

Molecular clock is involved in predictive circadian adjustment of renal function

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Renal excretion of water and major electrolytes exhibits a significant circadian rhythm. This functional periodicity is believed to result, at least in part, from circadian changes in secretion/reabsorption capacities of the distal nephron and collecting ducts. Here, we studied the molecular mechanisms underlying circadian rhythms in the distal nephron segments, i.e., distal convoluted tubule (DCT) and connecting tubule (CNT) and the cortical collecting duct (CCD). Temporal expression analysis performed on microdissected mouse DCT/CNT or CCD revealed a marked circadian rhythmicity in the expression of a large number of genes crucially involved in various homeostatic functions of the kidney. This analysis also revealed that both DCT/CNT and CCD possess an intrinsic circadian timing system characterized by robust oscillations in the expression of circadian core clock genes (*clock*, *bma11*, *npas2*, *per*, *cry*, *nr1d1*) and clock-controlled Par bZip transcriptional factors *dbp*, *hlf*, and *tef*. The *clock* knockout mice or mice devoid of *dbp/hlf/tef* (triple knockout) exhibit significant changes in renal expression of several key regulators of water or sodium balance (vasopressin V2 receptor, aquaporin-2, aquaporin-4, α ENaC). Functionally, the loss of *clock* leads to a complex phenotype characterized by partial diabetes insipidus, dysregulation of sodium excretion rhythms, and a significant decrease in blood pressure. Collectively, this study uncovers a major role of molecular clock in renal function.

circadian rhythm | homeostasis | renal function

Recent evidence suggests that many if not all specific physiological functions are under the control of the circadian timing system. The mammalian circadian timing system is a hierarchically organized network of molecular oscillators driven by a central pacemaker located in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) of hypothalamus. This central pacemaker functions in a self-sustained fashion, but is reset each day by exposure to environmental synchronizers, mainly the light/dark cycle. The SCN masterclock drives the rest-activity cycle, which in turn imposes the feeding pattern [reviewed in (1, 2)]. The feeding time seems to be the dominant cue for circadian rhythms in the peripheral tissues (3, 4). Central and peripheral oscillators share a similar molecular core clock based on a set of self-autonomous transcriptional/translational feedback loops. The key molecular components of these loops are the PAS domain transcriptional factors CLOCK, BMAL1, and NPAS2 and the feedback repressors PER1, PER2, CRY1, and CRY2. The orphan nuclear receptors NR1D1 and, probably, NR1D2 form an accessory feedback loop. The core oscillators confer circadian rhythmicity on a set of output genes underlying the tissue-specific functional rhythms. Current estimates indicate that up to 10% of the cellular transcriptome may follow a circadian expression pattern (5–7). Several recent studies have also demonstrated that the transcription of only a minority of these circadian genes is driven by systemic humoral or neuronal circadian signals, whereas the vast majority of them (more than 90%) is dependent on self-autonomous local circadian oscillators (8, 9). This self-autonomous circadian transcription activity is thought to be the main molecular mechanism allowing peripheral tissues to

anticipate upcoming circadian environmental challenges (activity, feeding, etc).

The most obvious manifestation of circadian rhythmicity of renal function is a well-marked difference in the volume of urine formation/excretion between the day and the night. The urinary excretion of all major solutes (Na^+ , K^+ , Cl^- , urea, PO_4^- , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+}) also follows a circadian oscillating pattern. Although, renal excretion rhythms are apparently synchronized with circadian rhythms of activity/feeding, they have been shown to persist over long periods of time under experimental conditions in which external factors such as dietary intake, posture, or sleep were kept constant or were manipulated in a noncircadian manner (10–16). These results have indicated that in addition to the external circadian stimuli (hormones, food, food metabolites) these functional rhythms are also controlled by a self-sustained intrinsic renal clock. Dysfunction of renal excretory rhythms has been proposed as a possible cause for several serious human diseases. For example, the abnormal rhythm of renal sodium reabsorption is considered as one of the major factors leading to the loss of nocturnal dip in the blood pressure which is characteristic for $\approx 35\%$ of all hypertensive patients (17, 18). This nondipping pattern of blood pressure leads to a significantly increased risk of stroke and end-organ damage. Also, abnormalities in renal calcium or water conservation rhythms have been shown to correlate with development of osteoporosis or nocturnal polyuria, respectively (9, 19–22).

Renal excretory rhythms are driven by circadian changes in both glomerular filtration and tubular reabsorption/secretion (23, 24). Here, we addressed the role of circadian timing system in renal tubular function by studying molecular mechanisms underlying circadian rhythms in mouse distal nephron and collecting ducts. These parts of the renal tubule were chosen because they are responsible for the final adjustment of urine flow and solutes concentration. Our data demonstrate that a large number of genes essential for water and solutes homeostasis follow a well-marked circadian expression pattern. Analysis of renal phenotype in *clock*($-/-$) mice revealed a mild diabetes insipidus, which can be accentuated upon stress condition. The *clock*($-/-$) mice also display a modified pattern of sodium excretion rhythm and a significantly lower blood pressure. Taken together, our study provides evidence for a major role of circadian timing system in renal function.

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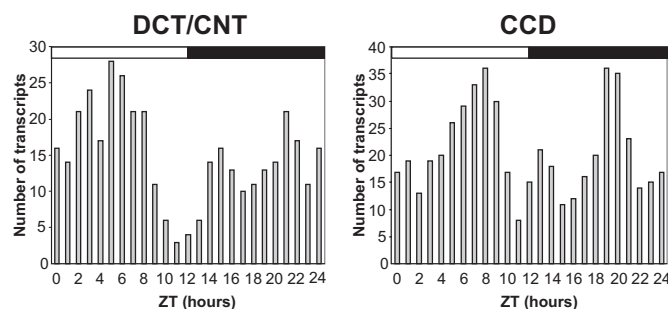


Fig. 2. Temporal distribution of acrophases of transcripts that meet the circadian criteria (fitting to a cosine curve with a period of 24-h, adjusted P value < 0.1 , amplitude > 1.8). See also [Table S6](#) and [Table S7](#).

sis (Vdr, Slc8a1, and Calb28k), iron metabolism (Tfrc and Slc40a1), and organic solute transporters involved in maintaining cell volume (Slc6a9 and Slc6a6). Several examples of transcripts exhibiting circadian expression profiles either in both DCT/CNT and CCD or, only in DCT/CNT or CCD are shown in Fig. 3 *A*, *B*, and *C*, respectively. For transcripts exhibiting circadian expression in both DCT/CNT and CCD, the circadian expression profile was invariably confirmed by qPCR performed on the whole-kidney RNA samples (Fig. 3*A*).

Analysis of circadian transcripts has shown that genes involved in the positive or negative limbs of the circadian clock feedback loop (core clock genes) as well as the clock-controlled Par bZip transcriptional factors (Dbp, Hlf, Tef) exhibit robust circadian expression rhythms in both DCT/CNT and CCD (Fig. S1 A, B, and C, respectively). For example, the amplitude of Dbp RNA oscillation is over 20-fold in DCT/CNT and over 19-fold in CCD. To assess the putative relationship between expression of core clock transcriptional factors or Par bZips on the one hand and circadian output genes on the other hand, we analyzed the expression profiles of several circadian output genes in kidneys of *clock* knockout mice or mice devoid of *dbp/hlf/tef* (triple knockout) (27, 28). As estimated by Gachon et al., the DBP/HLF/TEF-dependent genes are expected to show their acrophases in a time-window between ZT12 and ZT16 (28). Accordingly, we tested expression of several genes that meet the criteria in kidneys of *dbp/hlf/tef* triple knockout mice. As shown in Fig. 4A, all tested genes (Gilz, Usp2, Ak4, and Mapre2) show a significantly reduced expression in kidneys of the triple knockouts. Several other circadian transcripts were tested on RNA extracted at ZT2 or ZT12 from kidneys of wild-type or *clock*($-/-$) mice. As shown in Fig. 4B, genes involved in vasopressin signaling pathway (V2R and V1aR) or in water transport across cellular membranes (aqp-2 and aqp-4) exhibit significant changes in expression at one out of two tested Zeitgeber time points. Interestingly, the expression of V1aR (ZT12) and aqp-4 (ZT2) was increased and not decreased in *clock*($-/-$) mice, indicating an indirect regulation of V1aR and aqp-4 RNA expression by the CLOCK via a *clock*-controlled transcriptional repressor. The expression levels of Usp2 and Mapre2 RNA were significantly lower in *clock*($-/-$) mice (ZT12), whereas the difference in Gilz and Tfrs RNA levels did not reach statistical significance. The lack of Dbp RNA expression in *clock*($-/-$) mice demonstrates that Par bZips expression in the kidney is controlled by the CLOCK.

Renal Function in *clock(-/-)* Mice. To assess the role of circadian timing system in the kidney, we examined the renal phenotype of *clock(-/-)* mice. Collection of spot urine and plasma samples was performed at ZT2 and ZT12 from mice maintained on a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle and ad libitum access to food and water (same conditions as those used in microarray and qPCR experiments). As shown in Table 1, the *clock(-/-)* mice exhibit a significantly decreased urine osmolality at ZT12 and a significantly increased

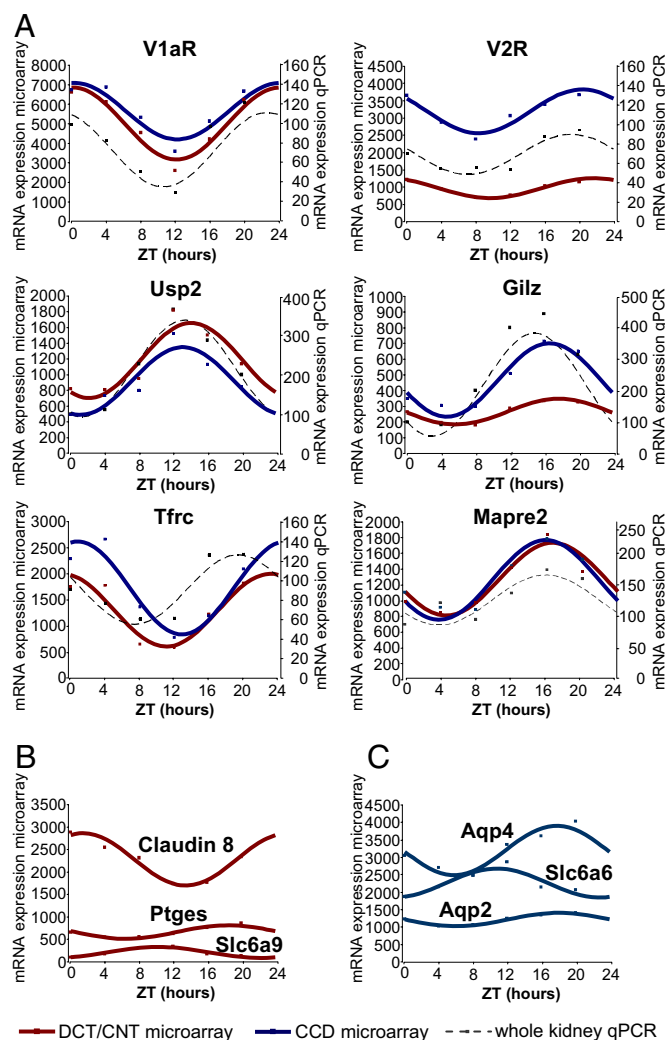
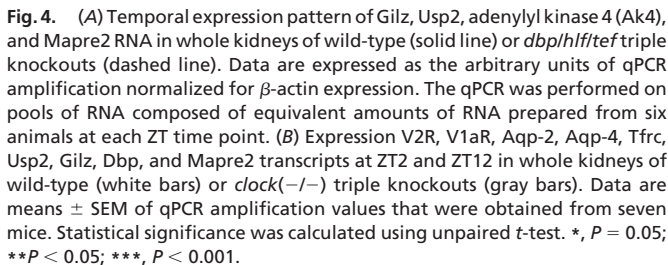


Fig. 3. Temporal expression profiles of circadian transcripts. (A) Transcripts that meet the circadian criteria in both DCT/CNT and CCD. The red and blue squares show the expression values (arbitrary units of microarray hybridization data) of DCT/CNT and CCD circadian transcripts, respectively. The red and blue solid lines show fitting of the microarray data to the cosine function. The black squares show the qPCR expression values (ZT0 = 100%) of these transcripts in the whole kidney RNA samples. The black dashed line shows fitting of qPCR data to the cosinor function. The qPCR was performed on pools of RNA composed of equivalent amounts of RNA prepared from five animals at each ZT time point. The qPCR data are expressed as arbitrary units normalized for β -actin expression. (B) Transcripts that meet the circadian criteria only in CCD. (C) Transcripts that meet the circadian criteria only in DCT/CNT. Abbreviations used are: V1aR, vasopressin receptor Type 1a; V2R, vasopressin receptor Type 2; Usp2, ubiquitin specific protease 2; Gilz (Tsc22d3), glucocorticoid-induced leucine zipper; Tfrc, transferrin receptor; Mapre2, microtubule-associated protein; Ptges, prostaglandin E synthase; Slc6a9, glycine transporter; Slc6a6, taurine transporter; aqp2, aquaporin 2; aqp4, aquaporin 4.

plasma osmolality and hematocrit at ZT12 and ZT2, respectively. In parallel, the knockout mice display an increase in water intake during the active phase (ZT12–ZT24) but a similar to wild-type mice pattern of general motion activity (Figs. S2 A, B, and C, respectively). Interestingly, when placed in the metabolic cages, a known stressful condition for mice, the capacity of urine concentration in *clock(-/-)* mice was further impaired (Table 1).

The *clock(-/-)* mice exhibit a significant difference in the fractional excretion of sodium (FE Na) between ZT2 and ZT12 (Table 1). The ratio between FE Na at ZT2 and ZT12 reaches ≈ 2.6



Because, renal sodium handling plays a major role in blood pressure control, we measured blood pressure parameters in conscious unrestrained mice using telemetry. As shown in Fig. 5, both wild-type and *clock*($-/-$) mice exhibit a typical 24-h profile of blood pressure characterized by a dip in systolic and diastolic components during the inactive phase. However, the average mean arterial pressure and mean systolic blood pressure were significantly lower in *clock*($-/-$) mice than in wild-type mice (24-h average mean arterial pressure: 90.3 ± 6.3 mm Hg vs. 99.4 ± 2.9 mm Hg, respectively, $P < 0.5$, $n = 5$; 24-h mean systolic blood pressure: 101.2 ± 5.8 mm Hg vs. 111.6 ± 5.6 mm Hg, respectively, $P < 0.5$, $n = 5$). The difference in the mean diastolic blood pressure did not reach statistical significance (79.8 ± 6.6 mm Hg vs. 87.1 ± 5.4 mm Hg, respectively, $P = 0.11$, $n = 5$).

Temporal Expression Profiling of DCT/CNT and CCD Transcriptomes.

Our study demonstrates that circadian rhythmicity of renal function correlates with significant changes in expression levels of a large number of DCT/CNT and CCD transcripts. Interestingly, the majority of differentially expressed transcripts from two functional gene families, namely solute carriers (SLC) and enzymes involved in phase I and phase II reactions of metabolism of xenobiotics and other lipophilic compounds, exhibit their maximal expression at ZT12, the time of onset of activity/feeding phase in mice. These results indicate that expression levels of solute carriers and phase I/phase II enzymes are adjusted in anticipation of “programmed” increase in renal load by food components and, concomitantly, by xenobiotics. Because solute carriers are involved in the bulk of organic compounds and ion transport processes, this anticipative mechanism may be of a special functional importance in the kidney. Circadian oscillation in expression of phase I/phase II enzymes has been previously shown in the liver, intestine, and the whole kidney (28). In the kidney, the xenobiotics detoxification is usually attributed to the proximal tubule. However, extensive water removal along the renal tubule may result in a high concentration of xenobiotics and their metabolites in the lumen of the distal nephron and collecting ducts. Thus, the anticipative changes in expression of detoxification enzymes may be beneficial for the protection of DCT/CNT and CCD cells themselves, as well as for the general process of xenobiotics elimination.

Molecular Clock in the Kidney. The changes in secretion/reabsorption capacities of the distal nephron and collecting ducts are traditionally regarded as a result of changes in hormonal secretion. These latter, in turn, are usually considered as the direct consequences of changes in plasma volume or its composition. Our results demon-

Methods

Animals. Male C57BL/6J male mice (Janvier) weighing 25–30 g were used in the microarray experiments. A colony of *clock*($-/-$) mice (C57BL/6J background) was established from breeding pairs of *clock*($+/-$) heterozygous mice originally described by Debruyne et al. (27). The animals were maintained on the standard laboratory chow diet and adapted to 12-h light/12-h dark cycle for 2 weeks before experiments.

Microdissection. Microdissection of DCT/CNT or CCD was performed from collagenase-treated kidneys as described previously (32).

Microarray. RNA from microdissected DCT/CNT or CCD was isolated and purified with RNA clean up purification kits from Qiagen. All RNA quantities were assessed by NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer, and the quality of RNA was controlled on Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer chips. For each sample, 10 ng total RNA were amplified and labeled using the WT-Ovation Pico RNA Amplification System V1, (catalog # 3300–12; NuGen) and labeling with FL-Ovation cDNA Biotin Module V2 (catalog #4200–12; NuGen). Affymetrix Gene Chip Mouse Genome 430 2.0 arrays were hybridized to 5 μ g labeled, amplified cDNA, washed, stained, and scanned according to the protocol described in the GeneChip Expression analysis manual (Fluidics protocol EukGeWS2v4.450; Affymetrix).

Data Analysis. All statistical analysis were performed using the free high-level interpreted statistical language R (R Core, 2004; <http://www.R-project.org>) and various Bioconductor packages (<http://www.Bioconductor.org>). Hybridization quality was assessed using Bioconductor “affy” and “affyPLM” packages (33, 34). Log2 normalized expression signals were calculated from Affymetrix CEL files using RMA algorithm (35). Circadian genes were then identified using linear models with a pair of cosine and sine functions as the explanatory variable, with the frequency corresponding to 24-h periodicity as described previously (36). The F-ratio test statistics were converted to P values with the appropriate degrees of freedom. P values were adjusted for multiple testing with Benjamini and Hochberg’s method to control the false discovery rate (FDR) (37). For each time point, log2 normalized expression values of the two replicates were averaged (Ave-Expr), and the amplitude was calculated as the difference between the minimum and the maximum AveExpr.

Analysis of Acrophase Distribution in Different Functional Gene Categories. The analysis of acrophase distribution was performed using Gene Ontology (GO) annotation on the following gene categories: G protein-coupled receptors; heterotrimeric G proteins; nucleotide cyclases; cyclic-nucleotide phosphodiesterases; serine/threonine kinases; nonreceptor tyrosine kinases; tyrosine kinase receptors; serine/threonine phosphatases; tyrosine phosphatases; dual specificity phosphatases; A kinase anchor proteins; phospholipases; Rab small GTP-binding proteins; Arf small GTP-binding proteins; Rho small GTP-binding proteins; Ras and Ras-related small GTP-binding proteins; SNARE and SNARE-related proteins; coat proteins and clathrin adaptors; actin and actin binding proteins; myosin and myosin-like proteins; microtubule and microtubule-related proteins; intermediate filaments and related proteins; water channels; ion channels and transporters excluding SLC proteins; solute carrier proteins; transcriptional factors; xenobiotics metabolism enzymes (phases I and II).

Metabolic Cages. The 24-h urine samples were collected in individual metabolic cages (Tecniplast). Urine and plasma osmolality as well as ionic composition were analyzed in the Laboratoire Central de Chimie Clinique, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudoise (CHUV) University Hospital (Lausanne, Switzerland).

Characterization of Circadian Drinking and Activity Patterns in wt and *clock*($-/-$) Mice. The drinking and activity patterns were characterized using Mouse-E-Motion system (Infra-E-Motion GmbH). This system allows simultaneous online measurements in unstressed conditions of water intake and general motion activity in mice housed in their familiar home cages.

Blood Pressure Measurements. Blood pressure was measured in conscious unrestrained mice using Data Science International (DSI) telemetry system. Mice were allowed to recover for at least 1 week after the implantation of telemetry device before starting the blood pressure recording.

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