Physical disturbance induces heart stop in mangrove killifish, *Kryptolebias marmoratus* embryos

Rosalie Herbert[1], Alexander David Corbett[2,3] and Tetsuhiro Kudoh[1]

1. Biosciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, EX4 4QD, United Kingdom

2. Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Exeter, Exeter, EX4 4QL, United Kingdom

3. Living Systems Institute, University of Exeter, Stocker Road, Exeter, EX4 4QD

Contact addresses: rh804@exeter.ac.uk, a.corbett@exeter.ac.uk, t.kudoh@exeter.ac.uk

Lead Contact: t.kudoh@exeter.ac.uk

Summary

The mangrove killifish, *Krypotlebias marmoratus*, is an intriguing vertebrate species, known for its unusual sexual systems. It is one of two known self-fertilizing simultaneous hermaphroditic vertebrates, alongside the related *Kryptolebias ocellatus*[1,2]. While individuals can be born as primary males, this is rare in the wild and most are born as hermaphrodites[3], around 60% then turning into secondary males at 3-4 years of age[4]. *K. marmoratus* is exceptionally tolerant of harsh and variable environmental conditions. This includes emersion as well as widely ranging salinities and temperatures[5–7]. Embryos can enter diapause, a state of arrested development, when conditions are unfavourable[8,9].

Intentional heart stopping by animals is an exceptionally rare phenomenon. It may occur in species such as the sea iguana *Amblyrhynchus cristatus* and Komodo dragon *Varanus komodoensis*[10,11], although detailed studies on this behaviour in these species are lacking. Additionally, stopping or significantly reducing the heart rate is known to occur in some animals when in a state of dormancy such as hibernation or diapause[12,13]. We have found a highly unique ability of *K. marmoratus* embryos to stop their heartbeat in response to subtle

physical disturbances and fully recover. This study investigates this behaviour for the first

time. This ability begins in the later stages of embryonic development at 9dpf. Recovery from

heart stopping changes throughout development and the behaviour is retained during

diapause. These results provide new insight into adaptive responses to environmental

stressors and contribute to establishing this species as a model organism.

Results

Heart stopping and recovery

Heartbeats in *K. marmoratus* embryos start at 3 days post fertilization (dpf), as previously

reported[14]. At 7 and 8 dpf, heartbeats were regular (Fig.1 & Supp. Fig. 1). Heart stopping in

response to physical disturbance (HSPD) abilities began at around 9dpf (Fig. 3). Although

the heartbeat ceased, other movements (such as that of the eyes, mouth and gills) did not

stop, showing that HSPD does not cause complete paralysis of the body (Supp. Video 1).

Embryos were highly sensitive, for example, gently touching the embryo with the tip of a

tweezer induced HSPD (Supp. Video 2). At 9dpf, stops were short. The time to fully recover

was 10-15 seconds (Fig. 2B). From 9dpf to 13dpf, lengths of heart stops and the recovery

period increased. Around 13dpf, embryos can either hatch, or enter diapause[14]. Most

embryos in our experiments entered diapause, prolonging hatching. This may have been

related to water change frequencies. The HSPD ability was retained during diapause.

However, once embryos entered diapause (~13dpf), lengths of heart stops and recovery

periods became much more variable, with no clear pattern (Supp. fig. 1). Stops sometimes

exceeded 60 seconds, (an example of this is in Supp. Video 2). No significant difference was

found in heart rates between each age of embryos (7dpf-25dpf) (p=0.108) or comparing

developing embryos (7-12dpf, average heart rate 55.9bpm, ranging from 34.2-70.2bpm) to

diapause embryos (13-25dpf average heart rates 53.1bpm, ranging from 31.8-70.2bmp)

(p=0.3354).

Heart stopping and restarting occurs in the sinus venosus

52 In *K. marmoratus* embryos, individual contractions of the sinus venosus, atrium and ventricle

53 were clearly distinguishable (Fig. 3A, B) and could be measured independently (Fig. 3C-G).

54 In HSPD, we found that the last beat always ended with contraction of the ventricle. The first

55 beat after HSPD consistently began with contraction of the sinus venosus. These results

56 indicate that the order of contractions is always sinus venosus, atrium, ventricle. The time

57 between each chamber contracting remained regular even during the recovery period after

58 HSPD (Fig. 3). Before HSPD, the average time after contraction of the sinus venosus for

59 atrial and ventricular contractions were 0.16s and 0.58s, respectively. After HSPD, these

60 were 0.17s and 0.57s. Together, these suggest the heart stop is always initiated by the sinus

61 venosus. During HSPD, the sinus venosus and atrium remained filled with blood (as in

62 diastole phase). Sometimes there was passive flow into the ventricle, allowing clear

63 visualization of all chambers (Fig. 3). We found that when HSPD occurs, the ventricle was

64 the last chamber to contract.

65 **Effect of anesthetic on heart stopping**

66 Tricaine blocks sodium ion channels in nerve cells, preventing initiation or transmission of

67 signals. To determine whether HSPD was autonomous to the heart tissue or regulated by

68 the nervous system, the effect of tricaine was tested on both developing and diapausing

69 embryos. In all cases, tricaine-treated embryos lost HSPD abilities (Fig. 4). This suggests

70 that HSPD is not autonomous in the heart but is mediated by a signal from the nervous

71 system. Heart rates did not seem to be affected by tricaine treatment. The average heart

72 rate of tricaine treated embryos was 61.0bpm, ranging from 51.4-78.0 bpm.**Discussion**

73 **HSPD as a part of embryonic developmental process occurring before**

74 **diapause/hatching**

75 We have discovered a peculiar ability of HSPD in mangrove killifish embryos that has not

76 been found in any other fish species so far. HSPD in mangrove killifish embryos may occur

frequently in the wild, considering cause can be attributed to even very slight physical

disturbance.

The HSPD ability was consistently acquired around 9dpf, with all embryos showing HSPD

abilities by 10dpf. When embryos reach 13dpf, some embryos start hatching (Mourabit et al.

2014). Therefore, from14dpf onward, when embryos did not hatch, it is likely that they

entered diapause. Diapause is a state of arrested development where metabolic rate is

significantly reduced, used to cope with stressful conditions[9]. As metabolism is reduced, the

animal must prioritize which processes or functions energy is put into. The HSPD ability was

retained in diapause embryos, suggesting that it is of high importance for survival or coping

with stressors.

The duration of stops consistently increased until the end of development at ~13dpf. This

indicates that the acquisition and development of the HSPD ability is part of the highly

synchronized embryonic developmental processes in *K. marmoratus*, and it occurs whether

they enter diapause or not. In *K. marmoratus* diapause-stage embryos, heart rate recovery

was highly variable and did not seem to follow the pattern seen in 9-13dpf embryos. This

suggests that the development of HSPD is complete by 14dpf, and the variable "depth" of

diapause may lead to variability in the level of HSPD.

During diapause, metabolic rate is generally low and stable[15] although there is wide

variation between individuals. Additionally, the length of diapause is highly variable, previous

studies reporting lengths ranging from 23 to 108 days[16]. Within this time there may also be

pre-diapause preparatory phases or post-diapause recovery phases, during which metabolic

rates can vary[9]. These factors may contribute to the observed variation in recovery time,

especially if recovery is linked to metabolic rate.

Other killifish species (*Nothobrancheus furzeri* and *Austrofundulus limnaeus*) have been

reported to reduce their heart beat rates during diapause, sometimes to the extent they

appear to stop completely[17,18]. However, in these species the heart stops without physical

stimulation and it occurs earlier on in embryonic development. In contrast, HSPD in *K.*

marmoratus is an immediate, short-lived reaction to physical stimuli. It may be possible that

the mechanisms to reduce/stop the heartbeat during diapause in *N. furzeri* and *A.s limnaeus*

may be exploited in the mangrove killifish to develop the ability of HSPD.

HSPD has not been reported in other fish species, suggesting that it is a unique evolutionary

survival strategy to *K. marmoratus*. It is conceivable that HSPD may have two advantages

for the embryos. Firstly, as mentioned above, HSPD is possibly a function associated with

the diapause. By being able to control heart rate, the embryo may be able to preserve

energy in diapause. The second potential advantage of HSPD may be related to predator

avoidance. *K. marmoratus* often inhabit crab burrows. During dry seasons they may remain

in these small spaces with limited water supplies for weeks or months with in a state of

diapause. This could increase risk of predation by creatures such as small crabs. HSPD may

reduce vibrations or electric pulses that could be detected by hair sensors of small crabs

searching for food in these burrows. We could not test HSPD in hatched larvae and juvenile

fish due to technical difficulties and UK Home Office Animal's regulations. However, we

found that when we imitated the movement of a crab's claw using the tip of a pair of

tweezers, this very small physical disturbance induced HSPD (Supp. video 2). Stopping the

heartbeat to reduce metabolism and avoid predation may continue to be advantageous in

juveniles and adults. Therefore, it would be interesting to investigate HSPD in hatched fish

for future research.

Sinus venosus starts HSPD and restart of the heartbeat after HSPD

We observed that contraction of the sinus venosus was always followed by contraction of the

atrium then the ventricle. When HSPD occurred, the ventricle was always the last chamber

to contract and the sinus venosus was the first to contract. After HSPD, timings of these

contractions of chambers within individual heartbeats remained the same as before HSPD,

despite heart rate starting slower before recovering to the original rate. In mammalian hearts,

the atrioventricular (AV) node delays the electrical signal from the atrium to ventricle – fish

have an analogous structure within the AV junction to fulfil this role [19]. There is also a delay

between the sinus venosus and atrium contracting. In reptiles, the sinoatrial junction causes

this delay[20]. Our results indicate that the key domain in which stopping and restarting occurs

is the sinus venosus, and the other two chambers cannot stop or restart contraction on their

own.

HSPD is mediated by the neuronal circuit

Our results suggest that the sinus venosus is the key domain of the heart determining the

initiation of HSPD and release from it. In fish, pacemaker cells are located in a ring-like

shape at the sinus node, initiating contraction[21]. Therefore, it seems likely that the

pacemaker cells are involved in regulation of HSPD. Vertebrate hearts are myogenic,

generating their own rhythm independent of the brain. Pacemaker cells within the heart itself

initiate the electrical impulse. However, results from tricaine experiments suggest that the

heart stopping response is also dependent on neuronal function. Tricaine blocks sodium ion

channels in nerve cells, preventing them initiating or transmitting signals. Treating embryos

with tricaine completely prevented HSPD. Heart rate can be modulated by the autonomic

nervous system (ANS); sympathetic neurons enhance heart rate while parasympathetic

neurons reduce it. HSPD may be mediated by activation of parasympathetic neurons.

However, it is uncertain whether this could apply to embryos as it depends on whether the

ANS is sufficiently developed at this stage. For example, medaka embryos, despite

development of autonomic nervous fibers as embryos, may not be able to regulate heart rate

until one month post-hatching[22]. Therefore, further research is needed to elucidate the

molecular and cellular mechanisms of HSPD.

<u>Ethical declaration</u>

All experiments and methods were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and

regulations of UK Home Office with the license number PP4402521. All methods are

reported in accordance with ARRIVE guidelines. All experiments and methods approved by

the Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Board (AWERB) at the University of Exeter.

Resource availability

Materials Availability

No new reagents were generated in this study.

Data and Code Availability

The research data and Pixel Variance code supporting this publication are openly available

from the University of Exeter's institutional repository (ORE) at

https://doi.org/10.24378/exe.5506. A description of the Pixel Variance algorithm is given in

reference 28.

Acknowledgements

TK is funded by NC3Rs project grant (NC/X001121/1). RH was funded by University of

Exeter – Employer Engagement & Student Employment (EESE). We thank Sulayman

Mourabit, Thomas Cosgrove, Rachel Osman, Clare Bushell, Ed Grinsted, Maryia Fralova

and Matt Winter for their support. We also thank Aquatic Resource Centre staff for fish

husbandry and to Biosciences teaching lab staff for sharing the lab space and equipment.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization TK, Data curation RH, Investigation RH, Methodology TK, ADC,

RH, Writing – original draft RH, TK, Writing – review & editing RH, TK, ADC

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Main-text figure legends

Figure 1. Summary of methods for the main analysis. Three embryos were placed in an

agarose mould to film HSPD. A region of interest (ROI) was selected over a single chamber.

Pixel velocity algorithm was performed to find contraction speed. From this, beat count was

calculated, then average beat rate pre-stimulation and time to 25% recovery after HSPD.

Figure 2. Graphs showing beat rates of 3 embryos for 6 ages during embryonic

development: 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 16dpf. Beat rate was measured in 5-second intervals

over 90s movies. At 30s, the dish was tapped, inducing HSPD. Orange bars show beat rate

before the stimulus at 30s, from which average pre-stimulus beat rate was calculated,

indicated by the black dotted line. Blue bars show beat rate after the stimulus. Red lines

mark the average time at which the beat rate reached 25% of the pre-stimulus rate. The time

point indicated by the grey bar (32.5s) was not included in recovery time due to noise in data

following the stimulus, caused by slight movement of embryos. Error bars show SEM.

Figure 3. Heart chambers and contraction plots. (A) Image of K. marmoratus embryo at

10dpf stage, once HSPD ability is established. SV (sinus venosus) is indicated in orange, A

(atrium) in green, V (ventricle) in blue. (B) Shows arrangement of chambers, arrows

indicating the direction of blood flow. (C) shows a full SAV (Sinus venosus, Atrium and

Ventricle) contraction plot from a 52-second movie of an 11dpf embryo. The dish was tapped

at ~11s, stimulating HSPD. Below, individual beats are highlighted: (D) a typical beat from

before the stimulus, (E) the last beat before HSPD, (F) the first beat after HSPD and (G) a

typical beat after the beat rate recovers. Peaks indicate contractions for each chamber.

Lines are coloured according to the chamber.

Figure 4. Effects of tricaine on HSPD. Graphs showing the effect of tricaine on heart

stopping. Graphs show heart rates of 3 embryos for each age measured over 5s intervals

for 90s movies, with and without tricaine treatment. Examples are shown with 9, 11, 15 and

22dpf stage embryos. At 30s, the dish was tapped. The time point indicated by the grey bar

(32.5s) was not included in recovery time due to noise in data following the stimulation,

causing slight movement of embryos. Bars in orange show heart rate before the stimulus,

blue bars after. Without tricaine treatment, embryos stop their heart in response to the tap.

When embryos are treated with tricaine they lose the ability to stop their heart. The black

dotted line shows the average heart rate, calculated from the first 30s of the movie. Error

bars show SEM.

STAR Methods

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Mangrove killifish source and husbandry

The mangrove killifish *Kryptolabias marmoratus* wild type Hon9 line[23] was sourced and

maintained in the Aquatic Resource Centre at the University of Exeter. These fish were kept

in a recirculation system under artificial photoperiods of 14 hours of light to 10 hours of

darkness. All fish were hermaphrodites.

Embryo collection/incubation

For this study, the *K. marmoratus* Hon9 line[23] was used. Embryos were incubated at 26°C in

14.6ppt artificial brackish water. Water changes were made every other day. Embryos were

aged according to the Mourabit *et al.,* 2011 staging reference[14]. Embryos used for this study

were of ages up to 25dpf.

METHOD DETAILS

Tricaine treatment

Three embryos for each age (11dpf, 15dpf, 17dpf, 18dpf, 21dpf, 22dpf) were used for the

analysis. Embryos were initially treated with 0.08% tricaine/deionized water for 30 minutes

before starting filming. In some cases, this dose had no noticeable effect (probably due to

their hard/thick chorion) so the dose was increased in 0.04% increments until tricaine was

having an observable effect (lack of jaw and fin movement). The final doses used were

0.08% for 9dpf, 11dpf and 22dpf; 0.16% for 15dpf, 17dpf and 18dpf.

Imaging & filming heart stopping

Agar moulds were made using 1% molecular grade agarose in deionized water with a duplex

cable wire. The cable wire was removed once the agar was set. For filming heart stopping,

three embryos were placed in the agar mould with 14.6ppt water and placed under the

microscope (Fig. 1). Embryos were left to settle for 5 minutes to allow for recovery from

HSPD that may have occurred from moving embryos. Movies were 90 seconds long, at 30

seconds the dish was gently tapped with a pair of tweezers to stimulate HSPD. Three

embryos for each age (7-25dpf) were used for these experiments. Movies were recorded

using the digital microscope Jiusion 2K HD 2560x1440P USB Digital Microscope using S-

EYE[24] or VirtualDub[25] in either .MP4 or .avi format. MP4 movies were converted to .avi using

an online converter[26] and decompressed in VirtualDub. For anatomy imaging, Nikon

SMZ1500 and Digital Sight DS-U2 camera were used.

To film videos for analysis of contraction profiles of individual chambers, individual 11dpf

embryos were placed in agarose moulds. Movies were filmed on Zeiss Primo Star

microscope using Labscope 4.3.1 in .avi format then decompressed using VirtualDub.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Heart rate, stopping and recovery analysis

ImageJ[27] was used to select the ROI over a single chamber, convert to 8-bit greyscale and

export to a TIF image sequence. This image sequence was analysed using a 'Pixel Variance'

algorithm which has been previously applied to the contraction of cardiomyocyte

monolayers[28]. In short, the algorithm calculates the variance in the pixel value across frames

captured over a known time interval. This time interval corresponds to ~40% of the beat

period, i.e. 0.4 seconds for the resting 1 Hz beat rate, equivalent to two frames when

sampling at 5.7 fps. Once the variance has been calculated on a pixel-wise basis, the value

is averaged across all the pixels in the region of interest (ROI). A trace of this value over

time provides a measure of the speed with which the pixel values are changing. For a single

beat, there will be two peaks in the speed profile, corresponding to contraction and

relaxation. The baseline value of the contraction speed varies between ROIs and samples

due to the presence of local features and differences in average intensity. Peaks in the

'contraction speed' traces were then identified using the peak prominence (typically >50% of

the peak height) relative to the baseline rather than hardcoding the absolute peak height.

Once the timing of the individual peaks had been identified, the number of peaks within five

second windows (starting from time zero) were calculated and divided by two to obtain the

number of complete heart beats per five second interval. This 'beat count' data, averaged

over a five second window, was attributed to the mid-point of the window (i.e. 2.5, 7.5, 12.5

etc. seconds).

Beat rate was calculated for each embryo, using pre-stimulus beat count data from the first

30 seconds of the movies. Averages were then calculated for each day of development. For

each individual, the time taken for beat rate to recover 25% of its pre-stimulus rate was

measured. The first point of recovery considered was the 37.5s timepoint as the 32.5s

timepoint was not an accurate representation, due to the noise in data following the

mechanical stimulation at 30 seconds which often caused the embryos to slightly rotate

inside the chorion. For this reason, if heart stops were very short, they were not captured.

Averages for time to reach 25% recovery were then taken for each dpf.

To test for significant difference in average beat rates across each age of embryo (7-25dpf)

a one-way ANOVA was used. To compare and test for significant difference in beat rates

between developing (7-13dpf) and diapause (13-25dpf) embryos, a t-test was used.

Contraction profiles of individual chambers

ImageJ was used to select a ROI over the sinus venosus, atrium and ventricle separately

and plot separate z-axis profiles. Data points were extracted and plotted on a single graph

for each movie. Drift was removed using a Butterworth high-pass filter, with zero-phase

delay.

For three embryos, durations between contractions of individual chambers were measured.

For each embryo, four measurements were taken before HSPD and four after. Averages

were then taken to compare chamber contraction timings before and after HSPD.

<u>Supplementary figure and video legends</u>

Supplementary figure 1. Time to 25% recovery of pre-stimulation beat rate. For 90-

second recordings, stimulation was applied at 30s, inducing HSPD. Beat rate was calculated

at 5s intervals, starting from 2.5s. For 7 and 8dpf embryos, time to reach 25% recovery of

their beat rate was 0s as they did not show HSPD. Light blue bars show where embryos did

not reach 25% recovery within the 90s movie. Orange dotted outlines on these bars show

where 3/3 embryos did not reach 25% recovery within the 90s movie, yellow for 2/3 or green

for 1/3. Error bars show the minimum and maximum times for each age category to reach

25% recovery, excluding those that did not reach 25% recovery within the 90s movie.

Supplementary video 1. Videos showing other movements during HSPD. Videos are

shown for two individual 13dpf embryos. Heart stops were stimulated at 10s. In example 1,

eye movement can be seen during HSPD. The heat restarts beating at ~26s. In example 2,

mouth and opercular movement can be seen. The heart restarts beating at ~24s. This shows

how HSPD does not cause complete paralysis of the body.

Supplementary video 2. Video highlighting the sensitivity of embryos to physical

disturbance. In this video, the embryo is gently nudged using the tip of a tweezer, imitating

the movement of a crab claw. This disturbance causes HSPD. This stimulation is

administered at ~40s. The beat rate for this embryo was 51bpm. After the stimulation, time

to 25% recovery was 87.5s and time to full recovery was 142.5s. This video also highlights

the sensitivity of *K. marmoratus* embryos to physical disturbance, causing HSPD.

<u>References</u>

1.   Harrington RW. Oviparous Hermaphroditic Fish with Internal Self-Fertilization. Science.
1961 Dec;134(3492):1749–50.

2.   Tatarenkov A, Lima SMQ, Taylor DS, Avise JC. Long-term retention of self-fertilization
in a fish clade. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 2009 Aug
25;106(34):14456–9.

3.   Turner B, Fisher M, Taylor D, Davis W, Kelly B. Evolution of 'maleness' and outcrossing
in a population of the self-fertilizing killifish, Kryptolebias marmoratus. Evolutionary
Ecology Research. 2006 Dec 1;8.

4.   Lee JS, Raisuddin S, Schlenk D. Kryptolebias marmoratus (Poey, 1880): a potential
model species for molecular carcinogenesis and ecotoxicogenomics. Journal of Fish
Biology. 2008;72(8):1871–89.

5.   King JAC, Abel DC, DiBona DR. Effects of salinity on chloride cells in the euryhaline
cyprinodontid fish Rivulus marmoratus. Cell Tissue Res. 1989 Jan 1;257(2):367–77.

6.   Taylor DS. Adaptive Specializations of the Cyprinodont Fish Rivulus Marmoratus.
Florida Scientist. 1990;53(3):239–48.

7.   Taylor S, Davis W m. P, Turner B. Rivulus Marmoratus: Ecology of Distributional
Patterns in Florida and the Central Indian River Lagoon. Bulletin of Marine Science.
1995 Jul 1;57:202–7.

8.   Ritchie SA, Davis WP. Evidence for embryonic diapause in Rivulus marmoratus:
laboratory and field observations. Journal of the American Killifish Association.
1986;19:103–8.

9.   Karp X. Hormonal Regulation of Diapause and Development in Nematodes, Insects,
and Fishes. Front Ecol Evol. 2021 Sep 30;9.

10.   Knight J. King of hearts [Internet]. New Scientist. 1999 [cited 2024 Sep 19]. Available
from: https://www.newscientist.com/article/mg16422135-100-king-of-hearts/

11. Animalia Bio. Marine Iguana - Facts, Diet, Habitat & Pictures on Animalia.bio [Internet].
[cited 2024 Sep 19]. Available from: https://animalia.bio/marine-iguana

12. Storey KB, Storey JM. Freeze tolerance in animals. Physiol Rev. 1988 Jan;68(1):27–84.

13. Layne JR, Lee RE, Heil TL. Freezing-induced changes in the heart rate of wood frogs
(Rana sylvatica). American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and
Comparative Physiology. 1989 Nov;257(5):R1046–9.

14. Mourabit S, Edenbrow M, Croft DP, Kudoh T. Embryonic development of the self-
fertilizing mangrove killifish Kryptolebias marmoratus. Developmental Dynamics.
2011;240(7):1694–704.

15. Kambule IN, Hanrahan SA, Duncan FD. Metabolic rate in diapause and nondiapause
brown locust eggs correlated with embryonic development. Physiological Entomology.
2011;36(4):299–308.

16. Furness AI, Reznick DN, Tatarenkov A, Avise JC. The evolution of diapause in Rivulus
(Laimosemion). Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society. 2018 Oct 20;184(3):773–90.

17. Podrabsky JE, Riggs CL, Romney AL, Woll SC, Wagner JT, Culpepper KM, et al.
Embryonic development of the annual killifish Austrofundulus limnaeus: An emerging
model for ecological and evolutionary developmental biology research and instruction.
Developmental Dynamics. 2017;246(11):779–801.

18. Hu CK, Wang W, Brind'Amour J, Singh PP, Reeves GA, Lorincz MC, et al. Vertebrate
diapause preserves organisms long term through Polycomb complex members.
Science. 2020 Feb 21;367(6480):870–4.

19. Šolc D. The heart and heart conducting system in the kingdom of animals: A
comparative approach to its evolution. Exp Clin Cardiol. 2007;12(3):113–8.

20. Jensen B, Vesterskov S, Boukens BJ, Nielsen JM, Moorman AFM, Christoffels VM, et
al. Morpho-functional characterization of the systemic venous pole of the reptile heart.
Sci Rep. 2017 Jul 27;7(1):6644.

21. Tessadori F, van Weerd JH, Burkhard SB, Verkerk AO, de Pater E, Boukens BJ, et al.
Identification and Functional Characterization of Cardiac Pacemaker Cells in Zebrafish.
PLoS One. 2012 Oct 16;7(10):e47644.

22. Watanabe-Asaka T, Niihori M, Sonobe H, Igarashi K, Oda S, Iwasaki K ichi, et al.
Acquirement of the autonomic nervous system modulation evaluated by heart rate
variability in medaka (Oryzias latipes). PLoS One. 2022 Dec 30;17(12):e0273064.

23. Tatarenkov A, Ring BC, Elder JF, Bechler DL, Avise JC. Genetic Composition of
Laboratory Stocks of the Self-Fertilizing Fish Kryptolebias marmoratus: A Valuable
Resource for Experimental Research. PLOS ONE. 2010 Sep 22;5(9):e12863.

24. Hayear. S-EYE [Internet]. 2020. Available from:
http://download.hayear.com/content/?284.html

24. Lee A. VirtualDub [Software]. Version 1.10.4 (Build 35491). 2013. Available from:
http://www.virtualdub.org

26. CloudConvert [Internet]. [cited 2025 Jan 5]. Available from: https://cloudconvert.com/

27.   Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image
analysis. Nat Methods. 2012 Jul;9(7):671–5.

28.   Mohanan, S, Horsell, D, Watters, T, Ghasemi, M, Henderson L, Müllenbroich C, Bub G,
Burton F, Smith G, Corbett AD, Automated measurement of cardiomyocyte monolayer
contraction using the Exeter Multiscope [Internet]. bioRxiv; 2024 [cited 2025 Feb 03]. p.
2024.09.09.611998. Available from:
https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2024.09.09.611998v2

ROI

PV algorithm

Contraction speed

Raw video

Beat count

3 embryos placed in agarose mould

Average beat rate & time to 25% recovery

A 10dpf embryo heart image

B Arrangement of heart chambers

C Full SAV contraction plot

D Typical beat before stimulus

E Last beat before stop

F First beat after stop

G Typical beat after stop

Time (seconds)

—— Sinus venosus   —— Atrium   —— Ventricle