Failure to resolve inflammation contributes to juvenile onset cardiac damage in a mouse

model of Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy

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Abstract

Absence of dystrophin protein causes cardiac dysfunction in patients with Duchenne muscular

dystrophy (DMD). Unlike boys with DMD, the common mouse model of DMD (B10-*mdx*) does

not manifest cardiac deficits until late adulthood. This has limited our understanding of the

mechanism and therapeutic approaches to target the pediatric onset of cardiac pathology in

DMD. Here we show that the *mdx* mouse model on the DBA/2J genetic background (D2-*mdx*)

displays juvenile-onset cardiac degeneration. Molecular and histological analysis revealed that

cardiac damage in this model is linked to increased leukocyte chemotactic signaling and an

inability to resolve inflammation. These deficiencies result in chronic inflammation and fibrotic

conversion of the extracellular matrix (ECM) in the juvenile D2-mdx heart. To address these

pathologies, we tested the utility of pro-resolution therapy to clear chronic cardiac inflammation.

Use of an N-formyl peptide receptor (FPR) agonist helped physiologically resolve inflammation

and mitigate the downstream events that lead to fibrotic degeneration of cardiomyocytes,

preventing juvenile onset cardiac muscle loss. These results establish the utility of D2-*mdx*

model to study events associated with pediatric-onset cardiac damage and demonstrates pro-

resolution therapy as an alternate to anti-inflammatory therapy for treating cardiac degenerative

pathology responsible for cardiomyopathy in DMD patients.

Introduction

Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD) is a severe and progressive muscle disease caused

by the absence of dystrophin protein[1, 2, 3, 4]. Dystrophin plays a crucial role in maintaining the

integrity of the sarcolemmal membrane by facilitating the assembly and function of the

dystrophin-associated protein complex, thus its absence renders skeletal muscle cells more

susceptible to mechanical damage, and increased muscle degeneration[5, 6, 7]. Dystrophin

deficiency in cardiomyocytes also increases their vulnerability to sarcolemmal damage, cell

death, chronic inflammation and cardiac fibrosis. These pathologies also manifest in patients

and lead to the thinning of the left ventricle (LV) wall, causing their progressive dilation and

dilated cardiomyopathy that results in heart failure[4, 8].

Patients with DMD experience symptoms early in life, with cardiac deficits being a major

contributor to premature mortality not only in DMD, but also in DMD carriers and in Becker

Muscular Dystrophy (BMD)[9, 10, 11]. While the common B10-*mdx* model exhibits skeletal

myopathy at an early age, the cardiac deficit is not evident until late adulthood[12, 13]. The advent

of the D2-*mdx* model identified greater disease severity and fibrosis as compared to B10-*mdx*

even in younger mice[14, 15, 16, 17]. Excess skeletal muscle fibrosis in the D2-*mdx* model, results

from an increase in transforming growth factor beta (TGFβ) signaling, and cardiac deficit is

reported as early as adulthood (16-weeks of age)[17, 18, 19].

While therapeutic approaches to address cardiac deficit in patients with dystrophin

deficiency are a topic of active investigation, anti-inflammatory glucocorticoids (GCs),

angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEi), and angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs), are

commonly used for these patients[11, 20, 21, 22]. Anti-inflammatory therapy by GC has the longest

history of use in DMD patients and has mixed reports of cardiac benefit and side effect in both

DMD patients and mouse models[23, 24, 25, 26, 27]. An anti-inflammatory protein activated by GCs

that mediates the GC efficacy is Annexin A1 (AnxA1)[28, 29]. Independent of its widely known role

in membrane fusion, AnxA1 is required for muscle repair by regulating inflammation by way of

Formyl Peptide Receptor (FPR)-mediated signaling[30, 31]. In this regard, AnxA1 works similarly to

the endogenous pro-resolving lipid mediators Lipoxin A4, and Resolvin D1 by helping resolve

acute inflammation by binding the FPRs[29, 32]. This feature of AnxA1 has led to the advent of

natural and synthetic agonists of FPR2, that unlike GCs, reduce inflammation by promoting

resolution of inflammation instead of suppressing the tissue's inflammatory response[33].

Use of FPR2-agonists reduces acute cardiac damage in various tissue injury models

including myocardial infarction, where it restricts premature heart failure and restores tissue

function[34, 35, 36, 37, 38]. Just as endogenous FPR2 agonists, a nanomolar dose of a synthetic

agonist BMS-986235 also resolves chronic inflammation in preclinical models, which has led to

its progress to clinical studies[38] (Clinical Trial NCT03335553). This drug activates macrophage

transition to a pro-resolving (M2-like) state by enhancing phagocytosis and neutrophil apoptosis,

that regulates their chemotaxis, all of which help improve mouse survival, reduce scarring, and

preserve tissue[38, 39]. These are desirable features of therapies to target cardiac inflammation

and fibrosis associated with the cardiac pathology observed in DMD patients.

To understand the early onset of cardiac dysfunction in the D2-*mdx* model, we investigated

the factors that distinguish the pediatric initiation of cardiac dysfunction as compared with the

late adult onset in B10-*mdx* model. This revealed onset of cardiac pathology in juvenile (< 6-

weeks old) D2-*mdx* mice, and showed this is associated with excessive immune infiltration,

fibrotic ECM replacement, and degenerative remodeling of cardiac ventricular walls. It identified

increased leukocyte chemotactic signaling and failure to resolve inflammation as major

contributors to the initiation of cardiac pathology. To address this deficit, we test a drug-based

pro-resolution therapy for a preclinical evaluation as a therapeutic approach to mitigate early-

onset cardiac damage in DMD mouse models and patients.

Methods.

Animals. All animal procedures were conducted following guidelines for the care and use of

laboratory animals as approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of

Children's National Research Institute (CNRI). The C57BL/10ScSn-DMD[mdx]/J (B10-*mdx*) and

D2.B10-DMD[mdx]/J mouse models of DMD were utilized for all experiments and both harbor the

same nonsense point mutation in exon 23 of the dystrophin (*Dmd*) gene thereby abolishing

dystrophin protein expression [40, 41]. The C57BL/10ScSn/J (B10-WT) and DBA2/J (D2-WT)

mouse models were used as age-matched, model-specific controls. Mice were obtained from

the Jackson Laboratory and were housed at the CNRI Comparative Medicine Unit where they

were provided daily monitoring, food, water and enrichment ad libitum, while being maintained

under 12 h light/dark cycles.

Tissue harvesting and sample collection. Mice were euthanized via CO_2 inhalation and

cervical dislocation at designated ages corresponding to specific stages of disease progression.

Muscles were surgically removed, mounted on cork with tragacanth gum, flash-frozen in liquid

nitrogen-chilled isopentane and stored at –80°C. For all assays, samples were collected from

matched regions of the same muscles by collecting cryosections (Leica CM1950 cryostat) for

RNA analyses or histology and immunostaining assays.

RNA extraction, RNA library preparation, RNA sequencing and bioinformatic analyses.

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol RNA isolation (Life Technologies) from frozen muscle

samples. RNA was purified using RNeasy mini elute columns (Qiagen) and DNAse treated

using Turbo DNA-free kit (Invitrogen). Purified, DNAse-treated RNA was quantified by

NanoDrop and quality was assessed using Qbit RNA Assays (Thermofisher) and BioAnalyzer

nano chips (Agilent) (RIN>7.8, Average 8.3±0.32). RNAseq library preparation and sequencing

was performed using the TruSeq mRNA stranded kit (Illumina) and the Illumina HiSeq4000 Flow

Cell with an average coverage of 63.05 million read pairs per sample at 2x75 base pair read

length. The quality of the raw fastq reads from sequencer were evaluated using FastQC version

0.11.5 followed by adapter and quality trimming using Trimgalore. STAR 2.5.3a was used to

map the reads to the reference mouse genome (GRCm38-mm10). The mapped reads were

counted using HTSeq (version v0.11.0) with a reference genomic feature file (Gene transfer

format, GTF). Overall analysis summary reports were analyzed using MultiQC v1.6. Differential

gene expression analysis was performed using default parameters with Deseq2 version 1.26 (R

3.6). Visualization was performed by PCA, pheatmap, EnhancedVolcano and ggplot2 R

packages. We set a threshold for log_2 fold change (Log_2FC) change of greater than an absolute

value of 0.6 to select for the genes with significant differential expression. Gene lists were

sorted by Log_2FC (highest to lowest) to obtain the ranked list of differentially expressed genes

and a p_{adj} value cutoff of 0.05 was used to assess statistical significance.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). DESeq2 pairwise comparison results were filtered for

0.6 log_2FC and 0.05 adjusted p_{adj} value and exported as tab delimited rank files (.rnk) files for

upload into the stand-alone desktop version of GSEA (v4.1.0). The GSEA pre-ranked analysis

was used with most default parameters except the following: the Ranked list = pairwise

comparison ".rnk" file, Gene sets database = "c5.bp.v7.4.symbols" (Hallmark gene sets, GO

biological processes, and gene symbols) and the Chip platform = "Mouse_Gene_Symbol_Re

mapping_to_Human_Orth ologs_MSigDB.v7.4.chip".

Gene ontology analysis with Cytoscape and EnrichmentMap. The GSEA pairwise

comparison results were uploaded into Cytoscape (v3.9.0) and analyzed using the

EnrichmentMap pipeline collection plugins (v1.1.0). Comparisons were loaded into

EnrichmentMap and the AutoAnnotate function was used with the MCL Cluster Annotation

algorithm set to 5 words. The results are networks of related GO terms that are grouped

together into a named network based on the most common works in each GO term within.

150 Autogenerated names of networks were renamed to fix grammar and nodes arranged to

151 improve legibility. The leading-edge genes for each cluster (node) from the immune and

152 extracellular matrix networks were exported for further analysis.

154 **Histology and histological analyses.** Frozen muscles were removed from -80°C cryostorage

155 and sectioned at an 8 μm thickness using a Leica CM1950 cryostat chilled to -20°C, where

156 tissues were then mounted on slides and stained using Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E), Alizarin

157 Red, Picosirius red, and Masson's Trichrome according to TREAT-NMD Standard Operating

158 Procedures (SOPs) [41]. Thresholding parameters were applied uniformly to whole cross-section

159 tiled images acquired on the Olympus VS120-S5 Virtual Slide Scanning System using CellSens

160 Version 1.13 and ImageJ FIJI Version 2.1./1.53c. For H&E-stained sections, areas of damage

161 were selected using CellSens and quantified as percent damaged tissue area per total cross-

162 sectional muscle area. For Alizarin Red stained sections, calcified areas were selected and

163 quantified using CellSens as percent calcified tissue area per total cross-sectional muscle area.

164 For Masson's Trichrome stained sections, areas of fibrosis were calculated using FIJI (Image J)

165 and reported as percent fibrosis per total cross-sectional muscle area [41].

167 **Immunofluorescence.** Frozen muscles were removed from -80°C cryostorage and sectioned

168 at an 8 μm thickness and mounted on slides for immunostaining procedures. Muscle sections

169 were stained with anti-F4/80 (1:100, MCA497R, Bio-Rad), anti-COL1A1 (1:100, ab21286,

170 Abcam), and anti-GAL-3 (1:100, ab76245, Abcam). First, muscle sections were fixed in ice-cold

171 PFA for 10 min, washed in PBS (0.1% Tween-20), and blocked for 1 h in PBS supplemented

172 with 10% goat serum (GeneTex), 0.1% Tween-20 (Sigma-Aldrich), and 10 mg/mL BSA (Sigma-

173 Aldrich). Then sections were incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C and

174 subsequently probed with Alexa Fluor secondary antibodies, including goat anti-rat (H+L) Alexa

Fluor 647 (1:500, A-21247, Thermo Fisher), goat anti-rabbit (H+L) Alexa Fluor 488 (1:500, A-

11008, Thermo Fisher), and goat anti-rabbit (H+L) Alexa Fluor 568 (1:500, A-11011, Thermo

Fisher). Sections were counterstained with wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) Alexafluor-647 (1:500,

W32466, Thermo Fisher) to delineate cardiomyocytes and ProLong Gold Antifade with DAPI

(P36935, Thermo Fisher) for nuclear staining.

Gene expression analysis. Hearts from juvenile and adult dystrophic mice were used to

perform gene expression analysis. In brief, total RNA was extracted from muscle samples by

standard TRIzol (Life Technologies) isolation. Purified RNA (1000ng) was reverse-transcribed

using Random Hexamers and High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). The mRNAs were then quantified using individual TaqMan assays on an ABI

QuantStudio 7 Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems) using TaqMan Fast Advanced

Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Specific mRNA transcript levels were quantified using

individual TaqMan assays (Thermo Fisher) specific for each mRNA target, including Ccl8

(Mm01297183_m1-FAM), Ccl3 (Mm00441259_g1_FAM-MGB), Ccl2 (Mm00441242_m1_FAM-

MGB), Il1b (Mm00434228_m1_FAM-MGB), Anxa1 (Mm00440225_m1_FAM-MGB), Lgals3

(Mm00802901_m1_FAM-MGB), Stab2 (Mm00454684_m1_FAM-MGB), Arg1

(Mm00475988_m1_FAM-MGB), Il7r (Mm00434295_m1_FAM-MGB), Adam8

(Mm01163449_g1_FAM-MGB), Trem2 (Mm04209424_g1_FAM-MGB), Fpr2

(Mm00484464_s1_FAM-MGB), Spp1 (Mm00436767_m1_FAM-MGB), Fn1

(Mm01256744_m1_FAM-MGB), Col1a1 (Mm00801666_g1_FAM-MGB), Itgax

(Mm00498701_m1_FAM-MGB), Mmp12 (Mm00500554_m1_FAM-MGB), and Timp1

(Mm01341361_m1_FAM-MGB). Gene expression for all mRNA targets was normalized to

internal Hprt mRNA transcript levels using Hrpt Taqman assay (Mm03024075_m1_VIC-MGB).

Pro-resolution preclinical drug trial. D2-*mdx* mice (18-19 days-old, n=6, males and females)

were treated daily with pro-resolving, FPR2 agonist BMS-986235 (6mg/kg, oral gavage; HY-

131180, MedChemExpress) for 3 weeks. Control D2-*mdx* mice were administered saline (18–

19-day-old, n=6, males and females) for 3 weeks. BMS-986235 was initially resuspended in

10% DMSO (Sigma) and 90% corn oil (Sigma), and further diluted in cherry syrup (NDC-0395-

2662-16, Humco) for oral gavage. After treatment, hearts were harvested, imaged, flash-frozen

in liquid nitrogen-chilled isopentane and stored at –80°C for molecular and histopathological

analyses.

Microscopy. We used Olympus VS120-S5 Virtual Slide Scanning System with UPlanSApo

40×/0.95 objective, Olympus XM10 monochrome camera, and Olympus VS-ASW FL 2.7

imaging software. Analysis was performed using Olympus CellSens 1.13 and ImageJ FIJI

Version 2.1./1.53c software (National Institutes of Health). Brightfield whole tissue imaging was

performed using Labomed Luxeo 6Z Digital HD Stereo Microscope with 10x/22mm objective

and camera system.

Statistics. GraphPad Prism 9.2.0 was used for all statistical analyses of data. Statistical

analysis was performed using non-parametric Mann-Whitney tests. Data normality was

assessed for all statistical comparisons. All p-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically

significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, and ****p < 0.0001. Data plots reported as scatter

plot with mean ± SD.

Results

D2-mdx model Exhibits Pediatric-Onset Cardiac Damage.

We have previously described the use of D2-*mdx* model of DMD to define mechanisms

contributing to pediatric-onset severe skeletal muscle degeneration [41, 42]. Here we observed

extensive pericardial damage of the ventricular wall in juvenile (<6-week-old) D2-*mdx* hearts

(**Fig. 1A**). In contrast, the age-matched milder DMD model, B10-*mdx*, did not demonstrate any

conspicuous histopathology (**Fig. 1B**). In D2-*mdx,* the histopathological damage extended to

both the right and the left ventricular walls (**Fig. 1C**). Use of Sirius Red staining revealed

extensive fibrosis, which manifests at notable levels in both the endomysium and perimysium of

the ventricular walls in D2-*mdx* (**Fig. 1D**). Whole tissue cross-sectional analysis of H&E and

Sirius Red stained hearts revealed increased cardiac wall damage and cardiomyocyte

degeneration (*p<0.001*) (**Fig. 1C, E, F**), and a concomitant increase in fibrosis (*p<0.05*) in the

juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts compared to age-matched B10-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 1D, G, H**). The extent

of damage in D2-*mdx* mice varied between the mice, reaching up to nearly 20% of total cardiac

muscle cross-sectional area in the most affected case (**Fig. 1E, F**). Reminiscent of the skeletal

muscle damage in D2-*mdx*, the cardiac muscle also exhibited increased calcification in

damaged areas, which was exclusive to juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts (**Supplemental Fig. 1**). With

mixed reports of cardiac pathology in older DBA2/J wildtype (D2-WT) hearts[43, 44], we assessed if

the juvenile-onset cardiac damage was also a feature of the juvenile D2-WT mice. Hearts from

juvenile D2-WT showed no signs of gross pathology and were comparable to the hearts from

the age-matched B10 wildtype (B10-WT) mice (**Supplemental Fig. 2A, B**). This was further

confirmed by the microscopic evaluation that showed absence of any endomysial or perimysial

fibrosis or calcification in the D2-WT hearts throughout the left and right ventricular walls

(**Supplemental Fig. 2C, D**). Overall, these histopathological analyses reveal early onset

spontaneous cardiac damage with significant fibro-calcification in the D2-*mdx*, offering a model

to investigate the mechanisms of pediatric-onset cardiac damage and accompanying

endomysial fibrosis observed in DMD.

Dysregulated inflammatory response characterize cardiac damage in juvenile D2-*mdx*

To identify the molecular alterations associated with the pediatric- versus adult-onset

cardiac damage caused by dystrophin deficit, we performed a comparative transcriptomic

analysis of hearts from D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* mice. Using bulk RNA sequencing we examined

genes that are differentially expressed (Log$_2$FC 0.6 and p$_{adj}$ value 0.05) between the 6-week-old

male B10-*mdx* and D2-*mdx* hearts. This identified a total of 5,344 differentially expressed genes

(DEGs) representing 22.3% of all protein-coding murine genes. Principal component analysis

(PCA) identified that gene expression profiles of D2-*mdx* hearts were distinctly segregated from

B10-*mdx* along both PC1 (72% variance) and PC2 (15% variance) axes (**Fig. 2A**). Intra- and

inter sample variability of DEGs by heatmap analysis of the top 2,719 DEGs revealed consistent

trends for both up- and down-regulated genes based on the genotype at disease onset, with

1,586 genes upregulated in D2-*mdx* and 1,133 genes upregulated in B10-*mdx* (**Fig. 2B**).

To identify the functions of the DEGs and assess how they may contribute to the observed

histopathology and functional deficit in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts, we performed Gene Set

Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) using our DESeq2 pairwise comparison results (0.6 log$_2$FC and

0.05 adjusted p-value), followed by gene ontology (GO) analysis using Cytoscape's

EnrichmentMap pipeline (**Fig. 2C**). GO EnrichmentMap analysis predominantly indicated that

upregulated DEGs in the juvenile D2-*mdx* fell within biological processes (BP) specific to

immune response and extracellular matrix organization and remodeling. These included GOBP

terms implicated in regulation of the inflammatory response, immune cell activation, leukocyte

chemotaxis and migration, and cytokine signaling (**Fig. 2C,** red clusters), as well as extracellular

matrix organization and disassembly, osteoblast differentiation, substrate adhesion and bone

remodeling, and overall tissue homeostasis (**Fig. 2C,** blue clusters). Outputs from GSEA

provided a comprehensive GO analysis of all upregulated and downregulated GOBP terms,

their respective normalized enrichment scores (NES), p-values, and enrichment plots identifying

alterations in inflammatory and extracellular matrix GOBPs have strongest positive enrichment

scores (ES) (**Supplemental Table 1**, **Supplemental Fig. 3**). The top 20 upregulated GOBP

terms identified dysregulation of the inflammatory response or extracellular matrix architecture

that included a total of 331 upregulated DEGs common between them (**Supplemental Table 2**).

This was validated by the quantification of the normalized expression for the top 20 most

upregulated DEGs specific to unique GOBPs such as inflammatory response (GO:0006954)

(**Fig. 2D**) and external encapsulating structure (extracellular matrix) organization (GO:0045229)

(**Fig. 2E**). The leading-edge genes identified increased expression of pro-inflammatory

chemokines, and components of fibrotic extracellular matrix remodeling as potential drivers of

overt pediatric-onset cardiac damage in the D2-*mdx* (**Figure 2, Supplementary Fig. 3**).

To independently validate the role of aberrant acute inflammatory response of granulocyte

and leukocyte chemotaxis by way of chemokine/cytokine signaling pathways, we examined

these genes by qPCR in an expanded (n = 9 D2-*mdx* and n = 7 B10-*mdx*) cohort of juvenile

mdx mice. This validated our findings from RNAseq analysis and confirmed significant

upregulation of macrophage-secreted pro-inflammatory C-C family chemokines, *Ccl3*

(macrophage inflammatory protein-1α) and *Ccl8* (monocyte chemoattractant protein-2), that

regulate neutrophil, monocyte and lymphocyte chemotaxis following acute tissue damage (**Fig.**

3A; *p<0.001*). Similarly, expression of *Il7r* (interleukin-7 receptor), that promotes neutrophil and

monocyte recruitment, was also found upregulated in D2-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 3A**; *p<0.001*), while,

expression of *Stab2* (stabilin-2), a macrophage-expressed phosphatidylserine (PS) surface

receptor that mediates phagocytosis and extracellular matrix remodeling during inflammation [45],

was also upregulated in D2-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 3A**; *p<0.001*). Expression of *Adam8* (a disintegrin

and metalloproteinase 8), that promotes release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and cell

adhesion molecules and degradation of extracellular matrix [46], was also highly overexpressed in

D2-*mdx* hearts in accordance with bulk RNAseq results (**Fig. 3A**; *p<0.001*). *Trem2* (triggering

receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2), which drives NF-kB signaling and production of pro-

inflammatory cytokines including IL-6 and TNFα [47], was also upregulated in juvenile D2-*mdx*

hearts (**Fig. 3A**; *p<0.01*).

With the abundant increase in inflammatory cell chemokines, we examined the abundance

of macrophages using the pan-macrophage marker F4/80. This confirmed extensive presence

of macrophages in the damaged regions in D2-*mdx* hearts, which is distinct from what is

observed in the B10-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 3C, D;** *top panels*). To assess the attributes of infiltrating

macrophages in the D2-*mdx* hearts, we next profiled transcript levels of *Il-1b* (interleukin-1b), a

pro-inflammatory macrophage marker, *Arg1* (arginase-1), a pro-regenerative macrophage

marker, and *Lgals3* (galectin-3), a pathogenic macrophage marker[48, 49]. While the inflammatory

and regenerative marker genes were increased by 3-, and 9-folds respectively in D2-*mdx*,

compared to B10-*mdx* hearts, the levels of pathogenic marker (*Lgals3*) was elevated by ~45-

fold (*p<0.001*) (**Fig. 3B**). To determine if the different genetic background may contribute to this

dysregulation we examined these transcripts in age-matched juvenile D2-WT and B10-WT

mice. This showed no influence of genetic background for *Adam8*, *Il1b*, *Lgals3*, and *Arg1*

between strains, and minimal impact on the expression of *Ccl3* (*p<0.01*), *Ccl8* (*p<0.01*), *Trem2*

(*p<0.01*), and *Il7r* (*p<0.05*) (**Supplemental Fig. 4A**). As our previous investigations have

revealed galectin-3 enriched macrophages as a driver of fibrotic degeneration of D2-*mdx*

skeletal muscles[50], we assessed the tissue localization and abundance galectin-3 protein (GAL-

3) in D2-*mdx*. This identified that GAL-3$^+$ macrophages were highly abundant and nearly

exclusively localized within the damaged regions of D2-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 3C**), while in

accordance with qPCR results, these pathogenic macrophages were absent in B10-*mdx* hearts

(**Fig. 3B**, **D**).

Increased expression of chemokines observed in these tissues explains the excess of

macrophages in D2-*mdx*. However, during acute injury, the inflammatory response is controlled

by a pro-resolving response that follows cytokine-mediated activation of inflammation and

involves activation of the G protein coupled receptors including Formyl peptide receptors

(FPRs). FPRs are activated by the endogenous ligands produced in response to tissue damage,

including lipids (Resolvin D1, Lipoxin A4) and protein (Annexin A1; AnxA1) that bind FPR1/2[51,

52, 53] and serve as the master switch at the site of damage that helps resolve the inflammation.

They do so by promoting macrophage skewing from pro- to anti-inflammatory fates and

regulating signaling pathways that help clear immune cell infiltration by activating their apoptosis

and non-phlogistic clearance as well [53, 54, 55, 56, 57]. To assess if the excessive inflammatory

responses in D2-*mdx* hearts is due to reduced FPR signaling, we examined the expression of

FPRs (*Fpr1*, *Fpr2*) and its ligand *Anxa1*. This revealed over 4-fold upregulation of FPRs (both

Fpr1 and *Fpr2*) expression in D2-*mdx* relative to B10-*mdx* heart, but no change in the

expression of *Anxa1* between D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* (**Fig. 3B**). These results validated the

findings from the previous cohort used for bulk RNAseq analysis (**Fig. 2, Supplementary Table**

1). Together, they suggest reduced activation of FPR signaling hinders resolution of

inflammation and may be a driver of the excessive inflammation seen in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts,

which in turn is linked to their fibro-degenerative state.

Fibrotic ECM remodeling drives early onset cardiac fibrosis in juvenile D2-*mdx*.

To evaluate the prominent upregulation of ECM remodeling pathways implicated by the

RNAseq analysis, we performed qPCR for multiple extracellular matrix-associated components

and remodeling enzymes identified by the analysis of our bulk RNAseq cohort. This validated

the observed upregulation of *Fn1 (*fibronectin; *p<0.01), Col1a1 (*collagen 1A; *p=0.0712), and*

Itgax (integrin alpha X; *p<0.001)* in D2-*mdx* hearts, relative to B10-*mdx* (**Fig. 4A**)*.* Assessment

of *Spp1* (osteopontin), a DMD genetic modifier that links inflammation to extracellular matrix

assembly and fibrosis [58, 59, 60, 61, 62] and macrophage-expressed matrix remodeling enzyme

*Mmp12 (*matrix metalloproteinase 12), both showed over 200-fold upregulation in D2-*mdx*

hearts, compared to B10-*mdx* (**Fig. 4A**). While other ECM regulator and structural components

including *Timp1 (*TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 1)*, Itgax*, *Fn1*, and *Col1a1* showed between 4-

40-fold upregulation in D2-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 4A**). These validate the findings from the bulk

RNAseq cohort and implicate a nexus of inflammatory-ECM dysregulation in pediatric-onset

cardiac pathogenesis in the D2-*mdx*. To monitor the sites of fibrosis in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts,

we immunostained heart cross-sections for COL1A1 and co-stained with wheat germ agglutinin

(WGA), which showed dense COL1A1 expression in D2-*mdx* in the damaged regions along the

RV wall and throughout the endomysium (**Fig. 4B, B'**), while endomysial COL1A1 staining in

B10-*mdx* counterparts was minimal in comparison (**Fig. 4C, C'**). To address the influence of

genetic background on the above findings, we assessed expression in D2-WT and B10-WT

hearts, which indicated no genotype-related differences in the expression of *Fn1*, *Col1a1*, *Itgax*,

or *Timp1*, and a comparatively modest increases in the expression of *Spp1* ($p<0.01$) and

Mmp12 ($p<0.01$) in D2-WT hearts, relative to B10-WT (**Supplemental Fig. 4B**), when compared

to differences between mdx strains (**Fig. 4A**). This identified the site and composition of the

fibrotic ECM in the D2-*mdx* heart. It also highlighted the potential of targeting the aberrant pro-

inflammatory response to attenuate fibrotic cardiac degeneration of the D2-*mdx* dystrophic

heart.

Activation of pro-resolving FPR signaling prevents cardiac damage in D2-*mdx* hearts.

The above findings link inflammation and cardiac fibrosis in D2-*mdx*. With mixed success of

corticosteroid use in treating this in heart by dampening inflammation, coupled with our findings

of poor activation of pro-resolving FPR signaling, we hypothesized use of FPR-targeting therapy

may resolve the chronic inflammation, without blocking acute inflammation required for the

reparative ability of the injured tissue[63, 64] (**Fig. 5A**).

To assess the benefit of a pro-resolving FPR-agonist therapy for pediatric-onset cardiac

pathology in D2-*mdx*, we tested use of the synthetic FPR agonist BMS-986235 versus saline (n

= 6 animals/cohort). Mice were orally dosed with drug beginning at 2.5-weeks of age (just prior

to the onset of cardiac pathology) and were maintained on drug (or saline) till 6-weeks of age

when tissues were harvested for further analysis (**Fig. 5B**). Analysis of histopathology of the

cardiac tissue cross-section revealed a clear lack of fibro-calcified damaged areas along the RV

and LV walls in drug-treated hearts, compared to saline controls (**Fig. 5C**). Histological analyses

performed by H&E staining, confirmed this observed therapeutic effect with some of the drug-

treated hearts showing only small and discrete areas of damage within the RV wall, and the rest

lacked any signs of damage or inflammation altogether, while the saline-treated mice showed

extensive cardiac damage (**Fig. 5D**). To further assess this impact of pro-resolving therapy on

inflammation and extracellular matrix remodeling in D2-*mdx* hearts, we immunostained tissue

cross-sections for macrophages, which confirmed the reduction in macrophage infiltration

through the heart and within and surrounding any small sites of damage that existed in our

treated cohort (**Fig. 5E**). This was in stark contrast to the heightened macrophage infiltration

both within and surrounding sites of damage in saline control hearts (**Fig. 5E**). Next, to more

directly assess fibrotic gene expression we immunostained these hearts for COL1A1 and found

the drug treatment also significantly reduced the COL1A1 expression throughout the heart,

when compared to the expression in the saline controls (**Fig. 5F**).

To assess the effect of acute BMS-986235 treatment on inflammation and extracellular

matrix remodeling pathways, we next performed targeted qPCR for both inflammatory- and

extracellular matrix remodeling-associated transcripts previously shown to be dysregulated in

D2-*mdx* hearts (**Fig. 2-4**). We found acute BMS-986235 treatment of juvenile D2-*mdx* mice

resulted in a significant reduction in the levels of inflammatory transcripts *Trem2*, *Lgals3*, and

Anxa1 (**Fig. 5G**), confirming the efficacy of this pro-resolving therapy to attenuate aberrant

inflammatory signaling via the FPR2-ANXA1 axis. Similarly, quantification of extracellular matrix

remodeling targets, *Spp1*, *Timp1,* and *Col1a1*, showed significant depletion of *Spp1* and *Timp1*

transcripts (**Fig. 5H**), and a trending reduction in *Col1a1* transcript levels (**Fig. 5H**) which aligns

with COL1A1 immunostaining results (**Fig. 5F**). Future chronic studies will be required to assess

the full benefit of chronic pro-resolving therapy to delay the onset and lessen the severity of

fibrotic cardiac degeneration with disease progression in older D2-*mdx* mice.

Discussion

While there has been a long-standing recognition of early-onset cardiac deficit and its lethal

consequences for boys with DMD, our experimental understanding of the molecular deficits and

preclinical interventions have been based on the use of adult mouse models. This is due to the

late onset of cardiac damage in the *mdx* mouse model. Our studies here introduce D2-*mdx* as a

model that manifests pediatric-onset cardiac damage. Histopathological analyses reveal early

onset spontaneous cardiac damage with significant fibro-calcification in the D2-*mdx* model,

offering an opportunity to investigate the mechanisms of pediatric-onset cardiac damage and

accompanying endomysial fibrosis observed in DMD.

Our studies here identify dysregulation of inflammatory and ECM remodeling as two such

pathological pathways. Next, we focused on harnessing underlying molecular pathways that

distinguish the cardiac deficit in D2-*mdx* model as compared to the adult-onset cardiac deficit

B10-*mdx* model. This analysis allowed distinguishing the differences driving the onset of mild

and severe cardiac muscle degeneration and cardiomyopathy independent of the

presence/absence of dystrophin protein. Such differences are reminiscent of the DMD patients,

who manifest varying level and severity of cardiomyopathy despite the lacking dystrophin

expression.

Our studies identify excessive inflammatory response that fails to resolve through FPR2-

mediated pro-resolving pathway prevents restoring the injured heart tissues to their uninflamed

state. While the infiltrating leukocytes are needed in damaged heart to clear the dead cells,

FPR2 and other mediators that repress inflammation are released leading to predominance of

anti-inflammatory cells - a response associated with activation of cardiac repair. We find that

this latter repressive response is poor, and that the excessive inflammatory signaling proceeds

via Spp1 and TGFβ pathway to activate downstream cardiac fibrosis and other degenerative

response. Activation of these profibrotic degenerative response have long been recognized as

a feature of the D2-*mdx* model[65] which we previously showed contributes to excessive skeletal

muscle pathology in the juvenile D2-*mdx* mice by suppression of skeletal muscle regeneration[41,

[42]. Unlike skeletal muscle, cardiac muscle does not undergo regeneration and our comparative

analysis of D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* identify cardiomyocyte degeneration due to chronic

inflammation and loss by way of fibro-calcified ECM. We observe the ventricular pericardium as

the region most affected by this damage, but this can progress to the atria as well (**Fig. 1**). This

variability in the affected region is in addition to the variability we observe in the severity of

cardiac damage between individual mice. This hints at a level of stochasticity in the

degeneration. We believe this may plausibly reflect the level of initial damage to the affected

heart, which is then amplified as the inflammation ensues becoming chronic.

We find chronic cardiac inflammation in D2-*mdx* is marked by higher level of activation of

inflammatory and immune response in part by higher expression of chemokines that attract

these immune cells (**Fig. 2, 3**). This inflammatory response involves accumulation of

Spp1(OPN)/*Lgals3*(GAL-3) expressing pathogenic macrophages that we recently identified by

single cell RNAseq analysis of the skeletal muscles from *mdx* mice[49]. Osteopontin secreted by

these macrophages promote skeletal muscle fibrosis by activating the stromal progenitors and

we suggest a similar mechanism may be in place following accumulation of these macrophage

in the damaged heart (**Fig. 3**). In support of this mechanism, we find these GAL-3^{+}

macrophages enriched in the same pericardial region that are enriched in COLA1 indicative of

active fibrosis (**Fig. 3**). The indication that this is an active phenomenon comes from the

concomitant enrichment of other ECM building (fibronectin) and degrading (TIMP/MMP)

components along with leukocyte attracting (CCCL3/8) and resolution (FPR1/2) signaling (**Fig.

2-4**). This dynamic indicated that there is a likely shift in the equilibrium of these two opposing -

inflammation building and resolving signals, and hence rebalancing this could provide a likely

beneficial effect for the affected region. This is in line with the fact that while acute inflammation

following tissue damage is essential for cardiac repair, chronic inflammation can be disruptive[66].

To address this ensuing imbalance of these two opposing inflammatory signaling we made use

of the pro-resolving therapy that unlike GCs, precisely targets the resolution of inflammation by

activating FPR2 signaling, but not blocking activation of inflammation by NFkb or related pro-

inflammatory pathways. This approach showed excellent promise such that a short (3 week)

treatment of juvenile D2-*mdx* mice allowed full resolution of inflammation and prevented any

subsequent fibrotic cardiac damage detected histologically as well as by way of aberrant

molecular signature including *Gal3*/*Spp1* macrophages and *Col1A1* and *Fn1* expressing stromal

cells (**Fig. 5**).

In summary, our studies introduce the D2-*mdx* as a model that manifests pediatric-onset

cardiac damage, which provides opportunities to investigate the drivers of early-onset

cardiomyopathy in DMD patients. We identified dysregulation of inflammatory and ECM

remodeling pathways as key contributors. Specifically, our findings highlight excessive and

unresolved inflammatory response involving pathogenic macrophages and neutrophils,

contributes to chronic inflammation and progressive cardiomyocyte degeneration and fibrotic

replacement in the D2-*mdx* model. Finally, our use of FPR2-targeting therapy provides a

potential therapeutic avenue to prevent or mitigate pediatric-onset cardiac pathologies in DMD.

Author Contributions. This study was conceived, and the experiments designed by JSN and

JKJ with inputs from all authors. RNAseq sample processing was conducted by JSN, RH, DAM,

and KP; bioinformatic analyses were performed by AL, PU, SB, ST, and VB. AL conducted

molecular analyses with help from YJM and ST. Histopathological analyses were conducted by

AL, RH, YJM, IHG, and GW. The manuscript was written by JSN, AL, and JKJ, and edited by all

authors. JKJ and JSN obtained funding and provided oversight for pursuit of the study.

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Competing interests. JKJ and JSN have filed a provisional intellectual property application

related to the findings reported in this manuscript. The authors have no other active or potential

competing or financial interests to declare.

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Figure 1. Histopathology associated with disease onset in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts.

Images show hearts harvested from juvenile (6 ± 0.5 wk) D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* mice at disease

onset. **A-B.** Whole tissue images with matched orientation of D2-*mdx* (**A**) and B10-*mdx* (**B**)

hearts showing ventricular and atrial fibro-calcified damage. **C-D.** Cross-sectional images of

juvenile D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts through the ventricular lumen, stained for histological

features by H&E (**C**), and for fibrosis by Sirius Red (**D**). Arrowheads mark areas of fibrosis. **E-F.**

Image (**E**) and quantification (**F**) showing a portion of heart cross-section from juvenile D2-*mdx*

and B10-*mdx* hearts, showing damaged tissue areas characterized by the presence of

interstitial fibrosis, inflammatory cells and damaged cardiomyocytes. **G-H.** Image (**G**) and

quantification (**H**) showing a portion of heart cross-section from juvenile D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx*

hearts labeled with Sirius Red to mark fibrotic tissue area in hearts from juvenile D2-*mdx* and

B10-*mdx* mice. Data represent mean ± SD from $n = 12$ hearts per cohort. Statistical analyses

performed using Mann Whitney U test; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.001$, ***$p < 0.001$. Refer to

Supplementary Fig. 1-2 for additional details.

Figure 2. RNAseq analysis at disease onset in D2-*mdx* and age-matched B10-*mdx* hearts.

Juvenile D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts at disease onset (6 wk ± 0.5 wk) were analyzed by bulk

tissue RNAseq. **A.** Dimensionality reduction of whole transcriptomic data via PCA (n=3-4

hearts/genotype) to assess sample clustering and inter-/intra-sample variance. **B.** Differential

gene expression analysis depicted via heatmap plot of 2,719 DEGs observed between D2-*mdx*

(blue) and B10-*mdx* (red), with 1,586 genes upregulated for D2-*mdx* and 1,133 genes

upregulated for B10-*mdx*. Expression is z-score values of variance-stabilizing transformation

(VST) normalized data. **C.** Gene Ontology (GO) analysis performed using Cytoscape and

EnrichmentMap plugins to identify networks of related GO terms groups found upregulated (red

dots) in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts relative to B10-*mdx.* Pink clusters refer to inflammatory-related

GO terms, while blue clusters refer to extracellular matrix-related GO terms. **D-E.** Boxplots

showing VST normalized gene expression levels for top 20 differentially expressed

inflammation-related (**D**; GOBP:Inflammatory Response) and extracellular matrix-related (**E**;

GOBP:External Encapsulating Structure) transcripts observed between juvenile D2-*mdx* and

B10-*mdx* hearts. Refer to Supplementary Fig. 3 for additional details.

Figure 3. Targeted analysis of inflammatory response at disease onset in D2-*mdx* B10-

mdx **hearts. A.** qRT-PCR analysis of a distinct cohort of D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts to assess

the expression of inflammatory genes identified by RNAseq analysis cohort to be differentially

expressed. Transcripts include top dysregulated genes involved in leukocyte activation,

migration and chemotaxis and regulation of inflammatory response and leukocyte-mediated

immunity (*Ccl3, Ccl8, Stab2, Adam8, Trem2, Il7r*). Relative gene expression values normalized

to internal *Hprt* transcript levels. **B.** qRT-PCR analysis of a distinct cohort of D2-*mdx* and B10-

mdx hearts to assess inflammatory genes that show broad dysregulation of neutrophil and

macrophage response in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts. Relative gene expression values normalized

to internal *Hprt* transcript levels. **C-D.** Images showing immunostaining for pan-macrophage

marker, F4/80 (green), and pro-inflammatory, pathogenic macrophage marker, GAL-3 (red), in

juvenile D2-*mdx* (**C**) and B10-*mdx* (**D**). Data represent mean $\pm$ SD from $n = 7\text{-}9$ hearts per

cohort. Statistical analyses performed using Mann Whitney U test; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.001$,

***$p < 0.001$. For age-matched WT controls, refer to Supplementary Fig. 4.

Figure 4. Targeted analysis of extracellular matrix remodeling response at disease onset in D2-*mdx* B10-*mdx* hearts. A. qRT-PCR analysis of a distinct cohort of D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts to assess the expression of extracellular matrix-associated genes involved in matrix organization/re-organization (*Fn1, Col1a1, Itgax, Spp1, Mmp12, Timp1)* that are identified to be dysregulated by the RNAseq cohort. Relative gene expression values normalized to internal *Hprt* transcript levels. **B-C.** Images showing extracellular matrix distribution visualized using wheat germ agglutinin (WGA, pink) within, and surrounding, areas of cardiac damage in juvenile

D2-*mdx* (**B**), and B10-*mdx* (**C**). **B'-C'.** Zoom of the dotted area from whole cross-sectional

images showing immunostaining for COL1A1 within the extracellular matrix shows increased

COL1A1 expression in damaged D2-*mdx* hearts (**B'**), relative to B10-*mdx* (**C'**), indicative of

early-onset endomysial fibrosis. Data represent mean ± SD from $n = 7$-9 hearts per cohort.

Statistical analyses performed using Mann Whitney U test; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.001$, ***$p < 0.001$.

For age-matched WT controls, refer to Supplementary Fig. 4.

Figure 5. Pro-resolving therapy to mitigate cardiac disease onset in juvenile D2-*mdx*. A.

Schematic describing the inflammatory response following cardiac injury in health (black trace)

or dystrophic (red trace), showing acute versus chronic inflammation respectively. Use of anti-

inflammatory drug (purple trace) lowers inflammatory response blunting inflammation, instead

use of pro-resolving therapy (green trace) does not impact the onset of inflammation but helps

clear inflammation preventing the inflammation to become chronic. **B.** Schematic detailing the

pre-clinical testing of pro-resolving drug, BMS-986235 (6.0mg/kg, 3 wk daily administration) in

D2-*mdx* mice (n=6) just prior to disease onset (18-19 days old). **C.** Whole tissue images of the

matched orientation of hearts showing ventricular and atrial fibro-calcified damage in saline or

BMS-986235-treated D2-*mdx* mice. **D.** Image showing cross-section of D2-*mdx* heart stained

for histological features by H&E from mice treated with saline or BMS-986235. **E.** Images

showing cross-section of D2-*mdx* heart immunostained for pan-macrophage marker, F4/80 (red)

and counterstained with WGA (green) and DAPI (blue) to mark the ECM and nuclei,

respectively. **F.** Image showing heart cross-section immunostained for COL1A1 and

counterstained with DAPI (blue) to visualize nuclei. **G-H.** qRT-PCR analysis of inflammatory (**G**)

and extracellular matrix genes (**H**) to assess the effect of drug treatment of D2-*mdx* mice (red

triangles), as compared with saline-treated controls (black triangles). Relative gene expression

values normalized to internal *Hprt* transcript levels. Data represent mean ± SD from $n = 6$ hearts

per cohort. Statistical analyses performed using Mann Whitney U test; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.001$,

***$p < 0.001$.

Supplemental Material.

Supplemental Figure 1. Cardiac histopathology in juvenile D2-*mdx* model. A. Alizarin Red

staining of juvenile D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts (whole cross-section) showing right ventricular

(RV) heart damage and calcification in juvenile D2-*mdx* hearts. Scale bars indicate 200µm. **B-C.**

High magnification images from panel A, showing Alizarin Red staining of juvenile D2-*mdx* and

B10-*mdx* hearts, and corresponding quantification of calcified fiber area per total tissue area. of

fibrosis, damage and calcification are highlighted by black arrowheads (**C**). Scale bars indicate

100µm. Statistical analyses performed using Mann Whitney U test; ***$p < 0.001$.

Supplemental Figure 2. Histopathological assessment of juvenile D2-WT and B10-WT

hearts. Images show hearts harvested from juvenile (6 ± 0.5 wk) D2-WT and B10-WT mice. **A-**

B. Whole tissue images with matched orientation of D2-WT (**A**) and B10-WT (**B**) hearts showing

lack of any ventricular and atrial fibro-calcified damage. **C-D.** Cross-sectional images of juvenile

D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts through the ventricular lumen, stained for histological features by

H&E (**C**), and for fibrosis by Sirius Red (**D**). Both D2-WT and B10-WT hearts lack any signs of

fibro-calcified damage.

Supplemental Figure 3. GSEA enrichment plot analysis of top gene ontology (GO) hits

from differential gene expression analysis in juvenile D2-*mdx* and B10-*mdx* hearts. A-F.

Enrichment plot analysis of top immune-related (**A, C, E, F**) and extracellular matrix-related (**B,**

D) GO biological process (BP) terms obtained using GSEA, including Inflammatory Response

(**A**), Encapsulating Structure Organization (**B**), Myeloid Luekocyte Migration (**C**), Collagen

Metabolic Process (**D**), Neutrophil Chemotaxis (**E**), and Granulocyte Chemotaxis (**F**).

Supplemental Figure 4. Gene expression analysis of D2-WT and B10-WT hearts for

selected immune and extracellular matrix targets. A. Relative gene expression analysis for

dysregulated immune-related genes between D2-*mdx* vs. B10-*mdx* (**Figure 3**) assessed in

juvenile D2-WT and B10-WT hearts. **B.** Relative gene expression analysis for dysregulated

immune-related genes between D2-*mdx* vs. B10-*mdx* (**Figure 4**) assessed in juvenile D2-WT

and B10-WT hearts. Relative gene expression values normalized to internal *Hprt* transcript

levels.