2 *Panx1 deletion promotes synaptic reconfiguration and recruitment of cell death pathways in*

3 *the Zebrafish MPTP model*

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27   *Graphical Abstract*

30   *Highlights*

31   • A genetic model was combined with the MPTP neurotoxin to explore the roles of
32   zebrafish Pannexin-1 channels in neurodegeneration.
33
34   • A dysregulation of Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS), and
35   Huntington's disease biomarkers, suggested a protective role of Panx1a ablation.
36
37   • The potential beneficial impact of targeting Panx1a is superseded by synaptic plasticity
38   loss, dysfunctional mitochondrial metabolism, and cell death.
39

Abstract

Pannexin-1 (Panx1) channels have garnered attention for their implications in neurodegeneration,

potentially with a role in mediating the delicate balance between cell death and survival.

However, a comprehensive understanding of the underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms

remains elusive, and whether Panx1 exhibits dual protective and toxic roles throughout the

lifespan remains to be determined. To address these gaps, we focused on early-life changes in

zebrafish larvae with impaired Panx1a function subjected to acute 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-

tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) treatment. We demonstrate that a single four-hour exposure to MPTP

induces substantial alterations in locomotor behavior, the transcriptome, and local field potentials

within the ascending visual pathway. KEGG pathway analysis underscored MPTP's regulatory

influence on neurodegeneration; here the differential expression of biomarkers for Alzheimer's,

Parkinson's, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS), and Huntington's disease, suggested a

protective role of Panx1a ablation. However, the potential beneficial impact of targeting Panx1a

is superseded by the deregulation of oxidative phosphorylation, glycolysis, ROS, hypoxia,

unfolded protein response pathways, and reduced extracellular ATP. Notably, these changes

correlate with a loss of synaptic neurotransmitter receptor and ion channel/transaporter

expression and the differential expression of mTORC1, autophagy, and apoptosis signaling

pathways. The resultant cell death was demonstrated by acridine orange dye uptake and in-vivo

imaging, with a pronounced loss of cells observed in the pallium and tectum regions. Dual

recordings of local field potentials across the optic tectum and pallium demonstrate Panx1a's

involvement in modulating local neuronal networks. Collectively, our results shed light on the

impacts of acute MPTP treatment on locomotor behavior, transcriptomic shifts, metabolic

disturbances, and the pivotal role of Panx1a in neurodegeneration and cell death. These insights

enhance our comprehension of the intricate molecular and cellular mechanisms underpinning

neurodegeneration, with implications for potential therapeutic strategies targeting Panx1 channels

in the context of neuroinflammatory pathologies.

Introduction

Neurodegenerative diseases (NDDs) like Alzheimer's Disease (AD), Parkinson's Disease,

(PD), or Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) significantly burden individuals worldwide, with

their diverse manifestations impacting millions of lives. As the prevalence of NDDs continues to

rise and healthcare costs soar, addressing the challenges they present has become a critical

priority. Though diverse in presentation, different forms of NDDs often share common hallmarks

upon the onset of clinical symptoms. They include the aggregation of pathological proteins,

synaptic and neuronal network dysfunction, proteostasis disturbances, cytoskeletal abnormalities,

disrupted energy homeostasis, DNA and RNA defects, inflammation, and neuronal cell death.

These changes culminate in the progressive loss of neurons, leading to impaired memory,

cognition, behavior, sensory functions, and motor abilities [1]. At the most fundamental level we

must ask whether NDDs emerge from common insults derailing the homeostasis of the nervous

system at an asymptomatic stage, and how time, duration, and context of the initial changes

dictate outcomes.

Mitochondrial energy metabolism and calcium dysregulation occur early in many NDDs,

including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, Huntington's disease, and other outcomes [2,3].

These dysfunctions appear to be genetically preprogrammed, striking initially the weakest, and

most sensitive points of the nervous system. In addition to ATP production, mitochondria are an

epicenter of many metabolic pathways and important cellular functions, including the fine-tuning

of intracellular calcium ($_iCa^{2+}$) signaling, regulation of cell death, lipid synthesis, ROS signaling,

and cellular quality control [4]. Disruption in mitochondrial function and metabolism appears to

underlie several NDDs such as AD, PD, HD, and others [5]. This suggests that mitochondrial

metabolic defects may be drivers or even initiators of the neurodegenerative process [6].

Mechanistically, at least some of the common NDD pathways outlined above converge on

Pannexin-1 (Panx1) which may play a central role in early life changes influencing the onset and

development of NDDs. Panx1 is a member of the pannexin gene family encompassing three

glycosylated integral membrane proteins (Panx1-Panx3) [7-10]. The Panx1 protein can form large-

pore ATP-release channels, enabling paracrine and intercellular communication within the

nervous system [11]. Additionally, a small-pore variant of heptameric Panx1 channels exists,

although its functional roles have yet to be determined [12,13].

Recent studies have highlighted Panx1's roles during neurodevelopment and its potential

involvement in NDDs [14-16]. Panx1 channels are expressed in neurons and glial cells, including

microglia cells and astrocytes, as well as in the neurovascular unit [17-20]. Panx1 channels play

critical roles in cell death [21-25], calcium signaling [26,27], neurotoxicity regulation [28,29], non-synaptic

communication [30,31], inflammation [22,32,33], neuronal excitability [34] and endema[35]. The relevance of

Panx1's interaction with the cytoskeleton and whether this interaction contributes to cytoskeletal

abnormalities in NDDs remains to be explored [36,37]. Dysregulated Panx1 activity can exacerbate

pathological processes, and increased neuronal excitability has been associated with neurological

disorders such as Alzheimer's Disease, ALS, and epilepsy [38-40]. In mouse models, the loss of

Panx1 function caused learning and memory deficits, impaired social interactions, and

diminished bioelectrical properties of the brain [41,42]. Notably, our interest in studying Panx1

functions early in life coincides with the expression peak at birth after a rise during perinatal

stages [19].

To investigate early in-live roles of Panx1 when mitochondrial function and metabolism

are disrupted, we treated six-day-old Tubingen Longfin (TL) larvae with 1-methyl-4-phenyl-

1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) to induce rapid neurotoxicity [43]. We leveraged multiple

advantages of zebrafish models as a translational model for fundamental process discovery.

Zebrafish have a remarkable degree of $\approx$ 70% genetic similarity with humans that extends to

genes associated with NDDs. The zebrafish Panx1a gene is 72% identical to human Panx1. The

simple vertebrate nervous system develops rapidly in a transparent body, which facilitates direct

assessment of the impact of MPTP on critical stages of neurodevelopment *ex utero.* Testable

visual-motor behaviors develop early in life in larvae and MPTP treatment is non-invasive and

applied through tank water.

We demonstrate that an acute treatment with MPTP induced rapid neurotoxicity; RNA-

seq analysis showed that a four-hour treatment applied to TL larvae (Panx1a$^{+/+}$) initiated

transcriptome-wide expression changes indicating metabolic dysfunction, impaired proteostasis,

neurodegeneration, reduced extracellular ATP, and cell death. MPTP treatment also caused a

dose-dependent reduction of swimming behavior.

Next, the in-house generated Panx1 knockout zebrafish line Panx1a$^{-/-}$ was used to test the

hypothesis that the zebrafish Panx1a ohnologue of mammalian Panx1 acts as a regulatory sensor,

akin to a rheostat, for programmed cell death. Our previous research using this Panx1a$^{-/-}$ line has

demonstrated that global depletion of Panx1a channels in 6dpf zebrafish larvae caused

visuomotor deficiencies associated with dopaminergic signaling alterations [44]. By contrasting

how MPTP affected the Panx1a$^{-/-}$ and parental Panx1a$^{+/+}$ strains, RNA-seq and a computational

Gene Set Expression Analysis (GSEA) [45] demonstrated that in low ATP conditions Panx1a

ablation caused a modulation of NDD hallmark genes, such as the reduced differential expression

of the functional homologs of mammalian alpha-Synuclein or the microtubule-associated Tau

proteins. The reduced expression of the NDD hallmark genes coincided with enhanced

differential expression of pathways regulating oxidative phosphorylation, cell death, lipid

synthesis, ROS signaling, and cellular quality control, influencing cell survival. Further, ablation

of Panx1 altered the molecular composition of synapses; the expression of pre- and post-synaptic

genes including but not limited to major neurotransmitter receptors, and anion and cation

channels were downregulated, suggesting a major impairment of synaptic function. The study of

in-vivo recorded local field potentials (LFPs) from the optic tectum and the dorsomedial (DM)

region of the pallium further demonstrated that the synapse alterations caused neuronal network

dysfunctions. The testing of swimming behavior showed that the genetic ablation of Panx1

worsened impairments during a metabolic crisis.

Collectively, our study offers first-time insights into the molecular and cellular events

underlying early-stage NDDs, explicitly focusing on Panx1's role in PD-like neurodegeneration.

By leveraging the advantages of gene-edited zebrafish larvae as a model organism and by using

acute treatment with MPTP, we have made significant strides in understanding the functional

consequences of Panx1 manipulation, providing evidence that the loss of Panx1 causes a

reduction of key hallmarks of NDDs. However, we must recognize that targeting Panx1 during an

experimentally induced metabolic crisis has severe consequences, such as synaptic and neuronal

network dysfunction, aberrant proteostasis, altered energy homeostasis, and neuronal cell death.

Our results will contribute to a better understanding of the roles of Panx1 as a regulatory sensor

in the complex mechanisms causing NDDs.

Results

Acute treatment with MPTP altered the locomotion of zebrafish larvae.

Pharmacological targeting of mitochondrial metabolism in dopaminergic neurons through

acute MPTP treatment was evaluated to establish a practical alternative – a single acute treatment

for 4 hours during a critical developmental stage – to substitute chronic MPTP treatments, and to

investigate initial stages leading to NDDs. The six-days post fertilization (6dpf) timepoint was

chosen based on the expression profile of Panx1 genes in rodents and fish; the expression reaches

a transient peak before birth in rodents [19], and when zebrafish transition to free-swimming

juveniles.

To assess the impact of MPTP treatment, we utilized a modified visual-motor response

(VMR) assay, measuring zebrafish larvae responsiveness to gradual Light-ON changes up to

1200lux after a period of Light-Off **(Fig 1a).** A principal component analysis (PCA) identified 11

swimming behavioral parameters, with PC1 and PC2 capturing over 72% and 24% of the data

variance, respectively**.** The total swim distance (*totaldist*) was the most influential parameter in

PC1 to quantify differences between MPTP-treated and untreated genotypes **(Fig. 1b)**.

In the VMR assay, both $Panx1a^{+/+}$ and $Panx1a^{-/-}$ larvae responded to MPTP treatment

(1µM to 50µM) in Light-ON conditions, with a decline in swimming distance as the MPTP dose

increased **(Fig. 1c).** Acute MPTP treatment consistently decreased swimming activity in both

$Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$ and $Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae compared to untreated controls, even at the lowest

concentration tested. The average total distance covered in a 10-second time bin was 25.6 ± 0.8

mm ($Panx1a^{+/+}$) and 21.1 ± 0.4 mm ($Panx1a^{-/-}$), with no statistically significant differences

between genotypes in the presence of MPTP. **Fig. 1d** shows that the initial Light-OFF period

reduced swimming distance to a baseline, followed by the resumption of swimming activity in

untreated larvae as light increased from 10% (400lux) to 40% (1200lux) Light-ON over the next

40 minutes. This result underscores the impact of Panx1a depletion and acute MPTP treatment on

the visuomotor response in 6dpf zebrafish larvae.

Figure 1: *Acute treatment with MPTP alters zebrafish locomotion.* a) Experimental setup for video recording and light stimulation of 6dpf larvae during a modified visual-motor response (VMR) assay. b) Principal Component Analysis of 11 behavioral parameters. c) Concentration-dependent impact of acute MPTP treatment on swimming behavior without (control) or after 4hrs exposure. d) Cumulative traces representing the Mean (dark blue/orange) and SEM (light blue/orange) for n=16 larvae/genotype and MPTP treatment condition. The horizontal dashed line indicates the average total swimming distance of untreated Panx1a^{+/+} larvae. Statistics: Student t-test; Values represent Mean ± SEM for total distance of swimming in mm in a 10-second time-bin. The image in a) was created with BioRender.

MPTP treatment of Panx1a^{+/+} and Panx1a^{-/-} larvae caused transcriptional responses associated

with altered mitochondrial metabolism, cell homeostasis, and cell death.

The response to MPTP exposure was characterized by transcriptional changes indicative

of its neurotoxic effects. Experimental RNA-seq analysis and a computational approach aimed to

elucidate the transcriptional responses to acute MPTP treatment in Panx1a knockout (Panx1a$^{-/-}$

^{MPTP}) and wild-type (Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$) larvae, unraveling key regulatory pathways underlying

MPTP neurotoxicity.

Baseline gene expression profiles of Panx1a$^{-/-}$ and Panx1a$^{+/+}$ larvae were different before

MPTP exposure, with n=724 genes upregulated and n=1030 genes downregulated in the

knockout group compared to wild-type controls **(Fig.2a)**. Following a brief exposure to MPTP (4

hours), both genotypes exhibited substantial alterations in gene expression patterns, highlighting

the dynamic nature of the cellular response to MPTP. Notably, the magnitude of gene expression

dysregulation was markedly amplified in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae post-treatment compared to

Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ counterparts (downregulated: Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ n=3764 genes, Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ n=4828

genes; upregulated: Panx1a-$^{+/+MPTP}$ n=3500 genes, Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ n=4749 genes; false discovery

rate: FDR < 0.05) **(Fig. 2b,c)**.

To interpret the biological pathways perturbed by MPTP treatment, we conducted a gene

set expression analysis (GSEA) [45]. The visualization of enrichment within the top 50 Hallmarks

pathways provided first insights into intricate regulatory networks modulating neuronal responses

to MPTP exposure in the context of Panx1a ablation. Our analysis revealed significant

enrichment of pathways associated with metabolism and cell death, including oxidative

phosphorylation (Oxiphospho), glycolysis, reactive oxygen species (ROS) regulation,

mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) signaling, fatty acid metabolism, and

hypoxia. Considering the mitochondrial dysfunction in MPTP-induced neurotoxicity, the next

step of our investigation prioritized the analysis of how Panx1a ablation affected pathways linked

to mitochondrial homeostasis and their relationship to neurodegeneration.

Figure 2: *MPTP treatment caused greater disruption of gene expression in Panx1a⁻/⁻ larvae.* a-c)
illustrates the log2 fold change of differentially expressed genes pre- and post-MPTP exposure,
with changes exceeding a two-fold threshold highlighted in red (upregulated) or blue
(downregulated). d-f) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealing normalized enrichment
scores (NES) for the top 50 ranked Hallmark pathways. Enriched pathways are denoted in red
(padj <0.05), indicating significant alterations in biological processes associated with MPTP
treatment in knock-out larvae compared to wild-type counterparts.

Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment altered the differential gene expression of biomarkers

for NDDs.

Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment induce differential gene expression of biomarkers

associated with NDDs. We examined gene expression patterns linked to neurodegenerative

pathways, including AD, PD, ALS, and HD, by leveraging the KEGG's Pathway-based

Classification of Diseases database and the ZFIN database to identify zebrafish orthologs of

human or mouse genes annotated in KEGG.

The computational analysis unveiled insight into distinct differential gene expression

(DEG) across the selected disease categories following Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment

(Fig. 3a and Suppl. Table 1). The classifier *GO:Pathway to Neurodegeneration* identified 22

regulated genes. The downregulation of the microtubule-associated tau gene (*mapta*) stood out,

given its implication in neurofibrillary degeneration observed in AD and PD. In general, the

overlap in DEG patterns following Panx1a ablation was notable considering the distinct clinical

manifestations of PD, AD, ALS, and HD **(Fig. 3b-f).** A shared feature of AD, ALS, and HD

pathways was NMDA-receptor gene downregulation (*grin2aa, grin2ab, grin2bb*). Noteworthy

changes in PD included the downregulation of zebrafish variants of human alpha-Synuclein, the

beta- and gamma-synuclein genes (*sncb, sncg*), along with the dopamine receptor 1b (*dr1b*), the

Ca^{2+} calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II beta isoforms (*camk2b1, camk2b2*), and the

DnaJ heat shock protein family (Hsp40) member C5 (*dnaj5c*) encoding a protein with anti-

neurodegenerative properties. The downregulation of zebrafish orthologs (*camk2b2, camk2bl*) of

the murine Ca^{2+}/calmodulin dependent protein kinase II Beta, a protein found in the Panx1

interactome [46], showed that Panx1a loss also affected a potential protein binding partner. All

disease pathways genes showed an upregulation of mitochondrial electron transport chain genes

(*uqcr10, uqcrfs, ndufa11*), implying that mitochondrial overactivation was a shared molecular

hallmark. The DEG suggested that early in larval life ablation of Panx1 and acute exposure to a

single dose of MPTP prevented or delayed the activation of neurodegenerative pathways at the

cost of disturbing mitochondrial homeostasis.

Figure 3: *Loss-of Panx1a and MPTP treatment altered the differential expression of genes in neurodegenerative pathways.* a-e) Volcano plots illustrate the differential gene expression of disease pathway genes in Panx1a[+/+MPTP] and Panx1a[-/-MPTP] larvae. The red dots represent regulated genes. Down and up refers to genes with reduced or enhanced expression in Panx1a^{-/-} larvae genes (cutoff filter: log2 >0.5 or <-0.5; padj <0.01). f) Heatmap illustrating shared and distinct deregulation of the expression of genes in both genotypes. Genes in grey represent all 671 differentially expressed genes detected in both genotypes. AD, Alzheimer's disease; PD, Parkinson's disease, ALS, Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis; HD, Huntington's disease.

Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment caused a metabolic crisis affecting biological processes

related to energy metabolism, hypoxia, reactive oxygen species, and fatty acid homeostasis.

A comprehensive computational analysis, leveraging GSEA, explored the impact of

MPTP treatment on Panx1a^{+/+} and Panx1a^{-/-} zebrafish larvae's mitochondrial health. The GSEA

272   result demonstrated an enrichment of the oxidative phosphorylation pathway in both

273   Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ (n=100) and Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae (n=155) with a log2 fold filter set to >0.5 and <-

274   0.5 and a padj of <0.01 **(Fig. 4a)**. Only n=38 genes were different in untreated controls showing

275   that MPTP treatment impacted this pathway significantly.

276   The notable differential gene expression modulation and directionality of changes in

277   Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae was also found in biological processes downstream of oxidative

278   phosphorylation, such as *GO:0006096 – Glycolysis, GO:0001666 - Response to Hypoxia,*

279   *GO:0000302 - Response to reactive oxygen species (ROS), GO:0030968 - Unfolded Protein*

280   *Response (UPR), and GO:0006631 - Fatty acid metabolic process* **(Fig. 4d-h; Suppl. Tables 2-**

281   **6)**.

282   Notable Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ specific regulations of glycolysis genes were the dysregulation of

283   two enolase genes, *eno1a/b* and *eno2*, key enzymes for cellular bioenergetics, without which

284   glycolysis cannot produce ATP, which reduces hypoxia tolerance **(Fig. 4d, Suppl. Table 2)**.

285   Likewise, the differential expression of pyruvate kinases *pkma/b*, phosphofructokinases *pfkma/b*,

286   and phosphoglycerate mutase A (*pgam1a*) demonstrate the switch to an oxygen-independent, and

287   relatively inefficient way of ATP generation when Complex I is blocked by MPTP treatment.

288   Furthermore, MPTP treatment caused the differential expression of hypoxia or ROS

related pathways in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae that can promote neuronal cell death (*hif1al, ldha, ddit4,*

egln3) **(Fig. 4 e,f, Suppl. Tables 3,4)**. A notable change to expression in the unfolded protein

response (UPR) was a gene encoding for a protein, *sec13*, that functions as an activator of the

amino acid-sensing branch of the mTORC1 signaling pathway **(Fig. 4g; Suppl. Table 5)**. Other

regulated genes like *fktn, chac1, atf4a* are part of a signaling complex linked to synaptic function.

More specifically, the mammalian homolog of *fktn* regulates synaptic function via inhibition of

the ATF4 transcription factors complex with DISC1 (Disrupted-in-schizophrenia 1), or function

like *chac1* as a pro-apoptotic component of the unfolded protein response pathway by mediating

the pro-apoptotic effects of the ATF4 in the ATF4-ATF3-DDIT3/CHOP cascade.

298   The notable upregulation of *Fatty acid metabolic process* (GO:0006631) illustrated how

Panx1a ablation affected energy homeostasis **(Fig. 4h; Suppl. Table 6)**. For example, the

upregulated fatty acid elongation enzymes represented by *elovl1b, elovl4b, elovl5,* or *elovl7a/b*

are important for the mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation, the major pathway for the degradation

of fatty acids that is essential for maintaining energy homeostasis. The transcriptional regulation

of five apolipoproteins *apoea/b, apoa1a, apobb.1*, and *apoc1* signified pleiotropic effects on

lipoprotein metabolism. The upregulation of *apoea/b* was notable since human ortholog(s) are

implicated in multiple diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, artery disease, cerebrovascular

disease, eye disease, and familial hyperlipidemia. We reasoned that an accumulation of fatty

acids in mitochondria above physiological levels could have harmed mitochondrial function in

Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae causing the observed changes to hypoxia and reactive oxygen species-related

processes.

310   We reasoned that the altered expression of genes in the oxidative phosphorylation

pathway affected ATP production, with the absence of the ATP-release channel Panx1a

amplifying the effect of Complex I blockage by MPP+. To validate this hypothesis, we quantified

extracellular ATP concentrations both before and after MPTP treatment in both genotypes. The

impact of MPTP treatment on extracellular ATP levels was pronounced in Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae,

demonstrating a significant reduction (Panx1a$^{+/+}$: 3.12 ± 0.28 nM/μg; Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.96 ± 0.27

nM/μg; P-value=0.0011), indicating a limitation in ATP production **(Fig. 4i)**. Conversely, MPTP

treatment had a minor effect on Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae, revealing a decrease of low ATP levels

(Panx1a$^{-/-}$: 1.73 ± 0.31 nM/μg; Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.95 ± 0.15 nM/μg; P-value=0.044).

In summary, the identified molecular and biochemical changes after short-term MPTP

treatment demonstrate that the depletion of extracellular ATP after inhibition of Complex I

triggered the differential expression of specific pathways that sense and respond to the metabolic

crisis.

Figure 4: *Acute treatment with MPTP caused a metabolic crisis and reduced ATP release in*
Panx1a⁺/⁺ larvae. a-c) Differentially expressed genes in the oxidative phosphorylation pathway.
Dots in blue and red represent significantly regulated genes in the oxidative phosphorylation

pathway. Grey dots represent all DEGs. d-h) Heatmaps illustrate the differential expression of
genes identified in the biological processes: GO:0006096 – Glycolysis, GO:0001666 - Response
to Hypoxia, GO:0000302 - Response to reactive oxygen species (ROS), GO:0030968 - Unfolded
Protein Response (UPR), and GO:0006631 - Fatty acid metabolic process. i) ATP concentrations
were measured before and after acute MPTP treatment. MPTP treatment caused a significant
downregulation in Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae (P-value < 0.05). No significant differences in ATP
concentrations were observed in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae. The ATP concentrations were adjusted for
protein concentration to evaluate extracellular ATP levels across multiple samples. Each sample
represented a pool of 50 6dpf larvae. Statistical approach: Welch's t-test. The number of
experimental replicates: Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-}$ untreated controls n=9; MPTP treatment
conditions n=3. Mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was indicated as *: P-value * <0.05, ns =
not significant.
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Loss of Panx1a promotes cell death in the acute MPTP model.

The investigation into the role of Panx1a in cell death was prompted by the anticipated

consequences of altered mitochondrial metabolism, ROS, Hypoxia and the UPR. The enrichment

of genes in the mTORC1 pathway, identified through GSEA (see Fig. 2), implied disturbances in

mTOR signaling, which could impact various pathways including glucose metabolism, energy

production, mitochondrial function, cell growth, and autophagy. The differential gene expression

of mTORC1 pathway genes in untreated controls (n=13), Panx1$^{+/+MPTP}$ (n= 74), and Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$

larvae (n=121) exhibited an enrichment trend that showed that Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ were affected most

by the mitochondria dysfunction **(Fig. 5a-c)**.

In Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae, notable groups of genes upregulated in the mTOR pathway

included ten Wnt/frizzled genes (*wnt5a, wnt7aa, wnt9a/b, wnt10a, wnt11, fdz4, fdz6, fdz7a/b*)

with known roles in early apoptosis stages. Additionally, the upregulation of eight subunits of

vacuolar ATPases (*V-ATPase; atp6v1aa atp6v1ab atp6v1b2, atp6v1g1 atp6v1h atp6v1c1b*

atp6v1ba atp6v1f) implicated a disruption of cellular homeostasis. Furthermore, late

endosomal/lysosomal adaptor and MAPK and mTOR activator genes (LAMTOR/Ragulator)

encoding scaffold proteins forming complexes that regulate multiprotein signaling units on late

endosomes/lysosomes were involved in acidification (*lamtor2, lamtor3, lamtor5*).

Other functional enrichment analyses showed differentially expressed genes associated

with cell death (GO:0008219), autophagy (GO:0006914), and the execution phase of apoptosis

(GO:0097194). In Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae, 223 cell death-related genes were identified, while

Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae exhibited regulation in 107 genes **(Fig 5d, Suppl Table 7)**. The analysis of

autophagy genes mirrored the overall pattern of cell death, with a substantial six to eleven-fold

increase in differentially expressed genes when comparing untreated with MPTP-treated larvae

(Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$, n=38; Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$, n=70) **(Fig. 5e)**. The unique molecular response in the

absence of Panx1a was evident, with Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae showing a notable increase in

differentially upregulated (n=35) and downregulated genes (n=16) **(Suppl Table 8)**. Among the

upregulated genes, transmembrane 41b (*tmem41b*), tumor protein p53-inducible nuclear protein 1

(*tp53inp1*), and the stimulator of interferon (*sting1*), pointed towards the activation of autophagy

and cellular stress response. These genes play essential roles in autophagosome biogenesis, pro-

apoptotic responses, and inflammation mediation, respectively, contributing to cellular

adaptations and responses under MPTP-induced conditions.

Activation of the execution phase of apoptosis was observed in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae, as

demonstrated by the upregulation of seven members of the caspase gene family, including

initiators of apoptosis *casp9* and *casp20*, and executioner phase caspases *casp3a, casp6a,*

casp6b1, and *casp7*. The log2 fold ratio = 7.15 upregulation of the inflammatory caspase *caspbl*

(alternative name casp19b) was particularly notable as a hallmark for the execution phase of

apoptosis, downstream of the assembly of the inflammasome complex, leading to the cleavage

and activation of the proinflammatory cytokine *il1b* **(Fig. 5f, Suppl Table 9)**.

To assess cell death, an *in-vivo* cell death stain, acridine orange (AO), was utilized **(Fig.**

5g). Notably, AO-stained nuclei were particularly prominent in brain regions known for

dopaminergic neuron expression or the optic tectum, which receives inputs from hypothalamic

dopaminergic neurons. In the absence of treatment, Panx1a$^{+/+}$ larvae exhibited the lowest number

of dead cells (Panx1a$^{+/+}$ = 39.67, Panx1a$^{-/-}$ = 66). The number of AO-positive cells in Panx1a$^{-/-}$

larvae was significantly higher compared to Panx1a$^{+/+}$ (P-value = 0.0056) **(Fig. 5h)**. MPTP

treatment increased cell death in both genotypes (P-value = 0.0130), with an average of n=174

AO-positive cells in Panx1a$^{-/-}$MPTP and n=125 in Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae.

In summary, the results underscore a multifaceted role for Panx1a in modulating gene

expression related to cell death, apoptosis, and autophagy. Imaging of cell death *in vivo*

implicates regions with loss of dopaminergic neurons.

Figure 5: *Loss of Panx1a promotes cell death in the acute MPTP model.* a) Differentially
regulated genes in the mTORC1 pathway. Blue and red dots represent regulated genes in the
pathway. Grey dots represent all DEGs. b-d) Significantly regulated genes (padj ≤ 0.01) were
compared against zfin lists of cell death, apoptosis, and autophagy. Regulated genes were plotted.
e) Experimental outline of the *in-vivo* cell death assay. Representative projection views of Z-
stacks representing a depth ≈ 100µm collected from untreated and MPTP-treated Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and
Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae. f) Quantification of acridine-orange positive cells. Statistical approach:
Significance was calculated using an unpaired t-test. Number of larvae, n=7 for all treatments.
Mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was indicated as *: P-values * <0.05, ** <0.01, *** <0.005,
**** <0.001.

Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment altered neurotransmitter receptors and the ion

homeostasis of chemical synapses.

A computational DESeq2 analysis of the RNA sequencing analysis, employing a log2

gene filter of >0.5 and <-0.5 with a padj < 0.01, revealed 681 differentially expressed genes in

Panx1$^{-/-MPTP}$ and Panx1$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae. Among these genes, 267 were upregulated and 414 were

downregulated in both genotypes. Functional enrichment analysis, utilizing curated gene lists

from public repositories such as ZFIN.org and KEGG, along with Gene Ontology search terms,

delineated specific alterations in ion homeostasis and neurotransmitter receptors at chemical

synapses **(Fig 6)**.

The analysis of the Gene Ontology search terms *GO:Biological Process* and *GO:Cellular*

Compartment indicated significant upregulation of biosynthetic pathways, suggestive of

increased metabolic activities in 6dpf larvae with Panx1a ablation **(Fig. 6a,b)**. Conversely,

downregulated genes were enriched for biological processes related to neurotransmission at

chemical synapses, synaptic signaling, and neurodevelopment, affecting both pre- and

postsynaptic compartments. Specifically, the query term *GO:0045202 – Synapse* identified 53

downregulated genes and no upregulated genes, while the terms *GO:0098793 – Presynapse* and

GO:0098794 – Postsynapse identified 35 and 36 differentially expressed genes, respectively

(Fig. 6c,d; Suppl Table 10).

STRING analysis of the downregulated genes demonstrated a significant impact of

Panx1a ablation on GABAergic and glutamatergic transmission. Notably, ligand-gated and G

protein-coupled GABA receptor subtypes *(gabra6b, gabrb1, gabrb3, gabrb4, gabrz, gabrg2,*

gabrr2a) (**Cluster I)**, ionotropic NMDA (*grin2aa, grin2ab, grin2bb*), AMPA (*gria4a*), and

kainite receptors (*grik2*) were downregulated alongside other regulators of synaptic plasticity

(**Cluster II Suppl. Fig. 1**). For example, the mouse ortholog of *shisa9a* is a regulator of short-

term neuronal synaptic plasticity in the dentate gyrus associated with AMPA receptor function.

Likewise, the discs large MAGUK scaffold protein genes *dlg2* (PSD93) and *dlg4* (PSD95) were

downregulated.

Cluster III encompassed genes encoding pre-synaptic proteins with essential roles in

neurotransmitter release via the formation of the SNARE complex (synaptosomal-associated

protein: *snap25a, snap25b*), calcium dynamics in response to depolarization, or vesicle

exocytosis (synaptotagmin: *syt1a, syt5b*; syntaxin: *stx1b, stx12l, stxbp1a*; complexin; *cplx2,*

cplx2l, cplx3b, cplx4a). The presynaptic downregulation of glutamate decarboxylase gene 2

(*gad2*) expression is notable; the Gad2 protein catalyzes the presynaptic production of GABA,

which suggests a negative feedback loop as downregulation of GABA production corresponds

with reduced GABA receptor expression.

Furthermore, deregulation of inorganic ion transporters (n=45) and calcium binding

proteins (n=27) was observed in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae **(Fig. 6d).** Synaptically localized anionic ion

transporters (n=15) with reduced expression in the nervous system **(Suppl. Fig 1, Clusters I, II)**

included AMPA and NMDA receptors, or chloride permeable GABA receptors. The four up-

regulated genes included a Na-Cl cotransporter-like protein (*slc12a10.2*), an anion:anion

antiporter with bicarbonate transmembrane transporter activity (*slc4a1b*), or a gene encoding a

voltage-gated chloride channel (*clcn2c*) that maintains chloride ion homeostasis. Deregulation of

cation transporters (n=25) included transporters and channels permeable for potassium (*kcna1b,*

kcnip1b, kcnip3b, kcn1a.1, kcnk3b), calcium (*cacna1fb, cacna1ha*), sodium (*scn3b*), or co-

transporters for sodium and chloride (*slc12a10.2*)*,* symporters for potassium and chloride

(*slc12a5b*)*,* a potassium-dependent sodium/calcium exchanger (*slc24a5*), or a

GABA:sodium:chloride symporter (*slc6a1a*)*.* The loss of Panx1a also affected the differential

expression of calcium-binding proteins (n=26). Notable examples include members of the

protocadherin gene family (*pcdh1a, pcdh8. Pcdh17, pcdh19*) regulating neurotransmission and

synaptic plasticity.

457   Overall, the computational analysis suggested that Panx1a ablation, in conjunction with

458   MPTP treatment, perturbed ion homeostasis and neurotransmitter release at synapses, affecting

459   neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity across pre- and postsynaptic compartments.

Figure 6: *Loss-of Panx1a and MPTP treatment altered the differential expression of genes localized in chemical synapses.* a,b) Summary of the ten most enriched Gene Ontology Biological Processes and Cellular compartments found in Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ treated larvae. The P-values of each category represent the false discovery rate presented as inverse log10. c), d) Volcano plots represent the differentially expressed genes in Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ treated larvae (red dots). Gray dots represent the 671 differentially expressed genes found in both genotypes. The cutoff filter was: log2 >0.5 or <-0,5 and padj <0.01.

Loss-of-Panx1a function alters the power of theta, beta- and gamma-waves in the optic tectum.

The impact of MPTP-induced cell death and alterations in energy metabolism on brain activity, was assessed Local Field Potential (LFP) recordings. Our focus was on determining whether the

absence of Panx1a influenced local neuronal circuits following acute MPTP treatment. We

strategically positioned electrodes in the optic tectum (OT) and lateral dorsomedial forebrain

(DM), regions previously identified as having cell loss after exposure to 10μM MPTP **(Fig. 7a).**

Simultaneous recordings of brain waves were performed on awake, immobilized 6dpf

larvae. We categorized frequency spectra into specific bands (Theta: 3.5-7.5Hz, Beta: 12-30Hz,

Gamma: 35-45Hz), employing a common approach used in mammalian electrophysiological data

analysis that is applicable to zebrafish. Raw traces **(Fig. 7b)** underwent lowpass filtering

(<300Hz) to isolate Theta, Beta, and Gamma waves **(Fig. 7c,d).** Our LFP analysis focused on

computing Power Spectra Densities (PSDs) at these frequencies, with ranges selected from

human brain wave investigation.

Significant inverse relationships were observed for theta, beta, and gamma power in the

OTs of both genotypes (PSD % values: Theta - $Panx1a^{+/+}$ 0.253 vs $Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.019, P-value

< 0.0001, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.196 vs $Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.275, P-value = 0.0052; Beta - $Panx1a^{+/+}$: 0.018 vs

$Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.011, P-value < 0.0001, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.009 vs $Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.024, P-value <

0.0001; Gamma - $Panx1a^{+/+}$: 0.227 vs $Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.397, P-value = 0.0012, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.145 vs

$Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.131, P-value = 0.849). Similar trends were observed in the DM following MPTP

treatment in both genotypes. PSDs of $Panx1a^{+/+}$ and $Panx1^{-/-}$ larvae either decreased in $Panx1a^{+/+}$

(Theta: $Panx1a^{+/+}$: 0.339 vs $Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.157, P-value < 0.0001, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.330 vs $Panx1a^{-/-}$

^{MPTP}: 0.231, P-value = 0.188), remained unchanged (Beta: $Panx1a^{+/+}$: 0.016 vs $Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$:

0.015, P-value = 0.660, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.013 vs $Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.014, P-value = 0.978), or decreased

in $Panx1a^{+/+}$ and increased in $Panx1a^{-/-}$ (Gamma: $Panx1a^{+/+}$: 0.407 vs $Panx1a^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.267, P-

value = 0.0465, $Panx1a^{-/-}$: 0.101 vs $Panx1a^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.264, P-value < 0.0001) **(Fig. 7e,f).**

We demonstrated that the LFPs in neuronal circuits in the OT and DM regions responded

differently to MPTP+ when Panx1a was present. It was concluded that the changes occurring

within selected spectral frequency bands connect functions of Panx1 to synaptic plasticity and

mammalian CNS circuit pathophysiology.

Our findings demonstrate differential responses in LFPs within neuronal circuits of the

OT and DM regions to MPTP when Panx1a is present. The observed changes in selected spectral

frequency bands suggest a connection between Panx1 functions and synaptic plasticity, shedding

light on mammalian CNS circuit pathophysiology.

Figure 7: *Loss-of-Panx1a function alters the power of theta, beta- and gamma-waves in the optic*
tectum. a) Representative image of a two-electrode setup with electrode #1 and electrode#2
placed into the optic tectum (OT) and dorsomedial forebrain (DM), respectively. b) Raw
recording traces before isolating c,d) theta (3.5 – 7Hz), beta (12 -30Hz), and low gamma-wave
(35 – 45Hz) frequency ranges. The red star indicates a reference point in the traces. e,f)
Comparisons of the theta, beta, and gamma-power of Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae without
(control) and with 10μM MPTP treatment. Statistical approach: Outliers were removed using a
ROUT test (Q = 1%). Significance was calculated using a Welch's t-test. Number of larvae, n = 8
for Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-}$. Mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was indicated as *: P-values *
<0.05, ** <0.01, *** <0.005, **** <0.001, ns = not significant.
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Loss-of-Panx1a reverses the coherence of local field potentials.

A coherence analysis of LFPs in the frequency range from 0 to 60hz tested the impact of Panx1a

ablation and MPTP treatment on the connectivity between the optic tectum (OT) and lateral

dorsomedial forebrain (DM), two pivotal regions in the ascending visual pathway **(Fig. 8a).** The

zebrafish ascending visual pathway comprises polysynaptic connections, with retinal input to the

OT and subsequent projections from the OT to the lateral preglomerular complex and the

pallium, including the DM [47,48].

MPTP treatment caused a reduction in coherence between OT and DM in Panx1a$^{+/+}$ larvae

across theta (Panx1a$^{+/+}$: 0.764, Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.470, P-value < 0.0001) and beta frequencies

(Panx1a$^{+/+}$: 0.650, Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.425, P-value < 0.0001) **(Fig. 8b,c)**. Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae exhibited

the converse effect, with augmented coherence in theta (Panx1a$^{-/-}$: 0.523, Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.469, P-

value < 0.0001) and beta frequencies (Panx1a$^{-/-}$: 0.330, Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$: 0.490, P-value < 0.0001).

Prior investigations have associated elevated beta frequency coherence with Parkinson's disease

pathology [49]. The potential ramifications of the observed beta frequency coherence increase in

Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae warranted further exploration. Furthermore, Panx1a$^{+/+}$ larvae demonstrated a

notable increase in low gamma coherence (Panx1a^{+/+}: 0.525, Panx1a[+/+MPTP]: 0.612, P-value

0.0001), a phenomenon previously linked to uncertainty [50].

535   Collectively, alterations in theta, beta, and low gamma coherence in Panx1a^{+/+} larvae

suggested that MPTP treatment induced a functional modulation of neural network mechanisms,

likely involving a combination of loss of cell homeostasis, synaptic plasticity, and cell death.

Figure 8. *Loss-of-Panx1a function reverses the coherence of local field potentials.*
a) Outline of the ascending visual pathway. b,c) Shows the coherence of local field potentials
measured in the optic tectum (OT) and the dorso-medial forebrain (DM) of 6dpf Panx1a^{+/+} and
Panx1a^{-/-} larvae. The traces represent the 95% confidence intervals (CI) without (in grey) and
after 4hrs of treatment with 50µM MPTP (in red). d) The theta (3.5 – 7Hz), beta (12 -30Hz) and
gamma-waves (35 – 45Hz) coherence without (control, in grey) and after MPTP treatment (in

red). Statistical approach: Outliers were removed using a ROUT test (Q = 1%). Significance was
calculated using a Welch's t-test. Number of larvae, n = 8 for Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-}$.
Mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was indicated as *: P-values * <0.05, ** <0.01, ***<0.005,
**** < 0.001, ns= not significant.
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Discussion

In this study acute MPTP treatment of 6dpf larvae served as a model to study the role of Panx1 in

a period of zebrafish neurodevelopment that is considered to resemble late-term to birth in

Mammalia. Perturbation of this developmental period is considered correlated with the onset of

diverse neuropathological outcomes including sensory and motor deficits or learning disabilities

found in neurodegenerative disorders. The principal results of this study introduce a new

perspective on the role of Panx1a channels in the context of acute MPTP-induced changes of

mitochondrial health; the evidence supports functions of Panx1a akin to a rheostat, regulating cell

death, synapse function, and mitochondrial homeostasis.

Panx1a alters pathways to neurodegeneration.

Utilizing computational approaches, we identified an intricate interplay between Panx1a and

neurodegenerative pathways following exposure to MPTP, a neurotoxin commonly employed in

Parkinson's disease (PD) models. The analysis reveals compelling associations with PD and other

neurodegenerative disorders, including Alzheimer's disease (AD), Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

(ALS), and Huntington's Disease (HD), thus highlighting the broad impact of Panx1a

dysregulation on neuronal health. Specifically, the biomarker deregulation was consistent with

Panx1a functioning as a molecular hub for signaling pathways integrating synaptic plasticity,

cellular homeostasis, and mitochondrial health.

Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae showed a notable downregulation of beta-synuclein (*sncb*) and

gamma1-synuclein (*sncgb*) genes. Zebrafish lack the expression of alpha-synuclein, a molecular

hallmark of PD, but express three synuclein genes known as the *sncb*, *sncga*, and *sncgb* in

catecholaminergic neurons throughout the CNS [51,52]. *Sncb* and *sncg* gene ablation in zebrafish

caused a significant reduction in motor activity and lowered the level of dopamine in the brain,

indicating that zebrafish synuclein proteins are required for movement regulation and dopamine

homeostasis [53]. In humans, ß-synuclein downregulation has been correlated with the clinical

phenotype and neuropathological diagnosis of a specific molecular subtype of dementia with

Lewy bodies, characterized by a strong decrease of β-synuclein in the frontal and temporal

cortices [54]. The morphological substrate, i.e. α-synuclein-immunoreactive Lewy bodies, and

Lewy neurites, is the same in both Parkinson's disease with dementia and Lewy body dementia.

Furthermore, our investigation unveiled a significant reduction in the expression of

microtubule-associated protein tau (*mapta*), a hallmark of AD pathology, in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae.

This finding suggests a disruption in axonal transport processes [55,56], implicating Panx1a in the

maintenance of cytoskeletal integrity crucial for neuronal function. Interestingly, the number of

known human pathologies involving deregulated Tau expression/metabolism is increasing [57]. In

addition to Tau aggregation and hyperphosphorylation, Tau deregulation can occur at the

expression and/or splicing levels, with downregulation found in AD patients [58]. In the adult

zebrafish the deregulation of Tau is affected by hypoxia, promoting neuronal dysfunction and

degeneration [59]. The hypoxia pathway is intensified in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae.

The bidirectional regulation of biomarkers for AD or PD includes the upregulation of

Wnt/ß-catenin pathway genes, tubulin, and mitochondrial genes. The dysregulation of Wnt and

tubulin genes is most likely a molecular fingerprint for dysfunctional synapses; canonical and

non-canonical Wnt pathways need to be well balanced to ensure adequate synapse numbers and

changes. Moreover, activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling inhibits amyloid-β production and tau

protein hyperphosphorylation, and restoring Wnt/β-catenin signaling in AD represents a unique

opportunity for the rational design of novel therapies [60]. Interestingly, ß-catenin is an interaction

partner of Panx1 in human melanoma cell lines [61].

The upregulation of mitochondrial Complex I and Complex III genes, NADH:ubiquinone

oxidoreductase subunit A11 (*ndufa11*), or ubiquinol-cytochrome c oxidoreductases (*uqcr10,*

uqcrfs1), illustrate changes to mitochondrial energy metabolism and homeostasis which are

amplified in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae. The augmented upregulation of pathways leading to hypoxia,

ROS-production, or the unfolded protein response further substantiate that Panx1a expression is

required to maintain metabolic and energetic homeostasis *in vivo*.

In summary, the computational analysis identified molecular indicators suggesting that in

metabolically challenged Panx1a-deficient larvae a cascade of pathological events unfolds that

makes the initiation of pathways to major neurodegenerative disorders less likely. However,

targeting Panx1a may result in offsetting alterations in synaptic composition and compromised

ATP production, accentuating thecritical roles of Panx1a in preserving neuronal viability and

function.

Panx1a alters the molecular composition and function of synapses.

The observed deregulation of genes with pre- and postsynaptic localization in metabolically

challenged zebrafish provides new information about how Panx1 is involved in transsynaptic

activities and synapse organization. We link behavioral and electrophysiological deficits with

molecular changes at synapses that include the downregulation of excitatory ionotropic AMPA-,

NMDA-, and kainite receptors subunits, and the inhibitory GABA-gated chloride ion channel

Gabra6a, or to anion and cation channels. The differential expression of both pre- and postsynaptic

genes showcases transsynaptic effects of Panx1 ablation that support roles of Panx1 channels as a

molecular hub integrating neurotransmission and ion homeostasis.

In 2007, we postulated that Panx1 channel localization in postsynaptic contacts of mouse

cerebral cortex and the hippocampus represents a strategic position for synapse function

modulation [62]. Our group and others later demonstrated that loss of murine Panx1 channels causes

enhanced and functional modifications of synapses encompassing increased hippocampal

excitability, complex dendritic branching, enhanced spine maturation, and an increased proportion

of multiple synaptic contacts in hippocampal neurons of Panx1-KO mice [42,63,64]. Moreover, under

genetic conditions associated with NDDs, suppression of Panx1 can restore synaptic plasticity.

Specifically, in a transgenic Alzheimer's Disease model, pharmacological blocking of Panx1

significantly reduced excitatory synaptic defects by normalizing long-term potentiation (LTP) and

depression (LTD) and improving dendritic arborization and spine density in hippocampal neurons

[65]. Genetic ablation of Panx1 suggested that Panx1 negatively regulated cortical dendritic spines

development [16]. In the visual system, Panx1 channels contribute to synaptic modulation of a

horizontal cell to photoreceptor feedback mechanism in horizontal cell dendrites of the mouse and

the zebrafish [66,67,68]. Furthermore, loss of Panx1 caused altered learning and memory in mice such

as diminished cognitive functions including altered spatial reference memory, or spatial reversal

learning [42,63,69,41]. Collectively, these studies demonstrate a regulatory role for Panx1 in modulating

synapse development, refinement, and plasticity such that reduction of Panx1 generally enhances

synapse properties while maintaining neural circuit balance required for cognitive function within

the CNS.

Despite accumulating evidence for roles of Panx1 in synaptic plasticity, mechanistic details

of the cellular processes and molecular pathways is emerging slowly. Internalization of Panx1 by

ATP and P2X7-dependent endocytosis and degradation [70,71] and suppression of presynaptic

glutamate release via NMDA receptors and Panx1 have been reported [72]. Panx1 coupling to NMDA

receptor functions via Src [28], STIM1/2 [26] or actin, and Rho GTPases, appear to be relevant for

synapse stability [64]. Panx1 channel blockage with the mimetic peptide [10]Panx1 increases the

synaptic level of endocannabinoids (eCB) and the activation of cannabinoid receptors type 1

(CB1Rs), decreasing hippocampal GABAergic efficacy and shifting excitation/inhibition (E/I)

balance toward excitation and facilitating the induction of long-term potentiation [73]. Further, we

have reported a pathway that connects NMDA receptor signaling to the opening of electrical

synapse protein Cx36 via Panx1 and CaMK2a, suggesting active participation of Panx1 in

modulating both chemical and electrical synapse function by using a shared molecular machinery

[74].

In summary, our novel results highlight the significance of Panx1 channels in synaptic

transmission and organization, particularly in metabolically challenged zebrafish. The results

further underscore Panx1's involvement in transsynaptic activities. The observable molecular,

behavioral, and electrophysiological deficits, provide insights into the functional consequences of

Panx1 modulation at synaptic and neural circuit levels. The results from zebrafish and mouse

models allows for cross-species comparisons, and they suggest an evolutionary conservation of

Panx1 function and its diverse roles in synaptic physiology.

Panx1a integrates cellular homeostasis with mitochondrial health.

MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine) treatment has been extensively studied

within the context of molecular pathways leading to neurodegenerative disorders. MPTP inhibits

Complex I of the mitochondrial electron transport chain. Evidence that mitochondrial

perturbation is a driver of synaptic dysfunction has been previously reported for AD [75], PD [76,77],

ALS [78,79], and HD [80,81]. Our main results recapitulate the common deficits following MPTP

treatment such as activation of reactive oxygen species pathways, impaired oxidative

phosphorylation, ATP loss, defective mitochondrial homeostasis, or the unfolded protein

response.

Direct functions of Panx1 in cellular homeostasis and mitochondrial health in the nervous

system *in vivo* have not been formally established, and there is not yet a complete mechanistic

explanation for how Panx1 channels function as a molecular platform for converging signaling

pathways. We would like to propose that Panx1a acts as a sensor, akin to a "rheostat" opening

and closing depending on the metabolic state. By functioning as a molecular regulator with

graded effects, Panx1 can modulate cellular responses in a context-dependent manner. It is

tempting to speculate that the known structural aspects, such as functioning as a large pore ATP

release channel, or a narrow Cl channel [82,83], or interacting with different lipid environments [84], or

interacting proteins [46], contribute to observed alterations.

Loss of Panx1 intensifies the execution phase of cell death.

We recently described low extracellular ATP concentrations in the Panx1a$^{-/-}$ fish in an

experimental model of epilepsy [39]. Whereas genetic ablation and pharmacological blocking of

Panx1 reduced the seizure risk in 6dpf larvae with no evidence for cell death, similarly low levels

of ATP after MPTP treatment in our new study triggered pathways, most prominently those

converging on the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTORC1) complex, leading to cell death.

The different consequences seen in the two experimental models is of significance considering

that the identical fish line was used.

mTOR controls many basic cellular functions such as protein synthesis, energy

metabolism, cell size, lipid metabolism, autophagy, mitochondria, and lysosome biogenesis. In

addition, mTOR-controlled signaling pathways regulate many integrated physiological functions

of the nervous system including neuronal development, synaptic plasticity, memory storage, and

cognition [85]. The perturbation of the mTOR signaling cascade is a common pathophysiological

feature of neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders [86]. Here, the demonstrated alterations to

the composition of synapses, energy homeostasis, and pathways regulating cell death including

autophagy and apoptosis align with the roles of mTOR signaling.

They also align with mTOR functions in Mammalia influenced by the activities of

neuronal surface receptors and channels including N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors (NMDA

receptors), α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptors (AMPA receptors),

brain-derived neurotropic factor (BDNF), and dopaminergic and metabotropic glutamate

receptors (mGluRs), which are vital for biophysical properties of neuronal networks like the

induction and maintenance of LTP and LTD. Together, the reduced expression of NMDA

receptors, AMPA receptors, changes to biophysical properties, and the increase in cell death align

with work in higher vertebrates.

mTOR also acts as a node of convergence downstream of these receptors and several

signaling pathways that include phosphoinositide-dependent kinase-1 (PDK1),

phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) [87], Akt [88], and tuberous sclerosis complex proteins 1 and 2

(Tsc1/2) [89,90]. We excluded the differential expression regulation of these pathways since they did

not meet our threshold criteria. Furthermore, late endosomal/lysosomal adaptor and MAPK and

mTOR activator genes (LAMTOR/Ragulator) were found that can regulate multiprotein signaling

units on late endosomes/lysosomes involved in acidification (*lamtor2, lamtor3, lamtor5*). In

short, the transcriptional profiling in this study identified a profound dysregulation of these

downstream pathways and genes. At the interface of metabolic pathways, the autophagy-

lysosomal pathway functions to respond to reactive oxygen species that are generated from

perturbations of cellular glucose metabolism and bioenergetic function. They maintain

mitochondrial quality and generally serve an important protective function.

Our research also provides insight into the interplay between Panx1a, cellular signaling,

energy metabolism, and calcium homeostasis in safeguarding neuronal health. We provide

evidence that the absence of Panx1 exacerbates cellular death by intensifying repercussions of

low intracellular ATP levels. The depletion of ATP induces apoptosis, a programmed form of cell

death, by impairing the function of ATP-dependent enzymes like caspases, thereby disrupting the

delicate balance between pro-apoptotic and anti-apoptotic proteins.

Notably, Panx1a depletion disturbs the delicate equilibrium between excitatory and

inhibitory signals, exacerbating neuronal dysfunction and ultimately leading to increased rates of

cell death.

Low ATP levels play a pivotal role in triggering cell death pathways through various

mechanisms. One such pathway involves the activation of the AMP-activated Protein Kinase

(AMPK), an energy sensor within cells. While AMPK activation initially aims to restore ATP

levels by inhibiting anabolic processes and stimulating catabolic pathways, prolonged activation

can induce cell death via pro-apoptotic protein activation. Additionally, ATP depletion can lead

to Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER) stress, initiating the unfolded protein response (UPR). While the

UPR aims to restore protein homeostasis, persistent or severe ER stress can trigger apoptotic

pathways.

Specifically, Panx1 channels modulate calcium signaling and are subject to regulation by

calcium-activated kinases such as SRC and CaMKII. The proposed rheostat model suggests that

Panx1 can control calcium influx into cells in a feedback loop with NMDA receptors, thereby

maintaining calcium homeostasis and preventing excessive calcium entry-induced neurotoxicity.

In summary, the main findings emphasize the critical importance of Panx1 in preserving

neuronal viability by regulating energy metabolism, facilitating cellular communication, and

maintaining calcium homeostasis. Understanding the intricate interplay between Panx1 and

cellular pathways implicated in neurodegeneration could provide crucial insights for the

development of targeted interventions against neurodegenerative diseases.

Conclusion

The pathways to neurodegenerative disorders are inherently complex with pathological changes

often not noticed until later in live with the onset of clinical symptoms. Our study presents a

single snapshot on Panx1a function early in life when a whole organism is treated with MPTP.

The wealth of computational and experimental data opens a window of opportunity to investigate

the roles of Panx1a across the lifespan. A longitudinal study from larvae to adult fish using the

acute MPTP zebrafish model is feasible. Other practical and immediately executable tests will

use pharmacological interference with the mTORC1 pathway, autophagy, or Wnt/ß-catenin

signaling to investigate how dampening the cellular, bioelectrical, and behavioral alterations to

energy and cellular homeostasis affect the observed phenotype in the absence of Panx1a. This

suggests that consistent with other approaches for treating NDDs, namely NMDA receptor

modulation, a tenable strategy would be through modulation of Panx1 function, for example by

fine-tuning of Panx1 expression and disorder-specifc signaling pathways. In conclusion, the

primary findings shed light on the multifaceted role of Panx1a in orchestrating cellular

homeostasis and mitigating neurodegenerative pathways. By elucidating its contributions to

diverse neurodegenerative disorders, we unveil Panx1a as a potential therapeutic target for

interventions aimed at modulating neuronal health and combating neurodegeneration.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish lines. Zebrafish (*Danio Rerio*) of strain Tubingen long fin (TL) were maintained in

groups with mixed sex in a recirculation system (Aquaneering Inc., San Diego, CA) at 28ºC on a

14hr light/10hr dark cycle. All animal work was performed at York University's zebrafish

vivarium and in an S2 biosafety laboratory following the Canadian Council for Animal Care

guidelines after approval of the study protocol by the York University Animal Care Committee

(GZ#2019-7-R2). The *Panx1a* knockout line (*panx1a*$^{-/-}$) was generated and characterized in-

house [44,91,92].

Zebrafish Locomotion Assays. The Zebrabox behavior system and the ZebraLab analytical suite

(ViewPoint Life Technology, Lyon, France, http://www.viewpoint.fr) were used for automated

extraction of behavioral outputs and video tracking. Tracking videos were recorded at 30 frames

per second (fps) under infrared (for Light-OFF recording) or visible light (Light-ON)

illumination using a Point Grey Research Dragonfly2 DR2-HIBW camera (Teledyne-FLIR,

Burlington, ON, Canada). Inside the Zebrabox a lightbox provided visible and infrared light from

below for recordings up to 40% light intensity (visible range, 0-1200 lux). 6dpf larvae were

observed in clear 48-well plates maintained at 28ºC throughout the experiment. All experiments

were performed between 12:00 to 2 pm, as larvae (6 dpf) activity was previously reported to

reach a stable level by early afternoon [93]. Locomotor activity scores (total distance ± SEM.; n =

16 per group) were determined from larvae's movements in the time window from 2100 to 2300

seconds. Panx1a$^{+/+}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae were exposed to MPTP (Sigma-Aldrich) for four hours

prior to recording. The Zebrabox provided a Light-OFF stimulus for 20 minutes at 0% intensity

(0 lux), followed by incremental 10% light intensity increases every 10 minutes up to 40% (1200

lux). A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed as described [44,94]. The statistical

analysis of locomotion data used a Welch's t-test.

***In vivo* electrophysiology.** Published procedures were used to prepare anaesthetized 6 days post

fertilization (6dpf) zebrafish larvae for *in vivo* electrophysiology [44,95]. Zebrafish larvae at 6dpf

were anesthetized using 0.3mM Pancuronium bromide (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, ON, Canada)

for 2-3 min until the touch response stopped. Anesthetized larvae were immobilized in freshly

prepared 2% low melting temperature agarose. A Leica S9E dissecting microscope (Leica

Microsystems, Richmond Hill, ON, Canada) was used to orient the dorsal aspect of the larvae to

the gel surface. Embedded larvae were placed on the upright stage of an Olympus BX51

fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Richmond Hill, ON, Canada). Larvae were submerged in

1ml of egg water (E3; pH 7.2-7.4) that was applied topically to the agar. Under direct visual

guidance two glass microelectrodes (1.2mM OD, approximately 1µM tip diameter, 2-7MΩ),

backloaded with 2M NaCl, were placed into the right optic tectum (OT) and the dorsomedial

(DM) region of the pallium. Local field potentials were recorded simultaneously from both

microelectrodes using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Axon Instruments, San Jose, CA, USA).

Voltage recordings were low-pass filtered at 1kHz (-3 dB; eight-pole Bessel), high-pass filtered

at 0.1 Hz, digitized at 10 kHz using a Digidata 1550A A/D interface, and stored on a PC running

pClamp11 software (all Axon Instruments). The basal activity was recorded for 10 minutes under

Light-ON conditions (1000 lux), during which images of the electrode placement were taken for

reference. For each fish, brain activity was normalized to its baseline activity to account for the

biological variability of individual brains. In the treatment group larvae were exposed to MPTP

($50\mu M$) four hours before recording. A temperature of 28ºC was maintained during experiments.

Power spectral density and coherence detection analysis. A Power spectral density (PSD)

estimation was performed by the Welch's method for baseline and MPTP recordings. A moving

window for fast Fourier transform (FFT) computation was used and all windows were averaged.

The frequency bands theta (3.5-7.5 Hz), beta (12-30 Hz) and gamma (35-45 Hz) were extracted

for analysis using NeuroExplorer Version 4 (Nex Technologies, Colorado Springs, CO, 80906,

USA). Changes in PSD between baseline and treatment were analyzed for significance using a

Welch's t-test. A Coherence analysis was performed applying the Hann method for baseline and

MPTP recordings using NeuroExplorer. Changes in the coherence between baseline and

treatment were tested for significance using a Welch's t-test.

Extracellular ATP Assay. For quantification of ATP and protein ≈ 50 6dpf larvae were

collected at experimental endpoints. Larvae were homogenized in $500\mu l$ ice-cold of Phosphate-

Buffered Saline (PROBS) containing $100\mu M$ ARL-67156 (Sigma-Aldrich) and Halt Protease

inhibitor (1:100) (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) for 1min at 30Hz

using the Tissuelyser^{LT} (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Homogenates were transferred to chilled

Eppendorf tubes (⁻20ºC) and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 2min. Supernatants were collected and

snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen before storage at ⁻80ºC. Extracellular ATP measurements used a

96-well format (Greiner Bio-One, Monroe, North Carolina, USA) and the Molecular PROBes®

ATP determination Kit as described by the manufacturer (Life Technologies, Burlington, ON,

Canada). ATP was quantified in replicates of 6 using the Synergy H4 Hybrid Multi-well Plate

Reader (Biotek, Winooski, Vermont, USA). The luminescent assay parameters were: plate

temperature set to 28ºC; a low-intensity shake of the plate for 3s before reading; a 5s integration

time per well; gain setting at 150. In every test, the ATP concentration in experimental samples

was calculated from ATP standard curves (0-1µM ATP) included in the same 96-well plate. Data

were exported from the Gen5 Data Analysis Software (Biotek) and analyzed in Excel and

GraphPad Prism 10. ATP was represented as a normalized concentration per mg of protein. A

NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to measure protein content in

2µL of supernatant from homogenized samples. The final ATP content was expressed after

normalizing the protein content in each sample of pooled larvae [11]. The data sets were compared

using a Welch's t-test.

Cell Death Assay. Up to seven larvae (6dpf) were placed into a 2ml Eppendorf tube in egg

water. MPTP treatment (20µM) was applied for four hours. During the last 60mins, acridine

orange (2.5µl/ml; Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the Eppendorf tube. Following incubation, the

larvae freely swam in 10ml fresh egg water for 10 minutes to remove excess AO. Then, the

larvae were immobilized using the muscle relaxant pancuronium bromide and mounted head

down in 2% agar noble in dishes. Cell death was imaged using a Zeiss LSM700 (Objective 10x

NA0.8; Z-stack ≈ 100µm). All parameters were controlled by ZEN software (ZEISS, North York,

ON, Canada) and consistently applied. Raw 3D volumes were processed for AO-positive cell

detection using Bitplane-Imaris software (Oxford Instruments, Abingdon, UK). Statistics used

unpaired t-test and GraphPad Prism 10.

NGS RNA-sequencing. The transcriptomes of all zebrafish lines used in this research were

analyzed by RNA-seq (NGS-Facility, The Center for Applied Genomics, SickKids, Toronto, ON,

Canada). The reported data was derived from the sequencing of three independent pools of ≈30

age-matched larvae (6dpf). The RNA-seq data are deposited at the NCBI - Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO) database repository (ID pending). Total RNAs were extracted from 30 6dpf

larvae using RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen). The RNA quality was determined using a

Bioanalyzer 2100 DNA High Sensitivity chip (Agilent Technologies, Mississauga, ON, Canada).

The RNA library preparation was performed following the NEB NEBNext Ultra II Directional

RNA Library Preparation protocol (New England Biolabs Inc., Ipswich, MA, USA). RNA

libraries were loaded on a Bioanalyzer 2100 DNA High Sensitivity chip to check for size,

quantified by qPCR using the Kapa Library Quantification Illumina/ABI Prism Kit protocol

(KAPA Biosystems, Wilmington, MA, USA). Pooled libraries were paired-end sequenced on a

High Throughput Run Mode flow cell with the V4 sequencing chemistry on an Illumina HiSeq

2500 platform (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA) following Illumina's recommended protocol to

generate paired-end reads of 126-bases in length.

Differential Gene Expression and Functional Enrichment Analyses. The post-sequencing

processing to final read counts, normalization, and differential gene expression analysis used

multiple software packages, including a two-condition differential expression analysis using the

edgeR R-package, v.3.8.6 () [96,97] and DESeq2 R package version 1.40.2 [98]. Genotypes and

treatments were incorporated into the statistical model and multiple hypothesis testing was

performed. The default filter for DESeq2 used a threshold of $p<0.05$ and the Benjamini-Hochberg

procedure to determine the false discovery rate (FDR), and the adjusted P-value (padj).

Differential gene expression was defined as log2FoldChange >2 or <-2, respectively.

A Gene Set Variation Analysis (GSEA) tested whether a defined set of genes shows

statistically significant, concordant differences between genotypes and treatment groups. This

method calculates sample-wise gene set enrichment scores and estimates variation of pathway

activity over a sample population in an unsupervised manner [98]. The Molecular Signatures

Database (MSigDB) v.5.2 (http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/msigdb/index.jsp), a renowned

repository of curated gene sets encompassing diverse biological pathways was used to source

gene sets for broad Hallmarks. Before GSEA RNAseq data were filtered at padj < 0.01 to

increase the stringency of the analysis. Other tools used to process RNAseq data were HCOP

(https://www.genenames.org/tools/hcop/) and db2db at bioDBnet

(https://biodbnet.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/db/db2db.php) to convert curated human or mouse to zebrafish

genes [99,100]. Curated gene lists were generate with information from the Zebrafish Information

Network (ZFIN) (https://zfin.org/) and the KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes,

https://www.genome.jp/kegg/) databases, and using unique qualifiers from the Gene Ontology

(GO) project (https://geneontology.org/).

Pharmacology. All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Mississauga, Canada):

(MPTP; 1-50µM; cat#: M0896), Pancuronium bromide (Panc; 300µM; cat#P1918), Acridine-

Orange (AO; 15µM; cat#: A6014). All reagents were water-soluble. All concentrations referred

to in the results section are final.

Statistics and data reproducibility. All statistical analyses were performed in NeuroExplorer

VS4, or in GraphPad Prism VS10. Results are represented as the mean ± standard error of the

mean (SEM). For each analysis, a minimum of n ≥ 3 independent experimental replicates were

generated. The normality and homogeneity of the data variance were determined by the "Shapiro-

Wilk Test" and "Levene's Test." A P value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. For all

experiments, sample sizes, statistical tests, and when appropriate P values are indicated in the

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Data Availability. The RNA-seq data are deposited at the NCBI - Gene Expression Omnibus

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