

Non-coding RNAs and Atrial Fibrillation

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Abstract

Atrial fibrillation is the most frequent type of cardiac arrhythmia in humans, with an estimate incidence of 1–2% in the general population, rising up to 8–10% in the elderly. Cardiovascular risk factors such as diabetes, obesity, hypertension and hyperthyroidism can increase the occurrence of AF. The onset of AF triggers additional AF episodes, leading to structural and electrical remodeling of the diseased heart. Understanding the molecular bases of atrial fibrillation have greatly advance over the last decade demonstrating a pivotal role of distinct ion channels in AF pathophysiology. A new scenario has opened on the understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying AF, with the discovery of non-coding RNAs and their wide implication in multiple disease states, including cardiac arrhythmogenic pathologies. microRNAs are small non-coding RNAs of 22–24 nucleotides that are capable of regulating gene expression by interacting with the mRNA transcript 3'UTRs and promoting mRNA degradation and/or protein translation blockage. Long non-coding RNAs are a

more diverse group of non-coding RNAs, providing transcriptional and post-transcriptional roles and subclassified according to their functional properties. In this chapter we summarized current state-of-the-art knowledge on the functional of microRNAs and long non-coding RNAs as well as their cross-talk regulatory mechanisms in atrial fibrillation.

Keywords

microRNAs · lncRNAs · Atrial fibrillation · Biomarkers

1 Background

Atrial fibrillation is the most frequent type of cardiac arrhythmia in humans, with an estimate incidence of 1–2% in the general population [1]. In the elderly, AF can rise up to 8–10%. Cardiovascular risk factors such as diabetes, obesity, hypertension and hyperthyroidism can increase the occurrence of AF [2–4]. Importantly, AF can be also secondary to surgical interventions, inflammatory processes and obstructive sleep apnea [5]. The onset of AF triggers additional AF episodes, leading to electrical and structural remodeling of the diseased heart, a condition quoted as “AF begets AF”. Electrical remodeling leads to progressive changes in the

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cardiac electrical properties, coursing with early after depolarizations (EADs), delayed after depolarizations (DADs) and/or changes in the action potential duration (APD) configuration culminating thus in rotor formation [6]. Structural remodeling normally courses with atrial fibrosis, inflammation and/or dilatation [7].

Epidemiological studies have undoubtedly demonstrated that cardiovascular risk factors, such as those previously mentioned, enhance AF occurrence. Importantly there are also unquestionable evidences that AF courses in absence of previous risk factors, i.e. a condition dubbed lone AF [8]. Seminal studied by Brugada et al. [9] demonstrate a familiar genetic component in lone AF. Subsequent screening of candidate genes in familiar AF kindreds identified a large number of point mutations in distinct genes encoding for proteins involved in cardiac electrophysiology. Yet, despite this advancement, genetic identification of causative genes in AF only explains 10–15% of all AF patients [10]. In recent years, genome-wide association analyses (GWAS) lightened the discovery of new genes associated to AF. Pioneer worked by Gudbjartsson et al. [11] firstly identify common risk variants highly associated to the onset of lone AF in distinct ethnic cohorts. More recently additional GWAS studies and meta-GWAS have further identified new candidate genes for AF pathophysiology, with over 70 genes potentially involved [12].

Understanding the molecular bases of atrial fibrillation have greatly advance over the last decade. Beside the involvement of genes encoding of distinct ion channels involved in the configuration of the cardiac action potential, the discovery of potential candidate genes by GWAS, and subsequently the functional analyses have unraveled novel pathways [13]. Among them, the most explored to date is driven by *Pitx2*, leading to Wnt, microRNAs and ion channel remodeling [14–16]. Importantly, a new scenario has opened on the understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying AF, with the discovery of non-coding RNAs and their wide implication in multiple disease states, including therein cardiac structural and arrhythmogenic pathologies [17].

Non-coding RNAs can be grossly subclassified into two major groups; small non coding RNAs (shorten that 200 nucleotides in length) and long non coding RNAs (longer that 200 nucleotides in length). Small non-coding RNAs contain distinct subclasses such as piwi-RNAs, snoRNAs, siRNAs, and the most numerous and well-studied group of microRNAs [18, 19]. microRNAs are small non-coding RNAs of 22–24 nucleotide that are capable of regulating gene expression by interacting with the mRNA transcript 3'UTRs are promoting mRNA degradation and/or protein translation blockage [20]. Long non-coding RNAs are equally an heterogeneous group of non-coding RNAs that are basically subclassified according to their functional properties yet such a classification is complex and imprecise given our limited understanding of their transcriptional and post-transcriptional function [21]. Furthermore, complex interplays between long non coding RNAs and microRNAs are also operative, opening a completely novel landscape of gene regulation.

2 microRNAs as Biomarkers of AF

Non coding RNAs are becoming acknowledged as novel biomarkers in distinct cardiovascular pathologies, including AF (see for recent reviews [22, 23]). Wang et al. [24] recently demonstrated that two distinct microRNAs are significantly decreased in post-ablation AF patients compared to non-ablated AF patients. Importantly, using an experimental model of AF, in pigs, they further corroborated that AF ablation significantly diminished miR-155 and miR-24 expression. Biochemical and molecular analysis demonstrated that these two microRNAs can influence nitric oxide (NO) and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) are altered, supporting the role of NO/eNOS pathway in AF. Feldman et al. [25] recently demonstrated that circulating miR-23 and miR-26 were significantly decreased while Harling et al. identified that plasma circulating miR-483 was significantly increased in post-

operative patients developing AF as compared to those that did not develop AF, suggesting a functional role for these microRNAs in the onset of post-operative AF. More recently Liu et al. reported that AF catheter ablation restores miR-409-3p and miR-432 plasma levels, further supporting a pivotal role for microRNAs in AF pathophysiology. Soeki et al. [26] nicely demonstrated that expression of miR-328 and miR-1 were increased in AF patients as compared to control, displaying enhanced expression in the left atrium and pulmonary vein plasma as compared to systemic plasma expression. These evidence support a plausible role for local miR-328 production in relation to atrial substrate remodeling. Similar findings were also reported by Zhou et al. [27]. Overall these data demonstrate that microRNAs might serve as biomarkers to identify and probably to predict the onset and/or course of AF pathophysiology.

3 SNV in microRNAs Associated to AF

Genomic variations on the promoter sequences driving microRNA expression or within the precursors/seed sequences of microRNAs have been reported to be associated to increase rate of AF occurrence. In particular, three distinct microRNAs have been already described, miR-125a, miR-196a2 and miR-146 [28–30]. A miR-125a polymorphism is associated with recurrence of AF after ablation, an association that mechanistically links miR-125a and IL6/IL6R axis, since IL6R is a direct target of miR-125a [28]. A pre-miR-196a2 SNV is associated to increase occurrence of AF in Chinese population, a condition that is also linked with increased atrial dimensions [29]. A polymorphism in miR-146 is a prognostic biomarker for adverse cardiovascular events in AF patients following anticoagulant administration, probably involving inflammatory mechanisms, since IL6/IL6R axis is reversely correlated [30]. In addition, Hoffman et al. [31] reported coding and non-coding variants in SHOX2 gene in patients with atrial fibrillation.

Non-coding variants generated a novel functional binding site for miR-92-5p. Importantly, miR-92-5p expression levels in circulating plasma were increased in those patients carrying the SNV, supporting a causative link between SHOX2 non coding SNVs, miR-92-5p expression and AF. In sum, these evidence suggest that impaired regulation of microRNAs expression can have a profound effect on AF occurrence, yet additional experimental evidence is required to fully support these findings.

4 Functional Roles of microRNAs in AF

Multiple microRNAs have been involved in electrical and structural remodeling directly linked to the course of atrial fibrillation. We provide herein evidences on the functional role of microRNAs in cell-cell coupling, electrical regulation, structural impairment as well as in additional signaling pathways related to AF pathology in the following subheadings.

4.1 Functional Roles of microRNAs in Cell-Cell Coupling

Cell-cell coupling exerted by connexin is critical for the correct electrical propagation. Two distinct microRNAs, miR-208a and miR-206, have been reported to target Cx40 and Cx43, respectively [32, 33]. Cx43 has been validated as target of miR-206 by biochemical luciferase assays. Mice over-expressing miR-206 displayed decreased atrial and ventricular Cx43 expression and thus abnormal PR interval and heart rate, leading thereafter to a shortening the life span of these mice [34]. These data postulate a plausible role for miR-208 in AF, although additional evidences are required. Li et al. [35] reported that miR-208 is increased in right atrial biopsies of AF patients, while Cx40 expression was diminished. Experimental studies demonstrate an indirect modulation of Cx40 (Gja5) by miR-208.

Curiously, Takahashi et al. [36] reported that high-fat diet increases vulnerability to atrial arrhythmia by down-regulation of Cx40 via miR-27b.

4.2 Functional Roles of microRNAs in AF Electrical Remodeling

Within the configuration of the cardiac action potential, including sodium and potassium channels. Zhao et al. [37] demonstrate that miR-192 is up-regulated in AF atrial biopsies, while SCN5A is decreased. Luciferase assays demonstrate a direct interaction and regulation of SCN5A by miR-192, leading to modulation of I_{Na} current, supporting a plausible role of these mechanism underlying AF pathophysiology.

Girmatsion et al. [38] demonstrate a complementary expression between miR-1 and Kir2.1 in left atrial AF patients biopsies, data that are concordant with increased IK1 current in LA AF patients as compared to SR patients, while connexin expression was unaffected. Furthermore, *ex vivo* stimulation also lead to similar results, supporting both a key role of miR-1/Kir2.1 in AF pathophysiology and a determinant role suggesting a primary role of atrial rate in miR-1 down-regulation and I(K1) up-regulation. Additional evidence on the role of atrial taquipacing were obtained by Jia et al. [39] using rabbit as experimental model. These authors demonstrate a clear gene expression remodeling up-regulating miR-1 and down-regulating KCNE1 and KCNB2, leading to decrease atrial effecting refractory period while increasing IK currents. In addition, KCNE1 and KCNB2 were corroborated as direct targets of miR-1. Luo et al. [40] reported impaired miR-26 expression in AF patients. Biochemical assays demonstrated that miR-26 regulates KCNJ12 expression. In vitro and in vivo manipulation of miR-26 demonstrate that if impaired, atrial fibrillation develops.

Importantly, most the microRNAs related to AF to date influence calcium homeostasis, a key event regulating onset of AF, including therein

miR-21 and miR-29a modulation of CACNA1C [41–42], miR-499 regulation of CACNB2 [43] and miR-106-miR-25 regulation of RyR2 [47]. Zhao et al. [42] demonstrate that CACNA1C is a direct target of miR-21. Barana et al. [41] demonstrate miR-21 expression is up-regulated in AF vs SR atrial myocytes and that miR-21 directly regulates CACNA1C and CACNB2 provoking Ica current changes similar to those recorded in AF patients. Ling et al. [48] and Ling et al. [46] demonstrate that miR-499 directly targets CACNB2 and SK3 channels while miR-499 is significantly increased while CACNB2 and SK3 are decreased in AF patients atrial biopsies. These data similarly support a role of miR-499 in AF pathophysiology. Cañon et al. [49] reported that miR-208b was increased in human and ovine AF biopsies. Over-expression of miR-208 leads to alteration in CACNA1C and CACNB2 and SERCA both at expression and functional levels, supporting a role for miR-208 in AF.

In addition, regulation of HCN by miR-1/miR-133 [47] also plays a role on AF onset with age. Li et al. [47] demonstrate that miR-1 and miR-133 were decreased in age AF right atrial biopsies while HCN2 and HCN4 were up-regulated, supporting a role for these microRNAs in the onset of age-related AF.

Experimental animal models have also provided additional evidences on the functional roles of microRNAs in AF. Chiang et al. [48] demonstrated that deletion of the microRNA-106b-25 cluster in mice promotes atrial fibrillation by enhancing ryanodine receptor type-2 expression and calcium release. Wang et al. [49] and Chinchilla et al. [14] also demonstrated that Pitx2 deficiency disrupt microRNA expression that are linked to atrial arrhythmogenesis, a signaling pathway that also involves regulation of Wnt and Wnt-driven microRNAs expression [15], which is highly susceptible to alteration of cardiovascular risk factors such as hyperthyroidism, hypertension and redox homeostasis imbalance [16]. In dogs, expression of miR-30 and miR-133 is impaired in chronic atrial fibrillation [50] and down-regulation of miR-133 and miR-590 contributes to nicotine-induced atrial remodeling [51].

4.3 Functional Roles of microRNAs in AF Structural Remodeling

Structural remodeling in AF invariably courses with intramyocardial fibrosis. Multiple pathways have been involved in triggering fibrosis and similarly, several reports highlight the functional roles of microRNAs governing this process. Ang-II driven fibrosis is controlled by miR-27 [52], while miR-30c [53] modulated Tgfb-driven fibrosis.

miR-27 can diminished angiotensin II-induced fibrosis, by modulating collagen I/III, plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 and alpha smooth muscle actin expression by targeting Alk5, a tgf-beta1 receptor as well as inhibiting Smad2/3 phosphorylation without altering Smad1 activity [52]. Furthermore, In isolated perfused hearts, miR-27b restoration markedly attenuated AngII-induced increase in interatrial conduction time, AF incidence and AF duration.

Xu et al. [53] demonstrate that miR-30c directly regulates Tgfb2 as well as fibroblast proliferation, differentiation, migration and collagen production of cardiac fibroblasts. Therefore, modulating miR-30c expression can provide beneficial effects reversing AF induced atrial fibrosis.

miR-132 influences CTGF activation [54] and miR-30 regulates Snail [58]. Importantly, the most well-described microRNA favouring fibrosis in AF is miR-21, including herein the regulation of CADM1/STAT2 [59], WWP1 [57] as well as other unidentified pathways [58–59]. In addition to fibrosis, structural remodeling in AF also courses with activation of apoptosis. Two distinct microRNAs have been reported to activate apoptosis in AD, miR-122 [60] and miR-1/miR-133 [61].

Quiao et al. [54] demonstrated that miR-132 expression was decreased and CTGF increased in the human and canine models with AF. The expression of miR-132 and CTGF protein levels were upregulated in Ang II stimulated cardiac fibroblasts of adult rats. Furthermore, when miR-132 was introduced into cardiac fibroblasts, the expression of miR-132 increased significantly

whereas the expression of CTGF decreased, supporting miR-132 may target CTGF in regulating fibrosis in Ang II-treated cardiac fibroblasts.

Yuan et al. [55] reported an inverse correlation between miR-30a and Snail1 and periostin expression in AngII-induced fibrosis in cardiac fibroblasts. However, the putative mechanisms behind these findings remains unexplored. Cao et al. [56] demonstrated that miR-21 overexpression promotes cardiac fibrosis via STAT3 signaling pathway by decrease CADM1 expression in cell culture models of cardiac fibrosis, supporting that miR-21 might be an important signaling molecule for cardiac fibrotic remodeling and AF.

Tao et al. [57] demonstrated that TGF- β 1, collagen I and collagen III levels are significantly elevated in AF patients, miR-21 expression is increased, while the WWP-1 expression was decreased. miR-21 transfected cardiac fibroblasts decreased WWP-1 expression, while opposite effects were observed after miR-21 inhibitor administration. Therefore these data indicated that miR-21 inhibits cardiac fibroblasts proliferation by inactivating the TGF- β 1/Smad2 signaling pathway via up-regulation of WWP-1. Yang et al. [62] demonstrated that miR-23b and miR-27b were up-regulated in AF left atrial samples as well as in angiotensin II treated fibroblasts. Overexpression of these microRNAs enhance collagen expression, a process that is TGFBR3 dependent. These data support a functional role for miR-23b and miR-27b in AF fibrosis.

4.4 Functional Roles of microRNAs in Additional AF Related Pathways

Besides electrical and structural remodeling associated to AF, other signaling pathways have been reported to play a role in AF and several microRNAs have been associated to modulate such signaling pathways. Ankyrin B is regulated by miR-34 [63], PTEN/PI3K, STAT3 and Smad7 by miR-21 [64–66] dystrophin by miR-31 [70] and SIRT1 by miR-199 [68]. Overall, these data suggest an increasing important role of microRNAs modulating AF pathophysiology.

5 Transcriptomic Analyses of microRNAs in AF Conditions

Multiple studies have been performed searching for the transcriptomic fingerprints of atrial fibrillation. Some of these studies were exclusively done using a candidate approach on the expression of a limited number of microRNAs, already demonstrating differential expression in human AF. In this context, Da Silva et al. [69] identified increased plasma expression of miR-133b, miR-328 and miR-499 in patients with acute new onset of AF as compared to controls and well-controlled patients. miR-21 on the contrary was decreased in well-controlled patients as compared to controls and new-onset AF patients.

More recently, microRNA microarray analyses provided additional evidences on the differential expression in distinct tissue involved in AF pathogenesis. For example, Zhang et al. [70] analyzed the microRNA fingerprint of the cardiac autonomic nervous plexus and identified 16 differentially expressed microRNAs in atrial taquipaced dogs as compared to controls. These authors further demonstrating that miR-206 controls SOD1 expression, balancing therefore redox homeostasis in atrial taquipaced dogs. In an experimental model of induced AF, Torrado et al. [71] reported the early microRNA signature of AF.

Importantly, great efforts have been devoted to understand the differential contribution of the left and right atrial chambers in AF pathology. Slagsvold et al. [72–73] microRNA array of selected microRNAs between RA and LA, in AF and SR after coronary bypass surgery or valve replacement. They demonstrate rather similar differences between RA and LA atrial analyses in both AF and SR patients, whereas more differences were observed when comparing RA AF vs RA SR and LA AF vs LA SR. In other words, right and left atrial chambers display mostly similar microRNA expression patterns in AF and SR, respectively while AF distinctly affect both RA and LA. Doñate-Puertas et al. [74] analyzed the differential distribution of 662 microRNAs in the left atrium of AF patients with valvular heart dis-

ease by microarrays. These authors reported that 42 microRNAs were differentially expressed in AF as compared to controls. A similar report was performed by Liu et al. [75] in AF patients with mitral stenosis. From 1962 microRNAs, only 22 microRNAs were differentially expressed, using microarrays. Xiao et al. [76] similarly investigated differential microRNA expression in AF patients with mitral stenosis but data were obtained from the right atrium instead of the left atrium. Using microarrays against 773 human microRNAs, these authors identified 28 differentially expressed microRNAs. Importantly, side-to-side comparison of the differentially expressed microRNAs in LA AF vs SR resulted in no shared microRNAs between the three distinct studies. Only four microRNAs (miR-18, miR-25, miR-20 and miR-451) were shared by the studies of Slagsvold et al. [72–73] and Doñate-Puertas et al. [74] (Fig. 19.1a). The overall lack of coincidence can be explained on the one hand by a large variability of the human patients cohorts collected on each study, the tissue samples selected or the distinct microRNA microarray platforms used but also it could be attributed to large biological variability that it is current beyond our understanding. Importantly, efforts should be done to solve the puzzle. Secondly, a minimal common microRNA signature is found when comparing LA and RA AF samples (7% of all differentially expressed microRNA in AF samples) (Fig. 19.1b), merging all three studies together, supporting that distinct post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms are distinct driving AF expression in the LA as compared to the RA.

In addition, a large number of experiments have been performed using whole genome transcriptomics. Cooley et al. [77], Liu et al. [78] and Yan et al. [79] identified the microRNA signature of left and right atrial chambers in the context of AF with valvular heart disease. The authors reported a wide array of microRNA differential gene expression supporting the notion that both AF and valvular heart disease distinct affect the microRNA pattern of both left and right atrial chambers. Importantly, both left and right atrial chambers are distinctly affected by disease progression and by the development of AF. Liu et al.

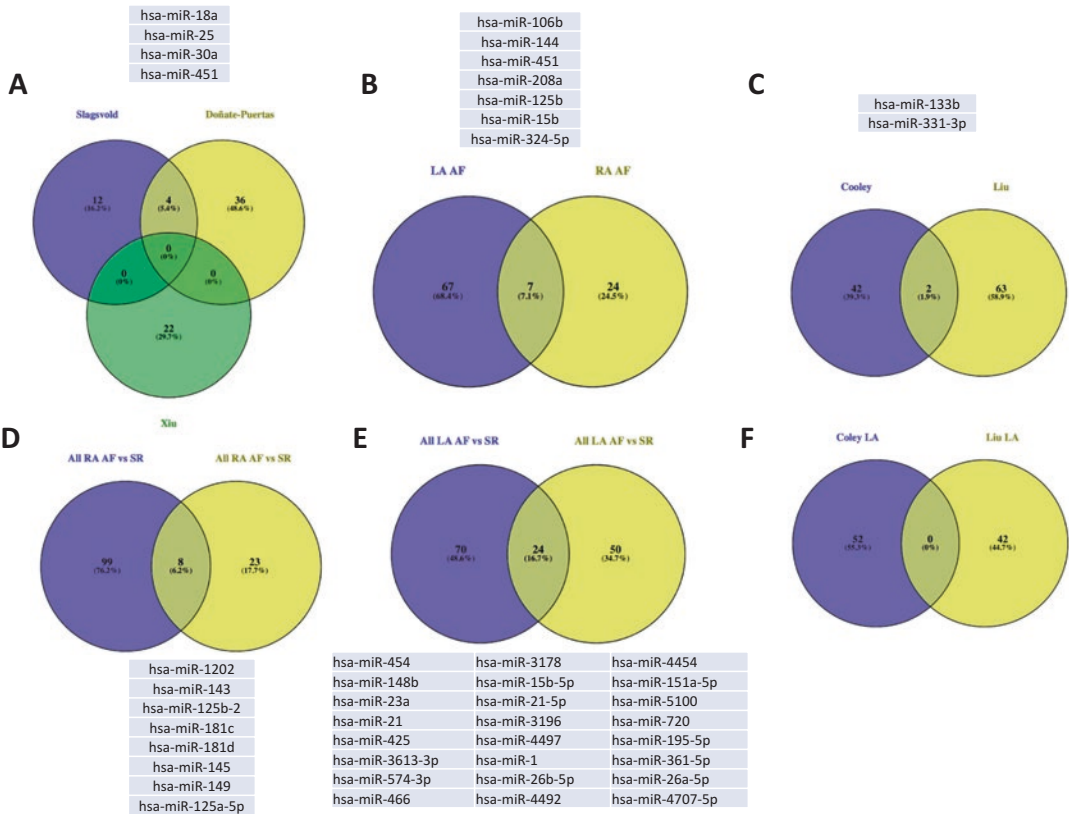


Fig. 19.1 Transcriptomic analyses of microRNAs in AF conditions

[78] reported significant decreased expression of miR-146, miR-150 and miR-199 in blood of patients with paroxysmal and permanent AF, while miR-21 was increased but only in those with permanent AF using massive parallel sequencing.

Surprisingly, a common hallmark of AF is poorly achieved in both RA and LA signatures using massive RNA sequencing technologies; i.e. 2 microRNAs are shared in the RA; miR-133 and miR-331 (Fig. 19.1c); none in LA (Fig. 19.1d). Side-to-side comparison of microarray analyses and RNAseq strategies unraveled a relatively low commonality in the RA AF samples (6.2%; 8 microRNAs) (Fig. 19.1e) but a more robust and significant shared microRNAs in the LA AF (17%; 22 microRNAs) (Fig. 19.1f). Thus, these analyses are promising in providing a core microRNA signature of LA AF remodeling, opening new ways to explore the functional con-

sequences and roles of differentially expressed microRNAs in the context of AF.

However, the large incongruency between studies might be highly related to the large variability on the tissue sample analyzed (systemic plasma, cardiac plasma, atrial biopsies, remnants of cardiac surgery), patients inclusion criteria and methodological approaches used. For example, several studies analyzed differences in AF in the context of valve diseases [74, 76, 78] while only a single study has been reported in absence of valve diseases [80]. In this context Wang et al. [80] analyzed the microRNA expression signature of the LA in AF patients without valve disease by low density microarrays, leading to the identification of 10 differentially expressed microRNAs. Surprisingly, none of the microRNAs in the non valvular AF signature is shared with those previously reported in valvular AF (Fig. 19.2a). Therefore, given the large variability

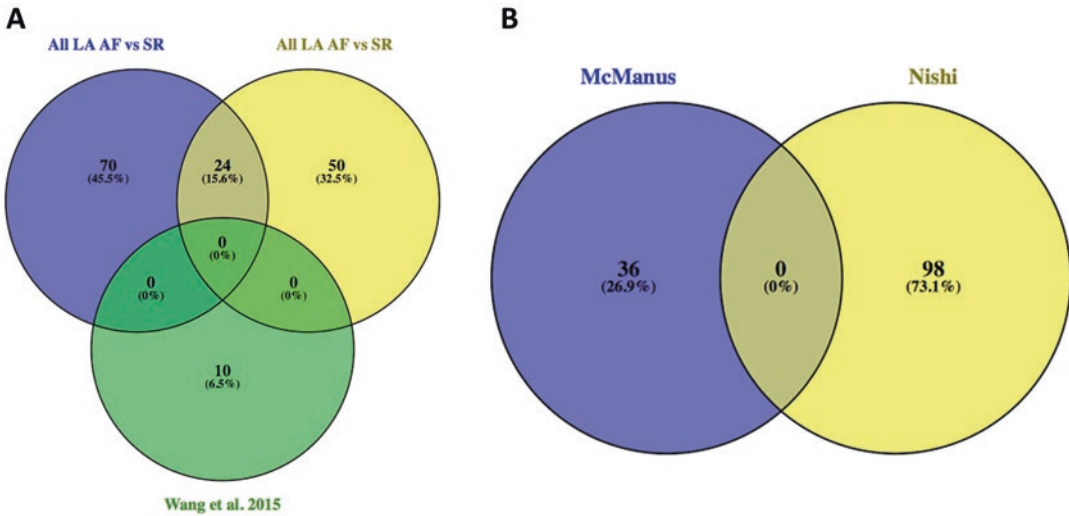


Fig. 19.2 Large variability on the tissue sample analyzed, patients inclusion criteria and methodological approaches used induced large incongruency of microRNAs transcriptomic

of the subjects analyzed, confounding comorbidities such as valvular heart diseases, seems to also greatly influence the microRNA fingerprint of AF, and thus it is hard to find an common AF transcriptomic hallmark.

Transcriptomic analyses were also done in AF post-surgery [81–82]. McManus et al. [84] analyzed 86 microRNAs by qPCR in circulating plasma and atrial tissue samples in patients before and after catheter surgery. They reported 21 differentially expressed microRNAs in AF plasma and 33 up-regulated after surgery. Among these, miR-21 and miR-150 increased threefold, supporting a plausible role for these microRNAs on the regulation of the gene regulatory networks governing AF. Nishi et al. [82] using a similar approach reported 98 differentially expressed microRNA in right atrial samples of AF vs controls. Two microRNAs, miR-21 and miR-208 were elevated after surgery. Interestingly, miRNA-21 expression was highest in patients with chronic AF or an unsuccessful maze procedure, and gradually decreased in order from those with a successful maze procedure to SR patients. Similarly as in previous comparative studies, no microRNA commonality is observed in the results provided by McManus et al. [81] and Nishi et al. [82] (Fig. 19.2b).

6 Emerging Roles of lncRNAs in AF

Our current understanding of the functional roles of long non coding RNAs is on its infancy. Yet solid evidences for the plausible role of discrete lncRNAs in AF have already been provided. For example, Gore-Panter et al. [83] identified PANCR, a lncRNA adjacent to PITX2 in humans. PANCR subcellular localization is mainly cytoplasmic and its expression is independent in sinus rhythm disturbances. Importantly, PANCR silencing significantly modifies PITX2 expression, mimicking thereafter the effects of PITX2 knockdown. However, its current role in AF remains elusive. Shen et al. [84] using a candidate approach analyses reported that KCNQ1OT1 is up-regulated in an AF mouse model as well as in AngII-treated mice. Furthermore these authors demonstrate the functional role of KCNQ1OT1 modulating several electrophysiological parameters such as the effective refractory period and the interatrial conduction. In addition, silencing KCNQ1OT1 leads to diminish the incidence of AF and AF episodes during AngII-treatment. Mechanistically, KCNQ1OT1 regulates CACNA1C by sponging miR-384, supporting thus a pivotal role of this lncRNA in AF

pathophysiology. Zhao et al. [88] investigated the modulative effects of lncRNA TCONS_00202959 on autonomic neural function and myocardial functions in atrial fibrillation rat model. They show that over-expression of this lncRNA in an experimental rat AF model enhances the atrial effective refractory period and diminishes the AF induction rate. More recently, Cao et al. [86] demonstrate increased expression of lncRNA PVT1 in human AF atrial biopsies as compared to controls and they also demonstrate a role for PVT1 directing atrial fibroblast proliferation and collagen deposition by sponging miR-128-3p that in turn facilitated Sp1 expression and thus Tgfb/Smads signaling.

In addition to our knowledge of discrete lncRNA in AF, several studies have been carried out to provide a more global picture of the lncRNA profile in AF. Ruan et al. [87] analyzed by microarray the LA profile of lncRNAs in AF patients with rheumatic valve disease. They identified 219 differentially expressed lncRNAs. Similarly, Mei et al. [88] analyzed the RA profile of lncRNAs in AF patients and identified 182 differentially expressed lncRNA. Wu et al., [89] lncRNA transcriptomic analyses by microarrays using atrial tissue samples (both right and left). 16 lncRNA and 5 mRNA were found to be differentially expressed in AF patients. Chen et al. [90] performed a microarray analyses using pulmonary vein myocardium and the surrounding myocardium and compared to LA appendage. The authors reported 94 differentially expressed lncRNAs, among which AK055347 was one of lncRNAs most significantly altered. Experimental manipulation of this lncRNAs demonstrate a role in mitochondria energy production. Comparison of all the data provides by these authors demonstrate no single match between them (data not shown), raising up the poor robustness of these findings that might be due to technical or biological variables. In addition, how these lncRNAs can influence AF phenotype remains mostly unsolved.

In addition to the lncRNAs hallmark in the AF diseased myocardium, additional studies have been carried out in leucocytes. Su et al. [91] reported the differentially expressed lncRNAs

profiles in leucocytes of paroxysmal AF as compared to controls. A total of 2095 lncRNAs were differentially expressed. Two of these lncRNAs (ENST00000559960 and uc004aef.3) were further validated and identified as biomarkers of AF.

Additional evidences on the differential lncRNA expression profile in AF have been reported in two distinct experimental models. Li et al. [92] analyzed the expression profile of lncRNAs by RNAseq in RA samples of experimental rabbit AF model. These authors identified 1220 differentially expressed lncRNAs. They further explore the functional role of one of these differentially expressed lncRNA, i.e. TCONS_00075467, showing that silencing leads to a decrease in L-type calcium current and thus the action potential duration. They further demonstrate that TCONS_00075467 can sponge the microRNA miR-328 and thus regulate the downstream protein CACNA1C, supporting thus a pivotal role in AF pathophysiology. Wang et al. [93] analyzed the lncRNA profile in fat pads from experimental canine model of AF. These authors reported 576 differentially expressed lncRNA (166 down-regulated and 410 up-regulated). In vivo silencing of two of these differentially expressed lncRNAs, TCONS_00032546 and TCONS_00026102, significantly shorten or prolong the atrial effective refractory period thereby increasing or preventing AF inducibility by promoting or inhibiting the neurogenesis, respectively. The lack of evolutionary lncRNA conservation hampers comparison with data obtained in human tissues and thus provides an additional obstacle to dissect the AF lncRNA transcriptomic hallmark.

7 Perspectives

In this study we provide convincing evidence on the functional role of microRNAs and lncRNAs in atrial fibrillation. A wealth of knowledge is currently available of the role of microRNAs in atrial fibrillation, including therein major contributions impacting on both electrical and structural remodeling. In addition several other microRNA-regulated pathways have been

reported although additional experimental evidences are required to fully understand their contribution to AF. Importantly, large discrepancies are observed when transcriptomic analyses are compared. Therefore, efforts should be made to understand the nature of such discrepancy and to search for a common pathways that will serve us to undoubtedly unravel the transcriptomic hallmarks of AF pathophysiology.

Importantly, novel layers of complexity lay ahead of us requiring to decipher gene-gene interactions [94], microRNA-mRNA interactions [95–96] and microRNA-lncRNAs [100] in AF pathophysiology.

Understanding the functional impact of lncRNAs in AF is also major challenge. At present our understanding of lncRNAs is on its infancy. LncRNAs provide a wide array of cellular functions, impacting on both transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation. They are evolutionarily poorly conserved and our current picture of the transcriptomics profile in AF reflects more controversy and doubts than certainties. Importantly integrative pathways also involved lncRNAs, including microRNAs [97] and mRNAs [98–99] regulation. In addition, dissecting whether these non-coding RNAs exert their function in circulating plasma [100–101] or exosome-contained [102] will be of great important to solve current discrepancies. In the next coming years we will witness increasing evidences of the functional impact of lncRNAs in AF pathology as well as of additional non-coding RNAs, i.e. circRNAs, that just entered this arena [103–104].

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