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Selective CDK9 inhibition resolves neutrophilic inflammation and enhances cardiac
 regeneration in larval zebrafish

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- 15 Key words: cardiac, regeneration, zebrafish, AT7519, neutrophil, resolution
- 16

#### 17 Summary Statement

18 This study is the first to show that resolving neutrophilic inflammation using a clinically 19 approved immunomodulatory drug (AT7519) improves heart regeneration in zebrafish.

20

#### 21 Abstract

22 Sustained neutrophilic inflammation is detrimental for cardiac repair and associated with 23 adverse outcomes following myocardial infarction (MI). An attractive therapeutic strategy to 24 treat MI is to reduce or remove infiltrating neutrophils to promote downstream reparative 25 mechanisms. CDK9 inhibitor compounds enhance the resolution of neutrophilic 26 inflammation, however, their effects on cardiac repair/regeneration are unknown. Our 27 laboratory has devised a cardiac injury model to investigate inflammatory and regenerative 28 responses in larval zebrafish using heartbeat-synchronised light sheet fluorescence microscopy. We used this model to test two clinically approved CDK9 inhibitors, AT7519 and 29 30 Flavopiridol, examining their effects on neutrophils, macrophages and cardiomyocyte 31 regeneration. We found AT7519 and Flavopiridol resolve neutrophil infiltration by inducing 32 reverse migration from the cardiac lesion. While continuous exposure to AT7519 or 33 Flavopiridol caused adverse phenotypes, transient treatment accelerated neutrophil 34 resolution while avoiding these effects. Transient treatment with AT7519, but not 35 Flavopiridol, augmented wound-associated macrophage polarisation, which enhanced 36 macrophage-dependent cardiomyocyte number expansion and the rate of myocardial wound 37 closure. Using *cdk9<sup>-/-</sup>* knockout mutants we showed AT7519 is a selective CDK9 inhibitor, 38 revealing the potential of such treatments to promote cardiac repair/regeneration.

40 Introduction

41

42 Myocardial infarction (MI) is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. MI occurs 43 when a coronary artery occludes, leading to myocardial ischaemia and extensive 44 cardiomyocyte death. The surviving myocardium subsequently undergoes compensatory 45 remodelling and scarring, which often results in secondary complications such as heart 46 failure. Although MI can be successfully treated and managed (Anderson and Morrow, 47 2017), there are no approved therapies that promote repair of the damaged myocardium. 48 Recent clinical trials have investigated immunomodulatory therapies that inhibit pleiotropic 49 inflammatory pathways (Ridker et al., 2017 and Tardif et al., 2019). These treatments lower 50 the incidence of cardiovascular events post-MI but increase the risk of infections. Therefore, 51 there is a need to explore treatments that specifically target myocardial inflammation and 52 promote downstream cardiac repair mechanisms following MI.

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54 Neutrophils are the first immune cell recruited to the myocardial infarct where they 55 phagocytose dead and dying cells (Dewald et al., 2004 and Swirski and Nahrendorf, 2013). 56 Neutrophils subsequently secrete inflammatory mediators to recruit monocytes, which later 57 differentiate into macrophages (Dewald et al., 2005 and Nahrendorf et al., 2007). Once the 58 acute inflammatory response starts to resolve, most infiltrating neutrophils undergo 59 apoptosis (Daseke et al., 2019). Apoptotic neutrophils are efferocytosed by inflammatory 60 macrophages, triggering a series of anti-inflammatory pathways that promote cardiac repair 61 (Savill et al., 2002; Schwab et al., 2007; Frangogiannis, 2012 and Ma et al., 2013). 62 Conversely, defective clearance of neutrophils augments inflammation, promoting 63 infarct expansion and adverse structural remodelling cardiomyocyte apoptosis, 64 (Frangogiannis et al., 2002; Vinten-Johansen, 2004; Garlichs et al., 2004; van Hout et al., 65 2015 and Schloss et al., 2016). Indeed, blood neutrophilia is recognised as an indicator of 66 adverse clinical outcomes following MI (Arruda-Olson et al., 2009 and Chia et al., 2009). 67 Resolving cardiac-recruited neutrophils therefore has potential as a viable therapeutic 68 strategy to improve myocardial repair post-MI.

69

Extensive work from our group and others has shown that cyclin-dependent kinase 9 (CDK9) inhibitor compounds selectively induce neutrophil apoptosis, reduce neutrophil infiltration, and promote the resolution of inflammation *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Rossi et al., 2006; Loynes et al., 2010; Leitch et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Lucas et al., 2014; and Hoodless et al., 2016). Unlike most other CDKs, CDK9 specifically regulates the transcription of primary inflammatory response genes via RNA Polymerase II. These include inflammatory cytokines and the neutrophil pro-survival protein, Mcl-1 (Sundar et al., 2020; Eyvazi et al.,

77 2019 and Lucas et al., 2014). Acute inhibition of CDK9 therefore provides a therapeutic 78 opportunity to preferentially suppress the transcription of short-lived inflammatory disease 79 drivers. However, due to the conserved structure of CDKs, CDK9 inhibitor compounds may 80 also target other kinases (Krystof et al., 2012). Two potent CDK9 inhibitors, AT7519 and 81 Flavopiridol (FVP), have been widely used in clinical trials as anti-cancer therapies 82 (Mahadevan et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2014; Luke et al., 2012 and Awan et al., 2016). Our 83 group has shown that AT7519 and FVP drive neutrophil apoptosis in a CDK9-dependent 84 manner to resolve inflammation following tail fin transection in larval zebrafish (Hoodless et 85 al., 2016). It is not yet understood how CDK9 inhibitors influence inflammatory and 86 repair/regeneration responses following tissue wounding.

87

88 The zebrafish has proven to be an essential model for studying cardiac injury, repair and 89 regeneration. Unlike adult mammalian hearts, zebrafish hearts regenerate rapidly following 90 injury via cardiomyocyte proliferation (Poss et al., 2002; Jopling et al., 2010 and Kikuchi et 91 al., 2010). Adult zebrafish cardiac injury and regeneration studies have found that sustained 92 neutrophil retention inhibits cardiomyocyte proliferation, promotes cardiomyocyte apoptosis 93 and delays scar regression (Lai et al., 2017 and Xu et al., 2019). The resolution of 94 neutrophilic inflammation is therefore considered a prerequisite for timely and complete 95 heart regeneration. We recently characterised neutrophil and macrophage migratory 96 responses in larval zebrafish cardiac injury using bespoke live imaging (Taylor et al., 2019 97 and Kaveh et al., 2020). We found a conserved sequence of events marked by an early and 98 acute phase of neutrophil recruitment followed by sustained macrophage recruitment (Kaveh 99 et al., 2020). Importantly, the dynamics of the immune cell response in larval zebrafish 100 closely recapitulates that of adult zebrafish and murine models of cardiac injury (Bevan et 101 al., 2020 and Epelman et al., 2015).

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103 In this study, we use our established larval zebrafish cardiac injury model to investigate 104 whether CDK9 inhibitor (CDK9i) treatment with AT7519 or FVP resolves neutrophil 105 infiltration and examine whether this regulates downstream macrophage involvement and 106 cardiac regeneration. We found both AT7519 and FVP resolved neutrophilic inflammation 107 via reverse migration. However subsequent drug exposure caused adverse effects, which 108 were avoided by shortening treatment duration. Interestingly, transient (pulsed) treatment 109 with AT7519, but not FVP, enhanced the expression in wound-associated macrophages, in 110 turn promoting macrophage-dependent cardiomyocyte number expansion and the rate of 111 myocardial wound closure. We show that unlike FVP, AT7519 is a selective CDK9 inhibitor 112 and thus a promising immunomodulatory treatment that can promote cardiomyocyte 113 regeneration.

- 115 Results
- 116

# 117 CDK9i treatment resolves neutrophil infiltration by promoting reverse migration from 118 the cardiac injury site

119 We have previously characterised cardiac injury, neutrophil recruitment and resolution 120 dynamics following ventricular laser injury in larval zebrafish. We found peak neutrophil 121 infiltration occurs at 6 hours post injury (hpi) and neutrophil numbers entirely resolve by 48 122 hpi (Kaveh et al., 2020). Two CDK9 inhibitors, AT7519 and Flavopiridol (FVP), have been 123 shown to resolve wound-recruited neutrophil numbers by inducing apoptosis following larval 124 zebrafish tail fin transection (Hoodless et al., 2016). To avoid disrupting the onset of 125 inflammation in our cardiac injury model, and encourage the resolution of peak neutrophilic 126 inflammation, Tg(myl7:GFP;mpx:mCherry) larvae were treated continuously with AT7519 or 127 FVP from 4hpi. Larvae were subsequently imaged at 6 hpi and 24 hpi using epifluorescence 128 microscopy to quantify ventricular neutrophil numbers (Figure 1A). Following recruitment to 129 the injured ventricular apex at 4 hpi, neutrophil numbers increased in DMSO vehicle-treated 130 larvae at 6 hpi (Figure 1B and 1C). In contrast, fewer ventricular neutrophils were present in 131 larvae treated with 50µM AT7519 or 3µM FVP at 6 hpi (1.8  $\pm$  0.3 vs 3.6  $\pm$  0.5 and 1.8  $\pm$  0.4 132 vs  $3.7 \pm 0.6$ ) (Figure 1B and 1C). Neutrophil presence decreased in all groups at 24 hpi, 133 indicating neutrophil numbers had mostly resolved (Figure 1B and 1C). To determine 134 whether this drug-induced reduction in cardiac-neutrophil numbers was due to cell death or 135 reverse migration, timelapse images were acquired using heartbeat-synchronised light sheet 136 fluorescence microscopy (LSFM) (Taylor et al., 2019). Live imaging demonstrated that 137 recruited neutrophils cluster specifically at the cardiac injury site in DMSO vehicle-treated 138 larvae (Supplementary Video 1), as previously shown (Kaveh et al., 2020). This is displayed 139 in Figure 1D where neutrophil positions are temporally colour coded between 4 hpi and 6 140 hpi, allowing neutrophil migration to be schematically summarised. Following treatment with 141 AT7519 (Supplementary Video 2) or FVP (Supplementary Video 3), recruited neutrophils 142 appeared to migrate more erratically and subsequently reverse migrated to the pericardium 143 anteriorly or posteriorly from the ventricle by 6 hpi (Figure 1D and 1F). These data 144 demonstrate that CDK9i drug treatment accelerates the resolution of peak neutrophilic 145 inflammation at the cardiac injury site dynamically by reverse migration. As our timelapse 146 imaging can account for every wound-recruited immune cell (Kaveh et al., 2020), these 147 findings exclude neutrophil apoptosis or the efferocytosis of apoptotic neutrophils as a 148 resolution mechanism with CDK9i treatment in this model.

149

# 150 Continuous CDK9i treatment reduces macrophage retention by promoting reverse151 migration from the injured heart

152 Having established CDK9i treatment induces neutrophil reverse migration following cardiac 153 injury, macrophage involvement was next examined. We have previously described 154 macrophage recruitment dynamics in this model. Unlike the neutrophil response, 155 macrophage recruitment occurs up to 24 hpi, with their numbers decreasing but not 156 returning to baseline by 48 hpi (Kaveh et al., 2020). To test the effect of CDK9i treatment 157 during the macrophage response to cardiac injury, Tg(myl7:GFP;mpeg1:mCherry) larvae 158 were treated continuously with AT7519 or FVP from 4 hpi and subsequently imaged at 6 hpi, 159 24 hpi and 48 hpi (Figure 2A). In the presence of AT7519 or FVP, ventricular macrophage 160 numbers were unaffected until 24 hpi, at which point significantly fewer macrophages were 161 present with AT7519 (8.3  $\pm$  0.6 vs 10.9  $\pm$  0.7) or FVP (3.7  $\pm$  0.7 vs 10.6  $\pm$  0.9) (Figure 2B). 162 This attenuated macrophage presence was more pronounced with FVP, where macrophage 163 numbers were as low as uninjured larvae (Figure 2B). At 48 hpi, ventricular macrophage 164 numbers remained diminished with FVP treatment  $(3.7 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs } 8.7 \pm 0.9)$ , similarly AT7519-165 treated larvae displayed a further decrease in recruited macrophage numbers  $(4.9 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs})$ 166 8.0 ± 0.8) (Figure 2B). LSFM timelapse imaging indicated that cardiac-recruited 167 macrophages gradually undergo reverse migration in the presence of FVP, as opposed to 168 being retained on the injured ventricle in control conditions (Supplementary Video 4, 169 Supplementary Video 5 and Figure 2C).

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# 171 Continuous CDK9i treatment disrupts cardiac function and cardiomyocyte number 172 expansion

173 While examining the macrophage response with CDK9 treatment, it became apparent that 174 ventricular contractility was being compromised at the later timepoints. Ventricular ejection 175 fraction was diminished with FVP at 24 hpi and 48 hpi, and with AT7519 at 48 hpi, in both 176 uninjured and cardiac-injured larvae (Figure 2-supplement 1B). Contrastingly, DMSO 177 vehicle-treated cardiac-injured larvae displayed a complete functional recovery of ejection 178 fraction by 48 hpi (Figure 2-supplement 1B). Similar to ejection fraction, heart rate was also 179 significantly reduced with FVP at 48 hpi in uninjured and injured larvae (Figure 2-180 supplement 1C). To identify if this loss in cardiac function is associated with a change in cardiomyocyte numbers, ventricular cardiomyocyte nuclei were quantified using 181 182 Tq(myI7:DsRed2-NLS) larvae and LSFM. No differences were observed between groups at 183 24 hours post treatment (hpt). At 48 hpt, however, fewer ventricular cardiomyocytes were 184 observed in the presence of AT7519 (251.6  $\pm$  17.5 vs 272.7  $\pm$  14.9) and FVP (241.7  $\pm$  21.6 185 vs 269.3 ± 17.3) compared to DMSO vehicle (Figure 2D and 2E). These data indicate that 186 continuous CDK9i treatment suppresses cardiac function and the expansion of 187 cardiomyocyte numbers.

# 189 Continuous CDK9i treatment does not affect global macrophage numbers but causes 190 neutropenia

191 Having identified undesirable cardiac-specific effects with continuous CDK9i treatment, we 192 tested if these compounds altered whole-body macrophage or neutrophil numbers by serially 193 imaging Tg(mpeg1:mCherry) or Tg(mpx:mCherry) larvae. Across all experimental timepoints 194 and treatment groups, whole-body macrophage numbers were unaffected and increased 195 steadily, as expected with normal development (Figure 2-supplement 2A). However, at 48 196 hpi, significantly fewer neutrophils were present globally with AT7519 (253.7 ± 17.7 vs 318.1 197  $\pm$  18.8) and FVP (218.8  $\pm$  15.9 vs 280.9  $\pm$  8.7) compared to their DMSO vehicle-treated 198 counterparts (Figure 2-supplement 2B and 2C). Closer examination of CDK9i-treated 199 neutropenic larvae showed that some neutrophils appear condensed and rounded - two 200 properties of an apoptotic cell (Figure 2-supplement 2D). Thus, these data suggest that 201 continuous exposure to CDK9 inhibitors promotes neutrophil but not macrophage cell death, 202 corroborating previous studies (Lucas et al., 2014 and Hoodless et al., 2016).

203

# Transient CDK9i treatment resolves neutrophilic inflammation without causing neutropenia or impairing cardiac contractility

206 To avoid adverse cardiac effects and neutropenia apparent at the later timepoints with 207 CDK9i treatment, the duration of treatment was modified. We previously showed that peak 208 neutrophilic inflammation at 6 hpi resolves by treating larvae with AT7519 or FVP from 4 hpi 209 (Figure 1). Therefore, a shorter treatment was adopted where larvae were specifically 210 treated with AT7519 or FVP for two hours from 4 hpi (Figure 3-supplement 1A). We first 211 confirmed that cardiac-recruited neutrophil numbers were reduced following transient 212 (pulsed) CDK9i treatment (Figure 3-supplement 1B). Unlike continuous CDK9i treatment, 213 the transient treatment was not associated with neutropenia (Figure 3-supplement 1C). We 214 next assessed ventricular ejection fraction as this was noticeably diminished during 215 continuous CDK9i treatments (Figure 2-supplement 1B). Following transient CDK9i 216 treatment with AT7519 or FVP ejection fraction recovered promptly, with injured treatment 217 groups displaying no differences across all timepoints (Figure 3-supplement 1D).

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# Transient CDK9i treatment retains cardiac macrophage numbers following injury and AT7519 enhances wound macrophage *tnf* expression

As macrophages are essential for complete myocardial repair (Ma et al., 2018), we next tested whether the revised transient CDK9i treatment (Figure 3A) alters ventricular macrophage wound accumulation and/or polarisation. In contrast to mammalian models, only one macrophage polarisation marker has been reliably reported in larval zebrafish and this is TNF. These studies revealed *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages to have pro-regenerative properties 226 following spinal cord, somitic muscle and tail fin injury (Cavone et al., 2021; Tsarouchas et 227 al., 2018; Gurevich et al., 2018 and Nguyen-Chi et al., 2017). As such, the hearts of 228 *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry;TNFa:GFP)* larvae were analysed using LSFM following cardiac injury. 229 Unlike continuous CDK9i treatment, ventricular macrophage retention was unaffected 230 following transient treatment with AT7519 or FVP (Figure 3B, 3C and 3E). Furthermore, 231 following transient AT7519 treatment, a significant increase in ventricular *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages 232 was observed at 24 hpi compared to their DMSO vehicle-treated counterparts (8.8  $\pm$  4.8 vs 233 4.0  $\pm$  3.7), which returned to baseline at 48 hpi (5.0  $\pm$  4.1 vs 4.0  $\pm$  3.4) (Figure 3B and 3D). 234 Interestingly, this effect was not detected following transient FVP treatment, as no statistical 235 difference was found in ventricular  $tnf^{+}$  macrophage numbers at 24 hpi (5.2 ± 5.3 vs 3.2 ± 236 3.2) (Figure 3B and 3E). The increase in *tnf*<sup>+</sup> cardiac macrophages following transient 237 AT7519 treatment was not observed when applied to uninjured larvae (Figure 3-supplement 238 2), suggesting this effect to be injury-specific. LSFM timelapse imaging demonstrated that 239 tnf<sup>\*</sup> macrophages can migrate from the pericardium onto the injured ventricle, or, what 240 appears to be more common is that wound-proximal macrophages upregulate the 241 (Supplementary Video 6 and Figure 3F). Together these data indicate that transient CDK9i 242 treatment does not affect cardiac macrophage wound accumulation, and AT7519 enhances 243 the transference of the tr

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## 245 AT7519 is a more selective CDK9 inhibitor than Flavopiridol in zebrafish

246 To better understand the differential phenotypes observed with AT7519 and FVP treatment, 247 we next explored the selectivity of these two CDK9 inhibitor compounds in larval zebrafish. 248 Drug screening studies in vitro have suggested that AT7519 is a more selective CDK9 249 inhibitor compared to first-generation CDK9 inhibitors such as FVP (Santo et al., 2010 and 250 Liu et al., 2011). We formally tested the Cdk9 selectivity of these inhibitors in vivo using 251 stable cdk9 knockout zebrafish generated using CRISPR/Cas9 (Hoodless et al., 2016). 252 Homozygous *cdk9* mutant zebrafish larvae are phenotypically distinguishable at 3 days post 253 fertilisation (dpf) (Hoodless et al., 2016). Compared to their heterozygous and wild-type 254 siblings, homozygous cdk9 mutants display a curved body axis, shorter body length and 255 smaller eye diameter (Figure 4A). No phenotypic differences were identified between 256 heterozygous mutants and wild-type siblings up to 5 dpf (Figure 4A), which was confirmed 257 by genotyping (Figure 4B). We reasoned that a truly selective CDK9 inhibitor would not have any effect on *cdk9<sup>-/-</sup>* knockout zebrafish larvae. To test this, we continuously treated 3 dpf 258 259 homozygous cdk9 mutants with DMSO vehicle, AT7519 or FVP and quantified heart rate 260 between treatments as a readout for overall health across 48 hours. We have shown that 261 continuous CDK9i treatment causes wild-type larvae to develop bradycardia (Figure 2-262 supplement 1C) and heart rate is a recognised readout of drug-induced toxicity in larval 263 zebrafish (Rubinstein, 2006 and Kithcart and MacRae, 2017). Thus, a decline in heart rate 264 with AT7519 or FVP compared to vehicle would suggest the compounds are acting in a 265 Cdk9-independent manner. First, larvae were treated at 1µM concentrations of AT7519 or 266 FVP (or DMSO vehicle) so that CDK9i treatments were fair and comparable. Between 2 hpt 267 and 48 hpt, all treatment groups displayed a gradual reduction in heart rate, which was 268 associated with decreased survival from 24 hpt (Figure 4C and 4E). At 24 hpt, compared to 269 the DMSO vehicle group, FVP-treated, but not AT7519-treated, mutant larvae displayed a 270 significant reduction in heart rate (22.5  $\pm$  8.9 vs 80.4  $\pm$  6.6 and 63.2  $\pm$  8.6 vs 80.4  $\pm$  6.6), 271 which was associated with increased mortality (64.3% vs 14.3%) (Figure 4C and 4E). The 272 heart rates of larvae treated with AT7519 were unchanged across all timepoints and 273 displayed a more gradual reduction, similar to their DMSO vehicle-treated counterparts 274 (Figure 4C and 4E). To draw direct comparisons between drug selectivity and the differential 275 phenotypes observed, we applied the drug concentrations established originally for resolving 276 neutrophilic inflammation (50µM for AT7519 and 3µM for FVP). Using these concentrations, 277 FVP-treated mutant larvae displayed significantly lowered heart rates from 2 hpt (90.0 ± 6.7 278 vs 117.1 ± 6.2) until 12 hpt (64.3 ± 6.5 vs 99.6 ± 4.9) compared to their DMSO vehicle-279 treated and AT7519-treated counterparts, which showed no differences across these 280 timepoints (Figure 4D). Until 12 hpt, this FVP-induced reduction in heart rate was not 281 associated with a change in survival (Figure 4F). At 24 hours post FVP treatment, 14% of 282 larvae survived, all of which displayed diminished heart rates (Figure 4D and 4F). In 283 contrast, at 24 hours post AT7519 treatment survival only decreased to 93%, but the heart 284 rates of these larvae were lower compared to their DMSO vehicle-treated counterparts (60.0 285  $\pm$  9.0 vs 88.2  $\pm$  8.7) (Figure 4D and 4F). At 48 hpt, no larvae survived with FVP and AT7519, 286 whereas 36% of DMSO vehicle-treated survived (Figure 4D and 4F). In summary, we have 287 developed a proof-of-concept assay using knockout larval zebrafish mutants to examine 288 drug selectivity in vivo. The assay indicated whether AT7519 and FVP exhibit Cdk9-289 independent effects up to 48 hpt, with FVP displaying significant off-target effects from 2 hpt. 290 These comparative zebrafish data suggest that AT7519 is a particularly selective CDK9 291 inhibitor in vivo.

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# Transient AT7519 but not Flavopiridol treatment enhances cardiomyocyte number expansion following injury

We next tested whether the differing regulation of macrophage *tnf* polarisation following transient CDK9i treatment (Figure 3) influenced cardiomyocyte numbers. Following transient AT7519 or FVP treatment (Figure 5A), LSFM scans of Tg(myl7:DsRed2-NLS) larvae indicated no change in ventricular cardiomyocyte numbers at 24 hpi (Figure 5C). At 48 hpi, however, ventricular cardiomyocyte numbers were significantly elevated following AT7519 treatment (321.6  $\pm$  31.7 vs 292.7  $\pm$  23.5) (Figure 5B and 5C), indicating an increase in cardiomyocyte number expansion. At 48 hpi following FVP treatment no difference in cardiomyocyte numbers was present (298.0  $\pm$  22.5 vs 298.8  $\pm$  25.8) (Figure 5B and 5C). This AT7519-specific increase in cardiomyocyte numbers was injury-specific as uninjured larvae displayed no change in ventricular cardiomyocyte numbers following the same treatment (Figure 5–supplement 1).

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# Transient AT7519 treatment accelerates structural myocardial regeneration following injury

309 We have previously shown that laser injury induces cardiomyocyte death locally at the 310 ventricular apex (Kaveh et al., 2020). In order to determine whether the increase in 311 cardiomyocyte numbers identified with transient AT7519 treatment is associated with 312 improved structural myocardial regeneration, LSFM scans of cardiac-injured Tg(myl7:GFP) 313 larvae were acquired and the ventricular wound area was quantified (Figure 5D). At 24 hpi 314 myocardial wound area was similar between DMSO vehicle-treated and AT7519-treated 315 groups (109.2  $\pm$  84.8µm<sup>2</sup> vs 100.9  $\pm$  59.3µm<sup>2</sup>) (Figure 5E and 5F). At 48 hpi, both groups 316 displayed a reduction in wound area, although the DMSO vehicle group trended towards a larger wound area compared to the AT7519 group (53.1  $\pm$  57.6µm<sup>2</sup> vs 29.9  $\pm$  30.2µm<sup>2</sup>) 317 318 (Figure 5E and 5F). To better understand the rate of wound regression in these groups, 319 percentage myocardial wound closure between 24 hpi and 48 hpi was analysed. This 320 indicated a clear increase in wound closure following AT7519 treatment compared to 321 controls (69.6% vs 21.2%) (Figure 5G), highlighting an acceleration in the rate of myocardial 322 wound regression. To closely examine how the myocardial wound structurally regenerates, 323 LSFM timelapse images were acquired. Live heartbeat-synchronised timelapse imaging 324 revealed that wound-proximal cardiomyocytes protrude into, and subsequently bridge 325 across, the injured myocardium to regenerate the damaged tissue (Supplementary Video 7 326 and Figure 5E and 5H).

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# 328 Macrophages are required for the improved cardiomyocyte regenerative response 329 following AT7519 treatment

To determine whether macrophages are involved in the AT7519-associated increase in cardiomyocyte numbers following injury, we generated macrophage-null (*irf8* homozygous mutant) transgenic zebrafish to analyse cardiomyocyte nuclei numbers using LSFM. First, we incrossed heterozygous *irf8* mutants on a Tg(my|7:h2b-GFP) background and genotyped the offspring, selecting a population of wild-type and homozygous *irf8* mutants (Figure 6A). Neutral red staining clearly demonstrated that *irf8*<sup>+/+</sup> larvae were marked with macrophages/microglia in the brain, whereas their *irf8*<sup>-/-</sup> counterparts completely lacked such 337 staining (Shiau et al., 2015) and thus macrophages/microglia (Figure 6B). Next, we cardiac injured macrophage-replete (*irf8*<sup>+/+</sup>) and macrophage-null (*irf8*<sup>-/-</sup>) larvae and subsequently 338 339 administered the transient AT7519 treatment. Analysis of macrophage-replete (*irf8*<sup>+/+</sup>) larvae 340 at 48 hpi showed an increase in cardiomyocyte numbers with AT7519 compared to DMSO 341 vehicle, as established previously (Figure 6C, 6D and Figure 5C). Macrophage-null (irf8<sup>-/-</sup>) 342 larvae, however, did not display an injury-associated increase in cardiomyocyte numbers 343 (Figure 6C and 6D), suggesting that macrophages are required for the enhanced 344 cardiomyocyte number expansion induced by transient AT7519 treatment. 345

346 Discussion

## 347

348 Resolving inflammation is a promising therapeutic approach to promote tissue 349 repair/regeneration following injury. CDK9 inhibitor compounds, currently deployed in clinical 350 trials as anti-cancer treatments, can be applied experimentally to curtail early neutrophilic 351 inflammation (Rossi et al., 2006; Lucas et al., 2014; Hoodless et al., 2016 and Cartwright et 352 al., 2019). This study is the first to examine the effect of CDK9 inhibitors (AT7519 and FVP) 353 during the inflammatory and regenerative response following tissue injury in vivo. Using a 354 larval zebrafish model of cardiac injury combined with heartbeat-synchronised imaging, we 355 showed that AT7519 and FVP resolve neutrophilic inflammation at the injured heart via 356 reverse migration, but differentially regulate macrophage polarisation and myocardial 357 regeneration.

358

359 As previously shown in various models of injury and infection *in vivo* (Rossi et al., 2006; 360 Loynes et al., 2010; Leitch et al., 2012; Lucas et al., 2014; Hoodless et al., 2016 and Barth 361 et al., 2020), we found CDK9 inhibitors to enhance the resolution of neutrophilic 362 inflammation following heart injury in larval zebrafish. Numerous studies have demonstrated 363 that CDK9 inhibitors induce neutrophil apoptosis via downregulation of Mcl-1 (Moulding et 364 al., 1998; Rossi, et al., 2006; Leitch et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Lucas et al., 2014 and 365 Dorward et al., 2017). Here, we show that AT7519 and FVP promote the resolution of 366 neutrophilic inflammation from the cardiac lesion via reverse migration (Figure 1). Despite 367 previously observing increased neutrophil apoptosis following tail fin transection with CDK9i 368 treatment (Hoodless et al., 2016), we did not find any evidence of this at the injured heart. 369 Reverse migration is the primary inflammatory-cell resolution mechanism in this model 370 (Kaveh et al., 2020), most likely due to the size and sterility of the myocardial laser wound. 371 An injury of such scale would release fewer chemoattractant signals such as reactive 372 oxygen species (e.g., hydrogen peroxide), cytokines (e.g., il-1β) and chemokines (e.g., 373 cxcr2/cxcl8) responsible for regulating neutrophil wound retention (Yoo et al., 2011; Yan et 374 al., 2014; Powell et al., 2017; Coombs et al., 2019; Isles et al., 2019). Expression of these 375 inflammatory mediators could indeed be modulated in the presence of AT7519 or FVP, as 376 documented in other studies (Santo et al., 2010 and Yik et al., 2014). Consequently, this 377 would alter the chemoattractant gradient, desensitising wound-swarming neutrophils and 378 inducing their reverse migration. Similarly, other compounds that cause neutrophil apoptosis 379 in mammalian systems have been shown to promote neutrophil reverse migration following 380 tail fin wounding in larval zebrafish (Robertson et al., 2014). Further research is needed to 381 better understand how CDK9 inhibitors regulate the aforementioned inflammatory mediators 382 to induce immune cell reverse migration, particularly via chemokine signaling at sites of

sterile injury (Isles et al., 2019 and Coombs et al., 2019). Reverse migration may well be an important neutrophil resolution mechanism following cardiac injury in mammals, as shown following sterile liver injury (Wang et al., 2017). However, with live imaging proving extremely difficult in mammalian models of MI, it is not currently possible to non-invasively visualise inflammatory cells at high spatiotemporal resolution.

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389 The majority of CDK9 inhibitors act by competitively inhibiting the ATP-binding domain which 390 is conserved between all CDKs (Krystof et al., 2012). Consequently, long-term exposure to 391 CDK9 inhibitor compounds can cause undesirable effects due to inhibition of other CDKs, 392 many of which are cell-cycle regulators, such as CDK2 (Azevedo et al., 1996 and Wyatt et 393 al., 2008). We showed that continuous AT7519 or FVP treatments result in developmental 394 and injury-associated adverse effects including reduced cardiomyocyte number expansion, 395 ventricular ejection fraction, macrophage wound retention and neutropenia (Figure 2). 396 Continuous FVP treatment has previously been shown to inhibit cardiomyocyte proliferation 397 in larval zebrafish (Matrone et al., 2015), suggesting the same anti-proliferative effect could 398 be occurring, although cardiomyocyte apoptosis may also contribute to the reduction in 399 cardiomyocyte numbers. We postulated whether the adverse effects associated with 400 continuous CDK9i treatment were due to non-specific binding. To test this, we developed a 401 larval zebrafish CDK9 inhibitor selectivity assay using homozygous knockout cdk9 mutants 402 and heart rate as a surrogate measurement for overall health. The assay revealed that 403 AT7519 and FVP accelerate the decline of heart rate in knockout mutants from one-day post 404 treatment (Figure 4). This reduction in heart rate coincides with the onset of adverse 405 phenotypes (Figure 2), indicating that from one-day post treatment both compounds were 406 acting in a Cdk9-independent manner. However, the assay does not rule out the adverse 407 effects being partially Cdk9-dependent, as vehicle-treated knockout mutants also displayed 408 a decline in health, albeit more gradual. Of the two CDK9 inhibitors, FVP showed marked 409 off-target effects in the selectivity assay (Figure 4), a likely cause for the prominent adverse 410 phenotypes observed (Figure 2), which has also been reported in vitro (Garriga et al., 2010) 411 and Liu et al., 2011). Indeed, this larval zebrafish knockout screening approach could be 412 applied to other druggable targets and used to identify uniquely selective inhibitors in a high 413 throughput manner and across short timescales (≤2 hours) *in vivo*.

414

By limiting the CDK9i treatment period to a two-hour window, we were able to enhance the resolution of neutrophilic inflammation while avoiding all adverse effects. Using the transient treatment wound macrophage accumulation was unaffected (Figure 3), suggesting that prolonged neutrophil swarming is not required for macrophage recruitment/retention. Furthermore, we observed an unexpected difference between CDK9i treatments where 420 AT7519, but not FVP, increased the polarisation of wound macrophages to a *tnf*<sup>+</sup> phenotype 421 (Figure 3). The selectivity assay revealed that from two hours post treatment (the duration of 422 transient treatment), FVP exhibited significantly less Cdk9 selectivity compared to AT7519 423 (Figure 4). Additionally, FVP has been shown to inhibit TNF activation and signaling in other 424 models of inflammation (Takada et al., 2004; Haque et al., 2011 and Schmerwitz et al., 425 2011), whereas AT7519 does not disrupt TNF activity (Lucas et al., 2014). Overall, these 426 findings suggest that FVP suppressed *tnf* upregulation in wound-associated macrophages. 427 As our selectivity assay enables high throughput assessment of individual animals across 428 short time scales live *in vivo*, it is not suited for gene expression analysis. Therefore, how 429 AT7519 and FVP differentially influence the expression of inflammatory response genes 430 could be further investigated by RNA sequencing.

431

Cellular mechanisms regulating immune cell activity after wounding have been largely 432 433 characterised in murine models and are not entirely recapitulated in zebrafish. For example, 434 neutrophil apoptosis, subsequent macrophage efferocytosis and polarisation have not been 435 reported following wounding in larval zebrafish (Starnes and Huttenlocher, 2012; Robertson 436 et al., 2014; Loynes et al., 2018 and Kaveh et al., 2020). Instead, the role of immune cells is 437 more dynamic and closely coupled to molecular signaling (Loynes et al., 2018; Coombs et 438 al., 2019; Tsarouchas et al., 2018 and Sanz-Morejon et al., 2019). Larval zebrafish studies 439 have described *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages to have pro-regenerative roles following tissue wounding 440 (Nguyen-Chi et al., 2017; Tsarouchas et al., 2018; Gurevich et al., 2018 and Cavone et al., 441 2021). Our data show that cardiac-injured larvae transiently treated with AT7519, but not 442 FVP, exhibit enhanced cardiomyocyte number expansion at two-days post injury (Figure 5), 443 one day after the peak tnft macrophage response (Figure 3). Importantly, we found 444 macrophages to be required for the improved regenerative response following AT7519 445 treatment (Figure 6). One molecular mechanism for this macrophage-dependent effect could 446 be that *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages express/secrete mitogenic factors, such as *vegf*, as is the case 447 during muscle wounding angiogenesis (Gurevich et al., 2018). Similarly, tnf itself could act 448 as a mitogen via activation of histone genes in progenitor cells, as described during spinal 449 cord regeneration (Cavone et al., 2021). Single-cell RNA sequencing of wound-dwelling 450 macrophages has recently been performed in the spinal cord and skeletal musculature of 451 larval zebrafish by Cavone et al. (2021) and Ratnayake et al. (2021) respectively. In both 452 studies the pro-regenerative macrophage subpopulation identified expresses traditional M1 453 and M2 markers and shares mitogenic factors, specifically thf and hbegf (Cavone et al., 454 2021 and Ratnayake et al., 2021). Whilst *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages have pro-regenerative properties 455 in larval zebrafish, tnf is likely one of many differentially regulated genes in macrophages 456 that could be promoting cardiomyocyte regeneration in our model. Interestingly, in adult

457 zebrafish *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophages promote scar deposition following cardiac injury (Bevan et al.,

458 2020), suggesting a transition in *tnf*<sup>+</sup> macrophage function during zebrafish development.

459

460 Our data indicate that increased cardiomyocyte number expansion following transient 461 AT7519 treatment correlates with accelerated myocardial wound closure, to the point of 462 almost complete regeneration (Figure 5). This was not, however, associated with enhanced 463 cardiac function, which recovered rapidly in both AT7519-treated and control larvae. 464 Cardiomyocyte proliferation is a prerequisite for cardiac regeneration in many animal models 465 (Godwin et al., 2017; Chablais et al., 2011; Curado et al., 2007; Porrello et al., 2013), 466 suggesting that cardiomyocyte proliferation, enhanced by macrophages in our model, could 467 be driving myocardial wound closure. Furthermore, 4D LSFM imaging during myocardial 468 regeneration revealed that wound-bordering cardiomyocytes protrude into and subsequently 469 bridge across the wound, gradually sealing it (Figure 5 and Supplementary Video 7). 470 Cardiomyocyte bridging has previously been reported following transplantation of neonatal 471 rat cardiomyocytes to infarcted hearts in vitro (Sekine et al., 2006), however to our 472 knowledge, this is the first time such an event has been observed live in the beating heart. 473 Extracellular matrix proteins, such as collagen, could form a scaffold to facilitate 474 cardiomyocyte wound bridging, as similar mechanisms occur in the injured hearts of adult 475 zebrafish (Simoes et al., 2020). Future studies could perform high resolution live imaging 476 and complementary sequencing experiments in larval zebrafish to unravel the 477 cardiac/immune cell types and signaling molecules regulating cardiac regeneration.

478

479 As our findings are from a developing zebrafish model, it will be important to validate 480 AT7519 treatment in an adult MI model that more closely mimics human disease. It will be 481 particularly important to corroborate our novel findings by determining whether AT7519 482 polarises macrophages to a reparative phenotype and how this regulates cardiac fibrosis, 483 function, scar resolution, and angiogenesis. Furthermore, it will be necessary to identify 484 whether AT7519 affects other immune cell types absent in our model. Namely monocytes, B 485 cells, T cells and eosinophils - all of which play important roles during myocardial injury and 486 repair (Hofmann and Frantz, 2015 and Toor et al., 2017). Nevertheless, we have shown that 487 timing, duration and selectivity of CDK9 inhibitor treatment is imperative when targeting the 488 acute inflammatory response to promote tissue repair/regeneration. AT7519 treatment could 489 be particularly effective in a clinical setting where MI is followed by prolonged coronary 490 reperfusion injury, as there is a profound secondary influx of neutrophils (Vinten-Johansen, 491 2004; Niccoli et al., 2009 and Mangold et al., 2015). This can occur following percutaneous 492 coronary intervention (PCI), a standard clinical procedure for opening an acutely occluded 493 coronary artery following MI. Thus, AT7519 could be administered at the time of PCI to

resolve locally recruited neutrophils and promote downstream mechanisms that positivelymodulate myocardial repair.

496

497 In summary, we have shown that AT7519 and FVP resolve neutrophil infiltration by inducing 498 reverse migration from the cardiac injury site. However, AT7519, unlike FVP, showed 499 promise as a selective CDK9 inhibitor by augmenting macrophage polarisation and 500 promoting cardiomyocyte regeneration. As such, future research should establish whether 501 selective CDK9 inhibitors, such as AT7519, have analogous reparative effects on 502 macrophage polarisation and infarct healing in adult models of MI associated with 503 neutrophilic inflammation. This could ultimately reveal the clinical potential of selective CDK9 504 inhibition as an immunomodulatory therapy for myocardial infarction.

#### 506 Materials and methods

#### 507

### 508 Zebrafish husbandry and lines used

509 Zebrafish husbandry and maintenance was conducted as per standard operating 510 procedures. This was in accordance with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act, 1986 and 511 approved by The University of Edinburgh Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Board in a 512 United Kingdom Home Office-approved establishment. All experiments were performed on 513 staged animals aged between 3 dpf and 5 dpf (Kimmel et al., 1995). The following zebrafish lines were used: Tg(myl7:eGFP)<sup>twu26</sup> (Huang et al., 2003), Tg(mpx:mCherry)<sup>uwm7</sup> (Yoo et al., 514 2010), *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry)*<sup>g/23</sup> (Ellett et al., 2011), *Tg(myl7:DsRed2-NLS)*<sup>/2</sup> (Rottbauer et al., 515 2002), Tg(TNFa:eGFP)<sup>sa43296</sup> (Nguyen-Chi et al., 2015), Tg(myl7:h2b-GFP)<sup>zf52</sup> (Mickoleit et 516 al., 2014), cdk9<sup>ed9</sup> mutant (Hoodless et al., 2016) and irf8<sup>st59/st95</sup> mutant (Shiau et al., 2015). 517 518 Adults were bred to yield desired combinations of transgenes in embryos. Embryos were 519 treated with 0.003% phenylthiourea (Fisher Scientific) dissolved in conditioned water at 7 hpf 520 to prevent pigment formation and enhance image clarity (Karlsson et al., 2001). Embryos 521 and larvae were housed at 28.5°C in conditioned water and imaged at room temperature 522 (23°C) using epifluorescence or light sheet fluorescence microscopy (details below). When 523 necessary, larvae were periodically anesthetized using 40 µg/ml tricaine methanesulfonate 524 (Sigma Aldrich) in conditioned water.

525

### 526 Cardiac injury

527 The hearts of 72 hpf larval zebrafish were precisely injured using a Zeiss Photo Activated 528 Laser Microdissection (PALM) system, as previously described (Taylor et al., 2019 and 529 Kaveh et al., 2020). Individual anaesthetised larvae were pipetted onto a glass slide in 20µl 530 anesthetised conditioned water and laterally oriented so that the head is pointing leftward. 531 Larvae were positioned adjacent to each other and navigated on the slide using the 532 automated PALM controls. The laser was focussed specifically on the ventricular apex and 533 subsequently fired through a 20X objective. Hearts were typically laser pulsed three times 534 along the ventricular apex (Figure 2-supplement 1A) until ventricular contractility had 535 diminished, the apex had shrunk, and the myocardial wall had swollen. Cardiac ruptured 536 larvae that displayed pericardial bleeding following laser injury were appropriately 537 disregarded. Larvae were deemed injured if they displayed a loss of fluorescent myocardial 538 transgenic signal and/or a robust immune cell recruitment response at the cardiac injury site. 539 Uninjured (control) larvae were treated in the same manner up to the point of laser injury, 540 when they were separated and maintained in the same environmental conditions as injured 541 fish.

#### 543 **Pharmacological CDK9 inhibitor treatment**

544 Larvae were incubated in AT7519 (Astex Pharmaceuticals), Flavopiridol or DMSO vehicle 545 (both Sigma Aldrich) dissolved in PTU-treated conditioned water at the following 546 concentrations: 1µM or 50µM AT7519, 1µM or 3µM Flavopiridol, and/or 0.1% or 0.3% 547 DMSO vehicle from 72 hpf or 4 hpi, depending on the experiment as indicated. For 548 continuous treatments, larvae were incubated in drug or vehicle from 4 hpi until 24 hpi or 48 549 hpi. For transient treatments, larvae were incubated in drug or vehicle from 4 hpi until 6 hpi, 550 at which point they were transferred to fresh conditioned water. For serial timepoint 551 experiments, individual larvae were incubated per well of a 48-well plate containing 500µl of 552 CDK9 inhibitor or DMSO vehicle in conditioned water. During these experiments, larvae 553 were briefly removed for imaging at 6 hpi, 24 hpi or 48 hpi. For LSFM timelapse 554 experiments, individual anesthetised larvae were embedded in 1% low melting point agarose 555 (ThermoFisher) in conditioned water containing 50µM AT7519, 3µM Flavopiridol or DMSO 556 vehicle within FEP tubes (Adtech Polymer Engineering). During LSFM timelapse imaging, 557 larvae were continually anaesthetised using tricaine methanesulfonate conditioned water 558 containing 50µM AT7519, 3µM Flavopiridol or DMSO vehicle, as appropriate for up to 24 559 hours.

560

#### 561 Epifluorescence microscopy

A Leica M205 FA stereomicroscope with standard GFP and mCherry filters were used for serial timepoint imaging experiments. To visualise immune cells or record ventricular ejection fraction, larvae were anesthetised and mounted laterally on a glass slide in 50µl conditioned water. Immune cell numbers on the ventricle were quantified by counting neutrophils or macrophages moving synchronously with the beating heart, as performed previously (Kaveh et al., 2020). Cardiac images were acquired using a 16X objective and whole-body images were acquired using a 2.5X objective.

569

### 570 Heartbeat-synchronised light sheet fluorescence microscopy (LSFM)

571 Optically gated (heartbeat-synchronised) LSFM imaging methods have been thoroughly 572 described and published by our group (Taylor et al., 2019 and Kaveh et al., 2020). Briefly, 573 bespoke synchronisation software coupled with LSFM allows real-time 3D fluorescence 574 imaging of the beating heart every time the heart returns to the desired target phase of the 575 cardiac cycle, while minimising phototoxicity and photobleaching (Taylor et al., 2019). As a 576 result, the beating heart appears computationally "frozen", allowing live examination of 577 immune cell responses and cardiomyocyte regeneration following injury in vivo. Each heart 578 stack has a z-plane spacing of 1µm. For timelapse imaging, the entire heart is scanned in 579 3D every 3 minutes for up to 24 hours.

580

#### 581 CDK9 inhibitor selectivity assay

582 Knockout *cdk9* mutant zebrafish were previously generated and characterised by our group 583 (Hoodless et al., 2016). As homozygous *cdk9* mutants are not viable at adulthood, adult 584 heterozygous *cdk9* mutants were identified by genotyping (Hoodless et al., 2016) and 585 incrossed, yielding a mendelian mix of wild-type (25%), heterozygous (50%) and 586 homozygous (25%) mutant zebrafish embryos. Homozygous cdk9 mutants are easily 587 phenotypically distinguishable during larval stages (Figure 4A), which was confirmed by 588 genotyping (Figure 4B). At 72 hpf, cdk9 homozygous mutant larvae were phenotypically 589 selected and treated with AT7519, FVP or DMSO vehicle, at the indicated doses. Following 590 this, heart rate (beats/minute) was measured per larva by manually counting heartbeats per 591 twelve seconds using a brightfield stereomicroscope and multiplying by five. This was 592 performed between groups at 2 hpt, 6 hpt, 12 hpt, 24 hpt and 48 hpt as a proxy for overall 593 health, allowing individual larvae to be assessed in real time. Larvae that did not display any 594 heartbeat were regarded as dead.

595

#### 596 **Preparing homozygous** *irf8* (macrophage-null) mutants

597 Adult homozygous *irf8* mutants were outcrossed to Tq(my|7:h2b-GFP) fish and the 598 transgenic offspring were raised to adulthood. Adult heterozygous irf8 mutants were further 599 incrossed and the offspring raised to adulthood. Adult zebrafish arising the heterozygous irf8 600 mutant incrosses were genotyped to identify wild-type, heterozygous or homozygous mutant 601 irf8 alleles. First adult fish were anaesthetised in 40 µg/ml tricaine methanesulfonate and a 602 section of one tail fin lobe was resected using a sterile scalpel. Tail fin clips were digested to 603 extract DNA using 10mg/ml of Proteinase K, incubating at 67°C for 1 hour. The digest was 604 ended with a 95°C incubation for 15 minutes. The irf8 allele was amplified from the extracted 605 DNA by PCR using forward (ACATAAGGCGTAGAGATTGGACG) and reverse 606 (GAAACATAGTGCGGTCCTCATCC) primers and REDTaq ReadyMix PCR Reaction Mix 607 (Sigma Aldrich). The PCR product was then digested for 1 hour at 37°C using the Aval 608 restriction enzyme (New England Bioscience) and the product run on a 2% agarose gel to 609 visualise digested DNA fragments. In wild-type fish, the Aval restriction enzyme cut site in 610 intact, thus the PCR product is digested to give two bands approximately 200 bp and 100 bp 611 in size. In heterozygous mutant fish, the Aval restriction enzyme partially digests the PCR 612 product. In homozygous mutant fish, the Aval restriction enzyme cut site is not present, thus 613 the 286 bp PCR product is not digested. Confirmed wild-type and homozygous irf8 mutant 614 adults were separated for experimental incrossing.

615

### 616 Neutral red staining

617 Wild-type or homozygous *irf8* mutant larvae at 3 dpf were incubated in  $5\mu$ g/mL neutral red 618 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in conditioned water for 1 hour in the dark at 28.5°C. Larvae were 619 then washed twice in conditioned water, anaesthetised using 40 µg/ml tricaine 620 methanesulfonate and imaged by brightfield microscopy on a Leica M205 FA 621 stereomicroscope.

622

# 623 Image Analysis:

Unless otherwise stated, all images were prepared, processed and analysed using ImageJ(Fiji) software (National Institute of Health).

626

# 627 Temporal colour code

LSFM-acquired z-stacks of neutrophil or macrophage migration on injured hearts were processed as maximum intensity projections and temporally overlaid across the indicated timepoints. The 'Temporal-Color Code' Fiji tool was applied to the hyperstack such that each overlaid timepoint is a different hue, producing a single image which summarises immune cell migration on the injured heart.

633

### 634 Ventricular cardiomyocyte number

Individual LSFM-acquired z-stacks of Tg(my17:DsRed2-NLS) or Tg(my17:h2b-GFP) hearts was used to quantify the number of cardiomyocyte nuclei using the 'TrackMate' Fiji plugin. The following segmentation parameters were initially applied to each z-stack: 'LoG detector', 'Median filter' and 'Sub-pixel localisation' selected; 'Estimated blob diameter' = 6µm and 'Threshold' = 1. The threshold value was optimised per experiment until all cardiomyocyte nuclei were included. Atrial cardiomyocytes were subtracted from the total by x coordinate filtering to give a final ventricular cardiomyocyte count.

642

#### 643 Ventricular ejection fraction

The hearts of Tg(myl7:GFP) larvae were imaged in real time at 30 fps using epifluorescence microscopy to capture points in the cardiac cycle when the ventricle was in diastole and systole. Ventricular area in diastole and systole was measured manually and ventricular ejection fraction (by area) was calculated using the formula:  $100 \times [(Diastolic Area - Systolic$ Area)/Diastolic Area] (Matrone et al., 2013).

649

#### 650 Whole-body immune cell number

Whole-body epifluorescence images of *Tg(mpx:mCherry)* or *Tg(mpeg1:mCherry)* larvae were used to estimate global immune cell numbers in a semi-automated manner using a Fiji macro. Briefly, individual images were thresholded using the 'Yen' technique, converted to binary and whole-body immune cell thresholded area was quantified. The area of three
thresholded immune cells were measured at random. Whole-body immune cell threshold
area was divided by the average immune cell area to estimate global immune cell numbers
per larva.

658

#### 659 Ventricular tnf\* macrophage number

660 Individual LSFM-acquired z-stacks of *Tg(mpeg1:mcherry;TNFa:GFP)* hearts were processed 661 as maximum intensity projections to visualise macrophages and *tnf* expression throughout 662 the heart. The number of ventricular macrophages expressing *tnf* (above that of background 663 levels) were counted. *Tg(mpeg1:mcherry)* larvae were used as a measure of background 664 fluorescence and a negative control in this context.

665

## 666 Myocardial wound area

Individual LSFM-acquired z-stacks of Tg(myI7:GFP) injured hearts were 3D rendered using Imaris software (Bitplane) based on absolute intensity, suggested segmentation and rendering parameters. Rendered hearts were saved as separate images and imported into Fiji. The *myI7:GFP* negative area at the ventricular apex (visualised as a render-free hole in the myocardium) was manually traced around and quantified to give myocardial wound area ( $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>) (Figure 5D and 5E).

673

#### 674 Randomisation and blinding

At the start of each experiment larvae were screened for the relevant fluorescent signals and
then randomly allocated to different experimental groups. All analysis was performed blinded
to treatment groups.

678

### 679 Statistical analysis

680 Graphs were curated and statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9 681 software. The normal distribution of quantitative data was confirmed using the Shapiro-Wilk 682 test and subsequently analysed using parametric or non-parametric tests, as appropriate. If 683 normally distributed, data were analysed by One-way ANOVA or Two-way ANOVA followed 684 by a multiple comparison post hoc test. If not normally distributed, data were analysed using 685 the Mann–Whitney U-test. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM) or standard 686 deviation (SD). All statistical tests, p-values and n numbers used are provided in figure 687 legends.

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- 693

# 694 Author contributions

695 AK, AGR, and MAD conceived and designed the study. AK and FAB carried out all 696 experiments and analysis. AK wrote the manuscript. FAB, MEMO, CST, JMT, JJM, AGR 697 and MAD edited the manuscript. MAD, AGR and CST supervised the study. All authors 698 contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

699

# 700 Competing interests

- 701 No competing interests declared.
- 702

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1112 Figure Legends

1113

1114 Figure 1: CDK9i treatment resolves neutrophil infiltration following cardiac injury by 1115 promoting reverse migration. (A) Experimental timeline indicating cardiac injury, CDK9i 1116 treatment and imaging timepoints. **(B)** Epifluorescence images of 1117 Tg(myI7:GFP;mpx:mCherry) larvae displaying neutrophil presence on the injured ventricle at 1118 4 hpi (prior to treatment), and at 6 hpi and 24 hpi with 0.3% DMSO vehicle (top panel), 50µM 1119 AT7519 (middle panel) or 3µM FVP (bottom panel). White arrowhead indicates ventricular 1120 apex injury site marked by a loss of myocardial GFP and neutrophil accumulation. (C) 1121 Number of ventricular neutrophils at 4 hpi, 6 hpi and 24 hpi with 50µM AT7519 (top graph) or 1122  $3\mu$ M FVP (bottom graph) treatment. Error bars = SEM, n = 19 larvae, experimental n = 3. 1123 Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post hoc test performed for comparisons between cardiac-1124 injured DMSO vehicle or CDK9i treatment groups where \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001. (D) LSFM images 1125 of neutrophil (mpx:mCherry) migration temporally colour coded between 4 hpi and 6 hpi with 1126 0.1% DMSO vehicle (top) or 50µM AT7519 (bottom). Neutrophil positions appear as a 1127 different colour depending on the point in time (as indicated in the key). White dashed line 1128 indicates outline of ventricle. Arrowhead indicates starting position of neutrophil (DMSO 1129 vehicle) or ending position of neutrophils (AT7519) relative to image panels in E and F 1130 respectively. White arrowhead indicates ventricular apex injury site (E) LSFM timelapse-1131 derived images of ventricular neutrophil migration with DMSO vehicle (0.1%), hpi indicated 1132 above each image. Blue arrowhead tracks an individual neutrophil migrating across the 1133 ventricular apex. (F) LSFM timelapse-derived images of neutrophil migration from ventricle 1134 to pericardium with AT7519 (50µM) treatment, hpi indicated above each image. Blue and 1135 green arrowheads track individual neutrophils reverse migrating anteriorly and posteriorly to 1136 the pericardium respectively. LSFM fluorescence images were acquired in 3D and maximum 1137 intensity projections were used for temporal colour code analysis (D) or are individually 1138 displayed (**E and F**). All scale bars = 50  $\mu$ m.

1140 Figure 2: Continuous CDK9i treatment reduces macrophage retention on the injured 1141 ventricle and impairs cardiomyocyte number expansion. (A) Experimental timeline 1142 indicating cardiac injury, continuous CDK9i treatment and imaging timepoints. (B) Number of 1143 ventricular macrophages at 4 hpi, 6 hpi, 24 hpi and 48 hpi with ≤0.3% DMSO vehicle, 50µM 1144 AT7519 (top graph) or  $3\mu$ M FVP (bottom graph) treatment. Error bars = SEM, n = 16 larvae, 1145 experimental n = 3. Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post hoc test performed for 1146 comparisons between cardiac-injured DMSO vehicle or CDK9i treatment groups where \*\* p 1147 < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001, and \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001. (C) LSFM timelapse-derived images of cardiac-1148 injured Tg(mpeg1:mCherry) larvae displaying ventricular macrophage presence at 6 hpi (left 1149 panel) and 20 hpi (middle panel) with 0.3% DMSO vehicle or 3µM FVP. LSFM timelapse 1150 images of macrophage (mpeg1:mCherry) migration temporally colour coded with DMSO 1151 vehicle (0.3%) or FVP (3µM) treatment (right panel). Start and end timepoint (hpi) for colour 1152 code is indicated. White dashed line indicates outline of ventricle. White arrowhead indicates 1153 ventricular apex injury site (D) LSFM images of Tg(myl7:DsRed2-NLS) larvae displaying 1154 ventricular cardiomyocytes at 24 hours post treatment (hpt) and 48 hpt with 0.3% DMSO 1155 vehicle (top panel), 50µM AT7519 (middle panel) or 3µM FVP (bottom panel). (E) Number of 1156 ventricular cardiomyocytes at 24 hpt and 48 hpt with ≤0.3% DMSO vehicle, 50µM AT7519 1157 (top graph) or  $3\mu$ M FVP (bottom graph). Error bars = SD, n = 25 larvae, experimental n = 3. 1158 One-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc test performed for comparisons between DMSO 1159 vehicle or CDK9i treatment groups where \*\* p < 0.01 and \*\*\* p < 0.001. LSFM fluorescence 1160 images were acquired in 3D and maximum intensity projections are used for timepoint 1161 display (**C** and **D**) or temporal colour code analysis (**C**). All scale bars = 50  $\mu$ m. 1162

1163 Figure 3: Transient CDK9i treatment does not affect cardiac macrophage numbers 1164 and AT7519 enhances wound macrophage the polarisation following injury. (A) 1165 Experimental timeline indicating cardiac injury, transient CDK9i treatment and imaging 1166 timepoints. (B) LSFM images of Tg(mpeg1:mCherry;TNFa:GFP) larvae displaying 1167 macrophage accumulation and *tnf* expression on the injured ventricle at 24 hpi following 1168 transient treatment with 0.3% DMSO vehicle (top panel), 50µM AT7519 (middle panel) or 1169 3µM FVP (bottom panel). White arrowhead indicates ventricular apex injury site. Number of 1170 ventricular macrophages (C) and ventricular tnf<sup>+</sup> macrophages (D) at 24 hpi and 48 hpi 1171 following transient AT7519 (50µM) treatment. (E) Number of ventricular macrophages (total 1172 and  $tnf^{+}$ ) at 24 hpi following transient FVP (3µM) treatment. (**D** and **E**) Error bars = SD, n =1173 28 larvae, experimental n = 3. One-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc test performed for 1174 comparisons between treatment groups where \*\*\* p < 0.001 and Ns, non-significant. (F) 1175 LSFM timelapse-derived images displaying macrophage migration and *tnf* expression on the 1176 injured ventricle, hpi indicated above each image. White arrowhead (top panel, all 1177 timepoints) tracks an individual *tnf* macrophage (*mpeg1<sup>low</sup>*) migrating to the ventricular 1178 apex. Blue arrowheads (top panel, at 15.00 hpi) indicate two macrophages that have 1179 upregulated their *tnf* expression at the injured ventricular apex. LSFM fluorescence images 1180 were acquired in 3D and maximum intensity projections are displayed. White dashed line 1181 indicates outline of ventricle. All scale bars =  $50 \mu m$ .

#### 1183 Figure 4: AT7519 is a more selective CDK9 inhibitor than Flavopiridol in zebrafish. (A)

Brightfield images of a  $cdk9^{+/+}$  (top),  $cdk9^{+/-}$  (middle) and  $cdk9^{-/-}$  (bottom) whole zebrafish at 4 dpf. Scale bars = 1 mm. (B) Restriction enzyme digest gel displaying cdk9 genotypes of

1186 zebrafish larvae. Hyperladder (HL) band and individual genotype bands (in order: cdk9<sup>-/-</sup>,

1187  $cdk9^{+/-}$  and  $cdk9^{+/+}$ ) are indicated. Heart rate (beats/min) (C) and survival % (E) of  $cdk9^{-/-}$ 

- 1188 larvae at 2 hpt, 6 hpt, 12 hpt, 24 hpt and 48 hpt with 0.1%, DMSO vehicle, 1µM AT7519 or
- 1189 1µM FVP treatment. Heart rate (beats/min) (**D**) and survival % (**F**) of  $cdkg^{-/2}$  larvae at 2 hpt, 6
- 1190 hpt, 12 hpt, 24 hpt and 48 hpt with 0.3% DMSO vehicle, 50  $\mu$ M AT7519 or 3  $\mu$ M FVP
- 1191 treatment. (**C** and **D**) Error bars = SEM, n = 15 larvae, experimental n = 3. Two-way ANOVA
- and Bonferroni *post hoc* test performed for comparisons between DMSO vehicle or CDK9i
- 1193 treatment groups where \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001 and \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001.
- 1194

1195 Figure 5: Transient AT7519 treatment enhances cardiomyocyte number expansion 1196 and accelerates the rate of myocardial wound regeneration following injury. (A) 1197 Experimental timeline indicating cardiac injury, transient CDK9i treatment and imaging 1198 timepoints. (B) LSFM images of Tg(myl7:DsRed2-NLS) larvae displaying ventricular 1199 cardiomyocytes at 48 hpi following transient treatment with 0.3% DMSO vehicle (left panel), 1200 50µM AT7519 (middle panel) or 3µM FVP (right panel). (C) Number of ventricular 1201 cardiomyocytes at 24 hpi and 48 hpi following transient treatment with ≤0.3% DMSO vehicle, 1202 50µM AT7519 (left graph) or 3µM FVP (right graph). Error bars = SD, n = 29 larvae, 1203 experimental n = 3. One-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc test performed for comparisons 1204 between DMSO vehicle or CDK9i treatment groups where \*\* p < 0.01. (D) Surface rendered 1205 LSFM image of a Tg(myI7:GFP) heart. White dashed line outlines the ventricular apex area 1206 that is subject to laser injury. (E) Surface rendered LSFM image of a Tg(myl7:GFP) wound 1207 at the ventricular apex at 24 hpi and 48 hpi, following transient treatment with 0.1% DMSO 1208 vehicle (top panel) or 50µM AT7519 (bottom panel). Arrowheads indicate cardiomyocyte 1209 protrusions adjacent to the wound (*myI7:GFP* negative). Scale bars = 20  $\mu$ m. (F) Myocardial 1210 wound area ( $\mu m^2$ ) at 24 hpi and 48 hpi following transient treatment with 0.1% DMSO 1211 vehicle or 50µM AT7519. Error bars = SD, n = 27 larvae, experimental n = 3. One-way 1212 ANOVA and Tukey post hoc test performed for comparisons between treatment groups. (G) 1213 Myocardial wound closure (%) between 24 hpi and 48 hpi following transient treatment with 1214 0.1% DMSO vehicle or 50µM AT7519. Error bars = SD, n = 27 larvae, experimental n = 3. 1215 Mann–Whitney U-test performed for comparison between treatment groups where \* p <1216 0.05. (H) Surface rendered LSFM timelapse-derived images of an injured myl7:GFP 1217 ventricle, hpi indicated. Arrowheads indicate myocardial wound (myl7:GFP negative). 1218 Asterisk indicates cardiomyocytes bridging across the myocardial wound (myI7:GFP 1219 negative). LSFM fluorescence images were acquired in 3D and maximum intensity 1220 projections (B) or 3D renders (D, E and H) are displayed. Unless stated, all scale bars = 50 1221 µm. Ns, non-significant.

1223 Figure 6: Macrophages are required for enhanced cardiomyocyte number expansion 1224 response following cardiac injury and transient AT7519 treatment. (A) Restriction 1225 enzyme digest gel displaying irf8 zebrafish genotypes. Hyperladder (HL) band and individual genotype bands (in order:  $irf8^{+/+}$ ,  $irf8^{+/-}$  and  $irf8^{-/-}$ ) are indicated. (B) Brightfield images of 3 1226 dpf larval heads stained with neutral red showing macrophages/microglia in the brain of 1227 *irf8*<sup>+/+</sup> larvae but not in *irf8*<sup>-/-</sup> larvae, with *irf8*<sup>-/-</sup> larvae absent of all macrophages/microglia. 1228 1229 Arrowheads indicate the presence of macrophages/microglia, black panel indicates magnified view. Scale bars = 500  $\mu$ m. (C) LSFM images of *irf8*<sup>+/+</sup> and *irf8*<sup>-/-</sup> Tg(myl7:h2b-1230 1231 GFP) larvae displaying ventricular cardiomyocytes at 48 hpi following transient treatment 1232 with 0.1% DMSO vehicle (top panel) or 50 $\mu$ M AT7519 (bottom panel). Scale bar = 50  $\mu$ m. 1233 (D) Number of ventricular cardiomyocytes at 48 hpi following transient treatment with 0.1% DMSO vehicle or 50µM AT7519 in *irf8*<sup>+/+</sup> and *irf8*<sup>-/-</sup> larvae. Error bars = SD, n = 25 larvae, 1234 experimental n = 3. One-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc test performed for comparisons 1235 between DMSO vehicle or AT7519 treatment groups where \* p < 0.05 and Ns, non-1236 1237 significant.



Tg(mpx:mCherry) D 4-6hpi colour coded





F























В







48hpi

Tg(myl7:h2b-GFP)

irf8 +/+

irf8 -/-



D

