Transcriptomic comparison of two selective retinal cell ablation paradigms in zebrafish reveals shared and cell-specific regenerative responses

Kevin B. Emmerich[¶,1,2], Steven L. Walker[¶,3,4], Guohua Wang[¶,1,5], David T. White[1], Fang Wang[1], Yong Teng[6], Anneliese Ceisel[1], Zeeshaan Chunawala[1], Gianna Graziano[1], Saumya Nimmagadda[1], Meera T. Saxena[1], Jiang Qian[1], and Jeff S. Mumm[1,2,3,7*]

1. Department of Ophthalmology, Wilmer Eye Institute, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA
2. McKusick-Nathans Institute of the Department of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA
3. Department of Cellular Biology and Anatomy, Medical College of Georgia, Augusta University, Augusta, Georgia, USA
4. Current address: School of Biomedical Sciences, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, N.T., Hong Kong
5. Current address: School of Computer Science and Technology, Harbin Institute of Technology, Harbin, China
6. Current address: Department of Hematology and Medical Oncology, Winship Cancer Institute, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA
7. Solomon H. Snyder Department of Neuroscience, Johns Hopkins University, MD, USA

¶Equal contribution, ordered alphabetically

*Corresponding author: jmumm3@jhmi.edu

Abstract

Retinal Müller glia (MG) can act as stem-like cells to generate new neurons in both zebrafish in

mice. In zebrafish, retinal regeneration is innate and robust, resulting in the replacement of lost

neurons and restoration of visual function. In mice, exogenous stimulation of MG is required to

reveal a dormant and, to date, limited regenerative capacity. Zebrafish studies have been key in

revealing factors that promote regenerative responses in the mammalian eye. Increased

understanding of how the regenerative potential of MG is regulated in zebrafish may therefore

aid efforts to promote retinal repair therapeutically. Developmental signaling pathways are

known to coordinate regeneration following widespread retinal cell loss. In contrast, less is

known about how regeneration is regulated in the context of retinal degenerative disease, i.e.,

following the loss of specific retinal cell types. To address this knowledge gap, we compared

transcriptomic changes between two selective cell ablation paradigms, targeted loss of rod

photoreceptors or bipolar cells. Our study spanned twelve time points encompassing the entire

degenerative and regenerative process of each targeted cell type. 2,531 differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) were identified. Interestingly, the majority of DEGs were paradigm specific,

including during MG activation phases, suggesting the nature of the injury/cell loss informs the

regenerative process from initiation onward. For example, early modulation of Notch signaling

was implicated in the rod but not bipolar cell ablation paradigm. Components of JAK/STAT

signaling were activated in both paradigms but were more strongly induced during rod cell

regeneration. We functionally validated the role of JAK/STAT signaling during rod cell

regeneration using CRISPR/Cas9-based knockdown of *stat3* which inhibited both MG

proliferation and rod cell regeneration kinetics. Additionally, although more than a third of all

DEGs are implicated as immune-system regulators, individual immune-related factors were

largely paradigm specific. These data support emerging evidence that discrete "fate-biased"

regenerative processes follow from selective retinal cell loss.

Author Summary

Blinding diseases are linked to the loss of specific types of neurons in the retina. In humans, this

eventually leads to loss of sight. In zebrafish, however, lost retinal neurons are regenerated

resulting in restored vision. Our lab has developed zebrafish models that allow us to selectively

induce the loss of disease-relevant retinal neurons, thereby allowing us to study how individual

retinal cell types are regenerated. Here, to better understand how the regeneration of individual

cell types is regulated, we compared gene expression changes occurring during the loss and

regeneration of two different retinal cell types, rod photoreceptors and bipolar interneurons. We

found that the majority of gene changes were specific to each cell type studied, providing strong

evidence that genetic programs underlying stem cell activation in zebrafish vary depending on

the cell type damaged. We also found that the immune system was strongly implicated as a

regulator of regeneration in both models, but that individual genes immune-related genes tended

to be more strongly associated with one of the two models.. We hope that a better understanding

of how retinal cell regeneration is regulated in zebrafish will aid efforts to develop regenerative

therapeutics designed to restore sight to patients who have lost their vision.

Introduction

Regenerative therapeutics aimed at replacing lost retinal cells have the potential to restore visual

function. One category of therapeutics in development aims to stimulate endogenous retinal

Müller glia (MG) to act as stem-like cells to replace lost neurons[1,2]. The capacity of MG to drive

retinal repair differs markedly between species. In mammals, MG regenerative potential is intact

but remains dormant unless exogenously stimulated. In contrast, zebrafish MG robustly

regenerate lost retinal neurons[3]. Zebrafish are therefore an established model for exploring

mechanisms controlling MG regenerative potential, including factors that enhance the

regenerative potential of mammalian MG[4–8]. Studies of the mechanisms regulating regeneration

following widespread retinal cell loss, e.g., damage across multiple cell types/nuclear layers ,

have focused largely on the role of known developmental pathways and reprogramming

factors[3,9–12]. In contrast, mechanisms governing responses to the loss of specific neuronal types

are less well defined. Intriguingly, recent studies in zebrafish suggest that the loss of discrete

retinal cell types elicits a fate-biased regenerative response; i.e., where progenitors cells give rise

predominantly to the lost cell type[13–16]. A deeper understanding of the mechanisms controlling

fate-biased regeneration has the potential to facilitate the development of novel cell-type targeted

regenerative therapeutic strategies.

Retinal regenerative research in fish has utilized three main injury paradigms: light-induced

ablation[17–20], toxin-induced ablation[21,22] and mechanical wounding[23,24]. Early mechanical

wounding studies involved surgical excisions of retinal quadrants which induce classic hallmarks

of epimorphic regeneration: rapid wound closure and the formation of blastema-like zones of

proliferative cells[23]. Other paradigms eliminate all or most cells in a retinal somal layer, e.g.,

light-induced ablation of rod and cone photoreceptor cells in the outer nuclear layer (ONL)[17–20],

excitotoxin-induced ablation of interneurons in the inner nuclear layer (INL) and retinal ganglion

cells (RGCs)[21,22]. Collectively, these studies have identified two injury-inducible stem cell niches

in the teleost retina; ONL progenitor cells committed to producing rod cells[25,26], and an INL-

localized retinal stem cell[27,28]. Subsequent studies demonstrated that the INL stem cells were

Müller glia (MG), which function as injury-induced multipotent stem-like cells. These cells can

divide asymmetrically giving rise to a transit-amplifying pool of retinal progenitor cells that then

differentiate to regenerate the lost retinal cells[3,9–11]. Intriguingly, mammalian MG can also

produce new neurons upon exogenous expression of neurogenic factors, such as *achaete-scute*

family bHLH transcription factor 1 (*ascl1*)[4,5] or inhibition of factors such as *nuclear factor I*

a/b/x (*nfia/b/x*), which function to sustain MG identity[29]. However, the types of neurons

produced by mammalian MG are not typically well correlated to types of cells lost; for instance,

ascl1 overexpression is largely limited to the production of bipolar cells[30]. More recently,

combinatorial application of exogenous neurogenic factors have overcome this limitation to

produce ganglion-like cells capable of responding to light[7]. These studies highlight the need to

better understand the regulation of MG regenerative potential, and fate choices of MG-derived

neural progenitors, are regulated.

Retinal degenerative diseases typically involve the loss of discrete cell types. Thus, methods for

replacing specific cell types are being sought as a strategy to restore vison to patients. To study

how discrete cell types are regenerated we adapted a targeted cell ablation method, the

nitroreductase (NTR) prodrug converting enzyme system[31–35], to zebrafish[36–41]. Transgenic

expression of NTR renders cells susceptible to prodrugs, such as metronidazole (Mtz). Exposing

fish to Mtz results in the selective loss of NTR-expressing cells by a DNA-damage induced cell

death process[40–43]. Co-expression of a fluorescent reporter in NTR-targeted cells allows the

regenerative process to be characterized in detail using *in vivo* time-lapse imaging[38,44] or

quantified using high-throughput screening methods[39,45]. This approach affords key advantages

to the investigation of cellular regeneration. For instance, it can be genetically targeted to

individual cell types and is prodrug inducible, allowing temporal synchronization of the

regenerative process across many samples. While several mutant zebrafish lines exhibit cell-type

specific losses, the lack of control over the onset and duration of cell death make it more difficult

to profile regenerative responses in these models. Additionally, several retinal degeneration

mutants also fail to regenerate[46] suggesting that a threshold of cell death is required to trigger

retinal regeneration. Using this approach, recent studies have shown that selective retinal cell

loss elicits a fate-biased regenerative response[13–16], although subtler fate-biases have also

recently been acknowledged in widespread injury paradigms as well. This suggests

limited/selective retinal cell loss and widespread/non-selective retinal injury may trigger

regenerative processes that are differentially regulated.

Here, to increase understanding of fate-biased regenerative processes, we used time-resolved

gene expression profiling to compare two retinal cell-type specific ablation paradigms in

zebrafish. Comparisons between the targeted loss of either 1) bipolar cells[44], or 2) rod

photoreceptors[45] involved profiling gene expression changes across 12 timepoints spanning the

entire degenerative and regenerative processes. Differential gene expression analysis across a

total of 138 microarrays revealed both shared and paradigm-specific profiles. Paradigm-specific

expression changes predominated at early and late time points, and shared expression profiles

peaked at 24 and 32 hours after induction of cell loss. While paradigm-specific mechanisms were

expected to be prevalent during late phases, corresponding to progenitor cell differentiation,

predominance at early time points suggests that MG stem cell activation involves signals that

may be informative regarding cell type lost, thus facilitating fate-biased responses. Given the

relevance to numerous degenerative diseases, greater understanding of the mechanisms

regulating stem cell responses to selective cell loss and subsequent fate-biased regenerative

processes is needed as this information could enable the development of cell-type specific

regenerative therapeutics.

Results

Specificity of NTR/Mtz-induced Cell Death and Assessments of Regeneration

To expand our understanding of mechanisms regulating the regeneration of discrete retinal cell

types, gene expression changes attending two cell-specific ablation paradigms were compared.

Specifically, transgenic zebrafish lines expressing NTR-reporter fusions in either a bipolar

interneuron subtype (*nyctalopin* or *nyx*-expressing) or rod photoreceptor cells were used, referred

to hereafter as "NTR-bipolar"[44] and "NTR-rod"[45], respectively (see Methods for full

description). We first confirmed that NTR expression was specific to the targeted cell types

within the retina. Prior studies have shown that expression in the NTR-bipolar line is restricted to

retinal bipolar cells, with labeling of the pineal gland (epiphysis) in the brain as well[44,47]. For the

NTR-rod line, immunohistochemistry confirmed that expression of the NTR-YFP fusion protein

was restricted to rod cells, as previously shown for this line[40] and corresponding promoter

element[48]. NTR-YFP expressing cells were co-labeled with a rod-specific antibody marking

outer segments, zpr-3[49,50] (Supp. Fig. 1a-a"), and interdigitated with cells marked by a cone-

specific antibody, zpr-1[51] (Supp. Fig. 1b-b"). Co-labeling levels with zpr-3 suggested that the

majority of rod cells express the NTR-YFP transgene. The NTR-bipolar line uses the Gal4/UAS

bipartite system to express two different transgenes, a membrane-tagged YFP and an NTR-

mCherry fusion protein that enables cell ablation. In this background, NTR-mCherry expression

is sporadic, with the number of NTR+ cells varying from low (~25 cells/retina) to high (hundreds

of cells/retina)[44]. To account for this variability, mid-level expressing NTR-bipolar larvae (~100

targeted cells) were visually selected for these studies.

<u>Supp. Fig. 1. Confirmation of NTR-rod transgene specificity</u>

(a-a'') Histological staining in the NTR-rod model showing transgenic Rho:YFP-NTR

expression (green) along with antibody staining for rod outer segment marker Zpr-3 (purple).

(b-b'') Histological staining in the NTR-rod model showing transgenic Rho:YFP-NTR

expression (green) along with antibody staining for cone marker Zpr-1 (purple).

We next verified that a 24 hr 10 mM Mtz prodrug treatment was sufficient to induce selective

loss of NTR-expressing cells and that regeneration occurs upon Mtz washout. Confocal time

series imaging was used to follow this process in individual NTR-bipolar and NTR-rod larva.

(Fig. 1a-a'' and b-b'', respectively). After a 24 hr 10 mM Mtz treatment (from 6-7 days post-

fertilization, dpf) followed by 24 hr washout, NTR+ cells are largely absent or appear

fragmented (Fig. 1a', b') in comparison to pre-treatment images (Fig. 1a, b). Four days after Mtz

was removed (11 dpf), both NTR+ bipolar and rod cells had regenerated (Fig. 1a'', b''). DMSO

controls showed sustained NTR expression in the absence of Mtz (Supp. Fig. 2a-a'', c-c'').

Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT)-mediated dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL)[52]

staining confirmed layer-specific cell death in both paradigms (Fig. 1c-f series). Quantification

showed a statistically significant increase in DNA damage (TUNEL staining) following Mtz

exposures for both transgenic lines (Fig. 1g).

Fig. 1. Two NTR models enabling inducible retinal cell-type specific ablation

(a-a'', b-b'') In vivo time-series imaging following the NTR-bipolar (a-a'') or NTR-rod (b-b'')

response to metronidazole (Mtz) treatment to induce cell death and regeneration. Images were

taken in the same fish at 6 dpf (before Mtz onset, a, b), 7 dpf (after treatment, a', b') and 11 dpf

(following recovery, a'', b'').

(c-c'', d-d'', e-e''. f-f'') Representative histological staining for TUNEL (terminal

deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling) at 7 dpf in uninjured NTR-rod larvae (c-

c'') and Mtz treated NTR-rod larvae (d-d'') as well as in uninjured and Mtz-treated NTR-bipolar

larvae (e-e'', f-f'', respectively).

(g) Quantification of TUNEL+ cell counts at 7 dpf in untreated fish (-Mtz) or following the

ablation of each cell type [+Mtz (NTR:rod) and +Mtz (NTR:bipolar)] .

(h-h'', i-i'', j-j''. k-k''). Representative histological staining for PCNA (proliferative cell nuclear

antigen) at 9 dpf in uninjured NTR-rod larvae (h-h'') and Mtz treated NTR-rod larvae (i-i'') as

well as in uninjured (j-j'') and Mtz-treated NTR-bipolar larvae (k-k'').

(l,m) Quantification of PCNA+ cell counts at 9 dpf in untreated NTR-rod fish or following the

ablation of rods (l)and in untreated NTR-bipolar fish or following the ablation of bipolar cells

(m). For both paradigms, quantification is split into total number of proliferative cells and those

in the INL or ONL.

Asterisks indicate significant statistical difference (* = <0.05, ** = <0.01, *** = <0.001, and

**** = <0.0001) across groups, non-significant comparisons are not shown.

Characterization of Retinal Stem Cell Niches Responding to Bipolar and Rod Cell Death

As the NTR-rod line consistently labels the majority of rod photoreceptor cells (Supp. Fig. 1), we

anticipated rod cell loss would trigger proliferation in both the INL and ONL stem cell niches

(multipotent MG and dedicated rod precursors, respectively), consistent with data from the Hyde

lab using a similar transgenic line[53]. Conversely, we expected bipolar cell ablation would result

in proliferation predominantly within the INL, i.e., localized to MG cells and daughter progenitor

cells. To test which retinal stem cell niche(s) were responsive to cell loss in the two ablation cell

paradigms, Mtz-treated and DMSO control retinas were immunolabeled with proliferative cell

nuclear antigen (PCNA) 72h post-onset of Mtz at 9 dpf (Fig. 1h-k series, during the peak of

proliferation following ablation in our NTR models[38]). The data showed cell-specific trends, with

a bias toward ONL, rod-committed precursor proliferation, after rod loss (Fig. 1i', arrowheads)

and INL (presumed MG/progenitor cell) proliferation following bipolar cell loss (Fig. 1k',

arrowheads). On average more proliferation was seen in NTR-rod lines (~14 PCNA+

cells/retinal slice) versus NTR-bipolar fish (~5 PCNA+ cells/retinal slice, Fig. 1l-m). This

difference was due to elevated levels of ONL proliferation following rod ablation as the amount

of INL proliferation was similar in both paradigms (Fig. 1l,m). Proliferation within the INL in

Mtz-treated NTR-rod lines was typically clustered near the periphery (Supp. Fig. 2h' where the

density of cell loss was highest, consistent with increased rod cell death activating MG stem

cells[53]. Note, cells dividing in the ONL following bipolar cell ablation (Supp. Fig. 2g',

arrowheads) were presumed to be MG-derived progenitors that had migrated to the ONL,

consistent with prior studies[3].

<u>Supp. Fig. 2. Additional in vivo imaging and TUNEL/PCNA histological imaging</u>

(a-a'', b-b'') In vivo time-series imaging following NTR-rod larvae that were uninjured (a-a'') or

received Mtz (b-b''). Images were taken in the same fish at 6 dpf (before Mtz onset in +Mtz

larvae), 7 dpf (after Mtz removal) and 11 dpf (following recovery).

(c-c'', d-d'') In vivo time-series imaging following NTR-bipolar larvae that were uninjured (c-

c'') or received Mtz (d-d''). Images were taken in the same fish at 6 dpf (before Mtz onset in

+Mtz larvae), 7 dpf (after Mtz removal) and 11 dpf (following recovery).

(e-e', f-f') Histological staining in uninjured and +Mtz eyes at 7 dpf for TUNEL in the NTR-

bipolar (e-e') and NTR-rod (f-f') paradigms.

(g-g', h-h') Histological staining in uninjured and +Mtz eyes at 9 dpf for PCNA in the NTR-

bipolar (g-g') and NTR-rod (h-h') paradigms.

Microarray Analysis of Two Cell-specific Regeneration Paradigms

We next turned to a differential gene expression comparison of our two retinal neuron ablation

paradigms. To account for expression changes spanning cell loss and regeneration, eyes were

collected from NTR-bipolar and NTR-rod larvae treated ±Mtz across a total of 12 time points,

from 0 to 240 hours post ablation (hpa; Fig. 2a). As above, cell death was induced by the

addition of 10 mM Mtz from 6 to 7 dpf (0 to 24 hpa), followed by wash out and recovery from

days 7-16 dpf (24 to 240 hpa; Fig. 2a). To assess initial MG stem cell responses to retinal cell

loss, early time points were emphasized by collecting samples every 8 hr from 0 to 48 hpa.

Eight-hour intervals were used to minimize representation of gene expression changes due solely

to circadian cycles. For the later time points, samples were collected at 60, 72, 96, 144, and 240

hpa. Across three biological repeats per time point, a total of 96 eyes were collected per time

point for each paradigm (48 DMSO controls and 48 +Mtz samples, Supp. Table 1).

Top NTR-rod genes	fold (log2)	p-value	# of DEG timepoints
mala.2	2.49	1.70E-10	9
txn	1.87	6.25E-10	7
sepw2b	2.07	1.87E-09	8
prdx1	1.90	3.02E-09	7
wu:fb18f06	2.07	4.30E-09	8
gstp1	2.78	5.77E-09	7
cyp24a1	1.94	1.53E-08	3
stat2	1.68	1.57E-08	5
si:dkey-87o1.2	1.62	2.52E-08	5
nqo1	1.60	3.21E-08	5
cki	-2.66	6.65E-10	6
wu:fb15e04	-1.85	7.89E-10	7
nfil3-5	-1.44	1.86E-08	2
zgc:136930	-2.04	8.68E-08	6
cyt1l	-1.47	1.53E-07	6
ptprn2	-1.24	2.57E-07	2
cry1b	-1.78	2.68E-07	4
brdt	-1.46	4.57E-07	1
per3	-1.23	4.94E-07	4
myo3a	-1.34	6.71E-07	2

Top NTR-bipolar genes	fold (log2)	p-value	# of DEG timepoints
wu:fj05g07	3.05	3.66E-10	6
zgc:174888	2.14	4.46E-09	6
irf1b	2.23	6.42E-09	4
prdx1	1.89	7.59E-09	6
esm1	2.38	8.26E-09	6
atf3	2.45	2.21E-08	5
hsp70	1.77	3.23E-08	3
stat3	2.08	4.21E-08	5
irf9	1.75	5.81E-08	4
rpe65a	2.36	5.83E-08	1
si:ch211-195b15.7	-1.29	4.27E-07	8
Dr.12789.1.A1_at	-1.38	5.26E-07	8
pdca	-1.90	5.91E-07	6
arl3l2	-1.44	8.60E-07	7
pde6a	-1.76	9.99E-07	8
guca1b	-1.43	3.14E-06	6
s100w	-1.59	3.20E-06	3
gngt2a	-1.74	3.60E-06	3
zgc:162144	-1.66	4.62E-06	4
mb	-1.29	5.00E-06	2

Fig. 2. Microarray data collection, DEG identification and top hits

(a) Experimental design for tissue collection of whole eyes for microarray analysis. Treatment

with Mtz for 24h was induced at 6 dpf following screening for NTR-rod+ or NTR-bipolar+ fish.

Eyes were collected in triplicate at the following 12 timepoints including t0, t8, t16, 24, t32, t40,

t48, t60, t72, t92, t144 and t240.

(b) Venn diagram illustrating the total number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) unique

to either cell type or shared between the two at all timepoints.

(c) Chart showing distribution of upregulated and downregulated DEGs in each paradigm.

(d) Top 10 up and downregulated genes across the entire data set based on p-value as well as the

number of timepoints that gene was identified as differentially expressed out of 12.

Supp. Table 1. mRNA quality of samples collected for microarray analysis

Run	Cell Type	Concentration (ng)	mRNA Quality (RIN)
1	Rod	128.8 - 2327	6.6-10
2	Rod	109.2 - 992	7.8-9.8
3	Rod	136.0 - 1728	9.8-10
4	Bipolar	141.0 - 1029	5.9-9.4
5	Bipolar	145.4 - 990.8	8.2-9.3
6	Bipolar	204.5 - 685.4	8.4-9.4

Genetic Differences Observed Between Two Cell-specific Regeneration Paradigms

Using a 1.5-fold change and ≤ 0.05 p-value cutoff compared to expression values at 0 hpa, a total

of 2,531 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were observed across both paradigms. Across all

timepoints 918 and 1,249 DEGs were unique to the rod or bipolar cell ablation paradigm,

respectively, and 364 DEGs were shared between the two (Fig. 2b). Plotting the number of

DEGs per each time point showed two peaks at 32 and 60 hpa for the NTR-rod line, and a single

peak at 24 hrs post ablation (hpa) for the NTR-bipolar line (Fig. 2c). Next, quantitative reverse

transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR) was used to validate gene expression changes for 8 genes per each

paradigm at 0, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hpa (Supp. Fig. 3, primers used are listed in Supp. Table 2).

Genes in the Janus kinase-signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK/STAT) and Wnt

pathways were selected for qRT-PCR analysis as both have been implicated in regeneration of

the targeted cell types[10,54]. Temporally-resolved expression trends, rather than absolute fold

change, were utilized for validation as differences in normalization methods have the potential to

impact overall expression levels[55]. These data revealed only minor differences in expression

patterns between the microarray and qRT-PCR suggesting the microarray data accurately reflect

gene expression changes (Supp. Fig. 3). The top 10 up and down DEGs at all timepoints for each

paradigm were then identified by lowest single *p*-value, many passing the DEG threshold at

multiple timepoints during out study (Fig. 2d).

Supp. Fig. 3. qRT-PCR validation of mRNA expression changes.

(a, b) A subset of tested genes were selected for validation using quantitative Reverse

Transcription – Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR). 8 genes were selected for a temporal

analysis from 0-72h post Mtz in either the NTR-rod (A) or NTR-bipolar (B) paradigm with beta

actin serving as a control.

Supp. Table 2. qPCR primers used

Gene	Ensembl ID	Sequence 5'-3'
stat3	ENSDARG00000022712	F, CTCATGCACAACGAAGCTGCTG
		R, TCCATGTCCGAGGTGAGGGATTCG
etv5b	ENSDARG00000044511	F, ACACCTGTCAATCACCCAGATGC
		R, AAAGCTGCCGATGGAACCTGTG
zgc:174888	ENSDARG00000077176	F, AGAAGCATGTCACCAACAGTGC
		R, TCGCACCCACTTCTTCCTTGAACAG
irbp	ENSDARG00000059163	F, GGAACAAAGTGGTGGACACTGACG
		R, GCATGCCCACCGATGTTATTTCTC
socs3a	ENSDARG00000025428	F, ACTCTGTGGGCACCAATCACTG
		R, CTGGTTTCTGTCGAACGTCTCC
hsp70	ENSDARG00000021924	F,GACCAGGGCAACAGAACAAC
		R, GGTCTCAATACCCAGAGACAGTGG
mvp	ENSDARG00000021242	F, GAGTGCAAAGAGTTACTGGTGAGG
		R, TCATGAGCTCCAGGCAGATACG

wif-1*	ENSDARG00000005541	F, GCCAGTGCGCTTTAAACCAACC
		R, TCACCTCAAATGCTGCCACACC
dkk2*	ENSDARG00000076420	F, ATGCCTCTTTTAAGCCGAAGTGC
		R,GCCTTTTTTGCGCTGTTTGG
fzd8a*	ENSDARG00000045444	F, TACTTCATGTGCCTTCTGGTGG
		R, TGGGCACTAAGACGTTAAGGC
wnt5b*	ENSDARG00000034894	F, CAGCTGACGGGCCTATCTCAGG
		R, AAAGCTCACCCTCACGGCACG
wnt4a*	ENSDARG00000071208	F, CAATGCGAGCAACTGGCTATAC
		R, AATGCAGCTTCCCTCGTACCTT
vsx1	ENSDARG00000056292	F, CCAGAGGACAGGATACAGGTATGG
		R, TTCTGGGAGTGGAATGGAGGT
β-actin**	ENSDARG00000037746	F, CGAGCAGGAGATGGGAACC
		R, CAACGGAAACGCTCATTGC

Transcriptomic Differences Following Regeneration of Uniquely Targeted Neurons

To identify differentially regulated signaling pathways at each time point, and across broader

temporally-resolved expression patterns, several analysis methods were used. First, volcano plots

and pathfindR[56] analyses were performed to reveal paradigm-specific and shared DEG-

associated signaling pathways at each time point (Supp. Figs. 4-14). Volcano plots correlate log-

fold changes in gene expression to *p*-values, with upregulated and downregulated DEGs

indicated by orange and blue dots, respectively (Supp. Figs. 4a-14a). Venn diagrams show the

313 total number of DEGs unique to each paradigm and the number of shared DEGs (Supp. Figs. 4b-

314 14b). Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) analysis via the pathfindR package

315 revealed the top enriched pathways associated with either the rod or bipolar paradigm-specific

316 DEGs, as well as shared DEGs (Supp. Figs. 4c-14c).

318 <u>Supp. Fig. 4. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 8 hours following</u>

319 <u>Mtz.</u>

320 (a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

321 NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

322 (b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

323 two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms.

<u>Supp. Fig. 5. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 16 hours following</u>

<u>Mtz.</u>

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms as well as those shared between the two paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 6. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 24 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms as well as those shared between the two paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 7. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 32 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 8. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 40 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms as well as those shared between the two paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 9. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 48 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 10. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 60 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms as well as those shared between the two paradigms.

Supp. Fig. 11. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 72 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-bipolar paradigm.

Supp. Fig. 12. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 96 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod paradigm.

Supp. Fig. 14. Analysis of DEGs and associated pathway terms at timepoint 240 hours following

Mtz.

(a) Volcano plot showing the identified up (orange) and down (blue) DEGs in both NTR-rod and

NTR-bipolar treatment paradigms.

(b) Venn diagram showing the unique as well as shared (and % of shared) DEGs between the

two paradigms.

(c) KEGG pathfindR identified significantly enriched pathways in the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar

paradigms.

In order to examine DEGs contributing to different stages of the regeneration process, we

identified DEGs whose expression profile fit one of four gaussian-type patterns during the

regenerative process: increased (up early) or decreased (down early) from16 to 32 hpa, and

increased (up late) or decreased (down late) from 48 to 72 hpa (Fig. 3a). Notably, this captured

the majority of DEGs observed. Heatmaps are shown for the top 50 DEGs for each pattern in

both the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar paradigms (Fig. 3b, c). The two reciprocally regulated DEG

patterns – up/down early (Fig. 4) and up/down late (Fig. 5) – were evaluated using KEGG, Gene

Ontology (GO) and Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA). For early pattern DEGS (Fig. 4a), the top

10 pathfindR KEGG terms were plotted for rod-specific, bipolar-specific and shared gene sets

(Fig. 4b-d). Predictably for the rod paradigm, phototransduction was the most enriched term.

Additional rod-specific KEGG pathways included RNA degradation, proteosome, and

necroptosis (Fig. 4b). For the bipolar paradigm, p53 signaling was the most enriched term, other

pathways included autophagy, nucleoside excision repair, and cysteine and methionine

metabolism (Fig. 4c). Shared KEGG pathway terms for early pattern DEGs included

phototransduction, mTor signaling, and glutathione metabolism (Fig. 4d). Gene Ontology (GO)

analysis of the same datasets revealed additional terms, such as circadian rhythm and ncRNA

processing for the rod paradigm, cellular apoptotic processes and response to stress for the

bipolar paradigm, and response to temperature stimulus and DNA conformation change among

shared terms (Fig. 4e-g). Lastly, IPA was used to generate unsupervised networks from the early

DEG lists for the NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar paradigms (Fig. 4h, i). For the rod paradigm, signal

transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) was identified as the central mediator of the

early DEG network along with multiple cytokine terms (e.g, interleukin-1b and 6, IL-1B, IL-6)

and associated terms for the oxidative stress response (Fig. 4h). In the bipolar paradigm, the

central mediator was peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARG), other

noteworthy genes included tumor protein 53 (*tp53*), the cytokine *il10*, *stat5a* and *stat5b* (Fig. 4i).

We then produced a summary bar chart of all related immune terms identified from IPA. Early

pattern IPA-implicated pathways of the rod paradigm included JAK family kinases, chemokine

(C-X-C motif) receptor 4 (CXCR4), IL-6, interferon, and iNOS signaling, as well as multiple

other IL-family cytokines (Supp. Fig. 15). For the bipolar paradigm, early pattern IPA terms

included similar IL-family cytokines but also added prolactin and leukocyte extravasation

signaling, as well as phagosome maturation (Supp. Fig. 16). Combined, KEGG, GO, and IPA

analysis revealed that factors implicated in regulating the early stages of regeneration are linked

more to the loss of individual retinal cell types than to a common signature across cell types.

Fig. 3. Identification of early and late DEG patterns and heatmaps for top DEGs in each.

(a) DEGs for each paradigm were split into upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) as well

as early (16-32h) and late (48-72h) based on peaks in figure 2. The distribution of DEGs in these

8 patterns is shown in terms of unique and shared DEGs across both cell types.

(b-h) The top 50 genes are plotted in heatmaps as a function of the largest fold changes at the

middle timepoint in each pattern (24h and 60h) to demonstrate top genes defining each 8 patterns

(NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar for patterns early-up, early-down, late-up and late-down).

<u>Fig. 4. Pathway analysis of early DEG pattern in both paradigms.</u>

(a) Curve demonstrating expression pattern for early upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue)

genes along our timepoints.

(b-d) Top 10 enriched KEGG pathway terms including p-value and # of genes found as DEGs in

the NTR-rod (b), NTR-bipolar (c) or from shared DEGs across both paradigms (d).

(e-g) Top 10 enriched Gene Ontology pathway terms including fold enrichment and false

discovery rate in the NTR-rod (e), NTR-bipolar (f) or from shared DEGs across both paradigms

(g).

(h-i) Unsupervised gene networks produced from ingenuity pathway analysis for DEGs in the

NTR-rod (h) and NTR-bipolar (i) paradigm. Orange indicates upregulated gene/pathway term

while blue indicates downregulated.

Supp. Fig. 15. Immune related terms identified from IPA for NTR-rod early pattern.

(a-d) IPA was used to test for enriched immune related pathway terms from DEGs for the NTR-

rod early pattern.

<u>Supp. Fig. 16. Immune related terms identified from IPA for NTR-bipolar early pattern.</u>

(a-d) IPA was used to test for enriched immune related pathway terms from DEGs for the NTR-

bipolar early pattern.

<u>Supp. Fig. 17. Immune related terms identified from IPA for NTR-rod late pattern.</u>

(a-d) IPA was used to test for enriched immune related pathway terms from DEGs for the NTR-

rod late pattern.

<u>Supp. Fig. 18. Immune related terms identified from IPA for NTR-bipolar late pattern.</u>

(a-d) IPA was used to test for enriched immune related pathway terms from DEGs for the NTR-

bipolar late pattern.

The same analysis methods were used to evaluate late pattern DEGs (Fig. 5a). A subset of top

KEGG terms stayed consistent with early pattern DEGs including phototransduction and RNA

degradation for the rod paradigm, autophagy and p53 for the bipolar paradigm, and also

autophagy for shared genes (Fig, 5b-d). The top enriched KEGG terms were DNA replication

and cell cycle for the rod and bipolar paradigms, respectively. Newly identified terms included

mismatch repair for rods, Toll-like receptor signaling for bipolars, and cellular senescence for the

shared set (Fig. 5b-d). Enriched GO terms similarly included some overlap with early pattern

terms (Fig. 5e-g), new rod GO terms included ribosome biogenesis, nuclear RNA surveillance,

and sno(s) RNA processing (Fig. 5e). New bipolar terms included oxoacid metabolic process,

circadian rhythm, and response to peptide hormone (Fig. 5f). Fewer shared DEGs in the late

pattern data lead to fewer enriched GO terms, however, the majority were new including cellular

response to DNA damage and regeneration (Fig. 5g). IPA analysis of late pattern rod data

similarly identified many of the same immune-related pathways implicated in early pattern rod

data, including IL-family cytokines. New terms included prolactin, CNTF, and GM-CSF

signaling (Supplementary Fig. 17). The late pattern rod network had fewer nodes than the early

network and was centered on IL-6 (Fig. 5h). Late pattern bipolar IPA terms also shared many

immune-related terms with early pattern data. Additional terms included CD40, granzyme B, and

TNFR signaling (Supp. Fig. 18). The late pattern bipolar network was centered on interferon

regulatory factor 7 (IRF7, Fig. 5i). Finally, a deep literature search was conducted on the top

~50-60 DEGs in each coordinated pattern for each paradigm. More specifically, given the

importance of the immune system in regulating retinal regeneration in our NTR-rod model

previously[38,57], we asked whether genes had previously been linked to immune response or

retinal regeneration (Supp. Fig. 19a). In total, we found that ~38 and ~44% of the top DEGs had

been linked to immune system function in the rod and bipolar paradigms, respectively. In terms

of cell or tissue regeneration, ~27% of the DEGs from both paradigms had been linked to

regeneration in prior studies (Supp. Fig. 19b).

Fig. 5. Pathway analysis of late DEG pattern in both paradigms.

(a) Graphic demonstrating expression pattern for late upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue)

genes along our timepoints.

(b-d) Top 10 enriched KEGG pathway terms including p-value and # of genes found as DEGs in

the NTR-rod (b), NTR-bipolar (c) or from shared DEGs across both paradigms (d).

(e-g) Top 10 enriched Gene Ontology pathway terms including fold enrichment and false

discovery rate in the NTR-rod (e), NTR-bipolar (f) or from shared DEGs across both paradigms

(g, only 7 terms enriched in this group).

(h-i) Unsupervised gene networks produced from ingenuity pathway analysis for DEGs in the

NTR-rod (h) and NTR-bipolar (i) paradigm. Orange indicates upregulated gene/pathway term

while blue indicates downregulated.

a

NTR-Rod	# genes searched	# Immune role	% Immune role	# Regeneration role	Regeneration role %
Early UP	55	30	54.5	20	36.4
EARLY DOWN	61	18	29.5	10	16.4
LATE UP	62	37	59.7	23	37.1
LATE DOWN	61	11	18.0	6	9.8

b

NTR-Bipolar	# genes searched	# Immune role	% Immune role	# Regeneration role	Regeneration role %
Early UP	64	24	37.5	15	23.4
EARLY DOWN	58	15	25.9	11	19.0
LATE UP	53	24	45.3	17	32.1
LATE DOWN	53	12	22.6	12	22.6

c

Immune implicated

Rod   44.6%

Bipolar   37.8%

d

Regeneration implicated

Rod   27.7%

Bipolar   26.7%

Supp. Fig. 19. Literature search for immune or regeneration related terms.

(a-b) The top ~50-60 DEGs for the NTR-rod (a) and NTR-bipolar (b) patterns were searched in

the literature for any links to a role in the immune system or in regeneration. The percentage of

those with a link to each term are shown.

(c-d) Bar showing the percentage of top DEGs that were implicated in the immune system (c) or

regeneration (d).

Validation of role for *stat3* in induced rod photoreceptor regeneration

The expression of *stat3* increased following retinal cell loss in both the NTR:rod and

NTR:bipolar paradigms. However, the increase in *stat3* was far more prominent in the NTR:rod

fish paradigm regarding both fold change (Supp. Fig. 3a) and the number of timepoints this was

observed (8 of 12 for NTR:rod, 4 of 12 for NTR:bipolar). To functionally test the regenerative

role of *stat3 in vivo*, we knocked down *stat3* expression in NTR-rod fish using CRISPR/Cas9

redundant targeting, i.e., "crispants" (Fig. 6a). Knockdown was confirmed via qPCR in a subset

of injected and non-injected control fish (Fig. 6b). At 5 dpf, rod photoreceptors were ablated (10

mM 24h Mtz). Subsequently, an established Tecan fluorescent plate reader-based assay as well

as *in vivo* imaging was used to assess: rod cell death at 7 dpf (Fig. 6c) and rod cell regeneration

at 9 dpf (Fig. 6d-f). Knockdown of *stat3* led to significantly impaired rod regeneration compared

to wildtype fish, thereby validating the requirement for *stat3* in rod cell regeneration. Lastly, to

examine the mechanism by which *stat3* knockdown leads to reduced regeneration, stem-cell

proliferation was assessed following ablation in wildtype and mutant fish. Akin to our initial

classification of Mtz-induced proliferation (Fig. 1l), death of rods led to proliferation in both the

INL and ONL. PCNA immunostaining in *stat3* knockdown fish showed a significant decrease in

total proliferation compared to wildtype fish (Fig. 6g-i). This suggests *stat3* loss impairs

progenitor cell proliferation at this timepoint, leading to fewer regenerated rods.

<u>Fig. 6. Effect of *stat3* knockdown on rod cell regeneration.</u>

(a) Experimental design depicting CRISPR/Cas9-based targeting of *stat3* via CRISPR/Cas9 in

NTR:rod embryos. Control (+Mtz) and knockdown NTR-rod larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD) were

treated with 10mM Mtz from 5-6 dpf and rod fluorescence was assessed via plate reader assay at

7 dpf (to examine the extend of rod cell loss) and 9 dpf (to examine the extent of rod cell

regeneration).

(b) Relative *stat3* mRNA expression (qRT-PCR assay) in non-injected controls compared to

stat3 knockdown fish.

(c) Quantification of NTR-YFP expression in rod cells by plate reader assay at 7 dpf in non-

ablated (-Mtz), ablated control (+Mtz) and *stat3*KD ablated larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD)

(d-e) Representative *in vivo* confocal images of regenerated rod cells at 9 dpf in control (+Mtz)

and *stat3*KD larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD)

(f) Quantification of rod cell regeneration by plate reader assay at 9 dpf in control (+Mtz) and

*stat3*KD larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD).

(g-h) Representative immunohistological staining for PCNA at 7 dpf in control (+Mtz) and

*stat3*KD larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD) fish.

(i) Quantification of INL, ONL, and total PCNA+ cells at 7 dpf in control (+Mtz) and *stat3*KD

larvae (+Mtz, *stat3*KD).

Astericks indicate statistically significant difference (* = <0.05, *** = <0.001) across indicated

groups, non-significant comparisons are not shown.

Discussion

Promotion of retinal regeneration would provide a transformative therapeutic approach for

patients with blinding degenerative diseases. One strategy to achieve this goal is to induce

endogenous human MG to respond to cell loss and regenerate lost retinal neurons, a process that

occurs naturally in zebrafish. Zebrafish studies have identified several genes that regulate retinal

regeneration (*ascl1a*[58], *lin-28 homolog A* [8,11]*, sry-box transcription factor 2*[59], *stat3*[60]) as well as

gene networks coordinating MG states (rest, reactivity, proliferation) following retinal damage

[29]. Each of these studies induced widespread retinal damage where the regenerative process

largely mirrors retinal development[3,12]. Conversely, retinal degenerative diseases typically

involve thez slow progressive loss of specific cell types, such as rod photoreceptors in retinitis

pigmentosa[61]. Interestingly, several zebrafish mutants fail to regenerate retinal neurons when loss

is slow, progressive, and cell-type specific[46], i.e., akin to disease condtions[46]. This suggests that a

threshold of cell death is required to trigger retinal regeneration and that models enabling control

over the onset, extent, specificity and duration of cell death can expand our understanding of

how regeneration is controlled under disease-mimicking conditions. For instance, Hyde and

colleagues have shown that the extent of rod cell loss determines MG responsiveness: limited

rod cell loss led to a response solely from "rod-committed" ONL progenitors while widespread

rod loss elicited responses in both ONL progenitors and MG cells[53]. Moreover, cell-specific

retinal cell ablation models have revealed that regenerative processes can exhibit "fate-bias",

where newly generated cell fates favor the cell type that was lost.[13–16]. Subtler fate biases follow

even widespread retinal damage[62], suggesting that the regenerative process is informed by the

nature of the injury/cell loss paradigm to guide MG-derived progenitor cell (MGPC) fate

decisions. The sequence of temporally-delineated cell fates attending development appear to be

recapitulated following widespread retinal injury[12]. However, how biases in MGPC fate

decisions are controlled following either widespread or selective retinal cell loss, is unknown. In

mice, overexpression of neurogenic factors such as *ascl1*[4,5,7] in MG, and knockdown of

inhibitory factors such as the *nfi* genes[29] have been shown to promote limited regenerative

responses. However, the neuronal cell types generated with these methods have been

predominantly limited to bipolar-like cells[30], neither well matched to the cell types lost nor

particularly relevant to retinal disease. However, inroads into producing more disease-relevant

cell types such as retinal ganglion cells have recently been made by adding additional neurogenic

factors such as *pou4f2* and *isl1*[7,63,64]. Increased understanding mechanisms driving fate-biased

regeneration may help to promote the full regenerative potential of the mammalian retina. Here,

we investigated transcriptomic responses to the selective loss of two retinal cell types, rod

photoreceptors and bipolar interneurons, to begin to reveal mechanisms that inform the

regenerative process about the cell types lost.

We first characterized NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar transgenic lines following prodrug-induced

cell loss, confirming the specificity of cell loss and quantifying proliferative response in the INL

and ONL (Fig. 1). The latter assay was particularly important as prior studies had shown that the

extent of rod cell loss impacts how two distinct stem/progenitor cell populations respond; low

rod loss leading to rod-committed progenitor proliferation in the ONL only, while extensive rod

loss triggered both MG and ONL progenitor proliferation[53]. Our data showed proliferative

responses in both the INL and ONL (Fig. 1l)suggesting both paradigms trigger MG proliferation.

Thus, differences in gene expression observed between these paradigms cannot be explained

solely by differential stem cell responses, e.g., activation of only rod-committed progenitors in

the ONL for the NTR-rod paradigm.

To comprehensively characterize transcriptomic changes during rod and bipolar cell

regeneration, samples were collected across 12 time points encompassing cell loss and

regeneration (Fig. 2a). Prior microarray studies have successfully identified genes associated

with MG activation[65] and networks activated following various retinal injury paradigms[60,66–70]..

More recently, single-cell RNAseq (scRNA-seq) and ATAC-seq (Assay for Transposase-

Accessible Chromatin) were used to compare light and NMDA induced retinal cell ablation

paradigms during early phases of the regenerative process[29]. Here, by expanding the number of

time points analyzed we sought to identify genes/pathways associated with: 1) inflammation and

immune cell activation, 2) stem cell activation, 3) MG/MGPC proliferation, and 4) MGPC

differentiation. We emphasized early time points (every 8 hr from 0-48 h) to identify genes

linked to the initiation of fate-biased regenerative processes. A total of 364 shared, 918 rod-

specific, and 1249 bipolar-specific DEGs were identified (Fig. 2b). Overall, shared

DEGs/pathways were limited more to early time points, while paradigm-specific

DEGs/pathways were identified throughout the study. The number of DEGs diminished for both

cell-types starting at 72 hpa. That paradigm-specific DEGs predominated supports the concept

that injury/cell loss specifics inform the regenerative process[13–16 3,11,12].

KEGG pathway analysis per each timepoint identified previously implicated pathways (e.g.,

mTor, Notch, and Wnt signaling)[8,54,67,71,72], and terms linked to the regulation of stem cell

function but not previously associated with retinal regeneration (e.g., glutathione metabolism[73],

FoxO signaling[74], and cellular senescence[75]). To enhance pathway analyses, we grouped DEGs

into four coordinately regulated sets for each paradigm: up or down early (16-32 hr) and up or

down late (48-72 hr, Figs. 3a,b). This accounted for the majority of DEGs and reinforced that

paradigm-specific DEGs outnumbered shared DEGs (Fig. 3c). Representative genes in the

NTR:rod early up group included known factors (e.g., *activating transcription factor 3- atf3*,

stat3)[60,76] and genes not previously associated with retinal regeneration (e.g., *glutathione S-*

transferase pi 1- gstp1). Among the known set, factors associated with immune system reactivity

were prevalent, including a number of genes previously shown to be upregulated in MG at 16h

post light ablation in adult zebrafish[60] (e.g., *janus kinase 1- jak1*, *stat3*, *suppression of cytokine*

signaling 3b- socs3b, *cytokine inducible SH2-containing protein- cish*, *irf9* and *complement*

component 7b- c7b). GO analysis additionally identified shared late pattern enrichment for the

broad term "regeneration" based on the differential regulation of the genes *annexin A1a- anxa1a,*

ubiquitin-like with PHD and ring finger domains 1- uhrf1, socs3a, capthespin Ba- ctsba,

legumain- lgmn, major vault protein- mvp, v-fos FBJ murine osteosarcoma viral oncogene

homolog Ab- fosab, and *GLIS family zinc finger 3- glis3* (Fig. 5). Next, IPA was used to reveal

differential regulation of pathways at early and late stages of regeneration in each model. For

both cell types, and at both early and late timepoints, multiple shared and unique immune-related

pathways were identified, e.g., cytokines, JAK/STAT, Toll-like receptor and prolactin signaling

(Supp. Fig. 15). We then produced unsupervised DEG networks using the coordinated

expression pattern data, i.e., rod-early, rod-late, bipolar-early and bipolar-late. Known pro-

regenerative and pro-inflammatory factors STAT3 and IL-6[60,77] were identified as central

mediators in the rod paradigm (Fig. 4h, 5h), while PPARG and IRF7 were implicated as central

mediators for the bipolar paradigm (Fig. 4i, 5i). PPARG has recently been tied to zebrafish

retinal progenitor cell function in adults through interactions with metabolic pathways.[78]

Interestingly, IRF7 has been implicated as a key regulator of microglia reactivity, its

upregulation promoting a phenotypic switch from an inflammatory to anti-inflammatory state,

aka stimulating resolution of microglia activation[79,80]. Our prior work suggested that accelerating

the resolution process by exposure to the immunosuppressant dexamethasone 24 hrs after

induction of rod cell ablation led to enhanced rod cell regeneration in zebrafish[57]. Together, these

studies implicate induction of IRF7 expression as potential strategy for promoting neuronal

regeneration.

Both IL-6 and interferons activate JAK/STAT signaling[77,81], a known mediator of the response to

retinal damage[60] regulating cell migration[82], proliferation[60], apoptosis[83], immune system[84] and

oxidative stress[85] responses. DEGs in the JAK/STAT family were primarily upregulated in the

rod (e.g, *stat3, jak1, cish, socs1a/3a/3b*) and bipolar paradigms (e.g, *cish, socs1a/3a/3b,*

stat1a/1b/2/5a/5b). However, the specific JAK/STAT family members involved differed

between our two paradigms (e.g., *stat3* for rod and *stat1a/b, stat2 and stat5a/b* for bipolar).

Similarly, different cell death pathways were also implicated, NTR-rod being linked to

necroptosis (Fig. 4b) while NTR-bipolar was linked to apoptosis (Fig. 4c, f), These findings

align with a recent drug screen in the same NTR-rod model where inhibitors and genetic

disruption of parthanatos and necroptosis pathways protected rods from cell death while

inhibition of apoptosis did not[40]. Interestingly, recent work in multiple mouse tumor models links

necroptotic signaling to the activation of IL-6 and STAT3[86–88] while apoptotic signaling was

linked to STAT5 activation[89], matching gene expression and cell death patterns in our models.

JAK/STAT signaling receives feedback inhibition from Suppression of Cytokine Signaling

(SOCS) genes[90]. Notably, ablation of both cell types was followed by upregulation of *socs3a,*

socs3b, socs1a and *cish*. *Socs3a* has been implicated as a mediator of hair and liver cell

regeneration in zebrafish through activation of resident stem cells and progenitor

differentiation[91,92], and is strongly upregulated in an adult zebrafish photoreceptor lesion

model[68]. In a functional test of STAT3 signaling in the rod cell ablation paradigm, we showed

that CRISPR/Cas9 mediated disruption of *stat3* led to statistically significant reductions in

proliferation and rod photoreceptor regeneration kinetics (Fig. 6), consistent with a reduction in

photoreceptor regeneration following light-damage in *stat3* morpholino injected eyes[60].

Interestingly, the Reh lab has recently shown that combining overexpression of *ascl1* with

inhibition of STAT signaling stimulates enhanced MG-derived regeneration in the mouse

retina[30]. Here, *socs1a, socs3a/b* and *cish* likely serve to similarly limit over-activation of

JAK/STAT signaling during retinal regeneration following activation of distinct STATs. These

results highlight how cell-specific regulation of family members within a given signaling

pathway may delineate fate-biased from shared (i.e., developmental) regenerative mechanisms.

By extension, further insights into the regulation of fate-biased regenerative mechanisms will

likely aid in the development of cell-type targeted therapeutic strategies to restore vision.

Materials and Methods

Aquaculture

712   Zebrafish were maintained under standard environmental conditions (~28°C, 14hr:10hr

713   light:dark cycle) under an approved ACUC animal use protocol. Larvae were fed paramecia

714   starting at 5 days post-fertilization (dpf), then paramecia and *Artemia salina* from 9-16 dpf. Late

715   stage larvae (e.g., 8 dpf) slated for imaging were kept in 12 well plates in 5 ml of system water

716   until 12 dpf after which they were sacrificed.

Transgenic Lines

A bipartite Gal4/UAS [93] transgenic zebrafish line derived with a 1,482 bp promoter element from

the *nyctalopin* (*nyx*) gene [94,95], *Tg(nyx:Gal4-VP16)q16a*, and a Gal4-driven reporter, *(UAS:GAP-*

YFP)q16b, expresses membrane-tagged yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) in a subpopulation of

bipolar cells [47]. Crosses to a UAS-reporter/effector line facilitating prodrug-induced cell ablation,

Tg(UAS-E1b:NfsB-mCherry)c264 [96], resulted in triple transgenic fish expressing an NTR-

mCherry fusion protein in subsets of *nyx*-promoter targeted bipolar cells (*q16a;q16b;c264*;

hereafter, NTR-bipolar lines). A transgenic line derived with a 3.7 kb promoter element from the

rhodopsin (rho) gene (kind gift of Dr. Shoji Kawamura) [48] expresses a YFP-NTR fusion protein

in rod photoreceptor cells, *Tg(rho:YFP-Eco.NfsB)gmc500* [45] (hereafter, NTR-rod lines). Retinal

morphology was monitored during imaging studies by crossing both NTR lines with *Tg(pax6-*

DF4:gap43-CFP)q01 which expresses membrane tagged CFP throughout the retina (see Fig.

1A-B) [97]. Transgenic fish were propagated in the *roy orbison* (aka, *mpv17$^{a9/a9}$*, hereafter

roy$^{a9/a9}$)[98,99] pigmentation mutant background to facilitate intravital imaging [100]. However, for

differential gene expression studies, to minimize expression variance due to differences in

transgene copy number, outcrosses to an AB wildtype strain (WT) were performed to generate

heterozygotes.

Mtz Treatment

For histological experiments, *in vivo* imaging experiments and all microarray tissue collections,

transgenic NTR-bipolar and NTR-rod larvae were screened and separated into two equal sized

groups at 6 dpf: 1) non-treated controls (Cntl); and 2) those treated with 10mM Mtz for 24 hr to

induce cell death, from 6-7 dpf (or DMSO-treated controls where applicable). After Mtz

treatment, fish were rinsed into system water and fed paramecia until sacrificed.

mRNA Isolation and Preparation

Whole eye mRNA was prepared across twelve time points: t0 (just prior to Mtz exposure); t8,

t16, and t24 hr (during Mtz treatment); and t32, t40, t48, t60, t72, t96, t144, and t240 hr (after

Mtz removal during recovery (Fig. 2A). Sample collection started at 8:00 a.m. on the day larvae

reached 6 dpf. At each time point, 16 eyes from 8 larvae were isolated per condition. To isolate

eyes, larvae were euthanized in 0.4% tricaine for 5 mins followed by cervical transection. Whole

eye pairs were manually isolated under an Olympus SZX16 epifluorescence stereoscope and

immediately placed into a chilled/sterile 1.5 ml tube with 50 µl of TriZOL (Life Technologies);

samples were then stored at -80°C until extraction. This protocol was followed for three

biological repeats per condition/time point for NTR-rod and NTR-bipolar lines. Samples were

batch extracted and processed following the final time. All samples were processed in the

Medical College of Georgia (MCG, former Mumm lab location) Integrated Genomics Core for

mRNA isolation, cDNA library construction, and microarray hybridization.

Microarrays

GeneChip Zebrafish Genome Microarrays (Affymetrix) were processed by the MCG Genomic

Core. Each run involved sibling zebrafish and consisted of 23 RNA samples across each

regenerative paradigm—1 pretreatment, and 11 time points from the control and Mtz treatment

groups. RNA sample quality was assessed by concentration and the RNA Integrity Number

(RIN), an algorithm that assigns integrity values to RNA measurements [101]. Only samples

attaining a minimal concentration of ≥100ng/µL (5µL total) and a RNA integrity number (RIN)

value of ≥8 were used for microarray hybridizations [101]. Runs where a minimum of 21 of 23

samples were deemed of good quality were utilized in the microarray studies. Three runs were

processed per regenerative paradigm resulting in six microarray sets (Supplementary Table 1)

and a total 138 microarrays overall.

Tissue preparation and immunohistochemistry

For immunohistochemistry, larval zebrafish were euthanized, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde

(PFA) for 8 hr, washed three times in 1x PBS (phosphate buffered saline; EMD Millipore) for 30

min and stored at 4°C. Samples were mounted in cryogel embedding medium within the next 2-4

days, frozen in liquid nitrogen then stored at -80^{0}C until sectioned in the lateral plane at 25 μm

thickness with a cryostat. Sliced sections were collected on standard microscope slides and

stored at 4°C.

For immunolabeling, slides were air dried at room temperature for ~1 hr, rinsed in 1xPBS and

then re-fixed with 4% PFA for 15 min. PBST rinses (1xPBS +0.1% Tween20, Fisher Scientific)

were conducted to remove trace PFA followed by 5 min antigen retrieval with SDS (1% Sodium

Dodecyl Sulfate; Fisher Scientific) in PBS. The blocking phase was performed with 3% goat

serum in PBDT (1xPBS, 1% BSA, 1% DMSO, 0.1% TritonX-100) for 30 min and incubated

with primary antibody/1% goat serum/PBDT overnight at 4°C. The next morning, slides were

rinsed in PBST, stained with secondary antibody/PBDT ~1 hr in a light protected humidity

chamber and cover-slipped (22x50 mm, Fisher Scientific). PBST rinses removed unbound

secondary antibody. Samples were protected with Vectashield + DAPI (Vector Laboratories) and

cover-slipped (24x50 mm, Fisher Scientific).

Primary antibodies included: mouse anti-PCNA monoclonal antibody (1:1000, clone PC10;

Sigma Aldrich), rabbit anti-Caspase-3 monoclonal antibody (1:500, clone C92-605; BD

Biosciences), Click-iT Tunel Alexa Fluor 647 (1:500; Life Technologies), mouse anti-zpr-1

monoclonal antibody (1:750; ZIRC), mouse anti-zpr-3 monoclonal antibody (1:750; ZIRC),

mouse anti-ZS-4 monoclonal antibody (1:750; ZIRC). Secondary antibodies included: anti-

mouse Alexa Fluor 430 (1:500; Life Technologies), anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 635 (1:500; Life

Technologies), anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 430 (1:500; Life Technologies).

Cell Counting and Analysis

Images were collected with an Olympus FV1000 Confocal Microscope (405, 440, 488, 515, 559,

and 635nm laser lines). Stacked confocal images were obtained using a 40x oil immersion

objective with a 2.5 µm step size, 130 µm aperture, and 10 µm total depth. Five sections were

collected per retina centered around the optic nerve. Images (Olympus .OIB format) were

analyzed using ImageJ. Manual cell counts were averaged across sections per retina and

averaged within each group. Student's t-test and One-way ANOVA were used for statistical

comparisons between groups.

Sample Quality and Differential Expression Analysis

Data were collected from 138 Genechip Zebrafish Genome arrays (Affymetrix) across four

conditions: NTR-rod cntrl, NTR-rod Mtz, NTR-bipolar cntrl, and NTR-bipolar Mtz. The

Bioconductor suite in the R statistical software [102], LIMMA [103], Carmaweb [104], and Microsoft

Access were used for data processing, differential expression testing and storage. Prior to

statistical analysis, Robust Multi-array Average (RMA) pre-processing routine [105] and Quality

control assessments [106] were used for background correction, normalization and quality control.

A set of differentially expressed genes was derived using LIMMA with a false discovery rate

adjusted p-value of 0.05. Differentially expressed genes were defined as those expressing a 1.5-

fold up or downregulation at any time point in regeneration. Pathway analysis was performed

using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA), Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG pathway analysis (via

the pathfindR R studio package). An adjusted p value below 0.05 was used throughout as a

cutoff for significance.

qPCR Processing

Extracted mRNA samples were reverse transcribed (Qiagen Omniscript RT kit, Qiagen) and

stored at -20°C. Samples were run in triplicate using the BioRad iQ SYBR Green Supermix

(BioRad) in iCycler IQ 96 well PCR plates (Bio-Rad) on a BioRad iCycler equipped with an

iCycler iQ Detection System. The protocol consisted of three phases: 1) 92˚C for 10:00 min, 2)

50x 92˚C for 00:15 min, 60˚C for 01:00 min, 3) 81x 55˚c→95˚c for 00:10 min. β-actin served as

the house keeping gene and $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method was used for normalization to ensure equal amounts

of cDNA for comparisons. qPCR primers were designed using the online tool QuantPrime.

CRISPR/Cas9 mediated *stat3* targeting

CRISPR/Cas9 mediated redundant targeting injections were performed at the one-cell stage of

gmc500 embryos utilizing the published strategy and gRNA table by Wu et al [107]. Published

sgRNAs for *stat3* were ordered as DNA oligos, assembled with the general CRISPR tracr oligo,

and then transcribed using pooled in vitro transcription (HiScribe T7 High Yield RNA Synthesis

kit, New England BioLabs) and cleaned up with the NEB Monarch RNA Cleanup kit. A mixture

of all four sgRNAs (1 ng in total) and Cas9 protein (2.5 µM, IDT) was injected into *rho:YFP-*

NTR embryos at the one-cell stage for targeting each gene.

Quantitative real-time Polymerase Chain Reaction (qRT-PCR)

To validate *stat3* expression knockdown mediated by CRISPR/Cas9 targeting, 3 groups of 10

larvae of both uninjected and gRNA injected transgenic larvae at 2 dpf were processed through a

previously published protocol to measure gene expression with qRT-PCR [40]. Briefly, RNA was

purified using NEB Monarch RNA Cleanup kit and reverse transcribed to cDNA using qScript

cDNA synthesis kit (QuantaBio). Quantitative PCR was conducted using designed primers with

the primerdb database and PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (ABI) in QuantaStudio

(ABI). Delta delta CT analysis was performed to calculate relative fold change in gene

expression levels between knockdown larvae and controls. Each experiment was performed in

triplicate.

ARQiv scans to measure rod photoreceptor loss and regeneration

Wildtype non-injected and *stat3* sgRNA injected *Tg(rho:YFP Eco. NfsB)gmc500* larvae were

treated with Mtz at 5 dpf and subsequently rod cell loss or regeneration was measured at 7 dpf

and 9 dpf, respectively, using the ARQiv system, as previously described [38].

Competing Interests
JSM holds patents for the NTR inducible cell ablation system (US #7,514,595) and uses thereof
(US #8,071,838 and US#8431768).
842

References

1. Too, L. K. & Simunovic, M. P. Retinal Stem/Progenitor Cells Derived From Adult Müller

Glia for the Treatment of Retinal Degeneration. *Front. Cell Dev. Biol.* **9**, 749131 (2021).

2. Lahne, M., Nagashima, M., Hyde, D. R. & Hitchcock, P. F. Reprogramming Müller Glia to

Regenerate Retinal Neurons. *Annu. Rev. Vis. Sci.* **6**, 171–193 (2020).

3. Lenkowski, J. R. & Raymond, P. A. Müller glia: Stem cells for generation and regeneration

of retinal neurons in teleost fish. *Prog. Retin. Eye Res.* **40**, 94–123 (2014).

4. Ueki, Y. *et al.* Transgenic expression of the proneural transcription factor Ascl1 in Müller

glia stimulates retinal regeneration in young mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **112**,

13717–13722 (2015).

5. Jorstad, N. L. *et al.* Stimulation of functional neuronal regeneration from Müller glia in adult

mice. *Nature* **548**, 103–107 (2017).

6. Jorstad, N. L. *et al.* STAT Signaling Modifies Ascl1 Chromatin Binding and Limits Neural

Regeneration from Muller Glia in Adult Mouse Retina. *Cell Rep.* **30**, 2195-2208.e5 (2020).

7. Todd, L. *et al.* Efficient stimulation of retinal regeneration from Müller glia in adult mice

using combinations of proneural bHLH transcription factors. *Cell Rep.* **37**, 109857 (2021).

8. Yao, K. *et al.* Wnt regulates proliferation and neurogenic potential of Müller glial cells

through a Lin28/let-7 miRNA-dependent pathway in adult mammalian retina. *Cell Rep.* **17**,

165–178 (2016).

9. Goldman, D. Müller glial cell reprogramming and retina regeneration. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*

15, 431–442 (2014).

10. Gorsuch, R. a & Hyde, D. R. Regulation of Müller glial dependent neuronal regeneration in

the damaged adult zebrafish retina. *Exp. Eye Res.* **123**, 131–40 (2014).

11. Elsaeidi, F. *et al.* Notch suppression collaborates with Ascl1 and Lin28 to unleash a

regenerative response in fish retina, but not in mice. *J. Neurosci.* (2018)

doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2126-17.2018.

12. Lahne, M., Brecker, M., Jones, S. E. & Hyde, D. R. The Regenerating Adult Zebrafish

Retina Recapitulates Developmental Fate Specification Programs. *Front. Cell Dev. Biol.* **8**,

617923 (2020).

13. Fraser, B., DuVal, M. G., Wang, H. & Allison, W. T. Regeneration of Cone Photoreceptors

when Cell Ablation Is Primarily Restricted to a Particular Cone Subtype. *PLoS ONE* (2013)

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0055410.

14. D'Orazi, F. D., Suzuki, S. C., Darling, N., Wong, R. O. & Yoshimatsu, T. Conditional and

biased regeneration of cone photoreceptor types in the zebrafish retina. *J. Comp. Neurol.*

(2020) doi:10.1002/cne.24933.

15. Ng Chi Kei, J., Currie, P. D. & Jusuf, P. R. Fate bias during neural regeneration adjusts

dynamically without recapitulating developmental fate progression. *Neural Develop.* (2017)

doi:10.1186/s13064-017-0089-y.

16. DuVal, M. G. & Allison, W. T. Impacts of the retinal environment and photoreceptor type on

functional regeneration. *Neural Regeneration Research* Preprint at

https://doi.org/10.4103/1673-5374.202930 (2017).

17. Braisted, J. E., Essman, T. F. & Raymond, P. a. Selective regeneration of photoreceptors in

goldfish retina. *Dev. Camb. Engl.* **120**, 2409–19 (1994).

18. Vihtelic, T. S. & Hyde, D. R. Light-Induced Rod and Cone Cell Death and Regeneration in

the Adult albino Zebrafish (Danio rerio) Retina ABSTRACT : (2000).

19. Thomas, J. L., Nelson, C. M., Luo, X., Hyde, D. R. & Thummel, R. Characterization of

multiple light damage paradigms reveals regional differences in photoreceptor loss. *Exp. Eye*

Res. (2012) doi:10.1016/j.exer.2012.02.004.

20. Thomas, J. L. & Thummel, R. A novel light damage paradigm for use in retinal regeneration

studies in adult zebrafish. *J. Vis. Exp. JoVE* (2013).

21. Maier, W. & Wolburg, H. Regeneration of the Goldfish Retina After Exposure to Different

Doses of Ouabain. *Cell Tissue Res.* **118**, 99–118 (1979).

22. Fimbel, S. M., Montgomery, J. E., Burket, C. T. & Hyde, D. R. Regeneration of inner retinal

neurons after intravitreal injection of ouabain in zebrafish. *J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci.*

27, 1712–24 (2007).

23. Hitchcock, P. F., Lindsey Myhr, K. J., Easter, S. S., Mangione-Smith, R. & Jones, D. D.

Local regeneration in the retina of the goldfish. *J. Neurobiol.* **23**, 187–203 (1992).

24. Cameron, D. a & Easter, S. S. Cone photoreceptor regeneration in adult fish retina:

phenotypic determination and mosaic pattern formation. *J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci.*

15, 2255–71 (1995).

25. Johns, P. R. & Fernald, R. D. Genesis of rods in teleost fish retina. *Nature* (1981)

doi:10.1038/293141a0.

26. Raymond, P. A. & Rivlin, P. K. Germinal cells in the goldfish retina that produce rod

photoreceptors. *Dev. Biol.* (1987) doi:10.1016/0012-1606(87)90338-1.

27. Wu, D. M. *et al.* Cones regenerate from retinal stem cells sequestered in the inner nuclear

layer of adult goldfish retina. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **42**, 2115–24 (2001).

28. Hitchcock, P. F. & Raymond, P. A. The Teleost Retina as a Model for Developmental and

Regeneration Biology. *Zebrafish* (2004) doi:10.1089/zeb.2004.1.257.

29. Hoang, T. *et al.* Gene regulatory networks controlling vertebrate retinal regeneration. *Science*

370, (2020).

30. Jorstad, N. L. *et al.* Stimulation of functional neuronal regeneration from Müller glia in adult

mice. *Nature* (2017) doi:10.1038/nature23283.

31. Anlezark, G. M. *et al.* The bioactivation of 5-(aziridin-1-yl)-2,4-dinitrobenzamide (CB1954)-

-I. Purification and properties of a nitroreductase enzyme from Escherichia coli--a potential

enzyme for antibody-directed enzyme prodrug therapy (ADEPT). *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **44**,

2289–95 (1992).

32. Knox, R. J., Friedlos, F., Sherwood, R. F., Melton, R. G. & Anlezark, G. M. The

bioactivation of 5-(aziridin-1-yl)-2,4-dinitrobenzamide (CB1954)--II. A comparison of an

Escherichia coli nitroreductase and Walker DT diaphorase. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **44**, 2297–

301 (1992).

33. Sunters, A., Baer, J. & Bagshawe, K. D. Cytotoxicity and activation of CB1954 in a human

tumour cell line. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **41**, 1293–8 (1991).

34. Williams, E. M. *et al.* Nitroreductase gene-directed enzyme prodrug therapy: insights and

advances toward clinical utility. *Biochem. J.* **471**, 131–153 (2015).

35. Bridgewater, J. A. *et al.* Expression of the bacterial nitroreductase enzyme in mammalian

cells renders them selectively sensitive to killing by the prodrug CB1954. *Eur. J. Cancer*

Oxf. Engl. 1990 **31A**, 2362–2370 (1995).

36. White, D. T. & Mumm, J. S. The nitroreductase system of inducible targeted ablation

facilitates cell-specific regenerative studies in zebrafish. *Methods* **62**, 232–240 (2013).

37. Mathias, J. R., Zhang, Z., Saxena, M. T. & Mumm, J. S. Enhanced cell-specific ablation in

zebrafish using a triple mutant of escherichia coli nitroreductase. *Zebrafish* (2014)

doi:10.1089/zeb.2013.0937.

38. White, D. T. *et al.* Immunomodulation-accelerated neuronal regeneration following selective

rod photoreceptor cell ablation in the zebrafish retina. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* (2017)

doi:10.1073/pnas.1617721114.

39. White, D. T. *et al.* ARQiv-HTS, a versatile whole-organism screening platform enabling in

vivo drug discovery at high-throughput rates. *Nat. Protoc.* **11**, 2432–2453 (2016).

40. Zhang, L. *et al.* Large-scale phenotypic drug screen identifies neuroprotectants in zebrafish

and mouse models of retinitis pigmentosa. *eLife* **10**, e57245 (2021).

41. Sharrock, A. V. *et al.* NTR 2.0: a rationally engineered prodrug-converting enzyme with

substantially enhanced efficacy for targeted cell ablation. *Nat. Methods* **19**, 205–215 (2022).

42. Curado, S. *et al.* Conditional targeted cell ablation in zebrafish: A new tool for regeneration

studies. *Dev. Dyn.* (2007) doi:10.1002/dvdy.21100.

43. Pisharath, H., Rhee, J. M., Swanson, M. a, Leach, S. D. & Parsons, M. J. Targeted ablation

of beta cells in the embryonic zebrafish pancreas using E. coli nitroreductase. *Mech. Dev.*

124, 218–29 (2007).

44. Ariga, J., Walker, S. L. & Mumm, J. S. Multicolor time-lapse imaging of transgenic

zebrafish: visualizing retinal stem cells activated by targeted neuronal cell ablation. *J. Vis.*

Exp. JoVE 2–7 (2010) doi:10.3791/2093.

45. Walker, S. L. *et al.* Automated reporter quantification in vivo: High-throughput screening

method for reporter-based assays in zebrafish. *PLoS ONE* **7**, e29916 (2012).

46. Perkins, B. D. Zebrafish models of inherited retinal dystrophies. *J. Transl. Genet. Genomics*

6, 95–110 (2022).

47. Schroeter, E. H., Wong, R. O. L. & Gregg, R. G. In vivo development of retinal ON-bipolar

cell axonal terminals visualized in nyx::MYFP transgenic zebrafish. *Vis. Neurosci.* **23**, 833–

43 (2006).

48. Hamaoka, T., Takechi, M., Chinen, A., Nishiwaki, Y. & Kawamura, S. Visualization of rod

photoreceptor development using GFP-transgenic zebrafish. *Genesis* **34**, 215–20 (2002).

49. Schmitt, E. A. & Dowling, J. E. Comparison of topographical patterns of ganglion and

photoreceptor cell differentiation in the retina of the zebrafish, Danio rerio. *J. Comp. Neurol.*

(1996) doi:10.1002/(SICI)1096-9861(19960722)371:2<222::AID-CNE3>3.0.CO;2-4.

50. Larison, K. D. & Bremiller, R. Early onset of phenotype and cell patterning in the embryonic

zebrafish retina. *Development* (1990).

51. Vihtelic, T. S., Doro, C. J. & Hyde, D. R. Cloning and characterization of six zebrafish

photoreceptor opsin cDNAs and immunolocalization of their corresponding proteins. *Vis.*

Neurosci. (1999) doi:10.1017/S0952523899163168.

52. Gavrieli, Y., Sherman, Y. & Ben-Sasson, S. A. Identification of programmed cell death in

situ via specific labeling of nuclear DNA fragmentation. *J. Cell Biol.* (1992)

doi:10.1083/jcb.119.3.493.

53. Montgomery, J. E., Parsons, M. J. & Hyde, D. R. A novel model of retinal ablation

demonstrates that the extent of rod cell death regulates the origin of the regenerated zebrafish

rod photoreceptors. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **518**, 800–814 (2010).

54. Meyers, J. R. *et al.* β-catenin/Wnt signaling controls progenitor fate in the developing and

regenerating zebrafish retina. *Neural Develop.* **7**, 30 (2012).

55. Smith, C. J. & Osborn, A. M. Advantages and limitations of quantitative PCR (Q-PCR)-

based approaches in microbial ecology. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* **67**, 6–20 (2009).

56. Ulgen, E., Ozisik, O. & Sezerman, O. U. pathfindR: An R Package for Comprehensive

Identification of Enriched Pathways in Omics Data Through Active Subnetworks. *Front.*

Genet. **10**, 858 (2019).

57. Emmerich, K. B. *et al.* Dendrimer-targeted immunosuppression of microglia reactivity

super-accelerates photoreceptor regeneration in the zebrafish retina. *bioRxiv*

2020.08.05.238352 (2021) doi:10.1101/2020.08.05.238352.

58. Fausett, B. V., Gumerson, J. D. & Goldman, D. The proneural basic helix-loop-helix gene

Ascl1a is required for retina regeneration. *J. Neurosci.* (2008)

doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4853-07.2008.

59. Gorsuch, R. A. *et al.* Sox2 regulates Müller glia reprogramming and proliferation in the

regenerating zebrafish retina via Lin28 and Ascl1a. *Exp. Eye Res.* (2017)

doi:10.1016/j.exer.2017.05.012.

60. Nelson, C. M. *et al.* Stat3 defines three populations of müller glia and is required for

initiating maximal müller glia proliferation in the regenerating zebrafish retina. *J. Comp.*

Neurol. (2012) doi:10.1002/cne.23213.

61. Dryja, T. P. *et al.* A point mutation of the rhodopsin gene in one form of retinitis pigmentosa.

Nature (1990) doi:10.1038/343364a0.

62. Powell, C., Cornblath, E., Elsaeidi, F., Wan, J. & Goldman, D. Zebrafish Müller glia-derived

progenitors are multipotent, exhibit proliferative biases and regenerate excess neurons. *Sci.*

Rep. **6**, 24851 (2016).

63. Xiao, D. *et al.* Directed robust generation of functional retinal ganglion cells from Müller

glia. *bioRxiv* 735357 (2019) doi:10.1101/735357.

64. Todd, L. *et al.* Reprogramming Müller glia to regenerate ganglion-like cells in adult mouse

retina with developmental transcription factors. *Sci. Adv.* **8**, eabq7219 (2022).

65. Sifuentes, C. J., Kim, J. W., Swaroop, A. & Raymond, P. A. Rapid, dynamic activation of

Müller Glial stem cell responses in Zebrafish. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* **57**, 5148–5160

(2016).

66. Morris, A. C., Forbes-Osborne, M. A., Pillai, L. S. & Fadool, J. M. Microarray analysis of

XOPS-mCFP zebrafish retina identifies genes associated with rod photoreceptor

degeneration and regeneration. *Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* (2011) doi:10.1167/iovs.10-

6022.

67. Yurco, P. & Cameron, D. A. Cellular correlates of proneural and notch-delta gene expression

in the regenerating zebrafish retina. *Vis. Neurosci.* **24**, 437–443 (2007).

68. Kassen, S. C. *et al.* Time course analysis of gene expression during light-induced

photoreceptor cell death and regeneration in albino zebrafish. *Dev. Neurobiol.* (2007)

doi:10.1002/dneu.20362.

69. Ramachandran, R., Zhao, X.-F. & Goldman, D. Insm1a-mediated gene repression is essential

for the formation and differentiation of Müller glia-derived progenitors in the injured retina.

Nat. Cell Biol. **14**, 1013–1023 (2012).

70. Cameron, D. A., Gentile, K. L., Middleton, F. A. & Yurco, P. Gene expression profiles of

intact and regenerating zebrafish retina. *Mol. Vis.* **11**, 775–791 (2005).

71. Sahu, A., Devi, S., Jui, J. & Goldman, D. Notch signaling via Hey1 and Id2b regulates

Müller glia's regenerative response to retinal injury. *Glia* **69**, 2882–2898 (2021).

72. Zhang, Z. *et al.* Inflammation-induced mammalian target of rapamycin signaling is essential

for retina regeneration. *Glia* **68**, 111–127 (2020).

73. Jeong, E. M. *et al.* Real-Time Monitoring of Glutathione in Living Cells Reveals that High

Glutathione Levels Are Required to Maintain Stem Cell Function. *Stem Cell Rep.* **10**, 600–

614 (2018).

74. Ludikhuize, M. C. & Rodríguez Colman, M. J. Metabolic Regulation of Stem Cells and

Differentiation: A Forkhead Box O Transcription Factor Perspective. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.*

34, 1004–1024 (2021).

75. Ogrodnik, M. *et al.* Obesity-Induced Cellular Senescence Drives Anxiety and Impairs

Neurogenesis. *Cell Metab.* **29**, 1233 (2019).

76. Saul, K. E., Koke, J. R. & García, D. M. Activating transcription factor 3 (ATF3) expression

in the neural retina and optic nerve of zebrafish during optic nerve regeneration. *Comp.*

Biochem. Physiol. A. Mol. Integr. Physiol. **155**, 172–182 (2010).

77. Nakajima, K. *et al.* A central role for Stat3 in IL-6-induced regulation of growth and

differentiation in M1 leukemia cells. *EMBO J.* (1996) doi:10.1002/j.1460-

2075.1996.tb00734.x.

78. Luzio, A. *et al.* Effects of short-term exposure to genistein and overfeeding diet on the neural

and retinal progenitor competence of adult zebrafish (Danio rerio). *Neurotoxicol. Teratol.* **88**,

107030 (2021).

79. Hagemeyer, N. & Prinz, M. Burning down the house: IRF7 makes the difference for

microglia. *EMBO J.* **33**, 2885–2886 (2014).

80. Cohen, M. *et al.* Chronic exposure to TGFβ1 regulates myeloid cell inflammatory response

in an IRF7-dependent manner. *EMBO J.* **33**, 2906–2921 (2014).

81. Fukada, T. STAT3 orchestrates contradictory signals in cytokine-induced G1 to S cell-cycle

transition. *EMBO J.* (1998) doi:10.1093/emboj/17.22.6670.

82. Yamashita, S. *et al.* Stat3 controls cell movements during zebrafish gastrulation. *Dev. Cell*

(2002) doi:10.1016/S1534-5807(02)00126-0.

83. Avalle, L., Pensa, S., Regis, G., Novelli, F. & Poli, V. STAT1 and STAT3 in tumorigenesis:

A matter of balance. *JAK-STAT* (2012) doi:10.4161/jkst.20045.

84. Hutchins, A. P., Diez, D. & Miranda-Saavedra, D. The IL-10/STAT3-mediated anti-

inflammatory response: Recent developments and future challenges. *Brief. Funct. Genomics*

(2013) doi:10.1093/bfgp/elt028.

85. Carballo, M. *et al.* Oxidative stress triggers STAT3 tyrosine phosphorylation and nuclear

translocation in human lymphocytes. *J. Biol. Chem.* (1999) doi:10.1074/jbc.274.25.17580.

86. Zhao, Q. *et al.* MLKL inhibits intestinal tumorigenesis by suppressing STAT3 signaling

pathway. *Int. J. Biol. Sci.* **17**, 869–881 (2021).

87. Zhao, Q. *et al.* RIPK3 Suppresses the Progression of Spontaneous Intestinal Tumorigenesis.

Front. Oncol. **11**, 664927 (2021).

88. Smith, A. D. *et al.* Autocrine IL6-mediated activation of the STAT3-DNMT axis silences the

TNFα-RIP1 necroptosis pathway to sustain survival and accumulation of myeloid-derived

suppressor cells. *Cancer Res.* **80**, 3145–3156 (2020).

89. Jiang, L. *et al.* Long non-coding RNA RP11-468E2.5 curtails colorectal cancer cell

proliferation and stimulates apoptosis via the JAK/STAT signaling pathway by targeting

STAT5 and STAT6. *J. Exp. Clin. Cancer Res. CR* **38**, 465 (2019).

90. Thanasaksiri, K., Hirono, I. & Kondo, H. Identification and expression analysis of

suppressors of cytokine signaling (SOCS) of Japanese flounder Paralichthys olivaceus. *Fish*

Shellfish Immunol. (2016) doi:10.1016/j.fsi.2016.09.018.

91. Liang, J. *et al.* The stat3/socs3a pathway is a key regulator of hair cell regeneration in

zebrafish stat3/socs3a pathway: Regulator of hair cell regeneration. *J. Neurosci.* (2012)

doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5785-10.2012.

92. Khaliq, M. *et al.* Stat 3 regulates liver progenitor cell-driven liver regeneration in zebrafish.

Gene Expr. (2018) doi:10.3727/105221618X15242506133273.

93. Köster, R. W. & Fraser, S. E. Tracing transgene expression in living zebrafish embryos. *Dev.*

Biol. **233**, 329–46 (2001).

94. Bech-Hansen, N. T. *et al.* Mutations in NYX, encoding the leucine-rich proteoglycan

nyctalopin, cause X-linked complete congenital stationary night blindness. *Nat. Genet.*

(2000) doi:10.1038/81619.

95. Pusch, C. M. *et al.* The complete form of X-linked congenital stationary night blindness is

caused by mutations in a gene encoding a leucine-rich repeat protein. *Nat. Genet.* (2000)

doi:10.1038/81627.

96. Davison, J. M. *et al.* Transactivation from Gal4-VP16 transgenic insertions for tissue-

specific cell labeling and ablation in zebrafish. *Dev. Biol.* **304**, 811–24 (2007).

97. Godinho, L. *et al.* Targeting of amacrine cell neurites to appropriate synaptic laminae in the

developing zebrafish retina. *Development* **132**, 5069–79 (2005).

98. D'Agati, G. *et al.* A defect in the mitochondrial protein Mpv17 underlies the transparent

casper zebrafish. *Dev. Biol.* **430**, 11–17 (2017).

99. Ren, J. Q., McCarthy, W. R., Zhang, H., Adolph, A. R. & Li, L. Behavioral visual responses

of wild-type and hypopigmented zebrafish. *Vision Res.* **42**, 293–9 (2002).

100.   Mumm, J. S. *et al.* In vivo imaging reveals dendritic targeting of laminated afferents by

zebrafish retinal ganglion cells. *Neuron* **52**, 609–21 (2006).

101.   Schroeder, A. *et al.* The RIN: an RNA integrity number for assigning integrity values to

RNA measurements. *BMC Mol. Biol.* **7**, 3 (2006).

102.   Reimers, M. & Carey, V. J. [8] Bioconductor: An Open Source Framework for

Bioinformatics and Computational Biology. *Methods in Enzymology* Preprint at

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879(06)11008-3 (2006).

103.   Diboun, I., Wernisch, L., Orengo, C. A. & Koltzenburg, M. Microarray analysis after

RNA amplification can detect pronounced differences in gene expression using limma. *BMC*

Genomics (2006) doi:10.1186/1471-2164-7-252.

104.   Rainer, J., Sanchez-Cabo, F., Stocker, G., Sturn, A. & Trajanoski, Z. CARMAweb:

Comprehensive R- and bioconductor-based web service for microarray data analysis. *Nucleic*

Acids Res. (2006) doi:10.1093/nar/gkl038.

105.   Hochreiter, S., Clevert, D. A. & Obermayer, K. A new summarization method for

affymetrix probe level data. *Bioinformatics* (2006) doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btl033.

106.   Freue, G. V. C. *et al.* MDQC: A new quality assessment method for microarrays based on

quality control reports. *Bioinformatics* (2007) doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btm487.

107.   Wu, R. S. *et al.* A Rapid Method for Directed Gene Knockout for Screening in G0

Zebrafish. *Dev. Cell* **46**, 112-125.e4 (2018).

1109

1110