Elevated glucocorticoid exposure during development alters behaviors and primes

transcriptional responses to stress in adult zebrafish

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Abstract

Chronic or severe stress during development increases risk of adult diseases in humans. One putative mechanism involves priming of stress-sensitive gene networks by early life Glucocorticoids (GCs) exposure, which modifies responses to stress later in life. However, brain-wide GC-primed molecular alterations are poorly understood. Here, we used an optogenetic zebrafish model to increase endogenous GCs during development and identified comprehensive transcriptomic alterations in the whole brain of GC-exposed fish across the life course. When exposed to acute stress in adulthood, developmental GC-exposed animals show highly exaggerated and pervasive brain-wide transcriptional changes which include gene sets associated with axon development, neuronal signaling, and epigenetic modulators. Strikingly, these altered gene sets showed an overrepresentation of human psychiatric disorder risk genes. We identify in developmental GC-exposed individuals: 1) altered biological processes, 2) hitherto uncharacterized novel GC-primed genes, 3) altered adult behaviors, and 4) subsets of primed genes and putative transcriptional regulators associated with changes in adult social behavior including oxytocin and *myt1la*. Thus, our study establishes a new translationally relevant zebrafish model and provides molecular targets through which developmental GC-exposure may exert its life-long impact.

Significance statement

Chronic or severe stress during development has far-reaching consequences in shaping adult phenotypes and increasing psychiatric disease susceptibility in humans. Glucocorticoids (GCs) as conserved main stress hormones of vertebrates, play a pivotal in this process by "priming" certain genes for altered response in adulthood upon stress re-exposure. However, identities of GC-primed genes are only partially known. In our study, we examined brain-wide molecular consequences of developmental GC exposure using an optogenetic zebrafish model and identified altered biological processes, behaviors, and a comprehensive list of GC-primed genes. Interestingly, the GC-primed gene sets in zebrafish showed an overrepresentation of genes linked to human psychiatric disorders. We propose that GC-primed genes identified here may shape adult responses of early life stress-exposed individuals.

Introduction

Early life stress (ELS) can lead to long-term alterations in neural plasticity, functional connectivity, epigenetic dynamics, and behavior(1-4). Reflecting these far-reaching effects, ELS is a key factor affecting healthy development and aging as well as susceptibility to

psychiatric disorders in humans(5-8). The molecular response to stress in vertebrates is

primarily mediated by a highly conserved neuroendocrine stress regulatory system called the

Hypothalamo-Pituitary-Adrenal axis (HPA-axis) in humans(9) and the Hypothalamic-

Pituitary-Interrenal axis (HPI-axis) in fish(10). Like the mammalian adrenal gland, the fish

interrenal gland is composed of two cell types: aminergic chromaffin cells and steroidogenic

interrenal cells, the latter of which produce glucocorticoids (GCs), effector stress hormones

that are highly conserved across the vertebrate kingdom(9). While GCs have pleiotropic effects

on many aspects of animal physiology, exposure to elevated GCs during brain development is

known to cause long-term alteration of behavior, physiology, and stress regulation(1). However,

how high GC exposure during development predisposes individuals to adulthood dysfunction

is poorly understood. One potential mechanism is long-lasting epigenetic changes, which

modify how animals respond to stress in adulthood. For example, altered DNA methylation at

the glucocorticoid receptor (GR) gene promoter by poor maternal care is associated with

adulthood alterations in histone acetylation, DNA methylation, transcription factor binding,

GR expression, and HPA response to stress(11). Moreover, a recent study identified

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) "primed" by ELS in specific regions of ELS-exposed

mouse brains(12). These genes showed enhanced differential expression in adulthood upon re-

exposure to stress and may be associated with behavioral changes in adulthood. Another study

identified GC-primed molecular alterations using a GC (dexamethasone)-exposed human

hippocampal progenitor cell line and identified long-lasting DNA methylation alterations(13).

Lastly, genetic differences in the immediate transcriptome response to GR activation are shown

to predict risk for depression and co-heritable psychiatric diseases(14). Together, the above

studies establish that ELS or developmental GC exposure results in distinct responses to stress

later in life by priming and maintaining longer-term alteration of specific genes which facilitate

increased psychiatric disease susceptibility. However, so far, ELS or GC-primed genes have

only been identified in specific regions of the brain including reward circuitry or cell lines, and

brain-wide GC-primed molecular alterations have not been investigated.

In this study, we utilized optogenetic manipulation of steroidogenic interrenal cells in a

zebrafish model to increase the endogenous GC level during larval and juvenile stages.

Although the mammalian counterpart of the fish interrenal, the adrenal gland, is known to

produce three types of steroid hormones, GCs, mineralocorticoids (MCs), and androgens(15),

MCs and androgens are not detectable in larval zebrafish interrenal gland(16-19). Therefore,

our manipulation is suitable to assess specific effects of elevating endogenous GCs. As a first

step in determining the effects of developmental GC exposure, the zebrafish were exposed to

high levels of GCs throughout development starting from the 2 days post fertilization (dpf)

representing an early postembryonic development stage.

Here we report brain-wide transcriptomic alteration of GC-exposed fish across the life course.

Strikingly, when subjected to acute stress in adulthood, developmental GC-exposed fish show

highly exaggerated endocrine and transcriptional responses, indicating that adult stress is

processed differently depending on GC exposure history. Remarkably, the genes primed by

GC-exposure were enriched in gene sets associated with human neuropsychiatric disorders

indicating high levels of evolutionary conservation in how early GC exposure leads to adult

dysfunction. We further identified 1) biological processes altered by developmental GC

exposure, 2) adult behaviors altered by developmental GC exposure, 3) hitherto

uncharacterized novel GC-primed genes, and 4) subsets of primed genes and putative

transcriptional regulators associated with changes in adult social behavior induced by

developmental GC exposure including oxytocin and *myt1la*.

Results

Optogenetic elevation of endogenous GC during development

We previously reported that elevation of endogenous cortisol (GC in fish) is induced in a

transgenic zebrafish line by blue light present in ambient light which activates *beggiatoa*

Photoactivated Adenylate Cyclase (bPAC), expressed specifically in steroidogenic interrenal

cells(20, 21). For the present study, we generated a new transgenic line, *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-*

tdTomato)uex300 , using the same construct in a different strain to obtain a higher cortisol level

than what was previously feasible and raised the fish under ambient light (hitherto referred to

as bPAC+) (Fig. 1a,b). Indeed, we observed a strong cortisol increase at 5 days post fertilization

(dpf) in bPAC+ compared to bPAC-, siblings of bPAC+ which do not carry the transgene (Fig.

1c). bPAC+ larvae raised under a filter, which restricts blue light penetration, did not show a

cortisol increase (Fig. 1c). Activation of the GR signaling cascade in bPAC+ was confirmed

through increase in the level of *fkbp5*, which regulates the responsiveness of the glucocorticoid

receptor (GR)(22) (Fig. 1d). Since transgenerational inheritance of stress-induced phenotypes

is reported in mammals and fish(23-25), we compared bPAC+ and bPAC- to each other, as

well as to wild type in this study. Consistent with the reported onset of endogenous *star* gene

expression(26), an increased cortisol level was observed starting around 2 dpf (Fig. 1e). The

high cortisol level was sustained during larval and juvenile stages in bPAC+ fish. However, by

adulthood (three months post-fertilization (mpf)), no significant difference was detected

between bPAC+ and wild type (Figs. 1e,f). This may be due to the decrease in blue-light

penetration following the reduced transparency of the skin as fish grows. These results indicate
that by using bPAC+ we can achieve a robust and persistent increase in endogenous cortisol
levels throughout development.
127
Alteration of adult behavior in developmental GC-exposed fish
We assessed whether bPAC+ fish exhibited behavioral changes as adults using a set of tests
aimed at assessing behaviors that can be affected in neuropsychiatric diseases[27]. We first
established that bPAC+ fish did not show significant differences in basal locomotor activity
compared to wild-type and bPAC- fish (Figs. 2a,b). We then focused on social behavior as
social processes are translatable across multiple species and are often perturbed in a range of
disorders associated with ELS[28]. To assess social behavior, we employed a new test that we
recently established, which allows the assessment of distinct phases of social behavior, namely
a drive to approach a social cue, and an ability to engage and maintain social interaction (Fig.
2c)[29]. In this test, after the fish was placed in a test tank and before the presentation of
conspecifics, wild type, bPAC- and bPAC+ all displayed preference for the blue-colored
bottom zone with no significant genotype differences (Figs. 2d,e). When the social cue was
revealed, within 10 seconds the vast majority of wild type, bPAC-, and bPAC+ entered the
social interaction zone (shaded green in Fig. 2f) adjacent to the conspecifics, within which wild
types display a stereotypical C-shaped pattern of swimming (Fig. 2h). No difference in social
approach between the groups was found using a Log-rank test (P=0.77), indicating that bPAC+
did not show deficits in recognition nor approach to social cues (Fig. 2g). In contrast, we found
significant differences between wild type and bPAC+ during the 2-minute social phase in the
time spent in the interaction zone and the number of social interactions performed (Figs. 2h,j).
bPAC- also spent less time in the interaction zone and performed fewer interactions than the
wild type (Figs. 2i,j).
Next, we tested food consummatory behavior by counting the number of floating food pellets
eaten by a fish during a 10-minute interval (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Wild-type adult fish
consumed on average 14.5 pellets while bPAC+ fish consumed on average 2.33 pellets out of
a total of 25 (Supplementary Figs. 1b,c). This was not due to the lack of recognition nor interest
in the food, as bPAC+ fish approached the food pellets and actually spent a longer time in the
zone near the pellets (feeding zone) than wild types (Supplementary Fig. 1d).
To assess cognitive processes, we tested associative learning using a Pavlovian avoidance
learning test where fish learn to associate the color green with a mild electric shock in the
testing chamber (Supplementary Figs. 1e,f). Fish were first habituated in the chamber for 30

minutes and tracked to determine the baseline preference for green or blue color. Wild-type and bPAC+ fish showed no significant differences in baseline color preference (Supplementary Fig. 1g). However, after the conditioning, wild-type fish spent on average 89.2% of their time in the blue zone, significantly more than bPAC+ fish who spent on average 62.68% of their time in the blue zone (Supplementary Fig. 1h), suggesting a deficit in associative learning in bPAC+ fish.

Lastly, we tested the behavior of bPAC+ fish in a novel environment using a novel tank test (Supplementary Figs. 1i-m). In the novel tank test, wild-type fish first dive to the bottom and demonstrate a sustained depth-preference whilst performing bouts of erratic high-speed swimming(30, 31). In contrast, bPAC+ fish showed reduced depth-preference (Supplementary Fig. 1j) and generally swam slower than wild-type controls (Supplementary Fig. 1k). Time spent performing fast-swimming bouts was also significantly decreased in bPAC+ fish (Supplementary Fig. 1l). However, there was no significant difference in freezing duration between groups (Supplementary Fig. 1m). These results suggest altered novelty perception and processing in bPAC+ fish.

Together these results show that social interaction, food consumption, associative learning, and adaptation to a novel environment are altered in bPAC+ fish compared to wild types. Our results point to modification of a broad range of goal-directed behavior performance without changes in basal locomotion parameters in bPAC+.

Whole-brain transcriptional alterations in bPAC+ fish across the life course

Whole-brain RNA sequencing was carried out using larval (6 and 13 dpf) and adult (120 dpf) brains to identify and compare transcriptomic differences in wild type, bPAC+, and bPAC-. A large number of DEGs was identified in pairwise comparisons of bPAC+ and wild-type brains at 6 dpf (up/down=602/1253), 13 dpf (up/down=777/1566), and 120 dpf (up/down=684/1078) (Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 1). At all-time points, the number of downregulated genes was greater than the number of upregulated genes, indicating that developmental GC-exposure tends to repress rather than activate genes (Fig. 3a). Further, the number of DEGs consistently downregulated from early life until adulthood (273 DEGs) was greater than the upregulated DEGs (48 DEGs) (Fig. 3a). We identified fewer DEGs when comparing bPAC- to wild type, with 571 (up/down=329/242), 1026 (up/down=372/654), and 74 (up/down=42/32) DEGs at 6, 13, and 120 dpf, respectively, and many of these DEGs overlapped with those identified in the bPAC+/wild type comparison (Supplementary Fig. 2a). To compare the overall transcriptomic landscape of all identified DEGs, we performed unsupervised hierarchical clustering, which

revealed large differences in the gene expression landscape between the bPAC+ and bPAC-

compared to wild type (Fig. 3b). At each time point, bPAC+ and bPAC- transcriptome profiles

clustered together separately from those of wild type. Next, to confirm an increase in GR

signaling, we measured the expression level of GR target genes, *nr3c1, nr3c2, fkbp5, tsc22d3,*

and *hsd11b2* at 6, 13, and 120 dpf. The expression levels of *nr3c1, fkbp5, tsc22d3,* and *hsd11b2*

were altered at multiple time points in bPAC+ (Fig. 3c). bPAC- also showed differences to

wild type, albeit generally to a lesser degree (Fig. 3c). Both the alteration of GR signaling and

similarity of DEGs identified in bPAC- and bPAC+ point to potential transgenerational effects

present in bPAC- resulting from high GC-exposure in the parental generation. Supporting this

notion, even though bPAC- was not exposed to a high level of GC, some of the DEGs at 6 dpf

in bPAC- are involved in processes that potentially regulate GC inactivation (Supplementary

Fig. 2b, Supplementary Table 2).

205   Developmental GC exposure leads to downregulation of transcripts involved in nervous

206   system development

To identify molecular consequences of developmental GC exposure, we characterized DEGs

in bPAC+ compared to the wild type. Upregulated DEGs in bPAC+ fish brains at 6 dpf were

enriched in the GO terms that include potential regulatory enzymes for GC such as cytochrome

monooxygenases, 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase or sulfotransferases[32-34] (left panel

of Fig. 3d). At 13 dpf, the top-ranked enriched biological processes for upregulated DEGs were

cell cycle, chromosome segregation, and DNA metabolic process which can cause genomic

instability by replication stress[35] (left panel of Fig. 3d). At 120 dpf, bPAC+ brains showed

upregulation of genes involved in ribonucleoprotein complex biogenesis, peptide metabolic,

translation, protein modification, RNA processing and more, suggesting effects of

developmental GC exposure on gene expression regulation and post-transcriptional

modification in adulthood (left panel of Fig. 3d, Supplementary Table 2). In contrast,

downregulated DEGs across all time points were mainly enriched in processes related to cell

adhesion and cell migration, as well as nervous system development including neuron

differentiation, cell morphogenesis, and axon development (right panel of Fig. 3d,

Supplementary Table 2). Brain-wide analyses using qPCR and immunohistochemistry

confirmed alteration of neurogenesis in larval bPAC+ fish. These results are reported in detail

in a separate report[36]. During larval stages, downregulated DEGs were also enriched in

anatomical structure formation, muscle structure development, vasculature development,

external encapsulating structure organization, and more. We also identified functions

associated with time-point-specific downregulated DEGs (Supplementary Table 2). For example, DEGs at 6 dpf were enriched in brain development while DEGs at 13 dpf were enriched in the cellular response to organic substance (right panel of Fig. 3d). At 120 dpf, we identified downregulated DEG enrichments in synaptic signaling, regulation of molecular function, and regulation of GTPase activity and more (right panel of Fig. 3d).

These results highlight long-lasting downregulation of neuronal development and signaling processes, and adult-onset alteration of transcription and translation regulation following developmental GC exposure.

bPAC+ fish show an enhanced endocrine response to acute stress in adulthood

To assess whether high GC exposure during development affects the stress response in adulthood, we subjected wild-type, bPAC+, and bPAC- fish to a looming dot stimulus (LD), which mimics an approaching predator[29] (Figs. 4a,b). Interestingly, bPAC+ adults exhibited a much greater cortisol increase after LD exposure compared to wild-type adults (Fig. 4c), indicative of a sensitized endocrine response to acute stress in bPAC+. Similarly, we found an altered transcriptional response of stress-associated genes in bPAC+ after LD exposure (Fig. 4d). For example, the expression of *nr3c2*, the gene coding for the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR), was further downregulated only in bPAC+ adults following LD exposure, although basal expression of *nr3c2* was already decreased in bPAC+ compared to wild type. In contrast, the GC-inactivating enzyme coding gene, *hsd11b2*, was significantly upregulated in the wild type after LD exposure, but upregulated to a lesser degree in bPAC+ following LD exposure. Given the higher affinity of MR to GC, MR can be a regulator of GR signaling in MR and GR co-expressing cells in basal conditions[37, 38]. Moreover, reduced transcriptional reactivity of *hsd11b2*, a key enzyme for cortisol inactivation[39, 40], in bPAC+ after LD may lead to an increased accumulation of active cellular cortisol. These results suggest that developmental GC-exposure may lead to a sensitized response to stress by decreasing MR expression at pre- and post-LD and attenuating the increase of *hsd11b2* expression.

Developmental GC exposure primes large-scale differential gene expression following acute stress in adulthood

To identify the transcriptional response to acute stress following developmental GC exposure, we carried out whole-brain RNA sequencing of wild type, bPAC+ and bPAC- that had been exposed to LD in adulthood and made three separate comparisons (Figs. 4e,f). First, we compared the wild-type transcriptome at basal (pre-LD) and after LD exposure (post-LD), to

identify the normal acute stress response in wild-type fish (referred to as DEG1). Secondly, we

compared pre-LD and post-LD in bPAC+ (referred to as DEG2), and finally the post-LD

transcriptome of wild type and bPAC+ was also compared (referred to as DEG3). DEG3

includes LD-induced DEGs (overlapping with DEG1 and DEG2) as well as those DEGs that

were already altered in bPAC+ prior to LD exposure and therefore the number of DEG3 genes

(2034 genes) was greater than that of DEG1 and DEG2 (Fig. 4g). Strikingly, bPAC+ showed

more than 20-fold greater number of DEGs in response to LD exposure (DEG2, 1617 genes)

compared to wild type (DEG1, 64 genes) (Fig. 4g). Altogether we identified 2515 genes that

appeared to be altered in the adult brain by developmental GC exposure in bPAC+, and refer

to them collectively as Adult bPAC+ DEGs.

The exaggerated transcriptional LD response in bPAC+ indicates that developmental GC

exposure in zebrafish primes enhanced alteration of gene expression in adulthood, similar to

observations in previous mammalian ELS or GC-primed gene studies(12, 13). To define GC-

primed genes, we took the entire DEG2 set and excluded 44 genes that overlapped with DEG1

as these represent normal acute stress-induced genes present also in the wild type. To this gene

set, we combined the 18 genes in DEG1 that do not overlap with DEG2 as these genes are

reflective of wild-type responses that are missing or altered in bPAC+ (Fig. 4g, Supplementary

Table 3). This set of 1591 genes is collectively referred to as GC-primed genes here and

represents those genes that are primed by developmental GC exposure to produce an altered

transcriptional response to acute stress in adulthood. Among the 1591 GC-primed genes, 1337

downregulated genes were enriched in neuron projection development, synaptic signaling,

receptor complex, synapse, metal ion transmembrane transport, and more (Fig. 4h,

Supplementary Table 4).

To compare GC-primed genes in zebrafish with those identified in humans, we carried out a

comparison with a recent study that reported 702 GC-primed DEGs linked with long-lasting

differentially methylated sites following re-exposure to GC (dexamethasone)(13). These DEGs

were identified in GC-treated mature neurons which were exposed to GC during neurogenesis

in a human hippocampal progenitor cell (hpc) line. Through the comparison between 702

DEGs (hpc_ELS-primed genes, up:368, down:334)(13) and our DEG3, which represents a

similar GC re-exposed condition, we found 163 overlapping genes (up/down=99/64)

(Supplementary Fig 3, Supplementary Table 5).

Together, these results reveal for the first time a brain-wide set of genes primed by

developmental GC exposure. Further, we found a significant overlap between subsets of GC-

primed genes identified in zebrafish with those from mammalian studies, suggesting a high

degree of evolutionary conservation of molecular mechanisms underlying reprogramming by
GC.

Adult bPAC+ DEGs are associated with neuropsychiatric disorders in humans

Since stress exposure during development is a risk factor for the development of psychiatric
disorders in humans(6-8), GC-primed genes were compared with known psychiatric disease
risk factors using the curated DisGeNET database(41). Strikingly, human homologs of GC-
primed genes exhibit a significant enrichment of known psychiatric disease-associated genes
(Supplementary Table 6). Top-ranked psychiatric disorders were schizophrenia, bipolar
disorder, and autistic disorder (Supplementary Fig. 4). Further, the entire adult bPAC+ DEG
set was strongly enriched in known psychiatric disease risk factors and in this case depressive
disorder was also included in the top four ranked diseases (Figs. 5a,b, Supplementary Table 7).
Upon LD exposure, the difference in expression of schizophrenia-associated genes in bPAC+
was greatly enhanced, as represented by the size of nodes in Fig. 5c. Further, schizophrenia-
associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs were enriched in either of two KEGG pathways: neuroactive
ligand-receptor interaction (FDR=2.01e-08), or MAPK signaling pathway (FDR=9.74e-08).
Overall, across all four disease categories, the top-ranked disease-associated Adult bPAC+
DEGs were mainly enriched in the downregulation of synaptic signaling, and multicellular
organismal process (Fig. 5d).
Adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, depressive disorders, and
autistic disorders were predominantly downregulated following LD exposure (Fig. 5e).
Interestingly, we noted that some of the disease-associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs were already
differentially expressed from the larval stage (trans-temporal, 60 genes) while some others
showed alteration in their expression only upon exposure to acute stress in adulthood (adult-
onset, 65 genes) (Fig. 5f). Other non-disease-associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs maintained
differential expression from the larval stage (540 genes) or exhibited an enhanced alteration
upon adulthood stress (adult-onset, 463 genes) (Supplementary Table 8). Trans-temporal Adult
bPAC+ DEGs were mostly enriched in axon development (FDR=1.33e-08, 31 DEGs), whilst
adult-onset Adult bPAC+ DEGs were enriched in ion transport (FDR=7.26eE-05, 44 DEGs)
(Supplementary Table 9). Interestingly, a cell-type enrichment test using the human homologs
of Adult bPAC+ DEGs showed that 24 trans-temporal Adult bPAC+ DEGs were associated
with non-microglial oligodendrocyte lineages. In contrast, the downregulated adult-onset adult
bPAC+ DEG set was associated with non-microglial neuron-enriched genes including
GABAergic receptor-associated genes (*GABRA1*, *GABRG2*), other ion channel activity genes

(*SLC12A5*, *CACNA1E*, *CACNA1I*, *UNC80*, *KCNH1*, *SCN2B*), and genes associated with synapse and neuronal cell signaling (*DNM1*, *DLGAP2*, *RPH3A*, *GPR158*) (Supplementary Table 10). More than half of those genes were GC-primed genes. These results suggest that developmental GC-exposure has cell-type-specific impacts.

Altered gene expression associated with epigenetic modifications and RNA processing in bPAC+ fish

To identify underlying mechanisms by which developmental GC exposure regulates gene expression in the brain, we analyzed the expression of epigenetic modifiers. We identified 70 Adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with epigenetic modifications (Supplementary Figs. 5a,b, Supplementary Table 11). These genes are associated with RNA modification (up/down=3/3), RNA processing including mRNA splicing (up/down=27/17), histone modification (up/down=4/18), and DNA modification (up/down=0/3). Among them, the DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) 3aa gene and the histone modification-associated genes, *chd3*, *hdac4*, *hdac5*, *kdm2ba*, *kdm4aa*, *mta3*, *nsd3*, *padi2*, *suv39h1b*, and *yeats2,* showed consistent downregulation across time-points.

We also found significant differences in the expression of 4 out of 7 *DNMTs* in the zebrafish genome including *dnmt1*, *dnmt3aa*, *dnmt3ab,* and *dnmt3bb.3* across time points and conditions in bPAC+ compared to the wild type (Supplementary Fig. 5c). In the wild type, *dnmt1* is highly expressed at 6 dpf and expression then gradually decreases over time, but in bPAC+ expression was significantly reduced at 6 dpf. Expression patterns of *dnmt3aa* and *dnmt3ab*, orthologous to human *DNMT3A,* known as one of the writers of *de novo* methylation, mainly showed differences in bPAC+ adult brains. Further, low expression of *dnmt3aa* and upregulation of *dnmt3ab* was observed upon LD exposure in adulthood in bPAC+. To determine whether alteration of the most differentially regulated epigenetic modulators (labeled with * in Supplementary Fig. 5a) lasts throughout adulthood, we analyzed their expression at 8 mpf, with and without LD exposure. Downregulated expression of those genes was continuously observed in the later adult stage (8 mpf) mainly upon acute stress in bPAC+ adults (Supplementary Fig. 5d). These results suggest that developmental GC exposure leads to pervasive, long-lasting changes to epigenetic modulators.

Social behavior-associated genes are a part of the GC-primed genes

To search for a potential link between the observed molecular changes and social behavior, we analyzed the expression patterns of 101 known social behavior-associated genes from the Gene

Ontology Annotation database (henceforth referred to as social genes). Interestingly, 54 of these social genes were differentially expressed in bPAC+ brains, where 44 were downregulated at least at a single time point (|FC|>1.5 and FDR<0.05) and only 11 were upregulated (*npas4a* was double counted because downregulated at 6 dpf and upregulated at 13 dpf, Fig. 6a, upper panel). In the basal condition, 6 dpf brains showed the largest change (up/down=2/31). The most significant downregulated social genes over time were *nlgn2b*, *mapk8ip2*, *brinp1*, *slc6a4a,* as well as oxytocin (*oxt*), a well-known social gene(42) (Fig. 6a). bPAC- showed a similar trend in the downregulated gene expression pattern following LD exposure as in bPAC+, albeit the level of difference was lower though. (Fig. 6a, bottom panel). We confirmed the downregulation of *oxt* both in larval and adult bPAC+ brains using qPCR (Fig. 6b). Downregulated *oxt* expression and the number of oxt+ cells in larval brains were also confirmed using immunohistochemistry which showed a preferential reduction of the posterior cluster of oxt+ cells which is likely to be similar to mammalian parvocellular oxt+ neurons based on their projection(43, 44) (Figs. 6c,d).

Notably, *oxt* regulators including *myt1la*, *med12*, and *thrab* were downregulated at 6 dpf and two of them (*myt1la*, *med12*) remained downregulated until adulthood (Fig. 6e). Further, transcription factor (TF) enrichment analysis of human orthologues of the downregulated social genes identified *myt1la* as one of the top regulators of 47 differentially expressed social genes, based on the ChEA3 database(45) (Fig. 6f). These results suggest that downregulation of *myt1la* in bPAC+ may result in the altered expression of social genes including *oxt*(46). Strikingly, a subset of social genes was also part of the GC-primed genes indicating that the regulation of their adult expression is highly sensitive to the history of developmental GC exposure (red label in Fig. 6a).

Beyond social genes, we identified common potential upstream regulators of GC-primed genes using the ChEA3 platform(45) (Supplementary Figs. 6a,b, Supplementary Table 12). For the upregulated GC-primed genes, immediate early genes were top-ranked TFs. Among the top-ranked TFs for downregulated GC-primed genes, *camta2* and *myt1l* may be involved in the regulatory process of 149 and 139 downregulated genes, respectively. Expression of *myt1l* was consistently downregulated in bPAC+ adults at both pre-LD and post-LD conditions (Supplementary Fig. 6c). Together, these results identify potential developmental GC-induced regulators of adult social behavior.

Discussion

This study examines the effects of chronic developmental GC exposure in shaping adult
phenotypes at both behavioral and molecular levels. We report altered goal-directed behaviors
in adults and molecular consequences of GC-exposure in both larvae and adults. Further, we
report a comprehensive identification of genes differentially expressed in adulthood following
developmental GC exposure, many of which correspond to genes associated with
neuropsychiatric disorders in humans. These findings suggest that developmental GC exposure
primes differences in acute stress-induced transcriptional activation in adulthood and may
increase the risk for neuropsychiatric disorders by affecting a network of stress-sensitive genes.
403
We identified brain-wide alterations in bPAC+ through whole-brain transcriptome analyses
using both larval and adult zebrafish. Downregulated genes in bPAC+ are mainly enriched in
cell morphogenesis, neuronal cellular signaling, and neuropsychiatric disorders-associated
gene sets. Despite the differences in species, stressor type, and brain region, the results of our
GO enrichment test and observed phenotypes are broadly similar to previous findings obtained
from ELS rodent models which report alterations in axon development, synaptic density and
plasticity, altered hippocampal mossy fibres(4, 5, 47). However, we identified a greater number
of DEGs when compared to previously reported mammalian ELS paradigms consistent with
the fact that the model described here represents a stronger and longer stress exposure.
Interestingly, we identified a large set of adult-onset upregulated DEGs which were enriched
in DNA metabolism, various RNA processing processes, and posttranslational modifications.
This may indicate that developmental GC-exposure can lead to genome instability by DNA
replication stress and altered gene expression regulation via alternative splicing, non-coding
RNAs, and posttranslational modifications in adulthood.
418
Identified Adult bPAC+ DEGs were enriched in neuropsychiatric disorders when compared to
a publicly available catalogue of disease-associated genes based on gene expression network,
eQTLs and GWAS(41). The majority of schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, depressive disorder,
and autistic disorder-associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs showed an exaggerated transcriptional
response to stress in adult bPAC+ brains. Those DEGs were overrepresented in synaptic
signaling processes including genes for GABA receptors (*gabrg2*, *gabbr1a*, *gabbr1b*, *gabbr2*,
gabra1, *gabra2a*, *gabra4*, *gabra5*, *gabrg1*, *gabrg2*), glutamate receptors and transporter
(*grm1b*, *grm3*, grm5b, *slc17a7a*), dopamine receptors and transporter (*drd1b*, *drd2a*, *drd2b*,
slc6a3), serotonin receptor (*htr1b*), cholinergic receptor (*chrm2a*), opioid receptor (*pnoca*), and
neurexins (*nlgn1*, *nlgn2b*, *nlgn4xb*). In a human study, genetic variants associated with GR-

mediated immediate transcript response were able to predict risk for psychiatric disorders including depression(14). Consistent with this, our findings suggest developmental GC exposure leads to differences in GR-induced transcriptional activation in adult brains and may mediate the risk for psychiatric disorders by altering a network of neuronal signaling-related stress-sensitive genes.

Growing evidence indicates that GC signaling can lead to modifications to DNA methylation, histone codes, and non-coding RNAs(48-50). Similarly, we identified significantly altered expression of epigenetic modulators. One of the most significantly altered epigenetic regulators in bPAC+ brains are *DNMTs* (*dnmt1* and *dnmt3aa*) at the larval stage (6 dpf), which may result in a global or local reduction in DNA methylation. DNMT1 mainly plays a role in the maintenance of DNA methylation(51) while accumulation or gain of DNA methylation is achieved by DNMT3a and -3b(52). Given such far-reaching effects of each DNMT, alteration of expression levels of dnmt genes that we observe in bPAC+ is predicted to change the global DNA methylation landscape across the life course. In our study, we identified consistently downregulated Adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with histone modifications across the life course. Temporal regulation of chromatin structure via the "histone code" in neurons has been regarded as a crucial factor for dynamic plasticity in the mature nervous system and long-lasting neuronal responses(53). Among the histone modulator genes, *hdac4* and *hdac5* were consistently downregulated in bPAC+ fish, and have been implicated in depression, fear learning, PTSD, eating disorder (Anorexia nervosa), and schizophrenia(54-59). Furthermore, many epigenetic-associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs are involved in RNA processing and RNA editing. Among them, we found a downregulation of *adarb2* and *pum2* in bPAC+ fish after exposure to LD. Chen et al. suggest that ADARB2 has a regulatory role in RNA editing by inhibiting the binding of other adenosine deaminases acting on RNA (ADARs)(60) and ADARs are associated with the development of epileptic seizures in mice and depressive phenotypes(61, 62). Further, *pum2* is involved in axon growth and branching(63). However, further investigation is required to reveal direct mechanisms between the identified Adult bPAC+ DEGs and alterations of epigenetic modulators.

As early exposure to excess GC is considered a global risk factor for the development of mental disorders, our behavioral pipeline was tailored to assess performance in key behavioral manifestations rather than disease-specific tasks. bPAC+ fish did not show defects in aspects of perception as they can recognize visual and olfactory stimuli in the form of social cues and

food pellets. However, bPAC+ fish showed deficits in fear learning using a pavlovian

conditioning paradigm that pairs electric shock with the color green. It is possible that

perceived salience of electric shock as a stressor rather than fear learning is diminished in

bPAC+. However, we consider this possibility less likely as bPAC+ can respond robustly to

acute stress presented in the form of LD. This phenotype is consistent with what has been

reported in rodent ELS models, which showed deficits in fear learning, learning impairment,

and decreased cognitive flexibility(64-66). In zebrafish, fear-conditioned avoidance learning is

a robust phenotype whereby fish exhibit freezing and erratic behavior upon re-exposure to the

conditioned stimulus (CS)(67, 68). Although one study found that chronic unpredictable stress

did not have any effect on fear conditioning in adult zebrafish(69), a different ELS protocol

found improvement of short-term memory by early life stress when testing in the unconditioned

y-maze(70). Differences in how zebrafish learn fear association are dependent on whether they

are reactive or proactive responders to stress, raising the question of how bPAC+ fish's

response fits into that spectrum(71).

bPAC+ fish exhibited a reduction in the maintenance of social interactions. Similarly in

previous zebrafish ELS studies, diminished shoaling behavior was observed following early-

life social isolation and was associated with both motivational deficiencies linked to

dopaminergic systems(72) and increased sensitivity to stimuli which was reversed by

anxiolytic treatment(73). Impairments in social behavior or social withdrawal are common

among different psychiatric disorders, including autism(74) and schizophrenia(75), and have

been described in rodent models of ELS in which deficits in social interaction in the absence

of social recognition and approach have been observed(76). Interestingly, neonatal handling

and short bouts of maternal separation in male rats resulted in reduced oxytocin neurons in the

parvocellular region of the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the hypothalamus and a reduction

in the time spent interacting and sniffing, with no differences in recognition or approach

reported(76). We observed reduced expression of oxytocin, in bPAC+ brains during the larval

stage, and this downregulation persisted until adulthood, although the extent of the difference

decreased over time. Consistent with our observation that posterior oxt+ cluster is selectively

reduced in bPAC+, a subset of parvocellular oxt neurons enriched genes identified in recent

scRNA-seq results of mice were downregulated in bPAC+ (such as *brinp1*, *baiap3*, *pacsin1a*,

syt17, and *rcan2*)(77). This may suggest that subgroups of oxt+ neurons are differentially

controlled by ELS during development and play distinct roles in ELS-induced modification of
stress responses and social behavior.

In conclusion, we show that developmental GC exposure leads to altered behaviors and brain-
wide transcriptional changes that were enriched in the processes of DNA metabolism, nervous
system development and neuronal signaling across the life course. We identified brain-wide
Adult bPAC+ DEGs that are overrepresented in gene sets associated with neuropsychiatric
disorders and are enriched in epigenetic modulators. Further, developmental GC exposure led
to exaggerated endocrine responses and primed a set of genes to exhibit altered transcriptomic
responses to subsequent challenges in adult fish. Lastly, we identified reduced expression of
oxt and its regulators such as *mytl1a* in bPAC+ which may contribute to the altered social
behavior phenotype in bPAC+. We propose that the brain-wide DEG set identified here will
be useful for guiding future studies dissecting the mechanism underlying developmental GC-
exposure and behavioral dysfunction and neuropsychiatric disease susceptibility in adulthood.
The zebrafish model presented here provides an opportunity to dissect the long-term effects of
endogenous GC elevation during development and can be leveraged in future studies to identify
critical period, intensity, and duration of developmental GC exposure that leads to adult
dysfunction.

Methods and materials
The detailed protocol for all the procedures used in this study is available as step-wise online
methods(78).

Zebrafish husbandry and maintenance
The tübingen (TU) strain was kept at 28°C on a 12:12 hour light/dark cycle and housed at a
maximum density of 5 fish/L. For experiments with adult fish, only females were used. All
animal procedures were carried out in compliance with the ethical guidelines of the national
animal welfare law and approved by relevant authorities (Landesuntersuchungsamt
Rheinland-Pfalz, Germany, Project number 23 177-07/G20-1-033 or UK Home Office PPL
number PEF291C4D).

Generation of transgenic line
Linearized pT2-2kbStAR:bPAC-2A-tdTomato(20) (ZFIN ID: ZDB-GENE-001120-3)
recombinant plasmids were injected into 1-cell stage wild-type embryos of TU strain at 10-50

ng/mL in the presence of 10-50 ng/mL Tol2 transpose mRNA and 0.05% phenol red. The

progenies of injected fish were screened for interrenal-specific tdTomato expression and the

stable transgenic line, *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-tdTomato)[uex300]* was established.

Sample collection

All samples were collected within a 2-hour window in the morning (08:30 to 10:30) without

feeding.

Whole-body Cortisol assay

The competitive cortisol assay (Cisbio HTRF® Cortisol Kit, 62CRTPEG) was performed

following the manufacturer's protocol. ELISA signal was detected by CLARIO star plate

reader (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany).

Behavior tests

Social behavior tests and acute stressor delivery using looming dot (LD) presentation were

carried out as described in Cook *et al.*(29). Basal locomotion, food consumption and fear

conditioning assay were performed following the protocol in online methods(78). For all

behavioral tests, female adult zebrafish (6-9 months old) were moved into a designated

behavior experimental room one week prior to testing and housed in groups of 10 fish in 3L

tanks. Experiments were carried out between 09:00 and 14:00 and fish were not fed in the

morning of testing. Fish were not used in any repeat experiments. The trials were recorded at

30 FPS. A camera (acA1300-60gm, Basler ace) was positioned at the front and/or top side of

the tank. The test fish was tracked using Ethovision (EthoVision XT 13, Noldus Information

Technology).

RNA preparation and quantification

Each sample for the larval stage (6 and 13 dpf) contained 25-30 larval whole brains whilst for

the adult stage (120 dpf) three brains constituted one sample. Transcripts were quantified

using real-time qPCR and next-generation mRNA sequencing. Primer information for qPCR

is described in Supplementary Table 13. A total of 60 samples was sequenced, consisting of 5

biological replicates at four different time points (6, 13, 120 dpf, and acute-stressed at 120

dpf) for each genotype (wild type, bPAC+ and bPAC-).

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry was performed as described with minor modifications(79). Custom-
made primary rabbit anti-oxt antibodies (1:200 dilution)(79) and Alexa 488 anti-rabbit
antibodies (A-11008, Invitrogen, USA) as secondary antibodies (1:1000 dilution) were used
for the visualization of oxytocinergic neurons.
567
568 **Imaging and analysis**
569 Confocal stacks through the larval head were recorded using a Zeiss LSM 880 with Airyscan
570 FAST with PApo 10X/0.45 – dry objective with Airyscan mode. Stacks were analyzed using
571 ImageJ (FIJI, 1.53c)(80). Corrected Total Cell Fluorescence (CTCF) was calculated as
572 integrated density − (Area of cells × Mean fluorescence of background reading).
573
574 **Statistics**
575 Statistical analyses were performed using R and Prism 9 (Graphpad Software Inc, San Diego,
576 CA, USA). A detailed description of the statistical analyses is provided in online methods(78)
577
578 **Data availability**
579 All sequenced reads for RNA-seq were deposited in European Nucleotide Archive (ENA,
580 PRJEB53713).
581
582 **Code availability**
583 The detailed data processing and R scripts for bioinformatic analysis are available at the
584 GitHub repository (https://github.com/minkechoi/tx_star-bPAC_brain).
585

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Author contributions

SR conceived the project. MC and SR designed the project. MC acquired and analyzed transcriptomic data. AC acquired and analyzed behavior data. SK, HE, AT, and SK contributed to reagent generation or data acquisition. MC, SR, and AC drafted the article. MC, HE, and SR critically revised the manuscript. All authors approved the submission.

Competing interests

SR holds a patent, European patent number 2928288 and US patent number 10,080,355: "A novel inducible model of stress.". The remaining authors declare no known competing interests.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Ambient light-exposed bPAC+ fish show elevation of cortisol during
development. (a) An image of *Tg(star:bPAC-2A-tdTomato)*[+/-] larva at 5 dpf. The transgene is
expressed solely in the interrenal gland (arrow). The schematic represents the intracellular
events in the steroidogenic interrenal cells of transgenic fish (dotted box). Endogenous GC
production is stimulated by ACTH signaling. Similarly, bPAC mimics ACTH signaling by
increasing cAMP when exposed to blue light. (b) Fish were raised under ambient aquarium
lighting conditions with white fluorescent light (12-hour light and 12-hour dark). Elevation of
basal GC level was observed at larval and juvenile stages. (c) White ambient light (blue+)
elevates the basal GC level of 6 dpf bPAC+ larvae. ***=$P<0.001$, two-tailed unpaired t-test.
However, there was no significant difference in GC level when fish were raised under filter
restricting blue light spectrum within the ambient light (blue-). (d) One of the well-known GR
signaling markers, *fkbp5*, was significantly upregulated in bPAC+ larvae ($P = 0.016$) compared
to wild-type control, two-tailed unpaired t-test. * = $P<0.05$. Basal GC level at larval stages (e)
and from juvenile to adult (f). Abbreviations: GC, glucocorticoid; ACTH, Adrenocorticotropic
Hormone; AC, adenylyl cyclase; cAMP, Cyclic adenosine monophosphate
624
Figure 2. Reduced social interaction in adult bPAC+ fish. No significant differences were
observed in average speed (a) nor turn frequency (b) among wild type, bPAC+ and bPAC-. (c)
Schematic figures for the social approach and maintenance test. During the pre-social phase,
no significant difference in color preference (d) nor depth (e) was observed. (f) Representative
traces of wild-type fish during the social phase. The green shade indicates the interaction zone.
(g) During the social phase, no significant difference in approach rate to conspecific fish
between groups. Log-rank test (Mantel-Cox, $P = 0.77$). (h) Representative traces of wild-type
and bPAC+ fish during the social phase. bPAC+ and bPAC- showed a significantly reduced
duration (i) and frequency of social interactions (j) compared to the wild type. Dunnett's
multiple comparisons followed one-way ANOVA, a) $F(2, 27)=0.2248$, $P=0.80$; b) $F(2,$
$27)=2.332$, $P=0.12$; d) $F(2, 98)=0.6224$, $P=0.54$; e) $F(2, 98)=1.801$, $P=0.1706$; i) $F(2,$
$98)=6.273$, $P=0.0027$; j) $F(2, 98)=10.93$, $P<0.0001$.
637
Figure 3. Developmental GC exposure leads to differential gene expressions across the
life course (a) Venn Diagram for up- and down-regulated DEGs between wild type and bPAC+;
criteria for DEG identification: |FC|>2 and FDR <0.01. A lower FC threshold, |FC|>1.5, was
applied for samples at 120 dpf. (b) Average read counts of genes by genotype and time points
are represented by z-score in the heat map. Bars on the right side indicate the paternity of fish.
(c) Expression profiles of GC-associated genes. *=$P<0.05$, **=$P<0.01$, ***=$P<0.001$,
****=$P<0.0001$. Tukey's multiple comparisons test followed two-way repeated measures
ANOVA. (d) Top enriched biological processes for up- and down-regulated DEGs in bPAC+.
d6: 6 dpf, d13: 13 dpf, d120: 120 dpf, wt: wild type, FC: fold change, GC: glucocorticoid, *adj.p*:
adjusted *P*-value, ratio: identified DEGs/the number of genes included in the term. Complete
DEG-enriched GO terms are described in Supplementary Table 1.
649
Figure 4. Developmental GC exposure primes differential gene expression following acute
stress in bPAC+ adults. (a) Schematic of the acute stress paradigm. Looming dots (LD) mimic
approaching predators from above (Cook et al. 2023). (b) Schematic for acute-stressed and
control sample collection (arrows). Acute stress is induced by looming dot (LD)-exposure in
adults (120 dpf). post-LD samples were collected after 15 min of LD exposure. Yellow striped
box: bPAC+ activation; yellow stars: LD. (c) bPAC+ showed significantly higher GC levels in
post-LD conditions, compared with basal. Tukey's multiple comparisons followed one-way
ANOVA; $F(5, 54)=19.31$, $P<0.0001$. (d) Expression profiles of GC-induced genes following

LD exposure. *= *P* < 0.05, ** = *P* < 0.01, *** = *P* < 0.001 from multiple two-tailed unpaired
t-tests. Error bars indicate mean+SEM. (e) Schematic for three comparisons to identify
transcriptional changes in response to LD exposure in adults. DEGs were determined by FC
and FDR. |FC|>1.5 and FDR<0.01 for DEG1 and 2; |FC|>2 and FDR<0.01 for DEG3. (f) z-
score for mean CPM of Adult bPAC+ DEGs is visualized in a heatmap. (g) Venn diagram for
Adult bPAC+ DEGs. The list of DEGs is described in Supplementary Table 2. The Adult
bPAC+ DEGs = DEG1 + DEG2 + DEG3 - (DEG1 ∩ DEG2). GC-primed genes = DEG1 +
DEG2 - (DEG1 ∩ DEG2). The red asterisk represents the overlap (2 genes) between DEG1
and DEG3. (h) The top 3 GO terms enriched in downregulated GC-primed genes. The
enrichment score = -log$_{10}$(adjusted *P*-value). The complete results of the functional enrichment
test are described in Supplementary Table 3.

Figure 5. Adult bPAC+ DEGs are enriched in gene sets associated with human
neuropsychiatric disorders. (a) Result of human disorders enrichment test based on the
DisGeNET database. The ratio represents overlapping/input genes. Top ranked disorders are
schizophrenia (FDR= 1.61e-04, ratio (Adult bPAC+ DEGs/disease genes)=170/883), bipolar
disorder (FDR= 7.48e-04, ratio=100/477), depressive disorder (FDR= 2.89e-03, ratio=63/289),
mental depression (FDR= 2.87e-03, ratio=59/254) and autistic disorder (FDR= 1.61e-04,
ratio=65/261). (b) Venn diagram for Adult bPAC+ DEGs that are associated with the top five
human psychiatric disorders in panel a. Depressive disorder and Mental Depression-associated
genes (as shown in a), are combined and referred to as depressive disorders in b and d. (c)
STRING protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks of schizophrenia-associated Adult bPAC+
DEGs genes in pre- and post-LD conditions indicate LD-sensitive gene expression. The size
and color of the node represent comparative fold change, and gene expression; up (orange) or
downregulation (blue), respectively. DEGs enriched in KEGG pathways Neuroactive ligand-
receptor interaction (FDR = 2.01e-08) are labeled in yellow whilst those enriched in MAPK
signaling pathway (FDR=9.74e-08) are labeled in green. (d) Top GO terms enriched in the top-
ranked disease-associated Adult bPAC+ DEGs. Adult bPAC+ DEGs that are associated with
schizophrenia, depression, autism, and bipolar disorder are mainly enriched in the
downregulated functions in synaptic signaling, and multicellular organismal process. The
enrichment score = -log10(adjusted P-value). (e) The heatmap depicts the log$_2$FC of GC-altered
genes associated with the top five human psychiatric disorders in panel a (Depressive disorder
and mental depression are merged). The numbers in the brackets represent the number of Adult
bPAC+ DEGs. 6, 13, and 120 denote dpf, and LD denotes post-LD at 120 dpf. (f) Subsets of
Adult bPAC+ DEGs associated with the top five diseases in a show consistent differential
expression across the life course (significant at all time points, labeled trans-temporal) or only
in adulthood (significant only in adulthood, labeled adult-onset). Genes that exhibited
expression patterns outside of these conditions were excluded.

Figure 6. Social behavior-associated genes tend to be downregulated in bPAC+ fish across
the life course. (a) The expression of social behavior-associated genes, log2FC from two
comparisons, bPAC+ vs. wild type, and bPAC- vs. wild type are represented by a heatmap.
Asterix in each cell denotes that FDR < 0.05. Red labels indicate GC-primed genes. (b)
Decreased *oxt* expression in bPAC+ was confirmed both in larval and adult brains by real-time
qPCR. * = *P*<0.05, multiple unpaired t-tests. Error bar indicates mean±SEM. (c) Expression of
oxt was decreased especially in the medial posterior cluster of oxt+ cells (yellow arrows) in the
neurosecretory preoptic area (NPO) of 5 dpf bPAC+ larvae. a: anterior, p: posterior. scale bar
represents 25μm. (d) the signal intensity of *oxt* in NPO was significantly reduced in bPAC+
NPO. (e) Log2FC of known *oxt* regulatory elements. *= FDR < 0.05. (f) Top enriched
transcription factors for differentially expressed social behavior-associated genes. Only

differentially expressed TFs at any time point in this study were represented. Light green
represents TFs that are significantly differentially expressed in bPAC+.
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922

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

a DisGeNET enrichment

Schizophrenia
Bipolar Disorder
Autistic Disorder
Depressive disorder
Mental Depression
Seizures
Cocaine Dependence
Cocaine Abuse
Cocaine-Related Disorders

Ratio

size
40
80
120
160

FDR
0.002
0.004
0.006
0.008

b

Autistic 39
depressive 18
schizo. 100
bipolar 36
10

c

pre-LD

post-LD

d

downregulated

GO:BP
trans-synaptic signaling
multicellular organismal process
monoatomic ion transmembrane transport

regulation of circadian rhythm

GO:MF
GABA receptor activity
monoatomic ion transmembrane transporter activity
postsynaptic neurotransmitter receptor activity

DNA-binding transcription factor activity, RNA polymerase II-specific

GO:CC
synapse
receptor complex

upregulated

Enrichment score

e

Schizophrenia (174)
6 13 120 LD

Bipolar disorder (106)
6 13 120 LD

Depressive disorders (68)
6 13 120 LD

Autistic disorder (69)
6 13 120 LD

f

-3 0 3

6 13 120 LD

trans-temporal(60)   *adult-onset(65)*

Figure 5

a

log2FC
-3 0 3

* = FDR <0.05

b

c

oxt+ cells
in NPO

a ↔ p

a ↔ p

wt   bPAC+

d

P = 0.0030

e

log2FC
-3 0 3

f

Figure 6