Co-expression of calcium channels and delayed rectifier potassium

channels protects the heart from proarrhythmic events

Sara Ballouz[a,1], Melissa M Mangala[b,1], Matthew D Perry[b,c,1], Stewart Heitmann[b],

Jesse A Gillis[a], Adam P Hill[b,c,2], Jamie I Vandenberg[b,c,2]

Author Affiliation:

a. Stanley Institute for Cognitive Genomics, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory,

Woodbury, NY 11797, USA.

b. Victor Chang Cardiac Research Institute, Darlinghurst, NSW 2010, Australia

c. University of NSW, Sydney. Kensington, NSW 2052, Australia

1. These authors contributed equally to this study

2. Corresponding Authors:

Jamie I Vandenberg* and Adam P Hill†,

Victor Chang Cardiac Research Institute,

Lowy Packer Building, 405 Liverpool Street

Darlinghurst, NSW 2010

Australia

* j.vandenberg@victorchang.edu.au

† a.hill@victorchang.edu.au

Abstract (147 words)

Cardiac electrical activity is controlled by the carefully orchestrated activity of more than a

dozen different ion conductances. Yet, there is considerable variability in cardiac ion

channel expression levels both within and between subjects. In this study we tested the

hypothesis that variations in ion channel expression between individuals are not random

but rather there are modules of co-expressed genes and that these modules make

electrical signaling in the heart more robust.

Meta-analysis of 3653 public RNA-Seq datasets identified a strong correlation between

expression of *CACNA1C* (L-type calcium current, I_{CaL}) and *KCNH2* (rapid delayed rectifier

K$^+$ current, I_{Kr}), which was verified in mRNA extracted from human induced pluripotent

stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CM). *In silico* modeling, validated with functional

measurements in hiPSC-CM, indicates that the co-expression of *CACNA1C* and *KCNH2*

limits the variability in action potential duration and reduces susceptibility to early

afterdepolarizations, a surrogate marker for pro-arrhythmia.

Keywords:

Ion channels; calcium channels, potassium channels, co-expression; gene modules; meta-

analysis; cardiac action potential, early afterdepolarization, arrhythmia, drug-induced long

QT syndrome,

Impact Statement

Coexpressed levels of potassium and calcium ion channel genes in the heart encode more

robust cardiac electrophysiology and provide insights into genetic basis of arrhythmic risk

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Introduction

Robust electrical signaling in the heart is critical for co-ordinating the efficient pumping of blood around the body. Failure of cardiac electrical signaling, even for just a few minutes, can have fatal consequences, with sudden cardiac death accounting for up to 10% of deaths in our community (1). Despite decades of research, predicting in advance who is more or less susceptible to sudden cardiac death remains challenging (2).

The action potential (AP) of excitable cells, such as cardiac myocytes and neurons, reflects the orchestrated activity of at least a dozen distinct ion channels and electrogenic transporters (3,4). In such complex systems, both theoretical and experimental studies have shown that there is considerable inter-individual variability in the combinations of molecular input parameters that can produce very similar integrated outputs (5,6). This has led to a paradigm shift in computational cardiology that relies not on generating idealized outputs based on mean data but rather development of populations of models that account for the observed variability in molecular inputs (7,8). Such models are already proving useful for interrogating inter-individual variability in response to pathological stimuli (9-11). Our challenge now is to discern the underlying essence of these complex systems (12,13) so that we may then make rational interventions to treat pathology that takes into account inter-individual variation. Specifically, are there underlying principles regulating cardiac electrical activity that can provide insights into why some people are more susceptible to sudden cardiac death in response to pathological stimuli, such as drug block of the rapid delayed rectifier potassium channel (I_{Kr}) which is the underlying basis of drug-induced long QT syndrome (di-LQTS) (14).

A common approach to discern patterns in multi-dimensional biological problems has been to look for co-expression networks (13,15). Co-expression networks are known to encode functional information (16), with co-expression reflecting co-regulation and co-functionality (17,18). To help identify robust co-expression modules, it is helpful to use meta-analytical approaches, which aggregate large numbers of individual networks across multiple independent experiments to average away noise and reinforces those correlations that reflect real signals (19-21).

Here, we have used meta-analytic co-expression analysis in large scale human gene
expression data sets to identify modules of co-expressed ion channel genes which were
then used to constrain population models of cardiac electrical activity. These models were
then used to test the hypothesis that co-expression of repolarization and depolarization
currents helps prevent irregular APs in human cardiac myocytes that are exposed to pro-
arrhythmic stimuli. We show that tight coupling of current densities for the L-type calcium
current (I_{CaL}) and the rapid component of the delayed rectifier potassium current (I_{Kr})
reduced the emergence of pro-arrhythmic early afterdepolarizations (EADs) and this
protection persisted in the face of highly variable expression of other ion channels, as well
as in the presence of pharmacological block of I_{Kr} which is a potent pro-arrhythmic
stimulus (22). A very important prediction to arise out of our modelling studies is that in
the context of drug block of I_{Kr}, those patients with low expression of I_{CaL} and I_{Kr} will
exhibit the greatest prolongation of repolarization duration but patients with high
expression of I_{CaL} and I_{Kr} will experience more EADs and are therefore more likely to be
susceptible to ventricular arrhythmias.

Results

The shape and duration of action potentials in cardiac myocytes are determined by the
orchestrated activity of voltage-gated sodium, calcium and potassium channels, as well as
a series of electrogenic transporters that regulate intracellular ion concentrations. These
channels, transporters and related intracellular calcium handling proteins are encoded by
a few dozen genes, sometimes referred to as the rhythmonome (23) (a full list is provided
in **Figure 1 source data 1**).

To determine whether there were any co-expression patterns among the rhythmonome
genes we first undertook an untargeted screen for possible expression correlation
patterns in publicly available RNA-seq data sets (**Figure 1**). Ranked correlation
coefficients from an aggregate co-expression network that contain data from 3653
samples are illustrated in the heatmap in **Figure 1A**. High ranked correlations indicate

similarity of transcriptional profiles between the genes. A clustering analysis, as shown by
the dendrogram in **Figure 1A**, groups genes according to their correlation similarities, as
defined by the Spearman's correlation coefficients (see color code in **Figure 1A**). There is a
large cluster of yellow/green squares in the bottom left corner indicating that there are
significant levels of correlation amongst many of the genes. Furthermore, within this large
cluster there are two sub-clusters. The cluster of yellow-green squares corresponding to
13 genes in the bottom left corner (red dashed box in **Figure 1A**) encode for proteins that
regulate calcium fluxes as well as the transient outward K$^+$ current (*KCND3*), which helps
to maintain the plateau potential at a level that maximizes calcium influx (24). A second
sub-cluster, in the upper right quadrant of the main cluster, encompasses 10 genes (black
dashed box in **Figure 1A),** including *KCNH2, SCN5A, KCNJ12* and *KCNIP2*, that encode for
ion channel proteins important for regulating action potential duration (APD).

Figure 1:   **Cardiac ion channel and calcium handling protein co-expression**
              connectivity analysis from published RNA-seq datasets

The full list of RNA-seq experiments interrogated are summarized in **Figure 1 source data 1**). **A.** Sub-network of co-expression ranking across 35 genes encoding for cardiac ion channels or calcium homeostasis proteins. Blue: low ranked correlations, yellow: high ranked correlations. The dendrogram illustrates the modules of genes with high levels of similarity in their transcriptional profiles. Red and black dashed boxes highlight subnetworks of correlated genes **B.** Connectivity of genes to *KCNH2* (encodes for I_{Kr}) and *CACNA1C* (encodes for I_{CaL}).

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1: Network connectivity for each rhythmonome gene

Network connectivity for each rhythmonome gene within the local rhythmonome network (y-axis) versus its connectivity within the whole genome (x-axis). All the rhythmonome genes are more highly connected within the local network (i.e., all the points lie above the line of identity, p~5.7e-14). *CACNA1C* is highlighted in red and *KCNH2* in blue.

Overall, the connectivity within the set of rhythmonome genes is fairly high in comparison to their connectivity to all other genes in the co-expression network (node degree analysis, p~5.7e-14), with a central gene being *CACNA1C*, the gene encoding the alpha subunit of the L-type calcium channel (see **Figure 1, figure supplement 1**). Although *CACNA1C* clusters in the group of calcium handling genes in the bottom left quadrant of the main cluster in **Figure 1A**, it also shows high correlation with the cluster of ion channel genes in the top right quadrant of **Figure 1A**. In a similar fashion, the *KCNH2* gene, which encodes for I_{Kr}, is included in the ion channel cluster but also shows moderate-high correlations with a portion of the calcium handling genes in the bottom left quadrant. The highest ranked co-expression partners for *CACNA1C* and *KCNH2* are highlighted in **Figure 1B**.

The vast majority of the public RNA-Seq datasets included in our analyses were not heart
specific. It is, however, noteworthy that there are no strong correlations between the
expression of any of the individual ion channel or calcium handling genes and the cardiac-
specific markers included in our analyses: *GATA-4*, *NKX2-5*, *MYL2* and *MYL7*. For example,
the cardiac marker genes are towards the bottom of the lists in **Figure 1B**. This suggests
that the correlations within the set of rhythmonome genes are not simply a reflection of
cardiac specific expression but rather represent intrinsic correlations.

To investigate whether the meta-analytic co-expression patterns observed in **Figure 1**
were also seen in human heart cells, we extracted mRNA from human induced pluripotent
stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CMs) (25) obtained from 10 patients with no
known heart disease. All samples contained high levels of cardiac marker genes (*MYL7,*
GATA4 and *NKX2.*5) **(Figure 2A)**. The levels of expression of most rhythmonome genes
showed variations between the samples that spanned approximately an order of
magnitude. However, similar to the generic tissue RNA-Seq datasets, there were modules
of co-expressed genes (e.g., see dashed box in bottom left quadrant of **Figure 2B**). Most of
the 13 genes in the cluster in **Figure 2B** are present in the modules highlighted by the
black and red dashed boxes in **Figure 1A**. Conversely, many of the ion channel genes
contained in the modules highlighted in **Figure 1** are not present in the module in **Figure**
2 (e.g. *KCNJ2/KCNJ12*, which encodes for I_{K1}; *KCND3*, which encodes for I_{To}; and *SCN5A*,
which encodes for I_{Na}). These genes are all known to be expressed at lower levels in
embryonic hearts and so it is unsurprising that they are not well expressed in the hiPSC-
CM lines (26).

We next looked to see if there were any specific relationships between genes encoding
depolarization and repolarization currents, within the hiPSC-CM expression profiles. In
Figure 2C, we have plotted the expression of *KCNH2* versus the genes that encode for the
depolarization currents that showed the highest levels of correlation with expression of
KCNH2 in the generic tissue datasets (see **Figure 1B**, i.e., *CACNA1C*, *CACNA1H* and *SCN5A*).
The most notable correlation that was observed in the hiPSC-CMs was that between
KCNH2 and *CACNA1C*; r^2 = 0.68 (**Figure 2C**).

Figure 2: HiPSC-CM mRNA correlation analysis

A. plot of all mRNAs (log axis) for 10 hiPSC-CM lines. Note that there are high levels of expression of cardiac markers (*MYL7* as well as *NKX2-5* and *GATA4*) in all cell lines. Also, there is less variability in the levels for the housekeeping genes (*GAPDH* and *HPRT1*) compared to that seen for the ion channels and calcium handling proteins. The mRNA data for panel A are provided in Figure 2 -Source Data 1 (GEO: TBA). **B.** Correlation matrix for hiPSC-CM mRNA. The red dashed box highlights the module with the highest correlations. **C.** Correlation plots for normalised mRNA expression *KCNH2* versus genes that encode the major depolarizing currents (*CACNA1C*, *CACNA1H* and *SCN5A*). To account for any differences in mRNA loading between runs, levels of expression have been normalized to GAPDH.

As the most robust relationship that we observed in both the generic tissue sets and the hiPSC-CM lines was the co-expression of *KCNH2* and *CACNA1C*, we focused on this pair for our subsequent studies. To investigate whether co-expression modules of ion channel genes might influence integrated cardiac electrical function, we used an *in silico* approach (**Figure 3**). We used the O-Hara-Rudy model of the human ventricular myocyte (27) with the baseline conductance scalars optimized as previously described (28). First, we simulated a population of 1000 human cardiac APs where the ion conductances for each cell were scaled randomly (see **Figure 3A**. **Figure 3 movie supplement 1**).

232 **Figure 3:** *In silico* **predictions of conductance scalars that give APD$_{90}$ values in the**
233 **normal range**

A. Baseline AP model and frequency histogram of scalars (log normal distribution with a mean
of 1 and SD of 0.5) used to generate the population of 1000 APs with the baseline AP (all
scalars set to 1.0) shown in black. The last 4 beats for each of the population of 1000 APs are
shown in the **Figure 3 movie supplement 1** (see below). **B.** Frequency histogram of APD$_{90}$
values for the 1000 simulations with those falling within ±20% of the mean value shown in red.
C. correlation matrix for sets of conductance scalars that gave APD$_{90}$ values within ±20% of the
mean value

Figure 3 Movie supplement 1: Last 4 beats for the population of 1000 simulated APs

The baseline action potential produced by this model (black trace in right hand panel of
Figure 3A) has a duration at the point of 90% repolarization (APD$_{90}$) of 264 ms. Whereas,
the APD$_{90}$ values in the cells with randomized conductance scalars ranged from ~120 ms

to ~500 ms (**Figure 3A,** right panel). We next selected those cells with APD$_{90}$ values that

fell within 20% of the mean value (red bars, **Figure 3B**) to determine if there were any

patterns of ion channel co-expression that could contribute to keeping the APD$_{90}$ within

this narrow-selected range. The correlation matrix of the conductance scaling factors for

the selected cells (**Figure 3C**) reveals a positive correlation between G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} (R=0.36)

as well as an inverse correlation for G_{Kr} and G_{Ks} (R=-0.46). The positive correlation

between the conductance scalars G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} in the *in silico* modelling dataset (**Figure 3**)

suggests that the correlation seen between *CACNA1C* and *KCNH2* mRNA expression in both

the public RNA-Seq datasets (**Figure 1**) and the hiPSC-CM dataset (**Figure 2**) would

contribute to reducing the population variability in APD$_{90}$ values.

We next repeated our previous simulation but forced the conductance scaling factors for

I_{Kr} and I_{CaL} to be identical in each cell (denoted co-expression in **Figure 4**). The scaling

factors for all other conductances were allowed to vary independently. The distribution of

Figure 4: Impact of I_{Kr}-I_{CaL} co-expression and conductance scalar variability on

APD$_{90}$ variability

APs for independent (blue) and co-expression of G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} (red) for **A.** low scalar variability

(σ^2=0.05) and **B.** high scalar variability (σ^2=0.25). Note the presence of EADs in 6 of the

APs in the independent group with σ^2 = 0.25. The last 4 beats for each of the population of

1000 APs are shown in the **Figure 4 movie supplement 1**. **C.** Histograms of log(APD$_{90}$/mean

APD$_{90}$) distributions for co-expressed (red) or independent (blue) G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} simulations

with σ^2 = 0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25. The numbers in parentheses above the 0.2 and 0.25

groups indicate the number of EADs in each independent scalars group. APs and incidence

of EADs for an extended range of variances are shown in **Figure 4 figure supplement 1**.

Figure 4 figure supplement 1: Population models of ventricular APs with different

levels of scalar variance

A-B. Population of models with variance systematically increased from σ2 = 0.05 to 0.40
for independent conductance scalars for G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} **(A),** or co-expression conductance
scalars for G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} **(B)**. As the variance increases, the number of cells that develop
EADs increases in the independent series. Conversely, for the co-expression models, there
are no EADs even at variances up to 0.4. **C.** Variance of the APD$_{90}$ distributions for each set
of conductance scalar inputs for independent (blue) and co-expression (red) of I_{Kr} and I_{CaL}.
Note that the variance of the APD$_{90}$ distribution was always greater for the independent
simulations ($p < 0.008$ between groups, paired t-test)

Figure 4 Movie supplement 1

APD$_{90}$ values for both independent and co-expression cell populations becomes broader as the level of variability is increased (**Figure 4A-C**). However, the spread of APD$_{90}$ values in the cells with identical G_{CaL}-G_{Kr} scalars is always narrower than in the cell populations with independent G_{CaL}-G_{Kr} scalar values. For example, in the case of **Figure 4B,** the variance of the APD$_{90}$ values was 0.026 for the co-expression dataset but 0.046 for the independent dataset (see **Figure 4 figure supplement 1**). Another notable feature of the data in **Figure 4C** is that early afterdepolarizations (EADs) begin to appear in the cell population with independent scalars when the scalar variability, σ^2, exceeds 0.20 (also see **Figure 4 Figure supplement 1**). The number of cells with an EAD are indicated in parentheses above each distribution in **Figure 4C**.

We next investigated whether coupling of the conductance scalars for G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} influenced the generation of EADs in response to a pathological stimulus. Specifically, we investigated how cells respond to drug block of I_{Kr} which is the underlying cause of di-LQTS (22). Populations of action potentials obtained for independent and co-expression

populations with I_{Kr} block of 0%, 50% and 80% are illustrated in **Figure 5**. As the extent of

I_{Kr} block is increased (from A to C), the proportion of action potentials producing EADs

increases. It is also clear that at lower levels of I_{Kr} block, EADs were more frequent when

G_{CaL} and G_{Kr} scalars were modulated independently (see **Figure 5B** and inset to **Figure**

5D). However, the proportion of simulations developing EADs in both the independent

and co-expression populations becomes similar when the extent of I_{Kr} block exceeds 80%

(**Figure 5D**).

It is well established that the extent of repolarization prolongation seen in patients prescribed

drugs that block I_{Kr} is highly variable and only a subset of patients exposed to drugs that block

I_{Kr} (29), or with a mutation causing 50% loss of I_{Kr} function (30), will develop life threatening

Figure 5: Impact of G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} co-expression on response to drug block of I_{Kr}

APs for co-expressed G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} (red) and independent (blue) G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} populations, with

scalar variance $\sigma^2 = 0.25$, for **A**. control, **B**. 50% I_{Kr} block and **C**. 80% I_{Kr} block. **D**. plot of %

of AP simulations with EADs versus % I_{Kr} block (co-expression, red and independent,

blue). The inset in panel D shows an expanded view of the % EADs at small levels of I_{Kr}

block.

arrhythmias. This is consistent with the prediction made by our simulated drug block

experiments shown in **Figure 5**. We therefore asked whether the data from the co-

expression datasets could tell us anything about what factors might predispose to lesser or

greater extent of AP prolongation and/or the development of EADs in the presence of a

drug that blocks I_{Kr}. Analysis of the subset of scalars within the co-expression dataset that

produced the 50 longest APs without EADs, compared to the subset of scalars that resulted

in APs with EADs, is illustrated in **Figure 6A and 6B** respectively. Notably, the longest APs

without EADs had low G_{CaL} scalars (and hence low G_{Kr} scalars before addition of drug

block). Conversely, the APs that developed EADs had higher G_{CaL} and G_{Kr} scalars. In **Figure**

6C, we have plotted the APD_{90} values for cells in the highest (red) and lowest (blue)

quartiles of G_{Cal} - G_{Kr} scalars. As expected, the low G_{CaL} group showed longer APD_{90} values

on average compared to the high G_{CaL} group (see the continuous lines in **Figure 6C**).

Furthermore, for the 70% I_{Kr} block scenario, 44% of the high G_{CaL} group have developed

EADs whereas only 7% of the low G_{CaL} group have developed EADs (compare red and blue

bars at 70% drug block in **Figure 6C**). Thus, higher G_{CaL} is associated with a greater risk of

developing EADs in response to moderate levels of I_{Kr} block. A similar pattern of results

was observed when G_{CaL} and G_{Kr} were allowed to vary independently, except that in this

scenario the difference between the high G_{CaL} and low G_{CaL} groups was even more dramatic

at lower levels of I_{Kr} block (see **Figure 6, figure supplement 1**).

A corollary of our prediction that patients with high G_{CaL} are more susceptible to EADs

when exposed to a drug that blocks I_{Kr}, is that co-administration of a drug that blocks I_{CaL}

would reduce the incidence of EADs. Magnesium, which is used in the acute management

of di-LQTS (14), is a weak calcium channel blocker. Raising plasma $[Mg^{2+}]$ from 1.5 to 2.5

mM would be expected to inhibit I_{CaL} by ~20% (31), conversely reducing $[Mg^{2+}]$ from 1.5

to 0.5 mM would be expected to increase I_{CaL} by ~20%. When we increased I_{CaL} by 20%,

the incidence of EADs in the high G_{CaL} group increased from 10% to 16% for the 60% I_{Kr}

block simulation and from 44% to 58% for the 70% I_{Kr} block simulations (see **Figure 7)**. A

drug that inhibited I_{CaL} by 20% caused a modest decrease in the percentage of cells with

EADs and reduction of I_{CaL} by 50% had a correspondingly larger effect, for example,

reducing EADs from 44% to 12% in the 70% I_{Kr} block scenario (**Figure 7**).

Figure 6: High G_{CaL} increases risk of EAD formation at moderate I_{Kr} block

Scalars (mean ± SD) for the population of cells with G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} co-expression. **A.** 50 cells with the longest APD$_{90}$ values and no EAD with increasing % I_{Kr} block. **B.** Scalars (box and whisker plots) for cells with EADs with increasing % I_{Kr} block. The G_{CaL} and G_{Kr} scalars are highlighted in yellow. **C.** APD$_{90}$ values (left axis) for the highest (red) and lowest (blue) quartile of cells according to baseline G_{CaL} scalar. The continuous lines show the mean value and shaded area shows ±1 SD). The percentage of EADs in each quartile is shown as columns (see axis on right side of graph). The corresponding plots for the population of cells with independent G_{Kr}-G_{CaL} scalars are show in the **Figure 6 figure supplement 1.**

Figure 6: figure supplement 1: High G_{CaL} increases risk of EAD formation at moderate I_{Kr} block even when G_{CaL} and G_{Kr} are varied independently

Conductance scalars (mean ± SD) that give **A.** The 50 most extreme APD values or **B.** EADs for the population of cells with independent regulation of G_{Kr} and G_{CaL}. **C.** Plot of APD$_{90}$ values for the highest quartile of G_{CaL} (red) and lowest quartile of G_{CaL} (blue) versus % drug block of I_{Kr}. The continuous line shows mean and shaded regions show ± 1 standard deviation. The column graph shows the % of cells that develop EADs at each level of drug block.

Figure 7: Effect of modifying I_{CaL} on incidence of EADs in response to I_{Kr} drug block.

I_{CaL} was increased 20% to mimic hypomagnesaemia, reduced 20% to mimic hypermagnesaemia (see text for details), or reduced 50% to mimic administration of a calcium channel blocker. In both the quartile of cells with the lowest G_{CaL} scalars (blue, **A**) and the quartile of cells with the highest G_{CaL} scalars (red, **B**) the incidence of EADs increased when G_{CaL} was enhanced and decreased when G_{CaL} was decreased. The observed differences were most pronounced with moderate (60-70%) I_{Kr} drug block.

To determine whether our *in silico* predictions could be validated in cardiac myocytes we investigated whether the extent of I_{Kr}-block induced prolongation of repolarization seen in cardiac myocytes derived from different hiPSC lines were correlated with the levels of *KCNH2* gene expression. We measured the duration of repolarization from extracellular field potentials (FPD) recorded from monolayers of hiPSC-derived cardiac myocytes paced at 1 Hz (see **Figure 8**). Cisapride (200 nM), a highly selective I_{Kr} blocker (32), caused a prolongation of repolarization that varied between 17.9 ± 7.4 ms (mean ± SD, n=12) for the least sensitive cell line to 98 ± 41 ms (mean ± SD, n=11) for the most sensitive cell line (**Figure 8A**). There was a significant inverse correlation between the extent of FPD prolongation and the [*KCNH2*-mRNA] measured for each cell line (**Figure 8B**). Furthermore, the extent of FPD prolongation caused by Cisapride in each cell line was almost exactly reversed by Nifedipine (50 nM), a highly selective I_{CaL} blocker (32) (Figure 8A).

476 **Figure 8: Effect of I_{Kr} and I_{CaL} inhibition on repolarization duration in iPSC-CM**

A. Example extracellular electrograms recorded from two separate hiPSC-CM lines under
control (black) conditions, after 5 minutes perfusion with cisparide (200 nM, red)followed
by 5 minutes perfusion with cisapride (200 nM) + nifedipine (50 nM, blue). In cell line 15-
c1 there was a 130 ms prolongation in field potential duration (FPD) which almost
completely reversed on addition of nifedipine. In cell line 273-c1 there was a much smaller
prolongation of 17 ms with addition of Cisapride that again reversed on the addition of
Nifedipine. **B**. Summary of ΔFPD for 6 cell lines plotted against the level of *KCNH2* mRNA
(normalised to GAPDH expression). Data shown as box and whiskers (median, box: 25%-
75%, extremities: 5%-95% with the mean shown as a filled circle, n=7-12 replicates for
each cell line). The straight line of best fit is shown as a solid line with 95% confidence
intervals shown as dashed lines; the slope of the line is significantly different to zero (F-
test, p=0.0010). The micro-electrode array data for panels A&B are provided in Figure 8 -
Source Data 1. **C**. Plot of normalised mRNA expression for *KCNH2* versus *CACNA1C* for the
cell lines used in the experiments summarized in panel B. To account for any differences in
mRNA loading between runs, levels of expression have been normalized to GAPDH. The
mRNA data for panels B&C are provided in Figure 8 -Source Data 2 (GEO: TBA).

Discussion

Cardiac electrical activity is regulated by the interdependent activity of a plethora of ion
channels, transporters and calcium handling proteins (4). Understanding the precise
details of how these conductances interact to control the rhythm of the heart has been an
enduring source of fascination. In this study, we have used meta-analytical techniques to
interrogate the large numbers of RNASeq datasets that have been deposited in public

access databases, to look for patterns of co-expressed genes that might help decipher the
control of cardiac electrical activity. The most important pair of co-expressed genes,
identified both in the public RNA Seq datasets (**Figure 1**) and in heart cells derived from
hiPSC lines (**Figure 2**), was that of *CACNA1C* (I_{CaL}) and *KCNH2* (I_{Kr}). Using an *in silico*
approach we demonstrated that tight co-expression of *CACNA1C* and *KCNH2*, against a
background of variability of all other ion channels, helps to control the duration of
repolarization (**Figure 4**). More importantly, the co-expression of *CACNA1C* and *KCNH2*
helps to protect the heart from early after depolarizations when they are exposed to drugs
that block I_{Kr} (**Figure 5**). Our simulations also suggest that inter-individual differences in
pro-arrhythmic responses to I_{Kr} drug block can be explained by inter-individual
differences in levels of *CACNA1C* expression (**Figure 6**). Finally, our *in vitro* experiments
on cardiac myocytes derived from hiPSC lines confirmed that the extent of repolarization
prolongation seen with block of I_{Kr} was inversely correlated with the level of *KCNH2* mRNA
expression (**Figure 8**) and the tight correlation between I_{Kr} block-induced FPD
prolongation and I_{CaL} block-induced repolarization shortening validates the tight coupling
between I_{Kr} and I_{CaL} expression despite marked differences in the absolute levels of
expression between different cell lines.

Over the last few years, numerous groups have shown that there is considerable
heterogeneity of ion channel expression amongst excitable cells, including neurons (33)
and cardiac myocytes (7,19). Furthermore, since the pioneering work of Eva Marder and
colleagues, the presence of modules of co-expressed ion channel genes has also been well
appreciated (15). These previous studies, however, relied on patch clamp analysis of
isolated cells (15,34) and qPCR analysis (15) or single molecule fluorescence *in situ*
hybridization (35) of individual ion channel mRNAs, which are highly laborious techniques
and so have been restricted to only a few important ion channel genes. The advent of high
throughput transcriptomic analyses has greatly facilitated the identification of conserved
networks of co-expressed gene modules amongst the entire set of expressed genes (21).
By applying meta-analytic approaches to a large number of independent datasets one can
more readily discern genuine co-expression signals from noise, as well as explore smaller
gene modules (21). In our analysis of a subset of rhythmonome genes within a large

library of public RNA Seq datasets, we identified two clusters of genes: a first subset that

predominantly affects calcium handling and a second subset that predominantly affects

membrane potential (see **Figure 1**). The nodes within each of these clusters that are most

closely connected within the rhythmonome relative to all other genes are *KCNH2* and

CACNA1C (see **Figure 1 figure supplement 1**). This is analogous to a network of networks

(36), where the *KCNH2-CACNA1C* link provides an interconnection of the two networks.

Independent evidence to corroborate an important link between calcium handling and

regulation of cardiac action potential duration comes from the large genome-wide

association studies (GWAS) of QT interval duration which identified SNPs in a number of

calcium handling genes as well as *KCNH2* as being important determinants of QT interval

in the population (37).

Due to the large number of associations we were testing for in our network analyses, it is

possible that some would occur by chance. That we were able to confirm the presence of at

least some of the co-expression modules in an independent dataset, i.e. the hiPSC-CM (see

Figure 2) provides important corroborative evidence that these co-expression patterns

are real and therefore likely to have physiological relevance. It should also be noted that

many ion channels important for function in adult cardiac myocytes are not expressed at

significant levels in immature cardiac myocytes, such as those derived from hiPSC (e.g.

SCN5A, KCNQ1, KCNJ12, KCND3, (26)). It is therefore possible that we have underestimated

the number of genes within the modules of co-expressed genes in adult cardiac myocytes.

The patterns of co-expressed genes we observed show some important similarities, as well

as differences to previous studies. Banyasz et al. (34) and Rees et al. (18) have both

demonstrated that the expression of I_{CaL} is correlated with the sum of the major

repolarizing ion currents in guinea-pig and mouse respectively. However, the molecular

players involved in cardiac electrical activity in rodents are quite distinct to humans (38).

In humans, the most important determinant of repolarization duration at baseline is I_{Kr}

(39), whereas in guinea-pig I_{Ks} and I_{Kr} play equally important roles (34) and in mice the

fast component of the transient outward current ($I_{to,f}$) and the ultra-rapid delayed rectifier

(I_{Kur}) are the major repolarization currents (18). Thus, there is a common factor between

our study showing co-expression of *KCNH2* and *CACNA1C* in human and the previous

rodent studies, i.e., all studies show a correlation between I_{CaL} and the major repolarizing

currents present in that species. Our study, however, is the first to demonstrate the

importance of co-expressed genes in human heart tissue. In addition to co-regulation at

the level of gene expression, there is also evidence for co-ordinated regulation of modules

of ion channels occurring at post-transcriptional levels (35,40). That we still observe an

inverse correlation between *KCNH2* mRNA levels and repolarization duration in hiPSC-

derived cardiac myocytes, as predicted from our *in silic*o analyses, demonstrates that co-

regulation at the level of gene expression is still an important determinant of overall

cardiac electrical function.

Identifying modules of co-expressed genes are the first step in seeking to understand the

logic of complex systems (6). Understanding how such modules impact function in health

and disease is the next challenge. In neuronal cells, Marder and colleagues have shown

that modules of co-expressed ion channels play an important role in regulating action

potential firing patterns (41). Rees and colleagues, have demonstrated that modules of co-

expressed depolarization and repolarization currents can help to ensure normal amplitude

calcium transients, a critical determinant of overall heart function (18). We have extended

these studies to show that in normal heart cells, co-expression of *KCNH2* (repolarization)

and *CACNA1C* (depolarization) channels help to maintain the plateau duration of the action

potential, which in turn likely contributes to regulating the duration and amplitude of the

calcium transient. More importantly, our studies provide the first insights into how

patterns of co-expressed ion channel genes influence the hearts response to pathological

stimuli.

Sudden death due to abnormalities of cardiac electrical signaling is a major cause of

mortality (1). Predicting in advance who is more or less susceptible to sudden cardiac

death and therefore warrants prophylactic treatment remains challenging (2). A key to

being able to predict who is at greatest risk is understanding why different people respond

differently to the same pro-arrhythmic stimulus. Based on the results of our *in silico*

studies, validated by *in vitro* analyses of hiPSC-derived cardiac myocytes, we have

provided two important insights into the nature of interindividual risk for developing

arrhythmias in response to drugs that block I_{Kr}, the major cause of drug-induced cardiac

arrhythmias (14). First, cells with low G_{CaL} (and hence low G_{Kr} at baseline) exhibited the

greatest prolongation of AP duration when exposed to I_{Kr} drug block. Second, cells with

high G_{CaL} (and hence high G_{Kr} at baseline) showed greater propensity for development of

EADs at moderate levels of I_{Kr} drug-block (**Figure 6**). An important implication of the

observation that a high G_{CaL} increases the susceptibility to EADs in response to drug block

of I_{Kr} is that the co-administration of an I_{CaL} blocker should reduce the risk of EADs (as

shown in **Figure 7**). This is consistent with the observation that the administration of

magnesium, which is a mild calcium channel blocker (31), is helpful in the acute

management of patients with drug-induced *torsades de pointes* (14), and conversely that

hypomagnesaemia, which would stimulate I_{CaL}, can exacerbate *torsades de pointes* (42). It

is also consistent with the observation that drugs that block I_{CaL} and I_{Kr} (e.g., verapamil)

are not associated with drug-induced arrhythmias (43) and that verapamil prevented the

development of *torsades de pointes* in rabbit hearts exposed to an I_{Kr} blocker (44).

However, given that calcium channel blockers are contra-indicated in some ventricular

arrhythmias (45), and the likelihood that patients who have drug-induced LQTS may have

other underlying cardiac conditions (14), one should be cautious about prescribing

calcium channel blockers. Conversely, it would be reasonable to consider using calcium

channel blockers to treat patients with LQTS type 2 (i.e. patients with an isolated loss of I_{Kr}

function) who continue to have cardiac events despite treatment with ß-blockers (46).

In summary, we have demonstrated that meta-analysis of large-scale gene expression data

sets is a powerful technique for discerning underlying patterns in gene expression, and

that this can provide insights into disease causation at an individual level. Specifically, we

have demonstrated that the co-expression of *KCNH2* (I_{Kr}) and *CACNA1C* (I_{CaL}) plays an

important role in regulating cardiac repolarization both in health and in disease.

Methods

Analysis of public RNASeq datasets

An aggregate co-expression gene network was built from public data, similar to that

described previously (47). Briefly, 75 human RNA-seq expression experiments (listed in

Figure 1 source data 1) that passed quality control and had a least 10 samples (3653

samples in total) were downloaded from the Gemma database (48). Approximately thirty

thousand genes were used for the network, limited only to those with Entrez gene

identifiers. A co-expression network was generated for each experiment by calculating

Spearman's correlation coefficients between every gene pair and then ranking these

values (47). An aggregate gene co-expression network was then generated by averaging

across all the individual networks, and re-ranking the final network. This final aggregate

network was then used to determine the co-expression ranking between genes that

encode for the set of ion channels and calcium handling proteins that determine the shape

and duration of the human ventricular AP, the so-called rhythmonome gene subset (see

Figure 1 source data 1). Network connectivity of the gene set was measured by

comparing the weighted local node degree to the global node degree (49). Node degrees

are the sum of the total connections a node (here gene) has within a network. Local node

degree refers to the sum of connections (here the ranked correlation) within the

rhythmonome gene set, while global node degree is the sum of connections to that gene

across all the genes in the network. Code for the analysis is available at

https://github.com/sarbal/hERG-cal

Human induced pluripotent stem cell derived cardiac myocytes.

Human iPSC lines, generated from healthy patients by Stanford Cardiovascular Institute

Biobank, as previously described (50), were a generous donation from Joseph Wu

(Standford Cardiovascular Institute). HiPSC colonies were maintained on Matrigel®

(Corning) coated plates in chemically defined medium (mTeSR1™, StemCell technologies),

and passaged using Dispase (StemCell technologies). For differentiation, hiPSCs were

dissociated by incubating at 37°C for 7 minutes with TrypLE™ Express (ThermoFisher)

and seeded at 125000 cells/cm^2 on a Matrigel® coated 12 well plate, in mTeSR™1 medium

supplemented with StemMACS™ Y27632 (Miltenyi Biotec). Once the cells reached greater

than 95% confluency, differentiation was initiated using STEMdiff™ Cardiomyocyte (CM)

differentiation and Maintenance Kit (StemCell technologies). At day 15, CMs were

dissociated by incubation in Collagenase Type I (ThermoFisher) for 45 minutes at 37°C to

break up the matrix and then incubated in 0.25% Trypsin with EDTA for 7 minutes at

room temperature followed by filtering through a 40 μm cell strainer (51). The CMs were

seeded on a Matrigel coated 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One) and maintained in CM

maintenance medium for 10-15 days before they were harvested for mRNA expression

analysis. Total RNA was obtained from 40,000 hiPSC-CMs lysed using QIAzol Lysis reagent

(Qiagen). The RNA was purified using miRNeasy® Mini Kit (Qiagen), and all samples had

RIN values >7.5, and were analysed using Agilent Bioanalyzer pico-chip. RNA samples

were hybridised with probes designed to detect 35 known rhythmonome genes using

nCounter (NanoString Technologies, see **Figure 2 source data 1**), which was performed at

the Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics (UNSW). For quantitative comparisons of different

mRNA species across different runs we normalised mRNA levels, relative to GAPDH, to

account for any variation in mRNA loading levels. Raw data for mRNA expression levels

are provided Figure 2 -Source Data 1 and Figure 8 -Source Data 2

Extracellular field potentials were recorded from hiPSC-CM monolayers using a Maestro-

APEX multi-electrode array (MEA) system (Axion Biosystems, Atlanta, GA, USA) as

previously described (52). Briefly, cell monolayers were maintained for 20-30 days in

STEMDiff cardiomyocte maintenance media (STEM CELL Technologies), on EStim classic

48 well MEA plates (Axion Biosystems, Atlanta, USA), prior to recording. Monolayers,

maintained at 37°C, were paced at 1 Hz and signals digitized at 12.5 kHz using AxIS

v2.5.1.10 software (Axion Biosystems, Atlanta, GA, USA). Field potential durations were

measured from the peak depolarization spike to the peak of the repolarization wave. After

30 minutes of pacing equilibration, Electrograms were recorded for 5 minutes in control

conditions, 5 minutes in the presence of cisapride (200nM), and for 5 minutes in the

presence of cisparide + nifedipine (50 nM) and measurements averaged over the last 10

beats of each recording period. This allowed for the possibility that if there was any beat to

beat variation this could be averaged out over the ten beats. Twelve wells were plated for

each line and all wells from which signals were recorded (n=7-12) were included in the

analysis. After the MEA recordings were completed cells were harvested for mRNA

analysis, as described above. Raw data for MEA recordings are provided in Figure 8 -

Source Data 1.

Computer modelling

Human cardiac APs were simulated using the endocardial configuration of the O'Hara-
Rudy (ORD11) model (27) with key conductances modified as described by Krogh-Madsen
et al. (28). The original ORD11 code was adapted to run in the Brain Dynamics Toolbox for
Matlab (53). To incorporate population variability in ion channel expression levels the
maximum conductance for each current was multiplied by conductance scalar (G_x), that
was drawn from a random log-normal distribution (39), with unit mean and variance that
was systematically manipulated from 0.05 to 0.5. All models were paced at 1Hz with a
stimulus of -40 mV and duration of 1 ms and allowed to equilibrate for 300 beats. We then
analysed the next four beats (to allow for the possibility of development of alternans) after
the equilibration stage. The peaks in those APs were identified using the Matlab *findpeaks*
function. Individual beats were classified as ectopic if they had secondary peaks that were
separated by more than 100 ms. The set of four beats were further classified as *alternans* if
the profile of any of the APs deviated from each other by more than 1 mV at any time point.
In a second set of simulations, we repeated the same method as above except that the
random multipliers applied to both I_{CaL} and I_{Kr} were identical. This case we denote co-
expression whereas the former case we denote independent expression. Code for the AP
modeling is available at https://git.victorchang.edu.au/projects/CC/repos/ordcoreg.

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Supplementary Files

Figure 3 supplementary Movie 1: Simulations of 1000 APs with all conductance scalars
allowed to vary independently

Figure 4 supplementary Movie 1: Simulations of 1000 APs with G_{Kr} and G_{CaL} scalars coupled
but all other conductance scalars allowed to vary independently

Data Sets

Figure 1 – Source Data 1.xlsl
Sheet 1: List of GEO datasets analysed
Sheet 2: Co-expression rankings for rhythmonome genes
Sheet 3: modules of co-expressed genes

Figure 2 – Source Data 1: nanostring datasets: GEO: TBA
Sheet 1: Metadata
Sheet 2: normalized mRNA read counts

Raw data files (uploaded to GEO)

Figure 8 – Source Data 1: Multi-electrode array datasets

1a: MEA guide.txt (description of contents of raw data files and how to extract the data).

1b: plate1_baseline.mat

1c: plate1_cis.mat

1d: plate1_nif.mat

1e: plate2_baseline.mat

1f: plate2_cis.mat

1g: plate2_nif.mat

Figure 8 – Source Data 2: nanostring datasets: GEO: TBA

Sheet 1: Metadata

Sheet 2: normalized mRNA read counts

Raw data files (uploaded to GEO)

Software Code

Figure 1,2; meta data analysis scripts: https://github.com/sarbal/hERG-cal

Figures 3-7: Baseline code and BD Toolbox software package used to generate figures 3-7:

https://git.victorchang.edu.au/projects/CC/repos/ordcoreg.