Targeted ablation and regeneration of enteric nervous system neurons in zebrafish

Mujahid Ali Shah[1], Katherine K. Moran[1], Helen Rueckert[1,2], Abigail V. Sharrock[3], David F.

Ackerley[3], Jeff S. Mumm[4], Julia Ganz[1] *

[1]Department of Integrative Biology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA,

[2]Department of Cell Biology, Developmental and Stem Cell Biology Program, Duke University

School of Medicine, Durham, NC, USA, [3]School of Biological Sciences, Victoria University of

Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand, [4] Department of Ophthalmology, Wilmer Eye Institute,

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA.

*Correspondence, ganz@msu.edu

Abstract

The enteric nervous system (ENS) is the intrinsic nervous system of the gut and regulates

essential gut functions, including motility, digestion, and immune response, ensuring gut

homeostasis. ENS dysfunction or loss is associated with gastrointestinal disorders such as

Hirschsprung disease (HSCR). Currently, surgery is the only treatment for HSCR, but it often

has lifelong, severe complications. Restoring missing ENS neurons by stimulating endogenous

neuronal regeneration presents a promising therapeutic approach for ENS disease. To study

the cellular-molecular mechanisms of neuronal regeneration we first need to identify an animal

model system with robust ENS regeneration. For this, we developed a chemical-genetic ablation

model in zebrafish using the Gal4/UAS NTR 2.0 system for targeted ENS neuron ablation.

Spatially and temporally controlled neuronal death was confirmed by morphological changes,

complete neuronal loss, and TUNEL assays. Quantification of regenerated neurons

demonstrated complete restoration of ENS neuron numbers to control levels by 9 days post

treatment with recovery of gut motility. Among the regenerated neurons, nitrergic, cholinergic

and vipergic subtypes showed full recovery, whereas serotonergic neurons only displayed

partial recovery, indicating subtype-specific differences in the regenerative capacity and/or

timing. Our study establishes a robust platform for dissecting the cellular-molecular mechanisms

of ENS regeneration to develop potential treatment approaches for ENS-related diseases.

Keywords: Enteric neurons, chemical-genetic ablation, functional recovery, gut motility, ENS

diseases

Introduction

The enteric nervous system (ENS), the largest subdivision of the peripheral nervous system, consists of an intricate network of neurons and glial cells derived from neural crest progenitors that migrate into the developing gastrointestinal tract (Ganz, 2018; Hao & Young, 2009; Taylor et al., 2016). This complex network plays a pivotal role in regulating essential gastrointestinal functions such as gut motility, nutrient absorption, epithelial secretion, and blood flow (Kuil et al., 2021; Kunze & Furness, 1999; Niesler et al., 2021). Dysfunction or loss of the ENS has been linked to various gastrointestinal disorders such as Hirschsprung disease (HSCR), Achalasia, and autism spectrum disorder (Niesler et al., 2021). HSCR, which is characterized by aganglionosis in the distal gut, is one of the most common congenital anomalies of the ENS, leading to severe intestinal obstruction in neonates, with an estimated incidence of 1 in 5,000 live births (Butler Tjaden & Trainor, 2013). To date, ENS disorders can only be treated symptomatically or by surgical removal of the area with ENS neuron deficits. For example, the current standard treatment for HSCR is surgical resection of the aganglionic gut segment. However, patient outcomes vary widely, and most continue to experience lifelong gastrointestinal defects, highlighting the need for alternative treatments. One of the therapeutic approaches for HSCR is the stimulation of resident stem cells to regenerate missing ENS cells with promising results but varying efficacy depending on the age and the specific gut region (Burns et al., 2016; Joseph et al., 2011; Soret et al., 2020). The successful translation of these approaches requires a comprehensive understanding of the cellular and molecular mechanisms that underlie effective ENS regeneration. Elucidating these mechanisms necessitates the development of a reliable animal model that exhibits robust and reproducible regeneration of ENS neurons following injury.

So far, only few studies - mostly in mammalian models - have investigated ENS regeneration using chemical, mechanical, or chemical-genetic injury. Although these approaches have provided valuable insights, mammalian models show limited and incomplete neuronal regeneration in the ENS (Rueckert & Ganz, 2022; Stavely et al., 2024). In contrast, the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), a non-mammalian animal model system is a robust model for studying organ regeneration including various parts of the nervous system such as the brain (Kizil et al., 2012) retina (Hanovice et al., 2019), ENS (El-Nachef & Bronner, 2020; Ohno et al., 2021), but also other organs, such as kidney (Elmonem et al., 2018), heart (Cao & Poss, 2018), and fin (Romero et al., 2018). Zebrafish also offer numerous experimental advantages, including rapid development, large numbers of offspring, optical transparency that enables live imaging, and a high degree of genetic homology with humans (Howe et al., 2013). Despite these experimental advantages (Kuil et al., 2021; Ganz, 2018), so far, only two studies have studied ENS regeneration in zebrafish using a laser ablation approach (El-

Nachef & Bronner, 2020; Ohno et al., 2021). Those studies provide first evidence that the ENS can

regenerate in zebrafish following laser ablation. Ohno et al., show that neural crest-derived cells

migrate into the ablated region, proliferate, and give rise to new neurons, partially restoring ENS

neuron numbers. However, several important issues to demonstrate that the ENS fully regenerates

in zebrafish remain: First, the number of regenerated neurons did not reach control levels in the

studied time frame. Second, it remains to be shown which neuronal subtypes are ablated and are

able to regenerate. Third, it remains unclear whether the regenerated neurons functionally

integrated into existing ENS circuits to re-establish normal gut function. In addition, laser ablation

has several technical limitations, including collateral damage to surrounding tissues, labor-intensive

protocols, and restricted ablation of just a few cells within a small gut region, hindering downstream

analysis for functional recovery assessment (Ohno et al., 2021).

To overcome these challenges, we leveraged an established approach for spatiotemporally

controlled cell ablation: the chemical-genetic bacterial nitroreductase (NTR) system. This method

utilizes the NTR enzyme, which converts prodrugs, e.g., Metronidazole (MTZ), into cytotoxic agents,

thereby selectively killing cells that express NTR (Bridgewater et al., 1995). In zebrafish, this

chemical-genetic method has been successfully applied in regenerative studies by ablating specific

cell populations in heart, pancreas, liver, retina, and rod photoreceptor cell (Ariga et al., 2010;

Curado et al., 2007, Sharrock et al., 2022; White et al., 2017). However, this method has not yet

been tested for the ablation of ENS neurons.

In this study, we took advantage of the precise spatial-temporal control of the *Gal4/UAS* system

(Asakawa et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2019) for the chemical-genetic ablation of ENS neurons in

postembryonic zebrafish larvae (**Figure 1**). We additionally employed the most advanced iteration of

the nitroreductase technology, NTR 2.0, which provides effective ablation of target cells at ~100-fold

lower concentrations of MTZ than the original NTR system (Sharrock et al., 2022). Using this

approach, we establish a robust experimental paradigm of ENS neuron regeneration by ablating

only NTR-expressing neurons through MTZ treatment. Morphological and TUNEL analysis

confirmed that the ablated cells underwent cell death. By 9 day post treatment (dpt), neuronal

recovery was complete, with full recovery of most neuronal subtypes, including nitrergic, cholinergic

and vipergic neurons. Our results demonstrate for the first time functional recovery of ENS neuron

numbers including restoration of gut motility. These findings pave the way for understanding the

cellular and molecular mechanisms of ENS regeneration, which will provide the first step for

developing new therapeutic approaches for gastrointestinal disorders associated with ENS

dysfunction in the future.

Figure 1 Experimental setup for ENS neuron ablation in zebrafish

A carrier of the Gal4 driver line, *Tg*(*217B:Gal4)*, which drives expression in ENS neurons was crossed with a carrier of the responder/effector line *Tg(UAS:YFP-NTR 2.0)*, where the Gal4 protein binds to Upstream Activating Sequence (*UAS*) element, initiating expression of both *yellow fluorescence protein* (YFP, reporter protein) and *nitroreductase* (NTR 2.0). Left side: Schematic representation of the untreated control intestine, where enteric neurons co-expressing the *Gal4* and *UAS* transgenes also express both YFP and NTR 2.0 in ENS neurons (green). Right side: Schematic representation of intestine following treatment with 400 µM metronidazole (MTZ). The prodrug MTZ is enzymatically converted by NTR 2.0 into a cytotoxic compound, leading to the selective ablation of YFP-NTR 2.0-expressing enteric neurons.

Material and methods

Animals

All experiments were carried out in accordance with animal welfare laws, guidelines, and

policies and were approved by the Michigan State University Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee. Zebrafish lines were maintained in a laboratory breeding colony according to

established protocols (Westerfield, 2000). Adult zebrafish were bred naturally in system water,

and fertilized eggs were collected and transferred to 100 mm petri dishes containing embryo

medium. Embryos were allowed to develop at 28.5°C and staged by days post fertilization (dpf)

as described earlier (Kimmel, 1995; Webb et al., 2009). The zebrafish lines utilized in this study

are listed in **Table 1**. Double transgenic larvae were established to co-express YFP and NTR

2.0 in the nervous system. For this, the *Tg(5xUAS:GAP-TagYFP-2A-NTR2.0)jh513Tg*

reporter/effector line was maintained together with the *Et(2xNRSE-cfos KALT4)gmc617;*

Tg(5xUAS:GAP-ECFP,he1.1:GAP-ECFP)gmc1913 transgenic fish line. The

Et(2xNRSE:cfos:KalTA4)gmc617 line expresses KalTA4, a zebrafish-optimized Gal4/VP16

fusion protein with neuronal specificity (Xie et al., 2012; Sharrock et al., 2022). We confirmed

that the *Tg(SAGFF(LF)217B)* drives reporter expression in ENS neurons (described in the

results section), as an incross of *Tg(5xUAS:GAP-TagYFP-2A-NTR2.0)*; *Et(2xNRSE-cfos*

KALT4)gmc617; Tg(5xUAS:GAP-ECFP,he1.1:GAP-ECFP)gmc1913 did not show YFP

expression in ENS neurons. The *Tg(5xUAS:GAP-ECFP,he1.1:GAP-ECFP)gmc1913* line

expresses cyan fluorescent protein (CFP), our analysis was focused on YFP expression driven

by the Gal4/UAS system. Genotyping of Gal4 driver lines was performed with the following

primers for Gal4 (GAL4F: 5'-CGCTACTCTCCCAAAACCAAAAGG-3'; GAL4R: 5'-

TCTCTTCCGATGATGATGTCGCAC -3' using the PCR protocol: 95° x 3 min - [95° x 30s - 60° x

30s - 72° x 30s] x 35 - 72° x 5' 12° ∞.

Table 1: Transgenic lines used in this study

Full name	Abbreviation	Source
Tg(SAGFF(LF)217B)	*217B:Gal4*	Asakawa et al., 2008
Tg(SAGFF(LF)234A)	*234A:Gal4*	Asakawa et al., 2008
Tg(gSAlzGFFM495A)	*495A:Gal4*	Kawakami et al., 2010
Tg(5xUAS:EGFP)nkuasgfp	*UAS:GFP*	Asakawa et al., 2008
Tg(UAS-E1b:NfsB-mCherry)c264	*UAS:NTR-mCherry*	Davison et al., 2007
Tg(5xUAS:GAP-TagYFP-2A-NTR2.0)jh513Tg; Et(2xNRSE-cfos KALT4)gmc617; Tg(5xUAS:GAP-ECFP, he1.1:GAP-ECFP)gmc1913	*UAS:YFP-NTR 2.0**	Sharrock et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2012

128 **The Tg(5xUAS:GAP-TagYFP-2A-NTR2.0)jh513Tg fish were maintained together with the Et(2xNRSE-cfos*

129 *KALT4)gmc617; Tg(5xUAS:GAP-ECFP,he1.1:GAP-ECFP)gmc1913* lines.

Chemical-genetic ablation using Metronidazole

The *217B:Gal4* driver line was crossed with the *UAS:YFP-NTR 2.0* responder line. Offspring from this cross were sorted based on YFP+ cells in the gut into YFP+ and YFP− groups at 5 dpf using a Zeiss Axio ZoomV16 fluorescent stereo microscope. The sorted larvae were then treated at 5 dpf or for the later time point transferred to the nursery until the day of the assay. Prior to MTZ treatment, larvae - except for the 5 dpf groups - were starved for 24 hours to clear the gut of autofluorescent matter. Approximately 50 larvae were transferred to a petri dish (100 mm × 15 mm) containing 40 mL of 400 µM MTZ (M1547 Sigma Aldrich) (Sharrock et al., 2022) in zebrafish system water (diluted from a 5mM stock solution). The following experimental groups were used: 1) YFP+ MTZ (YFP+ larvae treated with MTZ; 2) YFP+ control (YFP+ larvae, not treated with MTZ); and 3) YFP- MTZ (YFP- larvae, treated with MTZ). Larvae were incubated in the dark for 24 hours to ensure maximal drug exposure as MTZ is light sensitive. After 24 hours, the effects of MTZ treatment on YFP+ cell ablation were assessed using a Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescent stereo microscope. After confirmation of cell loss, the MTZ solution was discarded and larvae were returned to the nursery, placed in 2.8-liter tanks (~40 larvae per tank), and raised until the indicated experimental time point.

ENS neuron regeneration analysis

The regeneration of MTZ-treated YFP+ cells in the gut was assessed at 12 dpf (0 dpt, before ablation) and subsequently at three-day intervals from 13 dpf (1 dpt) to 27 dpf (15 dpt) and compared to YFP+ untreated controls. At each regeneration time point, both control and treated larvae were checked briefly using a Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescent stereo microscope, then fixed and immunoassayed (as described below) by confocal microscopy imaging for data acquisition.

Sample fixation

To ensure optimal imaging conditions, larvae were fasted for 24 hours prior to sampling at the required stages to allow for gut clearance of autofluorescent matter. Then, larvae were euthanized with an overdose of Tricaine Methanesulfonate (MS-222). **For immunolabeling**, euthanized samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) prepared in 1x sweet buffer (8% sucrose, 0.2 M CaCl$_2$, 0.2 M PO$_4$ buffer, pH 7.3) for 2 hours at room temperature. Then, they were washed subsequently 2 times in 0.5% Phosphate buffer saline-Triton™ X-100 (PBSTX) for 15 mins at room temperature, and stored in PBSTX at 4°C. **For TUNEL assay**, euthanized samples were fixed overnight in 10% Natural buffer saline (NBF) at 4°C, then washed three

times in PBS for 5 minutes at room temperature and stored in PBS at 4°C. **For Hybridization**
Chain Reaction (HCR), euthanized larvae were rinsed thoroughly in RNAase free water, and
fixed in RNAase free 4% PFA in PBS at 4°C for ~16 hours, washed three times in PBS for 5
minutes at room temperature, dehydrated in a graded methanol series (50, 70, 90, 95 and 100
% methanol in nuclease free water), and stored in 100% methanol at −20°C for a minimum of
16 hours or up to six months (Ibarra-García-Padilla et al., 2021).
173
TUNEL assay
TUNEL assays were performed using the Click-iT™ Plus TUNEL Assay Kits (C10618, Thermo
Fisher Scientific) for In Situ Apoptosis Detection. For this, PBS was removed from fixed samples
and permeabilization was carried out using Proteinase K (20 µg/mL) for 50 minutes at room
temperature, followed by three PBS washes and a deionized water rinse. Then samples were
re-fixed in 10% NBF in PBS for 5 minutes at 37°C, followed by three additional PBS washes and
another deionized water rinse. To detect DNA strand breaks (i.e., for the positive control), the
larvae were incubated in 1 unit of DNase I (Cat. No. 18068-015) diluted into 1X DNase I
Reaction Buffer for 30 minutes at room temperature (**Figure S1**). After that, larvae were
preincubated in 150 µL of Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) buffer for 10 minutes at
37°C, incubated in the 100 µL TdT reaction mixture {94 µL TdT Reaction Buffer, 2 µL 5-ethynyl-
2'-deoxyuridine-5'-triphosphate (EdUTP), and 4 µL TdT enzyme} for 30 minutes at 37°C, rinsed
in deionized water, washed twice in 3 % bovine serum albumin (BSA) in 0.1% PBS-Triton™ X-
100 for 5 minutes each, and one time in PBS. Then the larvae were incubated with the reaction
cocktail (90 µL TUNEL Supermix and 10 µL 10X Click-iT Plus TUNEL Reaction Buffer Additive)
for 30 minutes at 37°C in the dark, followed by two 3% BSA in PBS washes and two final PBS
washes. TUNEL staining was assessed using a Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescence
stereomicroscope. Immunostaining was subsequently performed under dark conditions, as
described below, and larvae were stored in PBS until imaging.
193
Immunostaining
Whole-mount immunostaining was performed as previously described (Bandla et al., 2022;
Uyttebroek et al., 2010). The following primary antibodies: 5-HT (1:5,000, catalog number
20080), HuC/D (1:1,000, catalog number A-21271), mouse GFP (1:300, catalog number
A11120), rabbit GFP (1:1,000, catalog number A11122), and nNOS (1:1,000, catalog number
GTX133407) were utilized to perform immunostaining. The primary antibodies were detected
using Alexa Fluor 488 and/or 568 secondary antibodies, followed by washes with 0.3% PBSTX.

The staining was assessed using Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescent stereo microscope and
samples were stored in 0.3% PBSTX at 4°C until imaging.
203

Hybridization Chain Reaction
The (HCR) kit, probes, *vip* (Accession number: NM_001114553.3) and *slc18a3a* (Accession
number: NM_001077550.1), and hairpins were from Molecular Instruments, Inc.
(https://www.molecularinstruments.com) and the HCR protocol was performed as previously
described (Ibarra-García-Padilla et al., 2021) with minor modifications. The HCR protocol was
followed by immunostaining. The fixed samples stored in 100% methanol were rehydrated in
graded methanol series, permeabilized with pre-chilled acetone at −20°C for 25 min, treated
with 20 μg of Proteinase K for 1 h at room temperature, refixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 20 min,
and washed with PBS-Tween before hybridization. For HCR hybridization, samples were pre-
hybridized at 37°C, incubated with a probe mixture (4 μL of each 1 μM probe set stock) for 12–
16 hours, washed to remove excess probes, and amplified for 12–16 hours, followed by
sequential washes (Ibarra-García-Padilla et al., 2021). For antibody staining, samples were
blocked in 5% goat serum, incubated with primary anti-mouse GFP (1:300, catalog number
A11120) antibodies overnight at 4°C, washed extensively, and incubated with secondary
antibodies overnight (Ibarra-García-Padilla et al., 2021). Throughout the protocol, samples were
protected from light to prevent photobleaching, ensuring optimal visualization of hybridization
and staining results. Afterward, stained samples were stored in PBST at 4°C until imaging.
221

Imaging, data acquisition, and quantification
For analysis of colocalization and quantification, intestines were dissected with forceps and
mounted on glass slides in 0.3% PBSTX and covered with a coverslip. For the analysis of Gal4-
based reporter co-expression with the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D, mounted intestines were
imaged on a Zeiss Axio Imager microscope operated through the ZEN software to determine
colocalization. Confocal z-stacks images were captured using the 3i spinning disk confocal
microscope with a 10, 20, or 60× objectives, operated through Slidebook6 software (Version
6.0.13). For cell quantification, z-stacks were generated from confocal stacks in Slidebook6,
which were used for manual cell counts and colocalization analysis. For analysis within gut
regions, the images of the intestine were divided into three sections - anterior, middle, and
posterior - as previously described (Jianlong Li et al., 2024; Wallace et al., 2005). Cell counts
were normalized to 200 μm to account for varying lengths of each of gut regions between larvae
and to 1000 μm for the whole gut.

Analysis of neuron morphology

To analyze morphological changes in neurons after MTZ exposure, control and MTZ-treated larvae were euthanized at the timepoint indicated, their intestines were dissected, mounted on glass slide in PBS and imaged on the 3i spinning disk confocal microscope with a 60× objective, operated through Slidebook6 software (Version 6.0.13).

Gut anterograde movements analysis

Larvae from control and treated groups were fasted 24 hours prior to analysis, anesthetized with MS-222, and embedded in 0.8% low-melting-point agarose. Videos of the gut region from midgut to posterior were recorded on the Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 fluorescent stereo microscope with ZEN Imaging Software (ZEN 2.3 blue edition). All time lapse videos were recorded using the same conditions, including exposure time (206s), frame rate (100 frames / 206 sec), and pixels (2752 x 2208). The total number of anterograde, peristaltic wave movements was analyzed from the recorded videos. The Peristaltic Wave Interval (PWI) time was calculated as: PWI = T/N where PWI represents the average time interval (in seconds) between two consecutive anterograde peristaltic movements. The total duration of each video (T, in seconds) and the total number of peristaltic movements observed (N) were recorded.

Statistical Analysis

For multiple comparisons, one-way and two-way ANOVA were applied to normally distributed data, while the non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis test was used when the data violated the assumption of normality. For pairwise comparisons, unpaired t-tests were used for normally distributed data, and the Mann–Whitney test was used for non-normally distributed data. To evaluate temporal changes across multiple time points in regeneration studies, multiple unpaired t-tests were performed between MTZ-treated and control larvae. For fractional analysis of neuronal colocalization patterns, descriptive statistics were applied. All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9.1 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). A significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ was used to determine statistically significant differences.

Results

Identification of Gal4 driver line for specific ablation of ENS neurons

To identify a Gal4 driver line for maximizing the breadth and selectivity of ENS neuron ablations,

we crossed three Gal4 gene-trap driver lines (*495A:Gal4; 234A:Gal4; 217B:Gal4*) with a *UAS*

reporter line to analyze the extent and specificity of reporter gene expression in the ENS and

surrounding tissues. To determine if reporter gene expression is primarily restricted to ENS

neurons, thereby minimizing off-target ablation, we investigated reporter gene co-expression

with the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D in the ENS at 5 dpf (*495A:Gal4xUAS:GFP*,

234A:Gal4xUAS:NTR:DsRed) and at 5, 6 and 7 dpf (*217B:Gal4xUAS:GFP*, **Figure 2**). Our

analysis revealed notable differences in the co-expression profiles among the driver lines.

Intestines of the *234A:Gal4* and *217B:Gal4* driver lines exhibited higher number of neurons co-

expressing HuC/D+ and Reporter with only a small population of HuC/D-/Reporter+ and

HuC/D+/Reporter- cells (**Figure 2A-B**). In contrast, intestines of the *495A:Gal4* line displayed

only about half HuC/D+/Reporter+ cells with many reporter+ cells being HuC/D- and

HuC/D+/Reporter- cells (**Figure 2A**). Comparatively, both the *234A:Gal4* and *217B:Gal4* lines

had sufficient Reporter+ cells in the gut. However, *234A:Gal4* drives extensive reporter gene

expression outside the ENS and in ENS progenitor cells (Heanue et al., 2016), which would

lead to ablation of additional, non-targeted cells. Therefore, we chose the *217B:Gal4* line to

maximize the extent and specificity of ENS neuron ablation (**Figure 2B**).

Figure 2. Identification of Gal4 driver line for specific ENS neuron ablation. (A-B) The bar graphs show colocalization percentage of the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D with Reporter (Rep) expression within the gut for Gal4 driver. **(A)** For the *234A:Gal4* line, most Rep+ cells are HuC/D+ at 5 dpf (81.3% HuC/D+/Rep+). The remaining cells consist of 12.7% HuC/D+/ Rep- and 6.0% HuC/D-/Rep+ (n = 12 larvae, 2 experiments). For the *495A:Gal* line, only 55% cells are HuC/D+/Rep+ at 5 dpf, the remaining cells are 23.5% HuC/D+/ Rep- and 21.2% HuC/D-/Rep+ (n = 12 larvae, 2 experiments). **(B)** For the *217B:Gal4* line, there is a high degree of overlap between Rep and HuC/D expression {(85.3% (5dpf), 85.7% (6dpf), and 90.2% (7dpf)}. The remaining cells consist of HuC/D+/ Rep- {14% (5dpf) 12.3% (6dpf) and 9.0% (7 dpf)} and HuC/D-/Rep+ {0.7% (5dpf), 2.0% (6dpf), and 0.8% (7 dpf)}, n = 13 (5dpf), 15 (6dpf), and 14 (7dpf) larvae, 2 experiments per time point. dpf = days post fertilization.

Establishing a robust chemical-genetic ablation assay for ENS neuron

To establish a robust ENS neuron ablation assay, we used offspring from a cross between the

217B:Gal4 and *UAS:YFP-NTR 2.0* transgenic lines that co-express YFP and NTR 2.0 in cells in

the gut (YFP+). To ablate YFP-NTR 2.0 expressing cells, we treated YFP+ larvae with 400 µM

MTZ for 24hrs (Sharrock et al., 2022) starting at 5 or 12 dpf. To assess the extent of ENS cell

loss, we quantified YFP+ cells at 6 dpf and 13 dpf (1 dpt for MTZ-treated larvae). In untreated

controls, no significant difference in YFP+ cells was observed between 5 and 6 dpf, or 12 and

13 dpf. Conversely, MTZ-treated groups showed a near-complete loss of YFP+ cell numbers at

1 dpt compared to 0 dpt (before treatment) and untreated control (**Figure 3**).

As 24 hrs of MTZ treatment showed robust YFP+ cell ablation at both developmental stages, we

decided to move forward with MTZ treatment at 12 dpf for further analyses. Embryonic

neurogenesis is still very active at 5 dpf (Olden et al., 2008; Roy-Carson et al., 2017). Therefore,

ablating neurons at 5 dpf might include processes of developmental neurogenesis rather than of

neuronal regeneration which we aimed to avoid.

To confirm that YFP+ cells are neurons at 12 dpf, we analyzed co-expression of YFP and

HuC/D in *217B:Gal4*; *UAS:YFP-NTR 2.0* fish. We found that 96.3% of YFP+ cells were also

HuC/D+ indicating that the vast majority of YFP+ cells are ENS neurons while only 3.7% YFP+

cells are HuC/D- (**Figure S2**). Therefore, we will hereafter refer to YFP+ cells in these lines as

YFP+ neurons. Based on total HuC/D+ numbers, our quantification also showed that YFP+

neurons comprise 22% of the total ENS neuronal population (data not shown).

Figure 3. Establishment of a robust ENS neuron ablation assay. (A) The timeline of days post fertilization (dpf) and days post treatment (dpt) illustrates the experimental procedure for MTZ treatments initiated at either 5 or 12 dpf. **(B)** Whole-mount side views of live larval guts at the stage indicated. Left panel: YFP+ neurons (white dots) are present before treatment (0 dpt) at 5 or 12 dpf in YFP+ larvae. Right panel: after 24 h treatment with 400 µM Metronidazole (MTZ), YFP+ cells are completely absent in MTZ-treated fish (YFP+ MTZ) but present in untreated controls (YFP+ control). **(C)** Quantification of YFP+ neurons in control and MTZ-treated groups (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments). Scale bar = 100 µm; Data are shown as mean ± SD. Statistical significance ****$p < 0.0001$.

YFP+ neurons undergo DNA-damage induced cell death after MTZ treatment

To test if YFP+ neurons undergo cell death after MTZ treatment, we evaluated changes in

neuronal morphology and performed TUNEL assay to detect cells undergoing cell death. YFP+

neurons in untreated control larvae displayed normal morphology with no visible signs of

morphological changes (**Figure 4A**). In contrast, YFP+ neurons in MTZ-treated samples

exhibited significant morphological changes, including axonal and cell body fragmentation and

retraction of neuronal processes, consistent with neurons undergoing cell death {**Figure 4**,

(Cusack et al., 2014)}. Additionally, we conducted TUNEL assays combined with

immunostaining for YFP to assess DNA damage in control and MTZ-treated fish at 6 hours post

treatment (hpt). As expected, we found GFP+/TUNEL+ cells both treated and control groups

since apoptotic cell death is a natural ongoing process at 12 dpf (Lee et al., 2023). However,

significantly higher number of GFP+/TUNEL+ cells were observed in the MTZ-treated group

compared to YFP+ untreated control (**Figure 4B, C**). In addition, GFP+/TUNEL+ neurons

exhibited clear morphological changes indicating that these neurons were undergoing cell death

(**Figure 4D**). These results indicate that MTZ treatment induces DNA damage which leads to

cell death with pronounced structural alterations attending this process.

Figure 4. MTZ treatment induces DNA-damage cell death in YFP+ neurons. (A) In 12 dpf larvae, YFP+ neurons displays normal neuronal morphology in the untreated control group, while MTZ treated YFP+ neurons show fragmented and retracted neuronal processes at 1 hpt (white arrowheads; n=6 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(B)** At 6 hpt, there is an increase in TUNEL staining (magenta) in YFP+ neurons (anti-GFP immunostaining) in MTZ treated larvae compared to untreated controls. In YFP+ control group, GFP+ neurons have normal morphology. In contrast, GFP+ neurons in the MTZ-treated group show fragmented morphology indicative of cell death. **(C)** Quantification of GFP+/TUNEL+ cells shows significant increase in YFP+ MTZ-treated larvae compared to YFP+ untreated control (n= 9 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(D)** Magnified images of

GFP+/TUNEL+ cells (white arrowhead) in the YFP+ MTZ-treated group. (A-D) Maximum projection confocal images of dissected intestines at 1 hpt (A) and 6 hpt (B, D). Scale bars = 20 µm in A; 100 µm in B; 40 µm in D; Statistical significance: ***p < 0.001; dpf = days post fertilization; hpt = hours post treatment.

YFP+ neurons regenerate following targeted ablation

Next, we investigated whether YFP+ neuron numbers were restored to control levels, which would indicate that they regenerate after MTZ treatment. We quantified YFP+ neuron along the whole gut at different time points before and after treatment in YFP+ MTZ and YFP+ control larvae. YFP+ control larvae exhibited an obvious neuronal network from 0 to 15 dpt (**Figure 5A-B**). In contrast, YFP+ neuronal numbers were reduced in the YFP+ MTZ larvae at 1 dpt, confirming successful ablation of YFP+ neurons (**Figure 5A-B**). By 2 dpt, we find a small number of YFP+ neurons along with developing neurites that bridge across the gut (**Figure S3**). YFP+ neuron numbers continue to increase, but through 6 dpt there was a significant difference in YFP+ numbers compared to the control group. By 9 dpt, regenerated YFP+ neuron numbers reached levels comparable to the controls and remained at control levels through 12 and 15 dpt (**Figure 5A-B**). We noticed that approximately half of the YFP+ MTZ larvae exhibited abnormal body posture after 9 dpt. To investigate whether this affected YFP+ neuron regeneration, we compared regenerated YFP+ neuron counts in larvae with normal posture and those with defective posture at 12 dpt but found no significant difference (**Figure S4**). This indicates that postural defects did not impact neuron regeneration. To determine if there were differences in the timeline of neuron regeneration within discrete gut regions compared to the whole gut, we quantified YFP+ neurons in three main gut regions - anterior, midgut, and posterior (Jianlong Li et al., 2024; Wallace et al., 2005). We found that the timeline of YFP+ neuron regeneration was the same in the three gut regions as in the whole gut (**Figure 5C, B-F**).

Figure 5. Timeline of YFP+ neuron regeneration in the whole intestine and defined gut regions.

(A) YFP+ neurons (labelled with anti-GFP antibody) and the neuronal network in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ zebrafish larvae at 0 (before treatment) and 1, 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15 dpt. **(B)** YFP+ control larvae exhibited consistent GFP+ neuron numbers till 6 dpt with a slight decrease by 9 through 15 dpt. In contrast, the YFP+ MTZ group showed a dramatic decrease in YFP+ neurons, confirming complete ablation of YFP+ neurons ($p < 0.001$) at 1 dpt. A small number of YFP+ neurons appeared by 3 and 6 dpt, but YFP+ neuron numbers were still significantly decreased compared to the control. By 9 dpt, neuronal number fully recovered

with no significant difference between treated and controls at 9, 12 and 15 dpt. **(C)** Schematic representation of the zebrafish gut regions shows the three analyzed gut regions (magenta = anterior, green = midgut, blue = posterior) at 0–9 dpt and 12–18 dpt based on Jianlong Li et al. (2024) and Wallace et al. (2005). Anterior **(D)**, mid **(E)** and posterior **(F)** gut regions show the same timeline of YFP+ neuron regeneration as the whole gut **(B)**. **(A)** Maximum projection confocal images of dissected intestines at time point indicated; Scale bar = 100 µm; Data are presented as mean ± SD (10 larvae per group, 2 experiments); Statistical significance: ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01 and *p < 0.05; dpt = days post treatment

Effect of YFP+ neuron ablation on other ENS neurons

As shown before, YFP+ neurons colocalized with a small subset of HuC/D+ neurons, indicating that only a fraction of ENS neurons were ablated (**Figure 6A, B, S2**). To assess if ablation of YFP+ neurons has any effects on the YFP- ENS neuronal population, we quantified HuC/D+ neurons in YFP+ MTZ and YFP+ control groups at 0 dpt (before treatment) and 1dpt (**Figure 6**). We found no significant difference in HuC/D+ neuron numbers between treated and control groups after ablation of YFP+ neuron (**Figure 6C**). This lack of significance may be due to the relatively small proportion of YFP+ neurons within the total HuC/D+ population - approximately 40 out of 300 neurons. Additionally, MTZ treatment alone in YFP- MTZ treated larvae did not significantly decrease overall HuC/D numbers (**Figure S5**).

Figure 6. YFP+ neuron loss does not significantly affect YFP- enteric neuron numbers.
(A) At 12 dpf (before treatment, 0 dpt), the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D (magenta) and YFP+
cells (labeled with anti-GFP, green) show high colocalization (overlay). **(B)** Following MTZ
treatment at 13dpf (1dpt), GFP-HuC/D+ cells are present, whereas GFP+ cells are completely
absent due to ablation of YFP+ neurons. **(C)** Quantification of HuC/D-positive neuron counts
before (0 dpt) and after MTZ treatment (1dpt). There was no significant difference in total
HuC/D+ cells between control and treatment group (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments).
(A-B) Maximum projection confocal images of dissected intestines. Scale bar = 100 μm; Data
are presented as mean ± SD, ns = not significant; dpf = days post fertilization; dpt = days post
treatment

Specific co-expressed neuronal subtypes regenerate following ablation

The ENS is composed of different neuron subtypes which control the different functions of the
gut including gut motility (Holmberg et al., 2006; Roach et al., 2013; Uyttebroek et al., 2010).
The main neuronal subtypes in the zebrafish ENS are nitrergic neurons (neuronal nitric oxide
synthase+ (nNOS+), serotonergic (5-hydroxytryptamine+ (5-HT+), vipergic (*vasoactive intestinal
peptide*+ (*vip*+), and cholinergic (*solute carrier family 18 member 3a*+ (*slc18a3a*+) neurons
(Uyttebroek et al., 2010). To determine the subtype composition within the YFP+ neuronal

population, we analyzed co-expression of these subtype markers with YFP at 12 dpf, prior to

MTZ treatment. At 0 dpt, we found that 57.54%, 12.26%, 13.33%, and 6.58% of YFP+ neurons

co-expressed nNOS, 5-HT, *vip*, and *slc18a3a*, respectively, indicating the presence of distinct

YFP+ neuronal subtypes prior to ablation (**Figure S6**).

To examine if all YFP+ expressing subtypes regenerated at 9 dpt, we analyzed the number of

YFP+/subtype+ neurons in the MTZ-treated group and compared them to untreated control and

baseline at 0 dpt control. Notably, the number of YFP+/nNOS+ neurons remained unchanged

between 0 control and 9 dpt control, and there was no significant difference between MTZ-

treated and control group, suggesting robust stability and regenerative capacity for

YFP+/nNOS+ neurons (**Figure 7A, B**). Analysis of YFP+/5-HT+ neurons revealed no significant

difference between 0 dpt control and the 9 dpt control group. However, in the MTZ-treated

group, the number of YFP+/5-HT+ neurons at 9 dpt remained significantly lower compared to

control, indicating a limited or delayed regenerative capacity for this neuronal subtype (**Figure**

7C, D).

Using HCR to detect *vip* and *slc18a3a* expression, we found that the number of YFP+/*vip*+

neurons significantly decreased within the control group between 0 and 9 dpt. However, no

significant difference was observed between the MTZ-treated and control groups at 9 dpt,

suggesting that YFP+/*vip*+ neurons had successfully regenerated by this time point (**Figure 8A,**

B). Lastly, analysis of the cholinergic marker *slc18a3a* showed no significant differences across

groups, indicating that YFP+/*slc18a3a*+ neurons remained stable in the control group and were

successfully restored following regeneration (**Figure 8C, D**).

Overall, these findings suggest that the majority of YFP+ cells are nitrergic neurons before

ablation. After regeneration, YFP+/nNOS+, YFP+/*vip*+ and YFP+/*slc18a3a*+ neurons are

successfully restored. In contrast the YFP+/5-HT+ neurons exhibited lower and/or slower

regenerative capacity compared to the other subtypes.

Figure 7: YFP+/nNOS+ but not YFP+/5-HT+ neurons regenerate following ablation.
(A) Example of nNOS+ (magenta) and YFP+ (labeled with anti-GFP antibody, green) neurons that co-localize (overlay) at 0 dpt control (before treatment) and at 9 dpt in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ groups (white arrowheads). **(B)** Quantification of GFP+/nNOS+ neurons at 0 dpt control and 9 dpt in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ shows no significant difference (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(C)** Example of 5-HT (magenta) and YFP+ (labeled with anti-GFP antibody, green) neurons that co-localize (overlay) at 0 dpt control and 9 dpt in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ groups (white arrowheads). **(D)** Quantification of GFP+/5-HT+ at 0 dpt control and 9 dpt in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ. There is no significant difference between 0 dpt and 9 dpt in the YFP+ control group, but GFP+/5-HT+ neurons are significantly

reduced in in the MTZ-treated group compared to the control group at 9 dpt (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(A, C)** Maximum projection confocal images of dissected intestines at stage indicated; Scale bars = 10 µm; Data are presented as mean ± SD; Statistical significance: ***p < 0.001 and *p < 0.05; ns = non-significant difference; dpt = days post treatment.

Figure 8. YFP+/*vip*+ and YFP+/*slc18a3a*+ neuron regenerate following ablation.
(A) Example of *vip* (magenta) and YFP+ (labeled with anti-GFP antibody, green) neurons that co-localize (overlay) at 0 dpt control (before treatment), and 9 dpt in YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ (white arrowheads). **(B)** Quantification of GFP+/*vip*+ neuron at 0 dpt control and 9 dpt in both YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ groups. A significant difference is observed between 0 dpt

and 9 dpt control groups. However, there is no significant difference between 9 dpt control and MTZ-treated groups (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(C)** Example of *slc18a3a* (magenta) and YFP+ (labeled with anti-GFP antibody, green) neurons that co-localize (overlay) at 0 dpt control and 9 dpt of YFP+ control and YFP+ MTZ (white arrowheads). **(D)** Quantification of GFP+/*slc18a3a*+ neurons shows no significant difference between the groups (n = 10 larvae per group, 2 experiments). **(A, C)** Maximum projection confocal images at stage indicated. Scale bars = 10 μm; Data are presented as mean ± SD; Statistical significance: ***p < 0.001 and **p < 0.01; ns = non-significant difference; dpt = days post treatment.

Decreased gut wave movements recover to control levels after neuronal regeneration

ENS neurons play a critical role in regulating gut motility (Furness, 2012; Kunze & Furness, 1999), thus, we aimed to determine i) whether the loss of YFP+ neurons affects gut motility and ii) whether the regenerated neurons restore gut function lost after ablation. To assess this, we examined one measure of gut motility, the time of the Peristaltic Wave Interval (PWI) of anterograde movements (Holmberg et al., 2006). We measured the PWI at three different time points at 1 dpt, 3 dpt and 9 dpt in YFP+ and YFP- MTZ treated fish, and YFP+ untreated controls. We included the YFP- MTZ treated group to determine if MTZ treatment alone impacted PWI. At 1 dpt, we found no significant difference in the PWI time between control and treated groups (**Figure 9A, Supplementary Videos S1-3**). However, at 3 dpt, the PWI time in the YFP+ MTZ treated group increased significantly compared to both control groups, suggesting slower peristaltic movement in the YFP+ MTZ group (**Figure 9B, supplementary videos S4-6**). At 9 dpt, the PWI time in the YFP+ MTZ treated group was back to control levels (**Figure 9C, supplementary videos S7-9**). Overall, our results suggest that gut motility function is affected after YFP+ neuronal loss and then restored after regeneration, indicating functional recovery.

Figure 9. Peristaltic Interval Wave time recovers at 9 dpt after YFP+ neuron ablation. (A) At 1 dpt, there is no significant difference in gut PWI time across all experimental groups, YFP+ MTZ treated, YFP+ untreated control, YFP- MTZ treated. **(B)** At 3 dpt, YFP+MTZ treated larvae showed significantly slower gut PWI time compared to both control groups. **(C)** At 9 dpt, there was no significant difference in PWI across all experimental groups. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 6 larvae per group, 2 experiments). Statistical significance is indicated as **p < 0.01, ns = non-significant. dpt = days post treatment.

Discussion

The topic of reparative regeneration has gained significant attention the past decade due to its

potential therapeutic implications, for example to treat ENS diseases with loss of ENS neurons. Yet,

to date, no study has demonstrated functional ENS neuron regeneration either in mammalian

models or in zebrafish. In the present study, we show targeted ablation and functional regeneration

of ENS neurons for the first time in zebrafish (**Figure 10**). Our results determined the spatial and

temporal dynamics of targeted neuron loss as demonstrated by TUNEL assays and the recovery of

ablated neuron numbers by 9 dpt of the majority on ENS neuron subtypes investigated. Specifically,

among the regenerated neurons, we found full recovery of nitrergic, cholinergic, and vipergic

subtypes. Importantly, we also showed functional impacts of neuronal ablation on a gut motility

parameter and its full functional recovery suggesting functional regeneration in our system (**Figure**

10).

Figure 10. Timeline of events after targeted ablation and regeneration of ENS neurons in zebrafish. Timeline from 0 dpt / 12 dpf to 9 dpt / 21 dpf depicts the different events: i) Neuronal subtype composition of YFP+ neuron population at 0 dpt; ii) Chemical-genetic ablation approach activates cell death of YFP+ neurons to completely ablate YFP+ neurons; iii) neuronal regeneration at 3 and 6 dpt which affects gut peristalsis at 3 dpt; iv) complete regeneration of YFP+ cells and functional recovery at 9 dpt. **Panel 1** (0 dpt / 12 dpf): YFP+ cells co-localize with the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D and various neuronal subtypes (nNOS, 5-HT, *vip*, and *slc18a31a*). **Panel 2** (1 dpt / 13 dpf): Set-up of Gal4-UAS:NTR 2.0 based ablation system. MTZ treatment induces DNA-damage cell death in YFP+ neurons as confirmed by TUNEL assay. **Panel 3** (3 dpt / 15 dpf): Neuronal ablation resulted in increased peristaltic wave interval time, reflecting reduced gut motility. **Panel 4** (9 dpt / 21 dpf): Complete recovery of YFP+ neurons and most neuronal subtypes (nNOS+, *vip*+, *slc18a31*+), except 5-HT+ neurons and full functional recovery of gut motility. dpf = days post fertilization, dpt = days post treatment.

Extensive ENS neuron ablation and their complete regeneration in zebrafish

In zebrafish, the only two studies to study ENS neurons regeneration used laser ablation to target few ENS neurons in a small gut region. Both studies reported generation of new neurons following ablation (El-Nachef & Bronner, 2020, Ohno et al., 2021). However, quantification of regenerated

neurons showed that they did not return to control levels in the analyzed time frame, nor were

impacts of gut function investigated (Ohno et al., 2021). In our study, we find robust regeneration of

ablated cells to control levels by 9 dpt which stay at control levels through 15 dpt, the last time point

that we analyzed. We find that different neuronal subtypes are able to regenerate but identify

interesting subtype-specific differences in regenerative capacity or timing (**Figure 10**). Our work also

shows for the first time recovery of a parameter of gut function - gut wave propagation - indicative of

successful functional regeneration (**Figure 10**). In addition, our approach has several experimental

advantages compared to laser ablation. First, laser ablation is less efficient, as it can only ablate a

limited number of neurons within specific gut regions (El-Nachef & Bronner, 2020, Ohno et al.,

2021). For instance, one study only ablated ~16 neurons within one-somite-width of the posterior gut

at 10-15 dpf (Ohno et al., 2021). In contrast, our genetic chemical ablation system successfully

ablated on average 44 neurons throughout the whole gut, significantly improving efficiency. Second,

laser ablation is time-consuming as it requires individual larval preparation and precise manual

targeting (Ohno et al., 2021). In contrast, our methods enable the simultaneous ablation of ENS

neurons in several hundred of larvae. Third, laser irradiation can cause unintended damage to non-

neuronal, surrounding tissues, including smooth muscle and epithelial cells, which may impact

regeneration and complicate downstream analyses such as gut motility. In contrast, our approach is

spatiotemporally controlled ablation that precisely targets only specific ENS neurons and had no

deleterious effects on the overall neuronal population in the gut (**Figure 10**).

Zebrafish are a powerful model system to study ENS regeneration

So far, ENS regeneration research has mostly focused on mammalian model systems with only

limited work in non-mammalian models such as zebrafish (Corvetti et al., 2001; El-Nachef &

Bronner, 2020; Gabella & Trigg, 1984; Galligan et al., 1989; Hanani et al., 2003; Jew et al., 1989;

Joseph et al., 2011; Karaosmanoğlu et al., 1996; Laranjeira et al., 2011; Luck et al., 1993; Ohno et

al., 2021; Stavely et al., 2024; Tokui et al., 1994). Previous studies in mammalian models involving

surgical (Galligan et al., 1989; Karaosmanoğlu et al., 1996; Tokui et al., 1994), stenosis (Corvetti et

al., 2001; Gabella & Trigg, 1984; Jew et al., 1989; Joseph et al., 2011), and chemical (Hanani et al.,

2003; Laranjeira et al., 2011; Luck et al., 1993) ablation methods consistently report incomplete

neuronal regeneration, and gut region- or species-specific differences in regenerative outcomes of

ENS neurons (Rueckert and Ganz, 2022). Notably, all previous approaches also reported structural

abnormalities at the injury site by co-lateral damage of surrounding tissues. To addresses this,

recent works in adult mice reported focal ablation specifically of ENS neurons using a chemical-

genetic ablation approach (Bhave et al., 2019; Stavely et al., 2024). Even though this study reported

that mature, post-mitotic enteric neurons in adult mice can regenerate axons and reinnervate the gut after injury, there was still limited regeneration of neurons even three months after ablation (Stavely et al., 2024). This indicates that mammals have limited ENS regenerative abilities which may be due to lack of signals or progenitor cells that enable full neuronal regeneration.

In contrast, the present study demonstrates that zebrafish are a powerful model to study the signals and cellular-molecular processes underlying functional ENS regeneration. Our spatio-temporally controlled approach ablates approximately one fifth of all ENS neurons by inducing cell death with subsequent full recovery after only 9 days. Ablation along the entire gut will enable the analysis of cellular responses and gene regulatory programs active during ENS regeneration as whole guts can be analyzed. This approach thus provides a rapid experimental setup to identify the signals and cellular responses important for neuronal regeneration in the ENS in the future (**Figure 10**).

Regeneration of neurons in the zebrafish CNS *vs* ENS

The zebrafish central nervous system has been extensively studied with regards to its regenerative capacity (Kaslin et al., 2009, 2013; März et al., 2010) while little is known about ENS regeneration (Ohno et al., 2021). In the central nervous system, brain regions show different capacities to regenerate neuronal subtypes. In the zebrafish telencephalon, all ablated neuron types regenerate (Barbosa et al., 2015; Kroehne et al., 2011; Reimer et al., 2008), whereas the cerebellum is capable of regenerating many, but not all neuron types (Kaslin et al., 2017). This variable regenerative capacity of the cerebellum has been attributed to varying ability of cerebellar stem and progenitor cells to generate neurons and glia throughout the lifespan (Kaslin et al., 2009, 2013). We also find differences in regeneration of neuron types in the ENS where some subtypes (nitrergic, cholinergic and vipergic) regenerate fully, whereas serotonergic neurons do not reach control levels (**Figure 10**). There could be two possibilities for this difference in regeneration: (1) serotonergic neurons take longer to regenerate, (2) the progenitor cells or cellular mechanisms to regenerate serotonergic neurons are not activated at this stage of post-embryonic development. Further work will determine which cellular responses are triggered after cell ablation and the progenitor population(s) that generate new ENS neurons and neuronal subtypes in zebrafish.

Supplementary Materials

The following supporting information can be downloaded at: https:

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: M.A.S, K.K. M., H.R., J.G. Methodology, Data curation, Validation, Formal Analysis and Investigation: M.A.S, K.K. M., H.R. Visualization: M.A.S. Writing—Original Draft

Preparation: M.A.S. Writing—Review and Editing: M.A.S, K.K. M., H.R., A.V.S., D.F.A., J.S.M., and J.G. Supervision, Project Administration, Funding Acquisition and Recourses: D.F.A., J.S.M., J.G. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Conflicts of Interest
The authors declare no competing or financial interests

List of Abbreviations
ENS = Enteric nervous system
MTZ = Metronidazole
HSCR = Hirschsprung Disease
DPF = Days post fertilization
DPT = Days post treatment
HPT = Hours post treatment
NTR = Nitroreductase
YFP = Yellow fluorescent protein
GFP = Green fluorescent protein
UAS = Upstream activating sequence
PWI = Peristaltic Wave Interval
TdT = Terminal deoxynucleotidyl Transferase
BSA = Bovin serum albumin

PBS = Phosphate-Buffered Saline

HCR = Hybridization Chain Reaction

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Supplementary figures

Figure S1: Inducing cell death shows an expected increase in TUNEL+ cells.
Inducing cell death as a positive control results in a high number of TUNEL-positive cells (magenta, middle panel) in YFP+ control (green) larvae at 6 hpt (n= 9 larvae, 2 experiments). Maximum projection confocal images of dissected intestine. Scale bar = 100 µm; hpt = hours post treatment.

Figure S2. The majority of the YFP+ cells are ENS neurons at 12 dpf

(A) At 12 dpf, YFP+ cells {(labeled with anti-GFP (top, green)} and the pan-neuronal marker HuC/D+ cells (middle, magenta) show high amount of colocalization (bottom, overlay; n= 10 larvae, 2 experiments). **(B)** Bar graph shows the quantification of GFP+/HuC/D+, GFP+/HuC/D- and GFP-/HuC/D+ cells. **(C)** Bar graph shows the percentage of YFP+ cells that are HuC/D+ and HuC/D- cells. Data presented as mean ± SD; Scale bar = 100 µm. dpf = days post fertilization.

Figure S3. Regenerating neurites in YFP+ neurons following ablation.

At 2 dpt, newly generated YFP+ neurons form neurites as the beginning step of neuron regeneration. Upper panel: at 1 dpt there is complete ablation of YFP+ neurons. Lower panel: at 2 dpt developing neurites that form a bridge (arrow) between the newly generated neurons (6 larvae, 2 experiments). Maximum projection of confocal image of dissected intestine. Scale bar = 100 µm; dpt = days post treatment

Figure S4. Abnormalities in body posture does not affect YFP+ neurons regeneration.
Left panel: The bar graph shows the number of regenerated YFP+ neurons in normally developed larvae compared to those with defective body posture at 12 days post treatment (n = 8 larvae, 2 experiments). Right panel: Whole-mount side views of larvae at stage indicated. Data presented as mean ± SD; ns = no statistically significant differences. Scale bar = 100 μm.

Figure S5. MTZ treatment of YFP- larvae does not affect neuron numbers.

Quantification of HuC/D+ neurons in the gut in YFP- MTZ treated and YFP+ untreated controls at 12dpf (before MTZ treatment) and 13dpf (after MTZ treatment). Bar graph shows the number of HuC/D+ cells. No significant difference was observed between treatment groups (n = 10 larvae, 2 experiments). Data presented as mean ± SD; ns = not significant, dpt = days post treatment.

Figure S6. The YFP+ neuronal population consists of different neuronal subtypes at 12 days post fertilization. Quantification of YFP and neuronal subtype colocalization. Bar graph shows the percentage of co-expression of each subtype marker with YFP at 12 days post fertilization / 0 day post treatment (n = 10 larvae, 2 experiments). Data presented as mean.

812 **Supplementary videos have been uploaded to the designated repository.**

Groups	Video description
1dpt	Video S1 = YFP- MTZ
	Video S2 = YFP+ control

	Video S3 = YFP+ MTZ
3dpt	Video S4 = YFP- MTZ
	Video S5 = YFP+ control
	Video S6 = YFP+ MTZ
9dpt	Video S7 = YFP- MTZ
	Video S8 = YFP+ control
	Video S9 = YFP+ MTZ
dpt = days post treatment	

813