Deficiency in the cell-adhesion molecule *dscaml1* impairs hypothalamic CRH neuron development and neuroendocrine stress axis function

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ABSTRACT

The corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH)-expressing neurons in the hypothalamus

are critical regulators of the neuroendocrine stress response pathway, known as the

hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. As developmental vulnerabilities of CRH

neurons contribute to stress dysfunction and mental health disorders, it is critical to identify

the molecular mechanisms underlying normal and abnormal CRH neuron development.

Using zebrafish, we identified *Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule like-1* (*dscaml1*) as an

integral mediator of CRH-neuron development and stress axis function. In *dscaml1* mutant

animals, CRH neurons had higher stress axis-associated neuropeptide (*crhb* and *avp*)

expression, increased cell number, decreased apoptosis, and reduced intercellular spacing

as compared to controls. Time-lapse imaging showed that CRH neuron cell death is reduced

in *dscaml1* mutant animals, contributing to increased CRH neuron number. Physiologically,

dscaml1 mutant animals had significantly higher baseline stress hormone (cortisol) levels

and an attenuated response to acute stressors. Together, these findings identify *dscaml1* as

an essential factor for stress axis development and suggest that stress axis dysregulation

may contribute to the etiology of human *DSCAML1*-linked neuropsychiatric disorders.

INTRODUCTION

The hypothalamic corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH)-expressing neurons are the

central regulators of the neuroendocrine stress response pathway, known as the

hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis in mammals or the hypothalamic-pituitary-

interrenal (HPI) axis in fish (Denver, 2009). Upon exposure to environmental disturbances

(i.e., stressors), stress-related neural inputs converge on hypothalamic CRH neurons to

activate a hormonal cascade that ultimately leads to the release of glucocorticoids, which

have broad effects on cognitive, affective, and immune functions (Spencer and Deak, 2017;

McEwen and Akil, 2020).

The development of CRH neurons profoundly affects the function of the HPA and HPI axis

(collectively referred to as the stress axis). Developmental perturbations of CRH neurons,

particularly in early-life periods, lead to long-term changes in CRH neuron function (Regev

and Baram, 2014). Additionally, rodent models demonstrate that dysregulation of CRH

neurons increases anxiety- and depressive-like phenotypes (Keen-Rhinehart et al., 2009;

Kolber et al., 2010). Elevated CRH expression in the corticospinal fluid and hypothalamus

has also been found in human depression (Nemeroff et al., 1984; Raadsheer et al., 1995;

Merali et al., 2006). These preclinical and clinical studies underscore the need to identify the

genes and molecules mediating CRH-neuron development and determine how

developmental perturbations affect HPA-axis function.

Previous studies in animal models have elucidated how hypothalamic CRH neurons are

generated from progenitors in the ventral diencephalon (Alvarez-Bolado, 2019; Nagpal et al.,

2019; Placzek et al., 2020). Secreted factors including FGF10, SHH, BMPs, and Nodal first

define the anterior-dorsal hypothalamic domain; within this domain, CRH neurons are

progressively specified by a combination of key transcription factors, including Fezf2, Otp,

Sim1, Arnt2, and Brn2. Once specified, CRH neurons need further differentiation, such as

neuronal morphogenesis, synaptogenesis, epigenetic programming, and cell death, to

establish a functional stress-responsive neural circuit. These later stages of neuronal

differentiation are shaped by intercellular interactions, which are mediated by membrane-

localized cell-adhesion molecules (Moreland and Poulain, 2022). The specific cell-adhesion

molecules that mediate developmental signaling in CRH neurons are still unknown.

To address this knowledge gap, we utilized zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) as the model. The

structure and function of the mammalian HPA axis and the teleostean HPI axis are highly

conserved (Wendelaar Bonga, 1997; Lohr and Hammerschmidt, 2011). In mammals, the CRH

neurons that are involved in HPA-axis activation are in the hypothalamic paraventricular

nucleus (PVN). In teleosts (ray-finned fish), the neuroendocrine preoptic area (NPO) is

ontogenically equivalent to the PVN, and CRH neurons within the NPO perform the same role

as their mammalian counterparts (Herget and Ryu, 2015). A unique advantage of the

zebrafish system is its rapid and external development. The development of the HPI axis

begins between 1-2 days post fertilization (dpf), and stress-induced cortisol signaling and

behaviors can be observed at 4-5 dpf (Alsop and Vijayan, 2008; Alderman and Bernier, 2009;

Bai et al., 2016). The rapid development and translucency of zebrafish allow direct

microscopic observation of CRH neuron development in intact, developing animals.

In this study, we investigated the contributions of a conserved neuronal signaling

molecule—*Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule-like 1* (zebrafish gene: *dscaml1;* mouse

gene: *Dscaml1;* Human gene: *DSCAML1*; Protein: DSCAML1). DSCAML1 is one of two DSCAM

family members in vertebrates, the other being DSCAM (Garrett et al., 2012). Unlike

invertebrate DSCAMs, vertebrate DSCAMs are not significantly alternatively spliced (Sanes

and Zipursky, 2020). In the mammalian retina, DSCAML1 prevents excessive aggregation

between cells of the same type (homotypic aggregation) and promotes developmental cell

death (Fuerst et al., 2009; Garrett et al., 2016). DSCAML1 also acts to refine synaptic

specificity and synapse number (Yamagata and Sanes, 2008; Sachse et al., 2019). In humans,

rare variants in *DSCAML1* are associated with several neurodevelopmental disorders,

including autism spectrum disorder, cortical abnormality, and epilepsy (Iossifov et al., 2014;

Karaca et al., 2015; Hayase et al., 2020; Ogata et al., 2021). Genetic and epigenetic studies

also implicate *DSCAML1* in the stress response to violent experiences (Caramillo et al., 2015;

Saadatmand et al., 2021). However, the relationship between *DSCAML1* and the stress axis

remains unknown.

Using zebrafish, we previously explored how DSCAML1 affects neural pathways and

systemic functions (Ma et al., 2020a; Ma et al., 2020b). We found that *dscaml1* deficiency

resulted in various physiological and behavioral deficits, including darker pigmentation,

slower light adaptation, and slower eye movements (saccades) (Ma et al., 2020b).

Interestingly, darker pigmentation and slower light adaptation can also be caused by

abnormal glucocorticoid receptor signaling, as seen in the zebrafish *glucocorticoid receptor*

(*gr*) mutants, raising the possibility that the HPI-axis may be dysfunctional in *dscaml1*

mutants (Griffiths et al., 2012; Muto et al., 2013).

In the present study, we report that *dscaml1* deficiency in zebrafish perturbs CRH neuron

development and hyperactivates the HPI axis. These findings show that DSCAML1 is

necessary for normal stress axis development and raise the possibility that stress

dysfunction contributes to human *DSCAML1*-linked disorders.

RESULTS

***dscaml1* deficiency results in overexpression of neuroendocrine factors**

To gain an unbiased view of the molecular changes resulting from *dscaml1* deficiency, we

compared the transcriptomic profiles between *dscaml1* homozygous mutant (*dscaml1-/-*)

and control (wild type) animals using RNA sequencing (RNA-seq). cDNA from whole 3.5-4

days post-fertilization (dpf) *dscaml1-/-* and control larvae were sequenced using an Illumina

next-generation sequencer. Using a threshold of at least two-fold change and an adjusted *p*-value of less than 0.01, we identified 25 upregulated and 79 downregulated genes (Fig. 1A, Supplementary file 1).

Among the 25 upregulated genes in the *dscaml1-/-* animals, 7 were secreted neuropeptides/hormones expressed in the hypothalamus or pituitary: *corticotropin-releasing hormone b (crhb)*, *parathyroid hormone 2* (*pth2*), *somatolactin beta (smtlb), cocaine-and amphetamine-regulated transcript 3 (cart3), proopiomelanocortin a (pomca), arginine vasopressin (avp),* and *spexin hormone (spx).* Among them, three (*crhb, avp, pomca)* are core regulators of the HPI axis (Alsop and Vijayan, 2009; Lohr and Hammerschmidt, 2011). *crhb* encodes the zebrafish CRH; *avp* encodes the neuropeptide AVP that controls osmolarity, blood pressure, and synergizes with CRH to promote cortisol release; *pomca* encodes the adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), the primary pituitary hormone that triggers glucocorticoid release. Additionally, two genes involved in apoptosis are upregulated: *BCL2 apoptosis regulator b* (*bcl2b*) and *phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate-induced protein 1 (pmaip1/noxa)*. Protein class categorization analysis with PANTHER revealed intercellular signal molecule as the largest class (4 genes, 16%) (Fig. 1B) (Mi et al., 2021).

The 79 genes downregulated in the *dscaml1-/-* animals are more diverse in function compared to the upregulated genes. Protein class categorization analysis with PANTHER identified the largest protein classes as metabolite interconversion enzymes (12 genes, 15.19%), protein-binding activity modulators (9 genes, 11.39%), transporters (8 genes, 10.13%), and defense/immunity protein (6 genes, 7.59%) (Fig. 1C). We noted that 30 of the 79 (38%) downregulated genes are highly expressed in the liver, and 10 of these genes are involved in innate immunity and the complement cascade (Fig. 1A, Supplementary file 2).

These results suggest that liver function and innate immunity may be suppressed in the

dscaml1 mutants.

To identify the signaling pathways affected by *dscaml1* deficiency, we analyzed all

differentially expressed genes (*p<0.01*, 210 mapped genes) using the statistical enrichment

test (PANTHER Classification System, version 17.0) (Mi et al., 2021). All significantly

enriched (FDR<*0.05*) Gene Ontogeny (GO) terms for molecular function relate to the parent

GO term *hormone activity* (Fig. 1D). The PANTHER pathway analysis also identified another

significant stress modulating neuropeptide, *adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide 1b*

(*adcyap1b*, also known as *PACAP*) that is significantly upregulated (0.66 fold change,

adjusted *p<0.0001*) (Stroth et al., 2011).

Together, our transcriptomic analyses indicate that *dscaml1* deficiency results in the

upregulation of neuropeptide/hormonal signaling and the downregulation of liver and

innate immune function. Suppression of liver and immune function is a hallmark of stress

axis activation, which is consistent with the overexpression of the principal neuropeptides

involved in the stress axis: *crhb, avp*, *pomca,* and *adcyap1b*.

dscaml1 deficiency alters the development of CRH neurons in the NPO

Considering the RNA-seq findings, we tested whether *dscaml1* deficiency perturbs the

development of the CRH neurons in the NPO—the central regulators of the stress axis in

teleosts (Nagpal et al., 2019). Compared to mammalian CRH neurons in the PVN, CRH

neurons in the zebrafish NPO (henceforth referred to as CRH^{NPO} neurons) are more

homogenous in their neurotransmitter usage (Romanov et al., 2017; Short et al., 2021).

Nearly all (>95%) CRH^{NPO} neurons are glutamatergic, and they predominantly co-express

avp (Herget and Ryu, 2015; Lovett-Barron et al., 2020). Double fluorescent *in situ*

hybridization (FISH) with antisense riboprobes against *crhb* and *avp* show found that most

crhb+ neurons are *avp+* (82.85±6.01%), and all *avp+* neurons are *crhb+* (100±0.00%) (Fig.

2A-D). Therefore, *avp*-expressing neurons are a major subset of CRH^{NPO} neurons (referred to

as CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons from here on).

To examine the developmental trajectory of CRH^{NPO} (*crhb+*) and CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ (*avp+*)

neurons, we focused on three developmental stages: 2, 3, and 5 dpf. These stages span the

period between the birth of these neurons (~1 dpf) and the onset of stress axis responsivity

(4-5 dpf) (Alderman and Bernier, 2009; Clark et al., 2011). We found that *dscaml1* is

expressed in CRH^{NPO} neurons during this period (Supplementary Fig. 1). Using single FISH

for *crhb* and *avp*, we quantified the number of cells in each cell group and the relative

expression of *crhb* and *avp* (using the median FISH signal intensity per cell, see methods).

Additionally, given that DSCAML1 prevents homotypic cellular aggregation in the retina

(Fuerst et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2020b), we tested whether CRH neurons become aggregated

in *dscaml1* mutants. We measured homotypic aggregation by counting the number of close

cellular contacts between cells of the same subtype (CRH^{NPO} or CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons) (Ma et

al., 2020b). More close contacts indicate a higher degree of homotypic cellular aggregation.

As the average cell diameter is around 10 μm, cells are deemed to be in close contact when

the centers of the cells are within 10 μm.

For CRH^{NPO} neurons, *dscaml1* deficiency increased cell number and *crhb* expression, but

cellular aggregation was unaffected (Fig. 2E-I). The number of CRH^{NPO} neurons progressively

increased over time, from 14.78 cells (2 dpf) to 18.85 cells (3 dpf) to 26.60 cells (5 dpf) per

animal in WT (Fig 2E-E″, G). In *dscaml1*-/- animals, the number of CRH^{NPO} neurons increased

at a higher rate, from 12.67 cells (2 dpf) to 19.46 cells (3 dpf) to 36.39 cells (5 dpf) per animal

(Fig. 2F-F″, G). We found a significant difference in cell number by developmental stage and

genotype, and there was a significant interaction between stage and genotype (Two-way

ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). Pair-wise comparisons with Holm-Sidak correction found

a significant increase in cell number between *dscaml1-/-* and WT animals at 5 dpf but not at

2 and 3 dpf (Fig 2G, adjusted *p* values as shown).

The level of *crhb* expression (median FISH intensity level among *crhb+* neurons in each

sample) was increased in *dscaml1-/-* animals. We found a significant difference in signal

intensity per cell by developmental stage and genotype, and there was a significant

interaction between stage and genotype (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). Pair-

wise comparisons with Holm-Sidak correction found a significant increase at 3 and 5 dpf but

not at 2 dpf (Fig 2H). In contrast, we did not observe any significant differences in the number

of contacts per cell, either overall or at specific developmental stages (Fig. 2I).

For CRH$^{NPO\text{-}AVP}$ neurons (*avp+*), *dscaml1* deficiency also increased cell number and *avp*

signal intensity per cell. In contrast to CRH^{NPO} neurons, *dscaml1* deficiency resulted in

significant aggregation between CRH$^{NPO\text{-}AVP}$ neurons (Fig. 3). The number of CRH$^{NPO\text{-}AVP}$

neurons progressively increased over time, increasing from 9.89 cells (2 dpf) to 17.33 cells

(3 dpf) to 20.93 cells (5 dpf) per animal in WT (Fig. 3A-A″, C). In *dscaml1-/-* animals, the

number of CRH$^{NPO\text{-}AVP}$ neurons increased at a higher rate, from 14.11 cells (2 dpf) to 19.33

cells (3 dpf) to 34.00 cells (5 dpf) per animal (Fig. 3B-B″, C). We found a significant difference

in cell number by developmental stage and genotype, and there was a significant interaction

between stage and genotype (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). Pair-wise

comparisons with Holm-Sidak correction found a significant increase at 5 dpf but not at 2

and 3 dpf (Fig 3C, adjusted *p* values as indicated). Outside of the NPO, we also observed

apparent increases in cell number and *crhb* signal intensity at 5 dpf, suggesting that extra-

hypothalamic CRH neuron populations are likely also impacted by *dscaml1* deficiency (Fig.

2E″, F″)

The level of *avp* expression was increased in *dscaml1-/-* animals. We found a significant

difference in *avp* FISH signal intensity by developmental stage and genotype, and there was

a significant interaction between stage and genotype (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary

Table I). Pair-wise comparisons with Holm-Sidak correction found a significant increase at 3

dpf but not at 2 and 5 dpf (Fig. 3D, adjusted *p* values as indicated). For the number of contacts

per cell, we found a significant difference in FISH signal intensity by developmental stage

and genotype, and there was a significant interaction between stage and genotype

(Supplementary Table I). Pair-wise comparisons with Holm-Sidak correction found a

significant increase at 5 dpf but not at 2 and 3 dpf (Fig 3E, adjusted *p* values as indicated).

Overall, the effects of *dscaml1* deficiency on CRH neurons become more pronounced as

the animals progress developmentally. There were no significant differences at 2 dpf, when

the stress axis is not yet responsive. However, at 3 and 5 dpf, we observed significant

increases in cell number and *crhb/avp* expression. Cellular aggregation, as measured by the

amount of close cellular contact, was significantly increased only within the CRH[NPO-AVP]

subgroup (Fig. 3E). There is, however, a mild (and non-significant) increase in close cellular

contact in the broader CRH[NPO] population. The stronger effect on the more defined CRH[NPO-

AVP] population is consistent with the idea that *dscaml1* acts homotypically to prevent

aggregation and that CRH[NPO] neurons contain multiple subtypes.

Impairments of CRH[NPO] neurons in *dscaml1* mutants are independent of ambient light

Our previous study showed that *dscaml1* mutants likely have impaired ambient light

perception (Ma et al., 2020b). As ambient light is a major driver of baseline stress axis activity

(Spencer and Deak, 2017), we examined whether *dscaml1* deficiency affects CRH[NPO] and

CRH[NPO-AVP] neuron development in the absence of light. Experimental animals were reared

in constant darkness from 4 hours post-fertilization (hpf) (sphere stage)(Kimmel et al., 1995)

until they were anesthetized and fixed at 3 or 5 dpf. FISH with *crhb* and *avp* probes were

performed to identify CRH[NPO] and CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons, respectively.

For CRH[NPO] neurons, we observed similar effects of *dscaml1* deficiency in dark-reared

animals compared to those under normal light-dark cycles (Fig. 4A-C). Comparing dark-

reared WT and *dscaml1-/-* animals, we found a significant difference in cell number by

developmental stage and genotype (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). There was no

significant interaction between stage and genotype, indicating that both stages are similarly

affected by *dscaml1* deficiency. For *crhb* FISH signal intensity and the number of contacts per

cell, there was a significant difference by genotype but no significant difference by stage or

interaction. We found significant increases in all pair-wise comparisons between WT vs.

dscaml1-/- groups, except for the number of cell contacts at 5 dpf (Fig 4A-C, Holm-Sidak

correction adjusted *p* values as indicated).

For CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons, we also observed similar effects of *dscaml1* deficiency in dark-

reared animals compared to those under normal light-dark cycles (Fig. 4D-F). Comparing

dark-reared WT and *dscaml1-/-* animals, we found a significant difference in cell number and

avp FISH signal intensity by developmental stage and genotype (two-way ANOVA,

Supplementary Table I). There was no significant interaction between stage and genotype,

indicating that both stages are affected by *dscaml1* deficiency similarly. For the number of

contacts per cell, there was a significant difference by genotype but no significant difference

by stage or interaction. We found significant increases in all pair-wise comparisons between

WT vs. *dscaml1-/-* groups (Fig. 4D-F, Holm-Sidak correction adjusted *p* values as indicated).

Overall, we observed consistent developmental phenotypes in CRH[NPO] and CRH[NPO-AVP]

neurons under both normal light-dark cycles and constant darkness. These results suggest

that the deficit in ambient light detection is not a key contributor to the developmental

changes in NPO neurons caused by *dscaml1* deficiency.

CRH neuron cell death depends on *dscaml1*

The increase in CRH[NPO] neuron number and aggregation of cells of the same subtype are

reminiscent of mouse mutants deficient in programmed cell death (PCD)(Keeley et al., 2012;

Chen et al., 2013). Mouse *Dscaml1* mutants also exhibited a notable reduction in neuronal

cell death in the retina (Garrett et al., 2016). Therefore, we reasoned that *dscaml1* deficiency

might increase CRH[NPO] neuron number by impairing PCD.

To test this, we first used an anti-activated-caspase 3 (AC3) antibody to label apoptotic

cells. Consistent with previous findings, we found widespread apoptosis in the nervous

system in wild-type animals, peaking at 3 dpf (Supplementary Fig. 2A-A″)(Cole and Ross,

2001). In *dscaml1-/-* animals, there is a decrease in AC3-positive cells at 3 and 5 dpf,

compared to wild-type controls (Supplementary Fig. 2B-B″). Using the Z-Brain region-

specific quantification method (Randlett et al., 2015), we found that *dscaml1* deficiency

significantly reduced cell death in the forebrain and midbrain, including the NPO

(Supplementary Fig. 2C-D). This result shows that *dscaml1* is necessary to promote PCD in

the brain during development.

To further determine whether *dscaml1* affects the survival of CRH[NPO] neurons, we tracked

the fate of individual CRH neurons during the peak of PCD (3-5 dpf) using *in vivo* time-lapse

imaging. To visualize CRH[NPO] neurons in live zebrafish, we generated a *crhb* knock-in

fluorescent reporter line using CRISPR-mediated genomic insertion (Fig. 5A) (Kimura et al.,

2014). A Cre-switchable *hsp-LoxP-RFP-LoxP-GFP* cassette was inserted 35 base pairs

upstream of the first exon of *crhb* so that the expression of RFP (without Cre-mediate

recombination) or GFP (with Cre-mediate recombination) would mark the endogenous *crhb*-

expressing cells (Fig. 5B).

The resulting transgenic line, *crhb:LoxP-RFP-LoxP-GFP* (*crhb:LRLG*), has RFP and GFP

expression pattern that matches the endogenous *crhb* transcript expression patterns (Fig.

5C-D, compare to Fig. 2E″). To validate the fidelity of fluorescent reporter gene expression,

we examined whether *crhb:LRLG*-labeled cells in the NPO express CRH protein. In animals

not exposed to Cre (default RFP expression), we found that most RFP+ (84.71±2.19%)

neurons are CRH immunopositive (Supplementary Fig. 3A-B). Together, these results

indicate that the *crhb:LRLG* line reliably labels CRH[NPO] neurons.

For *crhb:LRLG*-labeled CRH[NPO] neurons, *dscaml1* deficiency also increased the number of

cells (Fig. 5E-F). We found significant differences by age and genotype, with no significant

interaction between the two (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). There was a

significantly higher number of RFP-positive neurons in the *dscaml1* mutants at 5 dpf (n=16

for WT and 17 for *dscaml1-/-*) but not 3 dpf (n=5 for WT and 11 for *dscaml1-/-*) (Fig. 5G,

multiple comparison test with Holm-Sidak correction). This result corroborates our *crhb*

FISH results that show increased CRH[NPO] neuron number in *dscaml1* mutants (Fig. 2G).

Using the *crhb:LRLG* line, we performed time-lapse imaging in anesthetized animals. We

induced partial Cre-mediated recombination by injecting *CreER* mRNA at the 1-cell stage and

adding 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT) to activate CreER at 6-24 hpf (Fig. 5B). At 3-4 dpf,

intermingled GFP+ and RFP+ cells can be seen in the NPO by confocal imaging (Fig. 5H-H″

and Supplementary video 1). Over time, some cells appear to travel away from the CRH^{NPO}

neuron cluster. We reasoned that these cells were apoptotic cells carried away by microglia,

as seen in previous zebrafish studies (Mazaheri et al., 2014). To confirm this, we induced GFP

expression (by full Cre-mediated recombination) in all *crhb:LRLG*-labeled cells and labeled

microglia with mCherry, a red fluorescent protein (Fig. 5I-I″ and Supplementary video 2)

(Espenschied et al., 2019). Indeed, mCherry+ microglia migrated toward the GFP+ cell

cluster, engulfed GFP-positive cells, and carried the presumably apoptotic cells away. The

remnant of the engulfed cell can be seen inside a large vacuole within the microglia (Fig. 5J-

J′). These results suggest that CRH^{NPO} neurons undergo PCD and that dying cells are rapidly

removed by microglia.

To track the fate of individual CRH^{NPO} neurons, we performed two-photon imaging from

3 to 5 dpf. To minimize the potential effects of stress on PCD (Irles et al., 2014), we

anesthetized and immobilized the animals during imaging (Fig. 6A). In between imaging

sessions, each animal is allowed to recover in individual wells of 12-well plates, under

normal light-dark cycles. Cells that are present at the first time point (78 hpf) were tracked

at four subsequent time points (84, 96, 108, and 120 hpf) and categorized as either persisting

(present at the last time point) or lost (lost at any of the following time points) (Fig. 6B-B″).

Overall, we observe a trend of reduced cell loss in the *dscaml1+/-* and *dscaml1-/-* animals

(Chi-square test for trend, *p*=0.0398) (Fig. 6C, total number of tracked cells as indicated). In

WT animals, 16.41% of cells are lost, versus 10.91% and 7.53% for *dscaml1+/- and dscaml1-*

/-, respectively. The difference in the rate of cell loss (8.9%) accounts for a significant portion

(but not all) of the difference in CRH^{NPO} neuron cell number.

Finally, considering the timing of cell loss, we plotted the survival curve of CRH^{NPO}

neurons for each genotype. Again, there was a significant difference in the trends of cell loss

(Logrank test for trend, *p*=0.0098), with the *dscaml1-/-* animals consistently showing a

higher survival rate (Fig. 6D). Together, these results show that *dscaml1* deficiency reduces

PCD of CRH^{NPO} neurons, which potentially contribute to the hyperactivation of the stress axis.

Baseline and stress-induced cortisol levels are elevated in *dscaml1* mutant animals

Given the developmental perturbation of CRH^{NPO} neurons and the global changes and

gene expression, we next determined whether the hormonal output of the stress axis is

altered. We examined the level of cortisol, the primary stress hormone in zebrafish and

humans. Cortisol levels were measured using an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

(ELISA) on homogenates made from pools of 5 dpf animals (30 animals per sample, 6

samples per condition). All animals were raised at the same density with a normal circadian

cycle (14 h day/10 h night). Under this circadian cycle, *dscaml1* mutant animals exhibit

similar diurnal locomotor rhythm as wild-type animals (Ma et al., 2020b).

Multiple baseline and stressed conditions were tested to evaluate potential alterations of

cortisol in the control and mutant animals. To measure baseline cortisol, we collected

animals within 30 min after light onset (zeitgeber time 0, ZT0) and in the afternoon (ZT6-8).

For stress-induced cortisol measurements, acute stressors were applied at ZT6-8. We

exposed 5 dpf animals to stirring stress (swirling water, 5 minutes)(Castillo-Ramirez et al.,

2019) or hyperosmotic stress (250 mM NaCl, 20 minutes) at ZT6-8 (Yeh et al., 2013). These

are well-characterized acute stressors comparable to the water current and salinity changes

experienced by zebrafish larvae in their natural habitat.

Overall, *dscaml1-/-* animals exhibited higher levels of cortisol than control animals across

all conditions (Multiple Mann-Whitney test with Holm-Sidak correction. Adjusted *p* values

shown in Fig. 7A). At ZT0, the *dscaml1* mutant baseline cortisol levels were 2.7-fold higher

than that of controls (median 350.06 pg/ml versus 129.80 pg/ml). The difference in cortisol

was less pronounced at ZT6-8, but *dscaml1* mutants still had significantly higher cortisol

levels than controls at baseline and after acute stress.

In addition to elevated baseline cortisol levels, *dscaml1* mutant animals exhibited

attenuated cortisol induction by acute stressors. In the control group, stirring stress and

hyperosmotic stress produced an 88% and 95% increase in cortisol over the ZT6-8 baseline,

respectively. The response to hyperosmotic stress was more robust (p=0.016) than that

generated by stirring stress (p=0.0798, Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction). In the

dscaml1-/- group, stirring stress and hyperosmotic stress only produced 29% and 49%

increases in cortisol over the ZT6-8 baseline, respectively. These increases were not

statistically significant (p=0.811 for stirring stress, p=0.1364 for hyperosmotic stress).

Together, these results show that *dscaml1* deficiency increases the baseline activity of the

neuroendocrine stress axis, which potentially contributes to less robust stress-induced

cortisol production.

dscaml1 mutants are responsive to glucocorticoids

As mentioned earlier, we found visual response deficiencies in *dscaml1* mutants that

resembled zebrafish with deficient *glucocorticoid receptor (gr)* signaling (Griffiths et al.,

2012; Muto et al., 2013; Ziv et al., 2013). Like *dscaml1-/-* animals, the *gr* mutants also

exhibited elevated baseline cortisol and overexpression of *crhb* (Ziv et al., 2013). These

findings suggest that *dscaml1* deficiency may result from insufficient glucocorticoid

receptor-mediated signaling. To test this, we examined whether *dscaml1* mutants can

respond transcriptionally to exogenously applied glucocorticoids. We examined the

expression of *crhb* and *avp* in the NPO, as these neuropeptides are under feedback control

from glucocorticoid-glucocorticoid receptor signaling (Watts, 2005).

A synthetic glucocorticoid receptor agonist, dexamethasone (Dex), was added to the

embryo media at a final concentration of 2 μM from 4 to 5 dpf (24 hours). Vehicle (0.02%

ethanol) treated siblings were used for comparison. For *crhb* transcript level in CRH[NPO]

neurons, we found significant differences caused by Dex treatment and genotype, with

significant interaction between the two (two-way ANOVA, Supplementary Table I). Multiple

comparison tests found that Dex significantly reduced *crhb* transcript level in *dscaml1-/-*

animals but not in wild-type animals (Holm-Sidak correction, Fig. 7B with *p* values as

indicated). For *avp* transcript level in CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons, we found significant differences

caused by Dex treatment and genotype, with no significant interaction (two-way ANOVA,

Supplementary Table I). Multiple comparison tests found that Dex significantly increases *avp*

transcript level in *dscaml1-/-* animals but not in wild-type animals (Holm-Sidak correction,

Fig. 7C). Together, these results show that *dscaml1* deficiency does not result in a loss of

glucocorticoid responsivity in CRH[NPO] and CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons. Instead, *dscaml1-/-* animals

are more susceptible to changes in glucocorticoid levels than wild-type siblings, which may

exacerbate stress axis dysfunction in the *dscaml1-/-* animals.

DISCUSSION

In summary, the present study provides evidence that *dscaml1* regulates the

development and number of hypothalamic CRH neurons, a crucial component of the

vertebrate neuroendocrine stress axis. In zebrafish *dscaml1* mutants, hypothalamic CRH

neurons (CRH^{NPO} neurons) have increased stress axis-associated neuropeptide expression,

increased cell number, decreased programmed cell death, and reduced cellular spacing. We

show that *dscaml1* mutants have reduced CRH^{NPO} neuron cell death, resulting in a higher

number of CRH neurons. These developmental deficits likely contribute to the stress axis

dysfunction seen in *dscaml1* mutant animals, including elevated cortisol levels at baseline

and attenuated cortisol induction after acute stress (Fig. 7D). Together, these findings

strongly link DSCAML1 to the development of the stress axis and shed new light on the

potential etiology of human *DSCAML1*-linked mental health conditions.

DSCAML1 is a novel intercellular signaling molecule for CRH neuron development

To our knowledge, DSCAML1 is the first intercellular signaling molecule to be implicated

in normal CRH neuron development. As such, further understanding of DSCAML1 will help

bridge the knowledge gap on the differentiation events after the onset of transcriptional cell

fate specification and provide insights on what naturally occurring maturation processes

may be perturbed by clinically relevant early-life stressors (Chen and Baram, 2016; van

Bodegom et al., 2017).

DSCAML1 has been most extensively studied in the vertebrate retina, a structure with

precise laminar organization and cells that are evenly distributed in the planar plane. In

contrast, the hypothalamic CRH neurons are located in a non-laminated brain area where

neurons of the same subtype are often clustered. Further investigation of DSCAML1 in the

hypothalamus will provide insights into the shared and unique intercellular signaling

mechanisms between laminar and non-laminar brain organization.

Mechanism of stress axis hyperactivation in DSCAML1 deficient animals

The *dscaml1-/-* animals exhibit multiple signs of stress axis hyperactivation, including

cortisol elevation and the suppression of immunity-associated genes. One potential cause of

these phenotypes may be the overexpression of *crhb* and *avp* in the hypothalamus. In mice,

broad overexpression of CRH leads to elevated corticosterone (the stress glucocorticoid in

rodents) and produces phenotypes similar to Cushing's syndrome, a human disorder caused

by the overproduction of cortisol (Stenzel-Poore et al., 1992; Arnett et al., 2016). The

potential effects of chronically elevated AVP are less understood, but increased AVP

signaling likely potentiates stress axis activity (René et al., 2002).

Beyond dysfunction of hypothalamic neurons, a broader neurological imbalance can also

activate the stress axis. Seizures have been shown to activate the stress axis, which increases

the likelihood of future seizures (O'Toole et al., 2014; Hooper et al., 2018). It has been

reported that *Dscaml1* mutant rats and human patients with *DSCAML1* loss-of-function

variants exhibit neuronal hyperactivation and seizures. It is, therefore, possible that

excitation-inhibition imbalance in extra-hypothalamic regions may result in increased

CRH[NPO] neuron firing in zebrafish *dscaml1* mutants. Further studies on the cell-type specific

functions of *dscaml1* are needed to understand the precise cause of stress axis

hyperactivation in *dscaml1-/-* animals.

DSCAML1-mediated regulation of CRH neuron cell number

During development, PCD is critical for eliminating transient cell types, matching input

and output cell populations, and maintaining cellular spacing (Yamaguchi and Miura, 2015;

Wong and Marin, 2019). It has been hypothesized that PCD in the hypothalamus may specify

neural circuit assembly and shape output activity (Simerly, 2002; Forger, 2009). Congruent

with this idea, reduced hypothalamic PCD caused by early-life stress is associated with

increased sensitivity to acute stressors in adulthood (Zhang et al., 2012; Irles et al., 2014).

As an intercellular signaling molecule, DSCAML1 may act to transduce extracellular cell

death cues. One possible extracellular cue for CRH neuron cell death is homotypic

intercellular contact, which triggers the process known as proximity-based cell death (Chen

et al., 2013). In proximity-based cell death, a cell immediately adjacent to another cell of the

same type is more likely to undergo PCD. In the retina, this process helps establish even tiling

of different cell types across the visual field. However, the role of proximity-based cell death

outside of the retina is still unclear. In *dscaml1-/-* animals, we found increased homotypic

contacts between the CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons. It is possible that the additional homotypic

contacts are from CRH[NPO-AVP] neurons that had failed to undergo proximity-based cell death

due to *dscaml1* deficiency. Further work is needed to determine the functional significance

and molecular mechanisms of proximity-based cell death in CRH neurons.

Another extracellular cue that regulates cell death is synaptic transmission, which is

critical for neuronal survival during development (Wong and Marin, 2019). In culture,

DSCAML1 is localized to excitatory synapses (Yamagata and Sanes, 2010) and inhibits

excitatory synaptogenesis when overexpressed (Sachse et al., 2019). Thus, DSCAML1

deficiency may increase excitatory synaptic transmission and activation of activity-

dependent cell survival pathways (Wong and Marin, 2019). Additionally, increased synaptic

excitation has been found to stimulate CRH and AVP expression, which could underlie the

increased neuropeptide expression phenotype seen in *dscaml1-/-* animals.

The interplay between cortisol signaling and CRH neuron development

Facilitation and feedback are signature features of the stress axis (Dallman et al., 1992;

Spencer and Deak, 2017). While CRH neurons control cortisol levels, cortisol signaling also

affects the development of CRH neurons. Zebrafish *gr* mutants have phenotypes similar to

that of *dscaml1-/-* animals, including slow visual-background adaptation, sluggish light onset

response, elevated cortisol, and increased expression of *crhb* and *pomca* (Griffiths et al., 2012;

Muto et al., 2013). Surprisingly, rather than decreased glucocorticoid receptor signaling (as

in *gr* mutants), *dscaml1-/-* animals appeared to have enhanced glucocorticoid receptor

signaling, with dexamethasone exerting stronger suppression of *crhb* expression and

stronger enhancement of *avp* expression. Thus, despite the superficial phenotypic similarity,

the underlying signaling mechanisms are distinct between *dscaml1* and *gr* mutants.

The diverging response to dexamethasone between *crhb* and *avp* is also intriguing.

Mammalian studies have generally found that long-term application of glucocorticoids

suppress both *CRH* and *AVP* transcript levels (Watts, 2005). This divergent response to

glucocorticoids also makes it less likely that the broad overexpression of stress-related (*crhb,*

pomca, avp, adcyap1b) and unrelated (*pth2, smtlb, cart3)* neuropeptides are caused by the

elevation in cortisol alone. In future work, it will be essential to disambiguate the

relationship between cortisol disturbances and developmental deficits. A possible approach

would be to normalize cortisol levels by genetically ablating interrenal cells (i.e., genetic

adrenalectomy) and supplementing with constant levels of exogenous cortisol (Gutierrez-

Triana et al., 2015).

Conclusions

In conclusion, this work shows that DSCAML1 is integral for developing the hypothalamic

neurons that regulate the neuroendocrine stress axis. Using zebrafish as a vertebrate model

for the ontogenesis of the stress axis, we found that *dscaml1* deficiency results in CRH neuron

deficits and the hyperactivation of the stress axis. Genetic perturbations of *DSCAML1* are

seen in patients suffering from a wide range of mental health disorders, including intellectual

disability, autism spectrum disorder, schizophrenia, epilepsy, and stress disorder (Iossifov

et al., 2014; Caramillo et al., 2015; Karaca et al., 2015; Hayase et al., 2020; Ogata et al., 2021;

Saadatmand et al., 2021). Developmental deficits in the stress axis may contribute to the

etiology of these disorders.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Zebrafish Husbandry

Zebrafish (all ages) were raised under a 14/10 light/dark cycle at 28.5°C. Embryos and

larvae were raised in E3 buffer (5 mM NaCl, 0.17 mM KCl, 0.33 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.33 mM $MgSO_4$)

(Nüsslein-Volhard et al., 2002). All zebrafish used in this study were in a mixed background

of AB and TL wild-type strains (Zebrafish International Resource Center). Sex was not a

relevant variable for the stages used in this study (0-6 dpf), as laboratory zebrafish remain

sexually undifferentiated until two weeks of age (Maack and Segner, 2003; Wilson et al.,

2014). All procedures were performed according to protocols approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee at Virginia Tech and the National Institute for Basic Biology.

Transgenic and mutant zebrafish lines

The *dscaml1^vt1* loss-of-function allele contains a 7 base pair deletion that results in

premature translational termination (Ma et al., 2020b). Animals used for live imaging were

in homozygous *nacre* (*mitfa*) mutant background to prevent pigment formation (Lister et al.,

1999). The microglia RFP line [*Tg(mpeg1:Gal4;UAS:NTR-mCherry)*] was obtained from Dr.

John Rawls at Duke University (Espenschied et al., 2019). The *crhb:LoxP-RFP-LoxP-GFP* line

was generated using CRISPR-mediated knock-in, as described by Kimura et al. (Kimura et al.,

2014). The sgRNA sequence for the *crhb* knock-in locus is AGCTCGCGTCTGCGCAGAG.

501   RNA-seq and differential gene expression analysis

Progenies from heterozygous *dscaml1* mutant parents were anesthetized and harvested

at 3.5-4 dpf. The anterior half of the animal was used for RNA preparation using the RNA

Miniprep Kit (Zymo). The posterior half was used for genotyping. Three biological replicates

for each group were analyzed, each containing RNA from 6-11 animals. All samples had RIN

≥ 8.0 and were converted into a strand-specific library using Illumina's TruSeq Stranded

mRNA HT Sample Prep Kit (RS-122-2103; Illumina) for subsequent cluster generation and

sequencing on Illumina's NextSeq 75 sequencer. Sequence data processing, alignment, read

count, mapping, and quality control were performed as previously described (Ates et al.,

2020). Differential expression was tested for significance using the false discovery rate (FDR)

(Benjamini-Hochberg) corrected Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) in the R-package DESeq2 (Love

et al., 2014). 238 and 116 genes showed a significant difference in read counts at FDR<0.01

and 0.001, respectively. Original sequence data have been deposited in NCBI's Gene

Expression Omnibus (Edgar et al., 2002) and will be accessible through GEO Series accession

number GSE213858.

Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization and immunohistochemistry

Single and double whole-mount fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) was performed using protocols described previously (Pan et al., 2012). Probes were synthesized by *in vitro* transcription using the DIG and Fluorescein RNA Labeling Mix (Roche). DIG and fluorescein-labeled probes were detected with anti-DIG or anti-Fluorescein POD-conjugated Fab fragments (Roche) and Cy3 or Fluorescein TSA-plus Reagent (Akoya Biosciences). Plasmid templates for *crhb* (Lohr et al., 2009) and *avp* (Eaton et al., 2008) were provided by Dr. David Prober at Caltech. The *dscaml1* probe was generated as described previously (Ma et al., 2020b).

Immunohistochemistry was performed as described previously (Ma et al., 2020a). ERK1/2 was stained with mouse anti-ERK1/2 (4696S; Cell Signaling Technology). Activated caspase 3 was stained with rabbit anti-cleaved caspase 3 (559565; BD Biosciences). Nuclei were stained with TOTO-3 Iodide (ThermoFisher). RFP was stained with chicken anti-RFP (600-901-379S, Rockland) or rabbit anti-RFP (PM005, MBL Life Science). GFP was stained with rabbit anti-GFP (598, MBL Life Science). CRH was stained with rabbit anti-CRH (PBL rC68) provided by P. Sawchenko and J. Vaughan from The Salk Institute. All FISH and immunohistochemistry samples were mounted in 1.5% low-melt agarose in glass-bottomed petri dishes (P50G-1.5-14-F; MatTek) and imaged using a Nikon A1 upright confocal microscope.

Cortisol extraction and ELISA

A detailed protocol for cortisol extraction and ELISA is provided in the online supplementary method. At 4.5 dpf, *dscaml1-/-* and control animals were separated based on the darker pigmentation of the *dscaml1-/-* animal (Ma et al., 2020b). 30-35 animals were

placed in each petri dish for cortisol extraction. The morning baseline (unstressed) sample

collections were done at 15-30 minutes after light onset (08:15-08:45), and the afternoon

sample collections were done between 14:30-16:00. Hyperosmotic stress and stirring stress

experiments were done between 14:30-15:30. 6 biological duplicates—each containing a

pool of 30 animals—were collected for each genotype (*dscaml1-/-* and control) and stress

condition (morning baseline, afternoon baseline, stirring stress, osmotic stress). Mutants

and control animals are tested side by side for each experiment.

Stirring stress was induced by creating a vortex water flow with a spinning magnetic stir

bar (Castillo-Ramirez et al., 2019). A small magnetic stir bar was placed into a 100 mm petri

dish containing 35 animals and 20 ml of E3 media. The stir bar was rotated at 300 rpm with

a stirring microplate for 5 minutes. Hyperosmotic stress was induced by increasing salt

concentration in the media (Yeh et al., 2013). 30 animals were placed in 8 ml of E3 media.

Then, 2 ml of prewarmed 1.25M NaCl was added to the media for a final concentration of 250

mM for 20 minutes.

Sample homogenization and cortisol extraction were performed as described by Yeh et

al. (Yeh et al., 2013). Briefly, 5 dpf larvae were rapidly immobilized with ice-cold E3 media

and then flash-frozen at -80°C. Once all samples were collected, cortisol from the frozen

samples was extracted with ethyl acetate (33211-1L-R; Sigma-Aldrich). Cortisol

concentration was measured using a commercial ELISA kit, following the manufacturer's

instructions (500360; Cayman Chemical). Sample plates were read with a microplate reader

(FilterMax F3; MicroDevices) 90-120 minutes after initial development.

Live imaging of CRH neurons

Cre-mediated recombination of the *crhb:LRLG* transgene was induced by injecting Cre

mRNA into the embryo at the 1-cell stage. To achieve partial Cre-mediated recombination,

~30 pg of CreER mRNA was injected at the 1-cell stage and 4-Hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT)

was added to the embryo media at 6 hpf (10 μM), followed by wash out with E3 media at 24

hpf. To achieve complete Cre-mediated recombination, ~50 pg of *in vitro* transcribed Cre.zf1

mRNA (#61391, Addgene) was injected into the embryos (Horstick et al., 2015).

To perform confocal live imaging, 3 dpf animals were anesthetized with 0.01% tricaine

methanesulfonate (MS-222, Sigma) and embedded in 1% low-melting point agarose, with

the dorsal side resting on the glass surface inside the glass-bottomed petri dish (P50G-1.5-

14-F; MatTek) (Beier et al., 2016). The petri dish was then filled with E3 media containing

0.01% tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222, Sigma). Confocal z-stacks were acquired every

15 or 30 minutes for 12 hours on a Nikon A1 confocal microscope.

Two-photon live imaging was done on a custom Bruker two-channel two-photon

microscope. A tuneable Ti:Saphire laser (Chameleon Vision II; Coherent) was tuned to 980

nm to excite RFP and GFP simultaneously. 78 hpf animals were anesthetized and embedded

the same way as confocal live imaging, but with the dorsal side away from the cover glass.

Each animal was imaged at 78, 84, 96, 108, and 120 hpf (Fig. 7A). After each time point,

imaged larvae were gently removed from the agarose and recovered in E3 media at 28.5°C

under normal day/night cycles. After the last time point, genomic DNA was prepared for all

imaged animals and genotyped.

Image Processing and Statistical Analyses

Images were processed using Fiji—an open-source image processing software

(Schindelin et al., 2012). For FISH images, images were convolved (kernel=12) to enhance

cell boundaries, and the center of each cell was manually tagged using the ROI manager tool.

The cell number equals the number of ROIs in each animal. The signal intensity per cell was

defined as the median signal intensity of all ROIs in a given animal. The number of contacts

for a ROI (cell) is defined as the total number of ROIs within 10 μm, as described previously

(Ma et al., 2020b). For each animal, the number of contacts per cell is the mean number of

contacts of all ROIs. The number of RFP+ cells in *crhb:LRLG* animals were counted using the

ROI manager tool without convolution. For confocal live imaging, images were pre-

processed using the Denoise.AI function in the Nikon Elements software. For two-photon

imaging, z-stacks from different time points were aligned using the "Correct 3D drift"

function. Spectral overlap between the RFP and GFP channels was linearly unmixed.

Individual cells were tracked with the MTrackJ plugin in Fiji (Meijering et al., 2012).

All statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism (Version 9). For normally-

distributed data, parametric tests (t-test or ANOVA) were used. For non-normally

distributed data, non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney) were used. The Holm-Sidak post-

test was used to correct for multiple comparisons, and the adjusted p values were shown. All

values are expressed as mean ± standard error. Statistical tests were considered significant

when $p<0.05$. Quantification of apoptotic cells was done by the MAP-mapping method, as

previously described (Randlett et al., 2015).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.M and Y.A.P conceived and designed the experiments. M.M and A.A.B prepared samples

for RNA sequencing. Y.A.P analyzed the RNA sequencing data. M.M performed ELISA and

histochemistry experiments and analyzed the data. M.M and K.C.C performed *in situ*

hybridization experiments and analyzed the data with contributions from K.C.C, C.S, and K.S.

S.H generated the *crhbl:LRLG* transgenic line. M.M and Y.A.P wrote the manuscript. Y.A.P

provided project administration and acquired funding.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

Next-generation sequencing data utilized in this publication are available from the Gene

Expression Omnibus (accession code GSE213858).

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Differential gene expression analysis of *dscaml1* deficient zebrafish. (A) Volcano

plot of relative gene expression in *dscaml1-/-* versus control animals. Each dot represents an

individual gene, with colored dots representing gene groups as indicated on the graph.

Dotted lines show the significance level (adjusted *p* < 0.01) and fold change (increase or

decrease by two-fold or more) thresholds. (B, C) Protein class categorization analysis for

upregulated (B) and downregulated (C) genes. (D) Table of significantly enriched (*p<0.05*)

GO terms for molecular function.

Fig 2. *dscaml1* deficiency alters the development of CRH^{NPO} neurons. (A) Illustration of

CRH neurons (gray circles) in the NPO (boxed area) in the larval zebrafish. (B-B″) Images of

double FISH labeling of NPO neurons, with *crhb* labeled in green *avp* in magenta. Arrowhead

indicates a cell that expresses *crhb* but not *avp*. (C) Percentage of *crhb+* cells that are *avp+*.

n=9. (D) Percentage of *avp+* cells that are *crhb+*. n=9. (E-F″) Developmental trajectory of

CRH^{NPO} neurons, labeled by *crhb* FISH. At each developmental stage, a representative

confocal z-stack projection of the whole brain is shown in the left panel, and the substack

containing the NPO is enlarged and shown in the right panel. The white boxes indicate the

locations of the NPO, and the yellow ovals mark the eyes. Wild-type (WT) animals are shown

in panels E-E″ and *dscaml1-/-* animals are shown in panels F-F″. (G-I) Quantification of the

cell number (G), signal intensity per cell (H), and the number of contacts per cell (I). Multiple-

comparison corrected *p* values are as shown. WT: n=9 (2 dpf), 13 (3 dpf), 15(5 dpf). *dscaml1-*

/-: n=9 (2 dpf), 13 (3 dpf), 18 (5 dpf). Scale bars are 20 μm. Mean, standard error, and

corrected *p* values are shown for all graphs.

Fig 3. *dscaml1* deficiency alters the development of CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons. (A-B″)

Developmental trajectory of CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons, labeled by *avp* FISH. At each developmental

stage, a representative confocal z-stack projection of the whole brain is shown in the left

panel, and the substack containing the NPO is enlarged and shown in the right panel. The

white boxes indicate the locations of the NPO, and the yellow ovals mark the eyes. Wild-type

(WT) animals are shown in panels A-A″ and *dscaml1-/-* animals are shown in panels B-B″.

(C-E) Quantification of the cell number (C), signal intensity per cell (D), and the number of

contacts per cell (E). Multiple-comparison corrected p values are as shown. WT: n=9 (2 dpf),

15 (3 dpf), 14(5 dpf). *dscaml1-/-*: n=9 (2 dpf), 15 (3 dpf), 20 (5 dpf). Scale bars are 20 μm.

Mean, standard error, and corrected p values are shown for all graphs.

Fig 4. CRH^{NPO} neuron development is impaired in the absence of ambient light. (A-C)

Quantification of CRH^{NPO} neurons, labeled by *crhb* FISH. Graphs show the cell number (A),

signal intensity per cell (B), and the number of contacts per cell (C). Multiple-comparison

corrected p values are as shown. WT: n=10 (3 dpf), 15 (5 dpf). *dscaml1-/-*: n=17 (3 dpf), 15

(5 dpf). (D-F) Quantification of CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons, labeled by *avp* FISH. Graphs show the

cell number (D), signal intensity per cell (E), and the number of contacts per cell (F).

Multiple-comparison corrected p values are as shown. WT: n=15 (3 dpf), 11 (5 dpf). *dscaml1-*

/-: n=15 (3 dpf), 11 (5 dpf). Mean, standard error, and corrected p values are shown for all

graphs.

Fig. 5. Fluorescent labeling and live imaging of CRH^{NPO} neurons. (A) Schematic of CRISPR

-mediated knock-in of the *hsp-Lox-RFP-Lox-GFP* cassette at the sgRNA target site, located 35

bp upstream of exon 1 of *crhb*. The orientation and junctional structure of insertion have not

been determined. (B) Schematic of *crhb:LRLG* expression. Each circle represents a

fluorescent cell. Without Cre (default), RFP is expressed in all cells. With full recombination,

all cells express GFP. Partial recombination results in mosaic RFP and GFP labeling. (C)

Dorsal view of a fixed 5 dpf *crhb:LRLG* larvae with partial recombination stained with anti-

RFP (magenta) and anti-GFP (green). The boxed area marks the NPO. (D) Higher

magnification image of the NPO. Both RFP and GFP-positive neurons can be seen. (E-F′)

Images of anti-RFP stained *crh:LRLG* animals without recombination. Representative wild-

type (WT, E-E′) and *dscaml1-/-* (F-F′) NPO neurons are shown. (G) Quantification of RFP-

positive cells at 3 and 5 dpf. WT: n=5 (3 dpf), 16 (5 dpf). *dscaml1-/-*: n=11 (3 dpf), 17 (5 dpf).

Mean, standard error, and corrected *p* values are shown. (H-H″) Live *crhb:LRLG* larvae with

partial recombination were imaged from 72 to 84 hpf. Three time points are shown here.

Two cells (arrowheads, one green and one magenta) move away over time. (I-I″) Live

crhb:LRLG;mpeg1:Gal4;UAS:NTR-mCherry larvae with CRH neurons labeled with GFP (green)

and microglia labeled with mCherry (magenta). In this image series, one CRH neuron

(arrowhead) is engulfed (I′) and then removed (I″) by a microglial cell. Images are confocal

optical sections. (J-J′) Panels showing enlarged views of the boxed area in I″, with (J) or

without (J′) the mCherry channel. The remnant of the CRH neuron can still be seen inside the

microglia (arrowheads). Scale bars are 100 μm (panel C) or 20 μm (all other images).

Fig. 6. Live tracking of CRH^{NPO} neuron cell fate. (A) Timeline of time-lapse two-photon (2P)

imaging experiment. Partial recombination of *crhb:LRLG* was induced by 4-OHT at 6-24 hpf,

and imaging was performed at 78, 84, 96, 108, and 120 hpf. Animals were briefly

anesthetized during imaging and allowed to recover in between imaging sessions. (B-B″)

Tracking of individual CRH^{NPO} neurons. Three example time frames are shown. Individual

fluorescent cells can be tracked over time and are divided into two categories: persisting

(white arrows) or lost (pink arrow). (C) Quantification of the percentage of persisting versus

lost CRH^{NPO} neurons. Sample size (cell number) as indicated for each genotype. (D) Survival

curve of individual CRH^{NPO} neurons in each genotypic group.

Fig. 7. Cortisol levels, response to exogenous glucocorticoids, and summary of findings.

(A) Cortisol profile for 5 dpf larvae. For each sample (dot), cortisol was extracted from a pool

of 30 animals. n=6 for all groups. Median, interquartile range, and corrected *p* values are

shown. (B) Quantification of *crhb* signal intensity per cell in CRH^{NPO} neurons. Vehicle: n=10

(WT), 11 (*dscaml1-/-*). Dex: n=7 (WT), 11 (*dscaml1-/-*). Mean, standard error, and corrected

p values are shown. (C) Quantification of *avp* signal intensity per cell in CRH$^{NPO-AVP}$ neurons.

Vehicle: n=8 (WT), 12 (*dscaml1-/-*). Dex: n=9 (WT), 10 (*dscaml1-/-*). Mean, standard error,

and corrected *p* values are shown. (D) Schematic summary of findings. CRH^{NPO} neurons are

formed normally early on (2 dpf) but begin to exhibit developmental abnormalities in

dscaml1 deficient animals. The developmental deficits collectively contribute to the

hyperactive stress axis and attenuated acute stress response in *dscaml1* mutants.

Supplementary Fig. 1. *dscaml1* is expressed in CRH^{NPO} neurons during larval

development. (A-B″) Double FISH with *crhb* (green) and *dscaml1* (magenta) RNA probes at

2 (A-A″) and 5 dpf (B-B″). Arrowheads mark *crhb*+ cells that co-express *dscaml1*. Scale bars

are 20 μm.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Programmed cell death in the brain is reduced in *dscaml1*

mutants. (A-B″) Immunolabeling with anti-AC3 (green) and counterstained with anti-

ERK1/2 (magenta). 1 dpf embryos are shown laterally, and 3 and 5 dpf larvae dorsally. Wild-

type (WT) animals are shown in panels A-A″ and *dscaml1-/-* animals are shown in panels B-

B″. (C) 5 dpf Z-Brain mapping of brain regions (dorsal view), showing regions with higher

AC3 labeling in wild type (green) or *dscaml1-/-* (magenta). (D) Summary graph of the top

regions where wild-type animals had more AC3 labeling than *dscaml1-/-* animals. Anterior

is to the left for all images. Scale bars are 100 μm.

Supplementary Fig. 3. The *crhb:LRLG* transgenic line labels CRH-expressing neurons.

(A-A″) Most RFP+ neurons (magenta, anti-RFP) express the CRH protein (green, anti-CRH).

(B) Percentage of RFP+ neurons that express CRH. Mean, standard error, and sample size

are shown. The scale bar is 20 μm.

Supplementary Video 1. Time-lapse movie of *crhb:LRLG* larvae. CRH neurons were labeled

with RFP (magenta) and GFP (green). Two cells (arrowheads, one green and one magenta),

the same ones as shown in Fig. 5H-H″, move away over time.

Supplementary Video 2. Time-lapse movie of *crhb:LRLG;mpeg1:Gal4;UAS:NTR-mCherry*

larvae with CRH neurons labeled with GFP (green) and microglia labeled with mCherry

(magenta). The red "X" marks the cell indicated in Fig. 5I-J′. Maximum projection of z-stack

for each time point is shown.

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934

GO molecular function (complete)	Number of genes	Over (+) /Under(-)	p value
hormone activity (GO:0005179)	8	+	4.40E-05
signaling receptor activator activity (GO:0030546)	10	+	6.19E-06
signaling receptor regulator activity (GO:0030545)	10	+	6.19E-06
receptor ligand activity (GO:0048018)	10	+	6.19E-06

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

CreER mRNA
injection

2P imaging
(released after each time point)

0 hpf   6-24   78 84   96   108   120
         4-OHT

crhb:LRLG + (RFP/GFP)

84 hpf	96 hpf	108 hpf

B   B′   B″
                   Lost   Persisting

C

n=128 n=165 n=93

Percent of total

WT   *dscaml1+/-* *dscaml1-/-*

■ Lost □ Persisting

D

Probability of Survival (%)

WT
dscaml1+/-
dscaml1-/-

78 84 90 96 102 108 114 120
Time of cell loss (hpf)

Figure 6

Figure 7

Supp. Fig. 1

Supp. Fig. 2

Supp. Fig. 3