3 ***Panx1 Ablation Aggravates Oxidative Stress and Cell Death by Altering AMPK/mTOR***
4 ***signaling Pathways and the Composition of Synapses in the Zebrafish.***

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27   *Graphical Abstract*

30   *Highlights*

- A genetic model was combined with the neurotoxin MPTP to explore the roles of zebrafish Pannexin-1 channels in neurodevelopment under oxidative stress conditions.

- A potential beneficial impact of targeting Panx1a is superseded by synaptic plasticity loss, dysfunctional mitochondrial metabolism, and cell death pathway activation.

- Loss of Panx1a amplifies AMPK/mTORC1 pathway activation of cell death pathways.

- A role of Panx1a as a regulator of energy and synaptic homeostasis was identified.

Abstract:

Pannexin-1 channels have garnered attention for their implications in neurodevelopment,

potentially having a dual role in mediating a delicate balance between cell death and survival.

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

and Panx1's potential protective functions throughout neurodevelopment remains to be

determined. Zebrafish larvae with loss of Pannexin-1a function were subjected to an acute

exposure to 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP). Early-life changes in larvae

induced by uncoupling of oxidative phosphorylation were investigated by a computational Gene

Set Expression Analysis of RNA-seq data and experimental testing of light-stimulated locomotor

behavior, cell death, and bioelectrical properties of local field potentials in the ascending visual

pathway. A KEGG pathway analysis underscored Panx1a's regulatory influence on

neurodevelopment. Targeting Panx1a caused a deregulation of oxidative phosphorylation,

glycolysis, reactive oxygen production, hypoxia, unfolded protein response pathways, and

reduced extracellular ATP. Further, Panx1a ablation enhanced the transcriptional activation of 5'

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) kinase, a cellular energy sensor activated by falling

energy status, largely to activate glucose and fatty acid uptake and oxidation when cellular energy

is low. The activation of the AMPK pathway in Panx1a knock-out larvae correlated with the

stimulation of the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTORC1) pathway that controls cellular

metabolism, catabolism, immune responses, autophagy, survival, proliferation, and migration, to

maintain cellular homeostasis. The differential expression of mTORC1 pathway genes associated

with autophagy, and apoptosis signaling pathways. The resultant cell death was pronounced in

the pallium and tectum regions. The loss of cells interrelated with a trans-synaptic a loss of

synaptic neurotransmitter receptor and ion channel/transporter expression. Local field potential

recordings in the optic tectum and pallium demonstrated that Panx1a's involvement in modulating

local neuronal networks was altered. Collectively, the results shed light on the impacts of acute

MPTP treatment on locomotor behavior, transcriptomic shifts, metabolic disturbances, and the

pivotal role of Panx1a in cell death. These insights enhance our comprehension of the intricate

molecular and cellular mechanisms underpinning neurodevelopment, with implications for

potential therapeutic strategies targeting Panx1 channels in autism and Alzheimer's disease.

Keywords:

Pannexin, synapse, AMPK/mTORC1 pathway, autophagy, RNA-seq, behavior, local-field

potential, MPTP, zebrafish, gene-editing.

Introduction

Pannexin 1 (Panx1) forms channels with significant roles in neurodevelopment, synapse

function, and cellular signaling and communication between neurons and glial cells. The

multifaceted roles of this channel in brain development encompasses structural aspects of

neuronal and synaptic function such as the formation and stabilization of dendritic spines, which

are essential for synaptic connectivity and plasticity. The absence of Panx1 leads to higher

dendritic spine densities and more intricate neuronal networks, indicating that Panx1 regulates the

dynamics of dendritic and spiny protrusions, thus influencing the overall architecture of neuronal

networks.

In addition to structural roles, Panx1 channels are key modulators of synaptic

transmission and plasticity. For example, Panx1 knockout (Panx1$^{-/-}$) mice exhibit enhanced

excitability and more complex dendritic branching. These changes are linked to increased actin

polymerization and imbalances in Rho GTPase activities, suggesting that Panx1 interacts with the

cytoskeleton to regulate synapse function. Panx1 also regulates long-term potentiation (LTP) and

long-term depression (LTD) at hippocampal synapses, processes critical for learning and

memory. Panx1$^{-/-}$ mice display deficiencies in long-term spatial reference memory, implicating

Panx1 in memory consolidation.

Panx1's role in neuron-glia interactions and ATP release is crucial for neuro-

developmental processes. It is vital for neural stem cell survival, neuronal maturation, and

synaptic plasticity. Furthermore, Panx1's role in ATP release and purinergic signaling is crucial

for neurodevelopmental processes, including NPC proliferation and migration, which are

foundational for establishing synchronized neuronal networks and preventing pathological

conditions such as seizures. A recently published Panx1 interactome reveals associations with

proteins involved in synaptic function and neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative diseases,

indicating a broader role in synaptic homeostasis and network functions.

Overall, Panx1 has emerged as a critical player in brain development, influencing synaptic

formation, stability, plasticity, neuron-glia communication, and neuronal network formation. The

functions extend to maintaining synaptic stability, contributing to memory and learning, and

participating in signaling pathways essential for brain function. While Panx1's involvement in

neuronal development and system circuitry formation is documented, the underlying molecular

and cellular mechanisms of how these channels influence embryogenesis and early postnatal

development await a more detailed characterization.

Zebrafish larvae are an established model for studying cell signaling and communication

during embryogenesis and early postnatal development. The extra-corporal embryogenesis ends

with the hatching of transparent larvae at three days post fertilization (3dpf). At six days post

fertilization (6dpf), during post-embryonic development, extensive cellular communication drives

growth, differentiation, and responses to environmental cues. The rapid development of

behaviors signifies the maturation of functional neuronal networks.

We were specifically interested in the role of dopaminergic neurons during this period due

to their extensive roles in developmental processes regulating the formation and maturation of

neural circuits, influencing behaviors, and cognitive functions. Furthermore, imbalances of

dopaminergic signaling potentially lead to conditions such as autism, attention-

deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), and schizophrenia, or present as a risk factor for

neurodegenerative disorders (NDDs) like Parkinson's disease (PD).

We have previously identified in 6dpf zebrafish larvae a neurodevelopmental deficit when

ablation of Panx1a, the ortholog of mammalian Panx1, caused visuomotor deficiency linked to

changes in dopaminergic signaling. To get insight into the roles of Panx1 in dopaminergic

signaling, we targeted dopaminergic neurons by inducing rapid neurotoxicity in six-day-old

Tubingen Longfin (TL) larvae with 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP).

MPTP crosses the blood-brain barrier and is converted to the toxic MPP+ by the mitochondrial

monoamine oxidase (Mao-B). MPP+ is taken up by the dopamine transporter (DAT) expressed

by dopaminergic neurons, inactivating the mitochondrial respiratory complex I. By disrupting

dopaminergic signaling in a Panx1 knockout zebrafish line (Panx1a$^{-/-}$) we tested the hypothesis

that Panx1a acts as a regulator linking mitochondrial health with synapse function. The

computational analysis of RNA-seq data showed that a four-hour treatment in TL (Panx1a$^{+/+}$) and

Panx1a$^{-/-}$ larvae was sufficient to initiate transcriptome-wide expression changes indicating

metabolic dysfunction, impaired proteostasis, differential expression of genes involved in

neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disorders, and cell death. MPTP also caused a dose-

dependent reduction in swimming behavior. By comparing MPTP effects on Panx1a$^{-/-}$ and

Panx1a$^{+/+}$ strains, RNA-seq, and Gene Set Expression Analysis (GSEA), we found that Panx1a

ablation altered the expression of hallmark genes for autism, Alzheimer's, and Parkinson's

disease, reducing the expression of zebrafish orthologs of mammalian Shank, alpha-Synuclein,

and Tau proteins. In contrast, Panx1a ablation reduced extracellular ATP, and enhanced

differential expression of cell signaling pathways regulating oxidative phosphorylation, cell

death, lipid synthesis, ROS signaling, and intracellular quality controls. Ablation of Panx1a also

altered synapse molecular composition, impairing synaptic function, demonstrated *in vivo* by

recording changes to local field potentials. Alterations of in the optic tectum (OT) and dorso-

medial (DM) pallium corroborated neuronal network dysfunctions.

In summary, this study's findings suggest an intricate relationship between Panx1a,

synapses, and mitochondrial health underscoring the importance of maintaining mitochondrial

integrity and balanced dopamine signaling for optimal neurodevelopment. The animal model

introduced here can provide insights into potential therapeutic targets for mitigating the impact of

these disorders on neurodevelopmental health.

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 [1-3].

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 [4]. 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 [1,5]. 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 [1,6]. 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 (50μM) 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 500µl ice-cold of Phosphate-

Buffered Saline (PROBS) containing 100µM 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 [7]. The data sets were compared

using 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 [8,9] and DESeq2 R package version 1.40.2 [10]. 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 Enrichment 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 [10]. 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 RNA-seq data were filtered at padj < 0.01 to

increase the stringency of the analysis. Other tools used to process RNA-seq 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 [11,12]. 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. The concentrations referred

to in results are final.

Statistics and data reproducibility. 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 molecular analysis (RNA-seq, ATP detection), a minimum of n ≥ 3 independent

experimental replicates were generated. For behavioral testing G*power analysis determined the

number of larvae [1,5]. The normality and homogeneity of the data variance were determined by the

"Shapiro-Wilk Test" and "Levene's Test." Experimental groups were compared using unpaired t-

tests or Welch's t-tests. 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

figure legends.

Results

Acute MPTP treatment the locomotion of zebrafish larvae.

Acute MPTP treatment for four hours was evaluated to establish a practical alternative of

targeting mitochondrial metabolism in dopaminergic neurons during a critical developmental

stage. 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

[13], 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

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

swimming behavioral parameters, captured over 72% (PC1) and 24% (PC2) of the data variance,

respectively**.** The total swim distance (PC1, *totaldist*) was used to quantify differences between

MPTP-treated and untreated genotypes **(Fig. 1b)**.

311   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% (400 lux) to 40% (1200 lux) Light-ON over the next

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

the visuomotor response in 6dpf zebrafish larvae.

Figure 1: *Acute MPTP treatment 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.

Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$ and Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae show different transcriptional responses associated

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

To gain insight into the molecular basis of the observed behavioral changes experimental

RNA-seq analysis and a computational approach compared MPTP-treated Panx1a knockout

(Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$) and wild-type (Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$) larvae with naïve siblings, unraveling key

regulatory pathways underlying MPTP neurotoxicity in the model. Gene expression profiles of

Panx1a$^{-/-}$ and Panx1a$^{+/+}$ larvae were different before MPTP exposure; RNA-seq identified a total

of 31251 individual RNA transcripts, with n=724 genes upregulated and n=1030 genes

downregulated in the knockout group compared to wild-type controls **(Fig.2a)**. Following the

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=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 enrichment analysis (GSEA) [14]. 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.

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 (threshold: padj <0.05), indicating noteworthy alterations in biological processes associated with MPTP treatment in knock-out larvae compared to wild-type counterparts.

The MPTP-induced metabolic crisis altered pathways regulating 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 result demonstrated an enrichment of the oxidative phosphorylation pathway in both Panx1a⁺/⁺ᴹᴾᵀᴾ (n=100) and Panx1a⁻/⁻ᴹᴾᵀᴾ larvae (n=155) with a log2 fold filter set to >0.5 and <-

0.5 and a padj of <0.01 **(Fig. 3a)**. Only n=38 genes were different in untreated controls showing

that MPTP treatment impacted this pathway significantly.

The notable differential gene expression modulation and directionality of changes in

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

phosphorylation, such as *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* **(Fig. 3d-h; Suppl. Tables 2-**

6).

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

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

glycolysis cannot produce ATP, which reduces hypoxia tolerance **(Fig. 3d, Suppl. Table 2)**.

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

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

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

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. 3 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. 3g; 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.

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

Panx1a ablation affected energy homeostasis **(Fig. 3h; 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.

We hypothesized 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 $\pm$ 0.28 nM/µg; Panx1a$^{+/+MPTP}$: 0.96 $\pm$ 0.27

nM/µg; P-value=0.0011), indicating a limitation in ATP production **(Fig. 3i)**. Conversely, MPTP

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

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

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 is required to

maintain metabolic and energetic homeostasis *in vivo*.

Figure 3: *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 and activation of oxidative phosphorylation alters the AMPK-mTOR pathway

The enrichment of the mTORC1 hallmark, identified through GSEA (see Fig. 2), implied

mechanistically a switch towards anabolic metabolism. 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 oxidative phosphorylation (OXIPHOS) dysfunction **(Fig. 4a-c)**. The upregulation of the

AMP-activated protein kinase (*prkaa1*/AMPK), a master regulator of cellular energy

homeostasis, together with genes in the AMPK pathway in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae further suggested

that a molecular response to stresses that deplete cellular ATP supplies such as Complex I

blockage was found **(Fig. 4a-c)**.

To identify specific molecular pathways in response to stress when cellular ATP is

depleted in Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae we used STRING analysis to infer context **(Fig. 4d)**. The input

were 54 AMPK-mTOR pathway genes, ranked by their log2fold expression. K-means clustering

identified five clusters specific for Panx1a$^{-/-MPTP}$ larvae. Notable groups of genes upregulated in

the mTOR pathway included nine Wnt/frizzled genes in Cluster I (*wnt5a, wnt7aa, wnt9a/b,*

wnt10a, wnt11, fdz6, fdz7a/b). Activation of the canonical Wnt-signaling pathway in neurons

could enhance both hexose utilization through glycolysis and regulate dendrite formation and

complexity. Indeed, Cluster II encompasses 16 genes representing fructose and mannose

metabolism. Cluster II linked to Cluster III through upregulated *prkaa1a/AMPK* and *pik3r3a.* The

1-phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase regulator activity acts upstream of the insulin receptor signaling

pathway and the phosphatidylinositol phosphate biosynthetic process. Within Cluster III the

upregulation of four subunits of vacuolar ATPases (*V-ATPase; atp6v1aa atp6v1ab atp6v1b2,*

atp6v1g1 atp6v1h atp6v1c1b atp6v1ba atp6v1f) implicated a disruption of presynaptic cellular

homeostasis in neurons. Furthermore, late endosomal/lysosomal adaptor and MAPK and mTOR

activator genes (*lamtor5*) and Ras-related GTP-binding protein A (*rraga*) encode proteins

forming the Lamtor/Ragulator complex that regulates multiprotein signaling units on late

endosomes/lysosomes with crucial roles in the cellular response to amino acid availability

through regulation of the mTORC1 signaling cascade.

The downregulation of RAF activation (Cluster IV) indicated the complexity of molecular

pathway changes affected by Panx1a ablation in cell stress. A reduction of RAF activation as an

entry point to the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK)/extracellular signal-regulated kinase

(ERK-1/2) signaling pathway, suggested effects on fundamental cellular functions including

proliferation, differentiation, and survival.

The adiponectin signaling pathway, and the Adiponectin activated signaling pathway

(Cluster 5) involved two receptors that are required for normal glucose and fat homeostasis. In

mice AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 are present in the synaptosome, with AdipoR2 displaying increased

presynaptic vs. postsynaptic localization, whereas AdipoR1 was enriched in both the presynaptic

and postsynaptic fractions. Loss of function mutations in mouse KO models support transsynaptic

roles causing cognitive deficits.

Figure 4: *Loss of Panx1a and activation of oxidative phosphorylation alters the AMPK-mTOR pathway.* a- c) Vulcano plots represent the differential expression of AMPK- (orange) and mTORC1 (blue) pathway genes. d) STRING analysis of 49 genes. K-means clustering identified five clustered groups.

Loss of Panx1a and activation of oxidative phosphorylation promotes cell death pathways.

The enrichment of the mTORC1 pathway observed in the GSEA analysis suggested

responses to metabolic and other stresses. A follow-up of the differential expression regulation of

192 mTOR pathway genes identified 121 regulated genes in Panx1a$^{-/-\text{MPTP}}$ larvae. Fewer genes

were differentially regulated in Panx1a$^{+/+}$ (n=14) and Panx1a$^{+/+\text{MPTP larvae}}$ (n=74) **(Fig. 5a)**.

The upregulation of eight subunits of vacuolar ATPases (*V-ATPase; atp6v1aa atp6v1ab*

atp6v1b2, atp6v1g1 atp6v1h atp6v1c1b atp6v1ba atp6v1f) and 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*). We propose that the upregulation of these

components could reflect an attempt by the cell to adapt to stress by enhancing lysosomal

function and autophagy.

These changes suggested that systems in MPTP-related larvae in the absence of Panx1a

were overwhelmed or dysfunctional due to an inability to maintain cellular homeostasis, leading

to cell death. The functional enrichment analysis showed differentially expressed genes

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

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

while Panx1a$^{+/+\text{MPTP}}$ larvae exhibited regulation in 107 genes **(Fig 5b, 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$^{+/+\text{MPTP}}$, n=38; Panx1a$^{-/-\text{MPTP}}$, n=70) **(Fig. 5c)**. The unique molecular

response in the absence of Panx1a was evident, with Panx1a$^{-/-\text{MPTP}}$ 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)**.

An *in-vivo* cell death stain, acridine orange (AO), was chosen as a direct way of

visualizing cell death **(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.

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Figure 5: *Loss of Panx1a promotes cell death in the acute MPTP model.* a-c) Differentially
regulated genes in the mTORC1 pathway. Blue and red dots represent regulated genes in the
pathway. Grey dots represent all DEGs. d-f) Significantly regulated genes (padj ≤ 0.01) were
compared against zfin lists of cell death, apoptosis, and autophagy. Regulated genes were plotted.
g) Experimental outline of the *in-vivo* cell death assay using the acridine orange dye.
Representative projection views of Z-stacks representing a depth ≈ 100μm collected from
untreated and MPTP-treated Panx1a+/+ and Panx1a-/- larvae. h) 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.

Trans-synaptic changes after Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment

A DESeq2 analysis of the RNA sequencing analysis, employing a log2 gene filter of >0.5

and <-0.5 with a padj < 0.01, identified 681 differentially expressed genes in Panx1$^{-/-MPTP}$ and

Panx1$^{+/+MPTP}$ larvae. 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 known as 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 soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive fusion

protein attachment protein receptors (SNARE) complex (synaptosomal-associated protein:

snap25a, snap25b), vesicle exocytosis or calcium dynamics in response to depolarization

(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.

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

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

neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity across pre- and postsynaptic compartments.

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Figure 6: *Trans-synaptic changes after Panx1a ablation and MPTP treatment.* 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.
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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 by Local Field Potential (LFP) recordings. We determined how the absence

of Panx1a influenced local neuronal circuits following acute MPTP treatment by strategically

positioned electrodes in the optic tectum (OT) and 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.

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 OT and 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 [15,16].

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 [17]. 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 [18].

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.

Discussion

In this study acute MPTP-induced neurotoxicity served as a model to study Panx1a function in a

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

Mammalia. The principal results provide insights into how Panx1a affects the complex

mechanisms of metabolic stress, including oxidative stress, mitochondrial dysfunction, and

altered synaptic plasticity, thereby making inroads into the metabolic and synaptic aspects of

neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative diseases. Collectively we introduce a first-hand

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

mitochondrial health in dopaminergic neurons; the evidence supports a role of Panx1a in

regulating complex cell communication and signaling pathways required for the maintenance of

neuronal homeostasis and network functions.

Panx1a mediates neuronal homeostasis via AMPK-pathway activation and mTOR signaling.

The upregulation of mitochondrial Complex I and III genes in Panx1a-deficient and

MPTP treated larvae indicates significant changes in mitochondrial homeostasis. These changes

are associated with pathways leading to hypoxia, reactive oxygen species (ROS) production,

glucose and fatty acid metabolism, or the unfolded protein response, underscoring the necessity

of Panx1a for maintaining metabolic and energetic balance *in vivo*.

Although the direct functions of Panx1 in mitochondrial health in the nervous system are

not fully understood, Panx1a likely operates akin to a "rheostat." In this concept, Panx1 channels

open and close in response to varying brain states, with ATP and calcium concentration dynamics

serving as messengers of these states. The known structural aspects of Panx1 proteins, such as

functioning as a large pore ATP release channel or a narrow Cl channel [19,20], interacting with

different lipid environments [21], or interacting proteins [22], could be contributing to a rheostat

function.

The regulation of the AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) pathway showed the

activation of a crucial cellular energy sensor to maintain energy homeostasis [23]. AMPK is

activated in response to an increase in the AMP/ATP ratio, which occurs during cellular stress or

energy depletion [24]. We identified both ATP depletion and the differential expression of subunits

of the zebrafish AMPK in both genotypes after MPTP treatment suggesting simultaneous loss of

Panx1-mediated ATP release and depletion of ATP after Complex I blocking can activate AMPK

to enhance alternative energy production pathways.

Alternative catabolic pathways like the observed transcriptional activation of glycolysis

and fatty acid metabolism help to restore the energy balance by inhibiting anabolic processes and

while stimulating catabolic pathways [25] However, prolonged ATP depletion can trigger

endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress, initiating the unfolded protein response (UPR) [26]. While the

UPR seeks to restore protein homeostasis, severe or persistent ER and mitochondrial stress can

activate apoptotic pathway [27]. Interestingly, activation of Pannexin-1 and AMPK signaling

pathway in the cerebral cortex of a mouse model of Sepsis-associated encephalopathy (SAE) was

coupled with the activation of pyroptosis, a highly inflammatory form of lytic programmed cell

death, and the incomplete activation of autophagy, which breaks down and recycles old,

damaged, or abnormal proteins, especially during periods of stress or starvation [28]. In contrast,

the inhibition of pannexin-1 expression reduced the rates of mortality and the cortical

pathological changes in the mice, further stimulating the AMPK signaling pathway, inhibiting

pyroptosis, and activating autophagy [28]. Here, we observed an up-regulation of autophagy and

apoptosis related genes but no differential expression of GasderminD/E expression, a hallmark of

pyroptosis, was not detected. This observation supports a theory that by targeting Panx1 in mice

and fish inflammation caused by neuronal pyroptosis can be regulated through autophagy

activation by the AMPK signaling pathway.

In Panx1a$^{-/-\text{MPTP}}$ larvae, intensified cell death via autophagy seems to represent an exit

strategy in response to disturbed neuronal homeostasis and mitochondrial health. Our data

implicate specific cell death pathways, notably those involving the mammalian target of

rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1). In general, mTOR regulates various cellular functions such as

protein synthesis, energy metabolism, cell size, lipid metabolism, autophagy, and lysosome

biogenesis [29]. The mTOR-controlled signaling pathways are crucial for neuronal development,

synaptic plasticity, memory storage, and cognition [30]. Dysregulation of mTOR signaling is a

common feature of neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders. Mutations in synaptic genes and

mitochondrial perturbation is increasingly recognized as a significant driver of synaptic

dysfunction in autism spectrum disorder (ASD) [31]. Individuals with ASD often show deficits in

mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, linking mitochondrial dysfunction to the disorder's

development [32]. Recent research has highlighted the significant roles of AMP-activated protein

kinase (AMPK) and the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling pathways in the

pathogenesis of ASD [33]. Genetic mutations in regulators of mTOR, such as TSC1, TSC2, and

PTEN, have been associated with ASD-like phenotypes, suggesting that mTOR dysregulation

contributes to the disorder's development. Moreover, the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway's

overactivation during brain development can lead to increased cell death, neuroinflammation, and

oxidative stress, further exacerbating ASD symptoms [33]. AMPK, a key energy sensor in cells,

interacts with the mTOR pathway, and its overactivation has been shown to suppress mTOR

signaling, leading to defects in dendritic morphology and increased susceptibility to anxiety,

which is often comorbid with ASD [34]. Overall, the AMPK and mTOR pathways are crucial in the

neurodevelopmental processes underlying ASD. Interestingly, two studies recently linked Panx1

to ASD; ASD susceptibility genes were found in the murine Panx1 interactome, and loss of

Panx1 changes social behaviors in an experimental model for early-life seizures [22,35].

Panx1a modulates the molecular composition and bioelectrical function of synapses.

Information about Panx1's involvement in transsynaptic activities and synapse organization

was found in the differential expression of genes encoding proteins with pre- and postsynaptic

localization in metabolically challenged zebrafish. The expression changes include the

downregulation of the presynaptic SNARE complex, postsynaptic excitatory ionotropic AMPA-,

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

cation channels. Other molecular changes include the downregulation of biomarkers affecting

neuronal homeostasis, synapse function, and axonal processes. The downregulation of genes

encoding both pre- and postsynaptic proteins suggest trans-synaptic functions of Panx1's function

associated with synaptic homeostasis in both excitatory and inhibitory neurons.

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

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

modulation [36]. 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 [37-39]. Further, Panx1-

mediated currents were potentiated by metabotropic receptors and bidirectionally modulated by

burst-timing-dependent plasticity of NMDAR-mediated transmission [40]. Moreover, under genetic

conditions associated with neurodegenerative disorders (NDDs), suppression of Panx1 can restore

synaptic plasticity. For example, 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 [41]. Genetic ablation of Panx1 suggested that Panx1 negatively regulated

cortical dendritic spines development [42]. In the visual system, Panx1 channels contribute to the

synaptic modulation of a horizontal cell to a photoreceptor feedback mechanism in the horizontal

cell dendrites of the mouse and the zebrafish [43-45]. 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 [37,39,46,47].

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

details of the cellular processes and molecular pathways have been emerging slowly.

Internalization of Panx1 by ATP and P2X7-dependent endocytosis and degradation [48,49] and

suppression of presynaptic glutamate release via NMDA receptors and Panx1 have been reported

[50]. Panx1 coupling to NMDA receptor functions via Src [51], STIM1/2 [52] or actin, and Rho GTPases,

appear to be relevant for synapse stability [38]. 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 [53]. Further, we have reported a pathway that connects NMDA receptor signaling to the

opening of electrical synapse protein Cx36 via Panx1 and CaMK2a, suggesting the active

participation of Panx1 in modulating both chemical and electrical synapse function by using a

shared molecular machinery [54].

Jointly, the new discoveries support Panx1's crucial role in cell communication and

signaling processes in neurons, emphasizing an association with synaptic stability, memory

formation, and intercellular signaling. Here, we demonstrated that Panx1a ablation influenced local

field potential power of theta, beta, and gamma waves in the optic tectum and dorsomedial

forebrain. This result implies a correlation between metabolic changes and synapse functions

providing insights into how Panx1a deficiency alters brain wave activity and neuronal circuit

responses. The modulation of coherence is evidence that the loss of Panx1a leads to changes in the

relationship of the different brain regions across various frequency bands. Together, the findings

of the LFP analysis establish a link between Panx1a functions and synaptic plasticity within

811 neuronal circuits, supporting a role of Panx1a in maintaining synaptic stability and modulating

812 brain activity ultimately correlating changes of brain function with the differential expression of

813 pre-and postsynaptic genes.

814   The results fill a gap in understanding how Panx1a affects neural network connectivity and

815 information processing, offering insight into Panx1's role in disease pathology. Indeed, local field

816 potentials (LFPs) can be altered in neurodevelopmental disorders. In autism spectrum disorder

817 (ASD), mice prenatally exposed to valproic acid (VPA) exhibited significant changes in LFPs

818 across several brain regions [55]. These mice showed increased low gamma activity in the

819 hippocampus during awake immobility and altered theta oscillations correlated with locomotor

820 speed, which were not observed in control mice. Additionally, increased delta and beta activities

821 were found in the olfactory bulb during different states of activity, along with altered coherence

822 between the hippocampus and both the olfactory bulb and medial prefrontal cortex, suggesting

823 disrupted neural signaling in learning-related brain areas [55]. Notably, LFPs reflect the activity of

824 spatially localized populations of neurons, and alterations in LFP activity can be indicative of

825 cognitive processes, such as attention, which may be disrupted in neurodevelopmental disorders.

826   Local field potentials (LFPs) are also altered in neurodegenerative disorders, reflecting

827 changes in neural network activities and brain connectivity. In Alzheimer's disease (AD), studies

828 on APP/PS1 mice models have shown that the LFPs in the gamma band of the left and right

829 secondary motor cortex (M2) are more synchronized compared to wild-type controls, indicating a

830 decline in hemispheric asymmetry, which could be an early sign of AD [56]. Similarly, in Parkinson's

831 disease (PD), alterations in LFPs have been observed in several brain regions [57]. Beyond AD and

832 PD, LFP alterations have also been noted in psychiatric conditions like major depressive disorder

833 (MDD) and obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) [58,59]. These studies have found that different

frequency bands are associated with specific symptoms, with low-frequency activity closely related

to OCD symptoms, while LFP findings in MDD are more complex and varied [60] [61].

Conclusion

Overall, we show that Panx1a is crucial for neuronal viability by regulating energy

metabolism, facilitating cellular communication, and maintaining synaptic homeostasis. Our

research identifies the AMPK-mTORC1 pathway as a key regulator of processes activating cell

death pathways that allow the orderly degradation and recycling of cellular components. We

propose that the evidence strongly suggests that Panx1a acts as a safeguard for neuronal health by

modulating ATP signaling, thereby preserving metabolic and energetic homeostasis. The critical

role of Panx1a in regulating synaptic plasticity and neuronal homeostasis, is likely impacting

neuropsychiatric disorders like autism spectrum disorder (ASD) or early in life disturbances

leading to neurodegenerative disorders like Alzheimer's or Parkinson's disease.

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

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Abbreviations
Gene IDs follow ZFIN Zebrafish Nomenclature standards:
https://zfin.atlassian.net/wiki/spaces/general/pages/1818394635/ZFIN+Zebrafish+Nomenclature+
Conventions
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AD: Alzheimer's Disease
ALS: Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
AMPA: α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid

AO: Acridine-Orange
ATP: Adenosine triphosphate
CNS: Central nervous system
DM: Dorsomedial pallium (amygdala)
DGE: differential gene expression
dpf: days post fertilization
FDR: False discovery rate
FFT: fast Fourier transform
Fps: frames per second
GABA: γ-Aminobutyric acid
GEO: Gene expression omnibus
GO: Gene Ontology
GSEA: Gene set enrichment analysis
HD: Huntington's Disease
KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
LFP: Local field potential
NMDA: N-Methyl-D-aspartic acid
MSigDB: Molecular Signatures Database
MPTP: 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine
NDD: neurodegenerative disorder
OT: Optic tectum
Padj: adjusted P-value
Panc: Pancuronium bromide
PD: Parkinson's Disease
PCA: Principal component analysis
PSD: Power spectral density
PROBS: Phosphate-Buffered Saline
ROS: Reactive oxygen species
RNA-seq: RNA sequencing
SEM: standard error of the mean
SNARE: soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive fusion protein attachment protein receptors
TL: Tubingen longfin
UPR: Unfolded protein response
ZFIN: Zebrafish Information Network
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