Prolonged dexamethasone exposure enhances zebrafish lateral-line regeneration but disrupts

mitochondrial homeostasis and hair cell function

Allison L. Saettele[1], Hiu-tung C Wong[2], Katie S Kindt[2], Mark E Warchol[1,3] and Lavinia Sheets*[1,4]

1. Department of Otolaryngology, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

2. Section on Sensory Cell Development and Function, National Institutes on Deafness and Other

Communication Disorders, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, USA

3. Department of Neuroscience, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

4. Department of Developmental Biology, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

* Corresponding author

Lavinia Sheets: sheetsl@wustl.edu

ORCID ID

HTC Wong : 0000-0001-5826-8526

KS Kindt: 0000-0002-1065-8215

ME Warchol: 0000-0002-0445-6318

L Sheets: 0000-0001-5231-2450

Keywords: neuromast, regeneration, dexamethasone, mitochondrial homeostasis

<u>Abstract</u>

The synthetic glucocorticoid dexamethasone is commonly used to treat inner ear

disorders. Previous work in larval zebrafish has shown that dexamethasone treatment enhances

hair cell regeneration, yet dexamethasone has also been shown to inhibit regeneration of

peripheral nerves after lesion. We therefore used the zebrafish model to determine the impact of

dexamethasone treatment on lateral-line hair cells and primary afferents. To explore

dexamethasone in the context of regeneration, we used copper sulfate ($CuSO_4$) to induce hair

cell loss and retraction of nerve terminals, and then allowed animals to recover in

dexamethasone for 48 hours. Consistent with previously work, we observed significantly more

regenerated hair cells in dexamethasone-treated larvae. Importantly, we found that the afferent

processes beneath neuromasts also regenerated in the presence of dexamethasone and

formed an appropriate number of synapses, indicating that innervation of hair cells was not

inhibited by dexamethasone. In addition to regeneration, we also explored the effects of

prolonged dexamethasone exposure on lateral-line homeostasis and function. Following

dexamethasone treatment, we observed more negatively charged mitochondrial membrane

potentials ($\Delta\Psi m$) in neuromast hair cells and supporting cells. Hair cells exposed to

dexamethasone were also more vulnerable to neomycin-induced cell death. In response to a

fluid-jet delivered saturating stimulus, calcium influx through hair cell mechanotransduction

channels was significantly reduced, yet presynaptic calcium influx was unchanged.

Cumulatively, these observations indicate that dexamethasone enhances hair cell regeneration

in lateral-line neuromasts, yet also disrupts mitochondrial homeostasis, making hair cells more

vulnerable to ototoxic insults and possibly impacting hair cell function.

<u>Introduction</u>

40   Glucocorticoids are the major hormones of the stress response pathway. Through

interactions with ubiquitously expressed receptors, glucocorticoids are involved in regulating

many physiological processes, including circadian cycle, tissue homeostasis, metabolism, and

inflammation (Vettorazzi et al., 2021). Synthetic glucocorticoids, such as dexamethasone, are

commonly used to treat inner ear disorders, such as sudden hearing loss and Menier's disease,

and have been proposed as an intervention to protect against cisplatin ototoxicity (Waissbluth et

al., 2013). Achieving therapeutic levels of synthetic glucocorticoids in the inner ear with systemic

oral delivery of the drug requires high-dose therapy associated with adverse side effects (Egli

Gallo et al., 2013). Furthermore, systemic delivery of glucocorticoids to prevent cisplatin

ototoxicity may render some types of malignant cells insensitive to cisplatin chemotherapy (Ge

et al., 2012). Consequently, local intratympanic delivery directly into the ear has been tested as

a potential method for the prevention and treatment of inner ear disease (Marshak et al., 2014;

Patel, 2017). One limitation to this approach is that dexamethasone is rapidly cleared from the

middle ear (Salt et al., 2011). Thus, strategies to provide sustained delivery of dexamethasone

to the inner ear are an active area of research (Fernandez et al., 2016; Liao et al., 2021). While

retention of synthetic glucocorticoids in the ear may provide greater therapeutic benefits, the

effects of prolonged dexamethasone exposure on hair cell organ homeostasis and function are

not well defined.

58   The zebrafish model has been used in numerous studies evaluating the effects of

dexamethasone exposure on biological processes, including wound repair and complex tissue

regeneration. In a previous study, dexamethasone was identified in a large-scale screen as an

enhancer of hair cell regeneration after neomycin damage to zebrafish lateral-line organs, as

well as inducing addition of hair cells to lateral-line neuromasts in the absence of damage

(Namdaran et al., 2012). By contrast, treatment with dexamethasone has been shown to inhibit

peripheral nerve and spinal motor nerve regeneration in zebrafish (Bremer et al., 2017;

Ohnmacht et al., 2016). Cumulatively, these data suggest that, while dexamethasone

potentiates the generation of lateral-line hair cells, reinnervation of dexamethasone-induced hair

cells may be impaired.

In this study we sought to address two questions: 1) does dexamethasone treatment
enhance or inhibit afferent innervation and synapse formation in regenerating lateral-line
organs, and 2) does prolonged dexamethasone exposure affect hair cell homeostasis and
function? Our results reveal that dexamethasone treatment does not inhibit either afferent
innervation or synapse formation in newly produced hair cells. However, dexamethasone
treatment does increase mitochondrial activity in existing hair cells and reduces their evoked
mechanosensory responses, suggesting that prolonged dexamethasone exposure may
adversely affect hair cell function.

<u>Materials and Methods</u>

Ethics statement

Experimental procedures were performed with approval from the Washington University
School of Medicine or NIH Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, and in accordance
with NIH guidelines for use of zebrafish.

Zebrafish

Adult zebrafish were raised under standard conditions at 27-29°C in the Washington
University or NIH Zebrafish Facility. Embryos were raised in incubators at 28°C in embryo
media (EM; 15 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.15 mM KH_2PO_4, 0.042 mM
Na_2HPO_4, 0.714 mM $NaHCO_3$) with a 14 h:10 h light:dark cycle. At 3-4 days post fertilization
(dpf), larvae were anesthetized in 0.02% tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222) and screened for
transgenic fluorophores using a Leica MZ10 F stereomicroscope with fluorescence equipped
with a GFP and a DSR filter set. After 4 dpf, larvae were raised in 100-200 ml EM media in 250-
ml plastic beakers and fed rotifers daily. Sex of the animal was not considered for this study
because sex cannot be determined in larval zebrafish.

Transgenic lines
The following transgenic lines were used in this study: *TgBAC(neurod1:EGFP)*
(Obholzer et al., 2008); *Tg(myo6b:GCaMP3)* and *Tg(myo6b:mitoGCaMP3)* (Esterberg et al.,
2013)*, Tg(mpeg1:yfp)* (Roca & Ramakrishnan, 2013)*, Tg(tnks1bp1:EGFP)* (Behra et al., 2012)
and *Tg(myo6b:GCaMP6sCAAX)* (Sheets et al., 2017).

Copper ablation of neuromasts and dexamethasone post-treatment

To ablate lateral-line neuromast hair cells and induce afferent neurite retraction, 5 dpf
larvae were exposed to 3 μM $CuSO_4$ (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# 451677) diluted in EM in cell
strainers (Corning; Cat# 431752) for 1 hour. After exposure, larvae were rinsed, and then

allowed to swim freely during a 2-hour recovery in EM. Immediately following this 2-hour

recovery, larvae were moved to 6-well plates (Falcon, Cat# 351146) containing 4 mL EM per

well with either 0.1% DMSO (drug carrier alone) or 0.1% DMSO + 10 µM dexamethasone

(Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# D1756) for 48 hours. Larvae were maintained at 28°C throughout $CuSO_4$

exposure and dexamethasone post-treatments.

Neomycin ablation of neuromasts with dexamethasone pre-treatment

At 5 dpf, larvae were pre-treated with 0.1% DMSO or 1-50 µM dexamethasone in EM for

24 hours (Fig. 5) or 10 µM for 48 hours (Fig. 9). Following pre-treatment, larvae were rinsed

twice and placed in cell strainers, and then exposed to 0-100 µM neomycin (Sigma-Aldrich,

Cat# N1876) for 30 minutes. Following neomycin exposure, fish were rinsed and moved to 6-

well plates with 4 mL of EM to recover for 1 hour.

Whole-mount Immunohistochemistry

Free-swimming larvae were exposed to DAPI (1:2000, 4 minutes; D3571, Thermo

Fisher) to label hair cell nuclei, then sedated on ice for 4 min. For GFP immunolabeling to label

the afferent process or for Otoferlin immunolabeling to label hair cells, larvae were fixed (4%

paraformaldehyde, 4% sucrose, 150 µM $CaCl_2$, 0.1 M phosphate buffer) in 2 mL Eppendorf

tubes overnight at 4-8°C. For synaptic labeling, larvae were fixed for 5 hours at 4-8°C.

Larvae fixed overnight were blocked in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS: 8 g NaCl, 0.2 g

KCl, 0.24 g KH_2PO_4, 14.4 g Na_2HPO_4 per 1 L distilled H_2O) with 5% normal horse serum (NHS;

Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# H0146), 1% DMSO, 1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# T8787) for 2

hours at room temperature. Primary antibody exposure was performed in PBS with 2% NHS,

0.1% Triton-X100. Secondary antibody exposure was performed in PBS with 2% NHS.

Following all antibody exposures, larvae were rinsed several times in PBS with 0.1% Tween-20

(Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# P9416).

For synaptic labeling, larvae were fixed for 5 hours, permeabilized in ice-cold acetone (-

20°C, 5 min, Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# 179124), then blocked in PBS with 2% goat serum (Sigma-

Aldrich, Cat# G9023), 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# A9647), and 1%

DMSO for 2 hours. Primary and secondary antibody solutions and all post-antibody rinses were

performed in the same PBS, BSA, and DMSO concentration mix used for blocking.

Primary antibodies:

○   Mouse IgG2a α-CtBP (1:2000; Santa Cruz Biotech, Inc; Cat#: sc-55502)

○   Mouse IgG1 α-MAGUK (K28/86; 1:500; NeuroMab, UC Davis; Cat# 75-029)

○   Chicken α-GFP (1:500; Aves Labs, Inc; Cat# GFP-1020)

○ Mouse IgG2a α-Otoferlin (1:500; Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank; HCS-

134   1)

Secondary antibodies:

○ Goat α-chicken (Alexa 488) - neurites

○ Goat α-mouse IgG1 (Alexa 488) – MAGUK

○ Goat α-mouse IgG1 (Alexa 647) - MAGUK

○ Goat α-mouse IgG2a (Alexa 647) - CtBP

○ Goat α-mouse IgG2a (DyLight 550/Alexa546) – CtBP

All fish were rinsed in PBS prior to being mounted on glass slides in elvanol (13% w/v

polyvinyl alcohol, 33% w/v glycerol, 1% w/v DABCO (1,4 diazobicylo[2,2,2] octane) in 0.2 M

Tris, pH 8.5) and #1.5 cover slips.

FM1-43 labeling:

Larvae were anesthetized in EM containing 0.01% Tricaine (EMT), exposed to 3 µM

FM1-43 (N-(3-triethylammoniumpropyl)-4-(4-(dibutylamino)-styryl) pyridinium dibromide;

ThermoFisher, Cat# T3163) for 20 seconds, rinsed in EMT, and then mounted on a FluoroDish

(World Precision Instruments, Inc., Cat# FD3510) in low-melt agarose (Invitrogen, Cat# 16520)

containing 0.01% Tricaine (LMAT). The agarose was allowed 2.5 minutes to solidify before

covering in EMT and imaging.

TMRE labeling

Larvae were exposed to 250 nM tetramethylrhodamine ethyl ester perchlorate (TMRE,

Thermo Fisher, Cat# T669) diluted in EM for 25 minutes while wrapped in foil, then rinsed,

allowed to equilibrate for 10-15 minutes, and mounted on a FluoroDish in LMAT. The agarose

was allowed 2.5 minutes to solidify before covering in EMT and imaging.

Confocal imaging

Most confocal images were acquired via an ORCA-Flash 4.0 V3 camera (Hamamatsu)

using a Leica DM6 Fixed Stage microscope with an X-Light V2TP spinning disc confocal (60

micron pinholes) equipped with an LDI-7 laser diode illuminator (89 North). Image acquisition

was controlled by MetaMorph software. *For fixed imaging:* z-stack images ~10-15 µm depth with

a z-step of 0.2 µm were acquired using a 63x/1.4 N.A. oil immersion objective. *For live imaging:*

larvae were anesthetized with 0.01% tricaine in EM, then mounted lateral-side up on a thin layer

of 1% low-melt agarose in a tissue culture dish with a cover-glass bottom (FluoroDish; World

Precision Instruments) and covered in EMT media. Z-stack images of neuromast L3-5 were

acquired with a 63x/0.9 N.A. water immersion objective. Z- acquisition parameters with X-light

spinning disc: z step of 1 µm, laser "20% power" for all wavelengths, 100 ms per frame for fixed

imaging, 120 ms per frame for live imaging. Images in Fig. 5 were acquired using an LSM 700

laser scanning confocal microscope with a 63x 1.4 NA Plan-Apochromat oil-immersion objective

(Carl Zeiss). Confocal z-stacks of ~15 µm depth were acquired with a z-step of 1 µm.

Confocal image processing and analysis

Fiji (ImageJ software) was used to process and analyze most confocal images

(Schneider et al., 2012). To analyze macrophage activation and inflammation, confocal images

were reconstructed and analyzed using Volocity software (Quorum Technologies). Subsequent

image processing for display within figures was performed using Illustrator software (Adobe).

Hair cell counts were quantified from hair cell specific DAPI labeled nuclei or from cells

immunolabeled for Otoferlin (HCS-1; Fig. 5). To quantify hair cell synapses, raw images

containing single immunolabel were converted to 8-bit, then subtracted for background using a

20-pixel (CtBP) or 10-pixel (MAGUK) rolling ball radius. Puncta were defined as regions of

immunolabel with pixel intensity above a determined threshold: threshold for Ribeye label was

calculated using the Isodata algorithm and threshold for MAGUK label was calculated using the

Yen algorithm. Intact synapses were defined as CtBP immunolabel juxtaposed with MAGUK

and quantified by scrolling through image z-stacks.

To measure neurite length, the ImageJ plugin Simple Neurite Tracer (Longair et al.,

2011) was used on z-stack images of GFP-labeled afferent neurons. Following ImageJ's Basic

Instructions, which can be found in the Help drop-down menu of the Tracer plugin, neurites

were traced by scrolling through the z-stack and creating paths. All neurite structures making up

the basket-like processes that surround the neuromast were included in the paths, as well as

the stalk at the base of the neuromast where innervating neurites emerged from the main

afferent neuronal tract and any meandering projections coming off the dendritic basket. The

Simple Neurite Tracer automatically detected the path set between two designated points and

calculated a measured length in microns. Any branches emerging from and between paths were

measured as separate paths. Once fully traced, all paths within the dendritic basket were then

added together to get the total neurite length within the neuromast.

Macrophage density was quantified by scrolling through image z-stacks and counting the

number of macrophages within 25 µm radius of a neuromast (using a circle inscribed on the

neuromast). The number of macrophages contacting a neuromast was determined by scrolling

through the x-y planes of each image stack (1 µm interval between x-y planes, 15 µm total

depth) and counting macrophages that were in direct contact with Otoferlin-labeled hair cells.

Finally, the number of macrophages that had internalized Otoferlin-immunolabeled material (hair

cell debris) was counted and assumed to reflect the number of phagocytic events. For each

metric, the recorded number reflected the activity of a single macrophage, i.e., a macrophage

that made contacts with multiple hair cells and/or had internalized debris from several hair cells

was still classified as a single 'event.'

To measure the baseline fluorescence intensity of indicators across whole neuromasts,

images containing single channels were background-subtracted using a rolling ball radius of the

following sizes: images containing cytoGCaMp3 or mitoGCaMP3 (50-pixel), images containing

FM1-43FX or TMRE label (100-pixel). Whole neuromasts were delineated based on hair cell

specific DAPI label in maximum-intensity projections, and mean intensity of the indicator was

measured. Measurements from each experimental trial were normalized to the control median

value. To accommodate nested data and ensure statistical rigor, we preformed subsequent

statistical analysis on average value of measurements from multiple neuromasts (L3, L4, L5)

within an individual fish, such that each fish provided a single data point.

Functional calcium imaging

GCaMP6s-based calcium imaging was used to examine evoked signals in zebrafish hair

bundles and presynapses, as described previously (Lukasz & Kindt, 2018). Briefly, after 48-hour

dexamethasone treatment, individual 7 dpf larvae were first anesthetized with EMT. Pins were

used to restrain larvae onto a Sylgard-filled recording chamber. To suppress the movement,

alpha-bungarotoxin (125 µM, Tocris) was injected into the cavity of the heart. Larvae were then

immersed in extracellular imaging solution (in mM: 140 NaCl, 2 KCl, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$ and 10

HEPES, pH 7.3, OSM 310 +/- 10) without tricaine. A fluid jet was used to mechanically stimulate

hair bundles (L1-L4) with posterior fluid-flow for 500 ms.

To detect evoked calcium responses, images were acquired using a Bruker Swept-field

confocal microscope (Bruker Inc), with a Nikon CFI Fluor 60x 1.0 NA water-immersion objective.

A Rolera EM-C2 CCD camera (QImaging) was used to detect signals. To measure

GCaMP6sCAAX signals, images were acquired with 2x2 binning using a 35 µm slit at 10 Hz in

z-stacks of 5 planes every 2 µm or 0.5 µm for presynaptic and hair bundle measurements. High

speed imaging along the z-axis was accomplished by using a piezoelectric motor (PICMA P-

882.11–888.11 series, Physik Instrumente GmbH). Sequential evoked GCaMP6sCAAX

acquisitions were separated by at least 5 min.

To quantify the magnitude of evoked GCaMP6s signals, images were processed in FIJI.

Z-stacks were max-projected, and images at each timepoint were aligned using StackReg

(Thevenaz et al., 1998). A 5 µm and 1.31 µm diameter circular ROI was drawn over each hair

cell base and hair bundle respectively to make intensity measurements. To plot evoked changes

in GCaMP6s intensity, the baseline (F_0, signal during the 2 s pre-stimulus period) was used to

plot the relative change in fluorescent signal from baseline ($\Delta F/F_0$). The magnitude of evoked

calcium signals was determined using $\Delta F/F_0$ plots. The baseline GCaMP6s signal F_0 was used

to estimate the resting calcium levels in each hair bundle or presynaptic region. The response

magnitudes or resting GCaMP6s levels for each neuromast were averaged to obtain a single

point per neuromast.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism 9 (Graphpad Software Inc). Datasets

were confirmed for normality using the D'Agostino-Pearson test when appropriate. Statistical

significance between two groups was determined by an unpaired Student's t-test or an unpaired

Welch's unequal variance t-test, depending on the normality of the dataset. Statistical

significance between multiple groups with normal distributions was determined by one-way

ANOVA and appropriate post-hoc tests, and statistical significance between multiple groups

with non-normal distributions was determined by a Kruskal-Wallis test and appropriate post-hoc

tests. For datasets dependent on multiple independent variables, statistical significance was

determined using two-way ANOVA and appropriate post-hoc tests.

Figure 1. Workflow of CuSO₄ lateral-line lesion and dexamethasone exposure
(A) Diagram of workflow for CuSO4 lesions and dexamethasone exposure. Larvae (5 dpf) were placed into cell strainers and moved between rinse and lesion steps, while being allowed to swim freely during recovery and dexamethasone exposure. (B) Diagram of a 5-7dpf zebrafish larvae showing the distribution of lateral line neuromasts (magenta) and innervating afferent nerves (green). This study focused on neuromasts L3, L4, and L5 (blue dashed-line box). (C) Representative maximum intensity projection of confocal z-stack image of neuromast L4 in a 7 dpf zebrafish larvae. Labels: afferent neurons labeled with GFP (green; tgBAC(neurod1:GFP), DAPI-labeled hair-cell nuclei (blue), and immunolabeled presynaptic ribbons (magenta; pan-CtBP).

Results

Dexamethasone enhances regeneration and reinnervation of neuromast hair cells

following CuSO₄ lesion.

In two separate small molecule screens using zebrafish larvae, dexamethasone has

been identified as an enhancer of hair cell regeneration in lateral-line neuromasts and an

inhibitor of peripheral fin nerve regeneration (Bremer et al., 2017; Namdaran et al., 2012).

Dexamethasone has also been reported to enhance axon regeneration in rats, following injury

(Feng & Yuan, 2015). We therefore addressed whether dexamethasone influences afferent

reinnervation and hair cell synapse regeneration in zebrafish lateral-line neuromasts. To induce

injury, we exposed animals to copper sulfate (CuSO₄), which induces loss of lateral-line hair

cells and considerable retraction of afferent nerve terminals (Hardy et al., 2021; Mackenzie &

Raible, 2012; Olivari et al., 2008). Five-day old zebrafish larvae were treated in either 3 µM

CuSO₄ in embryo media (EM) or EM alone for 1 hour. After CuSO₄ exposure, the animals were

allowed to recover for 2 hours, and then transferred to EM containing either 10 µM

dexamethasone or drug carrier alone (0.1% DMSO) for 48 hours (Fig. 1A). After 48 hours we

assessed the extent of afferent reinnervation and hair cell and synapse regeneration. We

Figure 2. Dexamethasone increased hair cell number in intact and regenerating neuromasts
(A-D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of 7dpf neuromasts, with DAPI-labeled hair cell nuclei (blue). Larval lateral line neuromasts were either left intact (unlesioned) (A, B) or lesioned by treatment with 3µM CuSO₄ for 1 hour (C, D). Larvae were then allowed to recover for 2hrs, then exposed for 48 hr to either 0.1% DMSO (carrier) (A, C) or dexamethasone (B, D). (E) Scatter plot graph of hair cell number per neuromast. Bars indicate mean and SEM. Each dot represents a single neuromast. Both intact (unlesioned) and regenerating neuromasts showed a significant increase in the number of hair cells per neuromast in dexamethasone-treated fish relative to DMSO controls (****adjusted P<0.0001). N= 5-10 fish per condition per trial; 7 experimental trials.

focused on posterior lateral-line neuromasts L3-L5 for analysis (Fig. 1B). To examine afferent

reinnervation and hair cell regeneration we visualized afferent nerve fibers labeled with GFP as

well as hair cell nuclei labeled with DAPI (Fig. 1C). In agreement with previous observations of

lateral-line organs injured with neomycin, we observed a significantly greater number of

regenerated hair cells per neuromast in larvae exposed to dexamethasone during regeneration

compared to controls (Fig. 2 C-E; orange points). Additionally, among fish that were not

exposed to $CuSO_4$ (unlesioned), significantly more hair cells per neuromast were observed in

fish that were exposed to dexamethasone (Fig. 2 A,B,E; gray points). This observed increase in

hair cell number per neuromast has been previously shown to be due to increased proliferation

of hair cell precursors rather than prevention of hair cell turnover (Namdaran et al., 2012). These

results therefore confirm that dexamethasone enhances hair cell regeneration and stimulates

hair cell precursors to divide, even in the absence of injury.

To determine whether dexamethasone treatment enhanced or inhibited afferent

innervation of hair cells, we measured the length of innervating afferent processes in both

unlesioned and lesioned neuromast after regeneration (Fig. 3 A-D). In neuromasts that had

regenerated after $CuSO_4$-induced lesions, we observed that the average length of afferent

processes per neuromast was significantly greater in animals that recovered in dexamethasone

compared to animals exposed to drug carrier alone (Fig 3 C-E (orange box plots); ****adjusted

P<0.0001). We reasoned that increased neurite length in dexamethasone-treated animals was

related to the greater number of regenerated hair cells per neuromast. To verify this idea,

neurite length was normalized relative to the number of hair cells in each neuromast. Following

normalization, we observed no difference in relative neurite length per hair cell in animals

recovered in dexamethasone vs. those in drug carrier alone (Fig 3F (orange box plots); adjusted

P=0.5630). In unlesioned animals treated with dexamethasone, we observed no change in

afferent neurite length per neuromast (Fig. 3 A,B,E (gray box plots); adjusted P=0.8215) and a

modest reduction the relative neurite length per hair cell that was not statistically significant (Fig

3F (gray box plots); adjusted P=0.2959). These data indicate that dexamethasone treatment

enhanced the formation of afferent processes in regenerating neuromasts, perhaps to

accommodate a greater number of regenerated hair cells. By contrast, in unlesioned

neuromasts dexamethasone did not promote the addition of afferent neurites to accommodate

additional hair cells.

In addition to quantifying hair cell numbers and neurite length, we also quantified the

number of intact synapses per hair cell (Fig. 4 A-D; defined as presynaptic ribbons adjacent to

Figure 3. Dexamethasone enhanced afferent innervation of regenerating neuromasts

(A-D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of pLL neuromasts in 7dpf tgBAC(neurod1:GFP) larvae showing afferent neurons (green) and DAPI-labeled hair-cell nuclei (blue). Neuromasts were either unlesioned (A, B) or lesioned with $CuSO_4$ (C, D), then allowed to regenerate for 48 hr while exposed to DMSO (carrier) (A, C) or dexamethasone (B, D). (E-F) Box plots of neurite length per neuromast (E) and neurite length per hair cell (F), with whiskers at min/max and mean values marked with "+". Data for each experimental trial were normalized to the median value of unlesioned controls. Regenerating neuromasts (orange plots) in dexamethasone-treated fish had significantly longer neurites per neuromast (E) (****adjusted P<0.0001), however the difference in length in dexamethasone-treated fish was not significant relative to the total number of hair cells/neuromast, when compared to DMSO controls (F). N=4-7 fish per condition per trial; 6 experimental trials.

postsynaptic densities). We observed no difference in synapse counts between

dexamethasone-treated and 0.1% DMSO controls when comparing unlesioned neuromasts or

when comparing $CuSO_4$ lesioned neuromasts following regeneration (Fig. 4 E). Notably, we did

observe significantly more intact synapses per hair cell in all regenerating neuromasts relative to

unlesioned neuromasts (Fig 4 E; adjusted ***P=0.0003 (DMSO), * P=0.0202 (Dex)). Similar

observations have been reported in regenerating neuromast hair cells (Hardy et al., 2021; Suli

Figure 4. Dexamethasone exposure did not affect afferent synapse number in neuromast hair cells

(A-D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of 7dpf pLL neuromasts, with hair cell presynaptic ribbons labeled via CtBP antibody (magenta), post-synaptic densities labeled via MAGUK antibody (green), and hair cell nuclei labeled with DAPI (blue). Neuromasts were either unlesioned (A, B) or lesioned with $CuSO_4$ (C, D), then allowed to regenerate for 48 hr while exposed to DMSO (carrier) (A, C) or dexamethasone (B, D). (E) Scatter plots with mean and SEM bars showing no significant difference in the number of intact synapses in dexamethasone-treated fish, compared to DMSO controls for both lesioned and intact neuromasts. Notably, a significantly greater number of intact synapses per hair cell were observed in regenerating neuromasts relative to neuromasts that were not lesioned (adjusted ***P=0.0003 (DMSO), * P=0.0202 (Dex)). N=5 fish per condition per trial; 4 experimental trials.

305 et al., 2016) and may reflect ongoing synaptic refinement akin to that observed in developing

306 cochlear hair cells (Michanski et al., 2019). Overall, these results suggest that dexamethasone

307 treatment enhances afferent neurite outgrowth in regenerating neuromasts and does not impact

308 synapse formation in newly formed hair cells in regenerating or unlesioned neuromasts.

Pretreatment with dexamethasone does not inhibit macrophage response to hair cell injury

Dexamethasone inhibits inflammation and macrophage activation, and various studies

indicate dexamethasone's anti-inflammatory action can influence nerve regeneration (Valledor &

Ricote, 2004). Previous work has shown that macrophages are recruited to lateral-line organs

after injury induced by the ototoxin neomycin (Warchol et al., 2021). We therefore assessed

whether dexamethasone inhibited macrophage entry and phagocytosis after application of the

ototoxin neomycin. We quantified macrophage entry and phagocytosis in response to neomycin

treatment after pretreating larvae for 24 hr with 1, 10 or 50 µM dexamethasone Larvae that were

not exposed to either neomycin and/or dexamethasone served as controls. All experiments

followed the same protocol that we had previously used to characterize macrophage recruitment

and phagocytosis after neomycin toxicity (Warchol et al., 2021). Dexamethasone treatment did

not induce any significant changes to the subsequent macrophage response following neomycin

lesion (Fig. 5). Quantification revealed that the number of macrophage-hair cell contacts (Fig. 5

G) and number of phagocytotic events (Fig. 5 H) was similar in all neomycin treatment groups.

These observations indicate that pre- and co-treatment with 10 μM dexamethasone does not

suppress macrophage activation in response to neuromast injury.

Figure 5. Dexamethasone did not inhibit macrophage response to neuromast injury

(A-F) Representative confocal images of control (A,B) and neomycin injured neuromasts (C-F). Larvae (6 dpf) were treated for 24 h with dexamethasone, then exposed for 30 min to neomycin. All specimens were fixed and processed for labeling of macrophages (green, YFP), hair cells (red, Otoferlin) and nuclei (blue, DAPI). Normal localization of macrophages was observed in control fish (A,B) and no inhibition was observed in neuromasts treated with neomycin (C-F). (G-H) Dexamethasone pretreatment did not affect macrophage contacts with dying hair cells (G, P>0.9999, Dunn's multiple comparison test) or the number of phagocytotic events (H, P>0.9999, Dunn's multiple comparison test). Bars indicate SD. N=15 fish/group; 2 experimental trials.

Hair cell FM1-43 uptake and calcium homeostasis is unaffected by dexamethasone exposure

Numerous studies have indicated that dexamethasone can induce mitochondrial

dysfunction in various tissues, including adipocytes (Luan et al., 2019), skeletal muscle (Liu et

al., 2016), and neurons (Du et al., 2009). We previously reported reduced hair cell uptake of the

cationic dye FM1-43 in zebrafish mutants with impaired hair cell mitochondrial function ($mpv17^{-/-}$

), indicating that these fish possessed reduced driving force for cations through

mechanotransduction channels, and elevated hair cell mitochondrial calcium (Holmgren &

Figure 6. FM1-43 uptake was not significantly affected by dexamethasone exposure

(A-D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of pLL neuromasts in live 7dpf larvae immediately after brief (20 seconds) FM1-43 exposure. Neuromasts were either left intact (A, B) or lesioned with $CuSO_4$ (C, D), then allowed to regenerate for 48 hr while exposed to DMSO (carrier) (A, C) or dexamethasone (B, D) prior to FM1-43 exposure. The LUT bar (C) shows the range of intensity values, starting at 0 (min) to 400 (max). (E) Relative average FM1-43 intensity per neuromast. Scatter plots show raw integrated density (i.e. sum of the pixel values)/area values with SEM bars. Each dot represents the average values of neuromasts L3-L5 for one fish. Values were normalized for each experiment using the inverse median of the unlesioned control values. The data show no significant differences in intensity for dexamethasone-treated fish, relative to DMSO controls, in both intact and regenerating neuromasts (adjusted *P=0.0226). N=2-3 fish per condition per trial; 4 experimental trials.

Sheets, 2021). We therefore evaluated whether 48-hour dexamethasone exposure affected hair

cell uptake of FM1-43 and calcium homeostasis. We observed no differences in FM1-43 uptake

in unlesioned neuromasts that were treated in dexamethasone vs. those incubated in DMSO

carrier (Fig. 6 A,B,E (gray circles)). In regenerating neuromasts, dexamethasone treatment

appeared to cause a modest increase in FM1-43 uptake, but this trend did not reach statistical

significance (Fig. 6 C-E (orange circles); adjusted P=0.1786). Notably, hair cells in regenerating

DMSO-treated neuromasts (Fig. 6 C) displayed significantly reduced FM1-43 uptake relative to

unlesioned DMSO-treated neuromasts (Fig. 6 A,E; adjusted *P=0.0226), indicating reduced

mechanotransduction in regenerated control neuromast hair cells. By contrast, there was no

significant difference in FM1-43 uptake in regenerating vs. unlesioned dexamethasone-treated

neuromast hair cells (Fig. 6 B,D,E; adjusted P=0.2747), suggesting that dexamethasone

treatment during regeneration may enhance hair cell regeneration and may also slightly impact

the maturation of mechanotransduction.

We next
examined hair cell
cytosolic and
mitochondrial calcium
homeostasis using the
genetically encoded
calcium indicator
GCaMP3 (Esterberg et
al., 2013; Esterberg et
al., 2014). When
comparing unlesioned
neuromasts and CuSO$_4$
lesioned neuromasts
following regeneration,
we observed average
cytosolic calcium levels
did not differ in
neuromast hair cells
(Fig. 7 A-E), while
mitochondrial calcium
levels appeared
significantly higher in
regenerating neuromast
hair cells relative to
unlesioned in both
DMSO and
dexamethasone
treatment conditions
(Fig. 7 F-J; adjusted
***P=0.0006 (DMSO),
**P=0.0019 (Dex)).
Notably,

Figure 7. Dexamethasone did not affect hair cell cytosolic or mitochondrial calcium homeostasis

(A-D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of neuromasts in live 7dpf Tg(-6myo6b: GCaMP3) larvae. The LUT bar in (A) shows range of intensity values starting at 0 (min) to 2150 (max). (E) Hair cell GCaMP3 fluorescence intensity is not affected by dexamethasone exposure. Scatter plots of relative raw integrated intensity/area values with SEM bars. Each dot represents the average values of neuromasts L3-L5 for one fish. Data show no significant differences in intensity for dexamethasone-treated fish relative to DMSO controls in both intact and regenerating neuromasts. N=2-3 fish per condition per trial; 5 experimental trials (F-I) Representative images neuromasts in Tg(-6myo6b: mitoGCaMP3) larvae. LUT bar (F) shows range of intensity values starting at 0 (min) to 300 (max). (J) Hair cell mitoGCaMP fluorescence intensity is not affected by dexamethasone exposure but is elevated in regenerating neuromasts relative to intact neuromasts. Data show no significant differences in intensity for dexamethasone-treated fish relative to DMSO controls in both intact and regenerating neuromasts (adjusted ***P=0.0006 (DMSO), **P=0.0019 (Dex)). N=2-3 fish per condition per trial; 3 experimental trials.

380 dexamethasone treatment had no effect on cytosolic or mitochondrial calcium levels relative to
381 DMSO control in both unlesioned and regenerating neuromasts (Fig. 7 E, J). Cumulatively,

Figure 8. Dexamethasone exposure elevated mitochondrial activity in hair cells and supporting cells

(A-B) Confocal images of neuromasts in 7dpf fish following TMRE exposure. Fish were treated with DMSO (A) or dexamethasone (B) for 48 hours prior to imaging. TMRE (A, A', B, B') is shown as a max intensity projection and supporting cell (SC) images (A', A'', B', B'') are z-slices from the midlevel of the neuromast. Negative spaces inside GFP-labeled supporting cells indicate neuromast hair cells. LUT bar (A) shows range of intensity values starting at 0 (min) to 11800 (max). (E-G) Scatter plots of average TMRE fluorescence intensity with SEM bars. Dexamethasone-treated fish had significantly hyperpolarized mitochondria in both neuromast hair cells and supporting cells (adjusted **** P<0.0001). N=1-4 fish per condition per trial; 5 experimental trials.

these data suggest that prolonged dexamethasone exposure does not significantly impact hair

cell mechanotransduction or affect calcium homeostasis in either intact or regenerating

neuromasts.

Prolonged dexamethasone exposure hyperpolarizes neuromast mitochondria and

sensitizes hair cells to neomycin

To determine whether 48-hour dexamethasone exposure impacted mitochondrial

function in lateral-line neuromasts, we examined mitochondrial membrane potentials ($\Delta\Psi$m) in

unlesioned neuromast hair cells and supporting cells using tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester

(TMRE)—a cell-permeant cationic dye used to assess mitochondrial function (Alassaf et al.,

2019; Esterberg et al., 2016). Dexamethasone-exposed neuromasts had significantly higher

TMRE mean fluorescence intensity relative to controls (Fig. 8 A,B,E; **** P<0.0001), indicating

that mitochondria in dexamethasone-exposed neuromast cells are more hyperpolarized.

Elevated TMRE fluorescence was apparent not only in the mitochondria of hair cells (Fig 8 A',

B', F; EGFP-negative cells), but also the surrounding supporting cells (Fig 8 A'', B'', G; EGFP-

positive cells), suggesting prolonged dexamethasone exposure disrupts normal mitochondrial

function in both hair cells and supporting cells. Given that the hair cells in dexamethasone-

Figure 9. Dexamethasone exposure increased hair cell sensitivity to neomycin

(A-J) Representative maximum intensity images of DAPI-labeled neuromast hair cell nuclei (blue). Larvae (7dpf) were exposed for 48 hr to DMSO (carrier) alone (A-E) or dexamethasone (F-J), then exposed for 30min or 10μM (B, G), 30μM (C, H), 50μM (D, I), or 100μM (E, J) neomycin. EM buffer alone was used as a control (A,F). (K) Dose response curve with mean and SEM bars shows the number of surviving hair cells per neuromast as a percent of those present in unlesioned controls. Dexamethasone-treated neuromast hair cells were more sensitive to neomycin induced cell death than controls (adjusted P= 0.1407 (30 μM), *P=0.0353 (50 μM), ****P<0.0001 (100 μM)). N=7 fish per condition per trial; 3 experimental trials.

treated larvae had more negatively charged ΔΨm, we predicted that these hair cells would be

more vulnerable to neomycin-induced hair cell death (Alassaf et al., 2019; Holmgren & Sheets,

2021). When treated with higher doses of neomycin (50-100 μM), we observed significantly

more lateral-line hair cell loss in fish pre-exposed for 48 hours to dexamethasone, relative to

controls (Fig 9 K; adjusted P= 0.1407 (30 μM), *P=0.0353 (50 μM), ****P<0.0001 (100 μM)).

Thus, while prolonged dexamethasone does not appear to impact cytosolic or mitochondrial

calcium homeostasis, it does alter neuromast mitochondrial function and increases hair cell

sensitivity to neomycin-induced death.

Prolonged dexamethasone exposure reduces evoked calcium influx through

mechanosensory hair bundles

Hair cells respond to sensory stimuli via deflection of apical hair bundles and opening of

mechanotransduction channels. Influx of potassium and calcium occurs through these channels

which depolarizes the hair cell, leading to influx of calcium through basally-localized presynaptic

voltage-gated calcium channels, and triggering release of synaptic vesicles (Corey & Hudspeth,

1979; Moser & Beutner, 2000; Zhang et al., 2018). To determine if prolonged dexamethasone

exposure influenced hair cell responses to mechanical stimulation, we measured evoked

calcium influx at hair bundles and hair cell synapses in response to bundle deflection using a

transgenic line expressing plasma-membrane targeted GCaMP6s (Fig. 10 A;(Sheets et al.,

2017)). In response to a 500 ms step deflection, calcium influx at the hair bundle was

Figure 10. Dexamethasone exposure decreased evoked mechanosensation but not presynaptic calcium responses

(A) Schematic of a neuromast viewed from the side, and the imaging planes used to measure evoked calcium activity at the hair bundles and at the presynaptic region. Localization of GCaMP6sCAAX is shown in green. Inset shows an example of a top-down view of the hair bundle plane showing GCaMP6sCAAX fluorescence. (B-B') Evoked hair bundle calcium signal with (red) or without (blue) 48-hour dexamethasone pretreatment. Average traces are shown in B, while dot plots of peak response of bundles per neuromast are shown in B'. (C) Top-down view of the basal plane showing the presynaptic membrane labeled with GCaMP6sCAAX. (D) Dot plots show that the peak evoked presynaptic calcium signal averaged per neuromast with (red) and without (blue) 48-hour dexamethasone pretreatment. (E-F) Baseline calcium intensity with (red) and without (blue) dexamethasone treatment in hair bundles (E) and presynapses (F) Shaded area above and below traces in panel B and error bars in E-F represent SEM. Box-and-whiskers plot were used in B' and D to show median, min and max. An unpaired Welch's unequal variance *t*-test was used to calculate the significance of differences in B' and D. An unpaired *t*-test was used to calculate the significance of differences in E-F. n ≥ 9 neuromasts per treatment. **P=0.0052. Scale bar = 5 μm in A inset and C.

significantly reduced in dexamethasone-treated larvae relative to controls (Fig. 10 B,B'); an

unexpected result given that uptake of the cationic dye FM1-43 was not reduced in

dexamethasone-treated larvae (Fig. 5 A,B,E). By contrast, presynaptic calcium influx was not

significantly different in dexamethasone-treated fish vs. controls (Fig. 10 D). Baseline

GCaMP6sCAAX measurements at neuromast hair bundles and hair cell presynaptic regions

were comparable between dexamethasone-treated and control animals (Fig. 10 E,F), indicating

that calcium levels at rest were not altered in these two subcellular compartments. Overall,

these results provide evidence that prolonged dexamethasone exposure does not affect hair cell

calcium homeostasis but does negatively influence calcium flow through the hair bundle in

response to stimulus.

<u>Discussion</u>

Dexamethasone is a potent synthetic glucocorticoid that influences diverse molecular

pathways involved in cellular development, homeostasis, and repair. Using the zebrafish lateral

line as a model for hair cell organs, we examined the influence of prolonged dexamethasone

exposure on both afferent innervation of newly generated hair cells as well as hair cell

homeostasis and function. Following 48 hours of dexamethasone exposure, we observed no

inhibition of innervation or synapse formation in newly generated neuromast hair cells, indicating

that dexamethasone did not inhibit regeneration of afferent synaptic contacts in the lateral-line

system. However, further examination revealed prolonged dexamethasone exposure induced

mitochondrial hyperpolarization in neuromast hair cells and supporting cells, suggesting

disruption of mitochondrial homeostasis. In addition, dexamethasone exposure specifically

reduced evoked calcium influx at the hair bundle but not the hair cell synapse in response to

water-jet stimulus. Cumulatively, our data support that prolonged dexamethasone does not

inhibit newly generated hair cell innervation or synapse formation, but it may negatively impact

hair cell energy homeostasis and function.

Dexamethasone did not inhibit lateral-line afferent nerve regrowth or hair cell synapse

formation during regeneration

Exposure to dexamethasone significantly increased the total length of afferent neurites

per regenerating neuromast (Fig 3 C-E). The addition in nerve fiber length corresponds to the

increased number of hair cells (Fig. 3 F), suggesting that nerve fiber length was increased in

regenerating neuromasts to accommodate a larger number of newly formed hair cells.

Alternatively, it is possible that the additional neurites may be involved in facilitating hair cell

generation. A recent study characterizing functional lateral-line neuromast regeneration

following $CuSO_4$ ablation has reported that afferent nerve terminals formed initial contacts with

supporting cells during regeneration, suggesting that afferent nerve contacts may help facilitate

transdifferentiation of supporting cells into hair cells (Hardy et al., 2021). However, while

dexamethasone treatment caused regenerating neuromasts to add additional afferent dendrite

length, no such increase was observed in unlesioned neuromasts (Fig. 3 A,B,E), suggesting

that the generation of additional hair cells in unlesioned neuromasts is not facilitated by

additional nerve fiber contacts. Given that dexamethasone treatment did not increase the

number of afferent synapses per hair cell in unlesioned neuromasts (Fig 4 E; gray circles), we

posit that afferent neurons innervate and form synapses with newly generated hair cells in

unlesioned larval neuromasts without adding additional processes.

We also did not observe inhibition of macrophage activation in response to ototoxic

damage following dexamethasone pretreatment (Fig 5). This result provides additional support

to a previously reported observation that dexamethasone likely enhances neuromast

regeneration via a mechanism other than immunosuppression (Namdaran et al., 2012). Instead,

dexamethasone may be acting though glucocorticoid receptors to enhance division of a subset

of hair cell precursors. Further studies will be needed explore the cellular pathways underlying

dexamethasone-induced hair cell generation, and the mechanistic differences between afferent

nerve innervation and synapse formation in regenerating vs. intact neuromasts.

Prolonged dexamethasone exposure modulates mitochondrial membrane potential in

neuromast cells and enhances neomycin hair cell toxicity

Glucocorticoid receptors reside in the cytosol of cells. When activated by a ligand such

as cortisol or dexamethasone, they regulate gene expression by localizing to the cell nucleus

and either directly binding to DNA or altering the activity of transcription factors or various

kinases (Oakley & Cidlowski, 2013). Activated glucocorticoid receptors have also been shown to

translocate into the mitochondria and regulate mitochondrial gene expression (Kokkinopoulou &

Moutsatsou, 2021), and previous studies of mouse liver and rat distal colon have reported

enhanced expression of mitochondrial genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation following

dexamethasone treatment (Li et al., 2016; Rachamim et al., 1995). The glucocorticoid receptor

gene *nr3c1* has been shown to be expressed in larval zebrafish neuromast hair cells and all

populations of supporting cells (Lush et al., 2019). Speculatively, prolonged dexamethasone

exposure may be modulating the expression of mitochondrial DNA encoded genes involved in

oxidative phosphorylation, thereby altering mitochondrial metabolism in neuromast hair cells

and supporting cells.

A recent study assessing the effects of cortisol exposure on hair cell sensitivity to

neomycin further supports the hypothesis that activated glucocorticoid receptors regulates

expression of genes that modulate mitochondrial metabolism (Hayward et al., 2019). Those

authors reported that pretreatment of zebrafish larvae with cortisol for 24 hours sensitized

neuromast hair cells to neomycin-induced hair cell death, which is comparable to what we

observed in dexamethasone-treated fish (Fig. 9). Cortisol-mediated sensitization to neomycin

was dependent on glucocorticoid receptor activation and could be blocked by inhibiting protein

translation. It is worth noting that Hayward et al. did not report a similar sensitization to

neomycin following 24 h dexamethasone exposure, but it is likely dexamethasone and cortisol

are acting through a shared mechanism. The difference between their reported observations

and our results is probably due to two factors. First, the concentration of neomycin used in

Hayward et al. following dexamethasone was 25 μM, which was two-fold less than the dose at

which we first observed significant effects ((Hayward et al., 2019); Fig 9 K). Also, the

dexamethasone pretreatment doses (0.001-1 μM vs. 10 μM) and exposure time (24 vs. 48

hours) used by Haywood et al., (2019) were less than those used in the present study.

Prolonged dexamethasone exposure reduces evoked calcium influx though
mechanotransduction channels but does not affect hair cell calcium homeostasis

While we did observe hyperpolarization of mitochondrial membrane potential in

dexamethasone-exposed neuromasts (Fig. 8), we did not observe significant changes in

cytosolic or mitochondrial calcium homeostasis within hair cells relative to controls (Fig 7). By

contrast, in response to water-jet stimuli, evoked calcium influx at the hair bundle was

significantly reduced (Fig. 10 B), suggesting calcium influx through activated MET channels is

reduced. This observed effect on calcium influx specifically at the hair bundle may be a

consequence of altered mitochondrial metabolism. Mitochondria are important regulators of

local intracellular calcium levels in sensory hair cells, and in addition to directly taking up

calcium, mitochondria provide ATP to drive clearance of calcium though plasma membrane

Ca^{2+}-ATPases (PMCA1 and PMCA2), with PMCA2 shown to be densely localized in the hair cell

stereocilia (Beurg et al., 2010). Zebrafish homologues of PMCA1 and PMCA2 are strongly

expressed in mature neuromast hair cells of larval zebrafish (Lush et al., 2019). It is possible

that altered mitochondrial metabolism may be influencing the activity of PMCA2 in

dexamethasone-treated hair cells, thereby modifying PMCA2 regulation of calcium levels at the

hair bundle. It is also conceivable that activated glucocorticoid receptors may be modulating

expression of genes involved in mechanotransduction channel calcium permeability. Further

experiments will be needed to determine the mechanism underlying dexamethasone's specific

effect on calcium influx through stimulated hair bundles.

In conclusion, our observations from zebrafish lateral-line neuromasts indicate that 48

hour dexamethasone treatment enhances regeneration and afferent reinnervation but alters

mitochondrial homeostasis and evoked calcium influx through hair bundles. Dexamethasone is

a steroid commonly used for treating hearing loss, and identifying strategies to retain high levels

of dexamethasone for long periods within the inner ear is currently an active area of research.

Considering our observations showing that prolonged exposure to dexamethasone had an

adverse effect on hair cell mitochondrial metabolism and impacted hair bundle calcium influx,

we believe future studies on the effects of long-term, localized dexamethasone treatment on

mammalian cochlear function are indicated.

Declaration of interests: The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

Acknowledgments: This work was supported by RIND (Grant ID G85; L.S.), a National Institute

on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders (NIDCD) Intramural Research Program Grant

1ZIADC000085-01 (K.S.K), and Extramural Research Project Grant R01DC006283 (M.E.W.).

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