GABA_A α Subunit Control of Hyperactive Behavior in Developing Zebrafish

Wayne Barnaby^{*‡}, Hanna E. Dorman Barclay[‡], Akanksha Nagarkar[‡], Matthew Perkins[§],

Gregory Teicher^{†‡}, Josef G. Trapani^{*§}, and Gerald B. Downes^{*†‡**}

^{*}Neuroscience and Behavior Graduate Program, [†]Molecular and Cellular Biology Graduate Program, [‡]Biology Department, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003

[§]Biology Department and Neuroscience Program, Amherst College, Amherst, MA 01002

**Author for correspondence: Gerald B. Downes 611 North Pleasant St., Morrill Science Center, Building 4 North Amherst MA 01002 Email: gbdownes@umass.edu Telephone: 413-545-1266

1 ABSTRACT

2 GABA_A receptors mediate rapid responses to the neurotransmitter GABA and are 3 robust regulators of the brain and spinal cord neural networks that control locomotor 4 behaviors, such as walking and swimming. In developing zebrafish, gross pharmacological 5 blockade of these receptors causes hyperactive swimming, which has been embraced as 6 an epilepsy model. Although GABA_A receptors are important to control locomotor behavior, 7 the large number of subunits and homeostatic compensatory mechanisms have 8 challenged efforts to determine subunit-selective roles. To address this issue, we mutated 9 each of the eight zebrafish GABA_A α subunit genes individually and in pairs using a 10 CRISPR-Cas9 somatic inactivation approach, then we examined the swimming behavior of 11 the mutants at two developmental stages. We found that disrupting the expression of 12 specific pairs of subunits resulted in different abnormalities in swimming behavior at the 13 first development stage. Mutation of $\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 5$ selectively resulted in longer duration 14 swimming episodes, mutations in α 3 and α 4 selectively caused excess, large-amplitude 15 body flexions (C-bends), and mutation of α 3 and α 5 resulted in increases in both of these 16 measures of hyperactivity. At the later stage of development, hyperactive phenotypes were 17 nearly absent, suggesting that homeostatic compensation was able to overcome the 18 disruption of even multiple subunits. Taken together, our results identify subunit-selective 19 roles for GABA_A α 3, α 4, and α 5 in regulating locomotion. Given that these subunits exhibit 20 spatially restricted expression patterns, these results provide a foundation to identify 21 neurons and GABAergic networks that control discrete aspects of locomotor behavior.

22 INTRODUCTION

23 Neural networks in the vertebrate hindbrain and spinal cord rely upon a balance of 24 excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmitter systems to orchestrate locomotion. Classically 25 inhibitory, the neurotransmitter Gamma-AminoButyric Acid (GABA) is recognized as a key 26 regulator of these circuits. GABA exerts its effects through two different classes of 27 receptors, GABA_A and GABA_B. GABA_B receptors are G-protein coupled receptors, while GABA_A receptors are ligand-gated ion channels that generate rapid responses to GABA. In 28 29 mammalian systems, GABA_A receptors exhibit remarkable diversity, with each receptor 30 thought to form a heteropentamer containing various combinations of 19 different subunits: 31 α 1-6, β 1-3, γ 1-3, δ , ϵ , π , θ and ρ 1-3 (Sieghart and Sperk 2002; Simon et al. 2004; Chua 32 and Chebib 2017). Each subunit is encoded by a discrete gene that is spatially and developmentally regulated to generate distinct, but sometimes overlapping, expression 33 34 patterns (Laurie, Seeburg, et al. 1992; Laurie, Wisden, et al. 1992; Wisden et al. 1992). 35 Several receptor subunits confer distinct biophysical and pharmacological properties, 36 localize to synaptic or extrasynaptic sites, interact with specific cytoplasmic proteins, and contribute to different neuronal networks (Farrant and Nusser 2005; Jacob et al. 2008; 37 38 Fritschy and Panzanelli 2014). While this incredible receptor heterogeneity is not fully 39 understood, it could provide the opportunity to better understand, or even manipulate, 40 distinct neuronal networks.

Several studies have used pharmacological blockade of GABA_A receptors to reveal the central roles that these receptors play in regulating the initiation, rhythmicity, frequency and duration of locomotor network output from the spinal cord. These studies have been performed in a variety of vertebrate systems. For example, in neonatal mice, application of GABA_A receptor antagonists to the spinal cord has been shown to cause inappropriate, bilateral discharges and regulate the onset and duration of rhythmic activity (Hinckley et al.

47 2005). In lamprey, application of GABA_A receptor antagonists to spinal cord networks increased the frequency of locomotor bursts and disrupted lengthwise coordination 48 49 (Schmitt et al. 2004). In Xenopus tadpoles, GABA_A receptor mediated inhibition has been found to play both a tonic role in regulating the responsiveness to touch stimuli and a 50 51 phasic role that stops swimming (Perrins et al. 2002; T. D. Lambert et al. 2004; Thomas D. 52 Lambert et al. 2004). Although these and several other studies illustrate the importance of GABA_A receptors in controlling locomotor networks, antagonists that block the majority of 53 54 receptor isoforms were used, therefore these studies are less informative about the roles 55 of specific subunits.

Genetic inactivation of GABA_A receptor subunits in mice has had only limited 56 57 success in identifying subunits required to mediate locomotor behavior. Although several of the 19 subunits exhibit robust expression in portions of the brain and spinal cord that 58 59 mediate locomotion, few gene deletions have been found to cause abnormal locomotor 60 behavior (Rudolph and Möhler 2004; Vicini and Ortinski 2004; Smith and Rudolph 2012). 61 Ablation of some GABA_A receptor genes has been shown to cause changes in the 62 expression of other subunits, which suggests that homeostatic adaptations may explain at 63 least some of the deletions that show no or only subtle locomotor phenotypes (Peng et al. 64 2002; Kralic et al. 2006; Zeller et al. 2008; Panzanelli et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2013; Fritschy and Panzanelli 2014). 65

Early larval-stage zebrafish, ~2-10 days post-fertilization, are a leading model for
locomotor neural network analysis, and GABA_A receptors regulate locomotion in this
system. Bath application of GABA_A receptor antagonists, such as pentylenetetrazole
(PTZ), induces hyperactive swimming, meaning a dramatic increase which is also
recognized as an epileptic seizure model (Baraban et al. 2005; Baxendale et al. 2012; Cho
et al. 2020). Zebrafish harbor an array of GABA_A subunits similar to mammals, with 23

72 identified subunits (Cocco et al. 2017; Monesson-Olson et al. 2018), however few mutants 73 have been identified as important for locomotion. At 5 days post-fertilization (dpf), loss-of-74 function mutations in the broadly expressed γ^2 subunit were reported to elicit hyperactive 75 swimming that is behaviorally similar to PTZ exposure (Liao et al. 2019). At 7 dpf, loss-of-76 function mutations in β 3, which is also widely expressed, caused subtle increases in 77 spontaneous swimming (Yang et al. 2019). Although loss-of-function mutations in α 1 were found to cause hyperactive swimming at 5 weeks post-fertilization, this behavior was not 78 79 observed during larval stages (Samarut et al. 2018). Since GABA_A α subunits help form 80 the GABA binding site, they are thought to be obligatory receptor components (Phulera et 81 al. 2018; Zhu et al. 2018; Laverty et al. 2019; Masiulis et al. 2019). Thus, it is surprising 82 that α subunits have not been identified as important for regulation of embryonic or larval locomotor behavior. It is possible that, as in mammals, homeostatic compensation is able 83 84 to conceal subtype-selective roles. Disrupting multiple subunits simultaneously could 85 evade these mechanisms and reveal α subunits that are required to regulate swimming 86 behavior.

Here, we used an F0 CRISPR-Cas9, somatic mutation approach to screen the 87 88 locomotor phenotypes of mutants in each of the eight α subunits both individually and in 89 combination at two different developmental stages: 48 and 96 hours post fertilization (hpf). 90 We found that disrupting select pairs of α subunits causes different types of hyperactive 91 behavior at 48 hpf, which then decreased or was absent by 96 hpf. The absence of hyperactive behavior by 96 hpf was confirmed in F2 germline mutants and, 92 93 correspondingly, electrophysiological recordings revealed brain activity indistinguishable 94 from wild-type controls. These findings illustrate subunit selective-roles of GABAA receptor α subunits in regulating locomotor behavior which, given their restricted expression 95

- 96 patterns in larvae, serve as entry points to reveal cellular and circuit mechanisms that
- 97 enable GABA to control locomotion.
- 98

99 MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 Zebrafish maintenance and breeding

101 Adult zebrafish were maintained according to standard procedures, with the

102 zebrafish facility on a 14-hour light/10-hour dark cycle. Embryos and larvae were kept at

- 103 28.5°C in E3 media and staged according to morphological criteria (Kimmel et al. 1995;
- 104 Parichy et al. 2009). All genetic manipulations and behavioral experiments were performed
- using a Tübingen (Tü) or Tüpfel longfin (TL) genetic background. All animal procedures for
- 106 this study were approved by the University of Massachusetts Amherst or the Amherst
- 107 College Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Amherst College

assurance number 3925-1 with the Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare.

109

110 Guide and Cas9 RNA preparation and microinjection

111 Single guide RNAS were designed using the online tool, ChopChop v.2 (Labun et 112 al. 2019) (Supplemental Table). ChopChop selects target sites for CRISPR-Cas9 using the 113 NGG motif and ranks them based on efficiency (Montague et al. 2014). For each gene, 114 two neighboring targets were selected with the high efficiency within exons that would 115 disrupt all known splice-variants as assessed in ENSEMBL. CRISPR-Somatic Tissue 116 Activity Tests were used to assess mutational efficiency for both targets of a selected 117 gene, and the target that yielded better results was used. In some cases, neither of the 118 initial targets was effectively mutated so two additional targets were selected. 119 Template DNA for gRNA synthesis was generated using the PCR based method

described in (Shah et al. 2016). For *in vitro* transcription, we first generated an HPLC-

121 purified scaffolding primer (5'-

GATCCGCACCGACTCGGTCCCACTTTTTCAAGTTGATAACGGACTAGCCTTATTTTAA 122 CTTGCTATTTCTAGCTCTAAAAC-3'), which was common to all gRNA templateless PCR 123 124 reactions. Next, for each target, we synthesized a unique primer sequence that contained 125 a 5' T7 binding site, the 20 nucleotide specific target (Supplemental Table), and a 3' 20 126 nucleotide site of scaffolding homology (5'- AATTAATACGACTCACTATA-[20 nucleotide 127 Target Sequence]-GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC-3'). The PCR reaction contained: 0.4 128 units of Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, M0530S), 13.4 µL 129 ddH2O, 1µL target specific primer (10µM, IDT), 1 µL scaffolding primer (10µM, IDT), 4µL 130 5X Phusion HF, and 0.4µL dNTPs (10mM). Reactions were run in a thermocycler (BioRad) 131 using the following conditions: 98°C for 30 seconds then 40 cycles of 98°C for 10 seconds, 132 60°C for 10 seconds, 72°C for 15 seconds, which was followed by 72°C for 10 min. The 133 PCR reaction was purified using the QIAGEN MinElute kit and used as a template for in 134 vitro transcription reactions. Using 0.5-1 ug of purified PCR product, gRNAs were generated using the MEGAscript T7 Transcription kit (Thermofisher), purified via lithium 135 136 chloride precipitation, and verified using a TAE denaturing gel. A nanodrop spectrometer 137 was used to determine gRNA concentrations, which were then diluted to 200ng/ul in RNase free water. 138

Cas9 mRNA was synthesized similar to Shah *et al.*, 2016, but with the following
changes. Purification of the linearized plasmid was performed using the E.Z.N.A. Cycle
Pure Kit (Omega Bio-Tek), while purification of the Cas9 mRNA was by lithium chloride
precipitation. Cas9 mRNA was diluted to 1200ng/ul in RNase free water.

Microinjections were performed at the 1-4 cell stage into the yolk of embryonic
zebrafish. The injection cocktail contained: 2µL gRNA at 200ng/µL, 2ul Cas9 mRNA at
1,200ng/µL, 1ul stop cassette (Gagnon et al. 2014) at 10µM, 2µL 0.05% Phenol Red, 4µL
RNase free water. Approximately 500 pL was injected per embryo. Mock injections,

containing all cocktail ingredients except gRNAs, were not observed to have a significant
 effect compared to uninjected siblings, so uninjected sibling animals were used as the
 controls for most experiments.

150

151 Tyrosinase Pigmenation Analysis

152 24 hours after injection, injected embryos were dechorionated using forceps and
 153 screened for morphological abnormalities using a dissecting scope (Zeiss).

154 Morphologically abnormal fish were excluded from further analysis. At 48 hours and 96

hours post-fertilization (hpf), larvae were anesthetized using 0.04% MS-222 (Tricaine) and

156 pictures were taken using a Stemi 305 (Zeiss). All images were captured with the same

dimensions (1280 x 960), resolution (72 x 72), lighting conditions and exposure times.

158 Images were analyzed using a custom Python script (source code available upon request).

Briefly, a threshold value was empirically selected based on its ability to most optimally

segment pigmentation from other parts of the fish and the background across all images.

161 The number of pixels greater than this threshold were summed and reported for each

162 image. The same threshold value was applied to all images.

163

164 Behavioral Analysis

Behavioral analysis was performed in a double-blind fashion. At 24hpf, injected embryos had their chorions removed and were subject to morphological screening. At 48hpf, we examined escape responses to touch responses similar to as described in (Friedrich et al. 2012; McKeown et al. 2012). Briefly, light touch was applied to the head using a 3.22/0.16g of force von Frey filament. Swimming responses were captured using a high-speed digital camera (XStream 1024, IDT Vision) mounted to a 35 mm lens (Nikon) at a frame rate of 250 Hz. The head-to-tail angle for each frame of the response was

measured using custom software written in MATLAB (source code available upon
request). C-bends were defined as any body flexion over 110 degrees, while escape
response duration was defined as beginning the frame before initial movement was
observed and ending at the last frame of detected movement (McKeown et al. 2012).

177

CRISPR-Somatic Tissue Activity Tests (STAT)

178 CRISPR-STAT analysis was performed similar to as described by Carrington et al. 179 2015 (Carrington et al. 2015). Primer pairs were designed to flank the targeting gRNA 180 sites as determined in ChopChop span target sequences (Supplemental Table). Forward 181 primers were tagged with a 6-FAM dye (Integrated DNA Technologies) which allowed for 182 visualization in fragment analysis. Reverse primers were tagged with a PIG-tail adapter (5'-GTGTCTT-3') to reduce stutter (Blake et al., 2015). DNA was extracted from 6 embryos 183 using the Extract-N-Amp Tissue PCR Kit (Millipore-Sigma) and amplified using Amplitag 184 185 Gold Tag Polymerase (ThermoFisher). PCR conditions followed those suggested by the 186 tag polymerase manufacturer. DNA was diluted 1:20 in ddH₂0 and ran on an AB3730xl DNA Analyzer (Genewiz, South Plainfield, NJ). Results were analyzed using Geneious 187 188 Software (Biomatters, Inc). Peaks were defined as signals exceeding 1,000 Relative 189 Fluorescent Units (RFU). A gene target was considered successfully mutated if the peak $(\Sigma \frac{\# of F0 peaks}{\# of mock injected peaks})$ ratio was 2 or above. 190

191

192 Gabra3 MUTANT LINES

To generate *gabra3* mutant lines, CRISPR-Cas9 injected animals were raised to
 adulthood. CRISPR-STAT analysis was used to identify mosaic animals and these animals

were crossed to a wild-type strain (TLF). Two *gabra3* mutant alleles were identified in the
F1 animals, a 7-base pair deletion (bp), *uma500*, and an 18-bp insertion, *uma501*.

197

198 Local Field Potential (LFP) Recording

199 Local field potential (LFP) recordings were obtained from zebrafish larvae at 96 hpf 200 using a technique similar to that in Liu and Baraban, 2019. Prior to each recording, larvae 201 were paralyzed by immersion for 30-60 minutes in α -Bungarotoxin (125 μ M in 202 dH20Invitrogen, Waltham MA) and were subsequently embedded dorsal side up in 2% 203 low-melting-point agarose in extracellular solution (130 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES, 2 mM 204 KCI, 2 mM CaCl2, 1 mM MgCl2, pH 7.8). In some experiments, the convulsant agent PTZ 205 (10 mM) was applied to induce ictal-like brain activity. For each recording, a glass 206 microelectrode (6-12 M Ω) was filled with extracellular solution and inserted under visual 207 guidance into the optic tectum. Local field potentials were recorded at 100X gain in current 208 clamp mode using a Sutter Double IPA amplifier (Sutter Instruments, Novato CA). Voltage 209 signals were low-pass filtered at 500 Hz-1 kHz and digitized at 5-10 kHz using SutterPatch 210 Software (Sutter Instruments, Novato CA). Following acquisition, voltage traces were 211 analyzed for ictal-like activity using NeuroMatic software (Rothman and Silver 2018) and 212 the number of ictal-like events in the first 30 minutes of recording was assessed. For PTZ 213 treated fish, one hour was allocated for wash-on and only the first 30 minutes of recording 214 after this wash-on period was analyzed.

215

216 Statistics and Analysis

To determine significant differences the following statistical tests and software were used. Welch's t-test and Ordinary 1-way ANOVA were used where appropriate. When ttests were applied, F tests were used to compare variance. When ANOVAs were applied,

multiple comparison tests were used where test groups were compared against wildtype
 controls. A Dunnett test was used to correct against familywise error. Figures, plots and
 statistical testing were performed using Prism (GraphPad Software).

223

224 **RESULTS**

225 High-efficiency F0 somatic gene targeting using CRISPR-Cas9

226 To identify GABA_A α subunits that control larval escape behavior we sought an 227 approach to rapidly screen through different loss-of-function mutant combinations. Injecting 228 zebrafish embryos with a cocktail containing Cas9-encoding and guide RNAs (gRNAs) has 229 been shown to mutate target genes with enough efficiency to cause biallelic disruption 230 (Shah et al. 2015; Varshney et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2018). Phenotypes can often be 231 observed in these F0 somatic mutants, which can save a great deal of time compared to 232 analysis of F2 germline homozygous mutants. A disadvantage of this approach is that F0 233 somatic mutants are genetic mosaics, with different cells harboring different indels in the 234 target gene, which may yield weaker phenotypes compared to those found in germline mutants. To confirm the efficiency of disrupting gene function using this approach, we 235 236 targeted the tyrosinase (tyr) gene, similar to previous studies (Wu et al. 2018). Tyrosinase 237 is essential for producing melanin and its disruption provides an easily observable loss of 238 pigmentation. Phenylthiourea (PTU) is routinely used in zebrafish research to suppress 239 melanin synthesis and it provides an effective method to evaluate CRISPR knockdown of 240 tyr. We observed that injection of Cas9 and gRNAs targeting the tyr gene led to a 241 substantial and persistent reduction in pigmentation in 48 and 96 hpf larvae, although not 242 all melanin synthesis was eliminated compared to PTU treated controls (Supplementary 243 Figure 1A, B). Correspondingly, PCR analysis of the somatic mutants through CRISPR-244 Somatic Tissue Activity Tests (STAT), indicated that a variety of mutations were induced in

the *tyr* gene (Supplementary Figure 1C). Taken together, these results confirm that F0
somatic mutants provide a rapid and effective means to screen gene function.

247

248 **GABA** *A* **Receptors Control Early Larval Swimming Behavior**

249 Although PTZ is known to elicit hyperactive swimming responses in fish older than 5 250 dpf, its effect on earlier larval stages is less clear. We focused behavioral analysis on 48 251 and 96 hpf larvae since these time points present the opportunity to analyze a more 252 nascent zebrafish nervous system and the early stages of GABAA receptor control of 253 locomotion. At 48 hpf, larvae are newly hatched and demonstrate burst swimming 254 behavior, while 96 hpf larvae exhibit more mature swimming patterns (Brustein et al. 2003; 255 McKeown et al. 2009; Roussel et al. 2020). Because acoustic and light responses are either absent or less robust at these early developmental stages, light touch was used to 256 257 induce escape response swimming behavior. At both 48 and 96 hpf, larvae respond to light 258 touch to the head with a well-characterized C-start, which consists of an initial C-shaped 259 body bend to reorient the animal away from the touch stimulus, followed by lower-260 amplitude body undulations that propel it several body lengths away (Eaton et al. 1977; 261 Granato et al. 1996; O'Malley et al. 1996; Eaton et al. 2001; Kohashi et al. 2012). After 262 PTZ exposure, hyperactive behavior is observed, and two prominent aspects of swimming 263 performance are altered similar to older fish: larvae performed longer duration escape 264 responses and these responses are interspersed with multiple C-shaped body bends 265 (Figure 1; Supplementary Movies 1 and 2). These results indicate that GABA_A receptors 266 are essential to regulate swimming behavior during escape responses in early larval 267 zebrafish, as has been previously shown for later stages of development.

268

270 Mutation of pairs of α subunits induces hyperactive behavior at 48 hpf

271 To identify GABA_A α subunits that control locomotion, we generated F0 somatic 272 mutations in each of the 8 subunits individually and in all pairwise combinations, then we 273 analyzed touch-evoked behavior, focusing on escape response duration and body-bend 274 amplitude (Figure 2A). Of the 36 conditions examined, no individually mutated α subunit 275 gave rise to abnormal response durations at 48 hpf, however mutating pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ or 276 $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ resulted in increases in swimming times (Figure 2B). Sibling controls exhibited an 277 average swimming duration of 0.53±0.03 seconds (n=256). In contrast, larvae with 278 mutations in $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ and $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ responded with an average of 1.27± 0.33 seconds (n=18) 279 and 1.69±0.49 seconds (n=18), respectively (Figures 2C, 2D, Supplementary Movies, 3, 280 4).

Mutations in α 3, α 4, and α 5 also caused hyperactive increases in the number of 281 282 C-shaped body bends at 48 hpf. Wild-type larvae exhibited an average of 1.37 ±0.04 283 (n=383) C-bends per escape response, while mutations in $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ performed an 284 average of 5.32 ± 1.89 (n=18) and 3.88 ± 1.01 (n=18) C-bends per escape response, respectively (Figure 3A, B). Notably, mutations in pair $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ increased the number of C-285 286 bends per escape response without causing significantly longer swimming durations, while 287 mutations in pair $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ caused an increase in swimming durations without a significant 288 increase in C-bends. No mutant pairs without α 3 were found to increase the number of 289 high-amplitude body bends. Similarly, no mutant pairs without $\alpha 5$ were found to increase 290 swimming durations. These observations suggest that α 3 might play a dominant role in 291 controlling the number of C-bends during an escape response, while α 5 predominantly 292 regulates swimming durations.

293

295 Hyperactive phenotypes at 48 hpf are absent or attenuated by 96 hpf

296 The hyperactive phenotypes observed at 48 hpf were absent or greatly reduced by 297 96 hpf. Mutations in pair $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ resulted in significantly longer duration swimming episodes 298 at 48 hpf, however at 96 hpf the swimming behavior of these same animals was 299 indistinguishable from controls (Figure 4A, B). Mutations in pair $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ did result in longer 300 duration swimming responses at both 48 and 96 hpf, however, at the later time point, the 301 difference compared to controls was far less (a difference of 1.18±0.15 (n=18) seconds at 302 48 hpf and 0.41±0.07 (n=18) seconds at 96 hpf compared to controls). No other mutations 303 caused increased swimming durations. Similarly, although mutations in pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ or 304 $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ induced excess C-bends at 48 hpf, neither these nor any other mutations were 305 found to cause significantly greater large-amplitude body flexions at 96 hpf (Figure 4C,D). 306

307 α3 F2 germline mutants confirm that hyperactive phenotypes at 48 hpf are reduced
 308 by 96 hpf

309 Previous studies have suggested that phenotypes observed in F0 somatic mutants 310 can weaken during development, possibly due to the effects of mosaicism (ref). To 311 address whether this mechanism could explain the reduction in hyperactive phenotypes at 312 96 hpf, we generated α 3 germline mutants (Figure 5A). In line with α 3 selectively 313 controlling high-amplitude body bends but not swimming duration, α 3 germline mutants 314 demonstrated an increase in the number of C-bends without a significant increase in 315 response times at 48 hpf (Figure 5B). The α 3 germline mutant phenotype was more robust 316 than the α 3 F0 somatic phenotype, likely due to the mosaicism of somatic mutants. Similar 317 to our observations using somatic mutants, at 96 hpf the number of C-bends were 318 attenuated and not significantly different from sibling controls (p = 0.3879). These data

indicate that the absent or weaker phenotypes observed in the F0 somatic mutants at 96hpf are not due to mosaicism.

321 Given that the behavior of α 3 mutants was indistinguishable from wild-type controls 322 at 96 hpf, we next asked whether local field potential recordings from the larval brain 323 (Figure 5C) would provide a more sensitive measure of phenotype abnormalities than our 324 behavioral assay. Consistent with previous findings (Liu and Baraban, 2019), LFP 325 recordings over a period of 30 minutes revealed frequent large and abnormal discharges 326 of activity at 96 hpf when PTZ was applied. However, α 3 germline mutants and controls 327 had neuronal activities that were indistinguishable from one another, consistent with their 328 functionally normal swimming behaviors (Figure 5D).

329

330 **DISCUSSION**

331 In this study, we performed an F0 somatic mutant screen to identify GABA_A α 332 subunits that regulate hyperactive swimming during early larval stages of zebrafish 333 development. We presented evidence that combinations of α 3, α 4 and α 5 have selective 334 roles in mediating different aspects of hyperactive behavior at 48 hpf. F0 somatic 335 mutations in pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ significantly increased the number of high amplitude body bends, 336 while mutations in pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ significantly increased swimming duration, and mutation of 337 pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ caused significant increases in both parameters. We found that hyperactivity 338 caused by somatic disruption of GABA_A α subunits is ostensibly reduced by 96 hpf. a 339 result confirmed using germline α 3 mutants using both behavioral and electrophysiological 340 assays. Taken together, these data lay a foundation to investigate how GABAA receptors 341 establish and maintain control of escape behavior at neuronal and circuit levels.

342

343 GABA_A Receptor Subunits Likely Control Escape Behavior Through Different

344 Cellular Mechanisms

345 The GABA_A α subunits α 3, α 4, and α 5 regulate escape behavior at 48 hpf, however 346 the cellular mechanisms through which they exert their effects are not yet clear. The 347 zebrafish hindbrain, in particular the Mauthner Cell and its homologs, play a central and 348 well-studied role in C-starts, and these cells are regulated by GABA (Triller et al. 1997; 349 Korn and Faber 2005; Burgess and Granato 2007; Kohashi et al. 2012; Roy and Ali 2014; 350 Liu and Baraban 2019). α 3, α 4, and α 5 are all expressed in discrete populations of 351 hindbrain cells by 48 hpf, so it is possible their reduced expression dysregulates hindbrain 352 circuits to generate hyperactive behavior (Monesson-Olson et al. 2018). Alternatively, each 353 of these subunits is also expressed in distinct cell types in the spinal cord, so it is also possible that spinal cord GABA_A α subunit disruption elicits hyperactive behavior. In future 354 355 studies it will be interesting to determine the relative contribution of the hindbrain versus 356 the spinal cord in generating the abnormal behaviors caused by reduced GABA_A receptor function. 357

Whether through the hindbrain or spinal cord, α 3, α 4, and α 5 likely control escape behavior through different neurons or subcellular mechanisms. In both the hindbrain and spinal cord at 48 hpf, α 3 and α 5 are expressed in overlapping domains, raising the possibility they are expressed in at least some of the same cells (Monesson-Olson et al. 2018). In both structures, α 4 seems to be expressed in cells distinct from α 3 and α 5, therefore its effects could be mediated by different neurons.

Even when expressed in the same cells, α 3, α 4, and α 5 are probably expressed in different subcellular domains. In mammalian neurons, GABA_A receptors have been shown to cluster in either synaptic or extrasynaptic domains to mediate phasic or tonic inhibition (Farrant and Nusser 2005; Jacob et al. 2008; Fritschy and Panzanelli 2014). α 3-containing

receptors are enriched at synapses, to mediate phasic inhibition, while α 4 and α 5containing receptors are predominantly extrasynaptic, to provide tonic inhibition. Although the subcellular localizations of these subunits have not been directly investigated in zebrafish, the high degree of amino acid sequence similarity suggests that their subcellular distributions are likely conserved, which would localize α 3 towards synapses while α 4 and α 5 would be found in mainly extrasynaptic domains. High resolution expression analysis will be required to determine if this is the case.

375 We did not find significant effects in response to somatic mutation of $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2a$, $\alpha 2b$, 376 α 6a or α 6b, however these subunits cannot be entirely ruled out from playing regulatory 377 roles in controlling zebrafish escape behavior. F0 somatic mutations reduce, but do not 378 eliminate expression, so it is possible that further reducing the expression of these 379 subunits could reveal locomotor phenotypes. Additionally, our screen focused on two 380 behavioral parameters at two developmental stages. Examining additional developmental 381 stages, responses to other sensory stimuli, or other parameters, such as body bend 382 frequency or frequency variability, could reveal roles for these subunits in controlling 383 escape behavior.

384

385 Zebrafish Exhibit Robust Homeostatic Mechanisms Across Development

The hyperactive phenotypes observed at 48 hpf were all absent or greatly reduced by 96 hpf. This result was surprising since PTZ readily elicits hyperactive behavior at all time points after 48 hpf, demonstrating that GABA_A receptors play critical roles in regulating locomotion across a wide variety of developmental stages. A likely explanation is that zebrafish employ robust homeostatic compensation. The mechanisms that underlie this compensation are probably multifaceted. The teleost lineage has undergone genome duplication such that there are many duplicated genes in zebrafish, including several

393 GABA_A receptor subunits (Amores et al. 1998; Postlethwait et al. 1998; Monesson-Olson 394 et al. 2018). The expression of homologous genes or simply genes with similar sequence 395 motifs can be recruited through transcriptional adaptation, which is thought to be triggered 396 by nonsense mediated decay (EI-Brolosy et al. 2019). Mutations that cause frame-shifts 397 and premature stop codons can cause nonsense mediated decay, therefore many of the 398 mutations generated in this study almost certainly induced transcriptional adaptation. Pairs 399 of α subunits were mutated to uncover adaptations within the α subunit subfamily, however 400 transcriptional responses could involve other GABA_A receptor subunits. At the network 401 level, neurons could switch the neurotransmitter they release or entire circuits could be 402 reconfigured to maintain excitation-inhibition balance as has been observed in developing 403 frogs and some α subunit knock-out mice, respectively (Schneider Gasser et al. 2007; 404 Panzanelli et al. 2011). Our results here identify a narrow window between 48 and 96 hpf 405 across which robust adaptations occur in developing zebrafish. The short time period, 406 relatively small nervous system, ex-utero development, genetic resources, and high-407 resolution brain and spinal cord atlases make larval zebrafish an outstanding system to 408 further investigate the homeostatic mechanisms activated by GABAA receptor mutation. 409

410 **Zebrafish** α**3 Mutants as a Possible Epilepsy Model**

In addition to their roles in modulating locomotion, GABA_A receptors are widely
viewed as central factors in the development, progression, and treatment of epilepsy
syndromes (Olsen and Avoli 1997; Treiman 2001; Cherubini 2012; Walker and Kullmann
2012). Abnormalities in GABA_A receptor inhibition are observed in genetic and acquired
epilepsies, drugs that block these receptors, like PTZ, cause seizures, and drugs that
enhance GABA_A receptor inhibition are potent anticonvulsants. In zebrafish, PTZ
application is an established seizure model, and loss-of-function mutations in v2 and β3

418 cause larval hyperactive behavior and/or neuronal activity that model the epilepsies 419 caused by mutations in their human orthologs (Baraban et al. 2005; Baxendale et al. 2012; 420 Liao et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2019; Cho et al. 2020). Similarly, mutations in zebrafish α 1 cause 421 light-triggered, hyperactive behavior in juvenile fish (older than ~5 weeks) that seems to 422 model epilepsy caused by reduced α 1 function (Samarut et al. 2018). Here, we showed 423 that mutation of α 3 causes hyperactive behavior in larval zebrafish. Human loss-of-function 424 variants in α 3 cause a rare, severe epileptic encephalopathy, raising the possibility that 425 zebrafish α 3 mutants at least partially model this disorder (Niturad et al. 2017). It is not yet 426 clear whether the zebrafish hyperactive swimming observed at 48 hpf is due to brain or 427 spinal cord mechanisms but, regardless, it is relatively simple to screen the phenotype 428 caused by α3 disruption. Given the proven effectiveness of larval zebrafish for high-429 throughput small molecule screens, α 3 mutants could be a new and useful resource to identify novel anti-epileptic drugs (Griffin et al. 2017; Lam and Peterson 2019; Griffin et al. 430 431 2020; Patton et al. 2021 Jun 11).

432

433 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank Abhay Mittal for developing kinematic analysis software; Saige Calkins, Caroline Martin, and Oshiomah Oyageshio for excellent fish care; and Marie Abate, Sean Doherty, Ana Dolan, and Chinemerem Nwokemodo-Ihejirika for technical assistance. We also thank the rest of the members of the Downes and Trapani labs, and the entire University of Massachusetts zebrafish community for thoughtful discussion.

440 FUNDING

This work was funded by the National Science Foundation (IOS 1456866) to GBD andJGT.

443 FIGURE LEGENDS

444 Figure 1. Pentylenetetrazole (PTZ) exposure induces hyperactive swimming in early

- 445 **larval zebrafish.** PTZ is a potent GABA_A receptor antagonist. Bath application of 10 mM
- 446 PTZ to both 48 and 96 hpf zebrafish caused an increase in (A) swim duration shown in
- seconds and (B) C-bends, defined as large-amplitude body bends over 110°. Box plots are
- representing the 25% and 75% quartiles with the median represented by a horizontal black
- line and the mean represented by a black plus sign within the box. Tukey's whiskers were
- used. *n*=20 and 39 for wild type and PTZ treated larvae, respectively, ***P*<0.01,
- 451 *****P*<0.001, ******P*<0.0001 using unpaired Welch's t-tests.
- 452

457

453 Figure 2. An F0 somatic mutation screen of GABA_A receptor α subunits identifies

454 mutant combinations that show increased swimming durations at 48 hpf. (A)

455 Overview of the GABAAR α subunit screen. Different colored boxes represent different

456 aspects of the screen. (B) Heat matrix of the 36 single and double F0 somatic mutant

458 average swim length. The box at lower right shows mock or uninjected controls. Ordinary

conditions indicating mean startle response durations. The heatbar (*right*) indicates the

459 one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in swimming durations according to

460 knock-down target, (N=995 larvae total, 612 mutants with 13-26 larvae per condition, 383

461 wild-type siblings; (F(36,958) = 5.316, p<0.0001). A Dunnet's post-hoc test revealed

462 significant pairwise differences between $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ compared to wild-type and $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ compared 463 to wild-type (*white asterisks*), with those conditions exhibiting average swim durations of 464 1.27±0.33 seconds (n=18) and 1.69±0.49 seconds, respectively. (C) Boxplots of $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$

and $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ somatic mutant swimming durations show the increased swimming durations

466 compared to controls. ****P*<0.001, *****P*<0.0001 using Dunnett's multiple comparison test.

(D) Traces of representative escape responses for wild-type, α3/α5 and α4/α5 somatic
mutants. The color spectrum of each trace indicates the beginning (*red*) and end (*blue*) of
the response, and *white circles* represent the location of C bends. The videos used to
generate these traces are provided in the Supplementary Data.

471

472 Figure 3. Somatic mutation of pairs $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ or $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ causes an increased number of large-amplitude body bends at 48 hpf. (A) Heat matrix of the α subunit single and 473 474 double somatic mutant conditions indicating mean numbers of C-bends per response. The 475 heatbar (*right*) indicates the average swim length. The box at lower right shows mock or 476 uninjected controls. Ordinary one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in large-477 amplitude body bends according to knock-down target, (F(36, 834)=4.221, p<0.0001). A 478 Dunnett's post-hoc test revealed significant pairwise differences between $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ compared 479 to wild-type and $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ compared to wild-type (*white asterisks*), with those conditions 480 exhibiting average C-bend per response of 5.32 and 3.88, respectively, compared to 1.37. 481 (B) Boxplots of $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ somatic mutant C-bends show the increased number of 482 large amplitude body bends per swimming episode compared to sibling controls. ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001 using Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (C) Traces of 483 representative escape responses for wild-type, $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ and $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$. The color spectrum of 484 485 each trace indicates the beginning (red) and end (blue) of the response, and white circles 486 represent the location of C bends. The videos used to generate these traces are provided 487 in the Supplementary Data.

488

490 Figure 4. Only $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ somatic mutants continue to exhibit a hyperactive phenotype at

491 **96 hpf.** (A) Heat matrix of the single and double F0 somatic mutant conditions showing 492 evoked swimming response durations at 96 hpf. The heatbar (*right*) indicates the average 493 swim length. The box at lower right shows mock or uninjected controls. Ordinary one-way 494 ANOVA revealed a significant difference in swimming duration dependent upon knock-495 down target (F(36,754) = 2.914, p<0.0001). A Dunnet's post-hoc test revealed only a 496 significant pairwise difference between $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ (*white asterisk*) and wild-type. (B) A boxplot 497 of $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$, $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ mutant pairs and controls. Both mutant conditions showed increased 498 swimming durations at 48 hpf, however only the $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ pair was statistically significant at 499 96 hpf. Although significant, the $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ swimming duration is reduced compared to 48 hpf. 500 ** P<0.01 using Dunnett's multiple comparison test. (C) Heat matrix of C bends at 96 hpf. 501 No significant differences were detected. (D) Box plots show that conditions that 502 demonstrated increased C bends at 48 hpf were not significantly elevated at 96 hpf.

503

504 Figure 5. α3 F2 germline mutants confirm the α3 G0 somatic mutant phenotype.

505 (A) A schematic of the α 3 protein is shown based upon (Macdonald et al. 2010). The four 506 transmembrane domains are indicated, along with the location of the zebrafish (Danio 507 *rerio*) and human (*Homo sapiens*) α 3 mutations. (B) Box plots for α 3 trans-heterozygous 508 mutants and siblings swimming duration in seconds (*left*) and C-bends per response (*right*) 509 at both 48 and 96 hpf. Unpaired Student's t-test indicated that α 3 mutants exhibit 510 significantly more C-bends at 48 hpf but not at 96 hpf ****=p<0.0001. α3 mutant swimming 511 durations were not significantly greater than sibling controls at either time point. (C) 512 Schematic of LFP recording setup from a 96 hpf larvae. (D) LFP traces (*left*) from wild-type

513	(n=3), siblings (n=7), PTZ treated wild-type (n=3), α 3 heterozygotes (n=6), and α 3 trans-
514	heterozygous mutants (n=3). Ictal-like activity was only detected in PTZ treated fish
515	compared to wild-type (<i>right</i>), as revealed by ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnet's
516	post-hoc test, ****=p<0.0001.

517

518 Supplementary Figure 1. CRISPR-Cas 9 targeting of tyr confirms high-efficiency 519 gene targeting. (A) Wild-type uninjected (*left*) and fish in which tyr gRNA and Cas9 520 encoding RNA were injected (*right*) at 48 (top) and 96 hpf (bottom). The fish in which the 521 tyr gene was targeted show reductions in melanophores. (B) Bar graph showing a pixel 522 density analysis of uninjected (n=21), tyr CRISPR-injected (n=36), or PTU-treated larvae 523 (n=20). tyr CRISPR-injected larvae show reduced pixel density at both developmental ages, indicating effective gene knock-down. Each group measured against pixels detected 524 525 above an arbitrary threshold determined a priori. Ordinary One-Way ANOVA was used ****=p<0.0001. (C) Fragment Analysis of WT (top) or tyr injected embryos (bottom). While 526 527 PCR analysis of wild-type larvae reveals a single peak of ~278 base pairs, PCR analysis 528 across this same region of tyr-CRISPR-injected larvae shows several peaks, indicating the 529 presence of indels in the target region.

530

531 Supplementary Movie 1. Representative movie of a wild-type larva touch response

at 48 hpf. The video was recorded at 250 frames/second (1.18 seconds in length) and was
used to generate the trajectory trace shown in Figure 2D. Wild-type larvae respond to
touch by performing a C-bend followed by rhythmic, smaller amplitude body bends to
propel the animal away from the touch stimulus.

536 Supplementary Movie 2. Representative movie of an α3/α5 G0 somatic mutant at 48

537 hpf. The video was recorded at 250 frames/second (5.48 seconds in length) and was used

- to generate the trajectory trace shown in Figure 2D. $\alpha 3/\alpha 5$ mutants exhibit both increased
- 539 swimming durations and C-bends per response.

540

541 Supplementary Movie 3. Representative movie of an α4/α5 G0 somatic mutant at 48

- 542 hpf. The video was recorded at 250 frames/second (3.93 seconds in length) and was used
- 543 to generate the trajectory trace shown in Figure 2D. $\alpha 4/\alpha 5$ mutants exhibit increased
- swimming durations without a statistically significant increase in the number of C-bends.

545

546 Supplementary Movie 4. Representative movie of an α3/α4 G0 somatic mutant at 48

- 547 hpf. The video was recorded at 250 frames/second (0.99 seconds in length) and was used
- to generate the trajectory trace shown in Figure 3C. $\alpha 3/\alpha 4$ mutants exhibit increased C-
- 549 bends without a statistically significant increase in length of response durations.

550

551 **REFERENCES**

- Amores A, Force A, Yan YL, Joly L, Amemiya C, Fritz A, Ho RK, Langeland J, Prince V,
 Wang YL, et al. 1998. Zebrafish hox clusters and vertebrate genome evolution.
 Science. 282(5394):1711–1714. doi:10.1126/science.282.5394.1711.
- Baraban SC, Taylor MR, Castro PA, Baier H. 2005. Pentylenetetrazole induced changes
 in zebrafish behavior, neural activity and c-fos expression. Neuroscience.
 131(3):759–768. doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2004.11.031.
- Baxendale S, Holdsworth CJ, Meza Santoscoy PL, Harrison MRM, Fox J, Parkin CA,
 Ingham PW, Cunliffe VT. 2012. Identification of compounds with anti-convulsant
 properties in a zebrafish model of epileptic seizures. Dis Model Mech. 5(6):773–
 784. doi:10.1242/dmm.010090.

- Brustein E, Saint-Amant L, Buss RR, Chong M, McDearmid JR, Drapeau P. 2003.
 Steps during the development of the zebrafish locomotor network. J
 Physiol-Paris. 97(1):77–86. doi:10.1016/j.jphysparis.2003.10.009.
- 565 Burgess HA, Granato M. 2007. Sensorimotor gating in larval zebrafish. J Neurosci Off J 566 Soc Neurosci. 27(18):4984–4994. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0615-07.2007.
- 567 Carrington B, Varshney GK, Burgess SM, Sood R. 2015. CRISPR-STAT: an easy and
 568 reliable PCR-based method to evaluate target-specific sgRNA activity. Nucleic Acids
 569 Res. 43(22):e157. doi:10.1093/nar/gkv802.
- Cherubini E. 2012. Phasic GABAA-Mediated Inhibition. In: Noebels JL, Avoli M,
 Rogawski MA, Olsen RW, Delgado-Escueta AV, editors. Jasper's Basic
 Mechanisms of the Epilepsies. 4th ed. Bethesda (MD)
- 573 Cho S-J, Park E, Baker A, Reid AY. 2020. Age Bias in Zebrafish Models of Epilepsy:
 574 What Can We Learn From Old Fish? Front Cell Dev Biol. 8:573303.
 575 doi:10.3389/fcell.2020.573303.
- 576 Chua HC, Chebib M. 2017. GABAA Receptors and the Diversity in their Structure and
 577 Pharmacology. Adv Pharmacol San Diego Calif. 79:1–34.
 578 doi:10.1016/bs.apha.2017.03.003.
- Cocco A, Rönnberg AMC, Jin Z, André GI, Vossen LE, Bhandage AK, Thörnqvist P-O,
 Birnir B, Winberg S. 2017. Characterization of the γ-aminobutyric acid signaling
 system in the zebrafish (Danio rerio Hamilton) central nervous system by reverse
 transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction. Neuroscience. 343:300–321.
 doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2016.07.018.
- Eaton RC, Bombardieri RA, Meyer DL. 1977. The Mauthner-initiated startle response in
 teleost fish. J Exp Biol. 66(1):65–81. doi:10.1242/jeb.66.1.65.
- Eaton RC, Lee RKK, Foreman MB. 2001. The Mauthner cell and other identified neurons
 of the brainstem escape network of fish. Prog Neurobiol. 63(4):467–485.
 doi:10.1016/S0301-0082(00)00047-2.
- EI-Brolosy MA, Kontarakis Z, Rossi A, Kuenne C, Günther S, Fukuda N, Kikhi K, Boezio
 GLM, Takacs CM, Lai S-L, et al. 2019. Genetic compensation triggered by mutant
 mRNA degradation. Nature. 568(7751):193–197. doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1064-z.
- Farrant M, Nusser Z. 2005. Variations on an inhibitory theme: phasic and tonic
 activation of GABA(A) receptors. Nat Rev Neurosci. 6(3):215–229.
 doi:10.1038/nrn1625.
- Friedrich T, Lambert AM, Masino MA, Downes GB. 2012. Mutation of zebrafish
 dihydrolipoamide branched-chain transacylase E2 results in motor dysfunction and
 models maple syrup urine disease. Dis Model Mech. 5(2):248–258.
 doi:10.1242/dmm.008383.

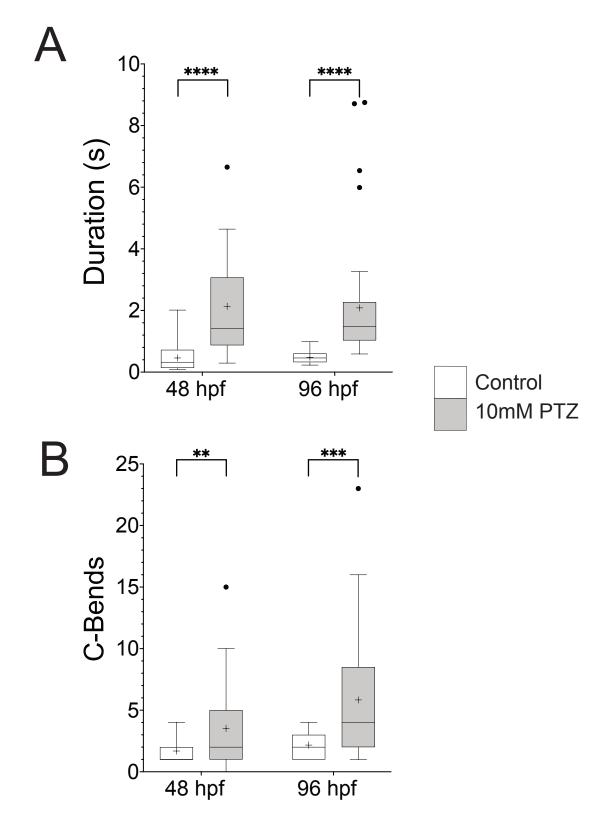
- Fritschy J-M, Panzanelli P. 2014. GABAA receptors and plasticity of inhibitory
 neurotransmission in the central nervous system. Eur J Neurosci. 39(11):1845–
 1865. doi:10.1111/ejn.12534.
- Gagnon JA, Valen E, Thyme SB, Huang P, Akhmetova L, Ahkmetova L, Pauli A,
 Montague TG, Zimmerman S, Richter C, et al. 2014. Efficient mutagenesis by Cas9
 protein-mediated oligonucleotide insertion and large-scale assessment of single-guide
 RNAs. PloS One. 9(5):e98186. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0098186.
- Granato M, van Eeden FJ, Schach U, Trowe T, Brand M, Furutani-Seiki M, Haffter P,
 Hammerschmidt M, Heisenberg CP, Jiang YJ, et al. 1996. Genes controlling and
 mediating locomotion behavior of the zebrafish embryo and larva. Dev Camb Engl.
 123:399–413.
- Griffin A, Anvar M, Hamling K, Baraban SC. 2020. Phenotype-Based Screening of
 Synthetic Cannabinoids in a Dravet Syndrome Zebrafish Model. Front Pharmacol.
 11:464. doi:10.3389/fphar.2020.00464.
- Griffin A, Hamling KR, Knupp K, Hong S, Lee LP, Baraban SC. 2017. Clemizole and
 modulators of serotonin signalling suppress seizures in Dravet syndrome. Brain J
 Neurol. 140(3):669–683. doi:10.1093/brain/aww342.
- Hinckley C, Seebach B, Ziskind-Conhaim L. 2005. Distinct roles of glycinergic and
 GABAergic inhibition in coordinating locomotor-like rhythms in the neonatal mouse
 spinal cord. Neuroscience. 131(3):745–758.
- 619 doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2004.11.034.
- Jacob TC, Moss SJ, Jurd R. 2008. GABA(A) receptor trafficking and its role in the dynamic
 modulation of neuronal inhibition. Nat Rev Neurosci. 9(5):331–343.
 doi:10.1038/nrn2370.
- Kimmel CB, Ballard WW, Kimmel SR, Ullmann B, Schilling TF. 1995. Stages of
 embryonic development of the zebrafish. Dev Dyn Off Publ Am Assoc Anat.
 203(3):253–310. doi:10.1002/aja.1002030302.
- Kohashi T, Nakata N, Oda Y. 2012. Effective Sensory Modality Activating an Escape
 Triggering Neuron Switches during Early Development in Zebrafish. J Neurosci.
 32(17):5810–5820.
- Korn H, Faber DS. 2005. The Mauthner cell half a century later: a neurobiological model
 for decision-making? Neuron. 47(1):13–28. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2005.05.019.
- Kralic JE, Sidler C, Parpan F, Homanics GE, Morrow AL, Fritschy J-M. 2006.
 Compensatory alteration of inhibitory synaptic circuits in cerebellum and thalamus
 of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A receptor alpha1 subunit knockout mice. J Comp
 Neurol. 495(4):408–421. doi:10.1002/cne.20866.
- Labun K, Montague TG, Krause M, Torres Cleuren YN, Tjeldnes H, Valen E. 2019.
 CHOPCHOP v3: expanding the CRISPR web toolbox beyond genome editing. Nucleic
 Acids Res. 47(W1):W171–W174. doi:10.1093/nar/gkz365.

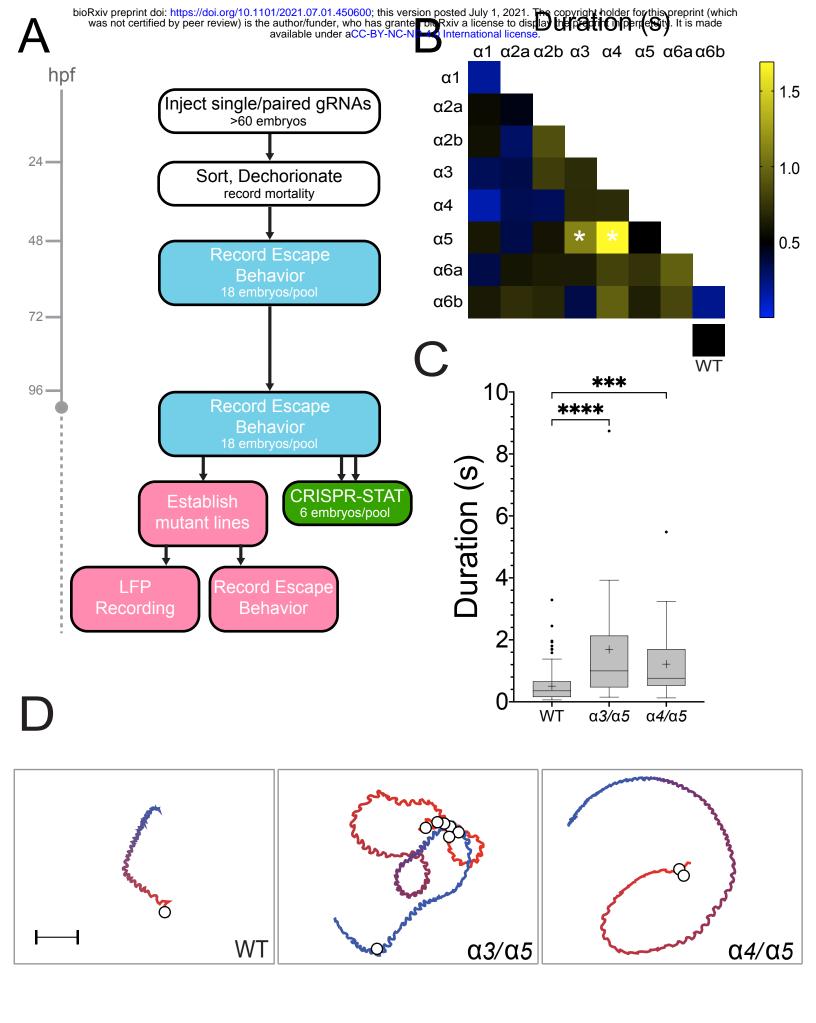
- Lam P-Y, Peterson RT. 2019. Developing zebrafish disease models for in vivo small
 molecule screens. Curr Opin Chem Biol. 50:37–44. doi:10.1016/j.cbpa.2019.02.005.
- Lambert Thomas D., Howard J, Plant A, Soffe S, Roberts A. 2004. Mechanisms and
 significance of reduced activity and responsiveness in resting frog tadpoles. J Exp Biol.
 207(Pt 7):1113–1125. doi:10.1242/jeb.00866.
- Lambert T. D., Li W-C, Soffe SR, Roberts A. 2004. Brainstem control of activity and
 responsiveness in resting frog tadpoles: tonic inhibition. J Comp Physiol A
 Neuroethol Sens Neural Behav Physiol. 190(4):331–342. doi:10.1007/s00359-0040505-8.
- Laurie DJ, Seeburg PH, Wisden W. 1992. The distribution of 13 GABAA receptor
 subunit mRNAs in the rat brain. II. Olfactory bulb and cerebellum. J Neurosci Off J
 Soc Neurosci. 12(3):1063–1076.
- Laurie DJ, Wisden W, Seeburg PH. 1992. The distribution of thirteen GABAA receptor
 subunit mRNAs in the rat brain. III. Embryonic and postnatal development. J Neurosci
 Off J Soc Neurosci. 12(11):4151–4172.
- Laverty D, Desai R, Uchański T, Masiulis S, Stec WJ, Malinauskas T, Zivanov J, Pardon E,
 Steyaert J, Miller KW, et al. 2019. Cryo-EM structure of the human α1β3γ2 GABA A
 receptor in a lipid bilayer. Nature. 565(7740):516–520. doi:10.1038/s41586-0180833-4.
- Liao M, Kundap U, Rosch RE, Burrows DRW, Meyer MP, Ouled Amar Bencheikh B,
 Cossette P, Samarut É. 2019. Targeted knockout of GABA-A receptor gamma 2
 subunit provokes transient light-induced reflex seizures in zebrafish larvae. Dis Model
 Mech. 12(11). doi:10.1242/dmm.040782.
- Liu J, Baraban SC. 2019. Network Properties Revealed during Multi-Scale Calcium
 Imaging of Seizure Activity in Zebrafish. eNeuro. 6(1). doi:10.1523/ENEURO.0041 19.2019.
- Macdonald RL, Kang J-Q, Gallagher MJ. 2010. Mutations in GABAA receptor subunits
 associated with genetic epilepsies. J Physiol. 588(11):1861–1869.
 doi:10.1113/jphysiol.2010.186999.
- Masiulis S, Desai R, Uchański T, Serna Martin I, Laverty D, Karia D, Malinauskas T,
 Zivanov J, Pardon E, Kotecha A, et al. 2019. GABAA receptor signalling mechanisms
 revealed by structural pharmacology. Nature. 565(7740):454–459. doi:10.1038/s41586018-0832-5.
- McKeown KA, Downes GB, Hutson LD. 2009. Modular laboratory exercises to analyze
 the development of zebrafish motor behavior. Zebrafish. 6(2):179–185.
 doi:10.1089/zeb.2008.0564.
- McKeown KA, Moreno R, Hall VL, Ribera AB, Downes GB. 2012. Disruption of Eaat2b, a
 glutamate transporter, results in abnormal motor behaviors in developing zebrafish.
 Dev Biol. 362(2):162–171. doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2011.11.001.

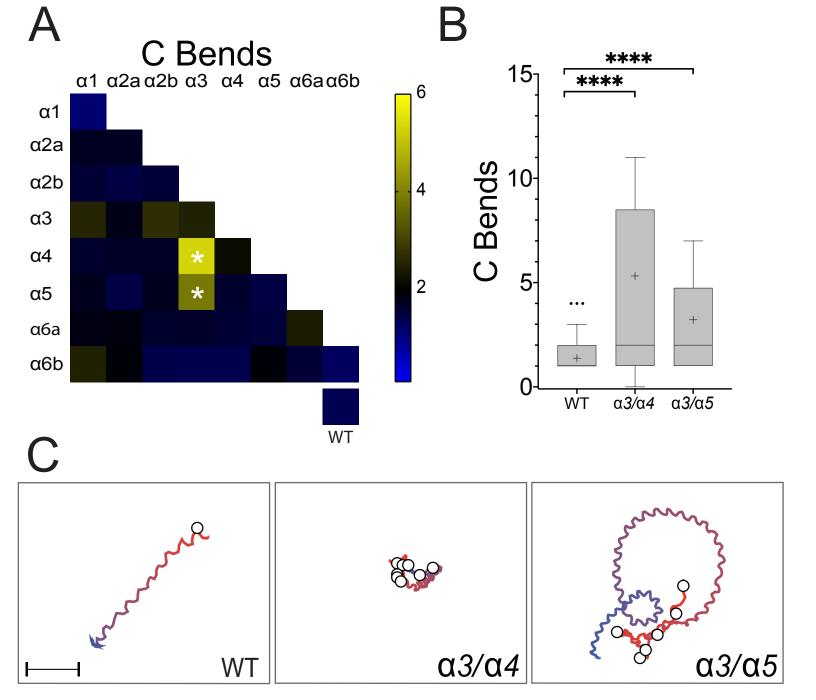
- 677 Monesson-Olson B, McClain JJ, Case AE, Dorman HE, Turkewitz DR, Steiner AB,
- Downes GB. 2018. Expression of the eight GABAA receptor α subunits in the
 developing zebrafish central nervous system. PloS One. 13(4):e0196083.
 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0196083.
- Montague TG, Cruz JM, Gagnon JA, Church GM, Valen E. 2014. CHOPCHOP: a
 CRISPR/Cas9 and TALEN web tool for genome editing. Nucleic Acids Res. 42(Web
 Server issue):W401-407. doi:10.1093/nar/gku410.
- Niturad CE, Lev D, Kalscheuer VM, Charzewska A, Schubert J, Lerman-Sagie T, Kroes
 HY, Oegema R, Traverso M, Specchio N, et al. 2017. Rare GABRA3 variants are
 associated with epileptic seizures, encephalopathy and dysmorphic features. Brain J
 Neurol. 140(11):2879–2894. doi:10.1093/brain/awx236.
- Olsen RW, Avoli M. 1997. GABA and epileptogenesis. Epilepsia. 38(4):399–407.
 doi:10.1111/j.1528-1157.1997.tb01728.x.
- O'Malley DM, Kao Y-H, Fetcho JR. 1996. Imaging the Functional Organization of Zebrafish
 Hindbrain Segments during Escape Behaviors. Neuron. 17(6):1145–1155.
 doi:10.1016/S0896-6273(00)80246-9.
- Panzanelli P, Gunn BG, Schlatter MC, Benke D, Tyagarajan SK, Scheiffele P, Belelli D,
 Lambert JJ, Rudolph U, Fritschy J-M. 2011. Distinct mechanisms regulate GABAA
 receptor and gephyrin clustering at perisomatic and axo-axonic synapses on CA1
 pyramidal cells. J Physiol. 589(Pt 20):4959–4980. doi:10.1113/jphysiol.2011.216028.
- Parichy DM, Elizondo MR, Mills MG, Gordon TN, Engeszer RE. 2009. Normal table of
 postembryonic zebrafish development: staging by externally visible anatomy of the
 living fish. Dev Dyn Off Publ Am Assoc Anat. 238(12):2975–3015.
- 700 doi:10.1002/dvdy.22113.
- Patton EE, Zon LI, Langenau DM. 2021 Jun 11. Zebrafish disease models in drug
 discovery: from preclinical modelling to clinical trials. Nat Rev Drug Discov.
 doi:10.1038/s41573-021-00210-8.
- Peng Z, Hauer B, Mihalek RM, Homanics GE, Sieghart W, Olsen RW, Houser CR. 2002.
 GABA(A) receptor changes in delta subunit-deficient mice: altered expression of
 alpha4 and gamma2 subunits in the forebrain. J Comp Neurol. 446(2):179–197.
 doi:10.1002/cne.10210.
- Perrins R, Walford A, Roberts A. 2002. Sensory activation and role of inhibitory
 reticulospinal neurons that stop swimming in hatchling frog tadpoles. J Neurosci Off
 J Soc Neurosci. 22(10):4229–4240. doi:20026404.
- Phulera S, Zhu H, Yu J, Claxton DP, Yoder N, Yoshioka C, Gouaux E. 2018. Cryo-EM
 structure of the benzodiazepine-sensitive α1β1γ2S tri-heteromeric GABAA receptor
 in complex with GABA. Swartz KJ, Aldrich R, editors. eLife. 7:e39383.
- 714 doi:10.7554/eLife.39383.

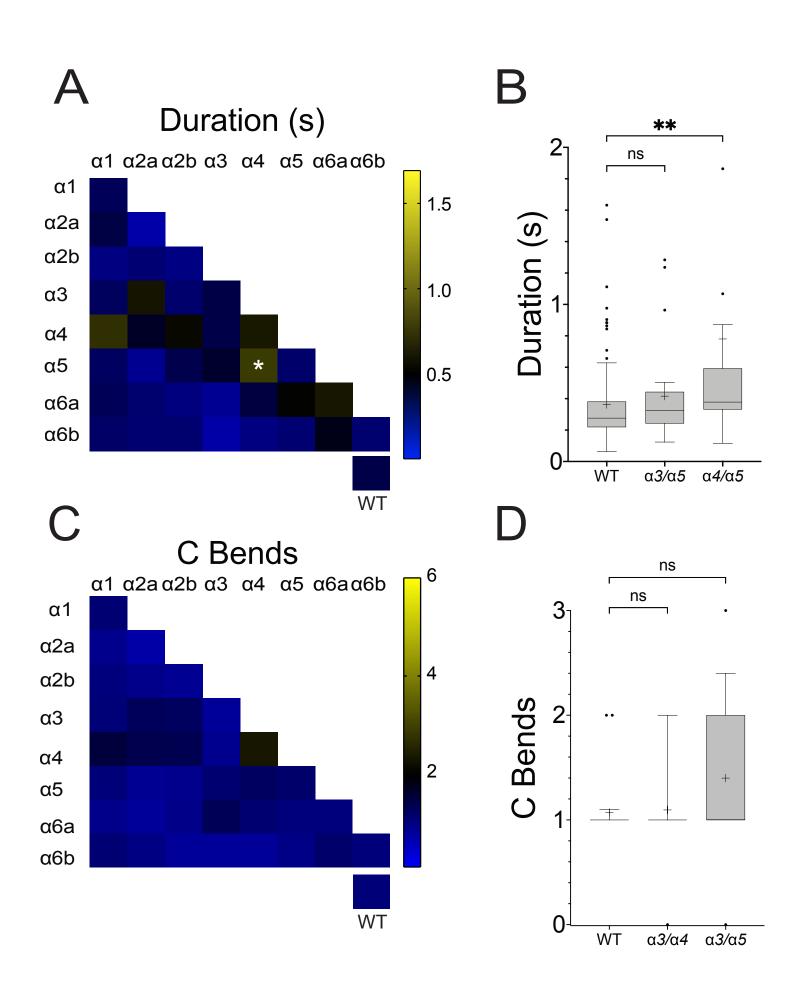
- Postlethwait JH, Yan YL, Gates MA, Horne S, Amores A, Brownlie A, Donovan A, Egan
- ES, Force A, Gong Z, et al. 1998. Vertebrate genome evolution and the zebrafish
 gene map. Nat Genet. 18(4):345–349. doi:10.1038/ng0498-345.
- Rothman JS, Silver RA. 2018. NeuroMatic: An Integrated Open-Source Software Toolkit
 for Acquisition, Analysis and Simulation of Electrophysiological Data. Front
 Neuroinformatics. 12:14. doi:10.3389/fninf.2018.00014.
- Roussel Y, Paradis M, Gaudreau SF, Lindsey BW, Bui TV. 2020. Spatiotemporal
 Transition in the Role of Synaptic Inhibition to the Tail Beat Rhythm of Developing
 Larval Zebrafish. eNeuro. 7(1). doi:10.1523/ENEURO.0508-18.2020.
- Roy B, Ali DW. 2014. Multiple types of GABAA responses identified from zebrafish
 Mauthner cells. Neuroreport. 25(15):1232–1236.
 doi:10.1097/WNR.0000000000258.
- Rudolph U, Möhler H. 2004. Analysis of GABAA receptor function and dissection of the
- pharmacology of benzodiazepines and general anesthetics through mouse genetics.
 Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 44:475–498.
- 730 doi:10.1146/annurev.pharmtox.44.101802.121429.
- Samarut É, Swaminathan A, Riché R, Liao M, Hassan-Abdi R, Renault S, Allard M, Dufour
 L, Cossette P, Soussi-Yanicostas N, et al. 2018. γ-Aminobutyric acid receptor alpha
 subunit loss of function causes genetic generalized epilepsy by impairing inhibitory
 network neurodevelopment. Epilepsia. 59(11):2061–2074. doi:10.1111/epi.14576.
- Schmitt DE, Hill RH, Grillner S. 2004. The spinal GABAergic system is a strong
 modulator of burst frequency in the lamprey locomotor network. J Neurophysiol.
 92(4):2357–2367. doi:10.1152/jn.00233.2004.
- Schneider Gasser EM, Duveau V, Prenosil GA, Fritschy J-M. 2007. Reorganization of
 GABAergic circuits maintains GABAA receptor-mediated transmission onto CA1
 interneurons in alpha1-subunit-null mice. Eur J Neurosci. 25(11):3287–3304.
- 741 doi:10.1111/j.1460-9568.2007.05558.x.
- Shah AN, Davey CF, Whitebirch AC, Miller AC, Moens CB. 2015. Rapid reverse genetic
 screening using CRISPR in zebrafish. Nat Methods. 12(6):535–540.
 doi:10.1038/nmeth.3360.
- Shah AN, Moens CB, Miller AC. 2016. Targeted candidate gene screens using
 CRISPR/Cas9 technology. Methods Cell Biol. 135:89–106.
 doi:10.1016/bs.mcb.2016.01.008.
- Sieghart W, Sperk G. 2002. Subunit composition, distribution and function of GABA(A)
 receptor subtypes. Curr Top Med Chem. 2(8):795–816.
 doi:10.2174/1568026023393507.
- Simon J, Wakimoto H, Fujita N, Lalande M, Barnard EA. 2004. Analysis of the set of
 GABA(A) receptor genes in the human genome. J Biol Chem. 279(40):41422–41435.
 doi:10.1074/jbc.M401354200.

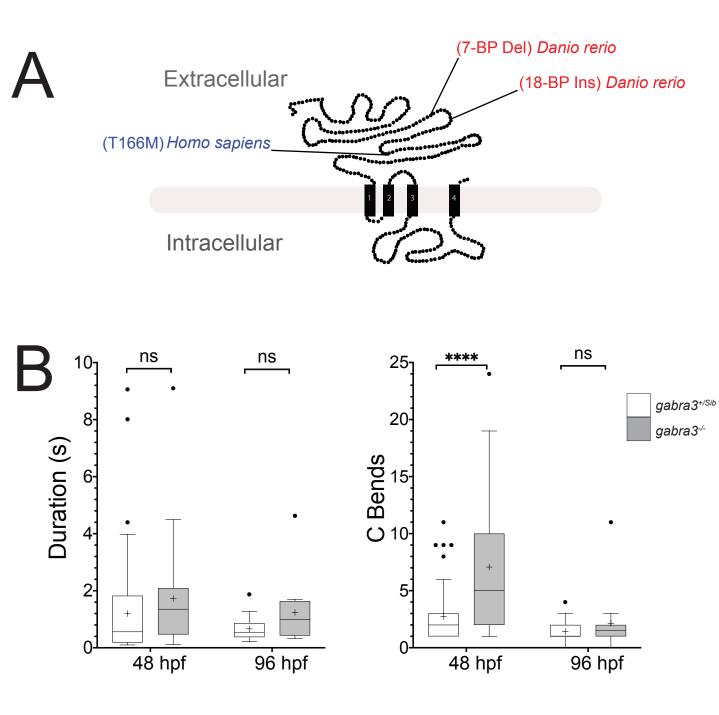
- Smith KS, Rudolph U. 2012. Anxiety and depression: mouse genetics and
 pharmacological approaches to the role of GABA(A) receptor subtypes.
 Neuropharmacology. 62(1):54–62. doi:10.1016/j.neuropharm.2011.07.026.
- Treiman DM. 2001. GABAergic mechanisms in epilepsy. Epilepsia. 42 Suppl 3:8–12.
 doi:10.1046/j.1528-1157.2001.042suppl.3008.x.
- Triller A, Rostaing P, Korn H, Legendre P. 1997. Morphofunctional evidence for mature
 synaptic contacts on the Mauthner cell of 52-hour-old zebrafish larvae. Neuroscience.
 80(1):133–145. doi:10.1016/s0306-4522(97)00092-4.
- Varshney GK, Pei W, LaFave MC, Idol J, Xu L, Gallardo V, Carrington B, Bishop K, Jones
 M, Li M, et al. 2015. High-throughput gene targeting and phenotyping in zebrafish using
 CRISPR/Cas9. Genome Res. 25(7):1030–1042. doi:10.1101/gr.186379.114.
- Vicini S, Ortinski P. 2004. Genetic manipulations of GABAA receptor in mice make
 inhibition exciting. Pharmacol Ther. 103(2):109–120.
 doi:10.1016/j.pharmthera.2004.06.001.
- Walker MC, Kullmann DM. 2012. Tonic GABAA Receptor-Mediated Signaling in Epilepsy.
 In: Noebels JL, Avoli M, Rogawski MA, Olsen RW, Delgado-Escueta AV, editors.
 Jasper's Basic Mechanisms of the Epilepsies. 4th ed. Bethesda (MD)
- Wisden W, Laurie DJ, Monyer H, Seeburg PH. 1992. The distribution of 13 GABAA
 receptor subunit mRNAs in the rat brain. I. Telencephalon, diencephalon,
 mesencephalon. J Neurosci Off J Soc Neurosci. 12(3):1040–1062.
- Wu RS, Lam II, Clay H, Duong DN, Deo RC, Coughlin SR. 2018. A Rapid Method for
 Directed Gene Knockout for Screening in G0 Zebrafish. Dev Cell. 46(1):112-125.e4.
 doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2018.06.003.
- Yang X, Jounaidi Y, Mukherjee K, Fantasia RJ, Liao EC, Yu B, Forman SA. 2019. Drug selective Anesthetic Insensitivity of Zebrafish Lacking γ-Aminobutyric Acid Type A
 Receptor β3 Subunits. Anesthesiology. 131(6):1276–1291.
- 780 doi:10.1097/ALN.00000000002963.
- Zeller A, Crestani F, Camenisch I, Iwasato T, Itohara S, Fritschy JM, Rudolph U. 2008.
 Cortical glutamatergic neurons mediate the motor sedative action of diazepam. Mol Pharmacol. 73(2):282–291. doi:10.1124/mol.107.038828.
- Zhou C, Huang Z, Ding L, Deel ME, Arain FM, Murray CR, Patel RS, Flanagan CD,
 Gallagher MJ. 2013. Altered cortical GABAA receptor composition, physiology, and
 endocytosis in a mouse model of a human genetic absence epilepsy syndrome. J Biol
 Chem. 288(29):21458–21472. doi:10.1074/jbc.M112.444372.
- Zhu S, Noviello CM, Teng J, Walsh RM, Kim JJ, Hibbs RE. 2018. Structure of a human
 synaptic GABA A receptor. Nature. 559(7712):67–72. doi:10.1038/s41586-018-0255-3.

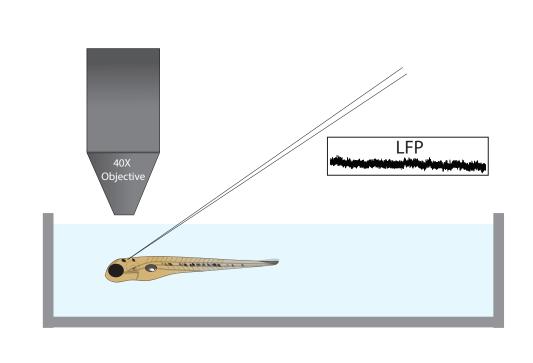


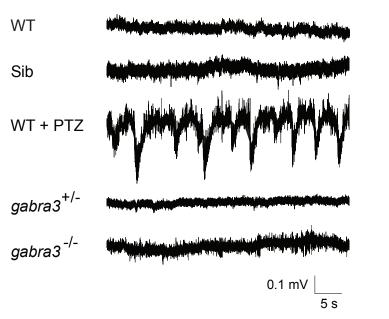












С

 \square

