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Circadian clocks regulate cardiac arrhythmia susceptibility, repolarization, and ion channels

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Daily changes in the incidence of sudden cardiac death (SCD) reveal an interaction between environmental rhythms and internal circadian rhythms. Circadian rhythms are physiological rhythms that alter physiology to anticipate daily changes in the environment. They reflect coordinated activity of cellular circadian clocks that exist throughout the body. This review provides an overview of the state of the field by summarizing the results of several different transgenic mouse models that disrupt the function of circadian clocks throughout the body, in cardiomyocytes, or in adult cardiomyocytes. These studies identify important roles for circadian clocks in regulating heart rate, ventricular repolarization, arrhythmogenesis, and the functional expression of cardiac ion channels. They highlight a new dimension in the regulation of cardiac excitability and represent initial forays into understanding the complexities of how time impacts the functional regulation of ion channels, cardiac excitability, and time of day changes in the incidence of SCD.

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Introduction

Half of all heart disease deaths are caused by sudden cardiac death (SCD), and most cases of SCD are triggered by cardiac arrhythmias [1,2]. Many different types of heart

disease result in SCD, including acquired and congenital cardiovascular diseases such as coronary artery disease, heart failure, cardiomyopathies, and arrhythmogenic syndromes. Over the past 30 years, several studies identified time of day changes in the incidence of SCD [3–9]. Longitudinal analysis of the literature shows that these patterns have changed over time, perhaps reflecting changes in the clinical management and causes of SCD [10^{*},11,12^{**}]. Moreover, studies focused on specific types of heart disease show disease-specific time of day patterns in the incidence of SCD [7,13,14]. Determining how and why patients with different types of heart disease die at certain times of day could lead to new breakthroughs in understanding the etiology and tailored therapeutic strategies.

Daily changes in the incidence of SCD reflect an interaction between external and internal day-night rhythms that resonate with the 24-hour period. Circadian rhythms are internal physiological rhythms that evolved to anticipate predictable changes in the environment [15]. Cardiovascular circadian rhythms include daily rhythms in heart rate (HR), ventricular repolarization, blood pressure, and cardiac metabolism [16–21]. These rhythms provide an advantage in healthy individuals but might precipitate deadly events in populations living with heart disease [4,16^{*},22–25]. For example, morning increases in sympathetic tone that are beneficial in healthy individuals could trigger arrhythmias or the reactivity of the heart in patients with disease [9,16^{*}]. An additional layer of complexity is that behaviors or disease states which disrupt circadian rhythms (e.g. alignment with external environmental rhythms, rhythm amplitudes, or synchrony between circadian rhythms), might also impact arrhythmogenic triggers and/or heart reactivity to precipitate SCD.

Circadian rhythms

Circadian rhythms are generated by endogenous circadian clock mechanisms that temporally optimize cellular and biological functions with daily changes in behavior and the environment [26^{*},27–32]. The central circadian clock mechanism is located in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of the hypothalamus. In mammals, the SCN is synchronized to daily light-dark cycles through direct photic input from the retina [31]. The SCN sends neurohumoral signals that regulate organism behavior and aligns the phase of the circadian clocks in the peripheral tissues (peripheral circadian clocks) [15,33^{**},34,35,36^{*},37].

Behaviors that are important for aligning central and peripheral circadian clocks are eating and activity. Almost every cell, including cardiomyocytes, possesses an intrinsic circadian clock mechanism that performs a ubiquitous time keeping mechanism and the tissue specific expression of genes called clock output genes [15].

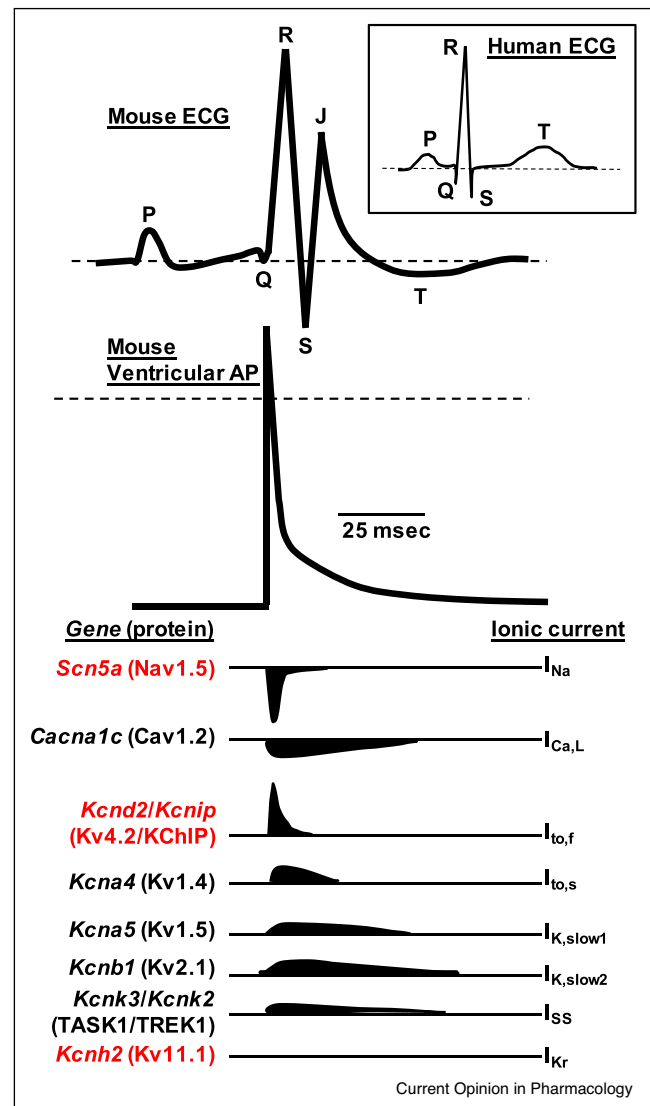
The circadian clock is a transcription-translation feedback loop composed of the basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors BMAL1 and CLOCK and the proteins that regulate their expression, including Period (PER) and Cryptochrome (CRY). BMAL1 and CLOCK hetero-dimerize to activate the transcription of *Per* and *Cry* genes, and PER and CRY proteins form multimers in the cytoplasm of the cell, that translocate to the nucleus, and act to inhibit BMAL1 and CLOCK function [31,32,38,39]. This periodicity of the loop takes approximately 24 hours to cycle and is the fundamental mechanism underlying circadian rhythms [15]. These components of the circadian clock can directly and indirectly regulate the tissue-specific expression of clock output genes [40,41].

Mouse models for the study of circadian clocks, cardiac impacts

Mice are a useful animal model for understanding the impact of circadian clocks on physiology. Although they are nocturnal, many circadian rhythms and circadian clock mechanisms are conserved [42]. Mice can be genetically engineered to determine how germline, tissue-specific, and inducible (at select time points over lifespan) disruptions of circadian clock mechanisms impact their phenotype. Mice are also amenable to studies that determine how external time-keeping cues, including light and behavior, impact the entrainment and synchrony between central and peripheral circadian clocks [43–45].

This review summarizes how transgenic mouse models of circadian clock disruption impact mouse cardiac electrophysiology, with an emphasis on the electrocardiogram (ECG), repolarization, and the regulation of ion channels important for repolarization in mice and humans. A challenge to using mice is there are species-specific differences in cardiac electrophysiology that limits direct extrapolation to humans [46]. Mouse hearts beat about 10 times faster than human hearts, and although their ECG waveforms bear several similarities to humans, there are notable differences (Figure 1; modified from Ref. [46]). Human and mouse ECG waveforms have distinct P, QRS, and T waves. The P wave is generated by the depolarization of the atrium; the QRS waves are generated by the depolarization of the ventricles, and the T wave reflects ventricular repolarization. The RR interval is often used to measure HR and the QT interval measures the time it takes the heart to repolarize. Abnormally slow or fast HR, or short or long QT intervals are risk factors for arrhythmias. There is a direct relation between HR and the QT interval, such that the QT

Figure 1



Cardiac electrophysiology in the mouse.

Shown is a cartoon of a mouse electrocardiogram (ECG) and a human ECG (inset). Unlike the human ECG, the mouse ECG shows a prominent J wave and an inverted T wave. Below the mouse ECG is a schematic showing a mouse ventricular action potential (AP) and several cardiac ion channel genes (proteins) and their corresponding ionic currents that shape the ventricular AP. Several groups show the expression of the gene transcripts in red and/or their corresponding ionic currents are reduced by circadian clock disruption in cardiomyocytes.

interval increases or decreases with the preceding RR interval [47]. In order to measure the QT interval at different HR, formulas are used to calculate the HR corrected QT (QTc) interval. The QTc interval is a clinically valuable biomarker that identifies abnormalities in ventricular repolarization [48]. Surprisingly, humans and mice share similar QTc interval correction formulas, but measuring the end of the T wave in mouse ECGs is

challenging [47,49]. The reason is mouse hearts initially repolarize very quickly and generate a predominant J wave after the QRS complex and the T-waves are small and inverted (Figure 1) [47,50,51]. Another difference between human and mouse hearts is the size. Mouse hearts are smaller, and although they can sustain arrhythmias, the underlying mechanisms for these arrhythmias are potentially different [52]. Nonetheless, mouse models are widely employed by cardiac electrophysiologists because they are practical for determining how genetic, pharmacological, and/or environmental manipulations impact arrhythmogenic triggers and/or pro-arrhythmic changes in the cardiac substrate [53,54*].

Circadian clocks regulate heart rate and arrhythmia susceptibility

Bmal1 knockout mice (*Bmal1*^{-/-}) suffer from a number of systemic abnormalities, including dilated cardiomyopathy and premature death [55,56]. Similar to humans, wild type (WT) mice have a 24-hour rhythm in HR, but studies have shown that this rhythm is lost in *Bmal1*^{-/-} mice [57]. Specifically in WT mice, HR increases during the active (dark) phase. The *Bmal1*^{-/-} mice did not show an increase in HR during the active phase. A dampening in the daily rhythm of HR was also seen in mice engineered to express a dominant negative Clock mutation (ClockΔ19) that disrupts the circadian clock mechanism throughout the body [57]. Similar to *Bmal1*^{-/-} mice, these mice showed a diminished daily rhythm of HR by reducing the HR increase during the active phase. To study the impact of the cardiomyocyte circadian clock on heart function, Durgan *et al.* engineered mice to selectively express ClockΔ19 in the heart driven by the α-myosin heavy chain promoter [58]. Compared to WT mice, mice that express ClockΔ19 only in cardiomyocytes had a slower HR and a damped daily rhythm. Studies that investigated mice engineered for the cardiomyocyte specific deletion of *Bmal1* (H-*Bmal1*^{-/-}) showed these animals developed progressive cardiomyopathy with age and had a decreased lifespan. However, HR was unchanged in these mice [59]. An inducible transgenic model that allows for the cardiomyocyte specific deletion of *Bmal1* in adult cardiomyocytes (iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-}) did not develop dilated cardiomyopathy but had a slower HR compared to control animals [60]. Taken together, the data suggest that systemic disruption of the circadian clock mechanism abrogates the daily rhythm in HR by slowing HR during the active phase. Cardiomyocyte-specific disruption of the circadian clock by expressing ClockΔ19, but not deletion of *Bmal1*, slows HR. Selectively deleting *Bmal1* from adult cardiomyocytes slows HR, but unlike *Bmal1*^{-/-} or H-*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice, these mice do not develop cardiomyopathy or suffer pre-mature mortality.

Despite the absence of cardiomyopathy and pre-mature mortality, iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice did suffer arrhythmias [60]. Compared to control mice, iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice

had an increased number of premature ventricular contractions and long sinus pauses. The increase in arrhythmia susceptibility was intrinsic to iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} hearts because electromechanical stimulation of isolated iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} heart preparations showed they were more sensitive to conduction block. These data demonstrate a protective role for the cardiomyocyte circadian clock against arrhythmias in adult hearts.

A common mechanism that underlies susceptibility to ventricular arrhythmias and SCD is abnormalities in ventricular repolarization [48,61,62]. Abnormally short or long QT intervals increase the risk for deadly arrhythmias that cause SCD in humans. Although there are many possible molecular mechanisms that underlie the cardiac arrhythmias in iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice, one clear difference in these animals was the QTc interval. ECG telemetry studies showed that inducing the deletion of *Bmal1* in adult cardiomyocytes prolonged the QTc interval [63]. Similar to humans, the daily variation in the mouse QTc interval is normally very small; however, in iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice the QTc interval was longer during the inactive (light) phase compared to the active phase [19,63]. This suggests that the cardiac circadian clock mechanism buffers against daily increases in the QTc interval by limiting how long it takes the ventricles to repolarize at slow HRs.

Cardiac circadian clock regulates ion channels

The observation that the iCSΔ*Bmal1*^{-/-} mice show arrhythmias and a prolonged QTc interval in the absence of cardiomyopathy suggests the cardiac circadian clock mechanism regulates the functional expression of cardiac ion channel genes important for cardiac repolarization. Mouse ventricular APs have a rapid upstroke, a large transient repolarization phase, and a gradual repolarization phase to the resting membrane potential (mouse ventricular APs lack a distinct plateau phase; Figure 1) [46,64,65]. The rapid upstroke is caused by an influx of Na⁺ current (I_{Na}) through *Scn5a*-encoded Nav1.5 channels. The rapid and gradual ventricular repolarization is caused by several different K⁺ currents (I_{to,f}, I_{to,s}, I_{Kslow1}, I_{Kslow2}, I_{SS}) (Figure 1). I_{to,f} is conducted by the *Kcnd2*-encoded Kv4.2 channels; I_{to,s} is conducted by the *Kcna4*-encoded Kv1.4 channels; I_{Kslow1} is conducted by *Kcna5*-encoded Kv1.5 channels; I_{Kslow2} is conducted by *Kcnb1*-encoded Kv2.1 channels, and I_{SS} is conducted through *Kcnk3*-encoded and *Kcnk2*-encoded TASK1 and TREK1 channels. Mouse ventricular myocytes also express the rapidly activating delayed rectifier K⁺ current (I_{Kr}) conducted by the *Kcnh2*-encoded Kv11.1 channel, but I_{Kr} is not expected to play a primary role in normal ventricular repolarization [66].

Several different investigators show that the expression of *Scn5a*, *Kcnd2*, and *Kcnh2* mRNA transcript levels in the

mouse ventricle is circadian, because they oscillate with a period of ~24 hours in constant darkness [60,63,67–69]. The circadian oscillation in *Scn5a* and *Kcnh2* transcript levels, but not *Kcnd2*, were lost in the hearts of *iCSΔBmal1^{-/-}* mice. Voltage-clamping ventricular myocytes isolated from *iCSΔBmal1^{-/-}* hearts showed that the peak I_{Na} and I_{Kr} are 30% and 50% smaller, respectively, compared to control myocytes [60,63].

I_{Kr} does not play a major role in the cardiac repolarization in mice [65,70,71], and as such, the loss of I_{Kr} is unlikely responsible for the abnormal prolongation of the QTc interval in *iCSΔBmal1^{-/-}* mice. Therefore, the cardiomyocyte circadian clock mechanism likely regulates other cardiac K^+ channel transcripts important for mouse repolarization. Jeyaraj *et al.* [68*] showed that the transcripts for *Kcnip2*, which encodes an auxiliary K^+ channel subunit protein needed to generate native $I_{to,f}$, was also circadian in mouse hearts. They found that BMAL1 directly regulates the circadian expression of the transcription factor gene, *Krüppel-like factor 15* gene (*Klf15*), and used several transgenic mice to demonstrate that KLF15 drove the circadian expression of *Kcnip2* [68*]. They also demonstrated that, compared to control hearts, *Bmal1^{-/-}* hearts had reduced *Kcnip2* transcript levels; most ventricular myocytes isolated from *Bmal1^{-/-}* hearts lacked $I_{to,f}$ and *Bmal1^{-/-}* ventricular APs were longer than in control myocytes [68*]. Consistent with these data, *iCSΔBmal1^{-/-}* hearts also showed a reduction in overall *Kcnip2* mRNA levels, as well as several other K^+ channel transcripts important for mouse ventricular repolarization, including *Kcna5* and *Kcnb1* [21]. Taken together the data suggest the circadian clock in the heart might directly or indirectly regulate the functional expression of several cardiac K^+ channel genes important for repolarization.

There are discrepancies in studies between which cardiac channel transcripts show a circadian pattern of expression. This is likely the result of multiple factors including but not limited to: the absolute amplitude of the circadian component for many cardiac channel transcripts is small [67]; the number of animals used to measure mRNA at a specific time point; the frequency with which the transcript levels were measured (e.g. every 2, 4, or 6 hours); and the duration of the experimental collection time-frame (1 or more days). Regardless of the root cause of the discrepancies, these transgenic studies clearly demonstrate the importance of the cardiac circadian clock in regulating the functional expression for the predominant cardiac Na^+ channel and several K^+ channels.

Most studies agree that *Kcnh2* transcripts show a robust circadian oscillation in the mouse heart (Figure 2b) [63,67,69]. A circadian oscillation pattern of *Kcnh2* mRNA was also detected in rat hearts, suggesting a conserved mechanism. This raises the intriguing possibility that human *KCNH2* expression might be regulated by the

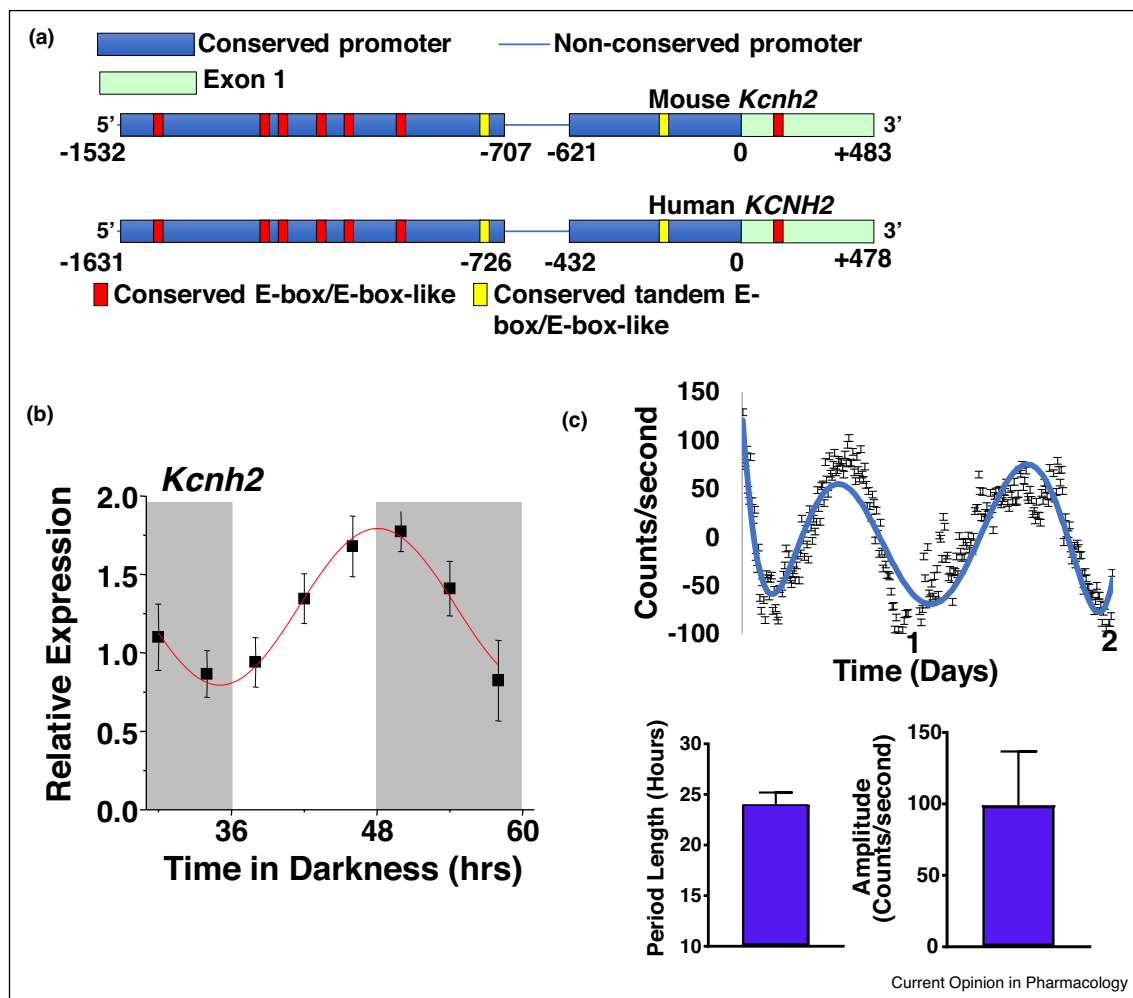
cardiomyocyte circadian clock. This would be an important finding because, although *Kcnh2*-encoded Kv11.1 channel proteins are not critical for normal cardiac repolarization in mice, I_{Kr} is critical for normal cardiac repolarization in humans. Loss of I_{Kr} is linked to life-threatening drug induced and inherited arrhythmias [71–74].

Circadian clock transcription factors directly regulate gene expression by binding to canonical and non-canonical E-box elements [75–77]. Sequence alignment of the mouse, rat, and human *Kcnh2/KCNH2* promoters that encode the full-length Kv11.1 channel protein showed two homologous regions of conservation upstream of exon 1. Sequence analysis of the conserved regions revealed several conserved tandem E-box motifs (Figure 2a) [69,77].

The Lumicycle allows the measurement of real time promoter activity every 10 min over the course of several days in cultured cells expressing a promoter driving luciferase expression [78–82]. Luciferase is a good reporter for measuring circadian promoter activity because it has a short protein half-life (~4 hours). This enables researchers to quantify circadian oscillations in luciferase activity as a read out of promoter activity *in vitro*. Lumicycle data for human inducible pluripotent stem cell derived cardiomyocytes expressing the cloned human *KCNH2* promoter driving luciferase expression showed the cloned promoter activity oscillates with a periodicity of ~24 hours (Figure 2c). The data suggest that the circadian clock regulation of mouse and human *Kcnh2/KCNH2* is conserved. More research is needed to understand how the circadian clock in the human heart impacts *KCNH2*, I_{Kr} , and susceptibility to arrhythmias, but similar to mice, these data provide a link between the cardiac clock mechanism and cardiac repolarization in humans.

Does the observation that several different cardiac ion channel mRNA transcripts oscillate suggests that this causes circadian changes in channel protein levels? Ionic currents and cardiac excitability? Circadian rhythms in HR or even the incidence of SCD? The answer is not straightforward. What is clear is that disruption of the cardiac circadian clock regulates the transcript levels for several cardiac ion channels, key macroscopic currents important for depolarization and repolarization, and cardiac excitability. However, connecting changes in transcript levels to protein levels and overall function is not direct. Generally speaking, the amplitude of rhythmic mRNA in tissues is much larger than that for their corresponding proteins. This is because proteins are typically more stable and as such have small circadian oscillations [83,84]. The circadian expression of transcripts encoding proteins with longer half-lives is expected to contribute to their overall accumulation and steady-state protein levels. For cardiac ion channels

Figure 2



Circadian regulation of *Kcnh2/KCNH2*.

(a) Promoter schematic for mouse and human *Kcnh2/KCNH2*. There are two regions of homology ~ 1.6 kB upstream of exon 1. **(b)** The circadian mRNA expression profile of *Kcnh2* is shown. Dark and light bars represent subjective night and day extrapolated from their prior light:dark (L:D) cycle before release in constant darkness (DD). ($n = 4$ /time point) This Figure is modified from Ref. [63]. **(c)** The human *KCNH2* promoter was cloned into the pGL3-Basic vector upstream of luciferase to generate the human *Kcnh2* promoter:reporter construct (h*KCNH2*:Luc). We transiently transfected human inducible pluripotent stem cell derived cardiomyocytes with h*KCNH2*:Luc. The cells were synchronized using serum shock [86]. Data shown are Cosine fit mean lumicycle data \pm SEM showing the circadian expression pattern of luciferase activity. Data were collected at 10 min intervals ($n = 5$; inset shows the JTK_cycle [67,87] calculated period and amplitude).

with long half-lives, long-term disruptions in cardiac circadian clock regulation (like the transgenic models described above) would be needed to reduce steady-state ion channel protein levels. Whether or not reductions in channel protein levels result in a decrease in functional current depends on a number of additional steps that are known to regulate the functional expression of cardiac ion channels. This includes but is not limited to post-transcriptional regulation (splicing, mRNA degradation, etc.), coordinate regulation of transcripts in microtranslatomes [85^{••}], co-translational assembly with other pore-forming

or auxiliary ion channel subunits, native protein folding, channel transport (trafficking) on and off the cell surface membrane, second messenger regulation, and channel degradation. Future studies that incorporate a temporal dimension in the regulation of ion channel function are needed to understand how the circadian system regulates ion channel function and cardiac excitability. These studies are expected to help clinician scientists understand why certain types of cardiomyopathies and arrhythmia syndromes show an increase (or decrease) in the incidence of SCD at certain times of day.

Conclusion

Clinician scientists have long recognized that certain patients with certain types of heart disease show a time of day change in risk for SCD. Daily changes in the incidence of SCD likely reflect an interaction between external and internal circadian rhythms. Many aspects of the cardiovascular system show strong circadian rhythms. These rhythms are generated by central and peripheral circadian clock mechanisms. Transgenic mouse models designed to disrupt these clocks systemically or solely in the heart show clear effects on heart rate and pathology, including cardiomyopathy, arrhythmia susceptibility, and ventricular repolarization. Inducible models that disrupt cardiac circadian clock signaling identified a key role for regulating ion channel transcript levels that are important for ventricular depolarization and repolarization in mice and humans. Future studies are needed to determine how disruption in clock signaling impact other aspects of ion channels function, including protein levels, cell surface expression and second messenger regulation. Additional important questions directly relevant to human health are: How do time keeping cues that impact central and cardiac circadian clocks affect cardiac excitability and arrhythmia susceptibility in healthy or diseased hearts? Could lifestyles known to disrupt, desynchronize, or misalign circadian clocks and rhythms represent a modifiable risk factor for SCD in humans by modifying cardiac ion channel function and excitability?

Conflict of interest statement

Nothing declared.

References and Recommended reading

Papers of particular interest, published within a period of review, have been highlighted as:

- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Brian P Delisle: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **John L Stumpf:** Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Jennifer L Wayland:** Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Sidney R Johnson:** Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Makoto Ono:** Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Dalton Hall:** Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Don E Burgess:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. **Elizabeth A Schroder:** Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

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