 5 min (to 5 μM, 12 μM, 20 μM, 42 μM, 84 μM, 162 μM, 266 μM,

466 μM, 827 μM, and 1 mM), during which time BDM was gradually decreased to a final

concentration of 13 mM. Cells were filtered through a 1-mm-pore nylon mesh and allowed to settle

in a conical centrifuge tube for 15 - 20 min. The supernatant was removed and replaced by

modified NT. Quality of the preparation was assessed by the percentage of rod-shaped cells, the

response to electrical pacing, and the resting sarcomere length. Cells with irregular / unclear

sarcolemma, blebs, or unclear striations were rejected.

Sarcolemmal ion channel activity was recorded at room temperature ($21 \pm 2\,°C$) using the

patch-clamp technique with a holding potential of +40 mV. Recordings were obtained in cell-

attached configuration using a patch-clamp amplifier (Axopatch 200B, Axon Instruments) and a

digitiser interface (Axon Digidata 1440A, Axon Instruments). Fire-polished soda-lime glass

capillaries (1.15 ± 0.05 mm inner / 1.55 ± 0.05 mm outer diameter; VITREX Medical A/S) were

pulled using a two-stage pipette-puller (PC-10, Narishige) to create the micropipettes required for

patch-clamping. Average pipette resistance was $1.36 \pm 0.10\,M\Omega$. Currents were acquired at

20 kHz sampling rate (interval 50 µs), and low-pass filtered at 1 kHz. Currents were analysed with

pCLAMP 10.6 software (Axon Instruments). The bath solution contained (in mM): 155 KCl, 3

$MgCl_2$, 5 EGTA, 10 HEPES (Sigma-Aldrich), with pH adjusted to 7.2 ± 0.05 using KOH and an

osmolality of 310 ± 5 mOsm/L. The solution was stored at room temperature. Pipette solution for

cell-attached recordings contained (in mM): 150 NaCl, 5 KCl, 10 HEPES, 2 $CaCl_2$ with pH

adjusted to 7.4 ± 0.05 using NaOH and an osmolality of 300 ± 5 mOsm/L. The pipette solution

also contained 10 mM tetraethylammonium chloride (TEA), 5 mM 4-aminopyridine, and 10 mM

glibenclamide to inhibit potentially contaminating potassium channels. These ionic conditions

were used previously to assess cation non-selective channels.[59] AITC was added to the bath

solution before use and perfused *via* a local perfusion system. Flow rate was adapted by adjusting

the height of reservoirs for gravity-fed flow to 1 mL/min. Recordings were analysed in Clampfit

10.6. Average current was calculated over at least 10 s for each condition.

Statistics. Statistics were performed using Prism 9 (GraphPad). Differences in arrhythmia

incidence were assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. Data was first

tested for normality, then differences between group means were assessed by two-tailed, paired or

unpaired Student's t-test (for normally distributed data), Wilcoxon matched-pairs (paired) or

Mann-Whitney (unpaired) test (for data that was not normally distributed), one-way ANOVA with

Tukey *post-hoc* tests (for normally distributed data), or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple

comparisons test (for data that was not normally distributed), where appropriate. The relevant test

is indicated in the figure captions. A p-value of < 0.05 was considered indicative of a significant

difference between observed parameters. Figures indicate the number of replicates used in each

experiment (N = rabbit hearts / group, n = cells / group, m = stretch stimuli applied / analysed).

Data availability. The datasets obtained and analysed in the current study are available from the

corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Code availability. All custom computer source code used in this study is available from the

corresponding author upon reasonable request.

METHODS REFERENCES

48. Clauss, S. *et al*. Animal models of arrhythmia: classic electrophysiology to genetically modified large animals. *Nat. Rev. Cardiol*. **16**, 457-75 (2019).

49. Quinn, T. A. *et al*. Minimum Information about a Cardiac Electrophysiology Experiment (MICEE): standardised reporting for model reproducibility, interoperability, and data sharing. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Bio.* **107**, 4-10 (2011).

50. Peyronnet, R. *et al*. Load-dependent effects of apelin on murine cardiomyocytes. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.* **130**, 333-43 (2017).

51. Gallagher, K. P., Gerren, R. A., Choy M., Stirling M. C. & Dysko R. C. Subendocardial segment length shortening at lateral margins of ischaemic myocardium in dogs. *Am. J. Physiol*. **253**, H826-37 (1987).

52. Prinzen, F. W., Arts, T., Hoeks, A. P. G. & Reneman, R. S. Discrepancies between myocardial blood flow and fiber shortening in the ischaemic border zone as assessed with video mapping of epicardial deformation. *Pflügers Archiv*. **415**, 220-9 (1989).

53. Sakai, K., Watanabe, K., Millard, R. W. Defining the mechanical border zone: a study in the pig heart. *Am. J. Physiol*. **249**, H88-94 (1985).

54. Theroux, P., Franklin, D., Ross, J., Kemper, W. S. Regional myocardial function during acute coronary artery occlusion and its modification by pharmacologic agents in the dog. *Circ. Res*. **35**, 896-908 (1974).

55. Rodriguez, F. et al. Alterations in transmural strains adjacent to ischemic myocardium during acute midcircumflex occlusion. *J. Thorac. Cardiovasc. Surg*. **129**, 791-803 (2005).

56. Lee, P., Bollensdorff, C., Quinn, T. A., Wuskell, J. P., Loew, L. M. & Kohl, P. Single-sensor

system for spatially-resolved, continuous and multi-parametric optical mapping of cardiac

tissue. *Heart Rhythm*. **8**, 1482-91 (2011).

57. Chen, C. Y., Caporizzo, M. A., Bedi, K., Vite, A., Bogush, A. I., Robison, P., Heffler, J. G.,

Salomon, A. K., Kelly, N. A., Babu, A., Morley, M. P., Margulies, K. B., Prosser, B. L.

Suppression of detyrosinated microtubules improves cardiomyocyte function in human heart

failure. *Nat. Med.* **24**, 1225-33 (2018).

58. Fiegle, D. J., Volk, T., Seidel, T. Isolation of human ventricular cardiomyocytes from

vibratome-cut myocardial slices. *J. Vis. Exp.* **159**, e61167 (2020).

59. Peyronnet, R. *et al*. Piezo1-dependent stretch-activated channels are inhibited by Polycystin-

2 in renal tubular epithelial cells. *EMBO Rep*. **14**, 1143-8 (2013).

STATEMENTS

Acknowledgements. We thank Gentaro Iribe (Asahikawa Medical University, Asahikawa, Japan) and Keiko Kaihara (Okayama University, Okayama, Japan) for technical assistance with cell stretch. Carbon fibres were a gift from Jean-Yves LeGuennec. This work was supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (MOP 342562 to T.A.Q.); by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (RGPIN-2016-04879 to T.A.Q.); by the Dalhousie Medical Research Foundation (T.A.Q.); by the Canadian Foundation for Innovation (32962 to T.A.Q.); and by the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada through a National New Investigator award (T.A.Q.). B.A.C., J.G., R.P. and P.K. are members of the German Research Foundation Collaborative Research Centre SFB1425 (DFG #422681845).

Author contributions. B.A.C. and T.A.Q. designed the study, interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript; B.A.C. performed and analysed the cell stretch, stiffness, and fluorescence imaging experiments, and isolated cells for the immunofluorescence experiments; M.R.S. contributed to experimental design and setup; J.G. isolated cells for the patch-clamp experiments; R.P. performed and analysed the patch-clamp experiments; M.S.C. performed and analysed the Western blotting experiments; and J.J.B. and E.A.D. performed and analysed the immunofluorescence experiments. P.K. contributed to the intellectual content of the research and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Author information. The authors declare no competing interests. Correspondence and request for materials should be addressed to T.A.Q. (alex.quinn@dal.ca).

  EXTENDED DATA

Extended Data Figure 1 | Mechanical characteristics of cell stretch. a, Percent sarcomere
stretch, **b,** stretched sarcomere length, and **c,** maximum applied stress during acute diastolic stretch
of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes exposed to Tyrode (NT, grey, left) or pinacidil
(PIN, white, right, 50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels) with increasing levels of
piezo-electric translator (PZT) displacement (20, 30, and 40 µm). Differences assessed by one-
way ANOVA, with Tukey *post-hoc* tests for **a** and **b**, and by Kruskal-Wallis test for **c**. *$p < 0.05$,
**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group.

Extended Data Figure 2 | Effect of stretch magnitude on the incidence of mechano-
arrhythmogenesis. Incidence of premature contractions (blue) and other self-sustained
arrhythmic activity (shades of red) with rapid stretch at increasing levels of piezo-electric translator
(PZT) displacement in rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes exposed to either Tyrode
(NT, left) or pinacidil (PIN, right, 50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels).
Differences assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. *$p < 0.05$. $N =$
rabbits / group, $n =$ cells / group, $m =$ stretch stimuli applied.
864

Extended Data Figure 3 | Contractile function before and after stretch in control cells, and
in cells with pinacidil (PIN)-induced disruption of repolarisation-relaxation coupling (RRC).
a, Diastolic sarcomere length and **b,** maximum rate and **c,** percent sarcomere shortening during
contraction of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes exposed to either Tyrode (NT, grey,
left) or PIN (white, right, 50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels) before (pre-
stretch) or after three successive diastolic stretch applications, generated by piezo-electric
translator (PZT) displacement (three stretch amplitudes applied were 20, 30 or 40 µm).
Measurements for each point averaged over 5 electrically paced contractions. Differences assessed
by one-way ANOVA, with Tukey *post-hoc* tests. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group.
876

Extended Data Figure 4 | Contractile function after termination of periods with sustained
arrhythmic activity. a, Diastolic sarcomere length and **b,** maximum rate and **c,** percent sarcomere
shortening during contraction of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes in the presence of
pinacidil (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels) before (green) and after (red)
termination of stretch-induced self-sustained arrhythmic activity. Measurements for each point
averaged over 5 electrically paced contractions. Differences assessed using two-tailed, paired
Student's t-test. N = rabbits, n = cells.
885

Extended Data Figure 5 | Expression of transient receptor potential ankyrin 1 (TRPA1)
channels in rabbit left ventricular myocardium. a, Western blot of TRPA1 and myosin heavy
chain (MF20) protein expression in rabbit left ventricular free wall tissue. **b**, Representative
recording of channel activation in response to allyl isothiocyanate (AITC, 50 µM, to activate
TRPA1 channels) in a cell-attached patch (holding potential +40 mV). **Inset**, Detail of channel
activation with visible single channel events. **c**, Quantification of AITC-induced current changes
(left) and comparison to time-matched same-batch control cells (right). Differences assessed with
two-tailed, paired Student's t-test. **$p < 0.01$. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. N
= rabbits / group, n = cells / group.
896

897
898

Extended Data Figure 6 | Effect of pharmacological interventions on mechano-arrhythmogenesis with normal repolarisation-relaxation coupling (RRC). Incidence of arrhythmias (purple) in rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes without a pinacidil-induced disruption of RRC, following acute stretch applied during diastole or the vulnerable period (VP_{RRC}) and exposure to one of the following treatments: Tyrode (NT); NT + streptomycin (STP, 50 µM, to non-specifically block mechano-sensitive channels, MSC); NT + HC-030031 (10 µM, to block transient receptor potential ankyrin 1, TRPA1, channels); NT + BAPTA (1 µM, to buffer cytosolic Ca^{2+}, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$), or NT + dantrolene (DNT, 1 µM, to stabilise ryanodine receptors). **Inset,** Of the total arrhythmia incidence (measured as the sum of diastolic and VP_{RRC} incidence), the proportion of arrhythmias that were premature contractions (blue, left) or self-sustained arrhythmic events (shades of red, right), and the effect of blocking either MSC (measured as the pooled stretches in the NT + STP intervention) or chelating $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (measured as the pooled stretches in the NT + BAPTA intervention) on their incidence. Differences assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group, m = stretch stimuli applied.

Extended Data Figure 7 | Effect of pharmacological interventions on cellular contractile
function in the absence of a pinacidil-induced disturbance of repolarisation-relaxation
coupling (RRC). a, Diastolic sarcomere length and **b**, maximum rate and **c**, percent sarcomere
shortening during contraction of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes exposed to one of
the following conditions: Tyrode (NT); NT + streptomycin (STP, 50 µM, to non-specifically block
mechano-sensitive channels); NT + HC-030031 (10 µM, to block TRPA1 channels); NT +
BAPTA (1 µM, to buffer cytosolic Ca^{2+}); or NT + dantrolene (DNT, 1 µM, to stabilise ryanodine
receptors). Differences assessed by one-way ANOVA, with Tukey *post-hoc* tests for **a** and **b** and
by Kruskal-Wallis test for **c**. *$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$. Error bars represent standard error of the
mean. N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group.
927

Extended Data Figure 8 | Effect of microtubule density on TRPA1-mediated mechano-arrhythmogenesis. Confocal immunofluorescence images of stained microtubules in rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes in either **a,** control conditions (Tyrode, NT) or **b,** following paclitaxel exposure (TAX, 10 μM, to increase the polymerisation and stabilisation of microtubules). **c,** Quantification of microtubule density assessed as the microtubule positive fraction of total cell area. Differences assessed with two-tailed, unpaired Student's t-test. *$p < 0.05$. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. **d,** Incidence of premature contractions (blue) and other self-sustained arrhythmic activity (shades of red) after acute diastolic stretch of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes exposed to one of the following treatments: NT; TAX; or TAX + HC-030031 (10 μM, to block TRPA1 channels). Differences assessed using chi-square contingency tables and Fisher's exact test. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$. N = rabbits / group; n = cells / group, m = stretches.

Extended Data Figure 9 | Effect of TRPA1 channel activation on cytosolic Ca^{2+} concentration
($[Ca^{2+}]_i$). Percent change in diastolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ after exposure to one of the following treatments:
pinacidil (PIN, 50 μM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels); allyl isothiocyanate (AITC,
50 μM, to activate TRPA1 channels); PIN + HC-030031 (10 μM, to block TRPA1 channels); or
AITC + HC-030031. Differences assessed using two-tailed, unpaired Student's t-test between
groups within PIN or AITC treatment. *$p < 0.05$. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.
N = rabbits / group, n = cells / group.
951

Extended Data Figure 10 | Effect of pinacidil (PIN) on cellular mechanics. a, Diastolic
(represented by the slope of the end-diastolic stress-length relationship, blue lines with square
symbols) and systolic (represented by the slope of the end-systolic stress-length relationship, red
lines with round symbols) stiffness of rabbit isolated left ventricular cardiomyocytes either in
control conditions (Tyrode, NT; solid lines and filled symbols), or following exposure to PIN
(50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels; dashed lines and open symbols). **b,**
Calculated diastolic and systolic stiffness, and stiffness-sarcomere length (SL) intercepts in cells
exposed to either NT (grey) or PIN (white). Differences assessed using two-tailed, unpaired
Student's t-test. $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. $N =$
rabbits / group, $n =$ cells / group.
963

964
965

Extended Data Figure 11 | Mechanical characteristics of cell stretch, grouped by timing
relative to the electrical cycle and differing electrophysiological outcomes. a, Percent
sarcomere stretch, **b,** stretched sarcomere length, and **c,** maximum applied stress in pinacidil-
treated (PIN, 50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels) cells for two consecutive acute
stretch applications either during diastole or the VP$_{RRC}$, where one stretch caused an arrhythmia
(ARR, red) and the other did not (cell remained in normal paced rhythm, NPR, green), but not
always in that order. Differences assessed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs test. N =
rabbits / group, n = cells / group.
974

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supplementary Video 1 | Stretch-induced premature contraction. Example of rapid stretch of a rabbit isolated left ventricular myocyte treated with pinacidil (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels), applied using microscopic carbon fibres adhered to either end of the cell, which resulted in a premature contraction. Sarcomere dynamics and carbon fibre positions were simultaneously measured to assess arrhythmic incidence and confirm maintenance of contractile function (representative sarcomere trace shown in Fig. 2d).

Supplementary Video 2 | Stretch-induced refractoriness. Example of rapid stretch of a rabbit isolated left ventricular myocyte treated with pinacidil (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels), applied using microscopic carbon fibres adhered to either end of the cell, which resulted in refractoriness. Sarcomere dynamics and carbon fibre positions were simultaneously measured to assess arrhythmic incidence and confirm maintenance of contractile function (representative sarcomere trace shown in Fig. 2f).

Supplementary Video 3 | Stretch-induced sustained arrythmia with termination by stretch. Example of rapid stretch of a rabbit isolated left ventricular myocyte treated with pinacidil (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels), applied using microscopic carbon fibres adhered to either end of the cell, which resulted in a sustained arrhythmia that was terminated by application of an additional stretch. Sarcomere dynamics and carbon fibre positions were simultaneously measured to assess arrhythmic incidence and confirm maintenance of contractile function (representative sarcomere trace shown in Fig. 2h).

Supplementary Video 4 | Stretch-induced, calcium-driven sustained arrhythmia. Example of simultaneous voltage (blue)-calcium (red) fluorescence imaging in a rabbit isolated ventricular myocyte treated with pinacidil (50 µM, to activate ATP-sensitive potassium channels). Rapid stretch during the vulnerable period (green bar) resulted in sustained arrhythmic activity, in which oscillations in cytosolic calcium preceded changes in voltage, indicating calcium-driven activity (see inset and Fig. 4a).