

Contemporary stroke prevention strategies in 11 096 European patients with atrial fibrillation: a report from the EURObservational Research Programme on Atrial Fibrillation (EORP-AF) Long-Term General Registry

Hubert Delasnerie, Estelle Gandjbakhch, Romain Sauve, Maxime Beneyto, Guillaume Domain, Quentin Voglimacci-Stephanopoli, Franck Mandel, Nicolas Badenco, Xavier Waintraub, Pierre Mondoly, et al.

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¹**Correlations Between Endocardial Voltage** ²**Mapping, Diagnosis and Genetic in Patients With** ³**Arrhythmogenic Right Ventricular Cardiomyopathy**

Abstract The relations between endocardial voltage mapping and genetical background of patients with arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy (ARVC) have not been investigated so far. Ninety-seven patients with proved or suspected ARVC undergoing 3D endocardial mapping and genetical testing have been retrospectively included. Presence, localisation and size of scar areas were correlated to ARVC diagnosis and presence of a pathogenic variant. Seventy-eight patients (80%) presented with some bipolar or unipolar scar on endocardial voltage mapping, while 43 (44%) carried pathogenic variants. Significant associations were observed between presence of endocardial scars on voltage mapping and previous or inducible ventricular tachycardia (VT), right ventricular function and dimensions or ECG features of ARVC. Sixty out of the 78 patients with endocardial scar (77%) fulfilled the criteria for a definitive ARVD diagnosis versus 8 out of 19 patients without scar (42%) (p=0.003). Patients with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC had more scars from any location and scars were larger in ARVC patients. In the 68 patients with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC, the presence of any endocardial scar was similar whether an ARVC-causal mutation was present or not. Only scar extend was significantly greater in patients with pathogenic variants. There was no difference in the presence and characteristics of scars when PKP2 mutated vs other mutated patients. 3D endocardial mapping could have an important role for refining ARVC diagnosis and may be able to detect minor forms with otherwise insufficient criteria for diagnosis. Trend for larger scar extends were observed in mutated patients, without difference according to the mutated genes.

Key words: arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy ; voltage mapping ; scar ; genetics

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Introduction:

Arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy (ARVC) is an inherited condition leading to the development of fibro-fatty infiltration of the right ventricle (RV), associating right ventricular dilatation, RV scars and segmental wall abnormalities, together with a risk of sudden cardiac death and ventricular tachycardia (VT) (1). A culprit genetic mutation is found in around 50 % of cases. The diagnosis of ARVC is still currently defined by the 2010 Task Force criteria (2). However sensitivity of the Task Force criteria is far from perfect, especially at the earliest stages of the disease (2). Diseased areas in ARVC are classically located in the so-called "ARVC triangle " associating the basal infero-lateral right ventricle (ILRV), the right ventricular outflow tract (RVOT) and the right ventricular apex (RV) (3,4). 3D voltage mapping is commonly used during catheter ablation for VT in ARVC (5–8). RV scars can be visualized on voltage maps (9, 10) and voltage abnormalities in ARVC are correlated to histological disorders (11), ARVC diagnosis (11, 12) and long-term prognosis (11, 13, 14). To date, a link between genetical background and scar localisation and characteristics in ARVC was only demonstrated for the left ventricle (15) and there is no study focusing on RV scar localisation or size according to the genetical background in ARVC. The aim of this study was to investigate if the genetical background could correlate with scar localisation and size on endocardial voltage mapping, and additionally if voltage mapping may add some useful information for the diagnosis of ARVC.

Methods:

This is a retrospective study performed at the University Hospitals of Toulouse and Paris La Pitié-Salpétrière, including all successive patients with suspected or proved ARVC who have undergone both endocardial voltage mapping and genetical testing between 2005 and 2020.

Diagnosis of ARVC has been made according to modified Task Force criteria (2). Familial and personal cardiac history, ECG, history of ventricular arrhythmias, signal averaged ECG (SA-ECG), CMR, echocardiography, and pathological datas were retrospectively collected for each patient upon availability. Suspected ARVC was defined by patients incompletely fulfilling the Task Force criteria. Endocardial mapping had been performed in each case and programmed ventricular stimulation and RV angiography in most, since a significant part of the patients were referred for ablation or because it was part of our standard diagnosis setup or screening in any patients with suspected or proved ARVC and especially for any RV scar related VT ablation.

All patients have been genotyped at the time of invasive investigation. As for endocardial mapping, genetic screening was part of our standard diagnosis setup or screening in any patients with suspected or proved ARVC. Due to the large period of time for inclusion, not every patient underwent genetic screening using a large panel of genes as currently performed, but main ARVC-related genes had been screened in each case. Only pathogenic or probably pathogenic variants on genes commonly known to be involved in ARVC were considered as a positive result (DSC2, DSG2, DSP, JUP, PKP2, TMEM43, CTNNA3, CDH2, DES, LMNA, PLN, SCN5A, RYR2 and TGFβ3) (1, 16)*.* Pathogenic or probably pathogenic variants were defined by ACMG criteria (17).

Except for amiodarone, anti-arrhythmic drugs were interrupted prior to the procedure. 3D electro-anatomical systems (Carto Biosense **™** or Rhythmia Boston Scientific **™**) were used for creating complete endocardial RV maps (with or without additional epicardial maps) during sinus rhythm. Navistar **™**, Smartouch **™**, Thermocool **™** and Intella Nav Mifi **™** or multipolar Pentarray **™** 17 or Orion [™] catheters have been used over the years. The peak-to-peak signal amplitude of local bipolar and unipolar electrograms was measured automatically at each point, further confirmed during manual review when needed, and displayed on the 3D computerized anatomical reconstruction of the RV shell according to a standardized colour scale. Maps were obtained during sinus rhythm (premature ventricular beats were excluded).

Abnormal bipolar RV endocardial voltage was defined as electrogram 24 amplitude < 1,5 mV for Carto [™] (10) or < 0,8 mV for Rhythmia [™] (18). For 25 unipolar recordings, abnormal areas were defined by voltage ≤ 5.5 mV (9, 10). Areas with normal voltage were coded in purple. Voltage ≤ 0.5 (Carto ™) or ≤ 0.2 mV (Rhythmia **™**) were considered as dense scar and coded in red. Scars were 28 defined as areas of abnormal voltage of at least 1 cm^2 and including more than one electrogram. Scar perimeters and areas were manually traced and calculated using dedicated 3D mapping system softwares. RV volume and surfaces were automatically calculated by the systems. RV scar extend was defined by the ratio of scar surface over RV surface. For patients referred for ablation, usual substrate mapping (i.e. late potential elinination, dechanneling, scar homogeneization or encircling) as well as activation mapping (transsection of the VT isthmus) was performed.

Locations of scars comprised ILRV, RVOT and RVA (3, 4). Particular efforts have been made to achieve good catheter contact in some areas such as ILRV, in order to enhance specificity of low voltage areas, and local electrograms

from such areas were accepted in the map only when sufficient contact was expected with a certain degree of confidence. Areas including or immediately neighbouring the expected locations of tricuspid and pulmonary valve annulus were not included in analysis. Scars were also characterized in the same way in the subset of patients undergoing epicardial mapping for ablation purposes.

Signed informed consent was obtained from all patients. According to the French ethics and regulatory law, retrospective studies based on the exploitation of usual care data shouldn't be submitted to an ethical committee but have to be covered by reference methodology of the French National Commission for Informatics and Liberties (CNIL). This study completing all the criteria is registered at the Toulouse University Hospital under the n° RnIPH 2022-52 and covered by the MR-004 (CNIL number: 2206723 v 0).

13 Continuous variables are reported as mean \pm standard deviations (SD) and compared with unpaired or paired t-test as suitable. Categorical variables were compared using chi-square test. Analysis and calculations were performed using StatView ™ program (Abacus Concepts, Inc. Berkeley, CA 1992-1996, 17 version 5.0). A p value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results:

Ninety-seven successive unrelated patients with suspected or proved ARVC and having undergone both genetical testing and endocardial voltage mapping over a 15 years period at the University Hospital Toulouse and Paris La Pitié were included. Most of them were males (n= 77, 79%) with a mean age of 24 49 \pm 15 years old at the time of investigation (47 \pm 16 at the time of diagnosis). There was no case of competitive athletes in this population. Main characteristics of the patient population are given in table I.

Indications for investigation were palpitations (n=53, 55%), syncope 28 $(n=32, 33\%)$, sustained VT (n=59, 61%, mean 2 \pm 1 episodes) and cardiac arrest in 5 patients.

When familial screening had been performed (n=51), 21 patients (41%) had a family history of ARVC. Familial unexplained sudden cardiac death (before 35 years old) was noted in 4 cases.

Ninety-two percent (n=89) of the patients were on anti-arrhythmic drugs. Most of them were on beta-blockers (n=62, 64%), while sotalol was prescribed in 24, amiodarone in 9 and flecainide in 16. Twenty-three patients (24%) were implanted with an ICD at the time of investigation.

Results of transthoracic echography (TTE) was available in 94 patients (97%), 82 had undergone CMR (85%) (performed before ICD implantation or in patients without ICD), radionuclide imaging was available in 63 (65%), and RV angiography had been performed at the time of the voltage mapping in 66 patients (68%). Mean left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) was 58±9 % for TTE, 54 ± 10 % for CMR and 61 ±8 % for radionuclide. Mean RV ejection fraction (RVEF) on CMR was 42±12% and 41±10 % on radionuclide. At TTE, mean RV surface fractional shortening was 32±12 %. Dilated RV was found in 69% on 9 CMR (i.e. $> 90-100$ cc/m² according to gender).

Sustained monomorphic VT was induced in 44 (48%) of the 91 patients undergoing programmed ventricular stimulation. Fifteen patients (51%) underwent concomitant VT catheter ablation (twelve patients had undergone a previous VT ablation).

14 On the 97 patients, 43 (44%) were considered carriers of pathogenic or probably pathogenic variants: *PKP2* (n=23), *DSG2* (n=9), *DSP* (n=2), *DSC2* (n=1), *RYR2* (n=2), *DES* (n=2), *CTNNA3* (n=1), *DSG2* + *PKP2* (n=1), *DSP* + *SCN5A* (n=1) and *PKP2* + *DSP* (n=1) (see figure 1 and table II).

Sixty-eight patients (70%) fulfilled the Task Force criteria for definitive 19 ARVC diagnosis, with a mean 2 ± 1.3 major criteria and 1.4 ± 0.8 minor criteria.

Voltage mapping was done using the Carto **™** system in 72 patients and 21 the Rhythmia [™] system in 25. Mean RV volume was 224 ± 111 cm³, mean RV 22 surface was 265 ± 72 cm², with a mean acquisition duration of 49 ± 27 min and 2146±4272 collected electrograms per map (from 100 to 21389).

On the 97 patients, 78 (80%) presented with some bipolar or unipolar endocardial scar on voltage mapping (median 2 scars, 1 to 3). Of the 78 patients with scars, there was only one single scar in 34 (44%) (ILRV in 19, RVOT in 12 and RVA in 3), while 44 patients (56%) had multiple scars (20 ILRV+RVOT, 16 ILRV+RVOT+RVA, 7 ILRV+RVA and one RVOT+RVA). As a whole, ILRV scars were the most frequent ones (n=62, 45% of the total scar number), followed by RVOT (n=49, 36%) and RV apex (n=27, 19%). There was no case of septal scar. Examples of bipolar and unipolar scars are shown in figure 2.

32 Mean bipolar scar surface was 26.6 ± 29.8 cm² and 44.7 ± 45.2 cm² for unipolar mapping. RV scar extend was 9±10% for bipolar and 17±15% for unipolar mapping. Mean scar perimeters were 29±24 cm (bipolar) and 42±32 cm (unipolar). Total scar surfaces (p=0.0003), extends (p<0.0001) and perimeters (p=0.0005) were significantly larger in unipolar versus bipolar voltage mapping.

In 66 patients, scars were found on both bipolar and unipolar voltage maps and at the same areas, while in 12 patients some scars in unipolar map did not have corresponding scars on bipolar recordings. Total scar surface (p=0.01), extend (p=0.001) and perimeter (p=0.02) were significantly larger in unipolar versus bipolar voltage mapping for patients with corresponding scars on both bipolar and unipolar mapping.

Twenty-seven patients (28%) underwent epicardial voltage mapping at the time of ablation, all of them presenting with epicardial scar, facing some corresponding endocardial scars in all but one cases (purely epicardial scar in the 10 last case). Mean bipolar epicardial scar area was 243 ± 233 cm².

Significant associations between presence of endocardial scars on voltage mapping and clinical, ECG and imaging criteria are depicted in table III. Negative T waves in precordial leads, presence of epsilon wave, inducible VT, an history of spontaneous VT and presence of an ICD were each significantly associated with the presence of endocardial scars. Significantly more dilated RV and more altered systolic RV function with lower RVEF and higher RV volumes were also present in the presence of endocardial scars. Even if relatively preserved, LVEF on CMR was significantly lower in case of endocardial RV scars and there was more RV late gadolinium enhancement when endocardial scars were found. AA drug therapy (class 1 drugs) and VT ablation were more often present in patients with endocardial scar. None of these criteria was found to remain significant in multivariate analysis. No other diagnosis criteria was significantly correlated with the presence of endocardial scar.

24 More patients with scars on voltage mapping had some RV LGE (15/49 vs 25 1/15, p=0.06). There was a good correlation between locations of RV LGE and scars in 85 % (12 out of 14).

When only bipolar scars were analysed, all the parameters remained significant, except negative T waves in precordial leads, epsilon waves, RV > 29 $100-110 \text{ cc/m}^2$ and class 1 drugs.

Sixty out of the 78 patients with endocardial scar (77%) fulfilled the criteria for a definitive ARVD diagnosis versus 8 out of 19 patients without scar 32 (42%) (p=0.003). Mean major Task Force criteria number was 2.2 ± 1.3 in patients 33 with endocardial scar vs 1 ± 1 in the absence of scar (p=0.0004), while there was no difference in minor Task Force criteria (1.4±0.8 vs 1.4±0.8, p=ns). Only 8 out of the 68 patients (12%) with a diagnosis of ARVC according to the Task Force did not present with any endocardial scar on voltage mapping, while 18 out of 29 patients (62%) without a diagnosis of ARVC had some scar. Sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative predictive values of an endocardial scar on

voltage mapping for the diagnosis of ARVC (based on Task Force criteria) were 2 88%, 38%, 77% and 42% respectively.

From the eight patients with a diagnosis of ARVC but without endocardial scar, two had familial ARVC cases, five had pathogenic variants and one displayed a purely epicardial scar. The remaining three cases without these features had 2 major criteria (n=1) or 1 major and 2 minor criteria (n=2). Since, none seemed to evoluate toward more clearer ARVC phenotype.

Patients with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC presented significantly 9 more often with ILRV, RVOT and RVA scars or multiple scars (mean 1.7 \pm 1 vs 0.8±0.7 scar per patient, p<0.0001). Scar surfaces, extends and perimeters as well as RV volume were significantly larger in ARVC patients (see table IV). Results were similar when only bipolar scars were analysed.

In the 68 patients with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC, the presence of any endocardial scar was similar whether an ARVC-causal mutation was present or not (35/40 vs 25/28, p=ns). While there was slightly more ILRV scars in patients carrying a pathogenic genetic variant (34/40 vs 18/28, p=0.04), there was no difference for RVOT (24/40 vs 17/28) and RVA scars (12/40 vs 11/28) or for multiple scars (26/35 vs 14/25 patients with scars). Scar surfaces or perimeters were greater in patients carrying a pathogenic genetic variant but without statistical significance, except RV scar extend which was significantly greater in 21 patients with pathogenic variants (bipolar 12 ± 10 vs $6\pm10\%$, p=0.02, and unipolar 22 22±13 vs $12\pm15\%$, p=0.01).

When comparing *PKP2* positive ARVC patients (n=23, the most frequent mutated gene (19)) with the other gene carriers (n=17), *PKP2* patients did not have more frequent scars (21/23 vs 14/17) or more frequent ILRV (21/23 vs 13/17), RVOT (13/23 vs 11/17) or RVA scars (7/23 vs 5/17) or more multiple scars (15/21 vs 11/14) (p=ns). There was no significant difference in RV volume, scar area, extend or perimeter in *PKP2* vs other mutated patients. The three patients with > 1 pathogenic genetic variants presented each with RVOT and ILRV scars, with unremarkable scar surface or perimeter compared to the other ones (no statistical comparison due to the low number of cases).

Mean follow-up duration was 80±77 months. Seventeen patients were lost to follow-up. Only one patient died (end-stage right ventricular heart failure). Sustained VT occurred in 10 patients during the follow-up, all of them with a previous history of VT and all but one having undergone ablation at the time of investigation. There was no relapse of VT in the 41 other patients undergoing ablation and no VT in any patient without a previous history of VT. There was no difference in VT recurrence when patient with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC were compared to suspected ARVC.

The occurrence of sustained VT during the follow-up was not significantly related to the presence of scar (9 VT out of 78 patients with scars vs one out of 19, p=ns), although the bipolar RV scar extend was significantly 4 greater in patients with recurring VT (17 \pm 23 vs 8 \pm 7 %, p=0.03) % (ns for unipolar).

Discussion:

In this study we evaluated the presence, localisation and extend of endocardial scars using electro-anatomical voltage mapping in a population of 97 patients with suspected or definitively proved ARVC according to the Task Force criteria. Our findings are as follow:

- significant associations were present between the presence of endocardial scars and previous or inducible ventricular tachycardia (VT), right ventricular function and dimensions or ECG features of ARVC in the whole population

- endocardial scars were more often present in patients with a diagnosis of ARVC based on the Task Force Criteria, with a sensitivity of 88%, and scar surfaces, extends and perimeters were significantly larger in ARVC patients
- 18 apart more frequent ILRV scars and greater RV scar extend in the presence of a pathogenic genetic variant, the presence and characteristics of endocardial scars in ARVC patients were similar, whether a ARVC-causal genetic variant was present or not. There was no scar difference when patients with *PKP2* mutations were compared to others genes.

The presence of endocardial scars was correlated to negative T waves in precordial leads and epsilon wave, and to dilated RV and altered systolic RV function. This means that RV scars may affect the RV enough to alter ECG and imaging parameters and that scars on endocardial voltage mapping are probably the sign of extended right ventricular structural alterations. Moreover, the presence of endocardial scars was related to spontaneous or inducible VT or presence of ICD, AA drug therapy or VT ablation, which is expected because representing the substrate for reentrant arrhythmia. However, no clear prognosis role of voltage mapping could be drawn from this study.

It has been proposed that endocardial voltage mapping may be considered in the prognosis evaluation of ARVC patients (class IIb) (20). Scar-related VTs have a high recurrence rate, both in patients fulfilling or not ARVC diagnosis criteria (13). Occurrence of VT had been linked to the presence of endocardial scars (11) or to bipolar/unipolar low voltage area ratio as a potential surrogate parameter for scar distribution between the endocardium and the epicardium (21). In a previous work on endocardial voltage mapping, the only

independent predictor of malignant arrhythmias was the bipolar low-voltage electrogram burden (14). Although we reached similar results in some analysis, comparison was hampered by the low number of VT during follow-up probably because most patients were ablated, thus it is uncertain if voltage mapping may be proposed as a predictive factor in the future, at least in this population. However, VT never occurred in any patient without a previous history of VT (i.e non ablated) whatever the presence of scars or not.

The presence of scar significantly and closely correlated with a diagnosis of ARVC according to the Task Force criteria (which do not include voltage mapping). Only 12% of ARVC patients did not have any visible scar on voltage mapping, possibly due to absent, minor or purely epicardial scarring (frusta form of true ARVC still not fulfilling the diagnosis criteria) or explained by the fact that some patients without structural heart diseases had been included (as part of diagnosis purposes), On the other hand, 62% of patients without ARVC diagnosis according to the task Force Criteria had some scar, reflecting either an underdiagnosis according to these criteria, either the presence of a still unidentified other structural heart disease. Pending exclusion of other (unusual) causes for RV scaring, it is tempting to suspect ARVC in these patients. Sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative predictive values of a scar on endocardial voltage mapping for the diagnosis of ARVC were 88%, 38%, 77% 21 and 42% respectively.

Patients with a definitive diagnosis of ARVC presented significantly more often with ILRV, RVOT and RVA scars or multiple scars, and scar surfaces, extends and perimeters as well as RV volume were significantly larger in ARVC patients.

It was proposed that endocardial voltage mapping may be considered in the diagnosis evaluation of ARVC patients (class IIb) (20). Voltage mapping had been already proposed as an interesting diagnosis tool, since low bipolar voltage areas have been proved to correspond to echocardiographic/angiographic RV wall motion abnormalities, and to correlate with myocyte loss and fibrofatty replacement on biopsy and with an history of familial ARVC (11). Voltage mapping is able to reveal concealed ARVC by detecting RVOT scars that correlate with fibrofatty myocardial replacement at biopsy (22). Right ventricular voltage mapping has been demonstrated to be more sensitive than CMR in detecting right forms of arrhythmogenic ventricular cardiomyopathy (12). Similar findings were observed in this study, with a 88% rate of abnormal endocardial voltage mapping in patients with ARVC, while CMR was indicative of ARVC in only around two thirds of them. Thus, it seems that endocardial voltage mapping currently conveys still better sensitivity for the presence of right ventricular scars than imaging. However, because endocardial voltage mapping is an invasive

technique, moreover with a significant risk of inaccurate interpretation of low-voltage recordings due to suboptimal catheter contact in some areas, it is currently not recommended as a routine diagnosis tool (20, 23). Whether invasive voltage mapping could be used in the future for enhancing ARVC diagnosis deserves however further studies.

Specific location of scars in the inferior or lateral part of the basal RV is a well-known feature of ARVC (3, 4) and may be used for differential diagnosis with sarcoidosis for example, where inter-ventricular septum is more involved (24, 25). In opposition to previous works (4), this study does not indicate that the "triangle of dysplasia is displaced", at least in the RV, since apical scars were found in a significant number of cases.

Except for more frequent ILRV scars or greater RV scar extends in patients carrying a pathogenic genetic variant, we did not find major relevant differences according to the presence of a genetic variant in ARVC patients when the diagnosis was based on Task Force criteria. This means that pathological processes may be more extended in patients carrying pathogenic genetic variants, possibly because of more aggressive gene-dependant mutations compared to unknown genetical background, or because some patients with scars presented in fact with other and undetermined diagnosis with different consequences and evolution.

The link between genetical background and presence, localisation and extend of scars has poorly been investigated so far. Isolated LV scars on CMR were mentioned in two patients with DSP mutations, but there was no further correlation between genetics and scar localisation in this work (4). In a recent work, patients with non-desmosomal mutations had lower LV systolic function with LV fibrosis frequently located at the postero-lateral LV wall, while a LV subepicardial circumferential LGE pattern was significantly associated with desmin mutation (15). For patients with desmosomal mutations, reduced LVEF was more frequent among patients with DSC2/DSG2/DSP than PKP2 mutations, but there was no evaluation of scar localisation in this work (26).

We were not able to demonstrate any difference between *PKP2*-carriers and the other gene carriers. Because of the low number of cases, it will remain uncertain if some specific mutations/genes may lead to specific scar localisation or extend, but in view of our results, at least for the right ventricle, similar scaring seems to happen in presence of PKP2 or other pathogenic variants, thus as a final consequence whatever the genetical background.

The main limitations of our study were the retrospective design and some possible selection bias: for example, half of the patients underwent voltage mapping at the time of a VT ablation procedure, which had probably selected a subgroup of patients with more advanced pathological process and more scars on endocardial mapping. Conversely, some patients with only suspected ARVC were included, because of additional information expected to be available from voltage mapping, but who do not finally fulfill the diagnosis criteria. However they were found useful in view of out goal and results.

Due to the long-time of inclusion, mapping technique has evolved, for example with the advent of contact force catheters, or high definition and multi-point acquisition, thus voltage maps are not uniform and difficult to compare. All patients not investigated with multi electrode-catheters were mapped using force sensing mapping catheters. Thus, patients could be divided in two groups: either investigated with multi-electrode mapping (no contact sensing) either with contact sensing catheter (no multi-electrode mapping). Comparing scar localisations, number and extend/size, scars were not more frequent, but significantly larger in case of multi-electrode mapping/without contact sensing catheter. However, making new statistical analysis in the subgroup of patients with contact sensing catheters did not change the results, thus conclusions remain the same in this population (and then probably also in patients with multi-electrode mapping).

A few patients with previous RF ablation have been included: although this may have modify voltage mapping, there was no difference in scar size between patients with and without previous VT ablation, and none of our results were modified when these cases were excluded.

Since ARVC is a progressive disease, our results are only valid at the time of investigation. This precludes speculations about the expected changes over time in sensitivity of voltage mapping or relationships with genetical background.

Only a few patients underwent epicardial mapping, which fully matched the endocardial mapping in all but one cases. Endocardial mapping has been proposed for the detection of epicardial scars (7, 27) by using unipolar voltage mapping. In view of our study, epicardial scars could be suspected in the vast majority of cases by endocardial voltage mapping. Use of epicardial voltage mapping as a tool for ARVC evaluation cannot be considered anyway because of the risky nature of the technique.

Conclusion:

Patients with a diagnosis of ARVC according to the Task Force Criteria demonstrate more frequent and larger scars at endocardial voltage mapping. Endocardial voltage mapping could be useful for the diagnosis of ARVC, able to detect minor forms with otherwise insufficiant criteria for diagnosis. Presence and characteristics of scars on endocardial voltage mapping do not seem to depend on the genetical background.

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Legends to figures

Figure 1 Pathogenic variants in the mutated patients

Figure 2 examples of right infero-lateral, outflow tract and apical scars in bipolar (upper) and unipolar (lower) endocardial mapping (left: right anterior oblique view ; right: left anterior oblique view). Scar areas are depicted. Points can be seen directly on the map (number of points appears as EGM numbers on the low right side of each map).

Table I: Characteristics of the study population.

Table II: Genetic details about the 46 variants found in the 43 mutated patients. Even if some similar variants are found in several patients, these were not related (except one case) and such variants were considered "hot spots" and not private mutations.

Table III: clinical, ECG and imaging characteristics significantly related to the presence of scars on endocardial voltage mapping

Table 4. Characteristics of the scars according to the diagnosis of ARVC based on the 2010 task force criteria

