PERK inhibition in zebrafish mimics human Wolcott-Rallison syndrome phenotypes

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Abstract (100 – 250 words)

Wolcott-Rallison Syndrome (WRS) is the most common cause of permanent neonatal diabetes mellitus among consanguineous families. The diabetes associated with WRS is non-autoimmune, insulin-requiring and associated with skeletal dysplasia and growth retardation. The therapeutic options for WRS patients rely on permanent insulin pumping or on invasive transplants of liver and pancreas. WRS has a well identified genetic cause: loss-of-function mutations in the gene coding for an endoplasmic reticulum kinase named PERK (protein kinase R-like ER kinase). Currently, WRS research is facilitated by cellular and rodent models with PERK ablation. While these models have unique strengths, cellular models incompletely replicate the organ/system-level complexity of WRS, and rodents have limited scalability for efficiently screening potential therapeutics. To address these challenges, we developed a new in vivo model of WRS by pharmacologically inhibiting PERK in zebrafish. This small vertebrate displays high fecundity, rapid development of organ systems and is amenable to highly efficient in vivo drug testing. PERK inhibition in zebrafish produced typical WRS phenotypes such as glucose dysregulation, skeletal defects, and impaired development. PERK inhibition in zebrafish also produced broad-spectrum WRS phenotypes such as impaired neuromuscular function, compromised cardiac function and muscular integrity. These results show that zebrafish holds potential as a versatile model to study WRS mechanisms and contribute to the identification of promising therapeutic options for WRS.

48 **Keywords:** rare disease; diabetes, embryonic development; animal disease model; drug

49 testing; transgenic

1. Introduction

Wolcott-Rallison Syndrome (WRS) is a rare (ORPHA:1667) autosomal recessive disorder caused by loss-of-function mutations in the *EIF2AK3* gene encoding eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2α (eIF2α) kinase 3, also called protein kinase RNA-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase (PERK) (2000.Delepine.NatGen; 2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). PERK is an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane kinase whose main function is to respond to alterations in ER protein homeostasis (proteostasis) by activating the integrated stress response (ISR). ISR either recovers proteostasis or induces the expression of pro-apoptotic factors, therefore determining cell fate (2022.Almeida.BiolRev).

PERK is ubiquitously expressed throughout the body, being particularly abundant in bones and pancreas. This relative abundance of PERK likely explains WRS symptomatology, whose hallmarks include skeletal dysplasia and neonatal diabetes mellitus (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis)., Despite being considered a rare disease (prevalence < 1/1 000 000 cases, ORPHANET data), WRS is the most common cause of permanent neonatal diabetes mellitus in consanguineous families (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). Broad-spectrum WRS symptoms include motor neuropathy, intellectual deficit, early neurodegeneration and cardiac malformations. The widespread distribution of PERK and the existence of several loss-of-function mutations that prematurely terminate PERK translation, totally or partially abolishing it's kinase activity contribute to the presence of brad spectrum WRS symptoms (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis, 2004.Senée.Diabetes, 2015.Bruch.JNeuropatholExpNeurol).

The prognosis of WRS patients is usually poor and death occurs at a young age (< 35 years old) from multiple organ failure with predominant liver and renal dysfunction, hepatic failure and also encephalopathy (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). Existing therapies include blood glucose control with insulin pumping and transplant of liver pancreas and kidney (2015.Tzakis.AmJTransplant). The scarcity of non-invasive and more effective therapeutic

options for WRS patients highlights the need for further therapeutic investigation where efficient WRS models are vital. The currently available WRS models are mice with loss-of-function mutations of PERK that exhibit the WRS hallmarks – neonatal diabetes and skeletal dysplasia (2001.Harding.MolCell; 2002.Zhang.MolCellBiol) – and also the broad-spectrum phenotypes – cardiac, muscle and cognitive abnormalities (2021.Shimizu.SciRep, 2019.Gallot.FASEBJ, 2012.Trinh.CellRep). However, these rodent-based WRS models are unsuitable for exploratory studies of new therapeutics in larger scale. Further, despite the phylogenetic proximity to humans, the development of key structures for WRS pathophysiology like the pancreas occurs differently in humans and in rodents – insulin secreting β cells are the first cells to develop in zebrafish and humans, while in mouse they develop only after glucagon-secreting α cells (2017.Prince.CurTopDevBiol).

Zebrafish, have become increasingly interesting disease models in the scientific community because they present several advantages: high fecundity, external fertilization, and rapid (48-72h) complete organ formation. These advantages make zebrafish suitable for rapid, large-scale drug testing. Furthermore, zebrafish have a fully sequenced genome, are easy to manipulate genetically and present an elevated percentage of identity with humans, rendering them highly advantageous in studies of genetic diseases (2019.Teame.AnimFront; 2021.Choi.ExpMolMed), such as WRS.

In this article, we used a previously known PERK inhibitor, GSK2606414, in zebrafish embryos to test the feasibility of creating a zebrafish model of WRS that mimics both the hallmarks and broad-spectrum phenotypes.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Drugs, solvents and solutions

GSK2606414 (Merck Millipore, 516535) was used to inhibit PERK (2012.Stockwell.PLoSOne). Stock drug solutions were prepared in anhydrous DMSO (Sigma, 276855). Tubocurarine hydrochloride pentahydrate (dTC, Sigma, t2379) solution was prepared in MilliQ water and used as a muscle relaxant. Prior to assays, stocks were diluted in embryo (E3) medium: 5 mM NaCl (Sigma, S9888), 0.17 mM KCl (Chem-Lab, cl00.1133.1000), 0.33 mM CaCl2•2H2O (Panreac, 131232.1211), 0.33 mM MgCl2•6H2O (Sigma, TA523733) and 0.0001% methylene blue (Sigma, M9140). Tricaine methanesulfonate (Sigma, E10521) was used as anesthetic at 0.02%. DMSO was always kept at safe concentrations (2021.Hoyberghs.FrontToxicol) up to 0.15%.

2.2 Zebrafish maintenance and husbandry

Adult AB strain zebrafish were supplied by the Interdisciplinary Centre of Marine and Environmental Research (CIIMAR, Portugal) and maintained in 45L tanks at $28 \pm 1°C$ on a 14 h:10 h light:dark cycle and handled for egg production as we previously detailed (2022.Silva.Chemosphere, 2019.Pinho.FRBM). Briefly, adults (1:1, male:female) were placed in a 0.7 L breeding tank with circulating water in contact with the main tank on the day before egg collection. Ninety minutes after starting the light period, eggs were collected and washed. This time point was recorded as 0 h post fertilization (hpf).

2.3 Embryo maintenance and drug treatments

Embryos were randomly distributed in 24-well plates (5 embryos/well; 0.5 mL E3/well) and

kept at $28 \pm 1°C$ on a 14 h:10 h light: dark cycle throughout the assay. Embryos were

continuously exposed to GSK2606414 or solvent (DMSO) from 4 to 76 hpf and solutions were

renewed daily (2022.Silva.Chemosphere,). All drug concentrations were assayed in duplicate

wells (5 + 5 eggs), in at least three independent experiments ($\geq$ 30 eggs) (2013.Pinho.BJP).

dTC was incubated for 10 minutes before assays endpoint in 5 embryos, in at least three

independent experiments ($\geq$ 15 embryos).

2.4 Brightfield microscopy

For brightfield microscopy, a stereomicroscope (Stemi DV4, Zeiss, Göttinger, Germany) or an

inverted microscope (Eclipse TE300, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) were used. The inverted

microscope was attached to a motorized stage (ProScan, Prior) and a CCD camera (ORCA-

ER, Hamamatsu), all controlled by the open-source software Micro-Manager (v. 2.0;

https://micro-manager.org). This Nikon-Prior-Hamamatsu (NPH) imaging system was used to

perform the following brightfield imaging protocols:

2.4.1 Monitoring zebrafish development

At regular time points (28, 52 and 76 hpf) embryos were scored as normal, abnormal

or dead; hatched (ruptured chorion and free tail movement) or unhatched. Embryos

were classified as dead if lacking one of the following: somite formation, tail

detachment or heartbeat, as according to OECD guideline 236 (OECD, 2013). Normal

development was as previously described (1995.Kimmel.DevDyn). Abnormalities

were scored as cardiac and skeletal (further into scoliosis, lordosis or kyphosis).

2.4.2 Morphometric analysis

Brightfield images were used for morphometric analysis of head-tail angle and body length of zebrafish. Body length was measured from the tip of the zebrafish head (between the eyes) to the end of the tail (2019.Martinez.STotEn). Trunk-tail angle was measured with the angle tool of ImageJ as the angle formed by notochord rostral vs caudal do the anus (Figure 3 B). Both parameters (length and angle) were quantified by a researcher blinded to experimental conditions.

2.4.3 Heartbeat and atrio-ventricular coordination

Heart rates were counted by microscopic visualization of at least two larvae per well (4 larvae per condition, per experiment), during 20 s, at 72-80 hpf (2013.Pinho.BJP). Recordings of atrio-ventricular coordination were obtained by imaging live larvae for 90 seconds at 12 frames per second. After the experiments, the atrium and ventricle were visually identified, and the recordings were obtained with "Plot Z-axis profile" on ImageJ.

2.4.4 Tail coilings

Zebrafish spontaneous activity was assessed by monitoring tail coiling movements at 28 hpf in glass bottom 96-well plates. Each embryo was imaged for 3 minutes at a frequency of 4.5 frames per second and 2x2 or 4x4 binning. After imaging, tail coilings were counted by researchers blinded to experimental conditions (2024.Oliveira.FreeRadBiolMed).

2.4.5 Birefringence analysis

For muscle birefringence analysis, 76 hpf larvae were anesthetized immobilized on a glass surface, oriented laterally and illuminated with linearly polarized light (Screen-Tech, ST-38). An orthogonal polarization filter was placed after the samples to block directly transmitted light. Thus, only light whose polarization angle is affected by the sample is collected by the NPH microscope. Pixel intensity in the trunk region was

measured by selecting the region of interest with ImageJ software by a researcher
blinded to experimental conditions.

2.5 Touch-evoked escape response (TEER)

At 76 hpf, at least two embryos per well (6 embryos per condition) were submitted to 10

alternated touches to the head and to the tail with a 10 µL pipette tip with a recovery time of

30 seconds (2016.Pinho.PharmRes). Data is presented as response rates in percentage of total

touches.

2.6 Fluorescent labelling and microscopy of zebrafish

At 73 hpf, larvae were incubated with a fluorescent glucose analogue - 600 µM 2-NBDglucose

(2-(7-Nitro-2,1,3-benzoxadiazol-4-yl)-D-glucosamine) (200 µL, Tebu-Bio, 10-1459)

(2013.Lee.ACSChemBiol; 2020.Wang.OrgBiomolChem); and a positive control for

neuromast labelling - Mitotracker Deep Red (1 µM, Invitrogen, M22426) for 3 hours in 96 well

plates (4 larvae/well) (2013.Lee.ACSChemBiol; 2020.Wang.OrgBiomolChem). At 76 hpf,

each larva was washed twice with E3 solution, anesthetized with 0.02% tricaine

methanesulfonate (Sigma, E10521) and imaged in a glass-bottom chamber. For imaging, we

used the NPH microscope with a monochromator (Polychrome II, Photonics). 2-NBDglucose

was excited at 475 nm and Mitotracker Deep Red at 650 nm for 1 second. Emissions were

collected using band pass filters (Chroma 69008 – ET – ECFP/EYFP/mCherry) with a 10 ×

objective. Images of the entire fish were stitched with the GNU image manipulation program

(The GIMP Development Team, 2019). Retrieved from https://www.gimp.org). The number

of labelled anterior and posterior neuromasts

(2017_Stengel_CompBiochemPhysiolCToxicolPharmacol) was counted and plotted by

researchers blinded to experimental conditions.

2.7 Imaging of fluorescent transgenic zebrafish

Double transgenic zebrafish larvae expressing GFP in insulin-producing cells and mCherry in

elastase producing-cells, Tg(*ins:GFP, ela:mCherry*), or expressing GFP in insulin-producing

cells and mCherry in somatostatin producing-cells, Tg(*ins:GFP, sst:mCherry*)

(2020.Eufrasio.Diabetes), were obtained from José Bessa's laboratory at the Institute for

Research and Innovation in Health (i3s, Porto, Portugal). Larvae were kept in 24-well plates (5

larvae/plate) with E3 media until the start of drug treatments (DMSO 0.15%, GSK2606414 3–

10 µM). We used two pharmacological approaches: 1) GSK2606414 exposure from 4 hpf

(before the principal islet of Langerhans is formed within the endocrine pancreas) to 28, 76 or

148 hpf; 2) GSK2606414 exposure from 76 hpf (when the principal islet is already formed) to

148 hpf (2009.Tiso.MolCelEndocrinol). Drug solutions were renewed daily. At the final time

point (28, 76 or 148 hpf) larvae were anesthetized by rapid cooling on ice and fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde overnight. Larvae were imaged with the NPH inverted microscope. GFP

was excited at 488 nm and mCherry was excited at 575 nm. Emissions were collected using

band pass filters (Chroma 59022 – EGFP/mCherry) with a 20 × objective. The area of GFP- or

mCherry-labelled pancreas in each image was assessed with ImageJ software by a researcher

blinded to the treatment conditions.

2.8 Western Blot

24 to 27 larvae per condition were rinsed with ice-cold system water twice before being placed

in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris (NZYTech, MB01601), 150 mM NaCl (Merck, S9888), 1 mM

EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich, E6758), 1% IGEPAL CA-630 (Sigma-Aldrich, I3021), 1% sodium

deoxycholate (Sigma-Aldrich, D6750), 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, L3771))

supplemented with a protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific, 78440).

After 3 freeze-thaw cycles, samples were homogenized with Precellys Evolution (6800 rpm, 5

$\times$ 42 s with 37 s interval) and centrifuged at 12,000 $\times$ g (10 min, 4 °C). Supernatant protein

concentrations were quantified by the Bradford method. Protein extracts supplemented with

Bolt LDS sample buffer (Invitrogen, B0007) and Bolt sample reducing agent (Invitrogen,

B0009) were denatured at 95 ºC for 5 min. 30 to 40 µg of protein were loaded into 4–15%

Mini-PROTEAN® TGX™ Precast Protein Gels (Biorad, 4561084), electrophoresed between

125 and 200 V for 30 min and wet-transferred to PVDF membranes (Millipore, IPVH00010)

overnight (30 V, 4ºC). Membranes were then blocked (1 h, room temperature or overnight at

4ºC) with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA, NZYTech, MB04602) in PBS with 0.05% Tween

20 (PBST) and then incubated with primary antibodies: anti-ATF4 (1:500, overnight,

Proteintech Cat# 10835-1-AP, RRID: AB_2058600); anti-CHOP (1:1000, overnight,

Proteintech Cat# 15204-1-AP, RRID:AB_2292610); anti-eIF2α (1:1000, overnight, Thermo

Fisher Scientific Cat# AHO0802, RRID: AB_2536316); anti-p-eIF2α (1:500, overnight,

Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# MA5-15133, RRID:AB_10983400). After washing with PBST

for 15 min, membranes were incubated with respective horseradish peroxidase-conjugated

secondary antibodies for 1 h: anti-mouse (1:4000, 1 h, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# G-21040,

RRID: AB_2536527); anti-rabbit (1:4000, 1 h, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# G-21234,

RRID:AB_2536530). Detection was performed using a Chemiluminescent kit (Novex ECL,

Invitrogen, WP20005) and a ChemiDoc MP Imaging system (Bio-Rad). Membrane Coomassie

(Sigma-Aldrich, 27816) staining was used for loading control. Densitometric analyses were

performed with Image J (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/). In each independent experiment, samples

from control and 10 µM GSK- treated larvae were run in the same gel.

 2.8 Bioinformatic analysis

 2.8.1 Comparison of PERK orthologues

 Protein sequence data from zebrafish (*Danio rerio*, XP_005156642.2), human (*Homo*

 sapiens, AAI26357.1), mouse (*Mus musculus*, AAH54809.1), fruit fly (*Drosophila*

 melanogaster, AAF61200.1), and nematode (*Caenorhabditis elegans*, AAF61201.1)

 were obtained from NCBI Protein (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein/). The amino

 acid sequence from the total human PERK protein and from its catalytic domain were

 compared with its orthologue proteins from zebrafish, mouse, fruit fly, and nematode,

 using the Protein BLAST tool (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). Additionally,

 we determined the identity of the vital amino acids for GSK2606414 binding to the

 catalytic site of PERK, by aligning the protein sequence from zebrafish and human.

 2.8.2 Zebrafish PERK 3D structure and molecular docking

 The predicted three-dimensional protein structures of zebrafish PERK (UniProt:

 B8JI14) and human PERK (UniProt: Q9NZJ5) were obtained from AlphaFold Protein

 Structure Database (2021.Jumper.Nature; 2022.Varadi.NucleicAcidsRes). To visualize

 and align the three-dimensional structures of human PERK (PDB: 4g31), zebrafish

 PERK (UniProt: B8JI14), and GSK2606414 (2021.Pettersen.ProteinSci) we used

 UCSF ChimeraX developed by the Resource for Biocomputing, Visualization, and

 Informatics at the University of California, San Francisco, with support from National

 Institutes of Health R01-GM129325 and the Office of Cyber Infrastructure and

 Computational Biology, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases

 (2020_Pettersen_ProtSci). The human GSK2606414-bound PERK structure (PDB:

 4g31) was used as a starting model and superimposition with zebrafish PERK was done

 in UCSF ChimeraX, using the Matchmaker tool. To assess the structural similarity

between zebrafish and human PERK and infer about GSK2606414 binding efficiency,

we calculated the root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) in ChimeraX software for the

total protein and for the catalytic site of zebrafish PERK, and performed a

Ramachandran plot analysis in SWISS-MODEL online server for the total protein of

zebrafish PERK (2018.Waterhouse.NucleicAcidsRes).

2.9 Statistical Analysis

Data are shown as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of the n specified in figure legends,

except for zebrafish survival data that are shown as Kaplan-Meier representations and result

from 5 independent breedings. The Mantel-Cox (Log-rank) test was used to assess differences

in larval survival curves upon different treatments. Student's t-test was used to evaluate the

effect of GSK2606414 treatment vs. control in the quantification of protein levels (western

blot), the area of different pancreatic structures and 2-NBDGlucose labelled neuromasts. One-

Way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test was used to assess effects between drug

concentrations. Two-way ANOVA was used to test for interactions and main effects of the

factors: treatment (GSK2606414 concentrations) vs. time of treatment (28, 52, 76 hpf). When

two-factor interactions were significant, multiple comparisons among groups were performed

with Sidak's post-hoc test. For all analyses, a P value under 0.05 was taken as statistically

significant. Data analyses were performed with Prism 6.0 (GraphPad).

3. Results

3.1 The PERK-GSK2606414 binding site is conserved in humans and zebrafish

To model WRS in zebrafish larvae we wanted to determine if zebrafish and human PERK exhibit a high degree of similarity and if an inhibitor known to have *in vivo* activity in mice would bind to zebrafish PERK. We chose GSK2606414 (hereafter designated as GSK; not to be confused with glycogen synthase kinase) to inhibit PERK, for three reasons: 1) it is one of the most commonly PERK inhibitor used in scientific research (2022.Almeida.BiolRev); 2) to this date it is the only inhibitor with documented penetration of the blood-brain barrier in animals (2013.Moreno.SciTranslMed); and 3) previous molecular modelling studies showed the structure of GSK-bound PERK and revealed which amino acids in human PERK's catalytic domain are vital for GSK binding (2012.Axten.JMedChem, 2020.Chintha.RSCAdvances). To predict the effectiveness of using GSK in zebrafish, we used bioinformatic tools that quantified the sequence identity of PERKs aminoacidic structure between humans and zebrafish.

Using the bioinformatic alignment tool BLASTP, we quantified the identity between the PERK aminoacidic sequence in humans and nematodes (*Caenorhabditis elegans*), fruit-flies (*Drosophila melanogaster*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and mouse (*Mus musculus)* (Figure 1 A). As expected, due to phylogenetic proximity, the percentage of identity between human and zebrafish PERK is lower than between human and mouse but higher than between human and fruit-fly or nematodes (Fig 1 A). We estimated that the overall identity in aminoacidic sequence between zebrafish and human PERK is around 58% (Figure 1 A). Regarding the catalytic site of PERK, which is vital for GSK binding (2012.Axten.JMedChem), the identity between human and zebrafish is around 51% (Figure 1 A). We focused the analysis to compare specifically the 12 vital amino acids for GSK binding to PERK's catalytic site

(2012.Axten.JMedChem, 2020.Chintha.RSCAdvances) and found that only human

hydrophobic valine 651 is substituted for another hydrophobic amino acid, the isoleucine 651,

in the zebrafish amino acid sequence (Figure 1 B, Valine-651 in yellow; Isoleucine-671 in red).

Knowing these similarities in the aminoacidic content between human and zebrafish

PERK, we next compared protein tertiary structure . To do so, we visualized the binding of

GSK (Figure 1 C - purple) to zebrafish (Figure 1 C – darker blue) and human (Figure 1 C –

lighter blue) PERK with ChimeraX software, which showed high similarity in structure. Using

the same software, we obtained the root-mean-square deviation (RMSD), a measure of the

average distance between the atoms of zebrafish and human PERK, for the active site and total

structure of the protein. The results indicate that both structures present a high level of

similarity (Figure 1 D). Additionally, we performed a Ramachandran plot analysis in SWISS-

MODEL and obtained the Ramachandran outliers for the total protein of zebrafish PERK,

which indicated that around 90% of the angles established between atoms in the zebrafish

protein are similar with the ones in human zebrafish (Figure 1 D).

The majority of the amino acid residues that are vital for GSK binding to human PERK

are similar zebrafish PERK, suggesting a high probability of binding between GSK and the

zebrafish PERK, which prompted us to evaluate the bioactivity of GSK in zebrafish larvae.

3.2 PERK is essential for zebrafish embryonic survival

Following the bioinformatic analysis suggesting that GSK should efficiently bind to zebrafish

PERK, we incubated this PERK inhibitor in zebrafish larvae to assess the survival and hatching

rate and to investigate the mechanism of action of GSK (Figure 2 A).

First, we evaluated the survival and hatching rate of fish treated with different

concentrations of GSK over time. Regarding survival, there is a concentration-dependent

decrease in survival at 76 hpf (Figure 2 B). At such timepoint, the survival rate of zebrafish larvae treated with 10 μM GSK significantly decreased to 50% (Figure 2 B). We also calculated the LC_{50} for GSK at 76 hpf, which was 8.8 ± 0.2 μM. We selected 10 μM GSK for following experiments since it produced a significant effect on zebrafish survival. Results indicate that in surviving zebrafish, the hatching rate remains unchanged after treatment with concentrations of GSK up to 10 μM (Figure 2 C).

Next, we tested the mechanism of action of GSK in the zebrafish larvae at 76 hpf by monitoring the activation of the ISR pathway via western blot (Figure 2 D *i*). Results show that treatment with GSK (10 μM, 72h) decreases the phosphorylation of eIF2α and the levels of ATF4 and CHOP (Figure 2 D *ii-vi*), which indicates that the GSK is bioactive and is inhibiting PERK pathway.

The results suggest that the chosen PERK inhibitor (GSK, 10 μM) produces toxic effects on larvae survival and effectively inhibits the PERK pathway in zebrafish .

3.3 PERK is essential for zebrafish skeletal development

One of the hallmarks of WRS is the presence of skeletal dysplasia (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). Considering that GSK effectively inhibits PERK in zebrafish, we tested if its incubation would induce changes in the skeletal development of zebrafish, mimicking the phenotype that occurs in WRS patients.

The daily monitoring of fish development showed that, within the surviving fish treated with 10 μM of GSK, there is a significant increase in the percentage of larvae with morphological defects when compared to control (Figure 3 A *i*). The data also suggest that the percentage of defective larvae increases with duration of treatment (Figure 3 A *i*). We observed that, at 76 hpf, the majority of the defective larvae treated with 10 μM of GSK presented

lordosis and the remaining few presented scoliosis (Figures 3 A *ii - iv*). Treatment with GSK

(10 μM, 76 hpf) causes a 20 ± 4.6 degree curvature of zebrafish tail (Figure 3 B). Skeletal

changes at 76 hpf are accompanied by a significant decrease in larval body size (Figure 3 C).

To ascertain if skeletal defects or abnormal muscle contraction induced the morphological

defects seen in GSK-treated larvae, we used d-tubocurarine (dTC), a muscle relaxant that acts

as   an   antagonist   of   the   nicotinic   receptors   blocking   muscle   contraction

(2002.Buss.JNeurophysiol) and decreasing TEER in zebrafish (2020.Guzman.EnvironSciEur).

Results suggest that dTC significantly decreased larvae TEER to the head (Figure 3 D *i*) and

the tail (Figure 3 D *ii*), in concentrations higher than 0.3 mM. d-tubocurarine 3mM treatment

failed to recover morphological defects in GSK-treated larva defects (Figure 3 E), which

indicates that these defects are more likely due to alterations in skeletal development than to

increased muscle contraction.

These results suggest that PERK is essential for zebrafish skeletal development and its

inhibition induces skeletal abnormalities in zebrafish larvae, mimicking WRS hallmarks in

humans.

3.4 PERK inhibition delays endocrine pancreas development and limits glucose uptake

in zebrafish

The second hallmark of WRS in humans is neonatal diabetes, which results from decreased β-

cell mass and impaired insulin production (2020.Sumegi.BMCPediatrics, 2009.Rubio-

Cabezas.JCEM). Therefore, we explored if inhibiting PERK in zebrafish would decrease the

mass of insulin-producing β-cells without altering the mass of other cells from the endocrine

(somatostatin-producing δ-cells) and exocrine (elastase producing cells) pancreas.

To understand how PERK inhibition affects pancreas development, we used two double

transgenic fish: 1) Tg(*ins:GFP, sst:mCherry*) that express GFP in insulin-producing β-cells

and mCherry in somatostatin-producing δ-cells from the endocrine pancreas; and 2)

Tg(*ins:GFP, ela:mCherry*) that express GFP in insulin-producing β-cells and mCherry in

elastase-producing exocrine pancreas (Figure 4 A); and estimated the labelled area as a measure

for cell mass. We inhibited PERK in these transgenics using GSK in two treatment approaches:

one where exposure started at 4 hpf (Figure 4 B *iv)*, before the endocrine pancreas is formed,

and a second where exposure started at 76 hpf (Figure 4 B *i)*, when the principal islet is already

formed (2009.Tiso.MolCelEndocrinol).

GSK (10 µM) significantly decreases the area of *ins:GFP* and *sst:mCherry* labelling at

28 hpf (Figure 4 C *i,* D *i*). However, this transient decrease is overcome in the following

timepoints, where the labelled areas are similar between treatments (Figure 4 C *i,* D *i*).

Regarding elastase, *ela:mCherry* was only detected at 148 hpf, and no differences were found

between treated and non-treated larvae (Figure 4 E *i*). These results suggest that inhibiting

PERK from the early developmental time points delays the development of endocrine pancreas,

without permanently affecting the mass of either endocrine or exocrine pancreatic structures.

Finally, GSK exposure after the principal islet is formed (at 76 hpf) did not alter the area of

any of the labels (Figure 4 C *ii*, D *ii*, E *ii*), which suggests that role of PERK in pancreatic

development in zebrafish is vital in early embryonic stages.

Since inhibiting PERK delayed pancreatic development, we tested if this affected

glucose homeostasis in zebrafish. To do so, we evaluated the incorporation of a fluorescent

glucose probe (2-NBDglucose), in zebrafish treated with GSK (10 µM) from 4 to 76 hpf (Figure

5 A). Previous studies showed that diabetes zebrafish models present decreased uptake of 2-

NBDglucose (2013.Lee.ACSChemBiol). The incorporation of 2-NBDglucose was analysed in

neuromasts, whose location and high surface area enable efficient probe diffusion. PERK

inhibition decreased the number of 2-NBDglucose labelled neuromasts in comparison with

control (Figure 5 A, B). Neuromast labelling with Mitotracker Deep Red (1 µM), which is

independent from glucose uptake, shows that GSK treatment does not affect neuromast

formation. These results suggest that PERK inhibition decreased 2-NBDglucose signal by

decreasing glucose uptake.

Overall, PERK inhibition delayed pancreatic development and induced a diabetic-like

phenotype, which is characteristic of WRS.

3.5 PERK inhibition impairs zebrafish neuromuscular function

WRS includes broad-spectrum manifestations such as difficulty in movement, early

neurodegeneration and motor neuropathy in addition to skeletal dysplasia and neonatal diabetes

(2010.Julier.OrphJRarDis). We hypothesized that inhibiting PERK in zebrafish larvae

produces similar neuromuscular alterations. To test this hypothesis, we evaluated the effect of

PERK inhibition on spontaneous movements of zebrafish embryos at 28 hpf and the TEER on

larvae in response to touch on the head and tail at 76hpf (2019.Zindler.EcotoxEnvironSafety;

2019.Roberts.PlosOne; 2023.Wyl.Chemosphere)

Results show that GSK (10 µM) increases spontaneous movements in comparison to

control larvae (Figure 6 A *ii*). Regarding the TEER at 76hpf, GSK (10 µM) significantly

decreases the responses to head and tail touches (Figure 6 B *i* and *ii*). These results indicate

that GSK impairs neuromuscular function in zebrafish larva, mimicking WRS phenotypes.

One of the other components that can influence neuromuscular function is the integrity

of the musculature (2008.Menelaou.EurJNeurosci). Thus, we assessed said integrity through a

muscle birefringence assay. Birefringence results from diffraction of polarized light through

the pseudocrystalline arrangement of fish muscle sarcomeres (Figure 6 C *i*)

(2012.Berger.BBRC). Thus, zebrafish musculature is seen under polarized light as a white

structure on a black background (Figure 6 C *ii*). In fish treated with 10 µM GSK, birefringence

intensity decreased around 40%, which reflects an impairment in the muscular integrity of fish

treated with PERK's inhibitor (Figure 6 C *iii*).

Thus, PERK inhibition mimics the difficulty in movement existing in WRS patients.

Additionally, we suggest that these difficulties may be caused by GSK-driven impairment in

neuromuscular function and muscle integrity.

3.6 PERK inhibition impairs zebrafish cardiac function

Broad-spectrum manifestations of WRS include cardiac defects, with some patients suffering

from congenital cardiac malformations such as enlargement of the heart chambers and changes

in cardiac rhythm (2004.Senée.Diabetes; 1997.Thorton.PediatrPatholLabMed). We evaluated

if zebrafish larvae treated with the PERK inhibitor GSK demonstrated functional and

morphological abnormalities at the cardiac level.

We found that larvae treated with 10 µM of the PERK inhibitor develop cardiac oedema

(Figure 7 A *i*) as early as 28 hpf, extending to 76 hpf (Figure 7 A *ii, iii*). To ascertain if the

cardiac oedema was associated with defective cardiac function, we evaluated the heart rate and

atrio-ventricular coordination of larvae at 76 hpf. 10 µM GSK decreased the heart rate in

zebrafish larva from 160 beats per minute (bpm) in control larvae to 110 bpm in treated larvae

(Figure 7 B *i*). A more detailed analysis of the larvae's heart showed that despite presenting

bradycardia, larvae treated with 10 µM GSK preserve atrio-ventricular coordination (Figure 7

B *ii*).

The inhibition of PERK during the embryonic development of zebrafish induced

cardiac oedema and elicited bradycardia while preserving atrio-ventricular coordination.

4. Discussion

The cause of WRS has long been identified as loss-of-function mutations in the gene encoding PERK (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis), however, there are still no effective treatments for WRS nor *in vivo* models available for large-scale testing of potential therapies. Here, we developed a pharmacological zebrafish model of WRS suitable for large-scale therapeutic testing. Our WRS model mimics the hallmarks of WRS such as skeletal defects and neonatal diabetes, as well as the more broad-spectrum manifestations such as cardiac and neuromuscular alterations.

Regarding the skeleton and pancreas, zebrafish and humans share great similarities in anatomy and physiology. Skeletal development of zebrafish and humans is highly similar since all relevant skeletal cell types and development pathways are conserved between the two species (2019.Bergen.FrontEndcrinol). WRS patients present short stature and skeletal dysplasia, particularly noticeable in long bones, pelvis and vertebrae (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). The proposed mechanism for skeletal impairments in WRS is that PERK's loss-of-function delays the differentiation and proliferation of osteoblasts and decreases the secretion of type I collagen. As these are essential factors for normal bone development, PERK's loss-of-function decreases bone mineralization (2008.Wei.JCellPhysiol). Mice with PERK ablation exhibit postnatal growth retardation, bone loss and skeletal dysplasia (2001.Zhang.CellGrowthDev, 2003.Li.Endocrinol, 2020.Guo.CellDeathDis). We show that GSK treatment also decreased body length and induced skeletal defects, therefore indicating that zebrafish can mimic human skeletal impairments and be used to model bone diseases.

Little is known about the origin of the diabetes in WRS patients besides that it is not autoimmune since they do not present antibodies specific for type I diabetes (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis). Instead, WRS patients present a hypoplastic pancreas, with

smaller insulin-secreting β cells within the Langerhans islets (2020.Welters.OrpJRareDis).

Accordingly, PERK ablation in mice reduced the mass of insulin-producing β cells and induced

hyperglycaemia. These phenotypes originate due to decreased proliferation and defective

proinsulin maturation (2009.Feng.BMCMolCellBiol, 2001.Harding.MolCell,

2006.Zhang.CellMetab) rather than peripheral resistance to the action of insulin

(2001.Harding.MolCell) or increased cell death (2006.Zhang.CellMetab,

2008.Wei.JCellPhysiol). Our results suggest that inhibiting PERK in zebrafish delayed the

development of endocrine pancreas, which aligns with WRS in humans and mice. However,

this delay in zebrafish is only present in the early developmental days, without altering the final

morphology of the pancreas once the developmental stage is complete. One hypothesis to

explain this time-dependent recovery in β-cell mass in larvae treated with GSK is the elevated

capacity of zebrafish to regenerate pancreatic tissue (2009.Moss.Diabetes,

2007.Pisharath.MechDev). In contrast with zebrafish, human and mice pancreas have little

regenerative capacity, which can explain why in both cases, the loss of β-cell mass upon PERK

inhibition extends until older stages (2009.Moss.Diabetes). The role of PERK in zebrafish

tissue regeneration remains unexplored and we suggest that PERK-independent mechanisms

allow pancreatic recovery upon decreased β-cell mass. Furthermore, only when PERK was

inhibited before the formation of the principal islet of Langerhans was it possible to see the

delay in pancreatic development, which is in accordance with previous findings showing that

genetically ablating PERK in adult mice did not alter β cell mass or glycemia

(2006.Zhang.CellMetab).

Regarding the exocrine pancreas, the earliest timepoint allowing detection of the elastase

reporter was 148 hpf. At that time point, we found no effect of GSK2606414 in the mass of

elastase-producing cells. While different mechanisms regulate development of the exocrine

and endocrine pancreas, we cannot rule out that our zebrafish model may present differences

in the mass of elastase-producing cells in earlier timepoints, as happens with β-cells. Previous

clinical studies showed that only 25% of WRS patients present exocrine pancreas insufficiency,

which makes it a broad-spectrum phenotype of WRS (2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis,

2010.Ozbek.PedDiabetes). In mice, PERK KO induces exocrine pancreas cell death by oncosis

(2015_Balvan_PlosOne; 2007.Iida.BMCCellBiol), which suggests that an extended exposure

to GSK might induce damage to the exocrine pancreas.

Regarding the mechanism of insulin production in β-cells, insulin is folded and matured

in the endoplasmic reticulum, which basally activates PERK. Studies show that deleting PERK

in rodents decreases β-cells mass, which reduces cell-cell contacts that are important for

increasing glucose-stimulated insulin secretion therefore provoking hyperglycemia

(2006.Zhang.CellMetab). Our results also suggest that although β-cell mass recovers insulin

production might remain compromised. In PERK-inhibitied zebrafish, glucose uptake is

decreased, which allows us to hypothesize that PERK inhibition may decrease insulin

production and induce hyperglycemia in zebrafish, which is in line with what occurs in WRS

rodent models (2006.Zhang.CellMetab).

Although skeletal dysplasia and early onset diabetes are essential clinical manifestations

for the diagnosis of WRS, the variety of disease-causing mutations in the PERK gene elicits a

broad-spectrum of WRS symptoms, such as cardiac and neuromuscular changes (2019.Asl.

JPediatEndocrinMetab, 2004.Senée.Diabetes; 1997.Thorton.PediatrPatholLabMed). Zebrafish

treated with GSK also developed cardiac and neuromuscular changes, as evidenced by the

increased cardiac oedema, higher spontaneous movement, decreased heart rate and lower

TEER. Regarding cardiac alterations, clinicians reported multiple cases of WRS patients with

cardiac malformations such as double outlet right ventricle and atrio-ventricular dilatation

(1997.Thorton.PediatrPatholLabMed; 2018.Bejiqi.MedArch). Mice with PERK conditional

knock out show alterations in the formation of heart valves (2020.Shimizu.SciRep). Zebrafish

present advantages in relation to other mammals when it comes to studying the cardiovascular

system, namely: 1) being able to observe the formation of the heart chambers, cardiac

contraction, bloodflow, and vessels *in vivo* by non-invasive techniques and 2) not being fully

dependent upon a functional cardiovascular system in the early development stages since they

get sufficient oxygen by passive diffusion, which allows the detection of cardiovascular

malformations that in mammals would be lethal (2016.Bournele.HeartFailRev). Our data

shows that PERK inhibition in zebrafish induces morphologic and functional cardiac

alterations, which indicates that this model is suitable to study cardiac alterations in WRS and

implicates PERK in cardiac development, although the mechanism is not yet fully understood

(2020.Shimizu.SciRep).

Regarding neuromuscular function, WRS patients suffer from brain structural

abnormalities, microcephaly and muscle weakness (2015.Bruch.JNeuropatholExpNeurol,

2010.Julier.OrphJRareDis) however, the mechanisms behind such symptoms are unknown. We

assessed the function of neuromuscular systems in the zebrafish larvae treated with GSK by

evaluating the spontaneous movement at 28 hpf and the TEER at 76 hpf. Surprisingly, PERK

inhibition significantly increased spontaneous tail movements of zebrafish embryos while

decreasing the response to touch. One explanation for this apparent paradox might reside in the

neuro-muscular circuits that govern both movements. Early spontaneous tail movements in

zebrafish arise in a spinal central pattern generator that provides rhythmic depolarizations

followed by unilateral muscle contractions to produce the tail coilings. These depolarizations

involve interneurons, motor neurons and muscles and are governed by gap junction-mediated

neurotransmission (2023.Wyl.Chemosphere; 2019.Zindler.EcotoxEnvironSafety).

Contrastingly, the reflex response to touch arises in Rohon-Beard sensory neurons, hindbrain

reticulospinal neurons, spinal cord interneurons and secondary motor neurons and are governed

by chemical synaptic inputs (2023.Wyl.Chemosphere; 2019.Roberts.PlosOne). Another

explanation for decreased reflex response may reside in the presence of skeletal defects. In zebrafish larva treated with GSK, we did not detect a significant appearance of skeletal defects at 28 hpf, the same timepoint of the spontaneous tail coilings, but at 76 hpf, the timepoint of reflex evaluation, there is a significant increase in the number of larvae with skeletal defects that might hinder movement. Nonetheless, the decreased tail coilings in zebrafish larvae upon PERK inhibition suggest that this protein is important for neuronal and muscular development and function.

Since GSK-treated zebrafish presented neuromuscular dysfunction, we assessed if GSK had any direct impact in muscle integrity through the birefringence assay. In the case of zebrafish treated with a PERK inhibitor, there is a significant decrease in the intensity of birefringent light, which suggests that there is a decrease in the muscle integrity of the fish. These results are in accordance with recently published data showing that PERK ablation in mice decreases skeletal muscle mass, strength, and force production (2019.Gadot.FASEBJ). Thus, we hypothesize that PERK alters neuromuscular communication by a combination of alterations at the neuronal level with impairments in muscle development.

5. Conclusions

In this study, we investigated if zebrafish could be used to model WRS by inhibiting PERK. The pharmacological inhibition of PERK mimicked cardinal features of WRS such as skeletal defects and alterations in glucose homeostasis. Inhibiting PERK in zebrafish larvae also produced the broad-spectrum manifestations of human WRS such as cardiac alterations and neuromuscular deficits. These results validate the use of zebrafish to produce an *in vivo* WRS model for large scale testing, aiming to find safer, effective, and less invasive therapeutic options for WRS patients.

Declarations

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Competing Interests

The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1 GSK2606414-binding amino acids in PERK are highly similar between zebrafish and

human. (**A**) Percentage of identity between human, nematode (*Caenorhabditis elegans*), fruit

fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and mouse (*Mus musculus*) PERK

(total and catalytic domain). (**B**) Detailed analysis of amino acid sequence of the catalytic

domain in human and zebrafish PERK that are vital for GSK2606414 binding. The amino acid

Valine 651 in human PERK (yellow) is substituted by the Isoleucine 671 (red) in zebrafish

PERK. (**C**) Predicted structure for GSK (purple) binding to human (light blue) and zebrafish

(dark blue) PERK. PERK with Valine 651 and Isoleucine 671 highlighted in yellow and

orange, respectively. (**D**) Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) and Ramachandran outliers

value for the comparison between human and zebrafish PERK structures and respective

reference values.

Fig. 2 GSK2606414 concentration dependently inhibits the PERK pathway in zebrafish and

limits embryonic survival. (**A**) Protocol and endpoints for the experiments with zebrafish eggs

or larvae. (**B**) Survival rate of zebrafish embryos treated with increasing concentrations of

GSK2606414 (0.1 – 10 μM) over time (28, 52 and 76 hpf). n = 50-234 larvae, 5 independent

breedings, Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test, *$P < 0.05$ vs. 0 μM GSK. (**C**) Hatching rate of

zebrafish embryos treated with increasing concentrations of GSK2606414 (0 – 10 μM) over

time (28, 52 and 76 hours post-fertilization (hpf)). n=5 breedings, Two-Way ANOVA: #$P <$

0.05 time effect. (**D**) Western blot with samples from control and 10 μM GSK2606414-treated

live zebrafish larvae at 76 hpf: *i*) PERK pathway representation: upon activation, PERK

phosphorylates eIF2α, promoting the expression of the transcription factors ATF4 and CHOP.

GSK2606414 inhibits PERK kinase activity; *ii*) representative images for labelling of PERK

pathway markers - p-eIF2α, eIF2α, ATF4 and CHOP; Quantification of *iii*) eIF2α, *iv*) p-eIF2α,

v) ATF4 and *vi*) CHOP. $n = 4$ independent experiments, *t*-test: *$P < 0.05$

Fig. 3 PERK inhibition induces skeletal abnormalities in zebrafish development. (**A**)

Morphological defects in GSK2606414-treated zebrafish larvae. (*i*) Quantification of live larva

with morphological defects when treated with increasing concentrations of GSK2606414 at 28,

52 and 76 hpf. *n*= 5 independent experiments. (*ii*) Proportion of skeletal defect types (lordosis

or scoliosis) found in live larvae treated with 0 or 10 μM GSK2606414 at 76 hpf. $n = 3$

independent experiments. Data in percentage of live larvae at 4 hpf. Two-way ANOVA with

significant interaction ($P < 0.05$) between drug concentrations and time; Sidak post-hoc test

compared the concentration effect in the percentage of larvae with morphological defects

within each time point: *$P < 0.05$; linear trend post-hoc test compared the time effect in the 10

μM GSK2606414 group: #$P<0.05$. Representative images of the normal larval morphology

(*iii*) and of 10 μM GSK2606414- induced lordosis (*iv,* blue arrow). (**B**) Tail-trunk angle

measurement representation (blue line) and quantification at 76 hpf. (**C**) Body length

measurement representation (blue line) and quantification at 76 hpf. Data in percentage of

control body length. $n = 15$ larva. One-Way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test: *$P < 0.05$

vs 0 μM GSK2606414. (**D**) Effect of muscle relaxant d-tubocurarine (dTC, 0.03–3 mM) on

touch-evoked escape response (TEER) after (*i*) head or (*ii*) tail touches at 76 hpf . *n*= 3

independent experiments. Data in percentage of total touches. One-Way ANOVA with

Dunnett's post-hoc test: *$P < 0.05$ vs 0 mM dTC. Grey band indicates the mean ± SEM of each

parameter in control larva. (**E**) Contribution of muscle contraction for morphological defects

at 76 hpf. Representative images of (*i*) control larvae and larvae treated with (*ii*) 3 mM dTC,

(*iii*) 10 μM GSK2606414 or (*iv*) 3 mM dTC in combination with 10 μM GSK2606414. Lordosis

(arrow). (*v*) Quantification of larvae presenting morphological defects upon 10 μM

GSK2606414 and 3 mM dTC treatment. N= 3 independent experiments. Data in percentage of

live larvae at 4 hpf. One-Way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc test: *$P < 0.05$ vs control.

Fig. 4 PERK inhibition delays endocrine pancreas development. **(A)** representative images of

normal pancreas development in Tg(*ins:GFP, sst:mCherry*) and Tg(*ins:GFP, ela:mCherry*)

zebrafish. **(B)** Schematic representation of GSK2606414 treatment approaches. The area

labelled with **(C)** *ins:GFP*, **(D)** *sst:mCherry* or **(E)** *ela:mCherry* was used to track the

development of pancreatic endocrine β-cells and δ-cells, and exocrine cells, respectively.

Larvae were treated with 10 μM GSK2606414 from (*i*) 4 hpf until 28, 76 or 148 hpf, or from

(*ii*) 76 hpf to 148 hpf. Representative images of GFP and mCherry in each timepoint are located

under the respective condition. *n* = 4–33 larvae. Data are expressed as percentage of control.

T-test vs. control: *$P < 0.05$.

Fig. 5 PERK inhibition induces a diabetic-like phenotype. **(A)** Representative brightfield (for

morphology) and fluorescence (for MitoTracker Deep Red and 2-NBDglucose) images of live

zebrafish treated with (*i*) 0 μM or (*ii*) 10 μM GSK2606414 from 4 to 76 hpf Image entitled

"neuromasts" is a greyscale version of the MitoTracker image with 2-NBDglucose and

Mitotracker positive neuromasts circled in yellow and MitoTracker-only positive neuromasts

circled in red. **(B)** Quantification of posterior (white) and anterior lateral line neuromasts

labelled   with   2-NBDglucose   according   to   2017_Stengel_

CompBiochemPhysiolCToxicolPharmacol . *n* = 9–12 larvae. *T*-test vs control: *$P < 0.05$.

Fig. 6 PERK inhibition decreases neuro-motor responses and impairs muscle integrity. **(A)**

Evaluation of spontaneous zebrafish movement – tail coilings. (*i*) Representative images of a

time-lapse acquired during a tail coiling movement; a white line representing notochord

highlights zebrafish movement. (*ii*) Quantification of tail coilings in larvae treated with

increasing concentrations of GSK2606414 at 28 hpf. *n*= 23 – 26 larvae. Data in percentage of

number of tail coilings in control larvae. (**B**) Quantification of touch-evoked escape responses

(TEER) after head (*i*) or tail (*ii*) touches at 76 hpf. N= 13-114 larva. Data in percentage of

number of total touches. Grey band indicates the mean ± SEM of each parameter in control

larva (**C**) Evaluation of muscular integrity using light birefringence. (*i*) Muscle birefringence

as polarized light goes through zebrafish muscle sarcomeres; (*ii*) Representative images of

muscle birefringence in zebrafish larvae at 76 hpf. (*iii*) Quantification of zebrafish

birefringence intensity. *n*=15 larvae. Data in percentage of birefringence intensity in control

larva. One-Way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc: *$P < 0.05$ vs 0 µM GSK2606414. Grey

band indicates the mean ± SEM of each parameter in control larva.

Fig. 7 PERK inhibition induces morphological and functional cardiac defects. (**A**) Cardiac

oedema in live zebrafish larvae treated with increasing concentrations of GSK2606414 at 28,

52 and 76 hpf. (*i*) Quantification of live larvae with cardiac oedema through time. *n*=5

independent experiments. Data in percentage of live larva at 4 hpf. A significant interaction (*P*

< 0.05) between concentration and time was found and Sidak post-hoc test was performed to

compare the percentage of larvae with cardiac oedema between different drug concentrations

within each time point: *$P<0.05$ vs 0 µM GSK2606414. Representative images of zebrafish

larvae at (*ii*) 28 hpf and (*iii*)76 hpf treated with 0 (control) or 10 µM GSK2606414. Cardiac

oedema (blue arrow). (**B**) Monitoring functional abnormalities in zebrafish heart at 76 hpf. (*i*)

Quantification of zebrafish heartbeat when treated with increasing GSK concentrations at

76hpf. *n*= 13 – 116 larvae. Grey line indicates the mean ± SEM heartbeat in control larva. Data

in heartbeats per minute (bpm). One-Way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc: *$P < 0.05$ vs 0

µM GSK2606414. (*ii*) Representative images of the structure of zebrafish heart and plots of

atrio-ventricular coordination in control and 10 µM GSK2606414 treated larvae (a: atrium –

red; v: ventricle - blue).

A

Caenorhabditis elegans — 28 % / 25 %
Drosophila melanogaster — 34 % / 32 %
Danio rerio — 51 % / 58 %
Mus musculus — 88 % / 88 %

% of Identity

■ Total Protein □ Catalytic domain

B

| 665 | 666 | 667 | 668 | 669 | 670 | **671** | 672 | 673 | 674 | 675 |
| L | E | H | P | G | I | I | R | Y | F | N |

| 645 | 646 | 647 | 648 | 649 | 650 | **651** | 652 | 653 | 654 | 655 |
| L | E | H | P | G | I | V | R | Y | F | N |

C

■ zebrafish PERK □ human PERK ■ (#) GSK2606414

@ □ valine 651 – human; ■ isoleucine 671 – zebrafish

D

Metric		Value	Reference values for similarity		Ref
RMSD	Active site	0.371Å	High	0-1 Å	
			Moderate	1-3 Å	1
	Total protein	0.868 Å	Low	> 3 Å	
Ramachandran outliers		10.21%	High	0%	2

RMSD, Root Mean Square Deviation

[1] Carugo O. et al., **2001**, *Protein Science*, doi: 10.1110/ps.690101.

[2] Chen B. et al, **2009**, *Acta Crystallographica*, doi:10.1107/S0907444909042073.

Figure 1

A

0 — 4 — 28 — 52 — 76 (hpf)

Breeding; Egg harvest.

GSK2606414 incubation.

Survival: Abnormalities; Microscopy.

Survival; Abnormalities. Microscopy.

Survival; Abnormalities; Microscopy; Western Blot.

200 μm   200 μm   200 μm   250 μm

B

Survival (% of live larvae at 4 hpf)

Time (hpf)

GSK2606414 (μM): ● 0 ● 0.3 ● 3 ● 0.1 ● 1 ● 10

C

Hatching (% of live larvae at 4 hpf)

Time (hpf)

D

i

GSK2606414 ⊣ PERK

eIF2α → p-eIF2α → ATF4 → CHOP

ii

GSK2606414 (μM)   0   10

eIF2α
p-eIF2α
ATF4
CHOP
Coomassie

iii   eIF2α

Protein levels (% of control)

GSK2606414 (μM)   0   10

iv   p-eIF2α

Protein levels (% of control)

GSK2606414 (μM)   0   10

v   ATF4

0   10

vi   CHOP

0   10

Figure 2

A

i

Live larvae with morphological defects (% of 4 hpf)

GSK2606414 (μM): ● 0 ● 0.3 ● 3 ● 0.1 ● 1 ● 10

ii

Morphological defects (% of live larvae at 4 hpf)

GSK2606414 (μM)

☐ Scoliosis ▨ Lordosis

iii – Normal morphology

iv – Lordosis

500 μm

B Trunk-tail angle

Control

10 μM GSK2606414

700 μm

Trunk-tail angle (°)

GSK2606414 (μM)

C Body length

700 μm

Body length (% of control)

GSK2606414 (μM)

D Touch-evoked escape response (TEER)

i – Head reflex

ii – Tail reflex

Reflexes (% of total)

Control ± SEM

dTC (mM)

E

i – Control

ii – 3 mM dTC

iii – 10 μM GSK2606414

iv - 10 μM GSK2606414 + 3 mM dTC

500 μm

v

Live larvae with morphological defects (% of 4hpf)

| 10 μM GSK2606414 | - | + | - | + |
| 3 mM dTC | - | - | + | + |

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

i – 28 hpf   **ii – 76 hpf**   **iii – 148 hpf**

ins:GFP
sst:mCherry

ins:GFP
sst:mCherry

ins:GFP
sst:mCherry

ins:GFP
ela:mCherry

300 µm

B

i – Start: 4 hpf

Fertilization
GSK2606414 incubation
Imaging

Imaging

Imaging

0   4   28   76   148 (hpf)

ii – Start: 76 hpf

Fertilization

GSK2606414 incubation

Imaging

0   76   148 (hpf)

C – *ins:GFP*

i – Start: 4 hpf → 28 hpf   76 hpf   148 hpf

GFP area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10   0   10   0   10

*

ii – Start 76 hpf → 148 hpf

GFP area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10

D – *sst:mCherry*

i – Start: 4 hpf → 28 hpf   76 hpf   148 hpf

mCherry area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10   0   10   0   10

*

ii – Start 76 hpf → 148 hpf

mCherry area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10

E – *ela:mCherry*

i – Start: 4 hpf → 148 hpf

mCherry area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10

ii – Start 76 hpf → 148 hpf

mCherry area (% of control)

GSK2606414 (µM)   0   10

A

i – Control

ii – 10 µM GSK2606414

B

Figure 5

A Tail coilings (28 hpf)

i

ii

Tail coilings (% of control) vs GSK2606414 (µM)

Control ± SEM

B Touch-evoked escape response (TEER)

i

Head reflexes (% of total) vs GSK2606414 (µM)

ii

Tail reflexes (% of total) vs GSK2606414 (µM)

Control ± SEM

C Birrefringence assay

i

Unpolarized light — Linearly polarized light — Polarizer filter — Birefringent muscle sarcomeres — Polarizer filter — Polarized light — Objective

ii

Control

10 µM GSK2606414

50 µm

iii

Birefringence Intensity (% of control) vs GSK2606414 (µM)

Control ± SEM

Figure 6

A

i

GSK2606414 (µM):
- 0
- 0.1
- 0.3
- 1
- 3
- 10

ii – 28 hpf

Control

10 µM GSK2606414

200 µm

iii – 76 hpf

Control

10 µM GSK2606414

600 µm

B

i

Control ± SEM

ii

Control

10 µM GSK2606414

v
a

v
a

1 sec.

Figure 7