

Déterminants et impact de l'inflammation postopératoire sur les complications survenant après une chirurgie cardiaque sous circulation extracorporelle

Sandro Ninni

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UNIVERSITE LILLE FACULTE DE MEDECINE HENRI WAREMBOURG

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THESE D'UNIVERSITE

Déterminants et impact de l'inflammation postopératoire sur les complications survenant après une chirurgie cardiaque sous circulation extracorporelle.

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Par Sandro NINNI

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A mes juges,

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Professeure des Universités -Praticien Hospitalier

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| AIM2 : absent in melanoma 2 |
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| ASXL1 : ASXL Transcriptional Regulator 1 |
| CARD9 : protéine 9 contenant le domaine de recrutement des caspases |
| CCL2 : CC-chimiokine ligand 2 |
| CEC : Circulation extracorporelle |
| CHIP : Clonal hematopoiesis of Indeterminate Potential |
| CLR : Récepteurs de lectine de type C |
| CMH : Complexe Majeur d'Histocompatibilité |
| CPKMB : Creatin Kinase MB |
| CRP : C-réactive Protein |
| CSH : Cellule souche hématopoïétique |
| CX3CR1 : CX3C-chimiokine récepteur 1 |
| DAMP : Damage Associated Molecular Pattern |
| DC: cellules dendritques |
| DNGR1 : dendritic cell natural killer lectin group receptor 1 |
| DNMT3A : DNA methyl-transferase 3 |
| PAMP : Pathogen-associated molecular pattern |
| FA : Fibrillation atriale |
| FAPO : Fibrillation atriale Post Opératoire |
| FEVG : Fraction d'éjection ventriculaire gauche |
| HMGB1 : high-mobility group box 1 protein |
| HSP: protéines de choc thermique |
| IDM : Infarctus du myocarde |
| IKK : I kinB kinase |
| IFN-I : Interféron de type I |
| IFN-γ : Interferon gamma |
| IL-1β : Interleukin 1- béta |
| IL-4 : Interleukin 4 |
| IL-10 : Interleukin 10 |
| IL-6 : Interleukin 6 |
| IRAPO : Insuffisance rénale Post Opératoire |
| IRF3 : facteur de transcription IFN régulateur facteur 3 |
| |

JAK2 : Janus Kinase 2

MAPK : protéines kinases activées par les mitogènes

MALT1 : tissu lymphoïde associé à la muqueuse 1

MDA5 : protéine 5 associée à la différenciation du mélanome

MINCLE : lectine de type C inductible par les macrophages

MMP9 : Matrix metalloproteinase 9

MyD88 : protéines d'adaptation à la différenciation myéloïde primaire 88

NF- κ B : Nuclear Factor κ B

NK : Cellules Natural Killer

NSC : Noyau supra chiasmatique

PER1 : Protéine circadienne 1

ROS: Espèces réactives de l'oxygène

RIG-I : gène inductible par l'acide rétinoïque I

SF3B1 : Splicing factor 3B subunit 1

STS : Society of Thoracic Surgeons

SYK : spleen tyrosine kinase

TBK1 : kinase de liaison TANK 1

TCR : Récepteur des lymphocytes T

TET2 : Ten-eleven-translocation 2

TF : Facteur tissulaire

 $TGF-\beta$: Transforming growth factor beta

TLR : Toll Like Receptor

TNFα: Tumor Necrosis Factor Alpha

TP53 : Tumor protein 53

TRIF : Domaine TIR induisant l'IFNß

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RESUME (en Français)

Introduction :

La chirurgie cardiaque induit une réponse inflammatoire aseptique mettant en jeu l'immunité innée. L'amplitude de cette réponse inflammatoire est associée à la survenue de complications postopératoire impactant la morbi-mortalité. Actuellement les déterminants de cette réponse inflammatoire sont inconnus. L'objectif de ce travail était d'évaluer l'impact de l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire sur la survenue de complications et ses déterminants en explorant 2 acteurs potentiels : l'hématopoïèse clonale et le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie.

Méthodes et résultats :

Dans une première cohorte de plus de 500 patients (cohorte POMI AF NCT#03376165), nous avons pu observer une grande variabilité de réponse inflammatoire postopératoire évaluée par le pic de CRP dans les 72 premières heures. L'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire était associée à la survenue de fibrillation atriale postopératoire (FAPO) et d'insuffisance rénale post opératoire (IRAPO) mais pas à la survenue d'infarctus post opératoire. Les seuls déterminants cliniques associés à l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire étaient l'indice de masse corporelle (IMC) et la durée de circulation extracorporelle avec une force d'association toutefois faible. Le lien entre hématopoïèse clonale et suites opératoires a été explorés sur une cohorte de plus de 100 patients pour lesquels un séquençage de la fraction leucocytaire a été réalisé. Plus de 60% des patients étaient porteurs d'une mutation délétère au sein de gènes précédemment impliqués dans la survenue d'hémopathies avec une fréquence allélique des variants (VAF) > 1%. Les gènes les plus mutés étaient DNMT3A et TET-2. La présence d'une mutation clonale était associée à un état d'activation monocytaire accru préalable à la chirurgie sur la base d'analyse transcriptomique par RNA-seq sur monocytes classiques triés. Les patients porteurs de mutations clonales présentaient également un enrichissement myocardique en macrophages dérivés des monocytes aux propriétés pro inflammatoire. Les patients porteurs de mutations clonales présentaient également une réponse inflammatoire postopératoire plus importante et la survenue plus fréquente de complications postopératoires et notamment de fibrillation atriale postopératoire.

Le moment de la journée où été réalisée la chirurgie n'était pas associé au pic de CRP postopératoire. Toutefois, nous avons pu observer qu'une chirurgie réalisée le matin était associé à un surrisque d'infarctus postopératoire et à une incidence accrue d'insuffisance cardiaque au long cours. Une analyse transcriptomique du myocarde a permis de mettre en

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évidence une variation de l'expression de récepteur nucléaire Rev-erb α entre le matin et l'après-midi. La modulation de ce récepteur sur un modèle murin d'infarctus du myocarde avait un effet cardioprotecteur en réduisant la taille d'infarctus. Le moment de la journée n'était par ailleurs pas associé à la survenue de fibrillation atriale postopératoire ou d'insuffisance rénale postopératoire.

Conclusion :

L'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire est associée à la survenue d'insuffisance rénale postopératoire et de fibrillation atriale postopératoire mais pas à la survenue d'infarctus postopératoire. Cette réponse inflammatoire postopératoire est hautement variable avec une faible valeur prédictive des variables cliniques classiques. Dans la population de patients hospitalisés pour remplacement valvulaire aortique, la présence d'une hématopoïèse clonale est fréquente et est fortement associée à l'amplitude de réponse inflammatoire. Cette réponse inflammatoire accentuée est probablement secondaire à un état d'activation monocytaire accru, préalable à la chirurgie. Le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie n'est pas associé à l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire mais est associé à la lésion ischémique myocardique induite par la chirurgie et à un impact sur le risque d'insuffisance cardiaque au long cours. Le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie n'a, par ailleurs pas d'impact sur la survenue de fibrillation atriale postopératoire et d'insuffisance rénale postopératoire.

RESUME (en Anglais)

Introduction: Cardiac surgery triggers aseptic inflammatory responses involving innate immunity. The magnitude of this inflammatory response is associated with the occurrence of postoperative complications and subsequent morbidity and mortality. The determinants of this inflammatory response are largely unknown. The objective of this work was to assess the impact of the postoperative inflammatory response magnitude on the occurrence of complications and its determinants with a special focus placed on 2 potential key actors: clonal hematopoiesis and the time of day surgery.

Methods and results: In a first cohort of 500 patients (POMI AF NCT#03376165 cohort), we observed a great variability of the postoperative inflammatory response assessed by the plasma CRP peak within the first 72 hours following surgery. The magnitude of the inflammatory response was associated with the occurrence of postoperative atrial fibrillation (POAF) and acute kidney injury (AKI) but not with the occurrence of postoperative myocardial infarction (MI). The only clinical determinants associated with the magnitude of the inflammatory response were body mass index (BMI) and cardiopulmonary bypass duration with low strength of association. The link between clonal hematopoiesis (CH) and operative consequences has been explored in a cohort of more than 100 patients for whom a deep DNA sequencing of the peripheral blood leukocyte fraction has been performed. More than 60% of patients carried a deleterious mutation in genes previously involved in hematological malignancies with a variant allelic frequency (VAF)> 1%. The most mutated genes were DNMT3A and TET-2. The presence of a clonal mutation was associated with an increased monocytic activation state prior to surgery based on RNA-seq transcriptomic analysis in sorted classical monocytes. Patients carrying clonal mutations also exhibited myocardial enrichment in monocytes derived macrophages displaying pro-inflammatory properties. Patients with clonal mutations also exhibited a greater postoperative inflammatory response and the more frequent occurrence of postoperative complications, including postoperative atrial fibrillation. The time of day the surgery was performed was not associated with the postoperative peak in CRP. However, we were able to observe that surgery performed in the morning was associated with increased risk of postoperative infarction and an increased incidence of long-term heart failure. A transcriptomic analysis of the myocardium revealed a variation in the expression of the Rev-erb α nuclear receptor between morning and afternoon. Modulation of this receptor in a mouse model of myocardial infarction had a cardioprotective effect by reducing the size of the infarction. The time of day

was also not associated with the occurrence of postoperative atrial fibrillation or postoperative renal failure.

Conclusion: The magnitude of the postoperative inflammatory response is associated with the occurrence of postoperative renal failure and postoperative atrial fibrillation but not with the occurrence of postoperative infarction. This postoperative inflammatory response is highly variable with low predictive value for classic clinical variables. The presence of clonal hematopoiesis is strongly associated with the amplitude of the inflammatory response and is likely secondary to a state of increased monocytic activation prior to surgery. The time of day surgery is performed is not associated with the magnitude of the inflammatory response but is associated with surgery-induced ischemic myocardial injury and an impact on the risk of long-term heart failure. The time of day when the surgery is performed also has no impact on the occurrence of postoperative atrial fibrillation and postoperative renal failure.

INTRODUCTION

I. <u>Généralités sur la chirurgie Cardiaque :</u>

i. <u>*Historique de la chirurgie cardiaque*</u>

Les débuts de la chirurgie cardiaque remontent aux années 1800 lorsque le traitement de l'angine de poitrine était alors un point d'intérêt et d'innovation majeur. La ligature des voies nociceptives incriminées dans les douleurs thoraciques et la sympathectomie étaient alors réalisées pour améliorer les symptômes liés à cette pathologie (1). Toutefois, des effets indésirables tels que la survenue d'infarctus du myocarde, d'arythmies ventriculaires et d'insuffisance cardiaques compliquaient fréquemment ces gestes. En conséquence, le développement de méthodes visant à améliorer le flux coronaire est devenu un point essentiel dans le développement de la chirurgie cardiaque contemporaine. Ainsi, en 1903 Thorel proposait un mécanisme d'adhésion péricardique pouvant améliorer la perfusion myocardique (2). Cette approche avait par la suite amené de nombreux chirurgiens à créer leur propre méthode d'adhésion péricardique ou en utilisant certains substrats intra péricardique (2). Peu de temps après, des techniques de collatéralisation du réseau coronaire utilisant des greffons musculaires (3), omentaux (4), et intestinaux (5) étaient utilisés. Ce n'est qu'au milieu des années 1960 que des vaisseaux étaient utilisés pour ponter des lésions coronaires. Vasilii Kolesov a ainsi été le premier à utiliser une artère mammaire interne peu de temps après qu'il ait utilisé en 1973 le premier greffon veineux saphène (6).

Parallèlement à cette évolution des gestes réalisés, le développement de la circulation extracorporelle (Figure 1) a permis de réaliser des interventions de plus en plus complexes en limitant les dommages myocardiques liés à la coupure transitoire du flux coronaire.



Figure 1. Schémas représentatif d'une circulation extracorporelle dans le contexte de la chirurgie cardiaque (Jenni et al. Journal of Thoracic disease 2019 (16)) :

ii. Epidémiologie de la chirurgie cardiaque

Malgré l'avènement des techniques de prise en charge percutanée, les interventions de chirurgie cardiaque restent couramment réalisées dans le monde. Ainsi, en 2016, le registre français EPICARD[®] rapportait 28944 interventions réalisées. Les interventions les plus fréquemment réalisées étaient le pontage aortocoronaire avec 11529 patients et le remplacement valvulaire aortique avec 9721 patients opérés. Le reste des interventions était représenté par la chirurgie valvulaire mitrale, la chirurgie d'aorte ascendante et la chirurgie des malformations congénitales. Parmi ces interventions, 90% sont réalisées sous circulation extracorporelle.

II. Complications post-opératoires:

i. Etat des lieux de la mortalité post opératoire après une chirurgie cardiaque :

Bien que les interventions de chirurgie cardiaques soient courantes, la mortalité intrahospitalière reste non négligeable atteignant 2 à 6% selon le type d'intervention réalisée (7,8). Dans une étude portant sur plus de 18000 patients subissant une chirurgie cardiaque, Mazzeffi et al. ont pu observer une mortalité intra-hospitalière de 3.4% (8). Les auteurs ont par ailleurs pu établir les principales causes de décès qui étaient en relation avec un décès d'origine cardiaque dans 62% des cas, une insuffisance respiratoire dans 11.8%, un sepsis dans 7.7% des cas et de cause neurologique dans 6% des cas. De plus, les auteurs ont observé que la majorité des décès intra-hospitaliers survenaient la 1^{ère} semaine.

Cette étude souligne ainsi une mortalité intra-hospitalière précoce, essentiellement liée à une défaillance cardiocirculatoire postopératoire. Un tel constat ne fait que mettre en avant l'enjeu majeur lié à la prédiction des évènements postopératoires.

Ainsi, différents scores ont été élaborés afin d'évaluer le risque de mortalité peri-opératoire (survenant dans les 30j après l'opération). Les deux scores les plus utilités sont l'Euroscore II élaboré par l'European Association of Cardio-Thoracic Surgery et le STS-Score issu de la base de données de la Society of Thoracic Surgeons (USA) (9–11). Ces scores utilisent des données cliniques simples telles que l'âge, la fonction rénale pré-opératoire, la présence d'un diabète. L'utilisation de ces scores en pratique clinique courante permet d'appréhender le risque opératoire et d'adapter le geste opératoire et la prise en charge globale.

ii. Facteurs per opératoires influençant les suites opératoires :

a. Impact de la circulation extracorporelle (CEC)

Indépendamment du risque lié à la cardiopathie et aux comorbidités préopératoires, la plupart des patients bénéficiant d'une chirurgie sont exposés aux effets secondaires liés à la CEC et à la cardioplégie. En effet, au cours d'une chirurgie cardiaque, la circulation extracorporelle entraine une souffrance myocardique pouvant aboutir à la formation de lésions myocardiques secondaires à une hypoxie tissulaire et à un phénomène d'ischémie-reperfusion (12). Ces lésions sont associées à une altération de la fonction systolique ventriculaire gauche (VG), à la survenue d'insuffisance cardiaque et à une augmentation de la mortalité postopératoire à court, moyen et long-terme. Les mécanismes impliqués dans ces lésions myocardiques péri opératoires sont multiples (13). Le geste chirurgical en lui-même en cas de pontage coronaire avec une manipulation du cœur peut entrainer une hypoxie tissulaire. La CEC entraine également une réponse inflammatoire systémique lié au contact direct des cellules sanguines avec les surfaces du circuit de CEC (Figure 2), aux pertes sanguines et aux transfusions, à l'hypothermie ou au directement au traumatisme chirurgical des artères coronaires. Les éléments de cette réponse inflammatoire sont représentés par une coagulopathie de consommation, la libération de cytokines, de substance vasoactives, d'espèces réactives de l'oxygène et de protéases des systèmes de la coagulation et de la fibrinolyse. Par ailleurs,

l'hypoxie tissulaire peut être aggravée par des micro-embolisations distales dans les artères coronaires (14).

Ainsi Salis et al. ont pu observer sur une cohorte de plus de 5000 patients subissant une chirurgie cardiaque sous circulation extracorporelle une association forte entre la durée de circulation extracorporelle peropératoire et la mortalité postopératoire augmentant de 57% par tranche de 30 minute de CEC supplémentaire (15). Il est à noter que la durée de CEC était également associée de façon indépendante à la survenue de complications rénales, pulmonaires, de saignement postopératoire, et de défaillance multiviscérale.

Figure 2. Activation de la coagulation per opératoire et lien avec la réponse immunologique (Olivencia-Yurvati, Minimized Cardiopulmonary Bypass Techniques and Technologies 2012):



b. Impact du type de chirurgie :

Les interventions réalisées en chirurgies cardiaques recoupent un large panel d'indications différentes allant de la chirurgie programmée pour un pontage aortocoronaire à la chirurgie urgente de l'aorte ascendante en rapport avec une dissection aortique.

La complexité du geste opératoire est donc variable et aboutit à des durées de chirurgies et des suites opératoires différentes. Ainsi, une chirurgie cardiaque réalisée en urgence sera associée

à une mortalité péri-opératoire accrue. De même, une chirurgie sur l'aorte ascendante sera plus complexe et associée à une mortalité post-opératoire accrue.

iii. <u>Principales complications post-opératoires et intrications avec la mortalité post-</u> <u>opératoire :</u>

a. Principales complications post-opératoires :

L'appréhension des suites opératoires immédiates suivant une chirurgie cardiaque représente un enjeu majeur pour le clinicien et résulte d'une dynamique complexe à appréhender, intégrant les comorbidités préopératoires, la complexité et la durée de la chirurgie. Le degré de souffrance myocardique résultant de la chirurgie peut ainsi aboutir à la survenu de complications post-opératoires associées à une surmortalité à court et long terme.

Les complications les plus fréquentes suivant une chirurgie cardiaque sont représentées par l'infarctus du myocarde post-opératoire, l'insuffisance rénale post opératoire et la fibrillation atriale post-opératoire (13).

b. Infarctus du myocarde péri-opératoire (ou infarctus de type V) :

Classiquement, l'ischémie myocardique est une conséquence de l'athérosclérose coronarienne et survient lorsque le flux sanguin coronaire est réduit par une obstruction physique d'un vaisseau coronaire ou par une redistribution délétère du flux sanguin en dehors d'un territoire vasculaire coronaire donné. L'infarctus du myocarde est la lésion irréversible qui résulte d'une ischémie myocardique sévère et prolongée et survient généralement à la suite de la rupture ou de l'érosion d'une plaque de l'artère coronaire épicardique, qui initie une thrombose superposée et une occlusion de l'artère coronaire. En variante, un infarctus du myocarde peut survenir en présence d'athérosclérose coronarienne lorsque l'hémodynamique défavorable redistribue le flux sanguin à l'écart d'une région myocardique alimentée par une artère coronaire sténosée. Le seul moyen de sauver le myocarde ischémique d'un infarctus du myocarde est la reperfusion en temps opportun (17).

Au cours de la chirurgie cardiaque, un certain degré d'ischémie myocardique est imposé au cœur du fait de la circulation extracorporelle qui a pour conséquence une réduction importante de l'apport en oxygène au myocarde. Une ischémie prolongée dans ces conditions aboutit à l'apparition de lésions myocardiques.

L'infarctus du myocarde est irréversible et est la conséquence caractéristique d'une ischémie myocardique soutenue avec ou sans reperfusion. L'augmentation de la durée de l'ischémie

provoque des lésions irréversibles progressives. Morphologiquement, cette lésion irréversible est caractérisée par une déplétion du glycogène, une margination de la chromatine dans le noyau, un gonflement mitochondrial et des ruptures de sarcolemmes (18,19).

La reperfusion myocardique accentue ces changements et induit l'apparition de bandes de contraction myofibrillaire. Ainsi, dans le passé, la question du bénéfice de la reperfusion a été vivement débattue. Depuis 2003, de nombreuses études ont démontré que les lésions de reperfusions étaient également irréversibles et contribuaient de façon importante à l'étendue de l'infarctus du myocarde (20).

Sur le plan physiopathologique la nécrose des cardiomyocytes pendant l'ischémie est à l'origine d'une acidose et d'une surcharge de Ca2+ intra cytosolique (causée par l'activation de l'échangeur Na+/Ca2+ qui résulte de la surcharge de Na + secondaire à l'activation de l'échangeur Na+/H+) (21,22). L'augmentation du taux cytosolique de Ca2 + active les phospholipases et la formation accrue d'espèces réactives de l'oxygène (ROS) à partir de mitochondries dysfonctionnelles induisant des dommages oxydatifs aux protéines, aux lipides et à l'ADN (23).

La reperfusion est associée à une accélération de la formation de ROS et à une activité protéolytique accrue de la calpaïne, qui digère les protéines du cytosquelette et du sarcolemme (24). Celle-ci intensifie la survenue de lésions mitochondriales (par l'ouverture du pore de transition) et du sarcolemme et est à l'origine d'une infiltration précoce de leucocytes.

A ce titre, de nombreuses stratégies visant à réduire l'étendue des lésions de reperfusions ont été développées avec un impact clinique limité toutefois à ce jour.

L'infarctus périopératoire peut être détecté en mesurant les biomarqueurs sériques de nécrose myocardique comme la créatine kinase MB (CPK-MB) ou la troponine T ou I. Le diagnostic d'infarctus du myocarde (IDM) péri opératoire ou IDM de type V, est défini par une augmentation de ces biomarqueurs à plus de 5 fois le 99^{ème} percentile de la valeur normale pendant les 72h après la chirurgie associée avec l'apparition d'une onde Q ou d'un bloc de branche gauche de novo ou la mise en évidence d'une perte de myocarde viable en imagerie (25).

Une élévation postopératoire de troponine plasmatique est fréquemment observée après une chirurgie cardiaque. Toutefois, de nombreuses études ont permis d'établir une relation entre troponine post-opératoire et complication à court et moyen terme après la chirurgie. Ainsi, Nesher et al. ont pu observer sur une cohorte de plus de 1900 patients une association

marquées entre troponine postopératoire et complications cliniques (26). Une élévation de troponine T au-delà de 0.8µg/l était ainsi associée à un surrisque de décès et de défaillance circulatoire.

Bien que les déterminants de l'élévation de troponine postopératoire et de l'infarctus de type V soient essentiellement dépendant du temps d'ischémie myocardique, de nombreuses études ont suggéré d'autres facteurs biologiques pouvant influencer l'élévation de troponine postopératoire.

Figure 3 : évolution de la taille des lésions myocardiques selon les conditions de perfusion myocardiques (Heusch. Nature review Cardiology 2020 (27)):



c. Insuffisance rénale post-opératoire :

L'insuffisance rénale post opératoire (IRAPO) se définit par une altération rapide de la fonction rénale, caractérisée par une augmentation de la créatinine sérique ou une diminution du débit urinaire. L'incidence de l'IRAPO associée à la chirurgie cardiaque varie de 5% à 42% selon les études (28). L'IRAPO est la deuxième cause d'insuffisance rénale aiguë la plus fréquente aux soins intensifs (après le sepsis) et est indépendamment associée à une morbidité et une mortalité accrue (29). Ainsi, l'IRAPO sévère est indépendamment associé à une mortalité périopératoire 3 à 8 fois plus élevée, à une durée de séjour prolongée en unité de soins intensifs et à l'hôpital, et à une augmentation du coût des soins (30). Le risque de décès

associé à l'IRAPO reste élevé pendant 10 ans après une chirurgie cardiaque, indépendamment des autres facteurs de risque, même pour les patients ayant récupéré une fonction rénale normale (28,31).

Plusieurs définitions ont été proposées afin de détecter l'IRAPO. Toutefois, l'une des définitions les plus utilisée repose sur la classification « Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes » (KDIGO) et intègre la variation de la créatinine sérique post opératoire par rapport à la créatinine pré opératoire (32).

La physiopathologie supposée de l'IRAPO repose sur l'hypoperfusion rénale, l'ischémiereperfusion, l'activation neuro-humorale, l'inflammation, le stress oxydatif, les néphrotoxines et les facteurs mécaniques induits par la chirurgie (33).

Ainsi, l'activation du complément via la voie alternative lors de l'exposition à la CEC peut contribuer au développement de l'IRAPO après une chirurgie cardiaque comme l'ont suggéré des études corrélant une augmentation des concentrations plasmatiques de cytokines inflammatoires en postopératoire et l'incidence de l'IRAPO (34,35).

La production de radicaux libres et la libération de fer catalytique lors de l'hémolyse résultant de la CEC sont également associées à une lésion myocardique et à une IRAPO dans un certain nombre d'études animales.

Ce stress oxydatif et inflammatoire peut également être exacerbé par l'ischémie-reperfusion durant la CEC, entraînant une augmentation du fer labile en circulation libre pouvant à son tour induire de multiples changements dans les cellules épithéliales tubulaires rénales, telles qu'une prolifération cellulaire altérée et l'induction de la peroxydation lipidique et de l'oxydation des protéines (36).

Figure 4. Facteurs étiologiques favorisant la survenue d'une insuffisance rénale aigue postopératoire (Wang et Bellomo, Nature Review Nephrology 2017 (33)) :



CSA-AKI : Cardiac surgery-associated acute kidney injury ; CPB : cardiopulmonary bypass ; RAAS : renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system

Sur le plan clinique, les facteurs de risque préopératoires les plus décrits favorisant la survenue de l'IRAPO comprennent le sexe féminin, l'âge avancé, la présence d'une maladie rénale chronique préexistante, une chirurgie cardiaque antérieure, une bronchopathie chronique obstructive, le diabète, l'hypertension, l'hypercholestérolémie, l'insuffisance cardiaque congestive et une fraction d'éjection ventriculaire gauche inférieure à 35% et l'obésité (37).

Le type de chirurgie cardiaque a également été incriminé dans la survenue de l'IRAPO. Ainsi, dans un contexte de chirurgie cardiaque complexe (telle qu'un remplacement valvulaire, une réparation valvulaire, une chirurgie combinée valvulaire et coronaire, une reprise chirurgicale et une chirurgie de l'arc aortique) la survenue d'IRAPO sévère nécessitant le recours à une dialyse est nettement plus élevé que pour une chirurgie moins complexe (38).

Compte tenu de l'enjeu clinique lié à l'IRAPO, des scores prédicteurs ont été proposés tels que le Cleveland Clinic Score, le Mehta Score et le Simplified Renal Index (SRI) score (39–41).

Bien qu'il s'agisse d'une complication fréquente après la chirurgie cardiaque, il n'existe pour l'heure pas de prise en charge codifiée et la réduction du risque de survenue d'IRAPO repose

sur l'évaluation du risque préopératoire, l'optimisation de la volémie circulante et la réduction d'administration de drogues néphrotoxiques.

Enfin, malgré le lien physiopathologique potentiellement fort entre inflammation postopératoire et IRAPO, aucune stratégie thérapeutique anti inflammatoire n'a jusqu'ici été évaluée dans cette indication.

d. Fibrillation atriale post-opératoire (FAPO) :

La fibrillation atriale (FA) est le trouble du rythme le plus fréquente dans le monde et est associée à un surrisque de nombreux évènements cliniques tels que l'accident vasculaire cérébral (AVC), les embolies systémiques, la survenue d'insuffisance cardiaque, la survenue de trouble cognitifs et une surmortalité (42). Cette arythmie est caractérisée par une désorganisation de l'influx électrique au sein des oreillettes, devenant anarchique et rapide et se traduit à l'électrocardiogramme par une trémulation de la ligne de base sans activité sinusale visible. De cette activité atriale anarchique résulte une perte de la systole atriale à l'origine d'une stase sanguine intra auriculaire gauche et un risque de formation de thrombus endocavitaire.

Bien que cette arythmie soit la plus fréquente, sa physiopathologie reste partiellement comprise et fait intervenir des phénomènes d'automaticités anormales focales ainsi qu'un remodelage structurel et électrophysiologique du myocarde atrial (43).

La survenue d'une fibrillation atriale (FA) post opératoire survient chez 30% des patients subissant une chirurgie cardiaque (44). Elle se définit par la survenue d'un épisode de FA soutenu de plus de 30 secondes dans les suites opératoires. Cette arythmie survient dans la majorité des cas 48 à 72h après la chirurgie soit au moment du pic inflammatoire post-opératoire (45).

La survenue de cette arythmie est associée à un sur-risque de mortalité, d'AVC ischémique, de récidive de FA au long cours et à une durée d'hospitalisation post-opératoire prolongée à l'origine d'un coût de santé majeur (46).

La physiopathologie de la FAPO est incomplètement comprise à ce jour mais semble résulter de la superposition d'un substrat atrial préexistant ou induit par la chirurgie aboutissant à une susceptibilité accrue à l'arythmie (Figure 5) (47). Ce substrat correspond essentiellement à la présence de fibrose myocardique et d'un remodelage électrophysiologique (remodelage des connexines, surcharge calcique intra cellulaire) préalable à la chirurgie ou induit par celle-ci (48).

Bien que cette arythmie soit fréquente, aucune prise en charge codifiée ne permet une prévention efficace de cet évènement. Par ailleurs, l'évaluation du risque de récidive de FA après un épisode de FAPO n'est pas consensuelle et la nécessité de poursuivre un traitement anticoagulant en prévention du risque thromboembolique après un épisode de FAPO n'est pas codifiée.

Figure 5. Modèle physiopathologique actuel de fibrillation atriale postopératoire (Dobrev et al. Nature Review Cardiology 2019 (47)):



CPB : cardiopulmonary bypass ; ANS :Autonomic nervous system

III. <u>Réponse inflammatoire et complications postopératoires :</u>

a) Activation aseptique de l'immunité innée dans les suites chirurgicales :

Plusieurs études expérimentales et cliniques ont démontré que le traumatisme chirurgical est associé à une activation importante de la réponse immunitaire innée et acquise (49,50). La réponse inflammatoire locale au sein de la plaie chirurgicale observée en période postopératoire immédiate est principalement liée à l'activation de mécanismes immunitaires innés reposant sur un afflux de polynucléaires neutrophiles et de monocytes et la production de cytokines et chimiokines. La réaction inflammatoire postopératoire est ainsi caractérisée par une production massive de cytokines pro-inflammatoires telles que l'interleukine (IL) -1 β , IL-6 et le facteur de nécrose tumorale α (TNF- α). Une production locale de médiateurs pro-

inflammatoires est également initiée pendant cette phase, et peut potentialiser la réponse inflammatoire systémique (50). Cette réponse inflammatoire suivant la chirurgie est considérée comme physiologique. Cependant, si celle-ci est disproportionnée, une défaillance multi-viscérale peut apparaître.

Sur le plan physiopathologique, l'activation de cette réponse innée initiale peut s'expliquer par le relargage de médiateurs endogènes libérés lors de la destruction cellulaire - modèles moléculaires associés aux dommages ou modèles moléculaires associés au danger (Damage Associated Molecular Pattern : DAMPS) également appelés alarmines (51). Les alarmines libérées par les tissus endommagés sont reconnues par les Toll like receptors (TLR) exprimés par les macrophages et les cellules dendritiques. Les alarmines peuvent également être reconnues par les récepteurs intracellulaires NOD (nucleotide oligomerization domain receptors).

La liaison de l'alarmine au récepteur TLR ou NOD active la voie de signalisation conduisant à l'activation du facteur nucléaire kappaB (NF- κ B) et à la transcription de gènes codant pour des cytokines pro-inflammatoires (IL-1, IL-6, TNF- α).

Afin de contrebalancer cette réponse immune initiale, certains mécanismes maintiennent l'homéostasie de la réponse immunitaire. Ainsi de nombreux travaux ont permis d'observer chez des patients opérés une augmentation des cytokines anti-inflammatoires [IL-4, IL-10, sTNFR1, antagoniste des récepteurs de l'IL-1 (IL-1Ra), et TGF- β] dans les suites de la phase inflammatoire initiale (52).

Figure 6. Activation de l'immunité innée dans le contexte aseptique (Gong et al. Nature Review Immunology 2020 (51)):



Divers DAMP peuvent induire l'activation de plusieurs récepteurs de reconnaissance de formes (Pattern recognition receptor : PRR), notamment les récepteurs de type TLR (Figure 6. partie a) et les récepteurs de la lectine de type C (CLR) (Figure 6. partie b), le NLRP3 cytoplasmique (Figure 6. partie c), la GMP-AMP synthase cyclique (cGAS) et la protéine « absent in melanoma 2 » (AIM2) (Figure 6. partie d), le gène inductible par l'acide rétinoïque I (RIG-I) et la protéine 5 associée à la différenciation du mélanome (MDA5)) (Figure 6. partie e).

TLR2 et TLR4 peuvent être activés par de nombreuses protéines intracellulaires (les protéines de choc thermique (HSP), les histones, les high-mobility group box 1 protein (HMGB1), et les composants de la matrice extracellulaire comme l'acide hyaluronique), alors que TLR3, TLR7 et TLR9 sont activés par des acides nucléiques endogènes dans les endosomes. Suite à la

reconnaissance des DAMPs, les TLRs activent la signalisation en aval grâce à des protéines d'adaptation à la différenciation myéloïde primaire 88 (MyD88) et TRIF (adaptateur contenant le domaine TIR induisant l'IFNß).

MyD88 et TRIF recrutent et activent en aval les protéines kinases activées par les mitogènes (MAPK) et la I kinB kinase (IKK), conduisant à la production de cytokines inflammatoires par l'activation des facteurs de transcription AP-1 et du NFκB, respectivement. TRIF recrute et active une autre kinase cellulaire, la kinase de liaison TANK 1 (TBK1), conduisant à la production ultérieure d'interféron de type I (IFN-I) par l'activation du facteur de transcription IFN régulateur facteur 3 (IRF3).

Différents DAMP peuvent être détectés par plusieurs membres des CLR, tel que le « dendritic cell natural killer lectin group receptor 1 » (DNGR1), qui reconnaît la F-actine; la lectine de type C inductible par les macrophages (MINCLE), et la Dectine-1.

L'activation de MINCLE et Dectin-1 peut déclencher le recrutement et la phosphorylation de la « spleen tyrosine kinase » (SYK). La phosphorylation de SYK recrute plusieurs protéines, dont la protéine 9 contenant le domaine de recrutement des caspases (CARD9), BCL10 et le tissu lymphoïde associé à la muqueuse 1 (MALT1), entraînant la formation du CARD9 – BCL10 – MALT1 (CBM) complexe. Ce complexe de signalisation peut activer les voies de signalisation NF- κ B. En plus d'activer NF- κ B, l'activation de SYK initie également la voie MAPK, et les deux voies favorisent la production de cytokines inflammatoires. Contrairement à MINCLE et Dectin-1, la phosphorylation de SYK par l'activation de DNGR-1 ne transmet pas à la signalisation NF- κ B et MAPK, mais régule plutôt la maturation endosomale pour faciliter la présentation croisée de l'antigène dans les CD.

L'inflammasome NLRP3 est activé par diverses molécules endogènes, telles que le β amyloïde (A β), les cristaux de cholestérol, les cristaux d'urate monosodique (MSU), et l'ATP. Plusieurs événements associés à des dommages intracellulaires, y compris la rupture lysosomale, les dommages mitochondriaux et la dispersion de Golgi, ont été suggérés pour initier l'assemblage de l'inflammasome NLRP3. L'activation des inflammasomes NLRP3 peut induire la sécrétion d'IL-1 β et d'IL-18 et déclencher une mort cellulaire pro-inflammatoire.

Des dommages excessifs à l'ADN nucléaire, des mutations de perte de fonction d'enzymes dégradant l'ADN, la destruction de tumeurs et des lésions tissulaires entraînent des fuites d'auto-ADN du phagosome, des mitochondries et du noyau, ce qui active la signalisation cGAS dans le cytoplasme. L'activation de la GMP-AMP cyclique synthase (cGAS) induit la production du second messager cyclique GMP – AMP (cGAMP), qui se lie et active le stimulateur des gènes d'interféron (STING). Lors de l'activation, STING recrute et active

TBK1 et IKK, conduisant à la production ultérieure d'interféron et de cytokines inflammatoires via les facteurs de transcription IRF3 et NF- κ B.

Contrairement au cGAS, l'activation de l'AIM2 initie l'assemblage de l'inflammasome soit dans le noyau soit dans le cytoplasme, en réponse à des dommages à l'ADN nucléaire ou à un auto-ADN internalisé, respectivement. Un masquage inapproprié des auto-ARN conduit à un gain de reconnaissance de l'auto-ARN par les récepteurs RIG-I-like (RLR) RIG-I et MDA5. L'ARN-5'ppp dérivé de l'exosome peut activer la signalisation RIG-I, tandis que les régions endogènes d'ARN double brin (ARNdb), générées par des mutations de perte de fonction d'ADAR1, et les transcriptions de rétrovirus endogène (ERV) déclenchent la signalisation MDA5. L'activation de RIG-I ou MDA5 recrute et active la molécule adaptatrice de la protéine de signalisation antivirale mitochondriale (MAVS). Comme STING, MAVS agit comme un adaptateur pour initier la production d'interféron TBK1-dépendante et IKK-dépendante et de cytokines inflammatoires.

b) <u>Réponse immune cellulaire suivant la chirurgie :</u>

L'initiation d'une réponse immunitaire spécifique nécessite une interaction entre les cellules présentatrices l'antigène (APC) et les lymphocytes T. En plus des cellules immunitaires impliquées dans l'immunité innée, les APC telles que les macrophages et les cellules dendritiques sont recrutées vers les tissus lésés. Les antigènes présents dans les tissus lésés sont absorbés par l'APC et, après modification intracellulaire, sont présentés à la surface de leur cellule au sein d'une molécule du Complexe Majeur d'Histocompatibilité (CMH) afin qu'ils puissent être reconnus par les cellules T CD4⁺ ayant un récepteur de cellule T spécifique (TCR). Selon le type d'antigène et les cytokines interagissant avec les cellules CD4⁺, une différenciation vers un phénotype Th1 ou Th2 est alors possible (53). La présence d'IL-12 détermine la différenciation de la cellule Th0 vers le phénotype Th1, tandis que l'IL-4 favorise la différenciation en Th2. Les cellules Th1 sont caractérisées par une production importante d'interféron γ (IFN- γ) et d'IL-2 favorisant principalement une réponse cellulaire dirigée contre les pathogènes intracellulaires (y compris les virus) et l'élimination des cellules tumorales. Grâce à la production d'IL-4, d'IL-6 et d'IL-10, les cellules Th2 favorisent la réponse immunitaire humorale dirigée contre les pathogènes extracellulaires. À la suite d'un traumatisme chirurgical important chez les patients cancéreux, un déplacement de l'équilibre Th1 / Th2 vers Th2 a été observé sur de précédentes études. Decker et al. ont également démontré une diminution de la sécrétion d'IFN-y et une augmentation de la production d'IL-4 par les cellules mononuclées circulantes du sang périphérique obtenues de patients après

cholécystectomie, suggérant une orientation vers une réponse immunitaire humorale après une intervention chirurgicale mineure (54). Une observation similaire a été faite par Ishikawa et al. dans un contexte de traumatisme chirurgical plus important (résection de cancer gastro-intestinal) où un rapport Th1 / Th2 réduit était observé le deuxième jour postopératoire et ne revenait à la normale qu'au quatorzième jour après la chirurgie (55).

Il a également été observé que chez les patients ayant développé des complications postopératoires, le rapport Th1 / Th2 restait significativement plus longtemps à un niveau plus faible par rapport aux patients sans complications, malgré l'absence de différences le deuxième jour.





Le signal 1 (Figure 7) est le signal spécifique de l'antigène qui est médié par l'activation du récepteur des lymphocytes T (TCR) par les peptides associés au CMH de classe II issus d'agents pathogènes après internalisation via des PRR. Le signal 2 (Figure 7) est le signal costimulateur, principalement médié par le déclenchement de CD28 par CD80 et CD86 qui sont exprimés par les cellules dendritiques (DC) après la fixation aux PRR, tels que les TLR spécialisés dans la reconnaissance des motifs moléculaires associés aux agents pathogènes (Pathogen Associated Molecular Patterns : PAMP) ou des facteurs tissulaires inflammatoires (TF). Le signal 3 est le signal polarisant qui est médié par divers facteurs solubles ou liés à la membrane, tels que l'interleukine-12 (IL-12) et le CC-chimiokine ligand 2 (CCL2), qui favorisent le développement des cellules TH1 ou TH2, respectivement. La nature du signal 3 dépend de l'activation de PRR particuliers par des PAMP ou des TF. Les PAMP et TF de type 1 et de type 2 peuvent être définis comme les éléments amorçant sélectivement les DC pour la production de niveaux élevés de facteurs de polarisation des cellules TH1 ou de polarisation des cellules TH2. Alors que le profil des facteurs de polarisation des lymphocytes T est amorcé par la reconnaissance des PAMP, l'expression optimale de ce profil nécessite souvent une rétro-stimulation par le ligand CD40 (CD40L) exprimé par les lymphocytes T après activation par les signaux 1 et 2.

c) Concept d'immunité entrainée :

Bien que la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire soit reconnue comme un acteur potentiel dans la survenue de complications, aucune donnée ne permet à l'heure actuelle de prédire son amplitude.

Sur le plan physiopathologique, l'amplitude d'une réponse inflammatoire est intimement liée au concept de mémoire immunologique. Cette mémoire immunologique dans les deux types de défense de l'hôte est médiée par différents processus. Lors de l'induction de la mémoire immunitaire adaptative, deux propriétés sont induites simultanément : (i) la spécificité de la réponse, assurée par le réarrangement des gènes de la famille des immunoglobulines et l'expansion clonale; et (ii) l'amplitude et la vitesse de la réponse, médiée par une reprogrammation épigénétique qui module la cinétique de transcription génique. En revanche, les mécanismes impliqués dans les réponses de la mémoire innée dépendent uniquement du remodelage épigénétique, tout en étant dépourvue de spécificité. Il a été proposé que la mémoire immunitaire dans l'immunité innée et adaptative représente un continuum évolutif dans lequel une réponse immunitaire plus robuste a d'abord évolué, médiée par des mécanismes épigénétiques, tandis que la spécificité est apparue plus tard chez les vertébrés par recombinaison génétique.

Le concept d'immunité entraînée décrit la reprogrammation fonctionnelle à long terme des cellules immunitaires innées, qui est provoquée par des agressions exogènes ou endogènes et qui conduit à une réponse altérée face à une deuxième agression après le retour à un état non activé (56). Contrairement aux réponses immunitaires adaptatives, la reprogrammation épigénétique des voies transcriptionnelles - plutôt que la recombinaison génétique - médie l'immunité entraînée. Il a ainsi été prouvé que le phénotype immunologique de l'immunité entraînée dure de 3 mois à 1 an, alors qu'une protection hétérologue contre les infections induites par des vaccins vivants puisse durer jusqu'à 5 ans (57). Cependant l'immunité entraînée est généralement réversible et de plus courte durée que la mémoire immunologique

adaptative classique spécifique à un épitope. Il est à noter que de récentes études ont suggéré des effets transgénérationnels grâce à l'induction d'une immunité entraînée.





Les infections ou les déclencheurs de tissus stériles induisent une inflammation et l'activation des mécanismes effecteurs immunitaires. Concomitamment à une réponse pro-inflammatoire, des mécanismes anti-inflammatoires sont provoqués pour éviter un dépassement de l'inflammation et des lésions tissulaires et pour limiter la réponse inflammatoire dans le temps. L'immunité formée implique une reprogrammation épigénétique et métabolique des cellules immunitaires innées, permettant des réponses ajustées qualitativement et quantitativement des cellules immunitaires innées à une stimulation hétérologue retardée ultérieure. Des réponses immunitaires entraînées mal orientées peuvent contribuer à la progression de pathologies, entraînant un état hyperinflammatoire chronique ou un état persistant de tolérance immunologique, atténuant la réponse inflammatoire de l'hôte pour maintenir l'homéostasie. Cette atténuation prévient les lésions tissulaires et la défaillance des organes, avec le risque ultérieur des infections secondaires et d'autres maladies liées à une diminution de l'activité du système immunitaire.

d) Implication clinique du contrôle de la réponse inflammatoire :

Bien que les déterminants de l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire après une chirurgie cardiaque ne soient actuellement pas connus, des essais cliniques ont cherché à évaluer l'impact de traitement anti inflammatoire sur la survenue des complications postopératoires.

L'utilisation de corticoïdes en péri opératoire de chirurgie cardiaque a ainsi fait l'objet de plus de 50 publications avec des résultats variables selon les études. Toutefois, dans une méta analyse de 2015 portant sur plus de 1400 patients, l'utilisation de corticoïdes n'était pas associée à une réduction de mortalité postopératoire, avec une augmentation du taux d'infarctus post opératoire mais une diminution de l'incidence de fibrillation atriale postopératoire (58).

De la même manière, l'utilisation de la colchicine a été proposée afin de réduire l'incidence de la fibrillation atriale post opératoire. Au total, 5 essais randomisés ont été réalisés avec des résultats variables selon les études (59).

Il apparait donc que l'utilisation des thérapies antiinflammatoires à l'échelle globale est associée à des résultats mitigés. Compte tenu de l'hétérogénéité de réponse inflammatoire suivant la chirurgie cardiaque, il semble donc d'intérêt d'identifier les patients à haut risque de réponse inflammatoire postopératoire importante. L'utilisation des thérapies anti inflammatoires pourrait ainsi être envisagée dans le cadre d'une médecine personnalisée.

IV. Déterminants potentiels de l'entrainement de l'immunité innée ;

Dans ce travail, les déterminants de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et des complications associées ont été évalués selon 2 hypothèses privilégiées : la modulation potentielle du système immunitaire par le rythme circadien et la présence d'une hématopoïèse clonale.

A) <u>Rythme circadien et immunité innée :</u>

i. Généralités sur le rythme circadien

La plupart des organismes anticipent les changements quotidiens de leur environnement, y compris la lumière, la température et la disponibilité de la nourriture pour une forme physique optimale. Des rythmes comportementaux et / ou physiologiques quotidiens importants ont été observés chez les animaux, les plantes, les champignons et les bactéries. Ces rythmes sont dits circadiens, issus du latin « circadiem» ou environ un jour, et sont le résultat d'un système de chronométrage autonome et intrinsèque appelé horloge circadienne (60,61). L'horloge circadienne est capable de continuer à fonctionner même dans des conditions
environnementales constantes avec une périodicité d'environ 24 heures. Dans un processus appelé entraînement, la phase de l'horloge circadienne, c'est-à-dire son stade dans le cycle par rapport au temps externe, est déterminée par des indices environnementaux appelés zeitgebers. La réponse de l'horloge circadienne aux zeitgebers dépend à la fois de la force du stimulus et de la phase circadienne pendant laquelle il est appliqué. Par conséquent, les zeitgebers peuvent avancer ou retarder l'horloge circadienne, assurant ainsi sa synchronisation avec le jour solaire.

Dans des conditions normales, ces principes forment la base de l'avantage adaptatif que les horloges circadiennes confèrent à un organisme en optimisant la synchronisation des processus et des comportements cellulaires et physiologiques fondamentaux. Il est à noter qu'une exposition erronée aux zeitgebers peut perturber l'homéostasie circadienne et avoir des effets néfastes sur la santé humaine (62).

Le noyau supra chiasmatique (NSC) est également nécessaire au comportement circadien : ainsi, son ablation chirurgicale chez l'animal et par des tumeurs hypophysaires ou vasculaires chez l'homme perturbe les rythmes quotidiens. Elle est également suffisante pour le comportement circadien : les greffes de tissu néonatal sur des rongeurs ayant subi une ablation du NSC rétablissent les rythmes repos-activité (63). De plus, le NSC est un chronométreur autonome, capable d'exprimer des cycles circadiens de déclenchement spontané de potentiels d'action lorsqu'il est isolé in vivo ou ex vivo (64). Cependant, pour être efficace en tant qu'horloge, elle doit être entraînée dans le temps solaire et par conséquent être prédictive du temps solaire, ce qui est obtenu par innervation rétinienne directe. Enfin, en tant que stimulateur principal, le NSC coordonne les horloges cellulaires périphériques à travers le corps. Les projections du NSC qui assurent la médiation de cette coordination vont à l'hypothalamus local et aux zones sous-corticales et du tronc cérébral. Grâce à ces voies, le NSC garantit que les programmes neuronaux et métaboliques quotidiens sont bien définis et étroitement imbriqués.

L'horloge circadienne est également contrôlée génétiquement et des mutations dans les « gènes d'horloge» peuvent modifier le comportement rythmique des animaux, y compris les insectes et les humains, ainsi que des plantes, des champignons et des bactéries(60,61). Par essence, l'horloge circadienne constitue une succession autorégulatrice d'expression, d'accumulation et de dégradation des produits du gène de l'horloge qui forme un oscillateur moléculaire autonome.

Au total : la plupart des rythmes biologiques observés chez les êtres vivants ont une période d'environ 24 heures. Ces rythmes résultent des interactions entre (i) une horloge biologique

centrale située dans les noyaux supra-chiasmatiques de l'hypothalamus ; (ii) une horloge périphérique qui se compose au niveau de chaque cellule d'un système complexe de boucles de transcription qui exercent des rétrocontrôles positifs et négatifs sur elles-mêmes, et génère ainsi une activité transcriptionnelle cyclique ; (iii) des synchronisateurs externes ou facteurs d'information temporelle, également désignés par le terme allemand Zeitgebers (donneurs de temps) comme l'alternance lumière/obscurité.

Figure 9. Schéma représentatif du fonctionnement de l'horloge circadienne (Buttgereit et al. Nature Review Rheumatology 2015 (65)):



ii. Rythme circadien et système immunitaire :

Plusieurs études ont permis de mettre en évidence une variabilité circadienne de la réponse immune. A ce titre, une étude récente de Bree et al. a permis de mettre en évidence une variation de l'amplitude de la réponse vaccinale au BCG sur une cohorte de 300 volontaires sains avec une réponse vaccinale accrue suite à une injection le matin (66).

Il a été démontré que plusieurs types de cellules immunitaires innées possèdent des horloges biologiques intrinsèques, notamment les monocytes, les macrophages, les mastocytes, les neutrophiles, les éosinophiles et les cellules tueuses naturelles (NK) (67). Ces horloges internes affectent la fonction de ces cellules, conduisant au déclenchement temporel de

processus spécifiques au type de cellule. Ce déclenchement temporel comprend l'activité phagocytaire des macrophages et leur libération de cytokines, ainsi que la libération d'histamine et les réactions allergiques des mastocytes. A ce titre, Logan et al. ont montré que l'homologue de la protéine circadienne 1 (PER1) est nécessaire pour un fonctionnement efficace des cellules NK spléniques (68). En l'absence de Per1, ces cellules maintiennent leur rythmicité mais présentent une expression rythmique altérée de l'IFN γ et des facteurs cytotoxiques perforine et granzyme B.

Dans les macrophages, les récepteurs nucléaires REV-ERB sont un point nodal critique entre l'horloge et l'immunité. Par exemple, REV-ERB α (codé par NR1D1) et REV-ERB β (codé par NR1D2) suppriment certaines expressions géniques (par exemple, la matrice métalloprotéinase 9 (MMP9) et CX3C-chimiokine récepteur 1 (Cx3cr1)) dans les macrophages en réprimant la transcription de facteurs déterminants de la lignée des macrophages. REV-ERB α module également les fonctions inflammatoires des macrophages (y compris l'adhésion, la migration et l'activation de l'intégrine) via la régulation directe du CCL2 (69,70). L'ensemble de ces données suggère ainsi que les effecteurs moléculaires des voies pro-inflammatoires sont directement couplés aux gènes d'horloge.

iii. Rythme circadien et fonction cardiovasculaire

Beaucoup de maladies cardiovasculaires ont un rythme de 24 heures en termes d'incidence et de charge de morbidité (62,71). Les arythmies supraventriculaires et ventriculaires, les accidents vasculaires cérébraux, la dissection d'un anévrisme aortique, l'embolie pulmonaire et la mort subite surviennent tous plus souvent tôt le matin. L'incidence de l'infarctus du myocarde a également un schéma de 24 heures.

Traditionnellement, ces variations étaient attribuées à une variation circadienne du système nerveux autonome. En effet, l'activité sympathique, le *shear* stress vasculaire et les facteurs de risque cardiovasculaire comme la pression artérielle sont augmentés le matin, déclenchant potentiellement l'apparition de ces pathologies.

Cependant, des études animales ont montré que l'horloge périphérique a un rôle important. Ainsi de nombreuses observations associant l'agrégation plaquettaire, la coagulation, les anomalies de la repolarisation ventriculaire et altération de l'horloge périphérique.

B) <u>Hématopoïèse clonale de signification indéterminée (CHIP):</u>

i. <u>Généralités</u>

Les cellules souches hématopoïétiques (CSH) sont des progéniteurs des cellules érythroïdes, lymphoïdes, myéloïdes (granulocytes et monocytes) et des plaquettes, qui traversent et remodèlent le système vasculaire. Le vieillissement est un déterminant essentiel de la fonction et du devenir des CSH. Au fur et à mesure que les CSH vieillissent, elles ont, comme toutes les cellules souches, une propension accrue à acquérir des mutations en raison d'un renouvellement élevé, d'expositions environnementales et de facteurs génétiques et épigénétiques probables. Les CSH murins vieillissants ont une capacité réduite à prévenir et à réparer les erreurs de réplication de l'ADN se produisant dans d'autres cellules souches vieillissantes. Il en résulte ainsi une sélection de mutations conférant des avantages de survie et l'expansion des clones de cellules qui ont acquis des mutations qui favorisent la vitalité.

L'hématopoïèse clonale a été mise en évidence pour la première fois dans des études cytogénétiques chez des patients atteints de leucémie myéloïde chronique dans les années 1970 (72). Ces études ont permis d'établir l'origine clonale de ces hémopathies malignes.

En 2014, trois groupes ont analysé les données de séquençage de l'exome de dizaines de milliers d'individus non porteurs de pathologies hématologiques et ont pu démontrer que l'hématopoïèse clonale est courante et se produit principalement dans les gènes mutés dans les cancers myéloïdes, tels que DNMT3A, TET2, ASXL1, TP53, JAK2 et SF3B1 (73–75). Le rôle de ces mutations dans le développement des hémopathies malignes et de l'hématopoïèse clonale a été largement examiné et démontré.

Ces trois études ont toutes révélé une association frappante entre l'hématopoïèse clonale et l'âge. Les mutations étaient rares chez les personnes âgées de moins de 40 ans, mais ont été trouvées chez environ 6% des personnes âgées de 60 à 69 ans, environ 12% de celles âgées de 70 à 89 ans et environ 20% de celles âgées de plus de 90 ans.

Figure 10. Associations actuellement connues entre CHIP et évènements cardiovasculaires (Libby et al, JACC 2019 (76)).



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ii. <u>CHIP et pathologies cardiovasculaires :</u>

L'association entre CHIP et pathologie cardiovasculaire a été soulevée dans le cadre d'analyses secondaires d'études dont l'objectif principal était l'évaluation du risque d'évolution néoplasique. Toutefois de nombreuses études portant sur des cohortes de réplication a permis de confirmer ces résultats.

Ainsi, dans une étude cas-témoins, Jaiswal et al. ont pu observer un risque de coronaropathie de 1,9 chez les patients atteints de CHIP. Ce lien épidémiologique était également renforcé

par un modèle murin d'athérome sur des souris ApoE-/- mutées pour Tet2 au sein des progéniteurs myéloïdes (77). De façon intéressante, les souris mutées présentaient un athérome plus important.

Dans une étude réalisée par Dorsheimer et al. portant sur des patients ayant des antécédents d'infarctus du myocarde et d'insuffisance cardiaque stable, la présence de mutations dans DNMT3A ou TET2 dans les cellules de la moelle osseuse était associée à un rapport de risque pour la mortalité toutes causes confondues de 3,25 (78). Cette mortalité était essentiellement en lien avec la survenue de complications liées à l'insuffisance cardiaque.

Plus récemment, deux études réalisées par Abplanalp et al. ont permis d'observer grâce à des expériences de Single Cell RNAseq, un phénotype immunologique spécifique sur une cohorte de 8 et 6 patients insuffisants cardiaques porteurs de mutations sur Tet2 et DNMT3A. Le phénotype observé touchait préférentiellement les monocytes et se traduisait par une surexpression des voies de signalisations liées à l'adhésion cellulaire, à la production d'IL1- β et du récepteur à l'IL-6 (79).

L'ensemble de ces données suggère donc une association claire entre inflammation chronique associée aux évènements cardiovasculaires et CHIP. Toutefois, aucune étude n'a jusqu'ici évalué l'impact du CHIP dans le contexte inflammatoire chirurgical.

Hypothèses de travail :

Nous avons émis l'hypothèse que l'inflammation post-opératoire suivant la chirurgie cardiaque est un acteur majeur dans la survenue des complications postopératoires. Nous avons également émis l'hypothèse que l'amplitude de cette réponse inflammatoire serait influencée par le moment de la journée où la chirurgie est réalisée et par la présence d'une hématopoïèse clonale.

Objectifs :

Les objectifs ont été de

- Déterminer l'association entre réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et complications postopératoires (fibrillation atriale postopératoire, infarctus de type V et insuffisance rénale postopératoire)
- 2) Déterminer s'il existe un lien entre CHIP et réponse inflammatoire postopératoire
- 3) Déterminer s'il existe un lien entre CHIP et complications postopératoires
- 4) Déterminer s'il existe un lien entre rythme circadien et réponse inflammatoire postopératoire
- 5) Déterminer s'il existe un lien entre rythme circadien et complications postopératoires

MATERIEL ET METHODES

1. Population étudiée

Les travaux présentés reposent sur la cohorte POMI AF (numéro clinical trial : NCT#03376165, investigateur principal : Prof. D Montaigne) débutée en 2016 et incluant prospectivement des patients admis pour une chirurgie cardiaque sous circulation extracorporelle ne présentant pas d'antécédent de fibrillation atriale avant la chirurgie. Pour chaque patient, un recueil exhaustif des caractéristiques cliniques préopératoire est réalisé ainsi qu'un prélèvement de sang périphérique pré opératoire et de myocarde atrial en per opératoire. Un consentement éclairé écrit a été obtenu de tous les patients avant leur inclusion dans cette cohorte.

Les différentes analyses réalisées ont pu être financées par la Fondation de France, la Fédération Française de Cardiologie, l'Agence Nationale pour la Recherche (ANR-10-LABX-46), le CPER-Centre Transdisciplinaire de Recherche sur la Longévité et la participation à une convention Leducq « Leducq Epigenetics of Atherosclerosis Network » (16CVD01).

2. <u>Complications postopératoires :</u>

a) <u>FAPO :</u>

La survenue de FAPO était définie par la survenue d'un épisode de fibrillation atriale de plus de 30 secondes pendant l'hospitalisation. A cet effet, chaque patient bénéficiait d'une surveillance par monitoring cardiaque continu.

b) <u>IRAPO :</u>

La survenue d'une insuffisance rénale postopératoire était définie selon la classification KDIGO :

| Stade de gravité | Créatinine sérique |
|------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1 | élévation ≥ 0,3 mg/dl (26.5 µmol/l) sur 48 heures augmentation de 1,5 à 1,9 fois la valeur de base sur une période de 7 jours |
| 2 | élévation du taux de base de 2,0 à2,9 fois |
| 3 | - élévation ≥ 3 fois la valeur basale - élévation ≥ 4,0 mg/dl (≥ 353,6 µmol/l) ou initiation de l'EER |

c) Infarctus de type V et ischémie myocardique postopératoire :

L'infarctus du myocarde postopératoire a été défini comme une augmentation de la concentration sérique de troponine T cardiaque haute sensibilité (mesurée à l'aide d'Elecsys Troponine T-hs, Roche Diagnostics, Meylan, France) par rapport au taux préopératoire d'au moins deux fois la limite supérieure de la normale, avec des preuves d'ischémie myocardique, comme des symptômes d'angor ou des modifications de l'ECG, y compris des modifications persistantes du segment ST ou de l'onde T ou de nouvelles ondes Q.

d) <u>Réponse inflammatoire postopératoire :</u>

Afin d'évaluer la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et ses déterminants, le pic de CRP postopératoire évalué dans les 72 heures suivant la chirurgie. Afin d'évaluer l'association entre un modèle inflammatoire aseptique et la survenu de complications, les patients présentant un sepsis précoce (caractérisé par une fièvre avec point d'appel clinique amenant à la prescription d'une antibiothérapie ou une fièvre avec documentation bactériologique) ont été exclus.

3. <u>Suivi de la population</u>

Les patients ont été suivi entre Mai et Décembre 2017 en consultation, par contact téléphonique direct ou en appelant le cardiologue, le médecin traitant, ou les mairies de naissance. Les événements suivants ont été recueillis : décès toutes causes, décès

cardiovasculaires, hospitalisation pour une cause cardiovasculaire, insuffisance cardiaque ou accident vasculaire cérébral (AVC) comme précédemment décrit. (80)

Tous les évènements ont été adjudiqués par 2 investigateurs indépendants et aveugles des données cliniques et échographiques.

4. Hématopoïèse clonale

Afin de réaliser la recherche d'une hématopoïèse clonale et le phénotypage immunologique préopératoire, un échantillon de sang était recueilli sur tube CPT (Cell Preparation Tube) permettant l'isolement des cellules mononuclées circulantes et un échantillon de sang total pour le séquençage de l'ADN génomique.

a) Séquençage de l'ADN génomique :

L'ADN du sang total a été extrait avec un kit QIAamp DNA Micro (Qiagen) en suivant les instructions de fabrication et soumis à l'Integrated Genomics Operation (IGO) au MSKCC pour l'analyse de la qualité et de la quantité, la préparation de la bibliothèque et le séquençage. La qualité de l'ADN a été mesurée avec un Tapestation 2200 et tous les échantillons avaient un indice d'intégrité de l'ADN (DIN)> 6. La quantité d'ADN est mesurée avec un appareil PicoGreen. Pour chaque échantillon, environ 200 ng d'ADN génomique ont été utilisés pour la construction de la bibliothèque en utilisant le kit KAPA Hyper Prep (Kapa Biosystems KK8504) avec 8 cycles de PCR. Après le codage à barres de l'échantillon, 2,5 ng-1 μ g de chaque bibliothèque ont été regroupés et capturés par hybridation avec des appâts spécifiques au test HemePACT (Integrated Mutation Profiling of Actionable Cancer Targets related to Hematological Malignancies), conçu pour capturer tous les exons codant pour les protéines et sélectionner les introns de 576 (2,88Mb) oncogènes couramment impliqués, des gènes suppresseurs de tumeur (tableau SX). Les pools de capture ont été séquencés sur le HiSeq 4000, en utilisant le kit HiSeq 3000/4000 SBS (Illumina) pour les lectures PE100. Les échantillons ont été séquencés à une profondeur moyenne de couverture de 1175x.

b) Analyse des données de mutation :

Le pipeline de traitement de données pour détecter des variantes dans les données Illumina HiSeq est le suivant. Tout d'abord, les fichiers FASTQ sont traités pour supprimer toutes les séquences d'adaptateur à la fin des lectures à l'aide de cutadapt (v1.6). Les fichiers sont ensuite mappés à l'aide du mappeur BWA (bwa mem v0.7.12). Après le mappage, les fichiers

SAM sont triés et les balises de groupe de lecture sont ajoutées à l'aide des outils PICARD. Après le tri dans l'ordre des coordonnées, les fichiers BAM sont traités avec l'outil PICARD MarkDuplicates. Les fichiers BAM marqués sont ensuite traités à l'aide de la boîte à outils GATK (v 3.2) selon les meilleures pratiques pour les paires de tumeurs. Ils sont d'abord réalignés à l'aide d'ABRA (v 0.92), puis les valeurs de qualité de base sont recalibrées avec le BaseQRecalibrator. Les variantes somatiques sont ensuite appelées dans les BAM traités à l'aide de MuTect (v1.1.7).

Le pipeline complet est disponible sur le lien suivant : https://github.com/soccin/BICvariants_pipeline et le code du post-traitement est disponible sur : https://github.com/soccin/Variant-PostProcess.

c) <u>Recherche des variants :</u>

Pour identifier les variantes somatiques et éliminer les variantes de la lignée germinale, nous avons comparé tous les échantillons à un échantillon de 10 génomes aléatoires. De plus, pour réduire le risque de contamination par le polymorphisme nucléotidique, nous avons exclu les mutations avec un seuil MAF (fréquence allélique mineure) de 0,01 en utilisant la base de données gnome AD et des variantes avec 35% de fréquence allélique variante (VAF).

Puisque le panel de gènes contient également des gènes associés à des tumeurs malignes solides, nous avons sélectionné dans la liste des gènes mutés ceux précédemment décrits associés aux hémopathies malignes et à l'hématopoïèse clonale. Nous avons sélectionné des mutations de variations nucléotidiques simples (SNV) [Missense, Nonsense, Splice Site, Splice Regions] qui étaient prises en charge par au moins 4 lectures mutantes ou plus, avec un VAF> 1% et une couverture de 50x ou plus.

d) Définition des variants :

Pour classer les variants somatiques en fonction de leur pathogénicité, nous avons classé les variants comme « délétères» lorsque le SNV est censé affecter la protéine comme déterminé par PolyPhen-2 (potentiellement et probablement dommageable) et SIFT (délétère) et / ou signalé comme pathogène / probablement pathogène par ClinVar et / ou oncogène / prédite oncogène / probablement oncogène par OncoKb. Les variants étaient classés comme « pathogènes» s'ils étaient signalés comme pathogènes / probablement pathogènes par ClinVar et / ou oncogènes par ClinVar et / ou oncogènes / prédits oncogènes / probablement oncogènes par OncoKb. Ces deux bases de données rapportent la pathogénicité dans le cancer et d'autres maladies, sur la base de preuves à l'appui de la littérature organisée.

5. <u>Phénotype monocytaire :</u>

Afin de caractériser le phénotype monocytaire, et après isolation des cellules mononuclées circulantes préopératoires, nous avons procédé à un tri cellulaire permettant l'isolation des monocytes classiques. Une analyse transcriptomique par méthode RNAseq était ensuite effectuée sur cette population cellulaire.

L'ARN total a été extrait à l'aide du kit Direct-Zol RNA Microprep avec traitement DNaseI sur colonne (recherche Zymo). L'amplification du transcriptome entier et la synthèse d'ADNc ont été réalisées avec le kit Ovation RNA-seq V2 (NuGEN) en suivant les instructions du fabricant. Les bibliothèques de séquençage ont en outre été préparées en utilisant le kit de préparation de la bibliothèque Ovation Ultralow V2 DNA-seq. Les bibliothèques ont été regroupées et séquencées sur un HiSeq4000 (Illumina) pour obtenir 20 millions de lectures à une seule extrémité de 50 pb.

6. Phénotype immunologique myocardique :

Afin de caractériser le phénotype immun myocardique des patients porteurs d'une hémaopoïèse clonale, un phénotypage étendu par cytométrie de masse a été réalisé.

a) Cytométrie de masse

Six anticorps utilisés dans notre panel ont été marqués en interne (tableau XS1) grâce aux éléments suivants : Rh103, 113In, 115In, 140Ce, 150Nd et 157Gd en utilisant le polymère X8 fourni dans les kits de marquage Maxpar (Fluidigm®) selon le protocole du fabricant. L'anticorps anti-CD8 a été marqué avec le polymère MCP9 fourni dans les kits de marquage Maxpar (Fluidigm®) selon le protocole du fabricant. L'anticorps anti-CD8 a été marqué avec le polymère MCP9 fourni dans les kits de marquage Maxpar (Fluidigm®) selon le protocole du fabricant. L'anticorps anti-Perforin a été marqué avec le kit 139La Lightning-Link Metal (Expedeon®). Les anticorps anti-CD1c et anti-CADM1 ont été marqués en utilisant du cisplatine 195Pt et 196Pt (BuyIsotope®) conformément au protocole publié par Mei et al..

Les fractions de cellules décongelées issues du tissu auriculaire (70-420x103 cellules) ont été culottées (400 g, 5 min, RT) et colorées pour la viabilité ($10x10^6$ cellules) / ml) dans une solution saline tamponnée au phosphate de calcium et de magnésium (PBS) ajoutée avec 1 mM de cisplatine (Fluidigm®) pendant 5 min à température ambiante. La réaction a été désactivée avec le tampon de coloration cellulaire MaxPar (CSB, Fluidigm®). Après centrifugation (400 g, 5 min, RT), les cellules ont été remises en suspension dans du CSB à

une concentration de 30 x 10⁶ cellules / ml et incubées (RT, 10 min) avec Fc Block (1/100, Becton Dickinson®). Les 12 anticorps utilisés dans notre panel pour lesquels la liaison à l'épitope était précédemment signalée comme étant sensible à la fixation ont été ajoutés pour une incubation supplémentaire de 30 minutes à température ambiante. Les cellules colorées ont ensuite été lavées deux fois avant le codage à barres conformément au protocole du fabricant (Fluidigm®). Six pools différents de 20 échantillons ont été traités indépendamment pour le code-barres. Les cellules ont été incubées dans du tampon MaxPar Fix I pendant 10 min à température ambiante, lavées deux fois dans du tampon de perm de code à barres, remises en suspension dans 800 pi de tampon de perm de code à barres et incubées avec le code à barres Palladium approprié pendant 30 min à température ambiante. Après centrifugation (600 g, 5 min, RT), les cellules ont été lavées deux fois avec Maxpar CSB et colorées pendant 30 min RT avec des anticorps de surface dirigés contre des épitopes qui n'étaient pas signalés comme étant sensibles à la fixation ajoutés avec le réactif Fc Block (1 / 100, Becton Dickinson®). Après deux lavages avec du CSB, les cellules ont été fixées et perméabilisées avec le protocole eBioscienceTM FOXP3 / Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set B. Après 30 min d'incubation à température ambiante avec 1 ml de solution de travail de fixation / perméabilisation, les cellules ont été lavées deux fois avec 6 ml de 1x perméabilisation Tampon, incubé 30 min à température ambiante avec un mélange d'anticorps intarcellulaires et lavé deux fois avec 2 ml de tampon de perméabilisation 1x. Les pastilles ont été remises en suspension dans 1 ml de Maxpar Fix et du tampon Perm ajouté avec un intercalaire 125 mM 191 / 193Ir pendant une heure à température ambiante et lavés deux fois dans Maxpar CSB et deux fois dans Maxpar Water. Les cellules ont été remises en suspension dans de l'eau Maxpar à 5 x 10^5 cellules / ml avec un volume de 1:10 de billes d'étalonnage à quatre éléments (Fluidigm) et analysées sur un instrument Helios (Fluidigm®) au centre de cytométrie en flux INSERM U1011 / EGID. Les analyses ont été réalisées pendant un maximum de 150 minutes à une fréquence maximale de 500 événements / s, et un étalonnage rapide a été effectué entre chaque analyse.

Pour le calcul de la matrice de compensation, les Comp Beads (Becton Dickinson®) ont été colorées une seule fois dans du CSB avec 1 pg de chaque anticorps utilisé dans notre panel pendant 30 minutes à température ambiante. Une exception a été faite pour l'anticorps anti-CADM1 marqué au 196Pt qui est une IgY de poulet, qui n'est pas capturé par les billes de comp. Il a été remplacé par un anti-CD8 (clone SK1, Mouse IgG1, κ) conjugué avec le même lot de 196Pt. Après deux lavages avec du CSB et deux lavages avec de l'eau Marxpar, les

billes ont été mélangées et acquises sous forme d'un seul tube à une vitesse maximale de 500 événements / s.

b) Traitement des données de cytométrie de masse :

Les données acquises sur le cytomètre de masse Helios ont été traitées en aval pour normalisation par les billes d'étalonnage et débarcodées en suivant les instructions du fabricant. Une normalisation des effets de lots a été réalisée sur les 6 pools d'échantillons en référence à des PBMC provenant d'un seul donneur sain (C20), et ont conduit à 35 essais différents considérés comme 35 lots indépendants pour éviter les effets de lots possibles par rapport à 1) différences entre les 6 jeux de code-barres par rapport aux conditions de coloration et, 2) les différences liées à la dérive du signal au moment de l'acquisition d'un seul pool à code-barres. Le C20 inclus dans chaque pool / série de codes à barres a été déclenché sur des événements en direct nucléés-simples-biologiques-non-billes-CD45 + et utilisé comme point d'ancrage pour l'application du code CytofBatchAdjust R publié par Schuyler et al.. Chaque canal a été testé pour l'ajustement en utilisant la méthode du centile à 0,75 pc, 0,80 pc, 0,85 pc, 0,90 pc, 0,95 pc et / ou 0,99 pc et les ajustements des canaux ainsi que les facteurs d'échelle ont été vérifiés visuellement pour chaque échantillon d'ancrage pour déterminer le ajustement de centile le mieux ajusté de chaque canal. Après ce pré-réglage, les ajustements finaux ont été effectués en conséquence, et les fichiers FCS ajustés par lots ont été concaténés de manière appropriée pour reconstituer les échantillons originaux. Compensation des retombées Le fichier FCS à partir de billes colorées uniques mélangées a été imputé dans CATALYST R en utilisant la méthode NNLS, qui est la mieux adaptée pour les données de cytométrie de masse. La matrice de compensation de sortie a été appliquée à tous les fichiers et les fichiers FCS compensés ont été modifiés. Analyse d'échantillons Les fichiers FCS débarcodés - normalisés par lots - concaténés - compensés ont été verrouillés sur des événements en direct nucléés-simples-biologiques-non-billes-CD45 + et traités pour l'analyse phénotypique à l'aide de R 4.0.0 et d'une version modifiée du package Cytofkit y compris le calcul UMAP en utilisant le package uwot disponible gratuitement sur http://github.com/i-cyto/cytofkitlab. La réduction de dimension a été réalisée à l'aide de l'algorithme Umap et la carte de sortie à 2 dimensions a été utilisée pour le clustering à l'aide de l'algorithme Cluster X. Les illustrations ont été modifiées à l'aide du navigateur Cytofkit ShinyAPP.

PARTIE 1. Inflammation postopératoire et complications postopératoires

a. Introduction

Compte tenu de l'association physiopathologique potentielle entre l'inflammation postopératoire et la survenu des principales complications postopératoires, nous avons dans un premier temps caractérisé la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire au sein de la cohorte POMI-AF. A ce titre, nous avons cherché à évaluer l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire sur l'ensemble de la cohorte POMI-AF, ses déterminants et sa corrélation aux principales complications postopératoires.

b. <u>Résultats:</u>

Le diagramme de flux est présenté en figure 1. Nous avons inclus un total de 727 patients de décembre 2008 à août 2020. Parmi ces patients, 485 avaient des données de CRP postopératoire disponible et n'ont pas présenté de sepsis postopératoire précoce.

Figure 1. Diagramme de flux de la population étudiée :



Les caractéristiques de base de la population sont présentées dans le tableau 1.

| | Total $(n = 503)$ |
|------------------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Age, années | 70 [63 ; 77] |
| Femmes | 205 (42) |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 28.4 [24.6 ; 31.7] |
| НТА | 305 (63) |
| Tabagisme | 105 (22) |
| Diabète | 129 (26) |
| BPCO | 43 (9) |
| Euroscore II (%) | 1.3 [0.9; 2.11] |
| Surface valvulaire aortique (cm ²) | 0.69 [0.59; 0.83] |
| FEVG, % | 62 [57;68] |
| Surface atriale gauche (cm ²) | 23 [20 ; 26] |
| Durée de CEC (min) | 79 [65 ; 102] |
| Durée de clampage aortique (min) | 61 [48 ; 82] |
| Créatinine sérique préopératoire | 9 [7.5 ; 10.4] |
| Clairance MDRD pré opératoire | 81 [69; 102] |

Tableau 1. Caractéristiques de base de la population :

Les données sont présentées en medians [25ème; 75ème quartile] ou nombre (%). Abbréviations: BMI: body mass index; CEC: circulation extra corporelle; HTA: hypertension artérielle

c. Inflammation postopératoire et complications postopératoires :

Afin d'évaluer l'association potentielle entre inflammation postopératoire et complications postopératoires, nous avons évalué le pic de CRP post opératoire selon chaque type de complication.

• Fibrillation atriale postopératoire :

Sur les 503 patients analysés, 202 ont présenté une FAPO. Les patients présentant une FAPO présentaient de façon significative une élévation de CRP en période postopératoire précoce plus importante (164±68mg/l contre 204±75mg/l, p<0.0001). La figure 2 représente le taux de CRP postopératoire selon la présence d'une FAPO ou non.





Abréviations : CRP : C-reactive protein ; FAPO : Fibrillation atriale postopératoire ; RS : rythme sinusal postopératoire

Afin d'ajuster l'analyse à des facteurs confondants potentiels, nous avons réalisé une analyse multivariée grâce à une régression logistique stepwise incluant la CRP post opératoire et des facteurs de risque connus de FAPO (âge, durée de CEC, BMI, diabète, clairance de la créatinine, surface de l'oreillette gauche en échocardiographie). Après ajustement, les seuls facteurs prédictifs postopératoires étaient l'âge et le pic de CRP postopératoire.

| Analyse univariéeAnalyse multivariéep-value $\beta \pm SE$ p-value $\beta \pm SE$ p-value $\beta \pm SE$ | Age | <0.001 | 0.04±0.01 | 0.023 | 0.04±0.008 |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-------------------|-----------|---------------------|------------|
| Analyse univariée Analyse multivariée | | p-value | β±SE | p-value | β±SE |
| | | Analyse univariée | | Analyse multivariée | |

 0.007 ± 0.001

<0.001

 0.008 ± 0.001

Tableau 2. Analyse multivariée des facteurs prédictifs de FAPO :

< 0.001

Abréviations: CRP: C-réactive protein

CRP

de

postopératoire

Pic

• Insuffisance rénale postopératoire :

Sur les 503 patients analysés, 79 patients ont présenté une insuffisance rénale postopératoire selon la classification KDIGO. Parmi les patients ayant présenté une insuffisance rénale postopératoire, 62 ont présenté une IRAPO de grade I, 14 de grade II et 3 de grade III. Les patients présentant une IRAPO présentaient également une élévation plus importante de la CRP en période postopératoire (175±70mg/l contre 208±91mg/l pour les patients présentant une IRAPO, p=0.001).

La figure 3 représente le pic de CRP postopératoire selon la survenue d'une IRAPO.

Figure 3. Pic de CRP selon la survenue d'une IRAPO



Abréviations : CRP : C-reactive protein ; IRAPO : insuffisance rénale aiguë postopératoire

Afin d'ajuster l'analyse sur des facteurs confondants potentiels, nous avons réalisé une analyse multivariée grâce à une régression logistique stepwise incluant la CRP post opératoire et des facteurs de risque connus d'IRAPO (âge, HTA, clairance de la créatinine pré opératoire, durée de CEC).

| | Analyse univariée | | Analyse multivariée | |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | β±SE / HR (IC95%) | p-value | β±SE/ HR (IC95%) | p-value |
| Age (années) | 0.05±0.01 | 0.0005 | n.s | |
| Pic de CRP postopératoire | 0.006±0.002 | 0.0003 | 0.005±0.002 | 0.009 |
| Durée de CEC | 0.01±0.004 | 0.0002 | 0.02±0.004 | 0.0001 |
| Hypertension artérielle | 0.33 (0.17; 0.6) | 0.0004 | 0.35 (0.18; 1.69) | 0.002 |
| IMC | 0.029±0.02 | 0.2 | 0.06±0.03 | 0.04 |
| Clairance rénale préopératoire Cockroft | -0.01±0.004 | 0.0003 | -0.02±0.004 | 0.0001 |

Tableau 3. Analyse multivariée des facteurs prédictifs d'IRAPO

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Abréviations: CRP: C-réactive protein; CEC: circulation extracorporelle; IMC: indice de masse corporelle

Après ajustement aux facteurs classiquement associés à l'IRAPO, le pic de CRP post opératoire restait un facteur prédictif indépendant d'IRAPO.

• <u>Infarctus post opératoire :</u>

Sur les 503 patients analysés, 72 ont présenté un infarctus postopératoire. Les patients présentant un infarctus postopératoire ne présentaient pas d'élévation plus importante de CRP postopératoire (179 ± 75 mg/l contre 190 ± 80 mg/l ; p=0.42) (figure 4). Le pic de troponine postopératoire médian était de 345 [263 ; 483] ng/l. Le pic de CRP postopératoire n'était pas corrélé au pic de troponine postopératoire. (r²=0.0009, p=0.56 ; figure 5).

Figure 4. Pic de CRP postopératoire selon la survenue d'un infarctus de type V



Abréviations : CRP : C-reactive protein ; IDM : infarctus du myocarde

Figure 5. Association entre pic de CRP postopératoire et pic de troponine postopératoire



d. <u>Déterminants cliniques de l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire</u> <u>postopératoire:</u>

Au décours de la chirurgie, le pic de CRP post opératoire moyen était de 180±74mg/l. Les déterminants cliniques de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoires ont été évalués et sont présentés dans le tableau 4.

Tableau 4. Analyse univariée des déterminants pré et peropératoires de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire.

| | R ² | β±SE | Valeurs par condition | р |
|---------------------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| Age, années | 0.003 | -0.007±0.006 | | 0.21 |
| Femmes | | | 171±73mg/l (femme) vs 187±74mg/l (homme) | 0.01 |
| IMC | 0.016 | 0.009±0.003 | | 0.006 |
| HTA | | | 172±73mg/l (absence d'HTA) vs 185±74mg/l (HTA) | 0.079 |
| Diabète | | | 177±75mg/l (non diabétiques) vs 189±69mg/l (diabétiques) | 0.13 |
| Euroscore II (%) | 0.006 | 0.001 ± 0.0008 | | 0.08 |
| Surface valvulaire aortique (cm ²) | 0.001 | 0.0004±0.0006 | | 0.5 |
| FEVG, % | 0.007 | -0.01±0.006 | | 0.09 |
| Surface atriale gauche (cm ²) | 5 ^{E-5} | -0.0008±0.006 | | 0.9 |
| Durée de CEC (min) | 0.01 | 0.05 ± 0.02 | | 0.0085 |
| Créatinine sérique préopératoire | 0.003 | 0.007 ± 0.005 | | 0.22 |
| Clairance MDRD pré opératoire | 0.009 | -0.03±0.02 | | 0.1 |

Abréviations : CEC : circulation extracorporelle ; FEVG : fraction d'éjection ventriculaire gauche ; HTA : hypertension artérielle ; IMC : indice de masse corporelle

En analyse univariée, les variables corrélées au pic de CRP postopératoires étaient le sexe masculin, le BMI et la durée de CEC. Il est à noter que bien que ces variables soient statistiquement associées à la CRP postopératoire, le niveau de corrélation était très faible. Nous avons ensuite réalisé une analyse multivariée afin d'identifier les facteurs cliniques préopératoires indépendamment associés à la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire. Les résultats sont présentés dans le tableau 4. Un modèle de régression multiple stepwise incluant le sexe, le BMI, et la durée de CEC a ainsi été réalisé.

Tableau 5. Analyse multivariée des déterminants cliniques pré et peropératoires de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire.

| | Analyse univariée | | Analyse multivariée | |
|--------------|-------------------|----------|---------------------|---------|
| | p-value | β±SE | p-value | β±SE |
| Durée de CEC | 0.0085 | 0.31±0.1 | 0.007 | 0.3±0.6 |
| IMC | 0.0058 | 1.8±0.6 | 0.009 | 1.7±0.1 |

Abréviations : CEC : circulation extracorporelle ; IMC : indice de masse corporelle

En analyse multivariée, les seuls facteurs prédictifs indépendants du pic de CRP postopératoire étaient la durée de CEC et le BMI. Il est à noter que le r² du modèle est à 0.03 et le r² ajusté à 0.026 dénotant ainsi la faible performance du modèle pour prédire la CRP post-opératoire. Cet élément démontre donc l'intérêt d'autres approches pour prédire l'inflammation postopératoire.

La figure 4 représente la corrélation entre durée de CEC et pic de CRP postopératoire ainsi que BMI et pic de CRP postopératoire.

Figure 4. Corrélation entre pic de CRP postopératoire et déterminants indépendants identifiés en analyse multivariée.

A.

B.



e) Discussion:

En explorant la réponse inflammatoire post opératoire sur une cohorte de patient subissant une chirurgie cardiaque, nous mettons en évidence (i) une grande variabilité dans la réponse inflammatoire d'un individu à l'autre, (ii) une association forte entre inflammation postopératoire et FAPO, IRAPO mais l'absence d'association entre inflammation postopératoire et l'infarctus post opératoire et (iii) la durée de CEC et le BMI comme seuls paramètres associés sur le plan statistique à l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire mais avec une corrélation très faible.

Il est à noter que peu d'éléments permettent donc de prédire l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire. Bien qu'une corrélation statistique ait été mise en évidence entre BMI, durée de CEC et pic de CRP post opératoire, l'intensité de l'association est toutefois très faible et incite à envisager d'autres acteurs potentiels dans l'intensité de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire.

En raison du lien émergeant entre immunité inné et hématopoïèse clonale, nous avons donc émis l'hypothèse d'un lien potentiel entre réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et hématopoïèse clonale. PARTIE 2. Effet de l'hématopoïèse clonale sur les suites opératoires après une chirurgie Cardiaque

a. Introduction

La chirurgie cardiaque sous CEC déclenche une réponse inflammatoire aseptique mettant en jeu le système immunitaire inné et pouvant favoriser l'apparition de complications postopératoires ultérieures, mais ses déterminants sont largement inconnus. L'hématopoïèse clonale à potentiel indéterminé (CHIP) est une anomalie fréquente liée à l'âge qui a un impact sur l'immunité innée en raison de mutations somatiques dans les cellules souches hématopoïétiques.

Dans ce travail, nous avons évalué si la présence de variations de mutations somatiques acquises leucocytaire a un impact sur (i) les phénotypes préopératoires des monocytes et des macrophages cardiaques et (ii) l'inflammation postopératoire et les complications cliniques après un remplacement chirurgical de la valve aortique (SAVR).

b. <u>Publication n°2 :</u>

Clonal hematopoiesis is associated with increased activated monocytes and monocytederived cardiac macrophages and predicts the inflammatory response and outcomes after cardiac surgery.

Clonal hematopoiesis is associated with increased activated monocytes and monocyte-derived cardiac macrophages and predicts the inflammatory response and outcomes after cardiac surgery.

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: On-pump cardiac surgery triggers sterile local and systemic inflammatory responses of the innate immune system and subsequent post-operative complications, however its determinants are largely unknown. Clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP) is a common age-related condition impacting innate immunity due to somatic mutations in hematopoietic stem cells. Here, we assessed whether the presence of CHIP-driver sequence variations (CHIP-DSV) impacts (i) pre-operative monocyte and cardiac macrophage phenotypes and (ii) post-operative inflammation and related outcomes after surgical aortic valve replacement (SAVR).

Methods and results: Deep DNA sequencing was performed on peripheral blood leukocytes from 104 consecutive patients scheduled for SAVR and included in the POMI-AF cohort (NCT#03376165). 63 patients displayed CHIP-DSV with the most frequent occurring in the DNMT3A (26%) and TET2 (13%) genes. CHIP-DSV carriers were older and displayed higher pre-operative peripheral blood monocyte counts (non-CHIP vs CHIP: 546±130 vs 662±233 cells/ml, p=0.009). RNA-seq analysis of sorted classical CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ inflammatory monocytes revealed an altered transcriptomic signature in CHIP-DSV carriers, with genes related to myeloid leukocyte activation pathways foremost affected. Interestingly, several upregulated genes have been associated with cardiovascular pathologies. Furthermore, mass cytometry analysis of myeloid cells revealed an enrichment of inflammatory monocyte-derived macrophages in CHIP-DSV carrier pre-operative myocardium. Finally, CHIP-DSV carriers presented a higher post-surgery inflammatory response and post-operative outcomes, including a higher rate of post-operative atrial fibrillation (POAF) (non-CHIP vs CHIP: 32% vs 62%, p=0.019) and a longer post-operative catecholamine need (p=0.02). Interestingly, the association between the presence of CHIP-DSV and POAF incidence was independent of age.

Conclusion: CHIP-DSV are common in patients undergoing cardiac surgery and are associated with increased pre-operative blood monocytes, transcriptomic alterations of inflammatory monocytes suggestive of an activated phenotype, and increased pro-inflammatory monocyte-derived macrophages in the myocardium. Importantly, CHIP-DSV predispose to post-operative inflammation and complications. Therefore, assessment of CHIP-DSV, in patients candidate for cardiac surgery might guide personalized post-operative patient management.

INTRODUCTION

Cardiac surgery is the most frequent major surgery performed worldwide. Despite the emergence of trans-catheter interventions, such as transaortic valve replacement and percutaneous edge-to-edge transcatheter mitral valve repair, the number of high-risk patients undergoing cardiac surgery is still increasing because of the ageing population, the rising prevalence of associated co-morbidities (e.g. diabetes mellitus and renal failure), and an increased number of patients undergoing combined surgery (i.e. coronary artery by-pass graft (CABG) with concomitant valve and/or aortic surgery) (1–3). These high-risk patients are more prone to peri-operative complications such as acute hemodynamic instability, type 5 myocardial infarction (MI), atrial fibrillation (POAF) and acute kidney injury (AKI), resulting in worse clinical outcomes (4–8). Thus, although cardiac surgery has a low morbi-mortality in middle-aged patients nowadays, a better understanding of the cause of these peri-operative complications is mandatory to further improve care in high-risk patients through personalized strategies.

On-pump cardiac surgery triggers sterile systemic and local inflammatory responses of the innate immune system (9). This inflammatory response peaks 1-3 days after surgery, and mainly stems from blood coming into direct contact with the cardiopulmonary bypass tubing system, organ reperfusion injury (e.g. the heart) and subsequent release of Danger-Associated Molecular Pattern molecules, complement activation and direct surgical trauma (10–12). Its intensity is highly variable among patients and remains unpredictable. Although evidence suggests that this peri-operative inflammation is related to complications such as POAF and AKI, previous attempts to dampen the inflammatory response (e.g. heparin-coated cardiopulmonary bypass circuits, leucocyte depletion, glucocorticoids, colchicine) showed mitigated and inconsistent results on clinical outcome (13–16).

Clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP) is a common age-related condition characterized by an increase in acquired somatic mutations in hematopoietic cell clones previously described as a potential pre-phase of hematologic neoplasms (17). The most frequent mutations occur in the DNA methyltransferase 3A (DNMT3A) and the Tet methylcytosine dioxygenase 2 (TET2) genes, which encode proteins involved in epigenetic regulation through DNA methylation. CHIP was recently identified as a major risk factor for coronary artery disease, chronic heart failure and degenerative aortic valve stenosis in patients without haematological disease (18). Mechanistically, CHIP mutations result in an enhanced recruitment of circulating monocytes and a higher number of pro-inflammatory macrophages in lesions of mouse models of atherosclerosis with hematopoietic or myeloid-specific Tet2 inactivation or carrying JAK2^{VF} mutation (19,20). In line, recent cross-sectional studies reported an increased expression of IL-1β, the IL-6R, and the NLRP3 inflammasome complex in circulating monocytes of patients with DNMT3A or TET2 CHIP-driver sequence variations (CHIP-DSV) (21). Moreover, patients with heart failure carrying DNMT3A mutations exhibited an increased expression of pro-inflammatory genes in monocytes (22). Although these studies revealed a baseline elevated inflammatory state in CHIP carriers, so far no study assessed the impact of CHIP-DSV on the consequences of the systemic inflammation induced following organ injury, such as during cardiac surgery.

We hypothesized that CHIP-DSV are common in the elderly population of patients undergoing cardiac surgery and may promote the post-operative inflammatory response and its related complications. We thus determined, in a large cohort of patients scheduled for cardiac surgery, the frequency and type of CHIP-DSV, and its impact on the pre-operative transcriptomic profile of circulating inflammatory monocytes by RNA-seq analysis and the phenotype of cardiac macrophages by mass cytometry analysis. Finally, we assessed the clinical consequences associated with CHIP-DSV on the magnitude of the post-operative inflammatory response and incidence of related complications.

METHODS

Clinical cohort, tissue collection and surgical procedure

The cohort study population included prospectively recruited patients (aged ≥ 18 years) with severe aortic stenosis referred to the cardiovascular surgery department at the Lille University Hospital (Lille, France) for aortic valve replacement (SAVR) (with or without coronary artery bypass graft) between February 2017 and April 2019. Patients with another notable valvular disease, a medical history of previous cardiac surgery or atrial fibrillation or congenital heart diseases were excluded. The ethics committee of our institution approved the study protocol (POMI-AF cohort NCT#03376165). Written informed consent was obtained from all patients before inclusion in this cohort.

The day before surgery, the medical history of each patient was collected and an electrocardiogram (ECG) recorded to detect potential existing atrial fibrillation (AF) at baseline. The left ventricular ejection fraction was determined by echocardiography using the Simpson method. Transaortic maximal flow velocity (Vmax), mean transaortic gradient and aortic valve area were measured.

Blood samples were collected the day before surgery.

Cardiac Surgery

Anesthesia, cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB), cardioplegia, and surgical procedures were performed in the same way for all surgeries according to standard guidelines. Anesthesia was induced with intravenous sufentanil (1.0–1.5 μ g/kg) and propofol (0.5–1.5 mg/kg) and maintained with end-tidal sevoflurane (1.7% of the expired fraction). Surgery was done using normothermic cardiopulmonary bypass and repeated antegrade cold crystalloid-blood cardioplegia.

Atrial tissue samples were obtained from the right atrial appendage before aortic crossclamping and cardioplegia.

Post-operative outcomes

Cardiovascular death was defined according to the International Classification of Diseases, tenth revision (ICD-10 codes I00–I78). The need for catecholamine support after surgery was recorded.

All patients underwent cardiac ECG monitoring until discharge. Post-operative atrial fibrillation (POAF) was defined as an episode of atrial fibrillation (AF) lasting at least 30 seconds following surgery.

To assess the inflammatory response related to surgery, the plasma CRP peak within the first 72 hours after surgery was measured.

Post-operative sepsis was defined by documented bacteriemia with hemoculture, and/or each clinical condition leading to antibiotic prescription within the first 7 days following surgery.

Peri-operative AKI was defined by an increase in serum creatinine within 72 hours after SAVR and was graded using the International Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes classification (KDIGO) criteria as follows: grade 1: post-operative serum creatinine 1.5–1.9 times baseline or an increase in serum creatinine \geq 26.5 µmol/L; grade 2: post-operative serum creatinine 2.0–2.9 times baseline; and grade 3: post-operative serum creatinine 3 times baseline or increase in serum creatinine to \geq 353.6 µmol/L or initiation of renal replacement therapy (23).

Type V myocardial infarction (MI) was defined by the association on the days following surgery of high concentrations of high sensitivity Troponin T >10x 99th percentile upper reference limit for fourth generation Troponin T with new pathological Q waves, left bundle branch block, or abnormal left ventricular wall motion on transthoracic echocardiogram at discharge (4).

DNA sequence analysis

DNA from buffy coat samples was extracted and sequenced to detect variants in a prespecified list of 576 commonly implicated oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. Samples were sequenced to a mean depth of coverage of 1175x. Somatic variants were classified according to their pathogenicity as follows: variants were classified as "deleterious" when the single nucleotide variant (SNV) was predicted to affect protein function as determined by the PolyPhen-2 software (possibly and probably damaging), the SIFT software (deleterious). Variants were classified as "pathogenic" if reported as pathogenic/likely pathogenic by ClinVar and/or oncogenic/predicted oncogenic/likely oncogenic by OncoKb. These databases report pathogenicity in cancer and other diseases, based on supporting evidence from curated literature. The complete procedure for DNA sequencing, data processing and variants analysis is provided as supplementary materials.

RNA-seq analysis

Classical CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocytes were sorted from PBMC samples and total RNA was extracted using the Direct-Zol RNA Microprep kit with on-column DNaseI treatment (Zymo research). Whole transcriptome amplification and cDNA synthesis were performed with the Ovation RNA-seq V2 kit (NuGEN) following the manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing libraries were further prepared using the Ovation Ultralow V2 DNA-seq Library preparation kit. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on a HiSeq4000 (Illumina) to obtain 20 million single-end 50bp reads. The complete procedure of the RNA-seq experiments and data analysis are provided as supplementary material.

Mass cytometry analysis

An atrial myocardial biopsy was obtained at the beginning of surgery and the myocardial leukocyte fraction immediately isolated and frozen. Multi-parametric myeloid leukocyte

phenotyping was performed by mass cytometry. The complete procedure of the Mass cytometry experiments, data processing and analysis is provided as supplementary material.

Statistical analysis

Continuous variables were tested for normality with the Shapiro test. Continuous variables with Gaussian distribution are given as mean \pm SD. Continuous variables with no Gaussian distribution are given as median (IQR). Categorical variables are given as percentages of individuals. Bivariate comparisons were performed using the t test for normally distributed continuous variables or the Mann-Whitney U test for not normally distributed variables. Bivariate comparisons of categorical variables were done with the χ^2 test.

A logistic regression backward model was used to explore predictors of POAF, type V MI and included pre-specified confounders previously associated with these outcomes (age, BMI, diabetes, and extracorporeal circulation duration). A backward multiple regression model was performed for post-operative CRP peak and post-operative troponin peak analysis and included age, BMI, diabetes, and extracorporeal circulation duration. A value of p<0.05 was judged to be statistically significant. All analyses were done using MedCalc v16.4 (Olstead, Belgium).
RESULTS

Patient characteristics and prevalence of CHIP-DSV carriers in patients undergoing AVR.

To determine the existence of a potential association between CHIP-DSV and an altered peripheral pre-operative immune phenotype and post-operative outcome, we enrolled 104 successive patients (Table 1) elected for cardiac surgery. The prevalence of CHIP-DSV was assessed by deep DNA sequencing of the leukocyte fraction.

Median age of patients was 70 years [65;75], 36% of patients were women and 29% had type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2D). One third of the patients were obese and 33% overweight. The left atrium (LA) was mildly dilated and LVEF was normal for most of patients, as expected in patients with severe AS. Pre-operative blood CRP and leukocyte counts were normal. CHIP-DSV carriers were older than non-CHIP-DSV carriers, but did not display other significant differences regarding clinical pre-operative features (Table 1). A large proportion of patients carried CHIP-DSV: 63 patients (61%) displayed >1% allelic frequency in 37 genes of the predefined gene panel. Most of the mutations were single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) (Figure 1A) resulting in missense mutations (Figure 1B). The most frequent mutations affected genes encoding epigenetic regulators and DNA damage response proteins, such as DNMT3A in 17% of patients (26% of mutations) and TET2 in 13% of patients (16% of mutations) (Figure 1C). Three percent of patients presented both DNMT3A and TET2 mutations. Additional mutations were found in several genes associated with the DNA damage response, such as ATM, SF3B1 and SMAD4 (in 9%, 3% and 4% of patients). Fourteen patients presented multiple mutated genes. The Variant Allele Fraction (VAF) ranged from 1.1 to 32.7% with a marked inter-gene heterogeneity (Figures 1D and S1). Moreover, the number of mutations per patient increased with age (Figure 1E).

CHIP-DSV carriers display pre-operative alterations in peripheral blood monocytes and myocardial macrophages.

Despite normal pre-operative blood CRP levels, CHIP-DSV carriers presented a higher preoperative number of blood leukocytes due to an increase in monocytes (Table 1 and Figure 2A). Given the involvement of classical monocytes in surgery induced-inflammation, RNAseq transcriptomic analysis was performed on sorted pre-operative classical CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocytes from 20 CHIP-DSV and 13 non- CHIP-DSV carriers with similar pre-operative clinical characteristics (Table S4). PCA analysis of differentially expressed genes identified 2 major clusters segregating most CHIP-DSV carriers from non-carriers (Figure 2B). Volcano plot analysis showed that a larger proportion of genes were down-regulated in monocytes from CHIP-DSV carriers (down vs up: 327 vs 185 genes, based on FDR<0.1). Contrasting with a previous study (21) none of the induced genes overtly related to classical inflammation, such as IL-1β, IL-6 or TNF (Figure 2C). Yet, pathway analysis revealed that several pathways were differentially expressed in CHIP-DSV carriers vs non- CHIP-DSV carriers. These pathways corresponded to the myeloid leukocyte activation, regulation of catabolic processes and autophagy, histone H3K4 demethylation, apoptosis processes, endosomal transport and TLR7 signaling pathways (Figure 2D). As the most significantly changes were affecting the myeloid leukocyte activation pathway, we further analysed this pathway. A gene correlation network connected several genes from this pathway whose expression are upregulated. Interestingly some of these upregulated genes have been previously associated to cardiovascular or metabolic pathologies, such as TLR7, fibrinogen-like 2 (FGL2), phospholipase D1 (PLD1), anoctamine 6 (ANO6), Vinculin (VLC), complement receptor 1 (CR1), PECAM1 and cathepsin S (CTSS) (Figure 2 E). The expression of these genes was higher in monocytes from CHIP-DSV carriers (Figure 2G). Interestingly, the expression of genes involved in monocyte proliferation and differentiation (CSF1-R), recruitment (CCR2)

or IgG-mediated activation (FCGR1a/CD64) was also up-regulated, while the expression of the nuclear receptor PPAR γ , involved in M2/anti-inflammatory macrophage polarization, was down-regulated (Figure 2F). Taken together, these results indicate that inflammatory monocytes of CHIP-DSV carriers display transcriptomic changes suggesting an enhanced activation state with up-regulation of genes involved in proliferation, chemotaxis, cellular adhesion, and polarization.

Since such a state might favor egression from the blood stream and myocardial recruitment, an in-depth unsupervised mass cytometry analysis of the myocardial myeloid leukocytes from a subgroup of 17 patients (11 CHIP-DSV versus 6 non- CHIP-DSV carriers) matched for baseline characteristics (Table S6) was performed next. The results revealed the presence of 16 myeloid clusters (Figure 3A&B). Although CHIP-DSV and non- CHIP-DSV carriers presented similar clinical characteristics, the former displayed a distinct cardiac myeloid leukocyte population with an enrichment in cluster 4 cells, which correspond to a subset of monocyte-derived macrophages (HLA-DR⁺CCR2⁺CD11c⁺CD64⁺CD206⁺) with high expression of CD64, a hallmark of inflammatory macrophages. Altogether, these data indicate that CHIP-DSV carriers display an increase of inflammatory macrophages in the myocardium, associated with classical inflammatory monocytes displaying upregulation of markers associated to activation and chemotaxis.

CHIP-DSV carriers display increased post-operative inflammation and clinical complications.

Since monocytes are key players in innate inflammation and since the myocardial macrophage phenotype might enhance myocardial vulnerability, the impact of CHIP-DSV on the magnitude of the post-operative inflammatory response was assessed next. In line with the pre-operative activation state of innate immune cells in blood and myocardium, CHIP-DSV

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carriers presented a higher inflammatory response, as measured by the post-operative CRP peak, following cardiac surgery, which was not due to differences in the incidence of post-operative sepsis (Table 2). The association of CHIP-DSV with higher post-operative inflammation remained significant after adjustment for other pre-operative clinical characteristics (Table 2).

Associated with the higher post-operative inflammatory response, CHIP-DSV carriers developed a higher incidence of post-surgery complications, displaying a higher occurrence of POAF (CHIP-DSV vs non- CHIP-DSV: 62% vs 32%, p= 0.019) (Table 2). Despite no association between type V MI incidence and CHIP-DSV carriers, the association between the presence of CHIP-DSV and POAF incidence was independent of age. CHIP-DSV carriers also required a longer need following surgery for catecholamine support because of hemodynamic instability. The other complications were overall rare, but more frequent in CHIP-DSV carriers, although the differences did not reach significance: all 6 patients developing AKI (KDIGO \geq 2) were CHIP-DSV carrier, as was the patient who died during hospitalization as a result of a refractory hypoxemia following severe pneumonia.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that patients undergoing SAVR display a high prevalence of CHIP-DSV which increase with age and most frequently occur in two genes (DNMT3A and TET2) encoding epigenetic regulators. Moreover, we found that the presence of CHIP-DSV leads to transcriptomic changes of circulating classical inflammatory monocytes indicative of activation and chemotaxis and an associated increase in inflammatory macrophages in the myocardium. Finally, CHIP-DSV carriers display a more pronounced peri-operative inflammatory response and incidence of post-operative complications in CHIP-DSV carriers, especially POAF.

We found a high prevalence (i.e. 60%) of CHIP-DSV in this elderly population of patients suffering from severe aortic stenosis. The presence of CHIP-DSV was first identified as a major risk factor for coronary artery disease (CAD) by Jaiswal et al (18). Screening 74 predefined genes, these authors reported a prevalence of CHIP mutations of 17 and 10% in a cohort of elderly patients (median age of 70 years) with and without CAD, respectively, with VAFs ranging from 4 to 50% (18). Among these mutations the proportions of DNMT3A and TET2 mutations were comparable to those observed in our study (respectively 35% and 15% versus 26% and 13% in our study). Other studies, using deeper sequencing methodologies, reported a higher prevalence of CHIP. For instance, a study on 20 healthy individuals ranging between 50 and 60 years, assessing a panel of 54 genes with variant detections as low as 0.003% VAF, identified a prevalence of 95% of TET2 and/or DNMT3A mutations (24). Thus, the high proportion of CHIP-DSV observed in our cohort is likely due to both the depth of the sequencing allowing 1% VAF coverage as well as the large number of screened genes. Interestingly, this approach allowed the identification of mutations in genes playing roles in the DNA-damage response, such as the ataxia telangiectasia mutated (ATM) (25) or the Splicing Factor 3B subunit 1 (SF3B1) (26). Although not directly involved in epigenetic

regulation, mutations related to the DNA-damage response might induce a so-called proinflammatory 'senescence-associated secretory phenotype' (27).

The link between CHIP-DSV and CAD progression has been attributed to chronic baseline inflammation. In 2 recent small case-control studies, patients presenting DNMT3A or TET2 mutations displayed circulating leukocytes with a baseline elevated inflammatory state characterized by the induction of interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), interleukin-6 receptor and NLRP3 (21,22). Mechanistically, LDL receptor–deficient mice with hematopoietic- or myeloidspecific TET2 deletion or JAK2^{VF} mutation showed elevated expression of pro-inflammatory chemokines and cytokines in macrophages, enhanced recruitment of monocytes to the arterial intima and enhanced atherosclerosis development (28,29). Moreover, mice with TET2deficiency in hematopoietic cells display greater maladaptive cardiac remodelling and dysfunction in models of pressure overload hypertrophy and permanent coronary artery ligation due to the activation of the inflammasome complex (30).

Although we did not exclusively focus on TET2 and DNMT3A mutations only, our data on alterations in the classical inflammatory monocyte compartment at baseline are consistent with observations in 14 end-stage heart failure (HF) patients carrying CHIP-DSV in the TET2 or DNMT3 genes (21). Among the transcriptomic alterations found in inflammatory monocytes, the expression of several genes related to activation pathways, involved in the response of monocytes to pro-inflammatory or chemotactic stimuli, were elevated. Interestingly some of these genes have been previously associated to CAD. For instance, TLR7, which induces type I IFN responses in anti-viral immunity and auto-immunity (31), promotes Th17 responses in CD14⁺ monocytes (32). FGL2, a pro-thrombinase which interacts with TLR4 and promotes inflammation in hepatic macrophages (33) and a model of myocarditis (34). PLD1 and CD64 are part of the Fc γ R1/CD64 signaling cascade, which promotes the release of inflammatory cytokines by monocytes (35). PLD1 also regulates

phagocyte adhesion. (36). Interestingly, PLD1 is involved in the inflammatory response and scar formation after myocardial ischemia/reperfusion injury (37). Complement Receptor 1 (CR1/CD35) expression is altered in granulocytes from CAD patients (38). Cathepsin S (CTSS), a cysteine protease involved in antigen presentation (39), activates TLR7 and promotes monocyte and macrophage migration exacerbating vascular calcification and atherosclerosis (40). CCR2, a receptor controlling bone marrow emigration (41) and tissue recruitement of monocytes, promotes infarct injury (42). Finally. CSF-1 is also involved in monocyte extra-vasation into tissues (43).

All together our data identify an altered blood and myocardial immune phenotype in patients with CHIP-DSV, and therefore warrant further studies to identify the mechanisms leading to these alterations and their functional impact on other immune and cardiac cells.

Consistent with the pro-inflammatory macrophage phenotype in the myocardium, we observed an increased inflammatory response in CHIP-DSV carriers following surgery associated with a higher incidence of complications such as POAF. POAF is a frequent complication after cardiac surgery, which affects *ca*. one third of patients and is associated with increased risk for mortality and stroke (6). Despite the extensive number of studies reporting the association between POAF incidence with old age and peri-operative inflammation, POAF prediction and prevention remain unmet clinical needs. Several clinical trials assessed potential therapeutic strategies, such as corticosteroid and colchicine treatment, to attenuate the post-operative inflammatory response and/or POAF incidence (13–16). The results were, however, inconsistent, probably due, at least in part, to the high heterogeneity in the magnitude of the inflammatory response after cardiac surgery. Our study results suggest that pre-operative identification of CHIP-DSV -carrier patients may assist in the stratification of the peri-operative risk and thus tailor personalized peri-operative management. CHIP-DSV

carrier patients may, as such, be good candidates for anti-inflammatory drugs to prevent "disproportionate" post-operative inflammation and its related complications after SAVR.

Limitations

Our study has some limitations. First, given the median age of the included population, it is possible that the proportion of CHIP-DSV carriers was overestimated and might not represent the overall cardiac surgery population (e.g. middle-aged patients candidate for coronary artery bypass graft surgery), but only the elderly patients scheduled for SAVR. With respect to the post-operative outcomes, given the modest size of the clinical cohort, the lack of association between CHIP-DSV and AKI or type V MI might result in a type 2 error. Furthermore, this clinical study was not designed to formally establish a causal link between CHIP-DSV, preoperative alterations of monocyte/macrophage populations and post-operative inflammatory complications.

CONCLUSION

CHIP-DSV are common in old patients undergoing cardiac surgery. It associates with a preoperative increase in circulating monocytes, transcriptomic alterations of inflammatory monocytes and cardiac enrichment in pro-inflammatory monocyte-derived macrophages. It is also associated with the post-operative inflammatory response and its related complications. Pre-operative assessment of CHIP-DSV and/or alterations in monocytes might be valuable indicators for closer monitoring of post-operative inflammation.

| | Total (n = 104) | Non-CHIP-DSV $(n = 41)$ | CHIP-DSV $(n = 63)$ | Р |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-------|
| Age, years | 70 [65 ; 75] | 68 [62 ; 72] | 73 [68 ; 77] | 0.001 |
| Women, n (%) | 37 (36) | 18 (43) | 19 (30) | 0.22 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 28 [24 ; 31] | 28 [24 ; 32] | 28 [24 ; 30] | 0.33 |
| Obese, n (%) | 36 (35) | 17 (41) | 19 (30) | 0.33 |
| History of diabetes mellitus, n (%) | 30 (29) | 11 (26) | 19 (30) | 0.88 |
| LVEF (%) | 65 [58 ; 70] | 65 [56 ; 70] | 64 [60 ; 70] | 0.87 |
| LA area (cm ²) | 22±5 | 22±4 | 22±5 | 0.6 |
| Transaortic Vmax (m/s) | 4.4 [4.06 ; 4.77] | 4.4 [4.1 ; 4.7] | 4.4 [4.1 ; 4.9] | 0.74 |
| Mean transaortic gradient (mmHg) | 49.4 [40 ; 59.8] | 49 [40 ; 56] | 50 [40 ; 61] | 0.32 |
| Aortic valve area (cm ²) | 0.69 [0.57 ; 0.85] | 0.69 [0.6 ; 0.87] | 0.69 [0.56 ; 0.82] | 0.49 |
| Indexed aortic valve are (cm ² /m ²) | 0.36 [0.29; 0.44] | 0.34 [0.31; 0.41] | 0.36 [0.30; 0.42] | 0.99 |
| Pre-operative creatinin (mg/l) | 9 [7 ; 10] | 9 [7 ; 9] | 9 [7 ; 11] | 0.19 |
| Pre-operative MDRD clearance (ml/min/1,73 | 86±23 | 87±20 | 82±24 | 0.25 |
| Pre-operative CRP (mg/l) | 3 [3; 4] | 3 [3; 3] | 3 [3; 5] | 0.41 |
| Pre-operative leukocyte count (cells/ mm ³) | 7410 [6240; 8875] | 6745 [5990; 8030] | 7680 [6838; 9678] | 0.01 |
| Pre-operative monocyte count (cells/mm ³) | 600 [500 ; 700] | 500 [300 ; 900] | 600 [500 ; 800] | 0.007 |
| Pre-operative lymphocyte count (cells/mm ³) | 1700 [1300; 2100] | 1700 [1300; 2075] | 1700 [1300; 2200] | 0.9 |
| Pre-operative neutrophils count (cells/mm ³) | 4800 [4100; 6300] | 4600 [3625; 5525] | 5000 [4250; 6700] | 0.11 |
| Pre-operative eosinophil count (cells/mm ³) | 100 [100; 200] | 100 [100; 200] | 100 [100; 200] | 0.55 |
| Pre-operative basophil count (cells/mm ³) | 0 [0; 100] | 0 [0; 100] | 0 [0; 100] | 0.85 |

Table 1. Pre-operative baseline characteristics according to CHIP-driver sequence variation

Variables are given as median [1st quartile-3rd quartile], mean ±SD or number (percentage). BMI: body mass index. LA area: left atrial area. LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction.

| | Total | Non-CHIP-DSV | CHIP-DSV | | Adjusted |
|----------------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-------|----------|
| | (n = 104) | (n = 41) | (n = 63) | Р | P-value |
| Post-operative CRP peak (mg/l) | 180±82 | 147±60 | 199±87 | 0.002 | 0.0004 |
| Post-operative sepsis, n (%) | 23 (22) | 9 (22) | 14 (22) | 0.83 | |
| Reintervention, n (%) | 7 (7) | 1 (2) | 6 (9) | 0.32 | |
| Cardiac Tamponade, n (%) | 2 (2) | 0 | 2 (3) | 0.68 | |
| Post-operative atrial fibrillation, n (%) | 52 (50) | 13 (32) | 39 (62) | 0.005 | 0.019 |
| Post-operative acute kidney injury, n (%) | 21 (20) | 7 (17) | 14 (22) | 0.7 | |
| KDIGO≥2, n (%) | 6 (6) | 0 | 6 (10) | 0.1 | |
| Post-operative type V myocardial infarction, n (%) | 31 (30) | 7 (17) | 24(38) | 0.059 | NS |
| Post-operative troponin peak (ng/l) | 353 [286; 603] | 300 [255; 443] | 374 [297; 652] | 0.02 | NS |
| Days under catecholamine | 0 [0; 0] | 0 [0; 0] | 0 [0; 1] | 0.02 | 0.02 |
| Catecholamine use≥24hours, n (%) | 24 (23) | 5 (12) | 19 (30) | 0.053 | 0.055 |
| Length of hospital stay (days) | 12 [10; 14] | 11 [9; 13.5] | 12 [10; 14] | 0.09 | NS |
| Intra-hospital death, n (%) | 1 (1) | 0 | 1 (2) | 0.15 | |

Table 2. Post-operative outcomes according to CHIP-driver sequence variant status

Variables are given as median [1st quartile-3rd quartile], mean±sd or number (percentage). Adjusted P-value is provided for post-operative outcomes significantly associated with CHIP in univariable analysis (p<0.10). Backward multiple regression model was performed for Post-operative CRP peak and post-operative troponin peak and included age, BMI, diabetes, and extracorporeal circulation duration. For Post-operative atrial fibrillation and type V myocardial infarction, a backward logistic regression model was performed and included age, BMI, diabetes, and extracorporeal circulation duration. BMI: body mass index; KDIGO: Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes classification.

Figure legends:

Figure 1. Distribution of CHIP related mutations in the cohort

CHIP prevalence and mutations in the total cohort. A. SNP: single nucleotide polymorphism INS: insertion DEL: deletion. **B**. Variant classification for observed mutations. **C**. Top 10 mutated genes and proportion of each gene regarding all deleterious mutations. **D**. Distribution of variant allele frequency (VAF) of the top 10 mutated genes. **E**: Prevalence and number of mutations per patient according to age.

Figure 2. Pre-operative phenotype of peripheral blood monocytes:

Pre-operative phenotype of peripheral blood monocytes according to CHIP status. A. Peripheral blood total monocyte count according to CHIP mutation status before surgery; no CHIP mutation: 546±130cells/ml CHIP mutation: 662±233 cells/ml, p=0.009. **B**. Principal component analysis plot, using log-normalized expression values of top-expressing 10,000 genes. Two distinct clusters were individualized with a marked enrichment in CHIP carriers for the right sided cluster. C. Volcano plot of the top-expressing 10,000 genes. Genes in the "Myeloid leukocyte activation" term (the most significantly enriched term) are colored red. The dashed line indicates a false discovery rate of 0.1. **D**. GO: Biological Process terms most affected by CHIP mutation status, as ranked by a consensus p-value. GO term IDs are written in grey; to avoid redundancy, similar (Cohen's kappa > 0.3) high-ranking terms are listed under one main term. Only terms which had more than 75% of member genes in the set of 10,000 most-expressed genes were considered. E. Correlation network of top 70 significant genes (FDR = 0.12) in the "Myeloid leukocyte activation" term. Edges connect genes whose partial correlation adjusted for CHIP has Pearson's r > 0.8 F. Violin plots of selected gene expression levels. TLR7: Toll like receptor 7 (p=0.002, FDR=0.07, log2FC=1.22); Cathepsin $C (p=0.0002 \ FDR=0.059, \ log2FC=0.77); \ Cathepsin \ S (p=0,004, \ FDR=0,09, \ log2FC=0.56);$ CCR2: C-C Motif Chemokine Receptor 2 (p=0.01, FDR=0.11, log2FC=1.09); PECAM1: Platelet endothelial cell adhesion molecule 1 (p=0.001, FDR=0.07, log2FC=0.62); Vinculin (p=0.001, FDR=0.07, log2FC=0.63); CR1: Complement receptor 1 (p=0.004, FDR=0.09, PDR=0.09)log2FC=0.70); CSF1R: Colony stimulating factor 1 receptor (p=0.009, FDR=0.11, log2FC=0.85); FCGR1A: Fc Fragment Of IgG Receptor Ia (p=0.02, log2FC=0.58); PPAR G: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (p=0.003, FDR=0.08, log 2FC=-2.12).

Figure 3. Myocardial immune phenotype according to CHIP status

Myocardial immune phenotype in CHIP vs non-CHIP carriers. A. unsupervised clustering map of myeloid cells. 16 clusters were identified. **B**. Heatmap representing caracteristics of each identified cluster regarding the intensity of of expression of each marker. **C**. Violin plots representing the proportion of each cluster among the total CD45⁺ cells in myocardium according to CHIP status. Computations assumed same scatter for subsets (*cluster 4: $4.9\pm3.2\%$ vs $8.5\pm3.4\%$ of CD45⁺ cells, p=0.0001). **D**. Relative expression of markers defining cluster 4 in the map. Dashed line represents cluster 4 in each map.



Figure 1. Distribution of CHIP related mutations in the cohort







Figure 3. Myocardial immune phenotype according to CHIP status

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Supplementary materials

DNA sequencing

Library preparation and sequencing

DNA from buffy coat samples was extracted with QIAamp DNA Micro Kit (Qiagen) following manufacture instructions and submitted to the Integrated Genomics Operation (IGO) at the Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center (MSKCC) for quality and quantity analysis, library preparation and sequencing. DNA quality mas measured with Tapestation 2200 and all samples had a DNA Integrity Number (DIN) >6. DNA quantity mas measured with PicoGreen. For each sample, ~200ng of genomic DNA was used for library construction using the KAPA Hyper Prep Kit (Kapa Biosystems KK8504) with 8 cycles of PCR. After sample barcoding, 2.5 ng-1 µg of each library were pooled and captured by hybridization with baits specific to either the HemePACT (Integrated Mutation Profiling of Actionable Cancer Targets related to Hematological Malignancies) assay, designed to capture all protein-coding exons and select introns of 576 (2.88Mb) commonly implicated oncogenes, tumor suppressor genes (1) (Table S1). Capture pools were sequenced on the HiSeq 4000, using the HiSeq 3000/4000 SBS Kit (Illumina) for PE100 reads. Samples were sequenced to a mean depth of coverage of 1175x. For detailed information on the sample quality control checks used to avoid potential sample and/or barcode mix-ups and contamination from external DNA, see (1).

Mutation data analysis

The data processing pipeline for detecting variants in Illumina HiSeq data is as follows. First the FASTQ files are processed to remove any adapter sequences at the end of the reads using cutadapt (v1.6). The files are then mapped using the BWA mapper (bwa mem v0.7.12). After

mapping the SAM files are sorted and read group tags are added using the PICARD tools. After sorting in coordinate order the BAM's are processed with PICARD MarkDuplicates. The marked BAM files are then processed using the GATK toolkit (v 3.2) according the best practices for tumor normal pairs. They are first realigned using ABRA (v 0.92) and then the base quality values are recalibrated with the BaseQRecalibrator. Somatic variants are then called in the processed BAMs using MuTect (v1.1.7). The full pipeline is available here https://github.com/soccin/BIC-variants_pipeline and the post processing code is at https://github.com/soccin/Variant-PostProcess.

To identify somatic variants and eliminate germline variants, we ran all samples against a Frozen-Pool of 10 random genomes. Additionally, to reduce the risk of SNP contamination, we excluded mutations with a MAF (minor allelic frequency) cutoff of 0.01 using the gnomeAD database and variants with 35% variant allelic frequency (VAF).

Since the genes panel also contains genes associated with solid malignancies, we selected from the list of genes mutated those previously described associated with hematological malignancies and clonal hematopoiesis (2,3). We selected Single Nucleotide Variations (SNVs) mutations [Missense, Nonsense, Splice Site, Splice Regions] that were supported by at least 4 or more mutant reads, with a VAF >1% and with coverage of 50x or more.

Classification of variants

To classify somatic variants according to their pathogenicity we did as follow: variants were classified as "deleterious" when SNV is predicted to affect the protein as determined by PolyPhen-2 (possibly and probably damaging) and SIFT (deleterious) and/or reported as pathogenic/likely pathogenic by ClinVar (4) and/or oncogenic/predicted oncogenic/likely oncogenic by OncoKb (5). Variants were classified as 'pathogenic' if reported as pathogenic/likely pathogenic by ClinVar and/or oncogenic/predicted oncogenic/likely

oncogenic by OncoKb. These two databases report pathogenicity in cancer and other diseases, based on supporting evidence from curated literature.

Mass cytometry

Preparation of myocardial samples

The Atrial tissue samples were obtained from the right atrial appendage before aortic crossclamping and cardioplegia. The tissue was immediately cleaned, cut and digested at 37°C for 45 min in 0.1% collagenase I (in DMEM F12 medium). The digestion product was flushed using a 19G needle, then centrifuged (10 min at 1400rpm and 4°C). The pellet was resuspended in PBS and filtered through 40 μ M mesh. A second centrifugation was performed (10min at 1400rpm and 4°C) and the supernatant was removed. Lysis of red blood cells was then performed using a red blood cell lysis buffer (NH⁴Cl = 155 mM, NaHCO³ = 10 mM, EDTA = 0.127 mM). A last centrifugation was performed to isolate leukocytes (1400rpm, 4°C). Leukocytes Cells were then counted and the pellet was frozen in 90% FCS and 10% DMDS.

Antibodies

Unless otherwise specified, all the antibodies were from Fluidigm and purchased as conjugates (Table S1). Six antibodies were labeled (Table S2) respectively with ¹⁰³Rh, ¹¹³In, ¹¹⁵In, ¹⁴⁰Ce, ¹⁵⁰Nd and ¹⁵⁷Gd from Innovachem using the X8 polymer supplied in Maxpar Labeling Kits (Fluidigm®) according to manufacturer's protocol. Anti-CD8 antibody was labeled with MCP9 polymer supplied in Maxpar labeling kits (Fluidigm®) according to manufacturer's protocol. Anti-CD8 according to manufacturer's protocol. Anti-Perforin antibody was labeled with 139La Lightning-Link Metal kit (Expedeon®). Anti-CD1c and anti-CADM1 antibodies were labeled using ¹⁹⁵Pt and ¹⁹⁶Pt Cisplatin (BuyIsotope®) accordingly to the protocol published by Mei et al. (6).

Cell staining

After thawing, the leukocyte fractions from atrial tissues $(4x10^4 \text{ to } 1.4.10^6 \text{ cells})$ were stained for viability (10^7 cells/ml) in calcium magnesium-free phosphate buffered saline (PBS) added with 1 mM Cisplatin (Fluidigm®) for 5 min at RT. Reaction was quenched with MaxPar Cell Staining Buffer (CSB, Fluidigm®). After centrifugation (400 g, 5 min, RT), cells were resuspended in CSB at a concentration of $3x10^7$ cells/mL and incubated (RT, 10 min) with Fc Block (1/100, Becton Dickinson®). The 12 antibodies used for which epitope binding was previously reported by manufacturers to be sensitive to fixation (Table S2) were added for an additional 30 min incubation at RT. Stained cells were then washed twice before barcoding accordingly to the manufacturer's protocol (Fluidigm ®).

Two pools of 19 experimental atrial samples, from CHIP mutations carriers or non carriers, were processed separately for barcoding together with one aliquot of a control PBMC sample from a single healthy donor (C20). Cells were incubated in MaxPar Fix I buffer for 10 min at RT, washed twice in Barcode Perm Buffer, resuspended in 800 µL Barcode Perm Buffer and incubated with the appropriate Palladium barcode for 30 min at RT. After centrifugation (600g, 5 min, RT), cells were washed twice with Maxpar CSB and stained for 30 min RT with surface antibodies directed against epitopes that were not reported by manufacturers to be sensitive to fixation (Table S2) added with Fc Block reagent (1/100, Becton Dickinson®). After two washes with CSB, cells were fixed and permeabilized with eBioscienceTM FOXP3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set protocol B. After 30 min of incubation at RT with 1 ml of Fixation/Permeabilization working solution, cells were washed twice with 6 ml of 1x Permeabilization Buffer, incubated 30 min at RT with intracellular antibodies mix (Table XS1), and washed twice with 2 ml of 1x Permeabilization Buffer. Pellets were resuspended in 1 ml Maxpar Fix and Perm buffer added with 125 mM ^{191/193}Ir intercalator for one hour at RT and washed twice in Maxpar CSB and twice in Maxpar Water. Cells were resuspended in Maxpar Water at 5x10⁵cells/mL with 1:10 volume of Four-Element Calibration Beads (Fluidigm) and analyzed on a Helios mass cytometer instrument (Fluidigm®).

Data corresponding to the 2 barcoded pools of 19 samples (added with one control PBMC aliquot) were acquired during 8 periods (6 for the first pool and 2 for the second pool) of maximun 150 minutes at a maximum rate of 500 events/sec, with a tuning protocol (mass resolution, mass calibration, dual count calibration, and quality control test) performed between each period of data acquisition.

For the compensation matrix calculation, Comp Beads (Becton Dickinson®) were single stained in CSB with 1µg of each antibody used in the panel for 30 minutes at RT except for ¹⁹⁶Pt -labelled anti-CADM1 antibody, which is a chicken IgY, that is not captured by Comp Beads. It was replaced by an anti-CD8 (clone SK1, Mouse IgG1_{κ}) conjugated with the same batch of ¹⁹⁶Pt. After two washes with CSB and two washes with Maxpar Water, beads were mixed and acquired as a single tube at a maximum rate of 500 events/sec.

Data processing

Data were downstream processed for normalization using calibration beads signals and debarcoded following the manufacturer's instructions.

Batch effect normalization

The data acquired during then 8 periods of acquisition were thereafter considered as 8 independent batches in order to compensate for possible signal drift over duration of acquisition of a single barcoded pool. The control PBMC sample included in each barcoded run was gated on nucleated - single - biological - non beads - CD45⁺ live events (Figure S1 A) and used as an anchor for application of the CytofBatchAdjust R code published by Schuyler et al. (7). Briefly, each channel was tested for adjustment using the percentile method at 0.75pc, 0.80pc, 0.85pc, 0.90pc, 0.95pc and/or 0.99pc and channels adjustments as well as scaling factors were checked visually for each anchor sample to determine the best

fitted percentile adjustment of each channel as illustrated in Figure S1 B. After this pretuning, final adjustments were performed accordingly (Figure S1 C), and batch-adjusted FCS files from each single tissue were concatenated to reconstitute original samples.

Spillover compensation

The FCS file from mixed single stained beads was imputed in CATALYST R (8) using the NNLS method. The output compensation matrix (Figure S1 D) was applied to all the files and compensated FCS files were edited.

Data analysis.

Debarcoded - batch normalized – concatenated - compensated FCS files were gated on nucleated - single - biological - non beads - CD45⁺ live events (Figure S1 A) and processed for phenotype analysis using R 4.0.0 and a modified version of the Cytofkit package including UMAP computation using the uwot package (http://github.com/i-cyto/cytofkitlab). Dimension reduction was performed using the Umap algorithm and the output 2-dimensions map was used for density-based clustering using the Cluster X algorithm (Table S2 and Scripts 1 to 6). Illustrations were edited using the Cytofkit ShinyAPP browser and Cytobank®.

RNAseq

Classical CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocytes sorting

PBMCs were sorted into an Influx sorter (Becton Dickinson®) equipped with a 86 μm nozzle and tuned at a pressure of 24.6 psi and a frequency of 48.25 kHz. Sample fluid pressure was adjusted to reach and event rate of 10 000 events/second. Samples were stained 15 min at RT in PBS with Zombie UV (1/100, Biolegend), rinced twice with PBS, and stained with Pacific Blue anti-human CD16 (clone 3G8, 1/800), BV786 anti-human CD15 (clone HI98, 1/100), FITC anti-human CD14 (clone 61D3, 1/200), PE anti-human CD66b (clone G10F5, 1/100), PE-CF594 anti-human CD3 (clone UCHT1, 1/200), PE-Cy7 anti-human CD19 (clone HIB19, 1/500), AF700 anti-human CD56 (clone HCD6, 1/200) and APC-eF780 anti-human HLA-DR clone (LN3, 1/200). After two rince in PBS -0.5% BSA, cells were directly run on the cell sorter.

The gating strategy used to sort classical monocytes is presented in Figure S2.

RNAseq analysis

Sequencing reads were mapped to the human RefSeq reference library yielding an average of 9.5 million reads per patient. RefSeq counts were collapsed to gene symbols, taking the highest-expressing isoform when there were multiple sequence-to-gene mappings. The top 10,000 genes were selected for gene expression analysis. The DESeq2 R package (9) was used to normalize counts and calculate differential expression between patients carrying CHIP mutations and non-carriers, using sex as a covariate (design = \sim sex + CHIP). The Benjamini-Hochberg method was used to calculate false discovery rates (FDR). The log2 of DESeq2normalized counts was used for further analysis, such as principal components analysis (PCA) and pathway analysis. We tested differential expression of GO:Biological Process gene annotation terms (10) from MSigDB (11); only terms which had at least 75% of member genes in the top-expressing 10,000 genes were considered, which limited terms to those most relevant for monocytes, leaving a list of 1,302 terms. To test differential expression of GO:BP terms, we used a consensus of three methods: 1) Fisher's exact test for overrepresentation with the top 500 differentially-expressed genes (FDR \approx 0.11); 2) Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (Subramanian et al. 2005) on non-directional p-value ranking of genes with exponent weight p = 0, equivalent to a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; and 3) calculating the variance explained (r2) by CHIP status for each gene in a term, the mean of which acted as a test statistic, and comparing this to a null distribution calculated by permuting group labels 10,000 times. A consensus p-value was formed by z-score averaging the p-values of the three methods. For plotting, some top-ranking terms were combined if their Cohen's kappa > 0.3(inspired by gProfiler (12)).

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Table S1: panel of screened genes

| ABL1 | DOT1L | JARID2 | PTCH1 | WT1 | NUP93 |
|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| ACTG1 | DTX1 | JUN | PTEN | XBP1 | PAK1 |
| AKT1 | DUSP22 | KDM5A | PTPN1 | XPO1 | PARK2 |
| AKT2 | EED | KDM5C | PTPN11 | ZRSR2 | PDCD1LG2 |
| AKT3 | EGFR | KDM6A | PTPN2 | ACVR1 | PGR |
| ALK | EGR1 | KDR | RAD21 | AGO2 | PHOX2B |
| ALOX12B | EP300 | KEAP1 | RAD50 | ANKRD11 | PIK3CB |
| AMER1 | EP400 | KIT | RAD51 | AXIN2 | PIK3CD |
| APC | EPHA3 | KMT2A | RAD51B | BABAM1 | PIK3R3 |
| AR | EPHA5 | KMT2B | RAD51C | BBC3 | PLK2 |
| ARAF | EPHA7 | KMT2C | RAD51D | BCL2L1 | PMAIP1 |
| ARHGEF28 | EPHB1 | KMT2D | RAD52 | BCL2L11 | PMS1 |
| ARID1A | ERBB2 | KMT5A | RAD54L | BMPR1A | POLD1 |
| ARID1B | ERBB3 | KRAS | RAF1 | CARM1 | POLE |
| ARID2 | ERBB4 | KSR2 | RARA | CD276 | PPARG |
| ARID3A | ERG | LCK | RB1 | CDC42 | PPM1D |
| ARID3B | ESCO2 | LMO1 | REL | CDKN1A | PPP4R2 |
| ARID3C | ESR1 | LTB | RET | CENPA | PPP6C |
| ARID4A | ETNK1 | MALT1 | RHOA | CSDE1 | PRDM14 |
| ARID4B | ETV6 | MAP2K1 | RICTOR | CTLA4 | PREX2 |
| ARID5A | EZH2 | MAP2K2 | RNF43 | CUL3 | PRKCI |
| ARID5B | FAM46C | MAP2K4 | ROBO1 | CYSLTR2 | PRKD1 |
| ASXL1 | FANCA | MAP3K1 | ROS1 | DCUN1D1 | PTP4A1 |
| ASXL2 | FANCC | MAP3K13 | RPTOR | DICER1 | PTPRD |
| ATM | FANCD2 | MAP3K14 | RRAGC | DNAJB1 | PTPRS |
| ATP6AP1 | FAS | MAPK1 | RTEL1 | DNMT1 | PTPRT |
| ATP6V1B2 | FAT1 | MAPK3 | RUNX1 | DNMT3B | RAB35 |
| ATR | FBXO11 | MCL1 | RUNX1T1 | DROSHA | RAC1 |
| ATRX | FBXW7 | MDM2 | SAMHD1 | DUSP4 | RAC2 |
| ATXN2 | FGF19 | MDM4 | SDHA | E2F3 | RASA1 |
| AURKA | FGF3 | MED12 | SDHB | EGFL7 | RBM10 |
| AURKB | FGF4 | MEF2B | SDHC | EIF1AX | RECQL |
| AXIN1 | FGFR1 | MEN1 | SDHD | EIF4A2 | RECQL4 |
| AXL | FGFR2 | MET | SETBP1 | EIF4E | RFWD2 |
| B2M | FGFR3 | MGA | SETD1A | ELF3 | RHEB |
| BACH2 | FGFR4 | MGAM | SETD1B | EPAS1 | RIT1 |
| | 1 01 101 | | | | |
| BAP1 | FLCN | MITF | SETD2 | EPCAM | RPS6KA4 |
| BAP1 BARD1 | FLCN FLT1 | MITF MLH1 | SETD2 SETD3 | EPCAM ERCC2 | RPS6KA4 RPS6KB2 |
| BAP1 BARD1 BCL10 | FLCN FLT1 FLT3 | MITF MLH1 MOB3B | SETD2 SETD3 SETD4 | EPCAM ERCC2 ERCC3 | RPS6KA4 RPS6KB2 RRAS |
| BAP1 BARD1 BCL10 BCL11B | FLCN FLT1 FLT3 FLT4 | MITF MLH1 MOB3B MPEG1 | SETD2 SETD3 SETD4 SETD5 | EPCAM ERCC2 ERCC3 ERCC4 | RPS6KA4 RPS6KB2 RRAS RRAS2 |
| BAP1 BARD1 BCL10 BCL11B BCL2 | FLCN FLT1 FLT3 FLT4 FOXL2 | MITF MLH1 MOB3B MPEG1 MPL | SETD2 SETD3 SETD4 SETD5 SETD6 | EPCAM ERCC2 ERCC3 ERCC4 ERCC5 | RPS6KA4 RPS6KB2 RRAS RRAS2 RXRA |

| BCOR | FOXP1 | MSH2 | SETDB1 | ERRFI1 | SDHAF2 |
|--------|-----------|---------|----------|----------|---------|
| BCORL1 | FURIN | MSH6 | SETDB2 | ETV1 | SESN1 |
| BCR | FYN | MTOR | SF3B1 | EZH1 | SESN2 |
| BIRC3 | GATA1 | MUTYH | SGK1 | FAM175A | SESN3 |
| BLM | GATA2 | MYC | SH2B3 | FAM58A | SH2D1A |
| BRAF | GATA3 | MYCL1 | SMAD2 | FH | SHOC2 |
| BRCA1 | GNA11 | MYCN | SMAD4 | FOXA1 | SHQ1 |
| BRCA2 | GNA12 | MYD88 | SMARCA4 | FUBP1 | SLX4 |
| BRD4 | GNA13 | NBN | SMARCB1 | GLI1 | SMAD3 |
| BRIP1 | GNAQ | NCOR1 | SMARCD1 | GPS2 | SMYD3 |
| BTG1 | GNAS | NCOR2 | SMC1A | GREM1 | SOS1 |
| BTK | GNB1 | NCSTN | SMC3 | H3F3A | SOX17 |
| CALR | GRIN2A | NF1 | SMG1 | H3F3B | SOX9 |
| CARD11 | GSK3B | NF2 | SMO | H3F3C | SPRED1 |
| CASP8 | GTF2I | NFE2 | SOCS1 | HIST1H3A | STK19 |
| CBFB | HDAC1 | NFE2L2 | SOX2 | HIST1H3C | STK40 |
| CBL | HDAC4 | NKX2-1 | SP140 | HIST1H3D | TAP1 |
| CCND1 | HDAC7 | NOTCH1 | SPEN | HIST1H3E | TAP2 |
| CCND2 | HGF | NOTCH2 | SPOP | HIST1H3F | TCEB1 |
| CCND3 | HIF1A | NOTCH3 | SRC | HIST1H3H | TCF3 |
| CCNE1 | HIST1H1B | NOTCH4 | SRSF2 | HIST1H3I | TCF7L2 |
| CD274 | HIST1H1C | NPM1 | STAG1 | HIST1H3J | TEK |
| CD28 | HIST1H1D | NRAS | STAG2 | HIST2H3C | TGFBR1 |
| CD58 | HIST1H1E | NSD1 | STAT3 | HIST2H3D | TMEM127 |
| CD79A | HIST1H2AC | NT5C2 | STAT5A | HIST3H3 | TMPRSS2 |
| CD79B | HIST1H2AG | NTRK1 | STAT5B | HLA-B | TP53BP1 |
| CDC73 | HIST1H2AL | NTRK2 | STAT6 | HOXB13 | TRAF7 |
| CDH1 | HIST1H2AM | NTRK3 | STK11 | ICOSLG | UPF1 |
| CDK12 | HIST1H2BC | P2RY8 | SUFU | IFNGR1 | VEGFA |
| CDK4 | HIST1H2BD | PAK7 | SUZ12 | IL10 | VTCN1 |
| CDK6 | HIST1H2BG | PALB2 | SYK | INHA | WHSC1L1 |
| CDK8 | HIST1H2BJ | PARP1 | TBL1XR1 | INHBA | WWTR1 |
| CDKN1B | HIST1H2BK | PAX5 | TBX3 | INPP4A | XIAP |
| CDKN2A | HIST1H2BO | PBRM1 | TERT | INPPL1 | XRCC2 |
| CDKN2B | HIST1H3B | PCBP1 | TET1 | INSR | YAP1 |
| CDKN2C | HIST1H3G | PDCD1 | TET2 | IRS1 | YES1 |
| CEBPA | HLA-A | PDGFRA | TET3 | KLF4 | ZFHX3 |
| CHEK1 | HNF1A | PDGFRB | TGFBR2 | KNSTRN | ZBTB7A |
| CHEK2 | HRAS | PDPK1 | TNFAIP3 | LATS1 | HIRA |
| CIC | ID3 | PDS5B | TNFRSF14 | LATS2 | |
| CIITA | IDH1 | PHF6 | TOP1 | LYN | |
| CRBN | IDH2 | PIGA | TP53 | MAPKAP1 | |
| CREBBP | IGF1 | PIK3C2G | TP63 | MAX | |

| CRKL | IGF1R | PIK3C3 | TRAF2 | MDC1 |
|--------|--------|---------|-------|--------|
| CRLF2 | IGF2 | PIK3CA | TRAF3 | MLL |
| CSF1R | IKBKE | PIK3CG | TRAF5 | MSH3 |
| CSF3R | IKZF1 | PIK3R1 | TSC1 | MSI1 |
| CTCF | IKZF3 | PIK3R2 | TSC2 | MSI2 |
| CTNNB1 | IL7R | PIM1 | TSHR | MST1 |
| CUX1 | INPP4B | PLCG1 | TYK2 | MST1R |
| CXCR4 | IRF1 | PLCG2 | U2AF1 | MYOD1 |
| CYLD | IRF4 | PMS2 | U2AF2 | NCOA3 |
| DAXX | IRF8 | PNRC1 | UBR5 | NEGR1 |
| DDR2 | IRS2 | POT1 | VAV1 | NFKBIA |
| DDX3X | JAK1 | PPP2R1A | VAV2 | NKX3-1 |
| DIS3 | JAK2 | PRDM1 | VHL | NTHL1 |
| DNMT3A | JAK3 | PRKAR1A | WHSC1 | NUF2 |

| Table S2: | Called | somatic | variants | in | the | cohort: |
|-----------|--------|---------|----------|----|-----|---------|
| | | | | | | |

| Gene Symbol | Chrom- osome | HGVSc | HGVSp | Start_ Position | Variant_Classification | Variant_Type | VAF % |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------|----------|
| ARID2 | 12 | c.1277C>T | p.Thr426Met | 46231437 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,645 |
| ASXL1 | 20 | c.1186C>T | p.Gln396Ter | 31021187 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 21,961 |
| ASXL1 | 20 | c.2077C>T | p.Arg693Ter | 31022592 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 12,850 |
| ASXL1 | 20 | c.1210C>T | p.Arg404Ter | 31021211 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 2,912 |
| ASXL1 | 20 | c.3727C>T | p.Gln1243Ter | 31024242 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 1,752 |
| ATM | 11 | c.4577C>T | p.Pro1526Leu | 108163486 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,392 |
| ATM | 11 | c.9022C>T | p.Arg3008Cys | 108236086 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 6,802 |
| ATM | 11 | c.5250G>A | p.Trp1750Ter | 108172447 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 2,297 |
| ATM | 11 | c.1259T>G | p.Ile420Arg | 108121451 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,361 |
| ATM | 11 | c.2921+1G>A | - | 108141874 | Splice_Site | SNP | 5,105 |
| ATM | 11 | c.7513A>T | p.Lys2505Ter | 108201146 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 1,094 |
| ATM | 11 | c.7231_7235 | p.Glu2411GlnfsTer16 | 108199889 | Frame_Shift_Del | DEL | 14,894 |
| ATM | 11 | c.8180T>C | p.Val2727Ala | 108206600 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,491 |
| ATXN2 | 12 | c.534_538del GCAAC | p.Gln179AlafsTer69 | 112036781 | Frame_Shift_Del | DEL | 21,667 |
| AXL | 19 | c.1964A>G | p.Asp655Gly | 41759541 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 25,900 |
| CBL | 11 | c.443+1G>A | - | 119103406 | Splice_Site | SNP | 1,566 |
| CIC | 19 | c.1464+1G>A | - | 42794104 | Splice_Site | SNP | 1,475 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2309C>T | p.Ser770Leu | 25463184 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,189 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.1111G>T | p.Glu371Ter | 25469931 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 3,720 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2525A>G | p.Gln842Arg | 25458648 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,288 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.977G>A | p.Arg326His | 25470497 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,679 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.1898C>T | p.Pro633Leu | 25466805 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,669 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2185C>T | p.Arg729Trp | 25463308 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,955 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.977G>T | p.Arg326Leu | 25470497 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,381 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2174-2A>G | - | 25463321 | Splice_Site | SNP | 5,917 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2644C>T | p.Arg882Cys | 25457243 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,345 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.976C>A | p.Arg326Ser | 25470498 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,465 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2058C>G | p.Asp686Glu | 25464455 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,072 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2114T>G | p.Ile705Ser | 25463568 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,795 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2390A>G | p.Asn797Ser | 25462017 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,379 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2159G>T | p.Arg720Leu | 25463523 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,099 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2640G>C | p.Met880Ile | 25457247 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,853 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2644C>T | p.Arg882Cys | 25457243 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,754 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2635A>G | p.Asn879Asp | 25457252 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,064 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2645G>A | p.Arg882His | 25457242 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,314 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.852delC | p.Tyr284Ter | 25470909 | Frame_Shift_Del | DEL | 32,678 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2645G>T | p.Arg882Leu | 25457242 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,749 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.1903C>T | p.Arg635Trp | 25466800 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,065 |
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.976C>T | p.Arg326Cys | 25470498 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 7,670 |

| Gene Symbol | Chrom- osome | HGVSc | HGVSp | Start_ Position | Variant_Classification | Variant_Type | VAF % |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------|----------|
| DNMT3A | 2 | c.2081A>C | p.His694Pro | 25464432 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,608 |
| DUSP22 | 6 | c.169G>A | p.Asp57Asn | 335144 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 19,409 |
| DUSP22 | 6 | c.181C>T | p.Gln61Ter | 335156 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 20,797 |
| EGFR | 7 | c.1567T>A | p.Cys523Ser | 55229260 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 4,651 |
| FANCD2 | 3 | c.3462_3463 ins CAAACA AATGCAAT AGTATCCT ATGTGTCA CAGATAT | p.Ile1155GlnfsTer30 | 10128944 | Frame_Shift_Ins | INS | 17,500 |
| FGFR3 | 4 | c.1864G>A | p.Ala622Thr | 1807799 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,440 |
| FLT1 | 13 | c.547C>T | p.Arg183Cys | 29008324 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,885 |
| GATA3 | 10 | c.1172C>G | p.Ser391Trp | 8115823 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 3,149 |
| GNAS | 20 | c.2530C>A | p.Arg844Ser | 57484420 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,225 |
| GNB1 | 1 | c.169A>G | p.Lys57Glu | 1747229 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,389 |
| HIST1H3B | 6 | c.370G>C | p.Asp124His | 26031919 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,244 |
| KDM6A | Х | c.1924-2A>T | - | 44928822 | Splice_Site | SNP | 5,797 |
| KMT2C | 7 | c.5053G>T | p.Ala1685Ser | 151882672 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 20,988 |
| KMT2C | 7 | c.5053G>T | p.Ala1685Ser | 151882672 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 28,000 |
| KMT2D | 12 | c.11164C>T | p.Gln3722Ter | 49427324 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 1,483 |
| MAP2K4 | 17 | c.823A>G | p.Ile275Val | 12028620 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,786 |
| MDM4 | 1 | c.1100C>T | p.Ser367Leu | 204518437 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 2,709 |
| MGA | 15 | c.6428_6429 insTTATTA CTGGCTTT TTC | p.Gly2144TyrfsTer41 | 42042231 | Frame_Shift_Ins | INS | 10,938 |
| MGA | 15 | c.7295A>T | p.Glu2432Val | 42052624 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,842 |
| MOB3B | 9 | c.478C>T | p.Arg160Trp | 27359175 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 28,950 |
| NF1 | 17 | c.1720delA | p.Ser574AlafsTer12 | 29548946 | Frame_Shift_Del | DEL | 9,124 |
| NF1 | 17 | c.2294G>A | p.Arg765His | 29554278 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 4,202 |
| NFE2 | 12 | c.424C>T | p.Pro142Ser | 54686856 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 4,825 |
| RAD21 | 8 | c.514delA | p.Arg172GlufsTer12 | 117869680 | Frame_Shift_Del | DEL | 12,342 |
| ROBO1 | 3 | c.1900G>A | p.Val634Met | 78717099 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,220 |
| RRAGC | 1 | c.1005G>C | p.Leu335Phe | 39311654 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 8,834 |
| SF3B1 | 2 | c.1988C>T | p.Thr663Ile | 198267369 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,226 |
| SF3B1 | 2 | c.2098A>G | p.Lys700Glu | 198266834 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 8,742 |
| SF3B1 | 2 | c.2098A>G | p.Lys700Glu | 198266834 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 5,737 |
| SMAD4 | 18 | c127-2A>T | _ | 48573288 | Splice_Site | SNP | 11,194 |
| SMAD4 | 18 | c127-2A>T | _ | 48573288 | Splice_Site | SNP | 7,471 |
| SMAD4 | 18 | c127-1G>T | - | 48573289 | Splice_Site | SNP | 8,092 |
| SMAD4 | 18 | c127-2A>T | - | 48573288 | Splice_Site | SNP | 12,821 |
| SMC1A | Х | c.2132G>A | p.Arg711Gln | 53432008 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,258 |
| SMG1 | 16 | c.7865A>G | p.Glu2622Gly | 18847447 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,533 |
| STAG2 | Х | c.3706-1G>A | - | 123229221 | Splice_Site | SNP | 1,891 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.2862G>A | p.Trp954Ter | 106157961 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 4,641 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.3798T>G | p.Asn1266Lys | 106164930 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 7,832 |

| Gene | Chrom- | HGVSc | HGVSp | Start_ | Variant_Classification | Variant_Type | VAF |
|--------|--------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|------------------------|--------------|--------|
| Symbol | osome | | | Position | | | % |
| TET2 | 4 | c.1455_1456 insT | p.Asn486Ter | 106156554 | Frame_Shift_Ins | INS | 15,922 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.5736T>A | p.His1912Gln | 106197403 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,195 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.5618T>C | p.Ile1873Thr | 106197285 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,064 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.4075C>T | p.Arg1359Cys | 106190797 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,338 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.4354C>T | p.Arg1452Ter | 106193892 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 4,834 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.3571C>T | p.Gln1191Ter | 106164061 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 4,683 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.5075_5076 dupAA | p.Tyr1693AsnfsTer3 | 106196740 | Frame_Shift_Ins | INS | 7,646 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.3851C>T | p.Ser1284Phe | 106180823 | Missense_Mutation | SNP | 1,897 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.1924C>T | p.Gln642Ter | 106157023 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 1,630 |
| TET2 | 4 | c.689dupT | p.Ser231ValfsTer23 | 106155787 | Frame_Shift_Ins | INS | 12,455 |
| TSC2 | 16 | c.5069- 47_5068 +27delCAGGA AAGGTAGGG CCGGGTGGG GCCCTGCAG TG | - | 2137925 | Splice_Site | DEL | 33,887 |
| ZRSR2 | Х | c.1167C>G | p.Tyr389Ter | 15841083 | Nonsense_Mutation | SNP | 26,432 |

 DEL: Deletion HGVSc : Human Genome Variation Society notation in the cDNA; HGVSp: HGVSp, Human Genome Variation Society notation in the protein; INS: Insertion; SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism; VAF: Variant Allele Frequency

| Target | Clone | Antibody | Metal | Barcoding | Hand | Concentration |
|----------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| | | Isotype | Tag | fixative sensitivity | coupling/ polymer | |
| CD45 | HI30 | Mouse IgG _{1 r} | ⁸⁹ Y | | | 1 ug/100uL |
| CD282 | W15145 | Mouse IgG _{2a} r | ¹⁰³ Rh | | Maxpar X8 | 2 µg/100µL |
| 02202 | C | 1110 as 18 02a, k | | | 1.1m.pm 110 | - µ8/100µ2 |
| Pan-CEA | TET2 | Mouse $IgG_{2b, \kappa a}$ | ¹¹³ In | | Maxpar X8 | $2 \mu g/100 \mu L$ |
| Connexin 43 | 578618 | Mouse IgG _{2a} | ¹¹⁵ In | | Maxpar X8 | 2 μg/100μL |
| CD8 | SK1 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹¹⁶ Cd | | Maxpar MCP9 | 2 μg/100μL |
| Perforin | dG9 | Mouse $IgG_{2b, \kappa}$ | ¹³⁹ La | | LightningK it | 2 μg/100μL |
| CCR2 | K036C2 | Mouse IgG _{2a, к} | ¹⁴⁰ Ce | | Maxpar X8 | 2 μg/100μL |
| CD196/CC R6 | G034E3 | Mouse $IgG_{2b, \kappa}$ | ¹⁴¹ Pr | Yes | | 1 µg/100µL |
| CD19 | HIB19 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁴² Nd | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD127 | A019D5 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁴³ Nd | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD38 | HIT2 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁴⁴ Nd | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD163 | GHI/61 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁴⁵ Nd | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| IgD | IA6-2 | Mouse BALB/c IgG _{2a. K} | ¹⁴⁶ Nd | | | 1 µg/100µL |
| CD20 | 2H7 | Mouse IgG _{2b, κ} | ¹⁴⁷ Sm | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD34 | 581 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁴⁸ Nd | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD194 | L291H4 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁴⁹ Sm | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD64 | 10.1 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁵⁰ Nd | | Maxpar X8 | 2 μg/100μL |
| CD123 | 6H6 | Mouse IgG ₁ | ¹⁵¹ Eu | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| ΤϹℝγδ | 11F2 | Mouse BALB/c IgG ₁ | ¹⁵² Sm | Yes | | 1 µg/100µL |
| CD185 | RF8B2 | Rat LOU/M IgG _{2b, κ} | ¹⁵³ Eu | | | 1 µg/100µL |
| CD3 | UCHT1 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁵⁴ Sm | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD27 | L128 | Mouse BALB/c IgG ₁ | ¹⁵⁵ Gd | Yes | | 1 µg/100µL |
| CD183 | G025H7 | Mouse IgG _{1, κ} | ¹⁵⁶ Gd | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| Fox P3 | 259D/C 7 | Mouse BALB/c IgG ₁ | ¹⁵⁷ Gd | | Maxpar X8 | 2 µg/100µL |
| CD33 | WM53 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁵⁸ Gd | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD11c | Bu15 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁵⁹ Tb | | | $1 \mu g/100\mu L$ |
| CD28 | CD28.2 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁶⁰ Gd | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD26 | BA5b | Mouse IgG _{2a, к} | ¹⁶¹ Dy | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD66b | 80H3 | Mouse IgG ₁ | ¹⁶² Dy | | | $1 \mu g/100\mu L$ |
| CD172a | SE5A5 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁶³ Dy | | | $1 \mu g/100\mu L$ |
| CD161 | HP- 3G10 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁶⁴ Dy | | | 1 μg/100μL |

Table S3 : Leukocyte markers used for mass cytometry analysis.

| Target | Clone | Antibody Isotype | Metal Tag | Barcoding fixative | Hand coupling/ | Concentration |
|----------|--------|----------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | | | | sensitivity | polymer | |
| CD45RO | UCHL1 | Mouse $IgG_{2a, \kappa}$ | ¹⁶⁵ Ho | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD24 | ML5 | Mouse $IgG_{2a, \kappa}$ | ¹⁶⁶ Er | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD197 | G043H7 | Mouse IgG _{2a, κ} | ¹⁶⁷ Er | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD206 | 15-2 | Mouse IgG _{1, κ} | ¹⁶⁸ Er | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD25 | 2A3 | Mouse BALB/c | ¹⁶⁹ Tm | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| | | IgG _{1, к} | | | | |
| CD45RA | HI100 | Mouse $IgG_{2b, \kappa}$ | ¹⁷⁰ Er | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| Granzyme | GB11 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁷¹ Yb | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| В | | | | | | |
| CX3CR1 | 2A9-1 | Rat $IgG_{2b, \kappa}$ | ¹⁷² Yb | Yes | | 1 μg/100μL |
| HLA-DR | L243 | Mouse IgG _{2a, κ} | ¹⁷³ Yb | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD4 | SK3 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ¹⁷⁴ Yb | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD14 | M5E2 | Mouse IgG _{2a, к} | ¹⁷⁵ Lu | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| CD56 | NCAM1 | Mouse BALB/c | ¹⁷⁶ Yb | | | 1 μg/100μL |
| | 6.2 | IgG _{2b, K} | | | | |
| CD1c | L161 | Mouse $IgG_{1, \kappa}$ | ¹⁹⁵ Pt | | Cisplatin | 2 μg/100μL |
| CADM1 | 30 | Chicken IgY | ¹⁹⁶ Pt | | Cisplatin | 2 μg/100μL |
| CD16 | 3G8 | Mouse IgG _{1, к} | ²⁰⁹ Bi | | | 1 μg/100μL |

| Variable | Total (n=32) | non-CHIP (n=13) | CHIP (n=20) | p-value |
|-------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------|---------|
| Age (years) | 73 [64 ; 77] | 70 [62 ; 77] | 73 [66 ; 77] | 0.36 |
| Male, n(%) | 27 (84) | 10 (77) | 17 (35) | 0.89 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 28.5±3.6 | 26.8±3.5 | 29.4±2.4 | 0.093 |
| Diabetes, n(%) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Preoperative MDRD clearance | 86±19 | 84±13.9 | 87±22.7 | 0.64 |
| (ml/min/1,73 m ²) | | | | |
| LVEF (%) | 63±7.3 | 64±9.9 | 62±4.9 | 0.59 |

Table S4: Baseline characteristics of patients whose sorted classical monocytes were analysed by RNA sequencing

Variables are given as median [1st quartile-3rd quartile], mean ±SD or number (percentage). BMI: body mass index. LA area: left atrial area. LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction.
| Patient ID | Mutated gene | VAF (%) | Type of mutation |
|------------|--------------|---------|-----------------------|
| 1 | DNMT3A | 3.72 | Nonsense |
| | ZRSR2 | 26.4 | Nonsense |
| 2 | DMT3A | 1.07 | Missense |
| | SDHA | 1.6 | Missense |
| 3 | DMT3A | 1.38 | Missense |
| | HIST1H2BJ | 1.05 | Missense |
| 4 | DNMT3A | 1.75 | Missense |
| 5 | DNMT3A | 1.18 | Missense |
| | SF3B1 | 1.23 | Missense |
| | SMC1A | 1.26 | Missense |
| | AR | 30.2 | Missense |
| 6 | TET2 | 7.83 | Missense |
| | CTCF | 3.99 | Missense |
| 7 | TET2 | 15.9 | Frame shift insertion |
| 8 | TET2 | 1.19 | Missense |
| | CASP8 | 25.6 | Missense |
| | PDS5B | 8.87 | Missense |
| 9 | HIST1H2BJ | 1.94 | Missense |
| 10 | HIST1H3B | 2.24 | Missense |
| | TERT | 2.04 | Missense |
| | DUSP22 | 19.4 | Missense |
| | ALK | 2.11 | Missense |
| 11 | ASXL1 | 21.96 | Nonsense |
| | XPO1 | 8.26 | Splice site |
| 12 | MGA | 10.94 | Frame shift insertion |
| 13 | ATXN2 | 21.66 | Frame shift deletion |
| 14 | NF1 | 9.12 | Frame shift deletion |
| | FOXO11 | 26.16 | Missense |
| 15 | SF3B1 | 8.74 | Missense |
| 16 | RAD21 | 12.34 | Frame shift deletion |
| 17 | ROBO1 | 1.22 | Missense |
| | CSF3R | 2.36 | Missense |
| 18 | FGFR3 | 3.44 | Missense |
| 19 | KDM6A | 5.79 | Splice site |
| - | KDM5A | 1.28 | Nonsense |
| | GNA12 | 2.80 | Missense |
| 20 | EGFR | 4.65 | Missense |
| | CTCF | 1.29 | Missense |

Table S5: CHIP mutations in patients of the RNA sequencing experiment

VAF: Variant allelic frequency

| Variable | Total (n=17) | Non-CHIP (n=6) | CHIP (n=11) | p-value |
|-------------------------------|--------------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Age (years) | 66±8 | 65±8 | 67±8 | 0,63 |
| Male, n(%) | 12 (71) | 4 (66) | 8 (73) | 0,77 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 26±2,5 | 27,7±2 | 26,5±,3 | 0,35 |
| Diabetes, n(%) | 5 (29) | 3 (50) | 2 (20) | 0,41 |
| Preoperative MDRD clearance | 88±21 | 89±19 | 87±22 | 0,86 |
| (ml/min/1,73 m ²) | | | | |
| LVEF (%) | 61±8 | 57±9 | 63±8 | 0,17 |

Table S6: Baseline characteristics of the patients of the mass cytometry experiment according to CHIP status

Variables are given as median [1st quartile-3rd quartile], mean ±SD or number (percentage). BMI: body mass index. LA area: left atrial area. LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction.

| Patient ID | Mutated gene | VAF (%) | Type of mutation |
|------------|------------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | DNMT3A | 1.75 | Missense |
| 2 | DNMT3A | 32.6 | Frame shift deletion |
| 3 | DNMT3A DNMT3A | 1.06 | Missense Missense |
| 4 | DNMT3A TET2 | 2.28 1.89 | Missense |
| 5 | TET2 | 7.65 | Frame shift insertion |
| 6 | TET2 | 1.63 | Nonsense |
| 7 | ATM | 1.09 | Nonsense |
| 8 | NF1 CIC | 4.2 1.48 | Nonsense Splice site |
| 9 | ASXL1 TSC2 | 2.9 33.8 | Nonsense Splice site |
| 10 | SMAD4 | 12.8 | Splice site |
| 11 | DUSP22 | 20.79 | Nonsense |

Table S7: CHIP mutations in patients of the mass cytometry experiment

VAF: Variant allelic frequency



Figure S1 : Mass cytometry data pre-processing

Figure S1: Mass cytometry data pre-processing. A : Manual gating of CD45+ live cells on FCS files after exclusion of doublets, non-biological events and beads residues. B : Illustration of batch adjustment on CD8 marker. C : Summary of percentiles used for batch adjustment on each channel of the panel. D : Compensation matrix calculated using CATALYST.



Figure S2 : Gating strategy for classical monocytes sorting

Figure S1: Gating strategy to sort classical monocytes.

c. <u>Perspectives</u>

Dans ce travail, nous avons pu observer que la présence de mutations somatique acquises leucocytaires est très fréquente dans la population des patients opérés d'un remplacement valvulaire aortique chirurgical. L'hématopoïèse était également un facteur prédictif important de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et des complications cliniques associées. Compte tenu de ces éléments, les patients porteurs d'une hématopoïèse clonale semblent représenter donc une population à risque chirurgical élevé.

L'implication de l'hématopoïèse clonale dans l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire semble résulter d'un état d'activation monocytaire préalable à la chirurgie. Compte tenu de l'ensemble de ces élements, les patients porteurs d'une hématopoïèse clonale semblent donc représenter une population d'intérêt majeur pour les thérapies immunomodulatrice dans la période périopératoire. Toutefois, le coût lié au séquençage pousse à élaborer d'autres stratégies de dépistage des patients à haut risque de réponse inflammatoire tel que la réalisation de test de stimulation leucocytaire ex vivo en période pré opératoire.

Nous avons également pu observer que la présence d'une hématopoïèse clonale était associée à la présence d'un enrichissement myocardique en macrophages dérivés des monocytes. Toutefois, l'impact fonctionnel de cette population n'est pas clair à l'heure actuelle et des investigations complémentaires en ce sens semblent nécessaires.

PARTIE 3. Effet du moment de la journée sur l'inflammation postopératoire

a. Introduction

Le second acteur potentiel envisagé dans la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire est le rythme circadien. Afin d'explorer cette hypothèse, nous avons évalué l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire selon le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie cardiaque.

Nous avons donc divisé la cohorte de patient en deux groupes basés sur l'heure d'intervention. Le groupe « matin » a été défini par un début d'intervention entre 8h et 11h. Le groupe « après-midi » a été défini par une chirurgie réalisée entre 14h et 18h.

b. <u>Résultats</u>

Sur les 503 patients analysés, 247 ont été opérés le matin, 163 l'après-midi. 93 patients ont été opérés entre 11 et 14h. Les caractéristiques cliniques des patients opérés le matin et l'aprèsmidi sont présentées dans le tableau 1.

| | Matin (n=247) | Après-midi (n=163) | Р |
|------------------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|------|
| Age, années | 70 [63 ; 76] | 69 [62 ; 78] | 0.69 |
| Femmes | 93 (38) | 81 (49) | 0.02 |
| IMC (kg/m²) | 28.5 [21.5 ; 31.4] | 28.4 [25.3; 32.3] | 0.59 |
| НТА | 156 (63) | 112 (69) | 0.32 |
| Tabagisme | 59 (24) | 32 (20) | 0.33 |
| Diabète | 66 (27) | 47 (29) | 0.72 |
| BPCO | 27 (11) | 11 (7) | 0.19 |
| Euroscore II (%) | 1.33 [0.9; 2.1] | 1.33 [0.9; 2.2] | 0.35 |
| Surface valvulaire aortique (cm ²) | 0.69 [0.6 ; 0.85] | 0.68 [0.54 ; 0.8] | 0.3 |
| FEVG, % | 65 [58;69] | 60 [56 ; 67] | 0.06 |
| Surface atriale gauche (cm ²) | 24 [20 ; 27] | 23 [19 ; 27] | 0.44 |
| Durée de CEC (min) | 78 [63 ; 97] | 79 [68 ; 102] | 0.21 |
| Durée de clampage aortique (min) | 59 [47 ; 79] | 63 [52 ; 84] | 0.08 |
| Créatinine sérique préopératoire | 9 [7.7 ; 11] | 8.9 [8 ; 10] | 0.57 |
| Clairance MDRD pré opératoire | 81 [78; 88] | 80 [69; 98] | 0.65 |

Tableau 1. Caractéristiques cliniques selon le moment de la journée où la chirurgie est réalisée.

Abréviations : BPCO : bronchopathie chronique obstructive ; CEC : circulation extracorporelle ; IMC : indice de mase corporelle

On note donc une proportion plus importante de femmes opérées l'après-midi ainsi qu'une tendance à une durée de clampage aortique accrue l'après-midi sans autre différence clinique significativement notable.

Le pic de CRP post opératoire a ensuite été évalué selon l'heure de réalisation de la chirurgie. Les résultats représentant le pic de CRP post opératoire selon le moment de la journée sont représentés sur la figure 1.

Figure 1. Amplitude du pic de CRP post opératoire selon le moment de la journée où la chirurgie est réalisée :



Abréviations: CRP: C-réactive protein

c) <u>Discussion:</u>

Dans cette analyse portant sur plus de 500 patients subissant une chirurgie cardiaque, le moment de la journée n'était donc pas associé à une amplitude de réponse inflammatoire systémique différente, comme évaluée par le pic de CRP post-operatoire. Toutefois, nous avons réalisé de façon spécifique une analyse portant sur l'incidence des différentes complications postopératoires selon le moment de la journée où la chirurgie est réalisée afin d'évaluer l'existence d'une association non médiée par l'inflammation systémique postopératoire et ses mécanismes.

PARTIE 4. Effet du moment de la journée sur la lésion myocardique secondaire à une chirurgie cardiaque et sa prévention par un antagonisme Rev-Erbα

a. Introduction

La chirurgie cardiaque avec CEC est à l'origine de lésions myocardiques d'ischémiereperfusion associées à une augmentation de la survenue d'évènements cardiovasculaires et de la mortalité à court et à long terme. Il existe par ailleurs une variation diurne de la survenue d'évènements cardiovasculaires avec une incidence plus élevée de l'infarctus du myocarde au petit matin que le soir. Même si des effets du rythme circadien ont été montrés sur la tolérance à l'ischémie-reperfusion sur des modèles animaux, son impact chez l'homme reste controversé. Afin d'évaluer si le moment de la journée a des conséquences cliniques pertinentes, nous avons étudié l'incidence de la survenue d'évènements cardiaques dans une grande cohorte prospective de patients adressés pour un Remplacement valvulaire aortique. Nous avons également testé l'effet du moment de la journée sur la lésion myocardique périopératoire dans une cohorte randomisée. Enfin, nous avons réalisé une analyse transcriptomique d'échantillons myocardiques afin d'identifier la ou les voies de signalisation impliquées.

b. <u>Publication N°3</u>

Daytime variation of perioperative myocardial injury in cardiac surgery and its prevention by Rev-Erbα antagonism: a single-centre propensity-matched cohort study and a randomised study

Daytime variation of perioperative myocardial injury in cardiac surgery and its prevention by Rev-Erbα antagonism: a single-centre propensitymatched cohort study and a randomised study

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Summary

Background

On-pump cardiac surgery provokes a predictable perioperative myocardial ischaemia–reperfusion injury which is associated with poor clinical outcomes. We determined the occurrence of time-of-theday variation in perioperative myocardial injury in patients undergoing aortic valve replacement and its molecular mechanisms.

Methods

We studied the incidence of major adverse cardiac events in a prospective observational single-centre cohort study of patients with severe aortic stenosis and preserved left ventricular ejection fraction (>50%) who were referred to our cardiovascular surgery department at Lille University Hospital (Lille, France) for aortic valve replacement and underwent surgery in the morning or afternoon. Patients were matched into pairs by propensity score. We also did a randomised study, in which we evaluated perioperative myocardial injury and myocardial samples of patients randomly assigned (1:1) via permuted block randomisation (block size of eight) to undergo isolated aortic valve replacement surgery either in the morning or afternoon. We also evaluated human and rodent myocardium in exvivo hypoxia–reoxygenation models and did a transcriptomic analysis in myocardial samples from the randomised patients to identify the signalling pathway(s) involved. The primary objective of the study was to assess whether myocardial tolerance of ischaemia–reperfusion differed depending on the timing of aortic valve replacement surgery (morning vs afternoon), as measured by the occurrence of major adverse cardiovascular events (cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure). The randomised study is registered with ClinicalTrials.gov, number NCT02812901.

Findings

In the cohort study (n=596 patients in matched pairs who underwent either morning surgery [n=298] or afternoon surgery [n=298]), during the 500 days following aortic valve replacement, the incidence of major adverse cardiac events was lower in the afternoon surgery group than in the morning group: hazard ratio 0.50 (95% CI 0.32-0.77; p=0.0021). In the randomised study, 88 patients were randomly assigned to undergo surgery in the morning (n=44) or afternoon (n=44); perioperative myocardial injury assessed with the geometric mean of perioperative cardiac troponin T release was significantly lower in the afternoon group than in the morning group (estimated ratio of geometric means for afternoon to morning of 0.79 [95% CI 0.68-0.93; p=0.0045]). Ex-vivo analysis of human myocardium revealed an intrinsic morning–afternoon variation in hypoxia–reoxygenation tolerance, concomitant with transcriptional alterations in circadian gene expression with the nuclear receptor Rev-Erba being highest in the morning. In a mouse Langendorff model of hypoxia–reoxygenation myocardial injury, Rev-Erba gene deletion or antagonist treatment reduced injury at the time of sleep-

to-wake transition, through an increase in the expression of the ischaemia-reperfusion injury modulator CDKN1a/p21.

Interpretation

Perioperative myocardial injury is transcriptionally orchestrated by the circadian clock in patients undergoing aortic valve replacement, and Rev-Erbα antagonism seems to be a pharmacological strategy for cardioprotection. Afternoon surgery might provide perioperative myocardial protection and lead to improved patient outcomes compared with morning surgery. Funding

Fondation de France, Fédération Française de Cardiologie, EU-FP7-Eurhythdia, Agence Nationale pour la Recherche ANR-10-LABX-46, and CPER-Centre Transdisciplinaire de Recherche sur la Longévité.

Introduction

On-pump cardiac surgery is associated with predictable myocardial ischaemia–reperfusion.1, 2, 3 The consequent perioperative myocardial injury is associated with poor clinical outcomes such as left ventricular systolic impairment, the onset of heart failure, and short-term, medium-term, and long-term mortality.2, 4 Despite the emergence of trans-catheter interventions, such as trans-aortic valve implantation, the number of high-risk patients undergoing cardiac surgery is increasing substantially. This increase is due to the ageing population, the rising prevalence of associated comorbidities (eg, diabetes mellitus and renal failure), and an increase in the number of patients with the usual indication for combined surgery (ie, coronary artery bypass graft [CABG] with concomitant valve and/or aortic surgery).5, 6 These high-risk patients are especially susceptible to perioperative myocardial injury,7 resulting in worsened clinical outcomes following surgery; therefore, novel cardioprotective strategies must be explored, since the most recent approaches such as remote ischaemic preconditioning have failed to demonstrate success in the clinic.1, 5, 6

Cardiovascular diseases show diurnal variation, with a higher incidence of ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) in the early morning than in the evening.8 Although studies of circadian gene-knockout and mutant mice argue for a biorhythm in myocardial ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance,8, 9, 10 whether or not such a biorhythm, leading to meaningful differences in outcomes, exists in human beings remains unclear because of conflicting reports in the context of STEMI.11, 12, 13, 14, 15 Larger infarct sizes or a higher incidence of heart failure secondary to STEMI occurring in the early morning than later in the day have been reported in several studies.11, 12, 13, 14 However, in the largest (n=1099) multicentre study,15 Ammirati and colleagues were unable to show an effect of the time of the day on STEMI burden. In view of the interplay between ageing and the circadian clock,16 whether or not a time-of-the-day variation in perioperative myocardial injury exists in the ageing population undergoing cardiac surgery is unknown.

To assess if cardiac surgery done in the morning or afternoon has different clinical consequences, we studied the incidence of major cardiac outcomes in a large prospective cohort of patients who underwent scheduled aortic valve replacement. We also tested the effect of time of the day on perioperative myocardial injury in patients scheduled for aortic valve replacement and randomly assigned to undergo surgery either in the morning or the afternoon. We also did a transcriptomic analysis in myocardial samples from these randomised patients to identify the signalling pathway(s) involved. Among the most regulated genes, the Rev-Erb α nuclear receptor was tested as a potential pharmacological target for cardioprotection.

Methods

Study design and participants

The cohort study population consisted of all consecutive patients (aged ≥ 18 years) with severe aortic stenosis and preserved left ventricular ejection fraction (>50%) referred to our cardiovascular surgery department at Lille University Hospital (Lille, France) for aortic valve replacement (with or without coronary artery bypass graft) between Jan 1, 2009, and Dec 31, 2015. Patients with another notable valvular disease, a medical history of previous cardiac surgery, or congenital heart diseases were excluded. The ethics committee of our institution approved the cohort protocol. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients before inclusion in this cohort.

For the randomised study, patients (aged ≥ 18 years) undergoing isolated aortic valve replacement surgery for aortic valve stenosis with preserved left ventricular ejection fraction in our hospital (Lille University Hospital Hospital Lille, Lille, France) were enrolled between Jan 1, 2016, and Feb 28, 2017. Enrolment and randomisation were done the day before the patients' scheduled surgery. Patients with diabetes mellitus or renal insufficiency (serum creatinine level >150 µM) were excluded to maximise perioperative risk homogeneity. Patients with a history of atrial fibrillation or atrial flutter were also excluded, to allow postoperative atrial fibrillation to be assessed as an endpoint in all patients. Patients with substantial coronary stenosis (>50%) on the preoperative angiogram were excluded. All exclusions were done before randomisation. The randomised study was done in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (revised version, 1996), the European Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice (version 11, July, 1990), and French laws. The ethics committee of our institution approved the study protocol. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients before inclusion.

Randomisation and masking

For the randomised study, patients were randomly assigned (1:1) to morning or afternoon surgery by restricted permuted block randomisation, with a block size of eight. Randomisation was done on the day before the patients' scheduled surgery. The code sequence was computer generated and kept in sealed envelopes at a central location (Direction de la Recherche Clinique, Lille University Hospital, Lille, France) by non-medical staff not involved in the study. For each patient randomised, the next available code was used. Senior and junior staff cardiologists not involved in the perioperative treatment or analysis enrolled participants. After patient consent was obtained, these staff cardiologists opened the envelope to assign the patients to the morning or afternoon schedule of the surgery theatre. Patient inclusion did not modify the type of intervention, which was chosen before enrolment. Patient inclusion did not change the daily practices since the two senior surgeons involved in this randomised study operate twice in every working day allocated to scheduled surgery, with one patient being operated on in the morning and one in the afternoon by the same medical team. Therefore, cardiac surgeons and intensive-care physicians were kept unaware of the inclusion of their patients in the

study until hospital discharge. Anaesthesia, cardiopulmonary bypass, cardioplegia, and surgical procedures were done without any modification of the customary routine in our hospital.

Procedures

Patients in both the cohort study and randomised study underwent aortic valve replacement either in the morning or in the afternoon by one of the four senior surgeons who operated twice every working day: the same surgical team did both morning and afternoon surgery on the same day. Anaesthaesia, cardiopulmonary bypass, cardioplegia, and surgical procedures were done according to standard guidelines. Anaesthesia was induced with intravenous sufentanil $(1 \cdot 0 - 1 \cdot 5 \ \mu g/kg)$ and propofol $(0 \cdot 5 - 1 \cdot 5 \ m g/kg)$, and maintained with end-tidal sevoflurane $(1 \cdot 7\%)$ of the expired fraction. Surgery was done using normothermic cardiopulmonary bypass and repeated antegrade cold crystalloid-blood cardioplegia. Right atrial biopsy was obtained during pulmonary bypass preparation as previously described.17

In the cohort study, propensity score matching was used to select comparable morning and afternoon groups. Postoperative clinical outcome was assessed in these 1:1 matched populations.

In the randomised study, which was done to minimise confounding, eligible patients were randomly assigned (1:1) to undergo surgery either in the morning or the afternoon. Right atrial biopsies were obtained from the first 22 patients randomly assigned in the two morning and afternoon groups. Collection of such biopsies is routine practice in our hospital and therefore did not affect the randomisation concealment of the surgical team.

For the cohort study, all patients underwent clinical follow-up during the 500 days after surgery. Data were obtained from medical records and interviews with the general practitioners of the patients. Recorded clinical events were: major adverse cardiac events, including cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure. Each endpoint was centrally reviewed by two independent cardiologists who were masked to the time of the day that the patient had surgery. In case of disagreement, the endpoint was discussed with a third cardiologist.

In the randomised study, perioperative myocardial injury and postoperative complications until hospital discharge were recorded.18 Recorded clinical events were obtained from medical records and were: postoperative atrial fibrillation, requirement for inotropic support, and major adverse cardiac events including cardiovascular death and perioperative myocardial infarction.18 These events were recorded by senior and junior staff cardiologists not involved in the perioperative treatment or analysis. Perioperative myocardial injury was estimated by the area under the curve (AUC) for cardiac troponin T concentrations, calculated according to the trapezoidal rule.18 Venous blood samples were drawn from each patient preoperatively on the day before surgery and postoperatively at 6, 9, 12, 24, 48, and 72 h and analysed for serum cardiac troponin T concentration. No patients were excluded for missing data.

The experiments on atrial samples from human tissue were done as previously described19 and detailed in the appendix (p 2). Atrial myocardial samples were obtained via biopsy from patients in the morning and the afternoon. Atrial trabeculae were sequentially exposed to hypoxic and reoxygenation conditions. Contraction recovery from hypoxia–reoxygenation challenge was compared between the morning and afternoon group samples.

For the transcriptomic study, total RNA was extracted from human and mouse tissues and analysed on Agilent SurePrintG3 HumanGeneExpression 8x60Kv2 (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) or Affymetrix MoGeneST2 assays (Affymetrix-ThermoFisher, Santa Clara, CA, USA), respectively. High-density oligonucleotide arrays were used to identify differentially expressed genes in atrial samples from patients operated on in the morning matched with patients operated on in the afternoon. Data were analysed using the Genespring software suite, version 12.0.

Experiments on ex-vivo mouse heart models were approved by the local committee Direction Départementale des Services Vétérinaires-Nord-Pas-de-Calais-Lille (Lille, France). Mouse hearts were explored in the isolated Langendorff model at the sleep-to-wake transition (Zeitgeber time ZT12) and the wake-to-sleep transition (ZT0), as described.20 Hearts were subjected to global ischaemia for 35 min, reperfused for 45 min, and infarct sizes measured.21 Modulation of ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance with the Rev-Erb α antagonist SR8278 (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA)22 was tested in isolated perfused hearts after in-vivo administration (25 mg/kg [or dimethyl sulfoxide vehicle] given intraperitoneally at ZT8 and ZT11). An extended methods section is available in the appendix (pp 2–4).

Outcomes

The primary objective of the cohort study was to assess whether myocardial tolerance of ischaemiareperfusion differed depending on the timing of aortic valve replacement surgery (morning vs afternoon), as measured by the occurrence of major adverse cardiovascular events (cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure). The primary objective of the randomised study was to assess whether myocardial tolerance of ischaemia-reperfusion differed depending on the timing of aortic valve replacement surgery (morning vs afternoon), as measured by the severity of perioperative myocardial injury (defined in the procedures section). Cardiovascular death was defined according to the International Classification of Diseases, tenth revision (ICD-10 codes I00–I78). Myocardial infarction included both perioperative myocardial infarction (type 5) and myocardial infarction after cardiac surgery.5 Perioperative myocardial infarction (type 5) was defined by the association on the days following surgery of high concentrations of high-sensitivity troponin T in serum (>10 \times coefficient of variation of 10% for fourth-generation troponin T) with new pathological Q-waves, left bundle-branch block, or abnormal left ventricular wall motion on transthoracic echocardiogram at discharge. Post-surgical myocardial infarction was defined as an increase in serum high-sensitivity cardiac troponin T concentration (measured using Elecsys Troponine T-hs, Roche Diagnostics, Meylan, France) from baseline to at least twice the upper limit of normal, together

with evidence of myocardial ischaemia, such as angina symptoms or ECG changes, including persistent ST-segment or T-wave changes or new Q-waves. Admission to hospital for acute heart failure was defined as hospital admission for dyspnoea, peripheral oedema, or both, with elevated blood natriuretic peptide adjusted for age and renal function.

Statistical analysis

For the cohort study, propensity score matching was used to select comparable groups of patients. The propensity matching score was estimated by multivariable logistic regression. In the regression model, time of day of surgery was the dependent variable. The independent variables were chosen because of their prognostic significance in the previously published literature4, 5, 6, 18 or our cohort (appendix p 10) and were: age, sex, serum creatinine concentration, medical history of diabetes mellitus, indexed left ventricle mass, Euroscore II, concomitant coronary bypass graft, and aortic cross-clamping duration. After estimation of the propensity score, patients in the morning group were matched in a 1:1 ratio to those in the afternoon group. The optimal matching algorithm with a caliper size of within 1% of the estimated propensity score was used to construct a matched-paired sample.

For the randomised study, the sample size calculation for patients was done according to the previous study by Chiari and colleagues.3 Our hypothesis was that there would be a 35% (SD 58%) relative difference in troponin release (troponin T AUC) between the afternoon and morning group, which meant that a sample size of 44 patients in each group was needed to get a power of 80% for a significance level of 5% with a two-tailed test.

The number of ex-vivo experiments on human atrial tissue (n=22 per group) was calculated a priori based on previous data.19 We postulated that there would be a 20% (SD 20%) relative difference in contraction recovery between the afternoon and morning groups, hence requiring a sample size of 22 experiments in each group to obtain 90% power for a significance level of 5% with a two-tailed test.

Continuous variables with a Gaussian distribution are provided as mean (SD) or mean (standard error of the mean [SEM]) as specified. Continuous variables with no Gaussian distribution are given as median (IQR). Categorical variables are given as the number (percentage) of patients with the respective attribute. Bivariate comparisons were performed using the t test for normally distributed continuous variables or the Mann-Whitney U test for variables not normally distributed. Bivariate comparisons of categorical variables were done with the χ^2 test.

For multiple comparisons of normally distributed variables between more than two groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used with post-hoc t tests and Bonferroni corrections.

For time-to-event variables, the survival functions were estimated with the Kaplan-Meier method and compared by log-rank. Cox's proportional hazard regression was used to obtain hazard ratios (HRs).

AUC values for serum cardiac troponin T concentrations were log-transformed before comparison, and then back-transformed for presentation as the geometric mean (95% CI).

The effect of the time of the day on perioperative myocardial injury—ie, log (troponin AUC)—was adjusted to aortic cross-clamping duration and serum creatinine level by a multivariate linear regression model using no variable selection.

Two-way ANOVA for repeated measure (circadian effect \times reoxygenation time) was used to assess the respective effects of time-of-the-day, reoxygenation duration, and their interaction on atrial trabeculae contractile recovery after ischaemia. This ANOVA test was done after checking that data were normally distributed with constant variance. Post-hoc t tests were used with Bonferroni corrections.

A value of p<0.05 was judged to be statistically significant. All analyses were done using SAS version 9.3.

The randomised study is registered with ClinicalTrials.gov, number NCT02812901.

Role of the funding source

The sponsor of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report. DM and BS had full access to all the data in the study and had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

Results

Of the 720 consecutive patients who underwent scheduled aortic valve replacement in our hospital between Jan 1, 2009, and Dec 31, 2015, 350 were operated on in the morning and 298 in the afternoon (appendix p 11). Propensity score matching was used to mitigate the effect of a potential selection bias. In the matched-pair samples, the mean distance in the estimated propensity score was 0.07 (SD 0.15%) and resulted in two well-matched populations of 298 patients with similar preoperative and intraoperative characteristics (table 1). At completion of follow-up (median follow-up 500 days [IQR 480–500]), the frequency of major adverse cardiac events was lower in the afternoon group than in the morning group (HR 0.50 [95% CI 0.32-0.77], p=0.0021). This finding meant that one major adverse cardiac event was prevented for every 11 patients (95% CI 7-30) operated on in the afternoon (vs the morning; figure 1A, table 2). Notably, this decreased relative risk for afternoon patients was the result of decreased incidence of both immediate perioperative cardiovascular morbidity remained lower in the afternoon than in the morning patients even after exclusion of perioperative myocardial infarction events (figure 1B) and in the subgroup of patients who underwent isolated aortic valve replacement (n=445; appendix p 12).

In the randomised study, 88 patients scheduled for isolated aortic valve replacement surgery were randomly assigned to undergo surgery in the morning (n=44) or the afternoon (n=44; appendix p 16). The randomised study ended because of inclusion of the prespecified 44 patients per group, at a median follow-up of 12 days until hospital discharge (IQR 9–16). We did not observe any unintended

effects or harms in each group related to the procedure, and the two groups were well matched, with similar intraoperative characteristics (table 3). However, the postoperative geometric mean cardiac troponin T AUC was significantly lower in the afternoon group (179 ng/L [95% CI 161–198]) than in the morning group (225 ng/L [199–255]), with an estimated geometric means ratio for afternoon:morning of 0.79 (95% CI 0.68–0.93; p=0.0045; figure 2A, table 4). This time-of-the-day effect was also recorded upon analysis of data stratified for the two operating surgeons (appendix p 17) and remained significant after adjustment for aortic cross-clamping duration and serum creatinine concentration (table 5, appendix p 13).

Taken together, these data indicate that morning–afternoon variation in perioperative myocardial injury exists in patients undergoing aortic valve replacement, with afternoon surgery providing perioperative myocardial protection and better outcome.

We next explored whether these differences in morning and afternoon patients are related to intrinsic differences in myocardial ischaemic–reperfusion tolerance by subjecting human myocardial samples to hypoxia–reoxygenation conditions ex vivo. Atrial myocardial samples obtained freshly via biopsy from patients in the morning (n=14) and the afternoon (n=16) were studied. Contraction recovery after the hypoxia–reoxygenation challenge was significantly better in myocardial samples obtained from biopsies taken from patients randomised to afternoon surgery than those assigned to morning surgery, again despite no discernible differences in patient characteristics (figure 2B, appendix p 14).

To assess the mechanism responsible for the morning–afternoon variation in ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance, we did a transcriptomic analysis on morning and afternoon human myocardium biopsy samples. The analysis showed that the expression of 287 genes was regulated by the time of the day; these genes showed statistically significant differences in their relative expression between the morning and the afternoon (figure 2C). Biological term annotation of the differentially expressed gene list against the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes database showed a highly significant enrichment of the biological theme "circadian rhythm", suggesting that this process may be involved in the time-of-the-day myocardial ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance in the patients (figure 2C, 2D). In line with the circadian regulation of myocardial gene expression including previous results on human left ventricular myocardium,23 the nuclear receptor and transcriptional repressor Rev-Erbα and its target gene BMAL1/ARNTL displayed anti-phasic time-of-the-day expression variation, with BMAL1/ARNTL being prominently expressed during the afternoon when Rev-Erbα levels are low (figure 2E). Thus, the human myocardium displays an intrinsic morning–afternoon variation in hypoxia–reoxygenation tolerance concomitantly with transcriptional alterations in circadian gene expression.

Since Rev-Erba was one of the most dynamically regulated genes between the morning versus afternoon (figure 2D, 2E) and a relevant pharmacological target with available synthetic ligands,22 we assessed whether targeting the Rev-Erba signalling pathway might change the differences in myocardial hypoxia–reoxygenation tolerance between the morning and afternoon by inhibiting Rev-Erba activity, either by Rev-Erba gene ablation (knockout) or treatment with its synthetic antagonist SR8278, in isolated mouse hearts (see appendix pp 5–7, 15, 18–24 for detailed results and figures). Both Rev-Erba gene deletion and pharmacological inhibition conferred myocardial hypoxia–reoxygenation tolerance at the sleep-to-wake transition, acting via its downstream effector CDKN1a/p21 (appendix pp 5–7).

Discussion

The results of our study show a clinically significant morning versus afternoon variation in myocardial tolerance to the controlled ischaemia–reperfusion insult imposed during cardiac surgery, with patients undergoing aortic valve replacement in the afternoon displaying a lower perioperative myocardial injury and postoperative morbidity than those operated on in the morning. Unbiased transcriptome analysis of cardiac biopsies identified circadian genes with expression of the pharmacological target Rev-Erba being highest in the morning. In mice, Rev-Erba gene deletion or antagonist treatment prevented the hypoxia–reoxygenation injury at the time of sleep-to-wake transition in an ex-vivo Langendorff model of hypoxia–reoxygenation myocardial injury, through a mechanism involving altered expression of the ischaemia–reperfusion modulator CDKN1a/p21.24

Despite major improvements in surgical and cardiac protection techniques, cardiac surgery with extracorporeal circulation requires cardioplegia and exclusion of the heart from the general circulation by aortic cross-clamping—ie, provoking a sequence of myocardial ischaemia–reperfusion.1, 2, 3 This problem remains a major issue even though trans-catheter valve implantation is increasingly used.

Mixed results have been reported regarding the existence of a biorhythm in myocardial ischaemia– reperfusion tolerance with clinical consequences in the context of STEMI.11, 12, 13, 14, 15 From this inconsistency, several concerns have arisen. First, a so-called human factor, rather than a biorhythm in ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance, has been suspected.25 Indeed, the reported worst outcomes for myocardial infarction occur during off-hours duty (ie, between the hours of midnight and 0600 h) for the medical staff, potentially because of reduced efficiency of the staff.15, 25 Second, geographical variation, latitude, seasonal factors, and ethnic differences could have been confounding factors in multicentre studies because both geographical and ethnic differences affect regulation of circadian genes.26, 27 We chose to study scheduled aortic valve replacement in a single-centre study to alleviate these concerns, and to show the existence of a biorhythm in cardiac ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance. Indeed, aortic valve replacement is a well-described surgical procedure with little variation between experienced surgeons such as the senior surgeons involved in our study. Accordingly, cardiopulmonary bypass and aortic cross-clamping durations were very similar between the morning and afternoon groups. Moreover, heart manipulation by the surgeon during aortic valve replacement is minimal, by contrast with that which occurs during coronary surgery. Thus, the main determinant of troponin release after aortic valve replacement is the duration of the aortic cross-clamping, rather than a human factor as has already been shown by others.3 Hence, we found a significant effect of the time of the day of surgery on troponin release in the days following surgery, which most likely results from a biorhythm of ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance of the human myocardium in accordance with the results from our transcriptomic studies.

We postulated that the observed variation in ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance is caused by an intrinsic biorhythm in the cardiomyocyte. Therefore, to exclude nervous system, inflammatory, and coagulation processes, we studied both human and rodent myocardia. We consistently show in these two models that the myocardium displays an intrinsic biorhythm in ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance, extending findings from animal studies of myocardial infarction.8, 9, 10 We further show that the morning– afternoon variation in ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance is paced in synchrony with core circadian machinery transcripts in the human myocardium. Down-regulation of Rev-Erba signalling by gene inactivation or antagonist treatment decreased the elevated hypoxia–reoxygenation injury noted at the time of maximal Rev-Erba expression levels. Transcriptomics identified CDKN1a/p21 as a downstream target of Rev-Erba in the human myocardium. As has already been shown in the liver,28 Rev-Erba directly represses the transcription of CDKN1a/p21, which protects cardiomyocytes from cell death.24 Overall, our data are consistent with a role of Rev- Erba as a master switch in cardiomyocyte ischaemia–reperfusion tolerance.

We recorded lower postoperative cardiac troponin AUC together with a lower incidence of perioperative (type 5) myocardial infarction in patients operated on in the afternoon. The size of the afternoon effect on perioperative myocardial injury was very similar to what has already been demonstrated with other cardioprotective strategies, such as ciclosporin and remote ischaemic conditioning, 3, 18 and its association with postoperative prognosis was consistent with published data.4, 18 However, although myocardial loss was intuitively related to postoperative heart failure, the decreased perioperative myocardial injury in the afternoon was probably not the only parameter responsible for the reduced incidence of subsequent heart failure in the afternoon group. Indeed, heart failure occurred months after aortic valve replacement despite preserved left ventricular ejection between circadian biorhythm and cardiac remodelling in pre-clinical models,8 the biorhythm affecting myocardial tolerance to ischaemia–reperfusion might also affect postoperative left ventricular diastolic (dys)function, left ventricular reverse remodelling, subsequent atrial fibrillation, and renal function. Further studies specifically dedicated to understanding the mechanism behind the lower frequency of heart failure development after afternoon aortic valve replacement than after morning surgery are

clearly warranted and should consider the interplay between circadian rhythms and systemic responses to surgery such as postoperative inflammation.

Although a single-centre study allows us to avoid many confounding factors resulting from heterogeneous perioperative patient management (eg, variations in anaesthetic drugs and cardioplegia), our findings do require validation in a multicentre study. In the cohort study, patients undergoing aortic valve replacement in the afternoon displayed lower rates of major adverse cardiac events than those operated on in the morning, but confident intervals were quite wide since the number of events was low, which is indicative of the current high-quality patient management during and following aortic valve replacement.

The randomised study was designed to test the effect of time-of-the day surgery on perioperative myocardial injury, assessed by measurement of the troponin AUC, and was not powered to show an effect on clinical outcomes. Moreover, patients with diabetes and renal insufficiency were excluded to increase perioperative risk homogeneity. Further studies on these patients are therefore warranted, since they represent a population with high cardiovascular risk.

The animal studies, despite providing mechanistic insight and proof-of-concept of a pharmacological approach, require confirmation in human beings. Moreover, the mouse is a nocturnal species. Nevertheless, as has already been shown in human and rodent myocardium,9, 23 and confirmed in our study, the pattern of circadian gene expression is the same when considering the sleep-to-wake and wake-to-sleep transitions as reference.

Finally, the association between perioperative ischaemia–reperfusion injury and medium-term clinical outcomes remains correlative. Moreover, time-of-the-day probably interferes with different systemic processes and as such might affect other organs (eg, kidneys and immune cells).

Based on our findings, a large, prospective, multicentre, randomised trial, designed to investigate clinical outcomes in patients undergoing either morning or afternoon cardiac surgery, is warranted.

To put our findings into perspective, a few years ago, David J Lefer wrote an editorial asking "whether there is a better time to have a heart attack?"29 We show here that the afternoon is probably a better time to undergo cardiac surgery than the morning, and is associated with a better mid-term prognosis. Importantly, cardioprotection in conditions of ischaemia–reperfusion injury concerns not only onpump cardiac surgery, but also STEMI and cardiac transplantation. Although consideration of the time of cardiac surgery (eg, afternoon surgery) is an option, this is not possible for STEMI and organ transplantation because the time of STEMI onset and death of the organ donor are unpredictable. Therefore, the consequences and applications of identifying the cardioprotective potential of modulation of Rev-Erb α activity are far greater than the sole situation of on-pump cardiac surgery. Rev-Erb α is a unique circadian gene belonging simultaneously to the molecular circadian clock and to nuclear receptor families. As such, by contrast with most other circadian genes, it is a relevant pharmacological target, and several small molecules acting through this receptor have been identified.22, 30 We provide the proof-of-concept that Rev-Erb α antagonism is potentially a useful strategy to limit ischaemia–reperfusion injury. The design and synthesis of novel compounds with higher activity and refined pharmacokinetic profiles is thus warranted to develop clinically effective and safe drugs.

In conclusion, perioperative myocardial injury is transcriptionally orchestrated by the circadian clock in patients undergoing aortic valve replacement with Rev-Erba antagonism emerging as a pharmacological strategy for cardioprotection. Consideration of the timing of surgery might also lead to improved outcome, with afternoon surgery providing perioperative myocardial protection and better patient outcomes.

Contributors

DM, XM, PL, and BS initiated the project, generated research funds and ideas, led and coordinated the project, interpreted data, and wrote the paper. DM and XM initiated and performed the in-vivo and exvivo experiments on human and mouse myocardia. AC, SM, CP, SN, and CK also contributed to the ex-vivo experiments. TM, GF, BJ, and MK did the cardiac surgery and human atrial biopsy. DM, AC, SM, CP, SO, CS, SN, and CK were responsible for patients' inclusion, follow-up, and adjudication of outcomes. AB, CG, and JE did the molecular biology and transcriptomic analyses. RD and BD did the pharmacokinetic studies. PL did the bioinformatics analyses. HD and DL provided intellectual input. DM and J-LE did the statistical analyses. All authors commented on the report, and have seen and approved the final version.

Declaration of interests

We declare no competing interests.

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Tables and figures:

 Table 1. Baseline characteristics and intraoperative events in the 596 patients in the cohort study

| | Morning surgery (n=298) | Afternoon surgery (n=298) | P value |
|----------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|------------|
| Demographics | | | |
| Age, years | 71 (10) | 71 (10) | 0-88 |
| Male sex | 162 (54%) | 160 (54%) | 0-93 |
| Body-mass index, kg/m ² | 28 (6) | 29 (6) | 0-38 |
| Risk factors and comorbidities | | | |
| Diabetes mellitus | 85 (29%) | 84 (28%) | 0-92 |
| Hypertension | 187 (64%) | 193 (65%) | 0-83 |
| Cardiac status | | | |
| Serum creatinine concentration, μM | 80 (71–96) | 80 (71–99) | 0-78 |
| New York Heart Association class | 2-2 (0-6) | 2-2 (0-6) | 0-96 |
| Left ventricular mass index, g/m ^{2.7} | 49 (15) | 50 (16) | 0-36 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction, % | 62% (8) | 6296 (8) | 0-67 |
| Left main artery ≥50% stenosis | 48 (1696) | 51 (17%) | 0-83 |
| Three-vessel coronary artery disease | 46 (15%) | 42 (14%) | 0-73 |
| Euroscore II, % | 1.78% (1.32) | 1.76% (1.32) | 0-87 |
| STS morbidity risk, % | 12-1% (6-5) | 12 - 1% (6 - 6) | 0-99 |
| Preoperative medication | | | |
| Aspirin | 77 (2696) | 72 (24%) | 0-50 |
| Beta blockers | 74 (25%) | 68 (23%) | 0-42 |
| Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or | 164 (55%) | 160 (54%) | 0-74 |
| angiotensin receptor blockers | | | |
| Statins | 125 (42%) | 131 (44%) | 0-62 |
| Diuretics | 134 (45%) | 133 (44%) | 0-93 |
| Surgery characteristics | | | |
| Cardiopulmonary bypass duration, min | 93 (32) | 92 (31) | 0-83 |
| Aortic cross-clamp duration, min | 74 (30) | 74 (27) | 0-90 |
| Concomitant coronary artery bypass graft | 81 (27%) | 70 (24%) | 0-40 |
| Number of coronary artery bypass graft anastomoses | 1-37 (0-60) | 1-36 (0-61) | 0-84 |
| Biological prosthesis | 245 (82%) | 244 (82%) | 0-99 |
| Prosthesis diameter, mm | 22 (2) | 22 (2) | 0-32 |
| Cardiac defibrillation | 15 (5%) | 20 (7%) | 0-49 |
| Surgeon A/B/C/D | 75/94/63/69 | 71/101/57/66 | 0-88 |

Data are mean (SD) or n (%). p values calculated by log-rank test. STS=Society of Thoracic Surgeons.

Table 2. Postoperative events in the 596 patients in the cohort study after 500 days of follow-up

| | Morning surgery (n=298) | Afternoon surgery (n=298) | HR (95% CI) for time- of-day effect pm vs am | P value |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|------------|
| Death during hospital stay | 4 (196) | 2 (0-5%) | NA | 0-42 |
| Perioperative myocardial infarction | 40 (13%) | 19 (6%) | NA | 0-0048 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction at discharge, % | 56% (9) | 58% (9) | NA | 0-0109 |
| Duration of hospital stay, days | 11 (10–13) | 12 (10–14) | NA | 0-53 |
| Major adverse cardiac event | 54 (18%) | 28 (9%) | 0-50 (0-32-0-77) | 0-0021 |
| Major adverse cardiac event without perioperative myocardial infarction | 21 (7%) | 10 (3%) | 0-47 (0-23-0-95) | 0-0468 |
| Cardiovascular death | 11 (4%) | 4 (196) | 0-36(0-13-1-01) | 0-0706 |
| Acute heart failure | 14 (596) | 5 (296) | 0-36(0-15-0-88) | 0-0386 |

Data are n (%), mean (SD), or median (IQR). Major adverse cardiac events included cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure. p values calculated by log-rank test. HR (95% CI) calculated by Cox's proportional hazard regression. HR=hazard ratio. NA=not applicable.

Table 3. Baseline characteristics and intraoperative data of the 88 randomised patients

| | Morning surgery (n=44) | Afternoon surgery (n=44) | P value |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| Baseline demographics | | | |
| Age, years | 69 (8) | 69 (9) | 0-87 |
| Male sex | 28 (64%) | 23 (52%) | 0-39 |
| Body-mass index, kg/m ² | 29 (6) | 29 (5) | 0-76 |
| Risk factors and comorbidities | | | |
| Hypertension | 27 (61%) | 32 (73%) | 0-36 |
| Serum creatinine concentration, μM | 79 (16) | 83 (18) | 0-28 |
| Cardiac status | | | |
| New York Heart Association class | 2-2(0-8) | 2.1(0.7) | 0-71 |
| Left ventricular mass index, g/m^2 | 116 (20) | 115 (17) | 0-78 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction, % | 62% (9) | 61% (7) | 0-66 |
| Preoperative medication | | | |
| Aspirin | 10 (23%) | 13 (29%) | 0-63 |
| Beta blockers | 11 (25%) | 10 (23%) | 0-95 |
| Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers | 23 (52%) | 23 (52%) | 1-00 |
| Statins | 19 (43%) | 21 (47%) | 0-85 |
| Diuretics | 19 (43%) | 20 (45%) | 0-90 |
| Preoperative risk scores | | | |
| Euroscore II, % | 1-1(0-9-1-5) | 1-1(0-9-2-2) | 0-29 |
| Surgery characteristics | | | |
| Surgery start time | 9:15 (9:05-9:35) | 15:10 (14:30–15:30) | |
| Cardiopulmonary bypass duration, min | 83 (21) | 85 (22) | 0-70 |
| Aortic cross-clamp duration, min | 65 (17) | 69 (19) | 0-31 |
| Cardiac defibrillation | 0 | 0 | |
| Surgeon A/surgeon B | 22/22 | 20/24 | 0-83 |

Data are mean (SD), n (%), or median (IQR).

| | Morning surgery (n=44) | Afternoon surgery (n=44) | OR (95% CI) for time-of- day effect pm vs am | p value |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|---------|
| Death during hospital stay | 0 | 0 | NA | |
| Need for inotropic support | 4 (9%) | 1 (2%) | 0 · 25 (0 · 03–2 · 17) | 0-20 |
| Postoperative atrial fibrillation | 16 (36%) | 12 (27%) | 0 - 75 (0 - 40–1 - 39) | 0-36 |
| Perioperative myocardial infarction | 7 (16%) | 2 (4%) | 0 · 29 (0 · 06–1 · 30) | 0-11 |
| Cardiac troponin T AUC (ng/L $\times72$ h) | 225 (199–255) | 179 (161–198) | 0 - 79 (0 - 68–0 - 93) | 0.0045 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction <45% at discharge | 5 (11%) | 2 (4%) | 0 · 40 (0 · 08–1 · 96) | 0-25 |
| Duration of hospital stay, days | 12 (3) | 12 (4) | 0 - 99 (0 - 89–1 - 12) | 0-89 |

Table 4. Postoperative events until hospital discharge in the 88 randomised patients

Data are n (%), geometric mean and 95% CI for the mean (in the case of cardiac troponin TAUC), or mean (SD). OR=odds ratio. AUC=area under the curve.

Table 5. Adjustment of the time-of-the-day effect on perioperative myocardial injury by multivariable analysis in the 88 randomised patients

| | Coefficient | Standard deviation | p value |
|--------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|---------|
| Log (troponin AUC) | | | |
| Afternoon surgery | -0.1084 | 0-0338 | 0-0019 |
| Aortic cross-clamping duration | 0-0021 | 0-0009 | 0-0296 |
| Log (troponin AUC) | | | |
| Afternoon surgery | -0.1179 | 0-0327 | 0-0005 |
| Aortic cross-clamping duration | 0-0018 | 0-0009 | 0-0476 |
| Serum creatinine concentration | 0-0232 | 0-0084 | 0-0073 |

The effect of the time of the day of surgery on perioperative myocardial injury—ie, log (troponin AUC)—was adjusted to aortic cross-clamping duration and serum creatinine concentration by a multivariable linear regression model with no variable selection. AUC=area under the curve.

Figure 1. Cardiovascular events after aortic valve replacement surgery according to time of the day of surgery in the matched cohort population

(A)Major adverse cardiac events (ie, cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and acute heart failure). (B) Major adverse cardiac events without perioperative myocardial infarction. (C) Acute heart failure. p values were calculated by log-rank test.





B Major adverse cardiac event without perioperative myocardial infarction

Figure 2. Morning-to-afternoon variation in perioperative myocardial injury, hypoxia–reoxgenation tolerance, and gene-expression profiles in human myocardium

(A)Perioperative myocardial injury in patients randomly assigned to morning (n=44) and afternoon (n=44) aortic valve replacement. The horizontal line and error bars for each group show the geometric mean (95% CI) of the area under the curve (AUC) for cardiac troponin T. The p value was calculated by Student's t test for log-transformed AUC. (B) Exposure to an oxygen-deprived medium results in a decreased contractile force developed by atrial trabeculae in isometric conditions. Replacement of the ischaemic buffer by an oxygen-enriched solution (mimicking reperfusion) allowed contractile function recovery. Means (SDs) are presented. p values are for the afternoon group vs morning group at the same reperfusion time and were calculated by post-hoc t test. (C) Volcano plot comparison of gene expression in atrial tissue between morning and afternoon biopsies, taken from 18 patients operated on in the morning matched with 11 patients operated on in the afternoon. The x-axis indicates the fold change ratios in a log2 scale, the y-axis indicates the statistical significance of the fold change (false discovery rate-corrected) on a log10 scale. Significantly dysregulated genes (fold change>1.2, p<0.05) are represented by red (upregulated) or green (downregulated) squares, and genes belonging to the circadian rhythm gene ontology category are indicated by an arrow. (D) Bar graph showing differentially expressed genes with relative individual expression levels displayed on a linear scale. *p<0.005 vs afternoon. (E) Gene expression in human atrial tissue measured by realtime quantitative PCR (n=28-30 samples per group). Data are means (SDs) of expression levels relative to those in the morning atrial tissue arbitrarily set to 1. p values are for the expression level in the afternoon group vs the morning group.



Supplementary appendix

Supplemental Methods.

Ex vivomodel of human myocardial IR toleranceExperiments were performed on atrial samples as previously described (1). The samples were biopsied from the first 22 patients randomised in the two morning and afternoon groups. Atrial trabeculae were sequentially exposed to hypoxic and re-oxygenation conditions: trabeculae were isolated from the right atrial appendage (length ranging between 5 to 10 mm; diameter ranging between 400 to 600 μ m) and attached to a force transducer in organ baths superfused with Krebs-Henseleit buffer (KHB 95%O2, 5%CO2, 37°C). During a 90 min stabilisation, the twitch force generated by the trabeculae was assessed during isometric contractions after gradually stretching to the length at which force generation was optimal (stimulation rate 1 Hz). Then, the trabeculae were exposed for 90 min to a glucose and oxygen-deprived solution (KHB 95%N2, 5%CO2) to induce myocardial ischemia, and finally for 60 min to the oxygenated KHB to mimic reperfusion. Contraction twitch force was measured at the end of stabilization and ischemic periods and at 10 and 60 min of reperfusion time. Contraction recovery from IR challenge was compared between myocardial samples biopsied in the morning and in the afternoon. Experiments with irregularly contracting trabeculae either at baseline or at the end of reperfusion, or trabeculae with an amplitude of contraction less than 1 mN were excluded from data analysis as previously reported (1). 8 samples were excluded for these reasons in the morning and 6 in the afternoon group. Transcriptomic study Total RNA was extracted from human or mouse tissues and analyzed on Agilent SurePrint G3 Human Gene Expression 8x60K v2 or Affymetrix Mo Gene ST2 assays respectively.Data were analyzed using the Genespring software suite (v 12.0). After normalization relative to the median value of each sample, a gene level analysis was performed to identify differentially expressed genes after exclusion of genes displaying intensity values in the lower 10th percentile. An unpaired t-test followed by a Benjamini-Hochberg multiple correction test identified genes showing a fold change >1.2 with a p value <0.05. Differentially expressed gene sets were functionally annotated using the DAVID tool (PMID: 19131956) to search the Gene Ontology Biological Process and the KEGG pathway databases.

Ex vivo isolated Langendorff-perfused mouse heart model of myocardial IR injuryMouse experiments were carried out in accordance with national guidelines and approved by the local committee DDSV-NPDC-Lille, France. Rev-erba-deficient mice (12 weeks old,

male)and their wild-type littermates (Rev-erba+/+ mice)in the C57Bl6 background were housed in a 12 h/12 h light/dark cycle and allowed ad libitum access to food and water (2). Cdkn1a/p21 knock-out mice and their wild-type littermates were obtained from Charles River (France). NFIL3 knock-out mice and their wild-type littermates were obtained from Dr Ronald E. van Kesteren (VU University, Amsterdam, The Netherlands)(3).Mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocationand hearts explored in the isolated Langendorff model at the sleep-to-waketransition (Zeitgeber time ZT12) and at the wake-to-sleep transition (ZT0), as previously described (4, 5). Isolated heart perfusion wasperformed with modified Krebs–Henseleitbuffer (Ca=1.4mM ; glucose=11mM). The heart was retrogradely perfused at constant flow rate of 2.5 mL/min and paced at 9Hz. All hearts were stabilized for 20 min and then subjected to 35 min of global ischemiaby switching off the coronary perfusion. The hearts were then reperfused for 45 min and prepared for infarct size measurement (below).Coronary artery pressure, bath ECG and left ventricular developed pressure were monitored to assess both contractile function and reperfusion sustained ventricular arrhythmia occurrence. At the end of the reperfusion period, 2,3,5triphenyltetrazolium chloride (1 % TTC) was injected through the aortic cannulae and incubated for 10min at 37 °C in order to delineate the infarcted (white) versus viable (red) tissue. The area at risk was the entire left ventricle in this global ischemia model. The heart was then sectioned perpendicular to the long axis and sections digitalized. Infarct sizes were measured by computerised planimetry (Adobe Photoshop) by one independent person blinded for mouse group. RNA was extracted from 5-7 hearts per group and analyzed on Affymetrix Mo Gene ST2 assays. Pharmacokinetics and -dynamics of the REV-ERBa synthetic ligand

Modulation of IR tolerance with the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 (Sigma St Louis, USA) (6)was tested in isolated perfused hearts after in vivo administration before sleep-to-wake transition: WT mice were injected twice with IP 25 mg/kg SR8278 (or DMSO vehicle) at ZT8 and ZT11 before sacrifice at ZT12 for the isolated heart experiments. To check forefficient REV-ERBa inhibition, hearts were flash-frozen followed by subsequent Bmal-1 transcript level quantification by RT-PCR. Pharmacokinetic analysis of SR8278 was performed to determine the optimal in vivo dosing regimen (Supplemental Figure 2).

RNA extraction, reverse transcription and real time qPCR Total RNA was extracted from myocardial tissue using the Extract-all reagent (Eurobio, Courtabeuf, France) according to the manufacturer's protocol. 500ng total RNA was reverse-transcribed using the High Capacity Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystem, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA,
USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. A 1:10 dilution of cDNA was then amplified by real time qPCR using TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix and specific TaqMan gene expression assays in a 7500 Fast Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems).Gene expression levels were normalized using the Ribosomal 18sRNA housekeeping gene expression level as internal control. Fold inductions were expressed as the ratio of the induced to the basal gene expression level arbitrarily set to one. Statistical analysis Continuous variables with a Gaussian distribution are given as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SEM, as specified. Continuous variables with no Gaussian distribution are given as median (25th to 75th) percentiles. Categorical variables are given as the number (percentage) of patients with the respective attribute. Bivariate comparisons were performed using the t-test for normally distributed continuous variables or the Mann-Whitney Utest for variables not normally distributed. Bivariate comparisons of categorical variables were performed with the chi-square test. For multiple comparisons of normally distributed variables between more than two groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.Post-hoct-tests were used with Bonferroni corrections. A value of p<0.05 was considered statistically significant. All analyses were conducted using SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina).

Supplemental Results.

Pharmacological antagonism of REV-ERBa-CDKN1a/p21 signalling prevents sleep-towake myocardial hypoxia-reoxygenation in tolerance. Since REV-ERBa was one of the most regulated genes (Figure 2D-E) and a relevant pharmacological target with available synthetic ligands(2, 6), we assessed whether targeting the REV-ERBa signaling pathway may alter time-of-the-day differences in myocardial hypoxia-reoxygenation tolerance. We thus tested the impact of inhibiting REV-ERBa activity, either by REV-ERBa gene ablation(KO)or treatment with its synthetic antagonist SR8278, on hypoxia-reoxygenation tolerance of isolated mouse hearts. Validating this approach, as previously reported(7-10), atrial and ventricular myocardium of wild-type (WT) mice expressed similar patterns of circadian gene transcript and protein expression(Supplemental Figure3) as the human myocardium (Figure 2C-E). Whereas no baseline difference in cardiac function was observed(Supplemental Table6), hearts from WT mice displayed a large difference in hypoxia-reoxygenation tolerance with significant higher incidence of reperfusion ventricular arrhythmias and larger myocardial necrosis area at the sleep-to-wake transition (highest REV-ERBa expression, Zeitgeber Time ZT12) than at the wake-to-sleep (lowest REV-ERBa expression, ZT0)transition time ex vivo(Supplemental Figure 4A-C). This pattern was lost in Rev-erba KO hearts, which were protected against hypoxia-reoxygenation injury

as shown by decreased reperfusion arrhythmia incidence and myocardial necrosis area at ZT12 (Supplemental Figure 4A-C). Timed in vivo administration of the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 (see pharmacokinetic profile in mouse hearts in Supplemental Figure 2) at ZT8 and ZT11 resulted in increased Bmal1 gene expression in WT mouse hearts at ZT12, indicative of efficient REV-ERBa inhibition (Supplemental Figure 4D), and significantly decreased the necrosis area secondary to global hypoxia-reoxygenation in the Langendorff model (Supplemental Figure 4E). To identify the molecular effectors regulated byREV-ERBa and directly involved in the time-of-the-day variation in myocardial hypoxiareoxygenation tolerance, microarray gene expression profiling was performed on WT mouse hearts at ZT12 and ZT0(7-9) and Rev-erba KO hearts at ZT12 (Supplemental Figure 5A-B). Strikingly, several genes upregulated at ZT12 belonged to the GO category "Circadian rhythm", including Rev-erba, a pattern reminiscent of the one observed in human atrial tissue (Figure 2C-E). To identify true Rev-erba target genes, we first identified genes whose regulated expression was lost in the Rev-erba KO background (Supplemental Figure 5B). The majority (19/20) of genes whose downregulation was concomitant to Reverba upregulation at ZT12 (green squares, Supplemental Figure 5A) displayed increased expression levels in Rev-erba KO hearts at ZT12 (green/black squares), including previously identified direct Rev-erba target genes such as Arntl/Bmal1. In contrast, genes upregulated at ZT12in WT mice were mostly insensitive to Rev-erba-deficiency. Since Rev-erba antagonist-treated and Rev-erba KO mice were equally protected from hypoxia-reoxygenation injury, we cross-checked the gene expression patterns at ZT12 between WT, Rev-erba KOandSR8278-treated mice (Supplemental Figure 5B-C). Two genes, i.e. Cdkn1a/p21 and Nfil3, both previously reported Rev-erba target genes(11, 12), were significantly upregulated both in antagonist-treated and Rev-erba KO mouse hearts(Supplemental Figure 5C). Since upregulation of both CDKN1a/p21 and NFIL3 protects cardiomyocytes against hypoxiareoxygenation-induced cell death (13, 14), we tested the cardioprotective effect of the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 in Cdkn1a/p21 KO and Nfi13 KO hearts at ZT12.Interestingly, although the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 significantly decreased the necrosis area by 49% in isolated hearts from Nfil3 KO mice, to a similar extend as in WT mice in which a 48% decrease was observed, such protective effect was not observed in hearts from Cdkn1a/p21 KO mice, identifying Cdkn1a/p21 as a downstream target of Rev-erba in its cardioprotective effects (Supplemental Figure 5D).Cdkn1a/p21transcript levels at ZT0 in WT and at ZT12 in WT, Rev-erba KOandSR8278-treated mice were significantly higher in conditions associated with elevated hypoxia-reoxygenation tolerance, i.e.in conditions

withlow Rev-erba expression (ZT0 vs ZT12 in WT mice or ZT12 in KO vs WT mice) activity (ZT12. SR8278vs vehicle-treated mice) (Supplemental Figure 5E). or Cdkn1a/p21 transcript and protein levels followed the same pattern (Supplemental Figure 3). Moreover, in complementary myocardial samples from patients operated on in the morning and in the afternoon (n=30/group from the cohort study), CDKN1a/p21transcriptand protein levels were significantly higher in the afternoon when compared to the morning, paralleling ARNTL/BMAL1 expression levels and opposing REV-ERBa expression(Figure 2Eand Supplemental Figure6). Altogether, these data identify REV-ERBa as a master switch in myocardial hypoxia-reoxygenation tolerance, acting via its downstream effectorCDKN1a/p21(Supplemental Figure 5G).

Supplemental References

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Supplemental tables and figures:

Supplemental Table 1. Association between MACE at end-of follow-up and clinical variables in the entire cohort population(n=648)

| | Bi-variate analysis | | | Multivariable analysis | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|-----------|----------|------------------------|-----------|----------|
| Covariate | Coefficient | Standard | n value | Coefficient | Standard | n value |
| covariate | | Deviation | F | | Deviation | P . Inde |
| | | | | | | |
| Age | 0.0027 | 0.0103 | 0.7954 | 0.001440 | 0.01309 | 0.9124 |
| Gender (Male) | -0.0189 | 0.2090 | 0.9276 | -0.07965 | 0.2637 | 0.7626 |
| Serum creatinine | 0.0243 | 0.0137 | 0.0767 | 0.01592 | 0.01530 | 0.2982 |
| Diabetes Mellitus | 0.2952 | 0.2124 | 0.1243 | 0.1663 | 0.2726 | 0.5418 |
| LV mass index | 0.0178 | 0.0068 | 0.0082 | 0.01871 | 0.007239 | 0.0097 |
| Euroscore II | 0.1064 | 0.0653 | 0.0935 | 0.07853 | 0.09981 | 0.4314 |
| concomitant CABG | 0.1648 | 0.2290 | 0.4716 | -0.2015 | 0.3465 | 0.5608 |
| AoCC duration | 0.0083 | 0.0029 | 0.0046 | 0.009222 | 0.003897 | 0.0180 |
| Afternoon surgery | -0.7005 | 0.2266 | 0.0020 | -0.7414 | 0.2663 | 0.0054 |

Association between MACE and each clinical variable was tested with Cox model. A multivariable Cox model was then constructed with all variables.

| | Morning | Afternoon | p-value |
|----------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------|
| | (n = 350) | (n = 298) | |
| Demographics | | | |
| Age (year) | 71 ± 10 | 71 ± 10 | 0.47 |
| Gender (Male) n (%) | 188 (54) | 160 (54) | 0.94 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 28 ± 5.5 | 28.5 ± 6 | 0.26 |
| Risk factors & comorbidities | | | |
| Diabetes Mellitus n(%) | 88 (25) | 84 (28) | 0.48 |
| Hypertension n (%) | 217 (63) | 193 (65) | 0.65 |
| Serum creatinine (µM) | 78 [71 ; 97] | 80 [71 ; 99] | 0.94 |
| Cardiac status | | | |
| NYHA class | 2.2 ± 0.6 | 2.2 ± 0.6 | 0.83 |
| LV mass index (g/m ^{2.7}) | 49 ± 15 | 50 ± 16 | 0.26 |
| LVEF % | 62 ± 8 | 62 ± 8 | 0.82 |
| Preoperative medication | | | |
| Aspirin n (%) | 86 (25) | 72 (24) | 0.90 |
| Beta-blockers n (%) | 88 (25) | 68 (23) | 0.49 |
| ACE-inhibitors or ARBs n (%) | 191 (54) | 160 (54) | 0.82 |
| Statins n (%) | 146 (42) | 131 (44) | 0.56 |
| Diuretics n (%) | 150 (43) | 133 (44) | 0.65 |
| Preoperative risk scores | | | |
| Euroscore II % | 1.80 ± 1.32 | 1.77 ± 1.32 | 0.75 |
| STS % | 12. ± 6.6 | 12.1 ± 6.6 | 0.81 |
| Surgery characteristics | | | |
| Cardiopulmonary bypass duration (min) | 93 ± 32 | 92 ± 31 | 0.85 |
| Aortic cross clamping duration (min) | 74 ± 30 | 74 ± 27 | 0.94 |
| Concomitant CABG n (%) | 99 (28) | 71 (24) | 0.17 |
| n CABG anastomose | 1.37 ± 0.60 | 1.36 ± 0.61 | 0.89 |
| Biological prosthesis n (%) | 288 (82) | 244 (82) | 0.88 |
| Prosthesis diameter (mm) | 22 ± 2 | 22 ± 2 | 0.44 |
| Postoperative characteristics & events | | | |
| Intra-hospital Death n (%) | 4 (1) | 2 (0.5) | 0.54 |
| Peri-operative MI n (%) | 48 (13) | 19 (6) | 0.0022 |
| LVEF at discharge (%) | 56 ± 9 | 58 ± 9 | 0.0105 |
| Hospitalization duration (days) | 11 [10 ; 13] | 12 [10 ; 14] | 0.49 |

Supplemental Table2: Baseline, intra-and post-operative data of the 648 patients operated on for AVR.

Variables are given as the mean ± *SD*, *median* [1stquartile-3rdquartile] or number (percentage). Infarction, *MI*.

Supplemental Table 3. Clinical outcomes after a 500-day follow-up in the 1-to-1 matched population of patients operated on for isolated AVR.

| 1-to-1 matched population with isolated AVR | Morning (n=217) | Afternoon (n=228) | HR (95%IC) pm vs am | p value |
|---------------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------|
| Demographics | | | | |
| Age (year) | 70 ±11 | 70 ±11 | | 0.66 |
| Gender (Male) n (%) | 113 (52) | 114 (50) | | 0.74 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 28 ±5 | 29 ±6 | | 0.19 |
| Risk factors & comorbidities | | | | |
| Diabetes Mellitus n(%) | 58 (27) | 64 (28) | | 0.90 |
| Hypertension n (%) | 137 (63) | 146 (64) | | 0.91 |
| Serum creatinine (µM) | 82 [74 ; 90] | 81 [73 ; 95] | | 0.64 |
| Cardiac status | | | | |
| NYHA class | 2.2±0.66 | 2.2±0.64 | | 0.86 |
| LV mass index (g/m ^{2.7}) | 49±13 | 50±15 | | 0.24 |
| LVEF % | 62±9 | 61±8 | | 0.52 |
| Preoperative risk scores | | | | |
| Euroscore II % | 1.44±0.97 | 1.48±0.97 | | 0.68 |
| Morbidity STS % | 11.1±5.85 | 11.4±6.2 | | 0.57 |
| Surgery characteristics | | | | |
| AoCC duration (min) | 65 ± 22 | 67 ± 23 | | 0.32 |
| Biological prosthesis n (%) | 174 (80) | 180 (79) | | 0.93 |
| Prosthesis diameter (mm) | 23 ± 2 | 22 ± 2 | | 0.16 |
| | | | | |
| Post-op event at end of follow-up | | | | |
| MACE n (%) | 40 (18.4) | 20 (8.8) | 0.46 [0.28-0.74] | 0.0031 |
| MACE without peri-operative MI | 16 (7.4) | 7 (3.1) | 0.42 [0.18-0.95] | 0.0478 |
| Cardiovascular Death | 8 (3.79) | 3 (1.32) | 0.36 [0.11-1.18] | 0.1173 |
| Acute Heart Failure | 6 (2.78) | 3 (1.32) | 0.48 [0.13-1.79] | 0.2894 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |

Major adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular events (MACE) includedcardiovascular death. myocardial infarction andhospitalization for acute heart failure. p-value by log rank test.

| | Bi-variate analysis | | | Multivariable analysis | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------|
| Covariate | Coefficient | Standard Deviation | p value | Coefficient | Standard Deviation | p value |
| | | | | | | |
| Age | -0.001761 | 0.002522 | 0.4869 | | | |
| Serum creatinine | 0.017 | 0.012 | 0.1437 | 0.0232 | 0.0084 | 0.0073 |
| LV mass index | 0.04937 | 0.04765 | 0.3110 | | | |
| Euroscore II | -0.01223 | 0.02545 | 0.6321 | | | |
| Beta-blockers | | | 0.3030 | - | | |
| AoCC duration | 0.003986 | 0.001099 | 0.0005 | 0.0018 | 0.0009 | 0.0476 |
| Surgeon A (vs B) | | | 0.3492 | - | | |
| Afternoon surgery | | | 0.0045 | -0.1179 | 0.0327 | 0.0005 |

Supplemental Table 4. Association between log (troponin AUC) and clinical variables in the randomised study.

Association between log-transformed troponin AUC and each clinical variable was tested with linear regression model. A multivariable linear regression model using no variable selection was then constructed with serum creatinine, aortic cross clamping duration (AoCC) and afternoon surgery.

| | Morning | Afternoon | p-value |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|---------|
| | | | |
| Demographics | | | |
| Age (year) | 70 ± 9 | 68 ± 9 | 0.49 |
| Gender (Male) n (%) | 15 (68) | 13 (59) | 0.53 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 29 ± 6 | 30 ± 5 | 0.46 |
| Risk factors & comorbidities | | | |
| Hypertension n (%) | 14 (64) | 17 (77) | 0.51 |
| Serum creatinine (µM) | 79 ± 17 | 76 ± 12 | 0.44 |
| Cardiac status | | | |
| NYHA class | 2.1 ± 0.8 | 2.1 ± 0.5 | 0.98 |
| LV mass index (g/m ²) | 115 ± 18 | 111 ± 17 | 0.34 |
| LVEF % | 64 ± 9 | 63 ± 6 | 0.67 |
| Preoperative medication | | | |
| Aspirin n (%) | 7 (31) | 7 (31) | 1 |
| Beta-blockers n (%) | 7 (31) | 4 (18) | 0.49 |
| ACE-inhibitors or ARBs n (%) | 12 (54) | 10 (45) | 0.76 |
| Statins n (%) | 13 (59) | 12 (54) | 0.98 |
| Diuretics n (%) | 8 (36) | 9 (41) | 0.91 |
| | | | |
| Surgery beginning time | 9:15 a.m [9:00-9:30] | 15:00 p.m [14:20-15:15] | |
| | | | |

Supplemental Table 5. Pre-operative characteristics of patients from whom atrial myocardium was assessed for contraction twitch force and ex vivo IR tolerance.

Variables are given as the mean \pm SD or number (percentage). No significant differences exist between the 2 groups.

Supplemental Table 6. Cardiac function assessed in vivo by trans-thoracic echocardiography (under isoflurane anesthesia) and ex vivo in the Langendorff model at sleep-to-wake (ZT12) and wake-to-sleep (ZT0) transitionsin WT, Rev-erba KO, Cdkn1a/p21 KO and Nfil3 KO mice.

| | WT ZT12 | Reverb KO Z12 | Cdkn1a KO ZT12 | Nfil3 KO ZT12 | WT ZTO | Reverb KO ZT0 |
|---------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|----------|------------------|
| in vivo | n=6 | п=б | n=5 | n=5 | - | - |
| HR (/min) | 650±37 | 659±49 | 667±58 | 646±38 | | |
| TTE HR (/min) | 440±102 | 429±81 | 450±67 | 448±58 | - | - |
| LVEDD (mm) | 4.4±0.49 | 4.2±0.74 | 4.4±0.6 | 4.4±0.9 | - | - |
| LVSD (mm) | 2.8±1.2 | 2.6±1 | 2.8±1.3 | 2.7±0.9 | - | - |
| FR (%) | 36±22 | 38±17 | 36±11 | 37±9 | - | - |
| PWT (mm) | 0.8±0.12 | 0.8±0.2 | 0.8±0.2 | 0.9±0.11 | - | - |
| SWT (mm) | 1.2±0.12 | 1.1±0.36 | 1.2±0.13 | 1.1±0.22 | - | - |
| SV (µL) | 60±14.7 | 56±24.5 | 58±15.6 | 61±18 | - | - |
| LVM (mg) | 141±39 | 132±39 | 136±22 | 145±26 | - | - |
| ex vivo | n=18 | n=8 | n=5 | n=5 | n=18 | n=8 |
| CP (mmHg) | 69±21 | 63±8.5 | 65±9 | 70±13 | 73±17 | 62±14 |
| LVDP (mmHg) | 66±8.5 | 65±5.6 | 70±9 | 71±6.6 | 64±8.5 | 67±8.5 |
| Post IR | - | - | | | - | |
| CP (mmHg) | 88±16 | 79±15 | 91±26 | 81±18 | 76±14 | 78±17 |
| LVDP (mmHg) | 6.4±5 | 22.3±14* | 7.4±7 | 6.2±4 | 15.2±10# | 20.1±15§ |

Mean +/-SD. No significant differences between groups was observed versus WT mice at the respective ZT in baseline.* p=0.0002 vs WT ZT12. #p=0.0020 vs WT ZT12. §p=0.0017 vs WT ZT12.spontaneous heart rate, HR; heart rate during thransthoracic echocardiography, TTE HR; left ventricular end-diastolic diameter, LVEDD; left ventricular systolic diameter, LVSD; left ventricular fraction shortening, FR; left ventricular posterior wall thickness, PWT; left ventricular septal wall thickness, SWT; left ventricular stroke volume, SV; left ventricular mass, LVM; mean coronary pressure, CP; left ventricular developed pressure, LVDP

Flow chart of the randomized study population



Supplemental Figure 1. Peri-operative myocardial injury and cardiovascular events after cardiac surgery according to time-of-day surgery and the surgeon in the randomized study.

Peri-operative myocardial injury assessed by cardiac troponin T (cTnT) release in blood during 3 days following cardiac surgery in patients randomly assigned to the morning (n=44) and afternoon (n=44) group. geometric mean (95% IC) of AUC for cTnT. p-value by two-way ANOVA.p-value = 0.006 for morning-afternoon effect without significant surgeon or interaction effects.



Supplemental Figure 2. Pharmacokinetic analysis of the Rev-erba antagonist SR8278 in WT mouse hearts.

Myocardial concentrationandpharmacokinetic parameters of the Rev-erba antagonist SR8278. Mice (n=4 per group) were injected with SR8278 (25mg/kg i.p.) at ZT12. Quantification of SR8278 concentrationswasperformed byLC-MS/MS method after tissue homogenization with Tissu Lyser II (Qiagen). Data are presented as mean +/-SD. * from Kojetin D and Burris Th, ACS Chem Biol,6, 131-134(2011)



| SR8278 pharmacokinetics (ip injection, 25mg/kg) in mouse heart | | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|----------|--|--|--|
| C _{max} | 1.92 μM | | | |
| T _{max} | 15 min | | | |
| t _{1/2} | 30 min | | | |
| IC ₅₀ | 0.35 μM* | | | |
| EC ₅₀ | 0.47 μM* | | | |

Supplemental Figure 3. Gene expression levels in murine atrial or ventricular tissues.

Gene expression of Rev-erba (a), Bmal-1 (b), Cdkn1a/p21 (c) and Nfil3/E4BP4 (d) in mouse atria and ventricles at ZT12 and ZT0. Expression levels relative to those in the ZT12 atrial tissue arbitrarily set to 1. n=4-5. ** p<0.01 and ***p<0.005 vs ZT12. e,Rev-erba mRNA and protein, f,Bmal-1 mRNA and Cdkn1a/p21 protein levels around the clock in mouse ventricles. n = 5 per ZT explored. 18S gene was used as a housekeeping gene for mRNA levels. Protein quantification by western-blotting was done relative to actin expression. Data are presented as mean +/-SD.ZT0 = wake-to-sleep transitioninrodents. ZT12 = sleep-to-wake transition inrodents.



Supplemental Figure 4: REV-ERBa gene-deficiency and pharmacological inhibition improve myocardial IR tolerance.

Myocardial IR tolerance was assessed in the Langendorff model using hearts from WT and REV-ERBa KO mice at sleep-to-wake(ZT12)and wake-to-sleep (ZT0)transitions: a,incidence of reperfusion ventricular arrhythmias assessed by ECG on isolated hearts (*p=0.0193; # p=0.0366; § p=0.0039vs ZT12 WT) and b,necrosis area/area at risk ratios (Panel B). *&**&***p<0.0001vs ZT12 WT group. p-valuesby post-hoc t-testor Fishers' test.c,Representative transversal sections of mouse hearts after global IR and TTC staining, uncolored myocardium being areas of necrosis. d,Effect of the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 (IP 25 mg/kg at ZT8 and ZT11) on cardiac Bmal1 transcript levels, and e,necrosis area/area at risk ratios after IR in the Langendorff model in WT mice sacrificed at ZT12. ** p<0.01and * p<0.05 vs SHAM.Data presented as mean +/-SD



Supplemental Figure 5: CDKN1a/p21 is a downstream target of REV-ERBa mediating the time-of-the-day variation in myocardial IR tolerance.

a, Volcano plot comparison of gene expression profiles in 23WT mouse hearts between ZT12 and ZT0. The x-axis indicates the fold change ratios in a log2 scale, the y-axis indicates the statistical significance of the fold change (FDR-corrected) in a log10 scale. Significantly differentially regulated genes (FC>1.2, p<0.05) are indicated by red (upregulated) or green (downregulated) squares. Genes belonging to the "circadian rhythm" or to the "focal adhesion" gene ontology categories are indicated by an arrow. b,Rev-erbadependence of differentially expressed genes at ZT12 vs ZT0. Gene expression was monitored by microarray analysis. The expression of the 20 most up-or down-regulated genes at ZT12 in the WT background were compared to those in the Rev-erbaKO backgroundat ZT12. Genes exhibiting a significantly altered expression in Rev-erba KO mice are indicated by an asterisk (p<0.05). c, Alteration of gene expression levels upon Rev-erba antagonist (SR8278) treatment. Gene expression levels were assayed by microarray analysis at ZT12 in WT mice treated or not with the Rev-erba antagonist SR8278 prior to IR injury. The expression of the 20 most up-or down-regulated genes at ZT12 in WT mice were assessed for regulation after SR8278 treatment. d,Effect of the REV-ERBa antagonist SR8278 (IP 25 mg/kg at ZT8 and ZT11) on necrosis area/area at risk ratios after global IR in the Langendorff model in WT, Cdkn1a/p21 KO and Nfil3 KO mice sacrificed at ZT12. *&**p<0.0001 vs SHAM. # p=0.0004vs WT. (n=5-7). Mean +/-SD. e,Cdkn1a/p21 expression measured by RT-QPCR at ZT0 in WT and at ZT12 in WT, Rev-erba KOand SR8278-treated mice. Mean +/-SD(n=3-6) * p=0.0074vs ZT12 WT. ** p=0.0118vs ZT12 WT. *** p<0.0001 vs SHAM. f,REV-ERBa represses CDKN1a/p21 gene expression (8), resultingin cardiomyocytes more sensitive to hypoxic insults at times of low CDKN1a/p21 levels which coincides with high levels of REV-ERBa, i.e. sleep-to-wake transition (ZT12) in mice and the morning in patients.



Supplemental Figure 6. CDKN1A protein levels in human hearts.

A: Western-blotting of CDKN1A and HSP90 (loading control) inhuman heart tissue samples obtained in the morning or afternoon. B: Densitometric quantification of protein level compared to HSP90. (* p=0.0059; morning n=13, afternoon n=14).Mean +/-SD.



Perspectives

Dans cette étude, nous avons pu observer que le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie cardiaque présente un impact important sur les suites opératoires du patient et notamment sur la survenue d'un infarctus postopératoire. Sur le plan physiopathologique, la modulation des récepteurs nucléaires à l'origine des variations circadiennes transcriptionnelles présentaient un impact direct sur la taille d'un infarctus sur un modèle murin.

De façon intéressante, nous avons pu observer que bien que la différence de relargage de troponine puisse difficilement expliquer une altération de la fonction systolique ventriculaire gauche au décours de la chirurgie, les patients opérés le matin présentaient également un devenir au long cours différent caractérisé par un sur risque d'insuffisance cardiaque.

Un tel impact au long cours pourrait évoquer un processus de cicatrisation au décours de la chirurgie différent au sein du myocarde conditionné par le recrutement initial de cellules immunes.

Ainsi, la modulation de l'horloge circadienne en péri opératoire pourrait être intéressante dans la prévention des évènements péri-opératoires immédiats mais également au long cours.

Des études approfondies visant à évaluer les processus cicatriciels intra myocardiques suivant la chirurgie cardiaque réalisée le matin ou l'après midi semblent également représenter une piste intéressante pour les travaux futurs.

d. Introduction

Nous avons pu démontrer qu'il existait une variation nycthémérale cliniquement pertinente de la tolérance myocardique aux lésions d'ischémie-reperfusion (IR) secondaires à une chirurgie cardiaque. Les patients subissant un remplacement valvulaire dans l'après-midi présentant des lésions myocardiques péri-opératoires et une morbidité post-opératoire inférieures à ceux opérés la matinée. De manière intéressante, cette diminution du risque relatif pour les patients de l'après-midi était le résultat à la fois d'une diminution du taux d'infarctus du myocarde péri-opératoire de type V mais également d'une diminution de l'incidence d'insuffisance cardiaque (IC) aiguë à moyen terme.

Une insuffisance rénale aiguë (IRA), définie par une augmentation du taux sérique de créatinine, survient dans les quelques jours après une chirurgie cardiaque chez près d'un quart des patients. Plusieurs hypothèses ont été évoquées : hypotension péri-opératoire, production de néphrotoxines ou mécanismes inflammatoires. Même si les mécanismes exacts ne sont pas clairs, son impact pronostique est bien documenté non seulement sur la morbimortalité intrahospitalière, mais aussi sur les événements à long terme. De manière intéressante, il a été décrit chez le rongeur une variation circadienne dans l'expression des gènes impliquant des acteurs potentiels de la tolérance à l'IR.

Nous pouvons donc supposer que le biorythme qui impacte la tolérance myocardique à l'IR pourrait également avoir un rôle sur les réactions systémiques péri-opératoires connues pour interférer avec les résultats cardiovasculaires, tels que l'inflammation et la fonction rénale.

L'objectif de notre étude était donc d'analyser dans une grande cohorte prospective l'incidence et les facteurs prédictifs d'une IRA postopératoire, son pronostic et l'impact du moment de la journée sur la fonction rénale postopératoire après RVAo

Nous avons émis l'hypothèse que les patients opérés dans l'après-midi, qui présentaient moins d'IC à moyen avaient également une incidence plus faible d'IRA.

e. <u>Publication N°4</u>

Peri-operative acute kidney injury upon time-of-day cardiac surgery

Peri-operative acute kidney injury upon cardiac surgery time-of-day.

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ABSTRACT

Background: A relevant morning-afternoon variation in ischemia-reperfusion (IR) insult and heart failure (HF) after cardiac surgery has been recently demonstrated. We speculated that the biorhythm impacting myocardial tolerance to IR might also impact systemic reactions involved in acute kidney injury (AKI) following cardiac surgery. We aimed at investigating the incidence, determinants and prognostic impact of AKI in a large prospective cohort of patients referred for a surgical aortic valve replacement (SAVR) according to surgery time-of-day.

Methods: Between 2009 and 2015, we prospectively explored all consecutive patients referred to our Heart Valve Center (CHU Lille) for a first SAVR. Patients undergoing morning and afternoon SAVR were matched into pairs by propensity score and followed for major events (ME) i.e. cardiovascular death, cardiac hospitalization for acute HF and post-operative myocardial infarction. AKI was defined by an increase in serum creatinine within 72 hours after SAVR and was graded using KDIGO classification.

<u>Results:</u> In the matched population (n=596 patients), AKI occurred in 20% of patients. After multivariable adjustment, medical history of hypertension, pre-operative renal function impairment and cardio-pulmonary bypass duration were independent predictors of AKI onset. Post-operative AKI was significantly associated with increased occurrence of ME and specifically of cardiac hospitalization for HF (p=0.0035 and p=0.0071, respectively) during the 500 days following SAVR. Finally, AKI occurrence or severity were similar between the morning and afternoon groups (p=0.98 and p=0.99, respectively).

<u>Conclusion</u>: We showed that despite the current high-quality patient management during and following SAVR, peri-operative AKI remains frequent, developing in 20% of patients, and clearly worsens mid-term post-operative outcomes. AKI more often develops in patients with pre-operative chronic kidney disease and long duration of cardiac surgery but is not influenced by surgery time-of-day.

Key words: aortic valve replacement; circadian rhythm; peri-operative kidney injury; heart failure,

ABBREVIATIONS

AKI: acute kidney injury AS: aortic stenosis CABG: coronary artery by-pass graft CPB: cardiopulmonary bypass HF: heart failure IR: ischemia-reperfusion LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction SAVR: surgical aortic valve replacement

INTRODUCTION

Despite the emergence of transcatheter aortic valve replacement (TAVR), the number of high-risk patients undergoing surgical aortic valve replacement (SAVR) for severe aortic stenosis (AS) remains significant because of the ageing population, its associated co-morbidities such as diabetes mellitus and renal failure, and the usual indication for combined surgery, i.e. coronary artery by-pass graft (CABG) with concomitant valve and/or aortic surgery. These high-risk patients are more prone to peri-operative complications resulting in worse clinical outcomes.

We recently demonstrated a clinically relevant morning-afternoon variation in myocardial tolerance to the controlled ischemia-reperfusion (IR) insult imposed during cardiac surgery, with patients undergoing SAVR in the afternoon displaying lower peri-operative myocardial injury and post-operative morbidity than those operated on in the morning (81). Importantly, this decreased relative risk for afternoon patients was the result of both a decreased of immediate peri-operative myocardial infarction rate and acute heart failure (HF) months after surgery. Although myocardial loss *per se* was intuitively related to post-operative HF, the decreased perioperative myocardial injury in the afternoon was probably not the sole parameter responsible for the decreased incidence of subsequent HF in the afternoon group.

Post-operative acute kidney injury (AKI), defined on the basis of an increase in serum creatinine level, occurs in almost one quarter of patients within few days following cardiac surgery (82,83), speculatively as a result of perioperative hypotension, nephrotoxins and inflammation (84–87). Although the exact mechanisms responsible for post-operative AKI remain unclear, its prognostic impact is well documented not only regarding intra-hospital morbi-mortality but also long-term events, such as incomplete renal recovery with ongoing kidney disease, requirement for chronic hemodialysis, cardiovascular events, and all-cause

death (31,88).

Renal physiology is characterized by 24-h periodicity and contributes to circadian variability of blood pressure levels, hydro-electrolytic and acid-base balance, reabsorption of small solutes and hormone production. We speculated that the biorhythm impacting myocardial tolerance to IR might also impact systemic processes such as peri-operative inflammation, renal function impairment, and subsequent cardiovascular complications following surgery.

We thus investigated in a large cohort the incidence, predictors and prognosis of AKI after SAVR for AS, as well as the impact of surgery time-of-day on post-operative AKI incidence and severity. We hypothesized that patients operated on in the afternoon displayed lower mid-term HF occurrence as a result of lower incidence and/or severity of AKI.

METHODS

Study population and design

We prospectively included all patients referred to our Heart Valve Center (CHU Lille, France) for SAVR (with or without coronary artery bypass graft) between January 2009 and December 2015 (ref Lancet). Patients with reduced left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF)<50%, another significant valvular disease, a medical history of previous cardiac surgery, or congenital heart diseases were excluded. The local ethics committee approved the protocol and patients gave informed consent. Among the included cohort, propensity score matching was used to select comparable morning and afternoon groups as described below. Postoperative clinical outcome was assessed in these 1:1 matched populations.

Cardiac Surgery

Anaesthaesia, cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB), cardioplegia, and surgical procedures were performed in the same way for all surgeries according to standard guidelines (ref Lancet). Anaesthesia was induced with intravenous sufentanil (1.0–1.5 μ g/kg) and propofol (0.5–1.5 mg/kg), and maintained with end-tidal sevoflurane (1.7% of the expired fraction). Surgery was done using normothermic cardiopulmonary bypass and repeated antegrade cold crystalloid-blood cardioplegia.

Renal function

Peri-operative AKI was defined by an increase in serum creatinine within 72 hours after SAVR and was graded using the International Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes classification (KDIGO) criteria as follows: grade 1: post-op serum creatinine 1.5-1.9 times baseline or an increase in serum creatinine $\geq 26.5 \ \mu mol/L$; grade 2: post-op serum creatinine 2.0-2.9 times baseline; and grade 3: post-op serum creatinine 3 times baseline or increase in serum creatinine to $\geq 353.6 \ \mu mol/L$ or initiation of renal replacement therapy (89).

Follow-up

All patients underwent clinical follow-up during the 500 days after surgery as previously described (ref Lancet). Data were obtained from medical records and interviews with the general practitioners of the patients. Recorded clinical events were: major adverse cardiac events, including cardiovascular death, post-operative myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure. Each endpoint was centrally reviewed by two independent cardiologists who were masked to the time of the day that the patient had surgery. In case of disagreement, the endpoint was discussed with a third cardiologist.

Cardiovascular (CV) death was defined according to the International Classification of Diseases tenth revision (ICD-10 codes I00-I78. Myocardial infarction (MI) included myocardial infarction after discharge, defined as an increase in serum hs cardiac troponin T (hs-cTnT) concentration (ROCHE diagnostics) from baseline to at least twice the upper limit of normal, together with evidence of myocardial ischaemia, such as angina symptoms or electrocardiographic changes, including persistent ST-segment or T-wave changes or new Q-waves. Admission to hospital for acute heart failure was defined as hospital admission for dyspnoea, peripheral oedema, or both, with elevated blood natriuretic peptide adjusted for age and renal function.

Propensity score matching

To evaluate the potential role of time-of-the-day surgery in AKI incidence, a propensity score matching was used to select comparable groups of patients and to mitigate the effect of a potential selection bias to evaluate AKI according to surgery time-of-day. The propensity matching score was estimated by multivariable logistic regression as previously described (ref Lancet). In the regression model, surgery time-of-day was the dependent variable. The independent variables were chosen because of their prognostic significance in the previously published literature (90–93) or our cohort and were: age, sex, serum

creatinine concentration, medical history of diabetes mellitus, indexed left ventricle mass, Euroscore II, concomitant CABG, and aortic cross-clamping duration. After estimation of the propensity score, patients in the morning group were matched in a 1:1 ratio to those in the afternoon group. The optimal matching algorithm with a caliper size of within 1% of the estimated propensity score was used to construct a matched-paired sample.

Statistical power calculation.

Based on the incidence of post-operative AKI published in literature (83,94), i.e. 20 to 30%, and our previous study in this 1:1 matched population of 596 patients (81), we hypothesized:

- a morning-afternoon effect on AKI incidence of the same magnitude as observed for major cardiac event incidence the months following AVR, i.e. HR=0.5[0.32-0.77] for time-of-day effect (pm vs am) (81).
- an incidence of AKI of 30% following morning SAVR and of 15% following afternoon SAVR.

With such a difference, we would get a type 1 error probability of 1% and a statistical power of 95% by comparing a minimum of 273 patients per group.

Statistical analysis.

Continuous variables were tested for normality with Shapiro test, and were given as mean±SD. Continuous variables with no Gaussian distribution are given as median (IQR). Categorical variables were given as percentages of individuals. Bivariate comparisons were performed using the t test for normally distributed continuous variables or the Mann-Whitney U test for variables not normally distributed. Bivariate comparisons of categorical variables were done with the χ^2 test.

Time-related clinical events were plotted with Kaplan-Meier curves according to AKI occurrence and compared with log-rank test. Logistic regression stepwise model was used to evaluate the determinants of AKI adjusting for potential confounding variables.

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Variables with a value of p<0.10 on univariable analysis were incorporated into the multivariable model. A value of p<0.05 was judged to be statistically significant. All analyses were done using MedCalc v16.4 (Olstead, Belgium).

RESULTS

Population baseline characteristics

Among 648 patients referred for a first SAVR and included, the propensity score matching resulted in two well-matched populations with very similar pre-operative and intra-operative characteristics: 298 patients operated on in the morning and 298 operated on in the afternoon. Detailed characteristics of these 596 patients have been detailed in a previous publication by our group (81) and are presented in Table 1 according to post-operative AKI occurrence.

Based on KDIGO criteria, 117 (19.6%) patients developed post-operative AKI, with grade 1 for 96 patients (16.1%), grade 2 for 17 patients (2.8%) and grade 3 for 4 patients (0.7%). No patients underwent renal replacement therapy. Patients developing AKI after SAVR were significantly older, with higher BMI and pre-operative Euroscore II, and had more frequently medical history of chronic hypertension and chronic kidney disease. Interestingly, a longer cardio-pulmonary bypass duration was significantly associated with post-operative AKI onset.

After multivariable adjustment, pre-operative renal function impairment as assessed by MDRD clearance, medical history of hypertension and CPB duration were independent predictors of AKI onset (Table 2).

After a follow-up of 500 days, ME occurred in 31 patients (5.2%) with 15 cardiovascular deaths, 19 cardiac hospitalizations for acute heart failure and 2 MI after SAVR discharge. Post-operative AKI onset worsened mid-term prognosis with increased occurrence of ME and specifically cardiac hospitalization for HF in comparison to patients free from AKI (Table 3 & Figure 1).

AKI according to surgery time-of-day

In contrast to our hypothesis, despite the already demonstrated impact of surgery time-of-

day on heart failure incidence months after SAVR (81), no difference was observed between the patients operated in afternoon and those operated in the morning regarding AKI incidence (20% vs 20%; p=0.92) (Table 4). Along the same line, AKI severity was similar between the two groups (p=0.98 by Chi2 for trend) (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

Exploring the peri-operative AKI upon surgery time-of-day in a large cohort of patients with severe AS referred for SAVR, we demonstrated that: a) AKI occurred in a fifth of the patients and was independently associated with higher pre-operative serum creatinine level and surgery duration, b) AKI onset was associated with increased incidence of cardiac hospitalization for HF during the 500 days after SAVR, c) AKI incidence and severity were not influenced by surgery time-of-day.

Incidence, determinants and prognosis of AKI

A very large range of AKI incidence is reported in cardiac surgery literature resulting from different definitions of AKI, i.e. KDIGO, RIFLE or AKIN criteria (95–97). Exploring, 50314 patients referred for cardiac surgery, Hobson et al. reported a prevalence of 39% of AKI with RIFLE criteria (31), while Dardashti et al reported a prevalence of 11.4 % based on creatinine level, and 32.9% based on MDRD eGFR (i.e. RIFLE criteria) in 5746 patients undergoing CABG surgery (94). Using AKIN Criteria on 1881 patients undergoing cardiac surgery, Bastin et al reported an incidence of AKI of 24.9%(98).

We used the KDIGO criteria for AKI definition and staging, which recently demonstrated greater sensitivity to predict AKI-associated morbi- mortality (99). In line, post-operative AKI, which occurred in one-fifth of our population, was associated with ME occurrence the months following SAVR.

Many pre-operative factors have been previously associated with AKI after cardiac surgery such as female gender, older age, pre-existing CKD, previous cardiac surgery, longer cardiopulmonary bypass (CPB) duration, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, obesity, congestive heart failure and low left ventricular ejection fraction (100). In our population undergoing SAVR, we identified hypertension, pre-operative MDRD clearance and CPB duration as risk factors of AKI onset. While a role of hypoperfusion/ischemia imposed on kidney during

CPB is evoked in AKI pathophysiology, conflicting data have been reported regarding the potential impact of CPB on renal function. In a systematic review including 33 randomized controlled trials (RCTs), Cheungpasitporn et al. showed that off-pump CABG might be associated with reduced risk of AKI (RR 0.87, 95% CI 0.77–0.98) compared to on-pump CABG (101). Conversely, two large RCTs, the CORONARY and ROOBY studies, suggested that the renal impact of CPB is very limited without survival benefit and renoprotection offered by off-pump compared to on-pump surgery (23-25).

In line with previous studies, our findings showed that a special attention should be paid to patients undergoing SAVR with hypertension or pre-operative impaired renal function and presenting (102). Several risk prediction models for AKI have been developed to identify and closely monitor high-risk patients and initiate efficient preventive and therapeutic strategies as recommended (103). For example, the Cleveland Clinic Score (104), the Mehta Score (105), and the Simplified Renal Index (SRI) score (106) are validated to predict the occurrence of severe AKI requiring dialysis. However, all these scores are based on heterogenous studies with different type of cardiac surgery, CABG representing the most important, and to date there is no recommendation to use a specific score. Moreover, SAVR was performed in a limited number of patients and further investigations are needed to design suitable risk scores in this elderly population.

Previous studies showed that severe AKI was independently associated with increased postoperative mortality, intensive care unit length of stay, and cost of care (107): Chertow et al. showed on 42773 patients who underwent CABG or valvular heart surgery that AKI requiring dialysis was associated with almost 8-fold increased mortality (108). Lassnig et al. showed that small changes in serum creatinine within 48h postoperatively were associated with a 2fold increase in 30-day mortality (OR: 2.04 (95% CI, 1.32 to 3.16)) (109). In our SAVR cohort, we showed that AKI is associated with almost 3-fold increase of ME onset during follow-up, particularly regarding cardiac hospitalizations for HF. Interestingly, Hobson et al. have reported that the risk of death associated with AKI remained high 10 years after cardiac surgery regardless of other risk factors, even for patients with complete renal recovery (83).

AKI according to surgery time-of-day

Several major mechanisms have been put forward to explain the development of AKI, hypoperfusion, ischaemia-reperfusion injury, neurohumoral including activation. inflammation, oxidative stress, nephrotoxins and mechanical factors (7). Understanding the mechanisms involved in AKI appears to be a key element in identifying potential therapeutic targets, preventing AKI and limiting its prognostic impact, even in case of transient AKI. Kidney exhibits a transcriptional variation of gene expression over the time (110). Benchstudies have identified circadian rhythm as a major actor involved in ischemia-reperfusion process. Durgan et al. showed in rodent study that hearts subjected to ischemia-reperfusion at the sleep-to-wake transition resulted in 3.5-fold increases in infarct size compared to hearts subjected to ischemia at the wake-to-sleep transition (111). In line, we have recently demonstrated that peri-operative myocardial injury during SAVR is influenced by biorhythm (81). We speculated that the biorhythm impacting myocardial tolerance to IR might also impact systemic processes such as peri-operative inflammation, renal function impairment, and subsequent cardiovascular complications following surgery. Contrary to our hypothesis, we did not show any impact of the time-of-day surgery on the occurrence of AKI. Moreover, this result suggests that other mechanisms are involved in the variation of post-operative HF incidence upon SAVR time-of-day (1).

Limitations

Our study was not specifically designed to assess the impact of time-of-day on postoperative renal function. However, the sample size allowed to test our post-hoc analysis with

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acceptable risks for type 1 and type 2 errors. Moreover, serum creatinine was routinely measured before and the days following SAVR, allowing to evaluate AKI incidence and severity based on KIGO criteria.

CONCLUSION

Exploring the peri-operative acute kidney injury upon cardiac surgery time-of-day we showed that AKI occurred in 20% of the patients after aortic valve replacement, especially in patients with hypertension, decreased pre-operative creatinine clearance and for whom surgery duration was long. AKI was associated with poor long-term outcome after surgery but was not influenced by surgery time-of-day.

| | No AKI (n=479) | AKI (n=117) | p-value |
|--------------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Preoperative data | | | |
| Age (year) | 70 (10) | 73 (9) | 0.005 |
| Gender Male n (%) | 258 (54) | 64 (55) | 0.87 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 28 (5) | 29 (6) | 0.024 |
| Hypertension n (%) | 289 (61) | 91 (78) | 0.0004 |
| Diabetes Mellitus n (%) | 128 (27) | 41 (35) | 0.071 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction (%) | 62 (8) | 61 (8) | 0.071 |
| Baseline creatinine serum level (µmol/l) | 80 [62;97] | 97 [80;133] | <0.001 |
| MDRD Clearance (ml/min/m) | 81 (25) | 61 (27) | <0.001 |
| Cockroft Clearance (ml/min) | 75 [57;98] | 56 [42;79] | <0.001 |
| Preoperative CKD stage | | | <0.0001 |
| 1 | 158 (33) | 13 (11) | |
| 2 | 222 (46) | 49 (42) | |
| 3 | 93 (19.5) | 39 (33) | |
| 4 | 5 (1) | 9 (8) | |
| 5 | 1 (0.2) | 7 (6) | |
| Euroscore II (%) | 1.69 (1.29) | 2.13 (1.38) | 0.0011 |
| STS Score morbidity (%) | 11.3 (6) | 15.7 (8) | <0.001 |
| Operative data | | | |
| Concomitant CABG n (%) | 119 (25) | 32 (27) | 0.58 |
| Cardiopulmonary bypass duration (min) | 91 (31) | 100 (33) | 0.002 |
| Aortic cross clamp duration duration (min) | 73 (28) | 80 (31) | 0.017 |
| Postoperative renal function | | | |
| No AKI | 479 (100) | - | |
| AKI grade 1 | - | 96 (82) | |
| AKI grade 2 | - | 17 (14.5) | |
| AKI grade 3 | - | 4 (3.5) | |
| Creatinine fold change* | 1.01 (0.14) | 1.63 (0.41) | < 0.001 |
| Creatinine delta (µmol/l)** | 0 [-9; +9] | 44 [26;97] | < 0.001 |

Table 1. Patients' characteristics according to AKI onset.

Variables are given as the mean \pm SD, median [1st quartile-3rd quartile] or number (percentage). AKI: acute kidney injury. BMI: body mass index. CABG: coronary artery bypass graft. COPD: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. CPB: LVEF: left ventricular ejection fraction. MI: myocardial infarction. *Creatinine fold change: postoperative creatinine peak/preoperative creatinine ratio. **Creatinine delta: postoperative creatinine serum level.

Table 2. Independent determinants of AKI

| | Multivariable analysis | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|---------|--|
| | β±SE | HR (95% CI) | p-value | |
| Age (years) | 0.015 ± 0.014 | | 0.28 | |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 0.028 ± 0.020 | | 0.17 | |
| Hypertension | | 1.94[1.17-3.24] | 0.011 | |
| Pre-operative MDRD | -0.031±0.005 | | <0.0001 | |
| Euroscore II | -0.018±0.086 | | 0.84 | |
| CPB duration (min) | 0.012 ± 0.0034 | | 0.0006 | |

Variables with a p-value<0.05 in bivariate analysis were entered in a multivariate model with no selection of variables, i.e. age, BMI, hypertension, preoperative MDRD clearance, CardioPulmonary Bypass duration and Euroscore II.

Table 3. Post-operative events according to AKI onset

| | No AKI | AKI | HR (95%CI) for AKI effect (AKI vs no AKI) | P value |
|-----------------------------|----------|-----------|----------------------------------------------|---------|
| Major adverse cardiac event | 19 (4) | 12 (10.3) | 2.80 [1.13-6.96] | 0.0035 |
| Cardiovascular death | 10 (2.1) | 5 (4.2) | 2.19 [0.60-8] | 0.14 |
| Acute heart failure | 11 (2.3) | 8 (6.8) | 3.26 [1.02-10.4] | 0.0071 |

Data are n(%) major cardiac events included cardiovascular death, myocardial infarction, and admission to hospital for acute heart failure. P value calculated by log-rank test. HR (95%) calculated by Cox's proportional hazard regression. HR=hazard ratio.

| Table 1 Dationts? | abarastaristics and | A KI ingidanaa | according to sur | rowy time of day |
|---------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 able 4. 1 attents | characteristics and | ANI Incluence | according to sur | <u>zery unie-or-uay.</u> |

| | Morning | After noon | p-value |
|------------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
| | surgery (n=298) | surgery (n=298) | |
| Preoperative data | | | |
| Age (years) | 71 (10) | 71 (10) | 0.88 |
| Gender Male n (%) | 162 (54%) | 160 (54%) | 0.93 |
| Body mass index (kg/m ²) | 28 (6) | 29 (6) | 0.38 |
| Hypertension n (%) | 187 (64%) | 193 (65%) | 0.83 |
| Diabetes mellitus n (%) | 85 (29%) | 84 (28%) | 0.92 |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction (%) | 62 (8) | 62 (8) | 0.67 |
| Baseline creatinine serum level (umol/l) | 80 [71;96] | 80 [71; 99] | 0.78 |
| MDRD Clearance at baseline (ml/min) | 79 (26) | 75 (27) | 0.111 |
| Cockroft Clearance at baseline (ml/min) | 73 [54; 99] | 70 [52; 92] | 0.295 |
| Preoperative CKD stage | | | 0.0917 |
| 1 | 91 (30.5%) | 80 (26.8%) | |
| 2 | 139 (46.6%) | 132 (44.3%) | |
| 3 | 60 (20.1%) | 72 (24.2%) | |
| 4 | 4 (1.3%) | 10 (3.4%) | |
| 5 | 4 (1.3%) | 4 (1.3%) | |
| Euroscore II (%) | 1.78 (1.32) | 1.76 (1.32) | 0.870 |
| STS Score morbidity(%) | 12.1 (6.5) | 12.1 (6.6) | 0.99 |
| | | | |
| Operative data | | | |
| Concomitant CABG n (%) | 81 (27%) | 70 (24%) | 0.40 |
| Cardiopulmonary bypass duration (min) | 93 (32) | 92 (31) | 0.83 |
| Aortic cross clamp duration (min) | 74 (30) | 74 (27) | 0.90 |
| | | | |
| Postoperative renal function | | | |
| AKI | 59 (20%) | 58 (20%) | 0.92 |
| No AKI | 239 (80%) | 240 (80%) | |
| Grade 1 | 49 (16.4%) | 47 (15.8%) | 1 |
| Grade 2 | 8 (2.7%) | 9 (3.0%) | |
| Grade 3 | 2 (0.7%) | 2 (0.7%) | |
| Creatinine fold change* | 1.14 (0.34) | 1.13 (0.32) | 0.80 |
| Creatinine delta (umol/l)** | 8.84 [-8.84; 17.7] | 0 [0; 17.7] | 0.89 |

Data are mean (SD), median [interquartile range] or n (%). P-value by t-test of. Chi2 test for categorical data.# Chi-2 for trend AKI: acute kidney injury. *Creatinine fold change: postoperative creatinine peak/preoperative creatinine ratio. **Creatinine delta: postoperative creatinine peak-preoperative creatinine serum level.

Figure 1. Kaplan-Meier Survival Curves. Long-Term prognostic impact of AKI in

matched population (n=596). Event-free survival from (A) major events (ME), (B) cardiovascular death and(C) cardiac hospitalization for acute heart failure according to post-operative AKI onset. p-value by log-rank test.

A.







Β.

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f. <u>Perspectives</u>

Nous avons donc montré que le RVAo était associée à une lésion rénale aiguë péri-opératoire dans 20% des cas, en particulier chez les patients hypertendus, avec une clairance de la créatinine diminuée en préopératoire et un temps de CEC plus long. Cette lésion rénale aigüe était associée à un mois bon pronostic à long terme mais n'était pas influencée par le moment de la journée de la chirurgie.

D'autres études complémentaires seront nécessaires pour déterminer pourquoi les patients opérés l'après-midi présentaient moins de complications cardiovasculaires à distance de l'opération, en particulier moins d'insuffisance cardiaque.

CONCLUSION

Au cours de ce travail, nous avons pu mettre en évidence une association forte en réponse inflammatoire postopératoire et la survenue des principales complications postopératoires et notamment la FAPO et l'IRAPO. Nous avons pu observer que bien que l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire soit très variable, il n'existe aucun facteur clinique performant afin de prédire celle-ci. Nous avons démontré que l'hématopoïèse clonale est très fréquente dans la population des patients candidats à une chirurgie valvulaire aortique. De plus, l'hématopoïèse clonale est fortement corrélée à l'amplitude de cette réponse inflammatoire et aux différentes complications associées, indépendamment de l'âge. De plus, la présence d'un phénotype macrophagique intramyocardique spécifique associé l'hématopoïèse clonale suggère une vulnérabilité myocardique accrue. Les patients porteurs d'une hématopoïèse clonale semblent donc représenter une population d'intérêt pour une stratégie antiinflammatoire périopératoire personnalisée.

Nous avons également démontré que le moment de la journée où est réalisée la chirurgie n'impacte pas l'amplitude de la réponse inflammatoire postopératoire. Toutefois, nous avons pu observer un impact fort du moment de la journée sur la survenue de l'infarctus postopératoire mais pas des autres complications. Cette vulnérabilité myocardique accrue le matin était essentiellement médiée par les gènes de l'horloge et notamment Reverb- α . L'ensemble de ces observations suggère donc un mécanisme différent à l'origine de l'infarctus postopératoire, avec un impact moindre de l'inflammation postopératoire.

De façon intéressante, nous avons pu observer un pronostic défavorable persistant dans le temps plusieurs mois après la chirurgie chez les patients opérés le matin. Cette différence était essentiellement liée à une incidence accrue d'insuffisance cardiaque, bien que la différence de relargage de troponine puisse difficilement expliquer une altération forte de la fonction systolique. Cette empreinte myocardique conditionnée par le moment de la journée semble donc dépasser la problématique de la lésion myocardique ischémique induite par la chirurgie. Il est donc possible que la différence d'incidence d'insuffisance cardiaque soit en lien avec le processus de cicatrisation myocardique, secondaire au recrutement de cellules immunitaires per opératoire.

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