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Intrinsic structure of model-derived metrics for *in silico* proarrhythmic risk assessment identified by global sensitivity analysis

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2 ABSTRACT

3 Multiscale computational models of heart are being extensively investigated for improved
4 assessment of drug-induced Torsades de Pointes (TdP) risk, a fatal side effect of many drugs.
5 Model-derived metrics (features) such as action potential duration and net charge carried by
6 ionic currents ($qNet$) have been proposed as potential candidates for TdP risk stratification after
7 being tested on small datasets. Unlike purely statistical approaches, model-derived metrics are
8 thought to provide mechanism-based classification. In particular, the underlying mechanism
9 behind the success of the recently proposed $qNet$ metric is attributed to its correlation to early
10 afterdepolarizations (EADs), which are known to be cellular triggers of TdP. Analysis of critical
11 model components and of ion-channels that have major impact on model-derived metrics can lead
12 to improvement in the confidence of the prediction. In this paper, we analyze a large population of
13 virtual drugs to systematically examine the influence of different ion channels on model-derived
14 metrics that have been proposed for proarrhythmic risk assessment. Global sensitivity analysis
15 (GSA) methods were employed to determine and highlight the critical input parameters that
16 affect different model-derived metrics. We observed significant differences between the sets
17 of input parameters that control model-derived metrics and generation of EADs in the model,
18 thus opposing the idea that these metrics and sensitivity to EAD might be strongly correlated.
19 Moreover, in classification of a small set of actual drugs, we found that the classifiers based on
20 EADs performed worse than those built on other model-derived metrics. Hence, our analysis
21 points towards a need for a better mechanistic interpretation of promising metrics such as $qNet$
22 based on formal analyses of models. In particular, GSA should constitute an essential component
23 in the *in silico* workflow for proarrhythmic risk assessment to yield improved understanding of
24 the structure of mechanistic dependencies surrounding model-derived metrics while ultimately
25 providing increased confidence in model-predicted risk.

26 **Keywords:** Global sensitivity analysis, Torsades de Pointes, Computational Modeling, early afterdepolarizations, ion channel
27 pharmacology

1 INTRODUCTION

28 Drug-induced Torsades de Pointes (TdP) is a specific form of polymorphic ventricular tachycardia that
29 leads to ventricular fibrillation and sudden cardiac death (Yap and Camm, 2003). Several drugs have been
30 withdrawn from the market in the past due to TdP risk (Gintant, 2008). Although the current clinical safety
31 guidelines are successfully preventing drugs with torsadogenic risk from reaching the market (Sager et al.,
32 2014), safe drugs may be potentially excluded due to the low specificity of the screening process, which
33 targets only hERG channels. The Comprehensive *in vitro* Proarrhythmia Assay (CiPA) is a global initiative
34 to provide revised guidelines for better evaluation of the proarrhythmic risk of drugs (Fermini et al., 2016).
35 *In silico* evaluation of proarrhythmic action for different compounds constitutes an important foundation
36 under the CiPA initiative to link data from *in vitro* assays to changes in cell behavior (Fermini et al., 2016;
37 Colatsky et al., 2016).

38 The main component of the *in silico* evaluation are classifiers that are based on the so-called “derived
39 features”, input variables for the classifiers that are extracted from the outputs of biophysical models. The
40 term “direct features” refers instead to the original feature set estimated from experiments investigating how
41 drugs affect ion channel kinetics. Biophysical models serve as complex transformations that generate feature
42 sets conditioned to the prior knowledge used in creating the model, thus potentially improving the efficacy
43 of linear classifiers in inferring TdP risk. Diverse sets of derived features have been suggested as potential
44 candidates for TdP risk classification (Table 1). In one of the earliest works on the use of the myocyte
45 models for TdP risk prediction, simulated action potential duration at 90 % repolarization (*APD*₉₀) was
46 shown to provide the best discrimination of torsadogenic and non-torsadogenic drugs (Mirams et al., 2011).
47 Other derived features extracted from the action potential (e.g., early after depolarization (EAD) and
48 transmural dispersion of repolarization (TDR)), have also been suggested as possible candidate metrics
49 for TdP risk prediction (Christophe, 2013, 2015). Considering derived features from calcium transient in
50 addition to features of the action potential have been shown to improve TdP risk discrimination (Lancaster
51 and Sobie, 2016). Recently, tertiary TdP risk classifiers trained on a set of 12 drugs categorized into 3
52 clinical TdP risk groups (high, intermediate, and low/no risk) have been developed at FDA as a part of
53 the CiPA initiative (Li et al., 2017; Dutta et al., 2017). Finally, two new derived features *cqInward* (Li
54 et al., 2017) and *qNet* (Dutta et al., 2017) have been proposed to separate the 12 training drugs into desired
55 target groups. The *qNet* metric was further validated on 16 test compounds (Li et al., 2018). Uncertainty
56 quantification methods (Johnstone et al., 2016) have recently gained increased attention due to their ability
57 to better estimate the confidence of the model-predicted risk (Chang et al., 2017) by taking into account
58 noise in the *in vitro* measurements of drug-induced effects on ionic currents, under the CiPA initiative.

59 Model-derived features that are directly linked to drug-induced changes in myocyte membrane activity
60 are thought to provide mechanism-based classification of compounds into different risk categories by
61 providing possible insights into TdP mechanisms. The *qNet* metric is thought to provide a measure of
62 propensity of myocytes to undergo EADs (Dutta et al., 2017; Chang et al., 2017), that are known to be
63 the trigger of TdP (Yan et al., 2001). In this paper, we apply global sensitivity analysis (GSA) to the
64 existing CiPA *in silico* framework to identify key model components that require special treatment for
65 reducing uncertainties in the estimated model-derived metrics and, ultimately, TdP risk classification.
66 Unlike previous approaches where the initial feature selection and construction were performed by testing
67 on a small set of drugs, in this study, we analyzed a large virtual population of drugs to identify the
68 critical input parameters regulating the variation of several previously proposed model-derived metrics
69 (e.g., *APD*₉₀, *qNet*) for proarrhythmic risk classification. We also compare the key inputs that regulate
70 these model-derived metrics to those regulating generation of the EADs. We demonstrate that, in spite of

71 previously claimed ties between $qNet$ and EAD generation, the parameters that affect $qNet$ are different
72 than those influencing cell sensitivity to EAD. Moreover, we show that classifiers built on EAD metrics
73 perform worse than classifiers built on $qNet$. Hence, our results highlight the need for better mechanistic
74 understanding of promising model-derived metrics. Furthermore, the sensitivity analysis results provide an
75 explanation of the equivalent performance of direct and derived features.

2 METHODS

76 The CiPAORd model and input parameters section describes the *in silico* model used in the paper. To
77 perform GSA, we generated a large set of virtual drugs. A virtual drug comprises a random vector of
78 changes to parameters of ion channels of the model. The details of the input parameters considered for
79 generating the virtual drug population are presented in Sampling virtual drug population. Responses to the
80 virtual drugs were examined, evaluating several model-derived features such as APD_{90} , $qNet$, and peak
81 calcium concentration ($peakCa$). The section *In silico* simulations and derived features presents details on
82 the derived features extracted from the *in silico* model. To explore the link between model-derived metrics
83 and EADs in the model virtual drugs were also tested for their ability to induce EAD. In the section EAD
84 protocols we discuss the protocols used to test for EAD generation in the model. The methods used for
85 GSA are described in the Global sensitivity analysis. Finally, the methods for classifying the 28 drugs
86 selected under the CiPA initiative, which we refer in the manuscript as “CiPA drugs”, with respect to their
87 defined torsadogenic risk are described in the section Tertiary risk stratification of “CiPA drugs”.

88 CiPAORd model and input parameters

89 In this study, we perform GSA on the CiPAORd model (Dutta et al., 2017). The CiPAORd model was
90 developed at FDA by introducing several modifications to the original O’Hara-Rudy ventricular myocyte
91 model (O’Hara et al., 2011) to improve proarrhythmic risk assessment.

92 Several input parameters have been used for simulation of virtual drug effects. For the hERG channels,
93 we used the concentration response of the drug, E_{max} , the unbinding reaction rate, K_u , and the membrane
94 voltage at which half of drug-bound channels are open, V_{half} , as input parameters for the model. In this
95 paper, we refer to the E_{max} parameter that represents the static component of the hERG block as $sbIKr$.
96 For the other channel currents (i.e., fast sodium current INa , late sodium current $INaL$, L-type calcium
97 channel current $ICaL$, slow-rectifying potassium channel current IKs , inward rectifier potassium current
98 $IK1$, transient-outward current Ito) we used the general Hill equation of channel block,

$$b_{current,drug} = 100\% \times \frac{C_{drug}^h}{IC_{50,current} + C_{drug}^h}, \quad (1)$$

99 where $current = \{INa, INaL, ICaL, IKs, IK1, Ito\}$, $IC_{50,current}$ is the drug concentration at which a
100 current is reduced by half, C_{drug} is the drug concentration, and h is the Hill coefficient. The drug-induced
101 blocks of channel currents $b_{current,drug}$ are used to scale the maximum conductance of the current $g_{current}$
102 in the *in silico* model calculated as

$$g_{current,drug} = \frac{100\% - b_{current,drug}}{100\%} \times g_{current}. \quad (2)$$

103 We perform GSA explicitly with respect to $b_{current,drug}$ rather than $IC_{50,current}$, C_{drug} , and h . In this
104 study, we refer to the parameters of the block of INa , $INaL$, $ICaL$, IKs , $IK1$ and Ito as $bINa$, $bINaL$,
105 $bICaL$, $bIKs$, $bIK1$, and $bIto$, respectively. Equation (1) is used in classification of real compounds.

106 Sampling virtual drug population

107 The population of virtual drugs is created through Monte Carlo sampling from a high-dimensional (10-D)
108 input parametric space. The parametric space represent changes in model parameters used to describe drug
109 binding and blocks of ionic currents. Basic cycle length (BCL) of cell pacing in the simulations was also
110 considered as a parameter for GSA. The input parameters and their examined ranges is provided in (Table
111 2). In some cases, GSA was performed on metrics derived from outputs of a mid-myocardial cell (defined
112 as M cell in O'Hara et al. (2011)) model. M cells are very sensitive to blocks of repolarization currents and
113 produce EAD more easily. Sensitivity to EADs makes the analysis more complicated, and the range of
114 hERG block for M cells had to be accordingly reduced.

115 *In silico* simulations and derived features

116 The action potential and calcium transients of the cells were simulated for the large virtual population
117 of drug dataset (>20000 drugs) generated for GSA, and, separately, for the CiPA training (12 drugs) and
118 validation (16 drugs) datasets (manual patch clamp data) (Li et al., 2017; Dutta et al., 2017) using the
119 CiPAORd model. Model simulations were run for 200 beats to achieve pseudo steady state. Simulations
120 were carried out at different pacing rates (a parameter in GSA) for each of the endocardial (endo), mid-
121 myocardial (M), and epicardial (epi) cell types. Several standard metrics explored previously for TdP risk
122 discrimination were calculated from the action potential and Ca^{2+} transients. The metrics obtained from
123 the *in silico* models are listed in the Table 3. Note that the metric $qNet$ was calculated as the area under the
124 curve traced by the net current ($I_{net} = ICaL + INaL + IKr + IKs + IK1 + Ito$) from the beginning
125 to the end of the last simulated beat as defined in Dutta et al. (2017).

126 EAD protocols

127 Drug-induced EAD risk (sensitivity of a cell against EAD generation) for both the virtual drugs and the
128 CiPA compounds was examined in the endo and M cell types using two separate protocols. The M cell type
129 in the CiPAORd model was more prone to EAD generation than the endo cell type. We tested generation
130 of pause-induced EADs (that are implicated as triggers of TdP (Yan et al., 2001; Liu and Laurita, 2005;
131 Viswanathan and Rudy, 1999)) in the M cell type as in our previous study (Parikh et al., 2017). Briefly,
132 the cell was stimulated 200 times at a constant cycle length. After 200 stimuli, an additional stimulus was
133 applied following a pause equal to the basic cycle length. In the endo cells, pause-induced EADs occurred
134 rarely, and we examined drug-induced EAD risk in presence of an added perturbation by reducing the
135 maximum conductance of hERG channel current (IKr) as in (Dutta et al., 2017). The cell was stimulated
136 for 200 beats with additional block of maximum conductance of IKr by 85%. The 85% block was selected
137 since almost half of the population of virtual drugs (across the entire parametric space observed) resulted
138 in EAD development in the model simulations.

139 Global sensitivity analysis

140 GSA was performed using a variance-based sensitivity method (Saltelli et al., 2008; Sobol', 2001), and
141 Monte Carlo filtering Hornberger and Spear (1981); Saltelli et al. (2008). The supplemental material also
142 reports analysis using Morris methods for comparison.

143 Variance-based global sensitivity analysis

144 Sobol sensitivity analysis method (Sobol', 2001) is a model-independent GSA method that is based on
 145 variance decomposition. It relies on an all-at-time (AAT) sampling strategy where output variations are
 146 induced by varying all the input factors simultaneously. Let a derived-metric Y from a computational
 147 model be represented by a function f of the input parameters,

$$Y = f(\mathbf{X}) = f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k), \quad (3)$$

148 where $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, X_2 \dots X_k\}$ is the input parameter set. The function can then be decomposed into a sum
 149 of elementary functions of increasing dimensions,

$$Y = f_0 + \sum_i f_i(X_i) + \sum_i \sum_{j>i} f_{ij}(X_i, X_j) + \dots + f_{12\dots k}(X_1, \dots, X_k). \quad (4)$$

150 The input parameters are assumed to be random variables that are uncorrelated and mutually independent.
 151 The functional decomposition can be translated into a variance decomposition. This allows to quantify the
 152 variance contribution to the total output of individual parameters and the parameter interactions,

$$V(Y) = \sum_i V_i + \sum_i \sum_{j>i} V_{ij} + \dots + V_{123\dots k}, \quad (5)$$

153 where $V_i = V_{X_i}[E_{X_{\sim i}}(Y|X_i)]$ is the first-order effect for a given model input X_i , $V_{ij} =$
 154 $V_{X_i, X_j}[E_{X_{\sim ij}}(Y|X_i, X_j)] - V_{X_i}[E_{X_{\sim i}}(Y|X_i)] - V_{X_j}[E_{X_{\sim j}}(Y|X_j)]$ and so on are the higher-order effects
 155 due to interactions of model inputs. Here, E_{X_i} , V_{X_i} are expectation and variance taken over X_i ; $X_{\sim i}$
 156 denotes all factors but X_i . The Sobol sensitivity indices are obtained as the ratio of partial variance to the
 157 total output variance,

$$S1_i = \frac{V_i}{V(Y)}, \quad S2_{ij} = \frac{V_{ij}}{V(Y)} \dots \quad (6)$$

The number of sensitivity indices in (6) grow exponentially with k and typically only sensitivity indices of
 up to order two ($S1_i$ and $S2_i$) and the total-effect indices (ST_i) are estimated (Iooss and Lemaître, 2014).
 The total-effect index

$$ST_i = \frac{E_{X_{\sim i}}[V_{X_i}(Y|X_{\sim i})]}{V(Y)} = 1 - \frac{V_{X_{\sim i}}[E_{X_i}(Y|X_{\sim i})]}{V(Y)} \quad (7)$$

158 measures the impact of main effect of X_i and all its higher-order interaction effects with the other parameters
 159 (Homma and Saltelli, 1996). The Python SALib package was employed to perform the variance-based
 160 sensitivity analysis (Herman and Usher, 2017). The calculations of $S1_i$, ST_i and $S2_{ij}$ require $n \times (2k + 2)$
 161 model evaluations using Saltelli's sampling scheme (Saltelli, 2002) where n is the sample size and k is the
 162 number of input parameters. In this study, we considered $n = 1000$ unless otherwise specified, resulting in
 163 22000 Monte Carlo samples (virtual drugs) for $k = 10$.

164 Multivariate linear regression has been used in the past (Sobie, 2009) to identify sensitivity of outputs
 165 from cardiac cell models to changes in input parameters. To illustrate the differences between linear

166 regression¹ and variance-based sensitivity analysis, in the Figure 1, we provide few examples highlighting
167 the differences between the variance based sensitivity measures and sensitivity coefficients from the linear
168 regression. For a hypothetical output feature (*Feature1* in Figure 1 A) that can be perfectly fitted by a linear
169 regression of model input parameters ($Feature1 = 1.5P_1 + P_2 + 5$) the sensitivity coefficients obtained
170 using the two methods are identical (Figure 1). In contrast, the sensitivity estimates are inaccurate for the
171 model features that present non-linear input-output relationship when using the linear regression methods,
172 and the variance-based analysis provides a proper estimate under this situation. The metrics $S1$ captures
173 the contribution of the first order as well as all higher order terms of individual input. For the *Feature2*
174 in the Figure 1 the $S1$ terms capture the contribution of the P_1 and P_1^2 terms. The metric $S2$ captures all
175 the second order interaction terms (i.e., P_1P_2). The variance in the hypothetical *Feature3* in the Figure 1
176 depends on interaction between $P1$ and $P2$ parameters, which is captured by the $S2$ index, and also in the
177 total sensitivity index ST , which includes all higher-order interaction terms, including $S2$. The $S2$ index
178 of 0.38 indicates a contribution of 38% in the variance of *Feature3* from the second-order interaction
179 term (Figure 1 B). Hence, the variance based sensitivity analysis provides a method, which allowed us
180 to estimate the contributions of parameter interactions and non-linear effects on regulation of the output
181 features.

182 Monte Carlo filtering

183 Monte Carlo filtering (MCF) is used generally in factor-mapping tasks to identify key input parameters
184 responsible for driving model outputs within or outside predefined target regions (refer to (Saltelli et al.,
185 2008) for a detailed methodology). A brief overview of the MCF technique in the context of EAD sensitivity
186 analysis of the CiPAORd model is presented here. Model simulations were carried out for n Monte Carlo
187 samples (virtual drugs) generated for the Sobol sensitivity analysis in presence of additional perturbations
188 (see section EAD protocols). Each input parameter X_i of the Monte Carlo input sample set with size n is
189 categorized into the “Behavioral” subset ($X_i|EAD-$) and the “Non-behavioral” ($X_i|EAD+$) with sizes n_1
190 and $n_2 = n - n_1$, respectively, based on the absence and presence of EADs in simulated output. Empirical
191 cumulative density functions (CDF) $F_{n_1}(X_i|EAD-)$ and $F_{n_2}(X_i|EAD+)$ are estimated for both the
192 subsets of random input samples. The distance between the two empirical CDFs provides an estimate of
193 sensitivity of *EAD* feature to the input parameter X_i . Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample statistic test was
194 used to quantify the difference between the two CDFs. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is characterized by a
195 D-statistic and a p-value. The D-statistic is defined as (Saltelli et al., 2008)

$$d_{n_1, n_2} = \sup |F_{n_1}(X_i|EAD-) - F_{n_2}(X_i|EAD+)|. \quad (8)$$

196 The larger the D-statistic (or equivalently the smaller the p-value), the more important the input parameter
197 is in driving the behavior of the model to EAD (Saltelli et al., 2008). The sensitivity of *EADs* to different
198 input parameters has been recently analyzed using multivariate logistic regression (Morotti and Grandi,
199 2016). Unlike logistic regression that relies on underlying assumption that a hyperplane separates the
200 regions of interest, the MCF methods are valid in the more general case, where a highly non-linear or
201 discontinuous surface separates the regions of interest (see Supplemental Material for comparison of the
202 Monte Carlo filtering and logistic regression methods).

¹ Here and further in the paper, we discuss linear regressions with input features typically used in the sensitivity analysis of cell models, i.e., regressions with only linear combinations of features constructed from the input parameters.

203 Tertiary risk stratification of “CiPA drugs”

204 *In silico* simulations of blocks with the 28 “CiPA drugs” were carried out using the *in vivo* manual patch
205 clamp measurements collected on the pharmacological effects of these compounds reported in Li et al.
206 (2017, 2018). The effective therapeutic concentrations, the IC_{50} values, the Hill coefficient values, the drug
207 binding parameters, and the defined torsadogenic risk of the “CiPA drugs” are listed in the Supplemental
208 Material.

209 The “CiPA drugs” were classified based on the concentration (normalized to effective free therapeutic
210 plasma concentration (EFTPC)) necessary to induce EADs and in the CiPAORd model. The effects of
211 “CiPA drugs” were simulated using protocols described in the EAD protocols section at progressively
212 increasing drug concentrations until EADs were observed. A maximum concentration of 70xEFTPC was
213 tested for each drug. Drugs that did not result in EADs in the tested concentration range were classified
214 as low risk drugs. Drugs that instead resulted in EADs at concentrations smaller than 8xEFTPC were
215 labeled as high risk, while the remaining drugs were labeled as intermediate risk drugs. The threshold
216 of 8xEFTPC was chosen to give best fit to the data. The “CiPA drugs” were also classified based on
217 additional hERG channel perturbations that are required to induced EADs in the CiPAORd endo cell model
218 as in Dutta et al. (2017). “CiPA drugs” were simulated using protocols described in the EAD protocols
219 section at progressively increasing hERG channel perturbations (65 -100% block). Drugs that did not
220 result in EADs in the presence of additional hERG channel perturbations were classified as low risk drugs.
221 Drugs that instead led to EADs at perturbation levels smaller than or equal to 90% additional hERG block
222 were labeled as high risk, while the remaining drugs that resulted in EADs in the presence of additional
223 hERG block of >90 - 100% were labeled as intermediate risk drugs to achieve the best risk stratification.
224 The classification of the “CiPA drugs” based on the $qNet$ metric was also performed for comparison at
225 2xEFTPC concentration. The threshold values of 57 and 74, which provided the best discrimination across
226 the different risk categories were used to classify the drugs into low, intermediate and high risk groups.
227 Drugs with $qNet$ values less than 57 were classified as high risk and drugs with $qNet$ values greater than
228 74 were classified as low risk drugs.

3 RESULTS

229 Analysis of global sensitivity for $APD90$, $qNet$, $peakCa$, and EAD

230 Variance-based analysis

231 Figure 2 demonstrates distribution of one of the model-derived metrics obtained from simulation of 22000
232 virtual drugs. The $APD90$ metric values are plotted against individual input parameters to visualize the
233 influence of different input parameters on the metric. Each point on the scatter plot represents an individual
234 virtual drug. Virtual drugs with comparable block of a particular ion-channel can result in a completely
235 different output response due to differences in the effect of a virtual drug on other input parameters. The
236 latter appears on the scatter plot as the variability of $APD90$ along the Y-axis. The scatter plot (Figure 2)
237 shows a clear trend in $APD90$ with increase in the $sbIKr$ parameter. This observed trend suggests that the
238 parameter $sbIKr$ is highly influential in regulating $APD90$. The Sobol sensitivity indices quantify the
239 influence of individual parameters on the derived metrics.

240 Figure 3A shows values of the first-order Sobol sensitivity indices ($S1$) and differences between total
241 sensitivity indices (ST) and $S1$ for three output responses $APD90$, $qNet$, and $peakCa$ simulated in the
242 CiPAORd endo cell model. The Sobol sensitivity indices indicate that $APD90$ is the most sensitive to

243 *sbIKr* block, *qNet* to *sbINaL*, and *peakCa* to *bICaL*. Sobol indices quantify the contribution of the
244 input parameter to the metrics in isolation as well as in presence of interaction with other parameters.
245 The effect of *sbIKr* on *APD90* as quantified by *S1* indicates that *sbIKr* contributes to > 50% of the
246 variation observed in *APD90* across the observed input space. *qNet* was found to be most sensitive to
247 *bINaL*, *sbIKr*, *bIna*, and *bICaL* with contributions to the output variation of 30%, 26%, 17%, and
248 10%, respectively. *bICaL* had the strongest impact on the variability of *peakCa* concentrations with an *S1*
249 index of around 0.6. Among the different drug-effects evaluated via *in vitro* ion-channel screening, the
250 changes in the block of transient outward current and dynamic hERG kinetic parameters showed relatively
251 minor influence on the tested model-derived metrics.

252 The difference between the *ST* and *S1* indices in Figure 3B shows the impact of higher-order indices.
253 Small differences between *S1* and *ST* for several derived metrics such as *APD90*, *qNet*, *peakCa* suggest
254 minor influence of parameter interactions. The estimated sum, $\sum S1_i$, of the first-order Sobol indices *S1*
255 for the direct features indexed by *i* (Table 2) for different model-derived metrics are listed in Table 4. $\sum S1_i$
256 represents the contribution of all individual input parameters to the total variation of a model-derived
257 metric without considering parameter interactions. The observed values (Table 4) indicate that >78% of
258 the variance in *qNet*, *APD90*, and *peakCa* can be attributed to the individual input parameters for the
259 endo cell model. The parameter interactions explain less than 22% of the variance of these derived metrics.
260 Moreover, the *S2* sensitivity index measure does not show any significant second-order interactions. This
261 suggests that the observed small interactions effects derive from higher-order interactions terms (results
262 are not shown). The *S1* and *ST* sensitivity indices obtained for all the derived features (Table 3) across
263 different cell types are reported in the Supplemental Material. The results of the sensitivity analysis using a
264 less computationally expensive GSA method such as Morris method (elementary effects analysis) as well
265 as multivariate linear regression methods, is also reported in the Supplemental Material for comparison.
266 Unlike elementary effects, Sobol indices quantify the contribution of an input parameter to the metrics in
267 isolation as well as in the presence of interaction with other parameters.

268 Regional sensitivity analysis

269 Next we wanted to determine the most influential model parameters that enhance or reduce the
270 susceptibility to early afterdepolarizations in the CiPAORd model. To achieve this we performed Monte
271 Carlo filtering, which is referred in literature as a method of regional sensitivity analysis. For Monte Carlo
272 filtering, the target space was partitioned into realizations with either presence or absence of EADs in
273 simulated action potentials under the action of a virtual drug population ($n = 22000$). Figure 4 shows the
274 empirical CDFs for each of the 10 input parameters. The dotted and solid lines represent the estimated CDFs
275 for the behavioral $F_{n_2}(X_i|EAD+)$ and the non-behavioral $F_{n_1}(X_i|EAD-)$ subsets, respectively. The
276 behavioral and non-behavioral subsets comprised 10479 and 11521 samples. If the two CDF distributions
277 are not significantly different, then the parameter is likely unimportant, and for any value of that particular
278 parameter in the examined range, the outputs are likely to fall into either behavioral or the non-behavioral
279 subsets. For uniformly distributed inputs as in this study, the CDF of the non-influential parameters are
280 close to the identity line. The bigger the distance between the empirical CDFs for the behavioral and non-
281 behavioral subsets, the greater is the influence of the parameter to development of EADs. The figure shows
282 that the parameter *bICaL* (Figure 4A, dashed-dotted line) has the strongest influence on susceptibility of
283 the model to EADs. The parameters *sbIKr* (Figure 4B, solid line), *bIKs* (Figure 4C, dashed line), and
284 *bIK1* (Figure 4D, dashed line) have the next highest contribution to model sensitivity to EADs. The shape
285 of the CDF curve provides additional information on the model behavior. For example, the green dashed
286 line (Figure 4A) is steep at higher blocks of L-type calcium current. This indicates that the higher block of

287 L-type calcium current drives the model away from EAD generation, suggesting a protective role of L-type
288 calcium current. On the contrary, the increase in the block of *sbIKr* parameter, as expected, resulted in
289 increased development of EADs pointing towards increased proarrhythmic propensity at higher blocks of
290 hERG current.

291 Figure 5 provides estimates of the differences in the behavioral and non-behavioral empirical CDFs using
292 a Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test. The results show that the parameter *bICaL* regulating the block
293 of the L-type calcium channel current had the highest influence on EAD in models with both endo and M
294 cell types. In the M cell, the parameter *sbIKr* and *bCaL* appear to be equally important for regulation of
295 EADs in the model. In contrast, since the additional block of the hERG channel current was required to
296 trigger EAD in the endo cell type, the parameter *sbIKr* had moderate influence in regulation of EADs.
297 The parameter *bIKs* had moderate influence in both endo and M cell types. The block *bIK1* appears to
298 have higher influence in the endo cell compared to the M cell. The parameters *Ku*, *Ito* and *bINa* were the
299 least important. Monte Carlo filtering demonstrates that *sbIKr* and *bICaL* parameters contribute the most
300 to generation of EADs.

301 Classification of CiPA training/validation drugs based on EADs

302 Here, we wanted to examine how the findings from the global sensitivity analysis on the virtual drug
303 population would translate for a set of actual drugs with channel blocks covering only a relatively small
304 portion of the parametric space examined previously. Specifically, we wanted to evaluate the performance
305 of the classifiers built on the EAD feature considering only the most influential parameters as suggested by
306 global sensitivity analysis presented in the previous sections. In addition, we also compare the performance
307 of the classifiers based on EADs to TdP risk classifiers built on metrics such as *qNet*, which are thought to
308 be correlated to EADs.

309 Figure 6 shows action potential traces obtained from simulation of 4 “CiPA compounds” using two
310 different protocols for the endo cell CiPAORd model. In the first protocol we increased drug concentrations
311 from 1x - 70x EFTPC to test the EAD development under different concentrations. We observed (Figure 6
312 A) that a drug with high torsadogenic risk like Dofetilide, resulted in EADs at relatively small concentrations
313 (5x EFTPC). The intermediate risk drug Clarithromycin and low risk drugs Verapamil and Loratadine
314 are not associated EADs under all the concentrations tested (Figure 6 A). We also evaluated the EAD
315 development at a fixed drug concentration of 2x EFTPC while increasing the additional block of hERG
316 channels from 65 to 100 % (Figure 6 B). Similar to the protocol with increased drug concentration,
317 we observed that high risk drug Dofetilide is associated with EADs in the presence of relatively small
318 additional perturbations of hERG current (84.5% block) compared to low and intermediate risk drugs.
319 However, unlike the protocol with increased drug concentrations, where the compounds Clarithromycin and
320 Loratadine are not associated with EADs at all tested concentration, presence of additional perturbations of
321 hERG block around 94% resulted in generation of EADs for both these drugs.

322 Using these two protocols we examined the classification of CiPA compounds based on the drug
323 concentration (normalized to EFTPC) necessary to induce EADs in the CiPAORd model, defined here
324 as $Th_{EAD,conc}$ and also based on the amount of additional hERG perturbation required to induce EAD
325 in the model, denoted here as $Th_{EAD,hERG}$. Since the Monte Carlo filtering results point to *sbIKr* and
326 *bICaL* being the most critical parameters regulating EAD development, only drug-induced changes of
327 these two parameters were taken into consideration. We also compared the obtained thresholds for EADs to
328 the thresholds considering drug-induced changes of all the seven ion channel currents measured from the
329 *in vitro* assays and characterized by the 9 parameters reported in Table 2. The results are summarized in the

330 Table 5. Our EAD analysis show that the drugs in the high-risk category have consistently a threshold value
331 of less than 7 and 90 for $Th_{EAD,conc}$ and $Th_{EAD,hERG}$, even for the threshold obtained when considering
332 only the drug effects on two parameters, static block of hERG channel current $sbIKr$ and the block of
333 L-type calcium channel current $bICaL$. Addition of dynamic hERG channel current parameters as well as
334 other input parameters resulted in no significant changes in the observed thresholds for EAD generation. A
335 high risk drug Disopyramide from the CiPA validation dataset did not induce EAD in the model under
336 all tested conditions. The intermediate risk drugs Cisapride and Ondansetron resulted in EADs in the
337 model at a threshold of less than 7 similar to the drugs in high risk category under all tested conditions.
338 Similarly, Ranolazine and Metoprolol drugs that are defined as low risk under the CiPA initiative had a
339 threshold value of less than 7 and 90 for $Th_{EAD,conc}$ and $Th_{EAD,hERG}$, respectively, for all the conditions
340 tested. The low-risk drugs Diltiazem, Mexiletine, Verapamil, Loratadine, Nifedipine, and Nitrendipine
341 did not produce EADs in the model under all the tested conditions for the protocol with increase in drug
342 concentrations. Similar results were observed for the additional hERG perturbation protocol except for the
343 drugs Loratadine and Mexiletine. Chlorpromazine resulted in EADs at relatively high threshold compared
344 to the high risk drugs with a threshold of > 14 and > 91 for $Th_{EAD,conc}$ and $Th_{EAD,hERG}$, respectively,
345 under all conditions. Low risk drug Tamoxifen consistently resulted in EADs in the model at thresholds
346 values similar to intermediate risk drugs. Terfenadine, Pimozide, and Clozapine were the only few drugs
347 with significant changes in the observed threshold and switching to a different risk category when the
348 drug-induced changes of parameters other than $sbIKr$ and $bICaL$ were ignored for the protocol with
349 increased drug concentration. Similarly, few drugs like Droperidol, Pimozide, Mexiletine and Terfenadine
350 switched risk category when the drug-induced changes of parameters other than $sbIKr$ and $bICaL$ were
351 not considered for the protocol with additional hERG perturbation.

352 Although EADs are thought to be cellular precursors of TdP, the classifier based on EADs alone ranks
353 correctly only 17-20 drugs, thus performing worse than $qNet$. In the table (Table 5) we also report the
354 estimated $qNet$ values for the 28 drugs at 4x EFTPC drug concentrations. We observe the drugs like
355 Ranolazine, Cisapride, Ondansetron, and Domperidone, which are not correctly classified by either of the
356 EAD based classifiers, are correctly classified by $qNet$.

4 DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

357 Uncertainties in *in vitro* measurements of drug-induced effects on ionic currents present an important
358 concern in evaluating the torsadogenic risk of compounds by interrogating *in silico* biophysical models.
359 Discrepancies in estimates for model parameters based on available *in vitro* assay data have been recently
360 highlighted in uncertainty quantification studies (Johnstone et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2017). High
361 uncertainty in model parameters leads to low confidence in model predicted risk, and thus, not surprisingly,
362 risk stratification of the CiPA training drugs proved to be unreliable especially at high drug concentrations
363 (Chang et al., 2017), where model parameter estimates are inherently less accurate. However, it is important
364 to emphasize that the relative contributions of drug-induced modulation of ion-channels on output features
365 differ significantly. Uncertainties in model input parameters that are highly influential (e.g., as revealed by
366 sensitivity analysis) result, therefore, in lower confidence in the predicted risk, while errors in estimating
367 less influential model parameters are better tolerated by risk measures (Loucks et al., 2017; Mirams et al.,
368 2016). In this paper, we present a study that applies GSA within the context of *in silico* prediction of
369 pharmacological toxicity. The target of GSA was the latest version of the *in silico* model of an isolated

370 cardiac cell (Dutta et al., 2017), CiPAORd, which was developed under the CiPA initiative and incorporates
371 dynamic hERG-drug interactions (Li et al., 2017). Our analysis explored the effects of a large population
372 of virtual drugs on the seven major cardiac ion-channel currents thought to be important in regulation of
373 TdP. GSA provided a systematic understanding of the model input-output relationships and allowed for the
374 identification of the most influential parameters that regulate model-derived features used for proarrhythmic
375 risk classification. The knowledge gained from GSA could help further improve the model structure and
376 increase reliability of model-predicted risk.

377 **Sensitivity analysis used for cardiac models**

378 Different methods and tools, each with their own advantages and disadvantages, allow for the analysis of
379 the sensitivity of complex systems to the input parameters (e.g., refer to (Saltelli et al., 2008; Iooss and
380 Lemaître, 2014; Pianosi et al., 2016) for thorough reviews on the subject). Simple sensitivity analyses
381 performed by varying one parameter at a time have been carried out to assess the impact of changes in
382 ionic currents on cardiac cellular electrophysiology (Romero et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2014). This type of
383 sensitivity analysis, although computationally inexpensive, only quantifies the impact on model outputs of
384 changes in a single input parameter relative to the point estimates chosen for the rest of the parameters
385 that are held constant. On the contrary, GSA quantifies the effects of global variations over the entire
386 input parameter space. Multivariate linear regression models that rely on AAT sampling approaches have
387 been used in the past on the cardiac cellular models (Sobie, 2009) to identify how changes in model
388 parameters affect different outputs of the model, to address different physiological questions, to improve
389 model structure, and to suggest novel experiments (Cummins et al., 2014; Sarkar and Sobie, 2010; Britton
390 et al., 2013; Sadrieh et al., 2013; Devenyi et al., 2017; Devenyi and Sobie, 2016; Lee et al., 2013). Recently,
391 application of multivariate logistic regression has been reported to relate perturbations in model parameters
392 to the presence/absence of EADs (Morotti and Grandi, 2016). The multivariate linear regression is suitable
393 and accurate for models with almost linear input-output relationship. Similarly, the logistic regression
394 applied to determine EAD sensitivity is accurate if a surface separating EAD and non-EAD regions is close
395 to a hyperplane.

396 **Critical inputs regulating *APD90*, *qNet*, *peakCa***

397 In this study we applied a more general form of GSA that is suitable even in presence of non-linear input-
398 output relationships (Saltelli et al., 2008). In particular we used the Sobol variance-based sensitivity method
399 (Saltelli et al., 2008; Sobol', 2001) to rank cardiac ion-channel currents based on their relative contributions
400 to variability in the model-derived features. We also performed sensitivity analysis to determine the cardiac
401 ion-channels that regulate EAD generation in the CiPAORd models using Monte Carlo filtering methods
402 Hornberger and Spear (1981); Saltelli et al. (2008). Our systematic sensitivity analysis identified critical
403 input parameters for the variability of the different model-derived features used for TdP risk assessment (see
404 Figure 3 and data in the Supplemental Material). More specifically, we observed that the recently proposed
405 *qNet* metric is most sensitive to modulations in sodium currents and to the *sbIKr* parameter. *sbIKr*,
406 *bIK1* and *bICaL* were found to be the most influential parameters regulating *APD90* (Figure 3). In the
407 past, *APD90* has also been shown, by varying one parameter at a time in the original ORd model (O'Hara
408 et al., 2011), to be most sensitive to block of hERG current. Furthermore, the QT interval measured in 3D
409 human-heart simulations (Sahli Costabal et al., 2019) with original ORd model (O'Hara et al., 2011) at the
410 cellular level exhibits similar sensitivity profile as *APD90*. This is in agreement with previous observations
411 of high correlation between *APD90* and QT interval in the cardiac model simulations (Beattie et al., 2013).

412 In our study, features derived from the calcium transient such as *peakCa* were found, as expected, to be
413 most sensitive to the *bICaL* parameter.

414 In spite of the observed differences in the sensitivity profiles, different derived metrics have been reported
415 to perform well on certain *in vitro* datasets. *APD90* (Mirams et al., 2011), a metric based on *APD50*
416 and *diastolicCa* (Lancaster and Sobie, 2016), and a metric based on EADs (Christophe, 2013) have been
417 shown to provide good risk discrimination of drugs considering *in vitro* measurements reported in (Mirams
418 et al., 2011). We have shown previously that different derived features extracted from the original ORd
419 model (O'Hara et al., 2011) show similar performance in TdP risk discrimination (Parikh et al., 2017)
420 when tested on a combination of several datasets. The similarity in performance of different metrics might
421 be due to the presence of estimates of drug effects on only three channel currents (i.e., fast sodium current,
422 L-type calcium channel current, and hERG current) in the majority of the datasets, the small size of the
423 datasets, and the differences in structure of the myocyte models used for obtaining the derived feature.
424 Different derived metrics, such as *APD50*, *APD90*, *peakCa*, and *CaD90* have been shown to provide
425 the best classification when varying the computational model of interest (Mirams et al., 2011).

426 Several cardiac ion-channel/parameters that are thought to be important for improved drug-induced TdP
427 risk assessments and measured experimentally via *in vitro* ion-channel screening (Crumb et al., 2016)
428 showed really minor influence in regulation of the model-derived features. For example, the block of
429 transient outward current and the dynamic hERG block parameters showed relatively minor influence on
430 majority of the tested metrics. Specifically *qNet* metrics appeared to be insensitive to the *bIK1*, *bto* and
431 *Ku* parameters (Figure 3 and the Supplemental Material).

432 GSA results are highly dependent on explored parametric space. Here, we evaluate the sensitivity over
433 the 10-D input space comprising parameters of seven major cardiac channel currents that are thought to
434 play an important role in determining the risk of TdP. However, the actual drugs might lie within a very
435 small subspace of the explored hyperspace. Visualization of the blocks of different ion channel currents
436 for the 28 CiPA drugs (Figure 7) reveals that majority of the drugs do not result in block of *IK1*, *INa*,
437 and *IKs* currents. Figure 7 demonstrates that accurate classification of the Ranolazine drug to low risk
438 category requires a feature that is at least moderately sensitive to variations in block of late sodium current,
439 since the drug appears to be a pure hERG and sodium channel blocker. Our GSA results (Figure 3) point to
440 *qNet* as a candidate, as it is the only feature among the tested derived features that is highly sensitive to
441 block of late sodium current and block of hERG. *qNet* has been observed to outperform other standard
442 derived features on the 28 CiPA drugs (Dutta et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018, 2017).

443 EAD sensitivity analysis

444 The EAD sensitivity analysis (Figure 4 and 5) indicates that the generation of EADs, which are thought
445 to be cellular precursors of TdP genesis (Yan et al., 2001), are most sensitive to variations in block of
446 *ICaL* and to the static component of the hERG channel current in the CiPAORd model. Block of hERG
447 channels is well established to be critical for generation of EADs and eventually Torsades de Pointes
448 (Redfern et al., 2003) and has been shown to be the primary current responsible for generation of EADs
449 in the simulations using original ORd model (Christophe, 2013). The role of L-type calcium channel
450 currents in regulation of EADs have been also highlighted across different studies (January and Riddle,
451 1989; Zeng and Rudy, 1995; Weiss et al., 2010). Our results show that variations in blocks of the *IKs*
452 and *IK1* currents have a moderate influence on the genesis of EADs in the CiPAORd model. Drug effects
453 on the *Ito*, *INa* have the least influence on EAD generation (Figure 5 and 4). The recently introduced
454 dynamic-hERG block parameters V_{half} and *Ku* (Li et al., 2017), which are measured using challenging

455 experimental protocols (Milnes et al., 2010; Veroli et al., 2014), show minor influence on EAD genesis
456 (Table 5) when compared to other tested inputs. These parameters also exhibit relatively small contribution
457 to the variance of all the tested derived metrics compared to other influential input parameters (Figure
458 3, and data in the Supplemental Material). However, it should be noted that in cases where the majority
459 of the primary regulating parameters are similar between drugs, accounting for changes in the modestly
460 influential parameters can allow for improved predictions. On classifying CiPA drugs based on EADs, we
461 observed that prediction improves by correctly classifying 3 more drugs when accounting for drug-induced
462 effects of other parameters in addition to the *sbIKr* and *bICaL* parameters (Table 5). However, our results
463 also point towards the important consideration that errors in measuring the most influential parameters
464 regulating a particular metric have a bigger impact on the predicted classification compared to neglecting
465 some of the less influential parameters. GSA allows us to determine and rank most of the critical model
466 components.

467 **Mechanistic insight from model-derived metrics**

468 Simple statistical classifiers based on direct feature from our group and others have been shown previously
469 to provide equivalent performance as biophysically detailed models for TdP (Mistry, 2018; Kramer et al.,
470 2013; Mistry et al., 2015; Parikh et al., 2017). Our sensitivity analysis results also highlight strong linearity
471 between the inputs and different model-derived metrics (such as *qNet*, *APD90*, etc.) that are proposed
472 for TdP risk stratification (Table 4). The metric linearity suggests that the model-derived metrics can be
473 well captured as a linear combination of the set of direct features and provides a plausible explanation
474 for equivalent performance of the simple statistical methods. Almost linear input-output relationship in
475 different cardiac models has also been observed in several previous studies (Sobie, 2009; Sarkar and Sobie,
476 2010). However, one of the most appealing feature for the biophysical models is that of interpretability,
477 i.e. the model-derived features attempt to capture the aspects of the underlying physiological phenomena
478 such as APD prolongation or increase in calcium levels to provide a mechanism-based classifier. Being
479 biophysically motivated, classifiers built on model-derived features are thought to allow generalizable
480 assessments also in cases where the training datasets are small and hence the effects on targets of interest
481 might need to be extrapolated. A promising metric *qNet*, proposed by the modeling team at FDA (Dutta
482 et al., 2017), has recently been shown to provide excellent classification of drugs in the CiPA training
483 and validation data, a result thought to be linked to EAD generation (Dutta et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018).
484 However, our GSA results show that none of the tested derived features demonstrating identical sensitivity
485 profile to EAD (Figure 3, 5 and the Supplemental material). The *qNet* metric was observed to be sensitive
486 to variations in block of sodium currents and block of *sbIKr* for the endo cell model. In contrast, the
487 *bICaL* and *sbIKr* parameters are found to be the most influential for EADs. Moreover, we observed that
488 the categorization of CiPA drugs based on analysis of EADs was not as predictive as model-derived metric
489 such as *qNet* (Table 5). We found that drugs like Ranolazine, Cisapride, Ondansetron, and Domperidone,
490 which were not correctly classified by either of the EAD based classifiers, were correctly classified by *qNet*.
491 Hence, the previously reported correlation between *qNet* and EAD generation (Dutta et al., 2017) seems not
492 to be well justified, and our results highlight the need of further research to better understand the mechanistic
493 underpinning of the success of this promising metric. One possible speculation for improved predictive
494 power of *qNet* for drugs like Ranolazine might be the reduced transmural dispersion of repolarization
495 (Shimizu and Antzelevitch, 1998), which is affected by the block of the late sodium current. There can
496 be several other possible explanations for poor performance of EAD metric compared to *qNet*, such as
497 inaccurate reproduction of EADs in the current model, small size of the tested datasets, biases in the target,
498 and the need to test EADs on coupled cells/tissue models.

499 **Summary**

500 The proarrhythmic risk assessment based on simulated drug responses in isolated cell model (Mirams
501 et al., 2011; Christophe, 2013, 2015; Lancaster and Sobie, 2016; Li et al., 2017; Dutta et al., 2017; Passini
502 et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018; Parikh et al., 2017), tissue models (Kubo et al., 2017; Trenor et al., 2013)
503 or organ level computational models (Okada et al., 2015; Costabal et al., 2018; Sahli Costabal et al.,
504 2019) provide important physiological and mechanistic insights. Moreover, *in silico* models serve as
505 an excellent tool for evaluation of drug safety in diseased conditions (Trenor et al., 2013; Kubo et al.,
506 2017). However, the uncertainties in pharmacological data used for model-driven predictions and in
507 the intrinsic structures of biophysical models used for cardiotoxic risk predictions present fundamental
508 challenges. In this study, we showed potential application of sensitivity analysis for improved model-based
509 proarrhythmic risk predictions. The critical model inputs regulating the model-derived metrics such as
510 *APD90* and *qNet* proposed for evaluation of proarrhythmic risk were identified. The analysis highlighted
511 the need for better mechanistic understanding of promising metrics such as *qNet* and provided possible
512 explanation for equivalent performance of the simple statistical based-classifiers and complex model-driven
513 risk predictions. In conclusion, the sensitivity analysis method in addition with uncertainty quantification
514 approaches can form an important component of the model-based cardiotoxic risk prediction pipeline.
515 An improved pipeline would ultimately allow for refinement of existing biophysical models to achieve
516 increased confidence in the model-driven proarrhythmic risk predictions.

5 TABLES

Table 1. Previously proposed derived features.

Feature	<i>In silico</i> model	# compounds tested	Reference
APD_{90}	Ventricular myocyte models of rabbit, rat and human	31	Mirams et al. (2011)
$\frac{C_{drug,EAD}}{EFTFC}$	Human ventricular myocyte model	31 from Mirams et al. (2011)	Christophe (2013)
TDR	Human ventricular myocyte model	55 from Kramer et al. (2013)	Christophe (2015)
$\frac{C_{Drug,Arrhythmia}}{EFTFC}$	3D FEM model of human heart	12	Okada et al. (2015)
$APD_{50} \& DiastolicCa^{2+}$	Human ventricular myocyte model	86 from Mirams et al. (2011); Kramer et al. (2013)	Lancaster and Sobie (2016)
$cgInward$	Human ventricular myocyte model	12	Li et al. (2017)
$TdP_{population,score}$	Human ventricular myocyte model	62 (55 from Kramer et al. (2013))	Passini et al. (2017)
$qNet$	Human ventricular myocyte model	12	Dutta et al. (2017)

$C_{drug,EAD}$ - concentration of the drug that produces EAD,

$C_{drug,Arrhythmia}$ - concentration of the drug that produces arrhythmia in the model,

TDR - Transmural dispersion,

$cgInward$ - metric that that quantifies the change in the amount of charge carried by INaL and ICaL,

APD_{90} - Action potential duration at 90% amplitude,

APD_{50} - Action potential duration at 50% amplitude,

$DiastolicCa^{2+}$ - Diastolic calcium concentration, and

$TdP_{population,score}$ - The fraction of models developing repolarization abnormalities(RA)

multiplied by a factor inversely related to the drug concentration at which those RA occur

Table 2. Ranges of input parameters

Parameter	endo cell		M cell		Description
	Min	Max	Min	Max	
$bINa, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of fast sodium current
$bINaL, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of late sodium current
$bIto, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of transient outward current
$bIKs, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of slowly activating delayed rectifier potassium current
$bICaL, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of L-type calcium channel current
$bIK1, \%$	0	90	0	90	percent block of inward rectifier potassium current
$sbIKr$	0	8	0	1.5	static component of the hERG channel current
V_{half}, mV	-200	-1	-200	-1	degree of drug trapping for the hERG channel
Ku, ms^{-1}	0	0.1	0	0.1	unbinding reaction rate for the hERG channel
BCL, ms	500	2000	500	2000	Basic cycle length for the simulations

Table 3. Derived features extracted from the CiPAORd model

Derived Feature	Description
$qNet$	Net electronic charge carried by $IKr, INaL, ICaL, IKs, IK1, Ito$ currents
APD_{90}	Action potential duration at 90% repolarization
APD_{50}	Action potential duration at 50% repolarization
$peakVm$	Peak voltage
$diastolicCa$	Diastolic calcium level
$peakCa$	Peak value of intracellular calcium
$CaTD_{50}$	Calcium transient duration at 50% return to baseline
$CaTD_{90}$	Calcium transient duration at 90% return to baseline

Table 4. Total contribution of the main effects on the variance of derived metrics estimated by the sum of the Sobol S1 index

	$qNet$	APD_{90}	$peakCa$
$\sum S1_i$	0.92	0.84	0.78

Table 5. Thresholds of EAD (xEFTPC and hERG channel perturbation) and $qNet$ for CiPA training (12 drugs) and validation (16 drugs) datasets

Drug	$Th_{EAD,conc}$				$Th_{EAD,hERG}$		$qNet$	TdP risk
	endo cell		M cell		endo cell		endo cell	
	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	
Quinidine	1	1	1	1	65.0	74.0	12.56	High
Ibutilide	1	1	1	1	65.0	65.0	6.71	High
Azimilide	2	4	3	4	83.0	87.5	49.90	High
Bepridil	3	2	3	2	84.5	79.0	45.64	High
Dofetilide	3	3	6	4	84.5	86.0	57.12	High
Vandetanib	3	>70	3	4	90.0	90.0	49.40	High
Sotalol	4	5	5	6	87.5	88.5	57.32	High
Ranolazine	4	3	5	3	89.0	83.0	73.92	Low
Cisapride	5	2	7	3	87.5	83.0	61.43	Medium
Metoprolol	6	5	6	6	90	89.0	58.02	Low
Ondansetron	6	7	7	7	89.5	90.0	63.13	Medium
Astemizole	9	9	22	12	91.0	91.5	65.36	Medium
Droperidol	10	7	25	10	90.5	89.5	62.48	Medium
Chlorpromazine	14	35	21	27	91.5	92.5	66.42	Medium
Terfenadine	17	4	15	4	90.5	87.5	60.49	Medium
Tamoxifen	17	31	20	27	93.5	93.5	69.73	Low
Nitrendipine	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	100	77.53	Low
Pimozide	>70	4	20	3	92.5	88.0	62.6	Medium
Clozapine	>70	>70	23	>70	93.0	93.0	68.17	Medium
Risperidone	>70	>70	>70	>70	94.0	93.5	70.14	Medium
Clarithromycin	>70	>70	>70	>70	94.5	94.5	69.34	Medium
Diltiazem	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	100.0	88.59	Low
Mexiletine	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	96.5	88.97	Low
Verapamil	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	100.0	73.99	Low
Disopyramide	>70	>70	>70	>70	95.5	95.5	72.03	High
Loratadine	>70	>70	>70	>70	94.0	94.0	70.30	Low
Domperidone	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	100.0	58.45	Medium
Nifedipine	>70	>70	>70	>70	100	100.0	84.97	Low

TdP risk classification summary

Category	No. correctly classified drugs				No. correctly classified		No. correctly classified	Total number of Drugs
	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2		
High	7 (4, 3)	6 (4, 2)	7 (4, 3)	7 (4, 3)	7 (4, 3)	7 (4, 3)	7 (4, 3)	8 (4, 4)
Intermediate	4 (2, 2)	2 (1, 1)	6 (2, 4)	3 (1, 2)	8 (2, 6)	5 (1, 4)	11 (4, 7)	11 (4, 7)
Low	6 (3, 3)	6 (3, 3)	6 (3, 3)	6 (3, 3)	5 (3, 2)	4 (2, 2)	6 (4, 2)	9 (4, 5)
Total	17 (9, 8)	14 (8, 6)	19 (9, 10)	16 (8, 8)	20 (9, 11)	16 (7, 9)	24 (12, 12)	28 (12, 16)

^{C1} Drug-induced modulation of 9 parameters ($sbIKr$, Ku , V_{half} , $bINa$, $bINaL$, $bICaL$, $bIKs$, $bIK1$ and $bIto$) is considered.

^{C2} Only drug-induced changes in $sbIKr$ and $bICaL$ is considered ($V_{half} = -100$, $Ku = 0.05$).

Note Numbers in parentheses are number of drug from training and validation set.

Note BCL fixed to 2000 for endo cell type and 700 for M cell type model under all tested conditions.

6 FIGURES

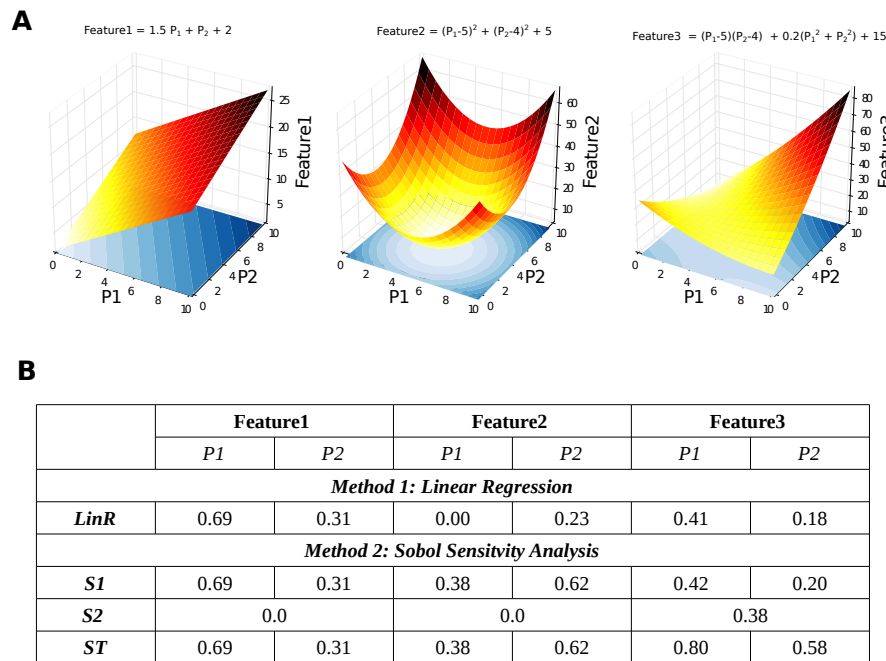


Figure 1. Example highlighting the difference between the multivariate linear regression and variance-based sensitivity methods. **A:** Schematic of variation in three synthetic features due to variation in two input parameters. **B:** Sensitivity estimates of the three synthetic features from **A** using multivariate linear regression and variance-based sensitivity methods.

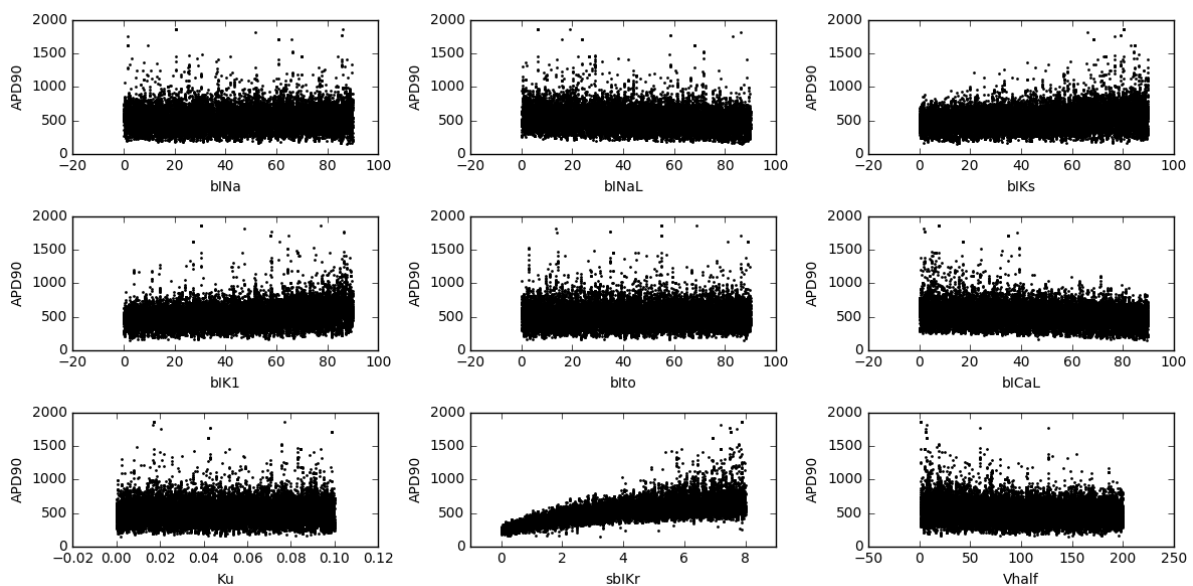


Figure 2. Scatter plot of APD_{90} versus different input parameters (direct features) for the 22000 simulated virtual drugs (endo cell model).

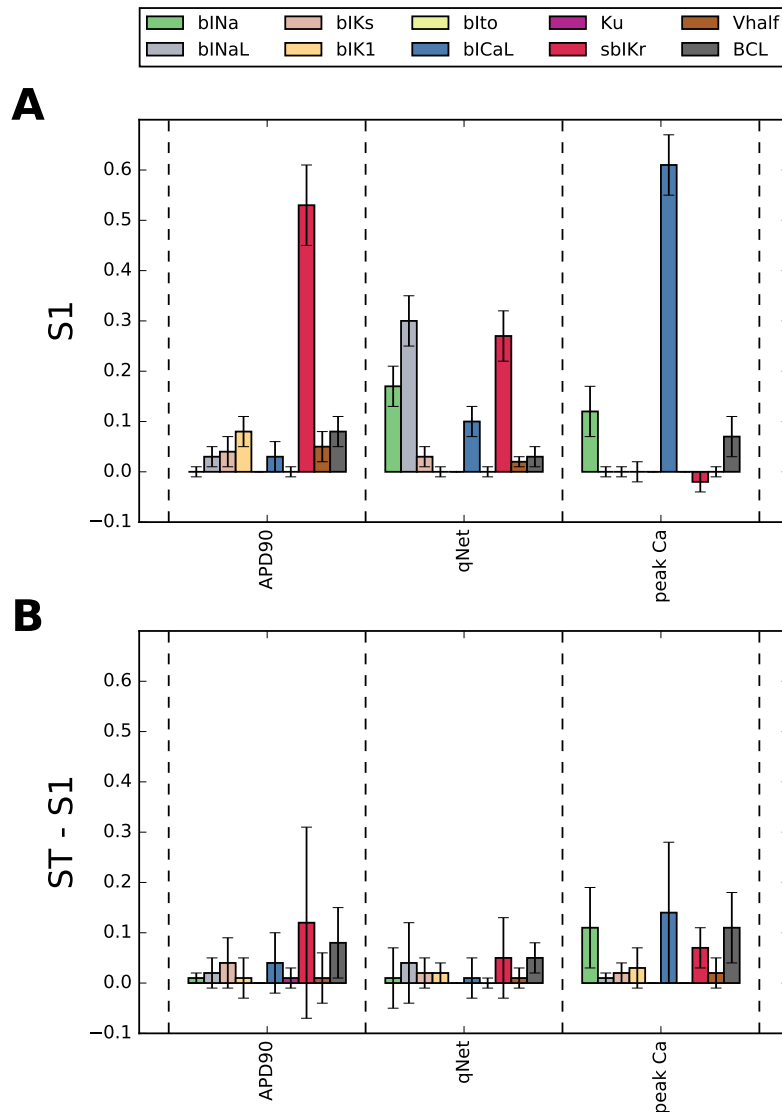


Figure 3. Assessment of sensitivity to blocks of different cardiac ion-channels, drug-binding parameters and *BCL* for *APD90*, *qNet*, and *peakCa* output responses in the CiPAORd endo cell model using the Sobol sensitivity indices. **A:** First-order sensitivity Sobol index, *S1*. **B:** Total sensitivity Sobol index, *ST*. The algorithm to calculate Sobol indices can produce negative values that could be eliminated by increasing sampling size.

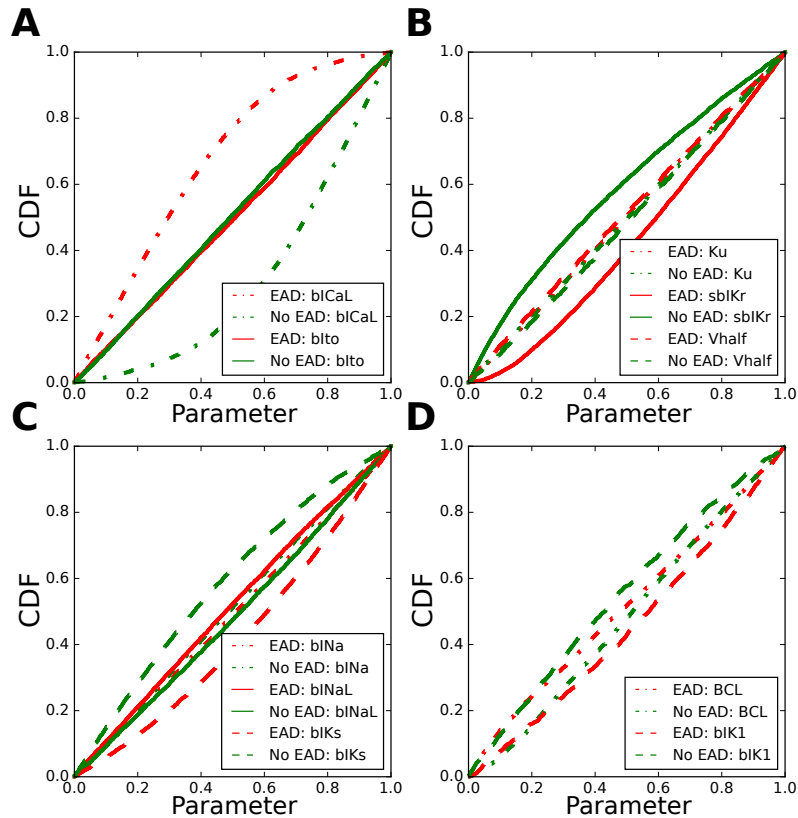


Figure 4. Ranking the most influential model parameters regulating EAD generation in the CiPAORD endo cell model using Monte Carlo filtering analysis. Empirical CDF for each of the 10 input parameters conditional to the presence or absence of EADs: **A:** *bIto*, *bICaL*; **B:** *Ku*, *sbIKr*, *Vhalf* **C:** *bINa*, *bINaL*, *bIKs*; and **D:** *bIK1* and *BCL*.

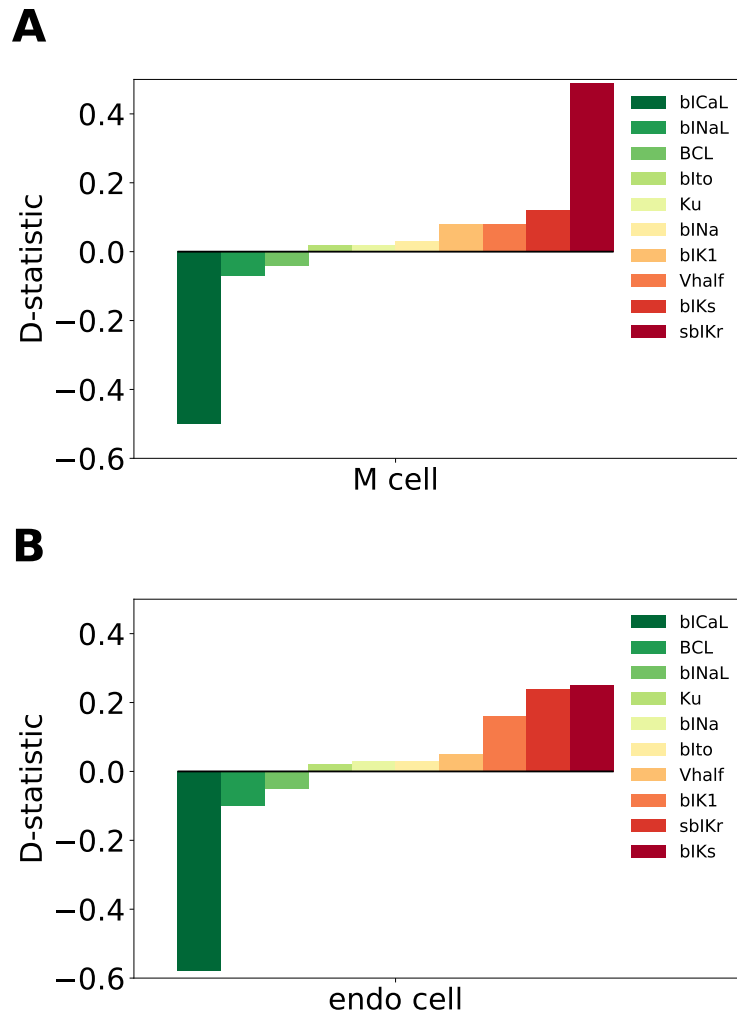


Figure 5. Ranking the most influential model parameters regulating EAD generation in the CiPAORd **A:** M cell and **B:** endo cell model using Monte Carlo filtering analysis. The D-statistic is obtained using Monte Carlo filtering analysis. The D-statistic obtained for the parameters with CDFs for the behavioral $F_{n_2}(X_i|EAD+)$ above unity line is assigned negative signs to easily visualize if the inputs enhance or reduce the susceptibility of EADs .

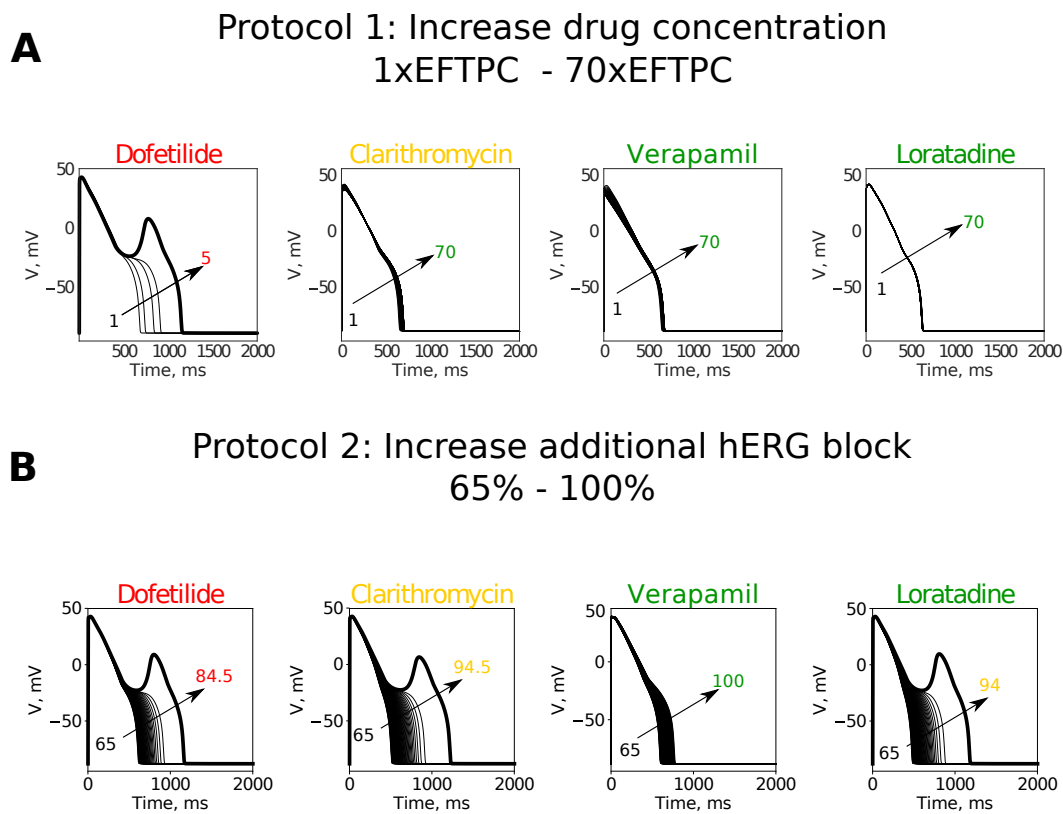


Figure 6. Examples of action potential transients observed at **A:** different drug concentrations at fixed hERG block of 85% and **B:** with increase of additional block of hERG channel currents at a fixed drug concentration of 2xEFTPC.

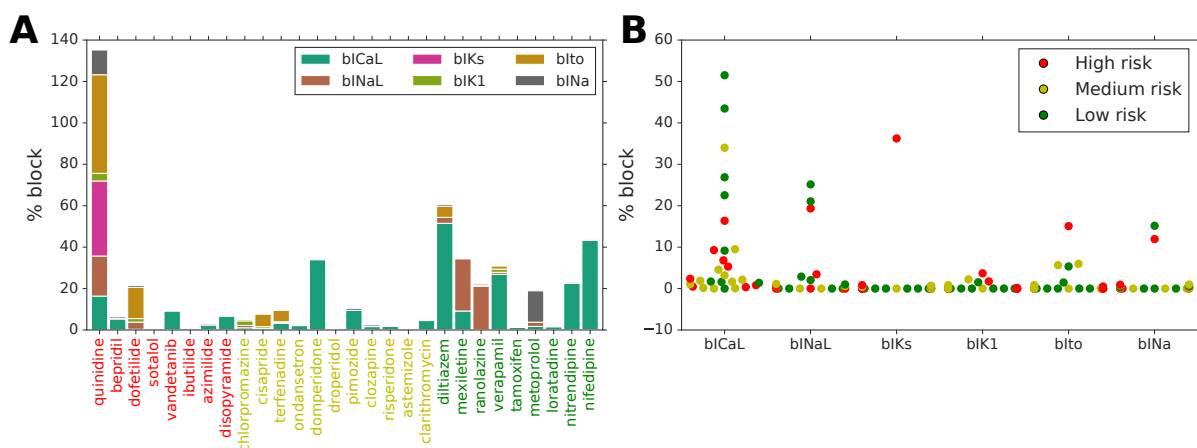


Figure 7. Drug-induced block of non-hERG ion channels for 28 CiPA compounds at their EFTPC based on the measurements from the *in vitro* assay Crumb et al. (2016); Li et al. (2018). **A:** Stacked bar chart of six ion channel current block values for each of the 28 drugs. **B:** A swarm plot of block values of six ion channel currents categorized into high, medium, and low risk groups.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

517 JP designed the study, performed simulations, analyzed results and wrote the manuscript. PD designed the
518 study, analyzed the results and wrote the manuscript. JK wrote the manuscript and supervised the project.
519 VG designed the study, analyzed the results, wrote the manuscript and supervised the project. All authors
520 agree to be accountable for the content of the work.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

521 All authors are employees of IBM Research. The authors declare that the research was conducted in the
522 absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of
523 interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

524 The datasets analyzed for this study can be found in the supplemental material.

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