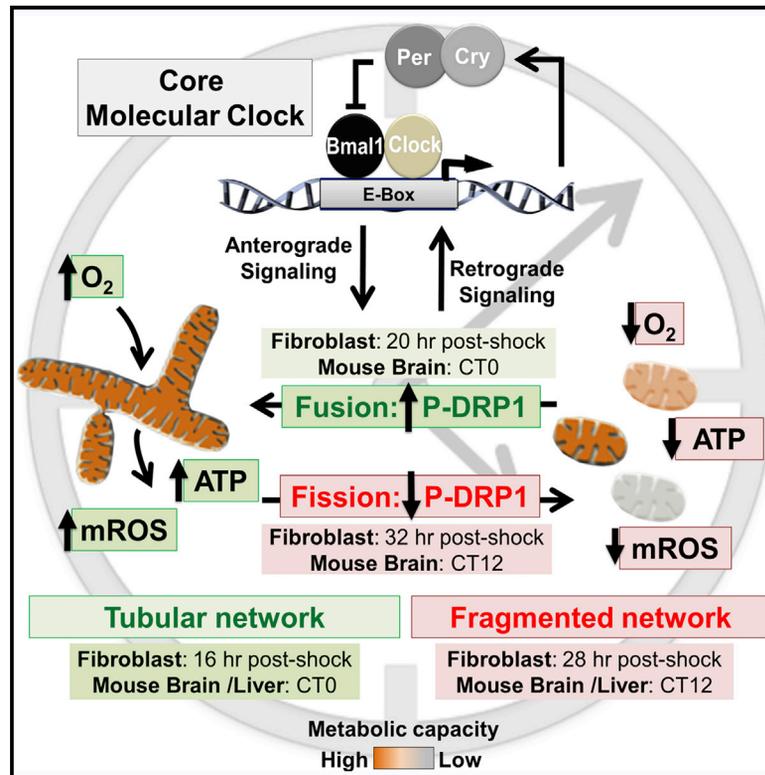


Cell Metabolism

Circadian Control of DRP1 Activity Regulates Mitochondrial Dynamics and Bioenergetics

Graphical Abstract



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In Brief

Schmitt et al. demonstrate that the circadian clock globally regulates mitochondrial morphology and energy metabolism. Even in non-dividing tissues, rhythmic control of DRP1 phosphorylation directs circadian mitochondrial morphology. This control is not only essential for circadian ATP production but also feeds back to influence the core circadian clock.

Highlights

- The circadian clock controls rhythmic mitochondrial dynamics and metabolic flux
- DRP1 is phosphorylated in circadian fashion
- Suppression of DRP1 activity eliminates circadian ATP production
- Blocking DRP1 function impairs the core circadian clock



Circadian Control of DRP1 Activity Regulates Mitochondrial Dynamics and Bioenergetics

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SUMMARY

Mitochondrial fission-fusion dynamics and mitochondrial bioenergetics, including oxidative phosphorylation and generation of ATP, are strongly clock controlled. Here we show that these circadian oscillations depend on circadian modification of dynamin-related protein 1 (DRP1), a key mediator of mitochondrial fission. We used a combination of *in vitro* and *in vivo* models, including human skin fibroblasts and DRP1-deficient or clock-deficient mice, to show that these dynamics are clock controlled via circadian regulation of DRP1. Genetic or pharmacological abrogation of DRP1 activity abolished circadian network dynamics and mitochondrial respiratory activity and eliminated circadian ATP production. Pharmacological silencing of pathways regulating circadian metabolism and mitochondrial function (e.g., sirtuins, AMPK) also altered DRP1 phosphorylation, and abrogation of DRP1 activity impaired circadian function. Our findings provide new insight into the crosstalk between the mitochondrial network and circadian cycles.

INTRODUCTION

The circadian clock is a hierarchical network of oscillators that synchronize a wide variety of metabolic pathways to the optimal time of day, anticipating periodic changes of the external environment for all living organisms, from cyanobacteria and fungi (Brunner and Schafmeier, 2006) to insects (Rosato et al., 2006) and mammals (Gachon et al., 2004).

Over the years, a growing body of evidence has emerged specifically suggesting that energy metabolism and cellular anti-

oxidant mechanisms defending against oxidative damage are coordinated by the circadian clock. Conversely, disruption of the clock impairs metabolic homeostasis (McGinnis and Young, 2016). The circadian clock exerts its control over metabolism by: (1) controlling the expression of genes and enzymes involved in metabolic processes (Eckel-Mahan et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2011; Vollmers et al., 2009); (2) intertwining nuclear receptors and nutrient sensors with the clock machinery, e.g., PER2/CLOCK and SIRT1 (Asher et al., 2008; Nakahata et al., 2008), PER2 and PPAR α /REV-ERB α (Schmutz et al., 2010), CRY1 and AMPK/GCR (Lamia et al., 2009, 2011), and REV-ERB α and HDAC3 (Zhang et al., 2015); and/or (3) regulating metabolite levels (e.g., NAD⁺/NADH; ATP/ADP; cyclic AMP) (Nakahata et al., 2009; O'Neill et al., 2008; Peek et al., 2013; Ramsey et al., 2009). Conversely, various hormones, nutrient and redox sensors, as well as metabolites not only act as clock output but can, in turn, also regulate the biological clock by acting as input signals (Bass, 2012; Eckel-Mahan and Sassone-Corsi, 2013).

Within this network, the mechanistic relationship between the clock and the mitochondrial network remains mostly elusive. Mitochondria are highly dynamic cellular organelles playing a major role in cellular energy metabolism and homeostasis via generation of several metabolites including ATP. Several studies have shown diurnal oscillations not only in mitochondrial gene expression (Panda et al., 2002) but also in key mitochondrial bioenergetic parameters including membrane potential, cytochrome c oxidase activity, and key mitochondrial enzymes (Isobe et al., 2011; Neufeld-Cohen et al., 2016). Moreover, one regulatory node for mitochondrial oxidative metabolism is the level of NAD⁺/NADH, which regulates the activity of mitochondrial sirtuins and thereby mitochondrial protein acetylation (Nakahata et al., 2009; Peek et al., 2013; Masri et al., 2013). However, in other systems such as the cell cycle, global control of mitochondrial function is strongly coordinated with morphology (Lopez-Mejia and Fajas, 2015; Wai and Langer, 2016). For example, in response to cues from the cell cycle, a tightly



regulated equilibrium between opposing mitochondrial fusion and fission activities is required to meet changing demands for energy production and to adjust mitochondrial function (Kanfer and Kornmann, 2016). In this paper, we show that similar mechanisms are used by the circadian clock to regulate the mitochondrial network: even in non-dividing cells and tissues, circadian regulation of dynamin-related protein 1 (DRP1) results in cycles of fission and fusion that are essential for circadian oscillations in ATP production. Our findings are consistent with the existence of a crosstalk between the clock and the mitochondrial network that maintains bioenergetic homeostasis in response to circadian metabolic changes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cellular Bioenergetic Variations Are Driven by the Circadian Clock

To eliminate potential systemic and environmental influences upon metabolic measurements and to establish an *in vitro* system for mechanistic study, we first obtained global metabolomic profiles from cultured human osteosarcoma U2OS cells over the course of 24 hr after synchronizing circadian clocks with dexamethasone (Figures 1A–1C and S1A–S1E; Table S1). Similar to circadian pathway signatures of the cellular metabolome previously described in rodents (Eckel-Mahan et al., 2012; Minami et al., 2009; Adamovich et al., 2014; Vollmers et al., 2009) and humans (Ang et al., 2012; Dallmann et al., 2012; Davies et al., 2014; Kasukawa et al., 2012), periodic analysis (Hughes et al., 2010) showed that ~29% of these metabolites (67 of 228 identified metabolites) displayed circadian rhythmicity, mainly peaking at 16 hr after synchronization (Figures 1A–1C and S1A–S1E; Table S1). A range of these rhythmic compounds were engaged in redox and mitochondrial energetic homeostasis through branched-chain amino acid metabolism, the GSH/GSSG redox system, glycolysis, the tricarboxylic acid cycle (Figures S1B–S1E), or metabolic byproducts of mitochondrial metabolism (i.e., ATP, reactive oxygen species, and NAD⁺/NADH) (Figures S1F–S1I), as has been observed by others in heterologous mammalian systems (Eckel-Mahan et al., 2012; Peek et al., 2013). The group of mitochondrial fuels showed peak expression levels about 6 hr earlier than the “by-product” group. In fibroblasts from *mPer1/Per2* mutant mice, which lack a functional circadian clock (Zheng et al., 2001), ATP remains constant at nadir levels (Figure 1D). Thus, rhythmic ATP levels depend upon a functional circadian clock.

Since the circadian clock can be phase-locked with the cell cycle (Matsuo et al., 2003), and ATP levels are cell cycle regulated (Marcussen and Larsen, 1996), we also verified ATP content in synchronized fibroblasts treated with cytosine β -D-arabino-furanoside (AraC) to abrogate cell division (Figures S2A–S2C). Although disruption of cell division with AraC led to a moderately decreased rhythmic ATP content (Figure S2B), no alteration in the amplitude of circadian ATP production was observed (Figures S2A and S2C). Circadian ATP levels as well as circadian NAD⁺ and NADH levels were also observed in adult wild-type mouse brains, where dividing cells represent a small minority (Figures S2D–S2F).

Finally, to confirm that this rhythmicity was dependent upon mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OxPhos) rather than

glycolysis, we also monitored ATP content in synchronized fibroblasts in the presence of oligomycin, an ATP synthase inhibitor, or 2-deoxyglucose, a glycolysis inhibitor, to determine the relative contribution of each pathway to the observed ATP oscillations (Figure 1E). Whereas circadian ATP oscillations were significantly dampened by oligomycin treatment, 2-deoxyglucose only decreased ATP levels while rhythmicity was maintained, confirming that circadian ATP rhythmicity is primarily caused by mitochondrial OxPhos. Collectively, these data confirm not only that mitochondrial output is circadian and cell cycle independent, but that circadian control likely affects multiple steps of mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation. We therefore began to dissect the sources of this control.

Circadian Mitochondrial Bioenergetics Are Coupled to Circadian Mitochondrial Architecture

Previous studies have suggested circadian bioenergetics in both the suprachiasmatic nucleus and liver (Isobe et al., 2011; Peek et al., 2013). Similarly, in cultured fibroblasts mitochondrial oxygen consumption analyses showed time-of-day-dependent variation in each measurable step of the mitochondrial respiratory chain: at 16 hr post synchronization in cultured cells (and during the mouse subjective day), cells exhibited a higher respiratory capacity corresponding to high ATP levels, and at 28 hr post synchronization (during the subjective night) cells showed lower spare respiratory capacity corresponding to low ATP levels (Figures 1F and 1G). By contrast, oxygen consumption allocated to other sources such as proton leak, or glycolysis (as reflected by the extracellular acidification rate [ECAR]) remained unchanged at different time points (Figures S2G and S2H). Thus, in cultured cells only mitochondrial respiration, but not glycolysis, varied in a circadian manner by switching between metabolically active and resting states, corresponding to 16 and 28 hr post shock, respectively (Figure 1H).

Circadian oscillations of mitochondrial function might be explained by a variety of mechanisms (Manella and Asher, 2016). It is formally possible that circadian control of expression of a key rate-limiting mitochondrial enzyme would be sufficient (Neufeld-Cohen et al., 2016). We observed that mitochondrial subunits of complexes I, IV, and V were expressed in a circadian fashion in human fibroblasts (Figure S4A). However, it is unlikely that these variations would create circadian oscillations at each step of the respiratory chain. A second more persuasive idea is that circadian control of NAD⁺/NADH levels feeds back to control mitochondrial output (Asher and Schibler, 2011; Nakahata et al., 2009; Peek et al., 2013). Recently, it has been shown that changes in NAD⁺/NADH levels can affect activity of the mitochondrial deacetylase SIRT3, thereby affecting global mitochondrial protein acetylation (Peek et al., 2013). A third idea relates to mitochondrial morphology: for example, in the case of the cell cycle, direct regulation of mitochondrial morphology itself regulates all aspects of oxidative respiration (Mishra and Chan, 2014; Westermann, 2010).

Mitochondria are highly mobile, dynamic organelles that continuously fuse and divide, thereby up- or downregulating respiration in response to cellular energy requirements (Wai and Langer, 2016). To investigate whether the circadian clock intervenes globally in mitochondrial dynamics, we assessed mitochondrial morphology in synchronized cultured fibroblasts

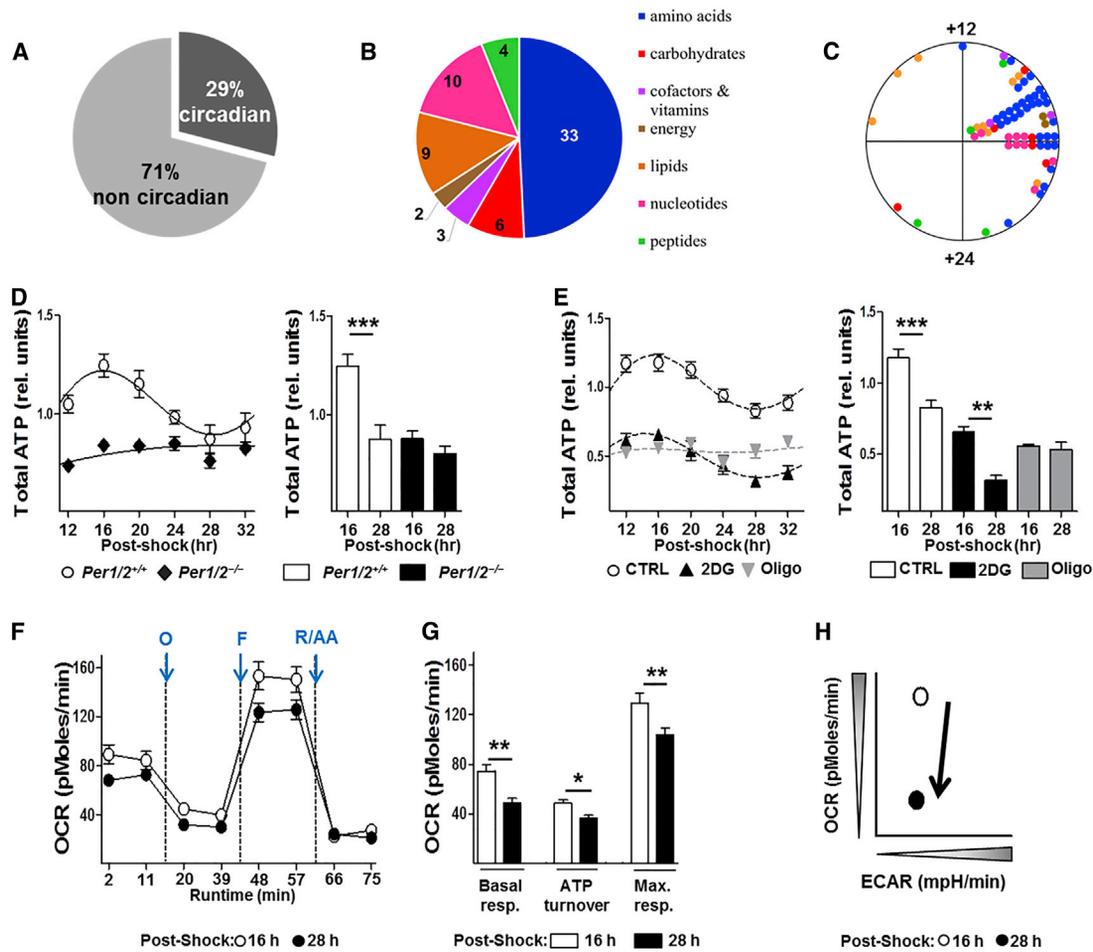


Figure 1. OxPhos-Dependent ATP variations Are Driven by the Circadian Clock

(A) Percentage of non-circadian and circadian metabolites based on JTK_CYCLE analysis ($n = 2$ per time point). Metabolites were considered circadian at a p value cutoff of 0.05.

(B and C) Compound class (B) and time-of-day distribution of peak phases (C) of rhythmic metabolites.

(D) Relative total ATP level measured in serum-shocked *Per1/2^{-/-}* MEFs compared with wild-type (WT) MEFs ($n = 6$ per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{WT} = 0.000179$, $P_{KO} = 0.39$). Right panel displays relative total ATP level measured in serum-shocked *Per1/2^{-/-}* MEFs compared with WT MEFs at 16 hr post shock (peak of ATP content) and at 28 hr (trough of ATP content).

(E) Relative total ATP levels from serum-shocked human skin fibroblasts treated with 2-deoxy-D-glucose (2DG, 4.5 g/L) or oligomycin (OLIGO, 2 μ M) compared with non-treated cells (CTRL) measured at the indicated time points ($n = 6$ per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{CTRL} = 1.78 \times 10^{-15}$, $P_{2DG} = 9.78 \times 10^{-6}$, $P_{Oligo} = 0.461$). Right panel displays relative total ATP level at 16 hr post shock (peak of ATP content) and at 28 hr (trough of ATP content) in control and treated conditions. Data in (D) and (E) are presented as average \pm SEM. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ for Student's two-tailed t test comparing single time points between WT and mutant (D) or CTRL and treated cells (E).

(F) Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) was evaluated in serum-shocked fibroblasts treated sequentially with oligomycin (O, 2 μ M), a mitochondrial ATP synthesis inhibitor; FCCP (carbonyl cyanide- p -(trifluoromethoxy)phenylhydrazine) (F, 0.7 μ M), an uncoupling agent allowing measurement of maximal flux; rotenone (R, 2 μ M), a complex I inhibitor; and antimycin A (AA, 4 μ M), a cytochrome c reductase inhibitor that blocks OxPhos, at 16 and 28 hr post shock, respectively.

(G) Bioenergetic profile of synchronized fibroblasts at 16 and 28 hr post shock, respectively. Basal respiration, ATP turnover, and maximal respiration were determined after normalization to OCR allocated to non-mitochondrial respiration measured after antimycin A/rotenone injection.

(H) Cellular bioenergetic profile (OCR versus ECAR) evaluated at 16 and 28 hr post shock, respectively, in human skin fibroblasts. Black arrow corresponds to the metabolic switch from a metabolically active (16 hr) to a resting state (28 hr).

Data in (F) to (H) are presented as average \pm SEM ($n = 11$ replicates per time point, three independent experiments). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ for Student's two-tailed t test comparing time points.

See also Figures S1 and S2; Table S1.

by confocal microscopy (Figures 2A and 2B). Matching the rhythmicity in ATP content and OxPhos activity (Figure 1), we observed that mitochondrial network morphology displayed a circadian rhythmicity with three distinct states: tubular at 16 hr, intermediate at 20–24 hr, and fragmented at 28 hr post shock

(Figures 2E and S2I–S2P). Similar results were obtained in another circadian-rhythmic human cell line, glioma A172 (Figures S3A–S3H and S3J) as well as in histological sections of hippocampus (Figures 2C and 2F) and liver (Figures S3I and S3K) from wild-type mice, which both displayed a tubular morphology

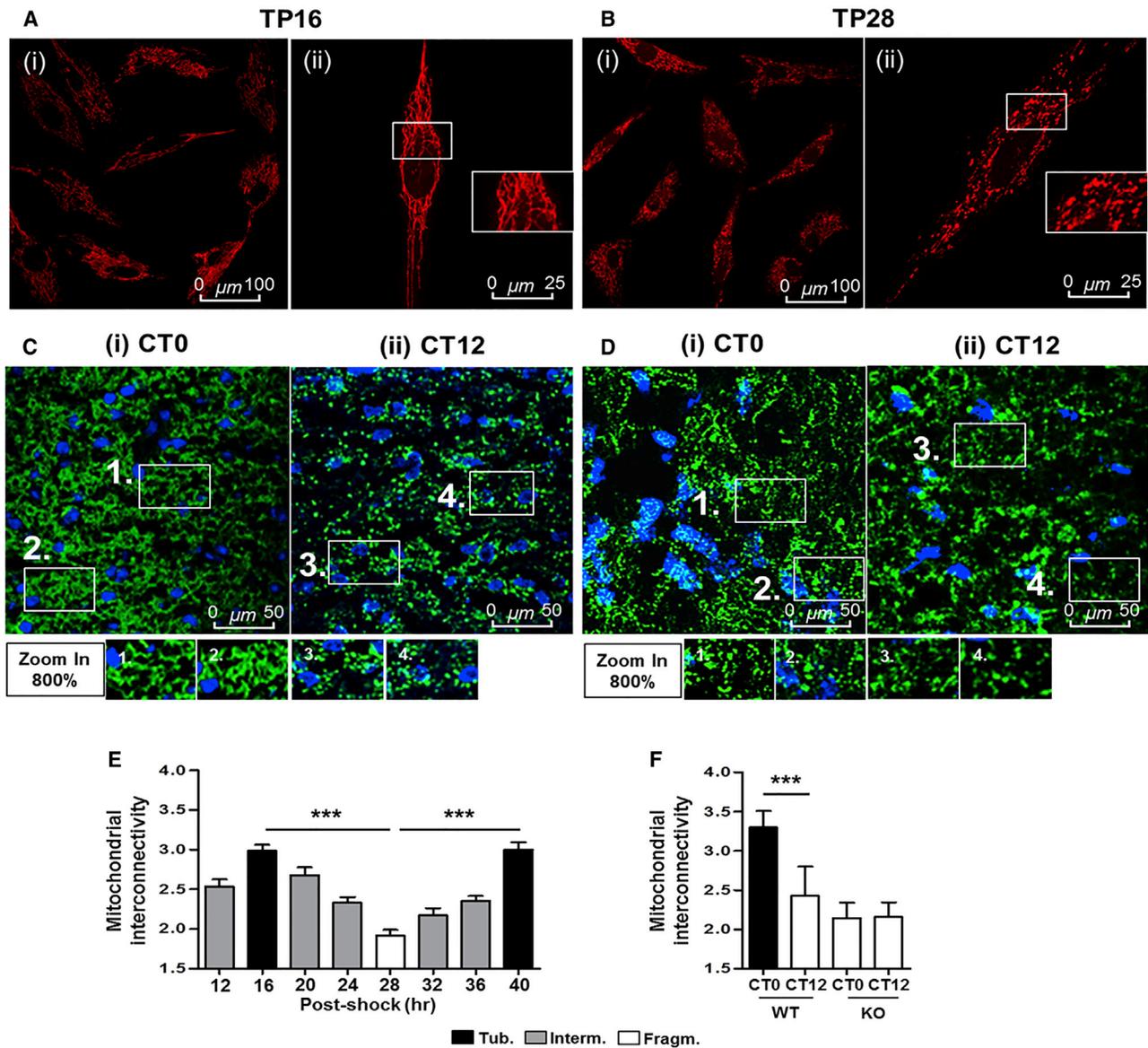


Figure 2. Dynamic Mitochondrial Architecture Is Controlled by the Circadian Clock

(A and B) Mitochondrial network morphology assessed in serum-shocked human skin fibroblasts at 16 hr (A) and 28 hr (B), corresponding to a tubular network and a fragmented network, respectively. For each representative image (A) (ii) and (B) (ii), a zoom-in image is shown (400%). Scale bars, 100 μm (Ai and Bi) and 25 μm (Aii and Bii).

(C and D) Mitochondrial network morphology assessed in hippocampal CA1 region from non-fasted wild-type mice kept (C) in darkness condition at CT0 (i) and CT12 (ii) and from *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice (D) in darkness condition at CT0 (i) and CT12 (ii) Scale bars, 50 μm .

(E) Quantification of mitochondrial interconnectivity in clock-synchronized fibroblasts during 40 hr. On average 3,000–10,000 mitochondrial organelles were analyzed per time point ($n = 25\text{--}30$ images per time point, JTK_Cycle, $p = 0.000719$); images for additional time points are shown in Figure S2.

(F) Quantification of mitochondrial interconnectivity from non-fasted wild-type (WT) mice kept in constant darkness from *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice in darkness condition at CT0 and CT12. On average 3,000–10,000 mitochondrial organelles were analyzed per time point ($n = 6$ sections per condition).

Data in (E) and (F) are presented as average \pm SEM. *** $p < 0.001$ for Student's two-tailed t test comparing time points (e.g., 16 hr versus 28 hr) (E) or comparing single time points between wild-type and mutant (F).

See also Figures S2 and S3.

at CT0 (onset of subjective day or rest period) and a fragmented state CT12 (onset of subjective night or activity period). A fragmented mitochondrial network was detected at both time points in the hippocampus of *mPer1/Per2* double-mutant mice (Figures 2C and 2D), as might be expected from their low and constant ATP levels.

Clock Control of DRP1 Activity Modulates Circadian Mitochondrial Metabolism

A well-defined set of proteins regulates mitochondrial fission and fusion, including mitofusins and dynamin-related proteins. While a recent study suggested circadian oscillation of these genes at a transcriptional level in liver (Jacobi et al., 2015), their

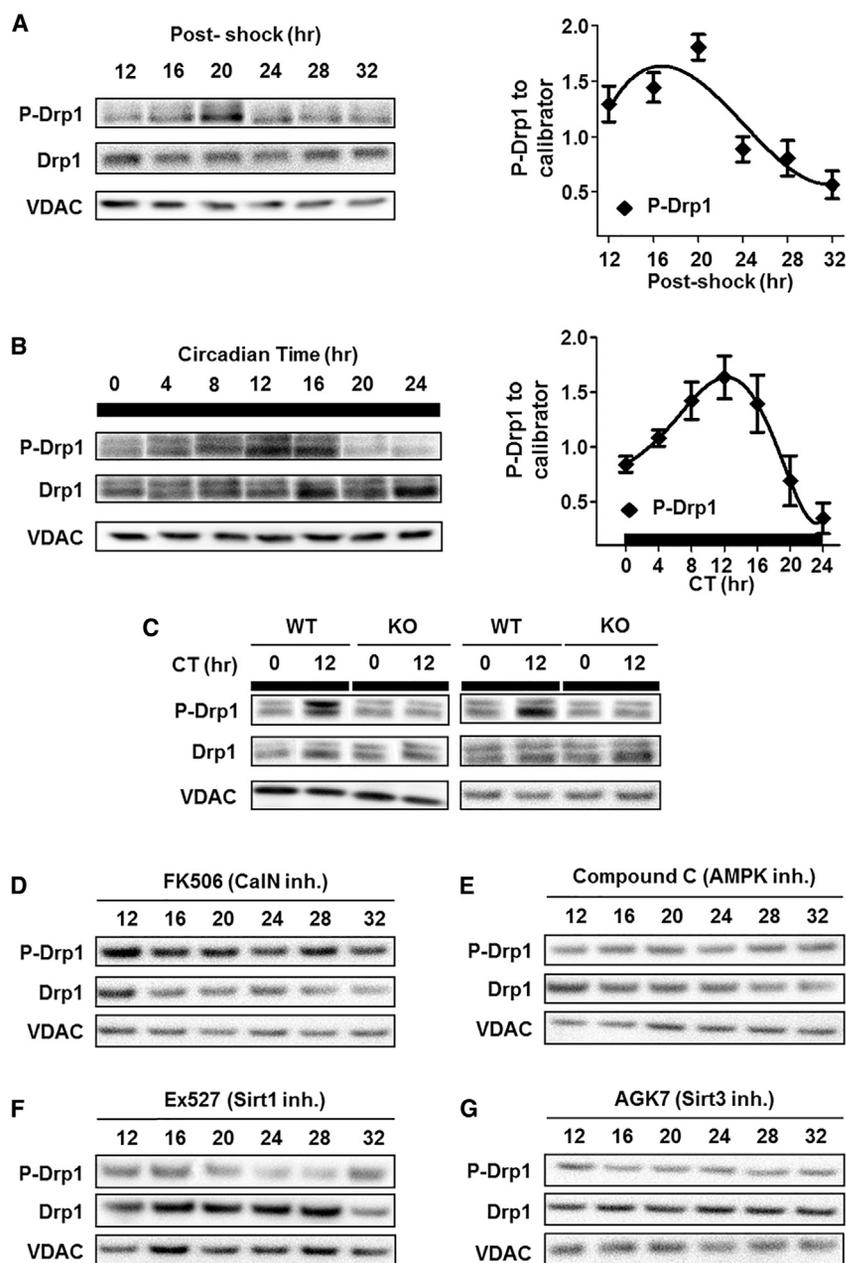


Figure 3. DRP1 Phosphorylation Is under Clock Control

(A) Left panel: representative phosphorylation of DRP1 on serine 637 (P-DRP1) and total DRP1 evaluated at the indicated time points in serum-shocked human skin fibroblasts. Right panel: quantification of relative DRP1 phosphorylation normalized to calibration sample ($n = 6$ per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{P-DRP1} = 0.000628$, $P_{DRP1} = 0.815$).

(B) Left panel: representative phosphorylation of DRP1 on serine 637 (P-Drp1) and total DRP1 evaluated at the indicated time points in brain homogenate of non-fasted wild-type mice kept in constant darkness (represented by the black bar). Right panel: quantification of relative DRP1 phosphorylation normalized to calibration sample measured in brain homogenate ($n = 4$ per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{P-DRP1} = 0.000265$, $P_{DRP1} = 0.549$). Data are represented as average \pm SEM (A and B).

(C) Representative phosphorylation of DRP1 on serine 637 (P-Drp1) and total DRP1 levels evaluated at the indicated time points in brain homogenate of non-fasted *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice kept in constant darkness.

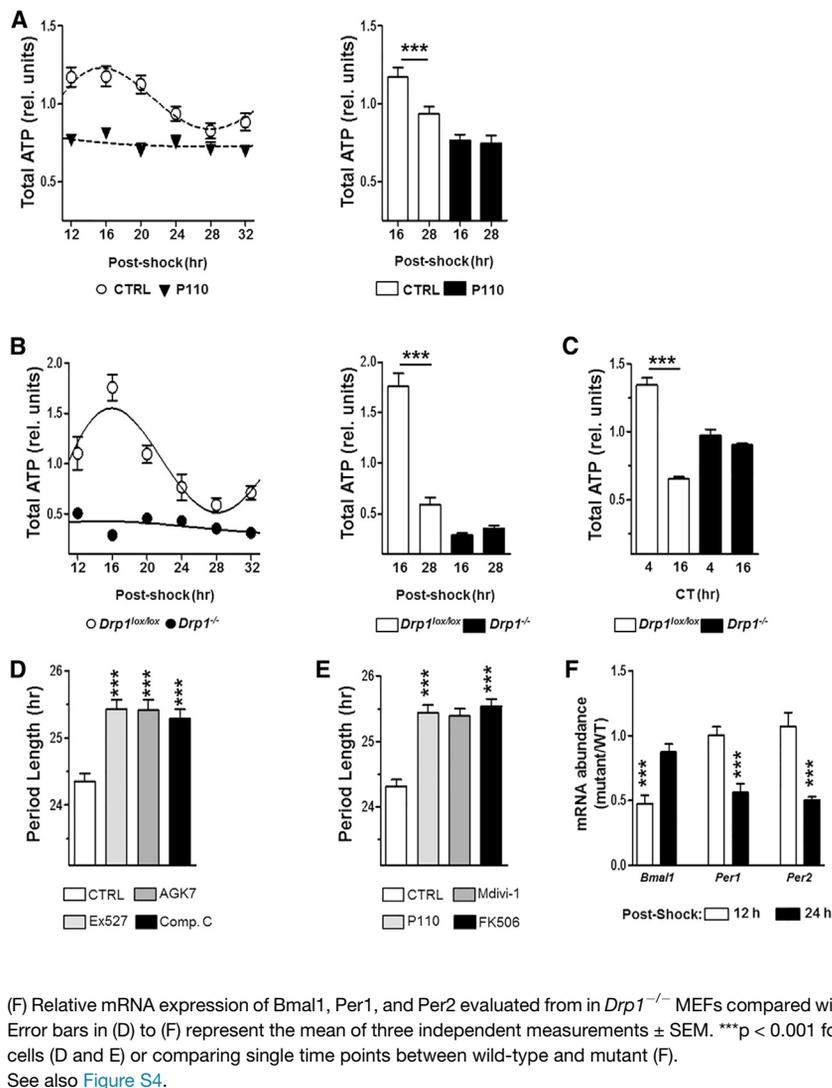
(D–G) Representative phosphorylation of DRP1 on serine 637 (P-Drp1) and total DRP1 evaluated at the indicated time points in serum-shocked human skin fibroblasts in the presence of inhibitors of calcineurin (FK506, $1 \mu\text{M}$) (D), AMPK (compound C, $1 \mu\text{M}$) (E), sirtuin 1 (Ex527, $1 \mu\text{M}$) (F), or sirtuin 3 (AGK7, $1 \mu\text{M}$) (G).

expression levels did not exhibit circadian oscillations in cultured cells (Figure S4B). However, we found circadian oscillations in the transcription of other mitochondrial genes encoding complex I, IV, and V subunits (Figure S4A). This disparity of results across experimental systems implied that the 24-hr oscillations in mitochondrial network architecture could be controlled by another mechanism. At the proteome level, it has been shown that the abundance of many key mitochondrial enzymes varies with time of day in clock-dependent fashion, including those whose transcription did not (Neufeld-Cohen et al., 2016), suggesting a possible post-transcriptional mechanism.

In the context of the cell cycle, oscillations in mitochondrial dynamics are regulated via phosphorylation and activation/inactivation of DRP1 by kinases and phosphatases (reviewed

by Otera et al., 2013). The elongation of mitochondria is the direct consequence of the protein kinase A (PKA)-mediated DRP1 phosphorylation at serine residue 637 (Ser637), which inhibits intramolecular DRP1 interactions between its guanosine triphosphatase (GTPase) and GED domains, thereby impinging on DRP1 GTPase activity and function (Cereghetti et al., 2008; Cribbs and Strack, 2007; Chang and Blackstone, 2007). This mechanism has been shown previously to be of importance during starvation to protect starving cells from autophagy (Gomes et al., 2011). In op-

position to PKA-mediated DRP1 phosphorylation at the key Ser637, the activation of calcineurin, which is regulated by the circadian clock (Huang et al., 2012), dephosphorylates DRP1 at Ser637 and consequently leads to organelle fragmentation by boosting DRP1 translocation to mitochondria (Cereghetti et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Thus, we next considered a potential contribution of the biological clock in the post-translational modification of DRP1 by phosphorylation at Ser637 (Figure 3). While total DRP1 protein did not display circadian oscillation both in cells (Figure 3A) and brain lysates of wild-type mice maintained in constant darkness (Figure 3B), Ser637-phosphorylated DRP1 levels exhibited 24-hr rhythms coinciding directly with a fused mitochondrial network with peaks occurring at 20 hr post shock and at CT12



(F) Relative mRNA expression of *Bmal1*, *Per1*, and *Per2* evaluated from in *Drp1*^{-/-} MEFs compared with *Drp1*^{lox/lox} MEFs at 12 hr and 24 hr (n = 6 per time point). Error bars in (D) to (F) represent the mean of three independent measurements \pm SEM. ***p < 0.001 for Student's two-tailed t test comparing CTRL and treated cells (D and E) or comparing single time points between wild-type and mutant (F). See also Figure S4.

(onset of the subjective night), respectively. By contrast, when brain lysates from *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice were investigated, Ser637-phosphorylated DRP1 levels remained unchanged between CT0 and CT12 (Figure 3C).

We next investigated possible sources for regulation of DRP1 phosphorylation. We therefore evaluated the impact of pharmacological inhibition of calcineurin on DRP1 in synchronized human primary skin fibroblasts (Figure 3D). We observed a significantly increased Ser637 phosphorylation of DRP1 at all time points in the presence of calcineurin inhibitor FK506, resulting in abrogation of its circadian phosphorylation pattern.

Multiple previous studies have suggested diverse methods of feedback from the circadian clock to oxidative metabolism, notably via the nutrient sensors AMPK (Lamia et al., 2009), SIRT1 (Asher et al., 2008; Nakahata et al., 2008), and SIRT3 (Peek et al., 2013). To elucidate whether these control nodes also affect the circadian control of DRP1 phosphorylation, we inhibited circadian-connected nutrient sensors AMPK, SIRT1, and SIRT3 using compound C (Oosterman and Belsham, 2016), Ex527 (Gertz et al., 2013), and AGK7 (Outeiro et al., 2007), respectively, in synchronized human primary skin fibroblasts

(Figures 3E–3G). In all three scenarios, Ser637-phosphorylated DRP1 did not exhibit circadian oscillations after respective inhibitor treatments. Taken together, these results not only suggest that mitochondrial network remodeling *in vitro* and *in vivo* is controlled by the circadian clock, but also indicate that DRP1 phosphorylation could play a central role in nutrient sensor-modulated circadian control of mitochondrial function.

Finally, to determine whether circadian modulation of DRP1-dependent mitochondrial dynamics is indeed responsible for circadian mitochondrial output, we first took a pharmacological approach, treating clock-synchronized cells with P110, a specific mitochondrial division inhibitor (Qi et al., 2013). Treatment with this drug completely abolished circadian ATP variation in human skin fibroblasts (Figure 4A). Similar results were observed in the presence of Mdivi-1, formerly reported as a specific inhibitor of DRP1-dependent fission (Bordt et al., 2017) (Figure S4C). To further confirm whether inhibition or absence of DRP1 is able to affect ATP oscillation, we evaluated ATP content in *Drp1*^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), and found that cells lacking DRP1 did not display ATP oscillations (Figure 4B). To further verify the role of DRP1 in controlling circadian ATP levels *in vivo*,

Figure 4. Mitochondrial Metabolism Is Dependent upon DRP1-Related Clock Regulation and Feeds Back to the Molecular Core Clock

(A) Left panel: relative total ATP levels from serum-shocked human skin fibroblasts treated with P110 (1 μ M) compared with non-treated cells (CTRL) measured at the indicated time points (n = 6 per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{CTRL} = 5.36 \times 10^{-20}$, $P_{P110} = 0.7592$). Right panel: relative total ATP level at 16 hr post shock (peak of ATP content) and at 28 hr (trough of ATP content) in control and treated conditions.

(B) Left panel: relative total ATP levels from *Drp1*^{-/-} MEFs compared with *Drp1*^{lox/lox} MEFs measured at the indicated time points (n = 6 per time point, JTK_Cycle, $P_{Drp1^{lox/lox}} = 6.83 \times 10^{-12}$, $P_{Drp1^{-/-}} = 0.2608$). Right panel: relative total ATP level at 16 hr post shock (peak of ATP content) and at 28 hr (trough of ATP content) in *Drp1*^{lox/lox} MEFs and *Drp1*^{-/-} MEFs.

(C) Total ATP levels from hippocampus of non-fasted *Drp1*^{-/-} mice compared with *Drp1*^{lox/lox} mice kept in constant darkness measured at CT4 (peak of ATP content) and at CT16 (trough of ATP content) (n = 4 per time point). Data in (A) to (C) are presented as average \pm SEM. ***p < 0.001 for Student's two-tailed t test comparing single time points between CTRL and treated cells (A) or wild-type and mutant (B and C).

(D) Circadian period length determined in dexamethasone-synchronized human skin fibroblasts transfected with *Bmal1::luciferase* reporter in presence of an AMPK inhibitor (compound C, 1 μ M), a SIRT1 inhibitor (Ex527, 1 μ M), and a SIRT3 inhibitor (AGK7, 1 μ M) (Comp. C) compared with control (CTRL).

(E) Circadian period length determined in dexamethasone-synchronized human skin fibroblasts transfected with *Bmal1::luciferase* reporter in presence of complex I inhibitor Mdivi-1 (50 μ M) or DRP1 inhibitor P110 (1 μ M), and calcineurin inhibitor (FK506, 1 μ M) compared with control (CTRL).

we examined hippocampi of adult *Drp1*^{-/-} mice (Oettinghaus et al., 2016) kept in constant darkness (Figure 4C). Consistent with our *in vitro* observations, ATP levels in *Drp1*^{-/-} mouse hippocampi did not display a significant change between CT4 and CT16 compared with wild-type controls. Therefore, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, circadian activation of DRP1 plays a central role in coupling circadian and mitochondrial metabolic cycles.

Overall, these data demonstrate that mitochondrial dynamics are essential for circadian regulation of oxidative metabolism even in non-dividing cells: analysis of DRP1 regulation revealed a circadian Ser637 phosphorylation pattern, and pharmacological or genetic interference with DRP1 activity abolishes circadian ATP production. An important consequence of DRP1 loss is the impairment of mitochondrial architecture and distribution. In brain, this results in impaired synaptic transmission (Oettinghaus et al., 2016; Shields et al., 2015; Verstreken et al., 2005). Furthermore, DRP1 depletion also affects embryonic and brain development including synapse formation, as well as the survival of post-mitotic neurons (Ishihara et al., 2009; Kageyama et al., 2012). Thus, it cannot be excluded that loss of circadian ATP production could partly also be due to other neuronal dysfunctions besides mitochondrial impairment related to DRP1 loss.

Mitochondrial Network Retrogradely Signals to the Molecular Core Clock

A known key aspect of circadian oxidative respiration is its ability to feed back to the circadian clock mechanism itself: NAD⁺ is a cofactor of the nuclear deacetylase SIRT1, which directly affects circadian clock function (Asher et al., 2008; Nakahata et al., 2008); in addition, purine nucleotide levels modulate AMPK activity to regulate phosphorylation of CRY clock proteins (Lamia et al., 2009; Um et al., 2011). If the morphology-driven circadian control mechanism that we uncovered indeed affected circadian mitochondrial function and ATP levels, one would predict that it should also signal back to modulate circadian function similarly to these other mechanisms. To test this prediction, we lentivirally infected fibroblast cells with a circadian reporter construct (*Bmal1* promoter-driven expression of firefly luciferase) (Brown et al., 2005). As reported previously in other model systems, inhibition of nutrient sensors AMPK, SIRT1, and SIRT3 significantly increased period length (Figures 4D and S4E). Similarly, disruption of mitochondrial division (P110) or calcineurin inhibition (FK506) significantly increased period length (Figures 4E and S4F). These findings are consistent with the idea that DRP1-mediated mitochondrial ATP oscillations may also signal in retrograde fashion to the clock. To confirm this hypothesis, we further analyzed gene expression of the core clock activator *Bmal1* and repressors *Per1* and *Per2* in serum-shocked *Drp1*^{-/-} MEFs (Figures 4F and S4D). Circadian variation in the gene expression of clock activator *Bmal1* and repressors *Per1* and *Per2* was suppressed, confirming that disruption of circadian mitochondrial dynamics leads to an impaired core circadian clock.

Conclusion and Limitations of Study

In summary, consistent with the growing body of evidence integrating cellular metabolism with circadian clocks (Ribas-Latre and Eckel-Mahan, 2016), our findings establish a molecular link between circadian control of mitochondrial morphology and oxidative metabolism. The results suggest that the global

circadian regulation of DRP1-dependent mitochondrial architecture plays a key role in controlling circadian metabolism. Mitochondrial morphology has been demonstrated previously to regulate nearly every aspect of mitochondrial function: mitochondrial fusion to form more extensive tubular networks results in global upregulation of oxidative respiration and all other functions, while fission of mitochondria into smaller fragments achieves the opposite (Westermann, 2010). Such regulation at the level of morphology has been extensively characterized within the context of the cell cycle, where different steps of the cell division process have disparate energy needs (Martinez-Diez et al., 2006; Mishra and Chan, 2014). Here we show that similar morphological control is a crucial node in circadian control of metabolism. Our study focused on circadian control of the mitochondrial fission protein DRP1. Mitochondrial dynamics are characterized by repeated cycles of fusion and fission, so it is possible that circadian control of fusion, for instance via mitofusins MFN1/2, could also play a physiological role. Moreover, although we demonstrate that circadian control of mitochondrial dynamics is essential for circadian bioenergetics in a number of rodent tissues and cellular models, the exact upstream mechanism of circadian DRP1 phosphorylation remains to be elucidated. The importance of circadian regulation of oxidative phosphorylation is highlighted by the multiple modes of regulation that have been established: via sirtuins and mitochondrial protein acetylation (Peek et al., 2013), via AMPK (Hardie et al., 2012), and here via DRP1 and mitochondrial dynamics. However, connections among these mechanisms remain to be clarified. As here we suggest that mitochondrial dynamics serve as effectors or necessary adjuncts of other circadian signaling to mitochondria, recent findings in this journal suggest that they also serve as effectors of diet-mediated longevity (Weir et al., 2017). By contrast, attenuation of mitochondrial dynamics accelerates cardiac senescence (Song et al., 2017). Thus, our findings could have multiple implications in the context of metabolic homeostasis, with respect to both human health and disease, and with respect to impairment in circadian clock and/or mitochondrial function. Perturbations in the clock might even be a key initiating factor for diseases linked to compromised mitochondrial function, including neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease.

STAR★METHODS

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes four figures and two tables and can be found with this article online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2018.01.011>.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, S.A.B. and A.E.; Methodology, S.F., S.A.B., and A.E.; Investigation, K.S., A.G., R.D., B.O., L.M.R., and M.W.; Writing – Original Draft, K.S., A.G., S.F., S.A.B., and A.E.; Writing – Review & Editing, K.S., A.G., S.F., S.A.B., and A.E.; Funding Acquisition, S.A.B. and A.E.; Resources, J.A.R. and U.A. (*mPer1/mPer2^{+/+}* and *mPer1/mPer2^{-/-}* mice), S.A.B. (human glioma A172 cells, human U2OS cells, *mPer1/mPer2^{+/+}* and *mPer1/mPer2^{-/-}* MEFs), N.I. and K.M. (*Drp1^{flx/flx} CreERT2* mice and *Drp1^{lox/lox}* and *Drp1^{-/-}* MEFs).

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
DRP1 (D6C7) Rabbit mAb	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 8570S; RRID: AB_10950498
Phospho-DRP1 (Ser637) Antibody	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 4867S; RRID: AB_10622027
VDAC Antibody	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 4866; RRID: AB_2272627
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
Dexamethasone	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#D1756; CAS: 50-02-2
Cytosine β -D-arabinofuranoside hydrochloride (AraC)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#C6645; CAS: 69-74-9
2-deoxy-D-glucose	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#D6134; CAS: 154-17-6
2',7'-Dichlorofluorescein diacetate	Sigma-Aldrich	D6883; CAS: 4091-99-0
Dihydrorhodamine-123	Sigma-Aldrich	D1054; CAS: 109244-58-8
P110 (H - YGR KKR RQR RRG GDL LPR GS - NH2 (20AA))	Eurogentec (Qi et al., 2013)	Peptide Custom Synthesis
Mdivi-1 (Drp1 inhibitor)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#M0199; CAS: 338967-87-6
MitoSOX™ Red Mitochondrial Superoxide Indicator, for live-cell imaging	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#M36008
Mitotracker Red CMX ROS	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#M7512; CAS: 167095-09-2
To-PRO-3 iode	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#T3605; CAS: 157199-63-8
DyNamo ColorFlash Probe qPCR Kit	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#456L
SuperSignal West Dura Chemiluminescent Substrate	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#34075
Lipofectamine 2000 Transfection Reagent	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#11668019
Compound C (BML-275; AMPK inhibitor)	Enzo Life Sciences	Cat#BML-EI369; CAS: 866405-64-3
AGK7 (Sirt3 inhibitor)	Enzo Life Sciences	Cat#ENZ-CHM146; CAS: 304896-21-7
FK506 (Calcineurin inhibitor)	Enzo Life Sciences	Cat#ALX-380-008; CAS: 104987-11-3
Ex527 (Selisistat; Sirt1 inhibitor)	Selleck Chemicals	Cat#S1541; CAS: 49843-98-3
Critical Commercial Assays		
Vialight™ Plus Cell Proliferation and Cytotoxicity BioAssay Kit	Lonza	Cat#LT07-321
Seahorse XF FluxPak	Agilent Seahorse XF Technology	Cat#100850-001
Seahorse XF Cell Mito Stress Test Kit	Agilent Seahorse XF Technology	Cat#103015-100
BrdU Cell Proliferation Assay	Merk Millipore	Cat#QIQ58
RNeasy Mini KIT	Qiagen	Cat#74104
Ready-To-Go You-Prime First-Strand Beads	GE Healthcare Life Sciences	Cat#27-9264-01
ProLong® Gold antifade reagent	ThermoFisher Scientific	Cat#P36930
Experimental Models: Cell Lines		
Human: primary skin fibroblasts	Isolated from subjects (Pagani et al., 2011)	N/A
Human: osteosarcoma U2OS cell line	The Brown Laboratory	RRID:CVCL_0042
Human: glioma A172 cell line	The Brown Laboratory	RRID:CVCL_0131
Mouse: Drp1lox/lox and Drp1 ^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts	The Ishihara and Mihara Laboratories	
Mouse: mPer1/mPer2 ^{+/+} and ^{-/-} mouse embryonic fibroblasts	The Albrecht Laboratory	

(Continued on next page)

Continued

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Mouse: Drp1 flx/flx and Drp1 flx/flx CreERT2 C57BL/6J	The Ishihara and Mihara Laboratories	Ishihara et al., 2009
Mouse: mPer1/mPer2 +/- and mPer1/mPer2 -/- C57BL/6J	The Albrecht Laboratory	Zheng et al., 2001
Oligonucleotides		
Primers for mitochondrial fusion/fission, please see Table S2	This paper	N/A
Primers for OxPhos subunits, please see Table S2	This paper	N/A
Primers for clock genes, please see Table S2	This paper	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
pABpuro-BluF (luciferase reporter for Bmal1 promoter)	Brown et al., 2005	Addgene Plasmid, Cat#46824
pEGFP-N1-mt-ro2GFP (gift from S. James Remington)	Hanson et al., 2004	Addgene Plasmid, Cat#82408
Software and Algorithms		
Prism Version 5.02	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/
ImageJ	NIH	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/
JTK-cycle algorithm	Dallmann et al., 2012	http://www.openwetware.org/wiki/HughesLab:JTK_Cycle

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

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EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**Mice**

Drp1^{flx/flx} CreERT2 mice were obtained by crossing *Drp1^{flx/flx}* mice with mice expressing an inducible Cre recombinase transgene under the control of the CamKII α promoter (Cre⁺), which is active in the hippocampus and the cortex of adult mice (from the European Mouse Mutant Archive EMMA strain 02125) ([Ishihara et al., 2009](#)). At 8 weeks of age mice were injected intraperitoneally with 1 mg tamoxifen twice daily for five consecutive days to induce recombination of the Drp1 locus ([Oettinghaus et al., 2016](#)). *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice were generated as described previously ([Zheng et al., 2001](#)).

Male C57BL/6, *Drp1^{flx/flx} CreERT2* and *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice (10–12 weeks old) were housed at 24°C for one week on a 12:12 light-dark cycle prior to placement in constant darkness 5 days before the beginning of the experiment with free access to ordinary food (normal chow) and water. Circadian time 0 (CT0) is the start of subjective daytime and CT12 is the start of subjective night-time, under constant dark conditions, over 24 hours. Experiments were performed in compliance with protocols approved by the local Basel Committee for Animal Care and Animal Use.

Cell Culture

Human osteosarcoma U2OS cells (derived from a 15-years-old female donor) and human skin fibroblasts (derived from a 31-years-old male donor) infected with lentiviral circadian reporter mice *Bmal1::luciferase* were cultured at 37 C in a humidified incubator chamber under an atmosphere of 7.5% CO₂ in complete Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEMc, including 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 1% glutamax) supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum (FBS) as described previously ([Brown et al., 2005](#)).

Human glioma A172 cells were transfected with plasmid DNA of a mitochondrial targeted GFP (pEGFP-N1-mt-ro2GFP) ([Hanson et al., 2004](#)) using the Lipofectamine 2000 reagent. After transfection, cells were selected in DMEMc supplemented with 10% FBS and 300 μ g/ml of the antibiotic Geneticin for two months at 37 C in a humidified incubator chamber under an atmosphere of 7.5% CO₂. Glioma cells were also infected with lentiviral circadian reporter mice *Bmal1::luciferase* and the circadian period length was then determined to ensure that cells have normal circadian rhythms (protocol details in the [Circadian Period Length Determination](#) section; data not shown: mean period length of 3 independents experiments 25.44 +/- SEM 0.4865 hours).

Drp1^{lox/lox} MEFs were prepared from E13.5 *Drp1^{lox/lox}* embryos and cultured as previously described ([Ishihara et al., 2009](#)). *Drp1^{-/-}* MEFs were subsequently generated by expression of Cre recombinase. The MEFs were maintained in DMEMc supplemented with 10% FBS and 1x non-essential amino acids cultured at 37 C in a humidified incubator chamber under an atmosphere of 7.5% CO₂.

MEFs lacking *mPer1* and *mPer2* isolated from double knockout mice were generated from E12 embryos as previously described ([Nagoshi et al., 2004](#); [Zheng et al., 2001](#)) and cultured in DMEMc supplemented with 10% FBS cultured at 37 C in a humidified incubator chamber under an atmosphere of 7.5% CO₂.

METHOD DETAILS

Brain Homogenate Preparation

Brains were dissected on ice and washed in ice-cold buffer (210 mM mannitol, 70 mM sucrose, 10 mM Hepes, 1 mM EDTA, 0.45% BSA, 0.5 mM DTT, and Complete Protease Inhibitor mixture tablets). After removing the cerebellum, tissue samples were homogenized in 2 ml of buffer with a glass homogenizer (10–15 strokes, 400 rpm). After protein concentration determination, all brain homogenate samples were normalized on 5 mg/ml of protein before ATP content measurement and on 1 mg/ml for NAD⁺/NADH content determination.

Synchronization of Circadian Rhythms

For small-molecule and period length determination, cells were synchronized by addition of 100 nM dexamethasone in DMEMc + 20% FBS for 15 mins at 37°C (Brown et al., 2005). For measurements of nucleotides levels, cell proliferation, reactive oxygen species, oxygen consumption rate and mitochondrial morphology, cells were synchronized by serum shock treatment (50% horse serum supplemented DMEMc) (Balsalobre et al., 1998).

Small-Molecule Determination

After dexamethasone- synchronization of circadian rhythms in U2OS cells, metabolites were measured from duplicate plates by Metabolon (Morrisville, NC), and data was processed as described previously (Dallmann et al., 2012; Lawton et al., 2008). Briefly, raw peak values of each biochemical were re-scaled to have median equal to 1. Because the absolute levels and thus the lower limit of detection were unknown, missing values were replaced by the minimum values observed for any given metabolite. This procedure prevented overestimation of circadian amplitude in less abundant substances, whose true minimum values are unknown.

Nucleotide Measurements

Total ATP content from synchronized human skin fibroblasts, *Drp1^{lox/lox}* and *Drp1^{-/-}* MEFs, *Per1/2^{+/+}* and *Per1/2^{-/-}* MEFs and mice brain homogenates was determined using bioluminescence assay according to the instruction of the manufacturer. Briefly, the enzyme luciferase, which catalyzes the formation of light from ATP and luciferin was used. The emitted light is linearly related to the ATP concentration and is measured using a luminometer (VictorX5, Perkin Elmer). To define the origin of ATP oscillations, DMEMc without phenol red + 2% FBS supplemented with 2-Deoxy-D-glucose (4.5 g/l), a glycolysis inhibitor, and pyruvate (4 mM) or oligomycin (2 μM), an ATP synthase inhibitor, was added on synchronized human skin fibroblasts. To test the possibility that rhythmic ATP is a byproduct of rhythmic cell division, pharmacological disruption of the cell cycle was accomplished with the inhibitor AraC, an anticancer drug that prevents cell division (100 μM). AraC was added to human skin fibroblasts cultures 3 hours after the seeding, directly after the medium exchange following the synchronization and then every 24 hours to assure continued block of cell division. To verify if AraC treatment had an impact on cell cycle and blocked cell proliferation, the BrdU Cell Proliferation Assay was used following the instructions of the manufacturer. To investigate the role of clock-regulated DRP1 in mitochondrial bioenergetics, mitochondrial fission was abolished by selective inhibition of DRP1 using the inhibitor P110 (1 μM) or inhibition of complex I using the inhibitor Mdivi-1 (50 μM).

For measurement of NAD⁺ and NADH from synchronized fibroblasts and mice brain homogenates, NAD⁺ and NADH were separately extracted using an acid-base extraction (HCL 0.1 mol/l – NAOH 0.1 mol/l). The determination of both NAD⁺ and NADH was performed using an enzyme cycling assay based on passing the electron from ethanol through reduced pyridine nucleotides to MTT (3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) in a PES- (phenazine ethosulfate) coupled reaction resulting in a purple formazan product that can be quantitatively measured at a wavelength of 595 nm (VictorX5, Perkin Elmer).

Experiments were performed starting from 12 hours post-synchronization time point and measured at 4 hours intervals for 6 time points.

ROS Level

The formation of cytosolic (cROS), mitochondrial (mROS) reactive oxygen species and superoxide anions in synchronized fibroblasts were measured using, the fluorescent probe 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF) (10 μM, 15 min), the non-fluorescent dihydrorhodamine-123 (DHR) (10 μM, 15 min) and the Red Mitochondrial Superoxide Indicator (MitoSOX, 5 μM, 30 min), respectively.

Synchronized fibroblasts were loaded for 15 min with 10 μM DCF or 15 min with 10 μM DHR at 37°C. After washing twice with HBSS, the formation of the reduced fluorescent product dichlorofluorescein was detected using the VictorX5 multilabel reader (PerkinElmer Life Sciences) at 485 nm (excitation)/535 nm (emission). DHR, which is oxidized to cationic rhodamine 123 which localizes in the mitochondria and exhibits green fluorescence, was detected using the VictorX5 multilabel reader at 490 nm (excitation)/590 nm (emission). The levels of superoxide anion radical were also assessed using the Red Mitochondrial Superoxide Indicator (MitoSOX, 5 μM, 30 min). MitoSOX, which is specifically oxidized by mitochondrial superoxide, exhibits a red fluorescence detected at 535 nm (excitation)/595 nm (emission). The intensity of fluorescence was proportional to mROS levels or superoxide anion radicals in mitochondria. Experiments were performed starting from 12 hours post-synchronization time point and measured at 4 hours intervals.

Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR) Measurements

OCR was measured in synchronized fibroblasts as recommended as previously described (Invernizzi et al., 2012). Briefly, human skin fibroblasts were seeded at the density of 3×10^4 cells/100 μ l per well on Seahorse Biosciences 24-well culture plates one day prior to the beginning of assay. After serum shock synchronization, medium was exchanged to 500 μ l of assay medium (glucose-free RPMI-1640 medium containing 2% FBS, 2 mM sodium pyruvate, pH \sim 7.4). Prior to measurements the microplates were equilibrated in a CO₂ free incubator at 37°C for 60 minutes. The drug injections ports of the XF Assay Cartridge were loaded with the assay reagents at 10X in assay medium. 55 μ l of oligomycin (10 μ M), 62 μ l of FCCP (7 μ M), 68 μ l of a mix of antimycin A (40 μ M) and rotenone (20 μ M) were added to ports A, B and C respectively. Experiments were performed at 16 hours post-shock and 28 hours post-shock.

Mitochondrial Morphology

Human skin fibroblast and mitochondrial targeted GFP transfected human glioma A172 cells were cultured on glass coverslips. Mitochondrial staining was performed on serum-shocked fibroblasts with the mitochondrial membrane potential-sensitive dye Mitotracker® Red CMX ROS (75nM, 15 minutes, 579/599, Life technologies). After PFA fixation, the coverslips were mounting using ProLong® Gold antifade reagent.

For immunohistochemistry on brain and liver (hippocampus (CA1 region) and liver sections from C57BL/6 mice and from *mPer1/mPer2* double-mutant mice at CT0, onset of subjective day or rest period, and CT12, onset of subjective night or activity period), antibody against the outer mitochondrial membrane porin, Voltage-Dependent Anionic Channel (VDAC, 1:75) was used for determining mitochondrial morphology. A FITC-labeled anti-rabbit IgG (1:160, 490/525) was used as secondary antibody. TO-PRO-3iodide (1 μ M, 642/661) was used as nuclei staining according to the manufacturer's recommendation.

The acquisition of XY-confocal images with maximum intensity projection was performed using an inverted microscope (Leica Microsystems TCS SPE DMI4000) attached to an external light source for enhanced fluorescence imaging (Leica EL6000) with a \times 63 oil immersion objective (numerical aperture 1.4; Leica). Given the flat morphology of the fibroblasts (size $<3 \mu$ m in the axial direction), pinhole settings were chosen in such a way that axially each cell was entirely present within the confocal volume. For morphological analysis, the samples were blindly analyzed. The form factor as measurement of mitochondrial interconnectivity was calculated for each mitochondrial object using NIH ImageJ software (Koopman et al., 2005). The degree of mitochondrial interconnectivity ($\text{perimeter}^2/4 \cdot \text{Pi} \cdot \text{Area}$) is a measure of both length and degree of branching. A degree of interconnectivity of 1 corresponds to a circular, unbranched mitochondrion whereas a higher degree of interconnectivity indicates a longer, more branched mitochondrion.

Protein Gel Electrophoresis and Immunoblotting

Lysates from serum-shocked fibroblast cultures and brain homogenate were prepared and protein expression levels were measured by standard western blot procedure. A calibration sample corresponding to an assembling of all the time points was also measure for normalization. We used primary antibodies to DRP1 (1:500, Cell Signaling), ser637-phosphorylated DRP1 (1:500, Cell Signaling) and VDAC (1:500, Cell Signaling) and horseradish peroxidase-coupled IgG as secondary antibody (1:160, Sigma). Signals were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence using SuperSignal™ West Dura Chemiluminescent Substrate and images were acquired using Gene Gnome from Syngene Bio-Imaging (CDD camera). The optical density of each band was quantified and normalized to the intensity of the calibration sample band using NIH ImageJ.

Circadian Period Length Determination

Human skin fibroblasts and human glioma A172 cells transfected with the lentiviral circadian reporter mice *Bmal1::luciferase* (Brown et al., 2005; Gaspar and Brown, 2015) were plated in single culture dishes (35 \times 10mm) at a cell density sufficient to reach 70-80% of confluency on the start day of recording of period length. After synchronization with dexamethasone (100 nM, 15 mins at 37°C), cells were cultured in DMEM (CM) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 10 mM HEPES and 0.1 mM luciferin. To determine the influence of ATP on circadian period length, CM was supplemented with glycolysis inhibitor (2-Deoxy-glucose, 4.5 g/L) and pyruvate (4 mM), or the cell cycle inhibitor AraC (100 μ M). To further confirm the influence of ATP on molecular circadian clock, CM was supplemented with nutrient sensors inhibitors: compound C (1 μ M), an AMPK inhibitor; Ex527 (1 μ M), a selective inhibitor of SIRT1; AGK7 (1 μ M), a selective inhibitor of SIRT3. To determine the role of Drp1-regulated mitochondrial bioenergetics, CM was supplemented with the inhibitor P110 (1 μ M), a selective inhibitor of DRP1 or a mitochondrial division inhibitor or FK506 (1 μ M), a calcineurin inhibitor. For at least 5 days, the amount of produced light that is proportional to Bmal1 gene expression was measured using a Lumicycle instrument (Actimetrics). Data were analysed with Lumicycle Analysis software (Lumicycle™, version 2.31, Actimetrics Software) and the period of oscillation was calculated by least-mean-squares fitting of dampened sine wave functions to the actual data as described previously (Pagani et al., 2011).

Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Total RNA was extracted from lysates of synchronized fibroblasts using RNeasy Mini KIT (Qiagen). cDNA was generated using Ready-to-Go You-Prime First-Strand Beads (GE Healthcare). For data analysis, human *CDK4* was used as an endogenous control. Data are expressed as relative expression for each individual gene normalized to their corresponding controls. The primers used were purchased from Applied Biosystems and Microsynth (Probe ID: see Table S2). Data are expressed as relative expression for each individual gene normalized to their corresponding controls.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were presented as mean \pm S.E.M. Graph Pad Prism 5.02 was used for statistical analysis and data presentation. The curves were generated by using a standard curve fit function in the GraphPad Prism software. For statistical comparisons, a Student's two-tailed t-test was used to compare single time points. Rhythmicity of metabolites and genes expression was assessed using an algorithm previously described for rhythmic transcripts.

The JTK-cycle algorithm was used as implemented in R by Kronauer as previously described ([Dallmann et al., 2012](#)). In brief, this algorithm characterizes samples as rhythmic or nonrhythmic using a nonparametric method based on a combination of the Jonckheere–Terpstra test for monotonic ordering and Kendall's τ test for association of measured quantities. Metabolites profiles were first crosschecked by visual inspection. Subsequently, the statistical significance of the circadian rhythmicity of each compound was evaluated with an independent permutation test to identify the false discovery rate for each metabolite. A window of 24 h was used for the determination of circadian periodicity and a *P value* of <0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Statistical parameters can be found in figure legends.